



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

### **Usage guidelines**

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

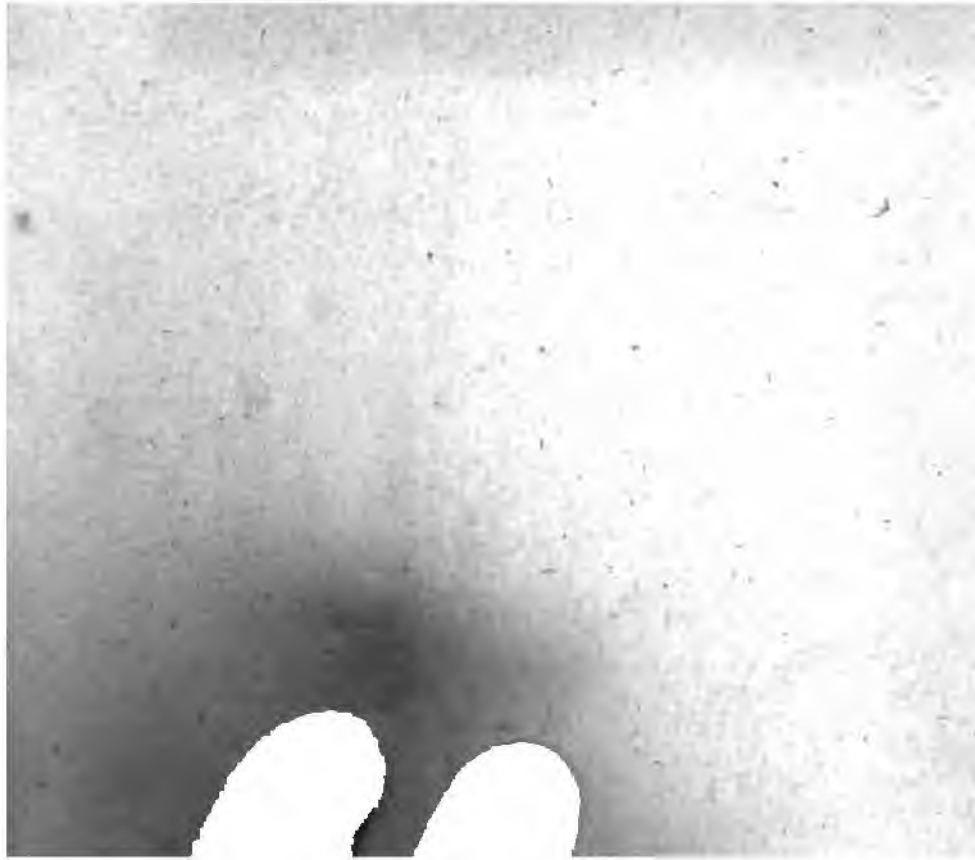
### **About Google Book Search**

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>













THE  
NEW ENCYCLOPÆDIA;  
OR,  
UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY  
OF  
ARTS AND SCIENCES.

IN WHICH

*The different Sciences and Arts are digested into the Form of distinct Treatises or Systems :*

Including the

LATEST DISCOVERIES AND IMPROVEMENTS;

WITH THE NATURAL, CIVIL, MILITARY, AND COMMERCIAL HISTORY, AND BIOGRAPHY OF EMINENT MEN,

OF ALL NATIONS;

A DESCRIPTION OF

ALL THE COUNTRIES, CITIES, SEAS, RIVERS, &c. OF THE KNOWN WORLD.

Including also

THE WHOLE OF DR. JOHNSON'S

DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

COMPILED FROM EVERY SOURCE OF DOMESTIC AND FOREIGN LITERATURE; AND ILLUSTRATED WITH  
UPWARDS OF THREE HUNDRED AND FORTY PLATES,

AND A COMPLETE AND ACCURATE ATLAS.

IN TWENTY THREE VOLUMES.

---

---

VOL. X.

---

---

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR VERNOR, HOOD, AND SHARPE, 31, POULTRY;  
AND THOMAS OSTELL, AVE MARIA LANE.

R. Morison, Printer, Perth.

1807.





# ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS.

F O U

## FOUNDERY.

At the conclusion of our last Volume, (see page 714), we inserted this word in its proper order, with its different definitions, but had not sufficient room remaining in that volume to insert the various branches of this art, in the complete manner, which an article of such importance required.

1. **FOUNDERY OF BELLS.** The metal, it is to be observed, is different for bells from what is for statues; there being no tin in the latter; but there is a 5th, and sometimes more, in the bell-metal. The dimensions of the core and the wax for bells, if a ring of bells especially, are not left to chance, but must be measured on a scale, or diapason, which gives the height, aperture, and thickness, necessary for the several tones required. It is on the wax that the several mouldings and other ornaments and inscriptions, to be represented in relief on the outside of the bell, are formed. The clapper or tongue is not properly a part of the bell, but is furnished from other hands. In Europe, it is usually of iron, with a large knob at the extremity; and is suspended in the middle of the bell. In China, it is only a huge wooden mallet, struck by force of arm against the bell; whence they can have but little of that consonance so much admired in some of our rings of bells. The Chinese have an extraordinary way of increasing the sound of their bells, viz. by leaving a hole in the cannon; which our bell founders would reckon a defect. The proportions of our bells differ very much from those of the Chinese, as well as their sizes. See BELL, N° 1, § 5. In ours, the modern proportions are, to make the diameter 17 times the thickness of the brim, and the height 12 times. The parts of a bell are, 1. The sounding bow, terminated by an inferior circle, which grows thinner and thinner. 2. The brim or that part of a bell whereon the clapper strikes, and which is thicker than the rest. 3. The outward sinking of the middle of the bell, or the point under which it grows wider to the brim. 4. The waist or furniture, and the part that grows wider and thicker quite to the brim. 5. The upper vase, or that part which is above the waist. 6. The pallet which supports the staple of the clapper within. 7. The bent and hollow branches

Vol. X. PART I.

F O U

of metal uniting with the cannons, to receive the iron keys, whereby the bell is hung up to the beam which is its support and counterpoise, when rung out. The business of bell-foundery is reducible to three particulars. 1. The proportion of a bell. 2. The forming of the mould. And, 3. The melting of the metal. There are two kinds of proportions, viz. the simple and the relative; the former are those proportions only that are between the several parts of a bell to render it sonorous; the relative proportions establish a requisite harmony between several bells. The method of forming the profile of a bell, previous to its being cast, in which the proportion of the several parts may be seen, is as follows: the thickness of the brim, C1, *Plate CLV. fig. 12.* is the foundation of every other measure, and is divided into three equal parts. First, draw the line HF which represents the diameter of the bell; bisect it in F, and erect the perpendicular Ff; let DF and HF be also bisected in E and G, and two other perpendiculars Ee, Gg, be erected at E and G. GE will be the diameter of the top or upper vase, i. e. the diameter of the top will be half that of the bell; and it will, therefore, be the diameter of a bell which will found an octave to the other. Divide the diameter of the bell, or the line HD, into 15 equal parts, and one of these will give C the thickness of the brim; divide again each of these 15 equal parts into three other equal parts and then form a scale. From this scale take 12 of the larger divisions or two 15ths of the whole scale in the compass, and setting one leg in D describe an arc to cut the line Ee in N; draw ND, and divide this line into 12 equal parts; at the point 1 erect the perpendicular 1C = 10, and C1 will be the thickness of the brim = one 15th of the diameter: draw the line CD: bisect DN; and at the point of the bisection 6 erect the perpendicular 6K = 1½ of the larger divisions on the scale. With an opening of the compass equal to twice the length of the scale or 30 brims, setting one leg in N, describe an arc of a circle, and with the same leg in K and the same opening, describe another arc to intersect the former: on this point of intersection as a centre, and with a radius equal to 30 brims, describe the arc NK; in 6K produce take KB = ½ of the larger measure of the scale ½ of the brim, and on the same centre with

A

11



radius  $30\frac{1}{2}$  brims describe an arc AB parallel to NK. For the arc BC, take 12 divisions of the scale or 12 brims in the compass; find a centre, and from that centre, with this opening, describe the arc BC, in the same manner as NK or AB were described. There are various ways of describing the arc Kp; some describe it on a centre at the distance of nine brims from the points p and K; others, as it is done in the figure, on a centre at the distance only of seven brims from those points. But it is necessary first to find the point p, and to determine the rounding of the bell p. For this purpose, on the point C as a centre, and with the radius C 1, describe the arc 1 p n; bisect the part 1, 2, of the line D n, and erecting the perpendicular p m, this perpendicular will cut the arc 1 p n in m, which terminates the rounding 1 p. Some founders make the bendings K a third of a brim lower than the middle of the line DN; others make the part C 1 D more acute, and instead of making C 1 perpendicular to DN at 1, draw it one 6th of a brim higher; making it still equal to one brim; so that the line 1 D is longer than the brim C 1. In order to trace out the top part Nn, take in the compass eight divisions of the scale or 8 brims, and on the points N and D as centres, describe arcs to intersect each other in 8: on this point 8, with a radius of eight brims, describe the arc Nb; this arc will be the exterior curve of the top or crown: on the same point 8 as a centre, and with a radius equal to  $7\frac{1}{2}$  brims, describe the arc A c; and this will be the interior curve of the crown; and its whole thickness will be one third of the brim. As the point 8 does not fall in the axis of the bell, a centre M may be found in the axis by describing, with the interval of 8 brims on the centres D and H, arcs which will intersect in M; and this point may be made the centre of the inner and outer curves of the crown as before. The thickness of the cap, which strengthens the crown at Q, is about one third of the thickness of the brim; and the hollow branches or ears about one sixth of the diameter of the bell. The height of the bell is in proportion to its diameter as 12 to 15, or in the proportion of the fundamental sound to its third major: whence it follows that the sound of a bell is principally composed of the sound of its extremity or brim, as a fundamental of the sound of the crown which is an octave to it, and of that of the height which is a third. The particulars necessary for making the mould of a bell are, 1. The earth: the most cohesive is the best; it must be well ground and sifted, to prevent any chinks. 2. Brick stone; which must be used for the mine, mould, or core, and for the furnace. 3. Horse-dung, hair, and hemp, mixed with the earth, to render the cement more binding. 4. The wax for inscriptions, coats of arms, &c. 5. The tallow equally mixed with the wax, in order to put a slight lay of it upon the outer mould, before any letters are applied to it. 6. The coals to dry the mould. For making the mould, they have a scaffold consisting of four boards, ranged upon tr. ssels. Upon this they carry the earth, grossly diluted, to mix it with horse-dung, beating the whole with a large spatula. The compasses of construction are the chief instrument for making the mould: They

consist of two different legs joined by piece. And last of all, the founders are which are the engravings of the letters, coats of arms, &c. They first dig a sufficient depth to contain the mould of together with the case or cannon, under and about six inches lower than the level where the work is performed. The hole wide enough for a free passage between the end walls of the hole, or between one and another, when several bells are to be cast. At the centre of the hole is a stake erected strongly fastened in the ground. This is an iron peg, on which the pivot of the branch of the compasses turns. The stake is compassed with a solid brick work, perfectly about half a foot high, and of the proposed diameter. This they call a *millstone*. The top of the mould are, the core, the model of and the shell. When the outer surface of the mould is formed, they begin to raise the core, made of bricks that are laid in courses height upon a lay of plain earth. At the top of each brick, they bring near it the branch of the compasses, on which the curve of the shell is shaped, so as that there may remain between the curve the distance of a line, towards filled up with layers of cement. This is continued to the top, only leaving an opening for the coals to bake the core. This is covered with a layer of cement, made of horse-dung; on which they move the core of construction, to make it of an even firmness every where. The first layer being finished, they put the fire to the core, by filling it half way through an opening that is kept shut during the baking, with a cake of earth that has been rarely baked. The first fire consumes the earth, and the fire is left in the core half or some whole day: the first layer being thorough they cover it with a second, third, and fourth, each being smoothed by the board of the shell, and thoroughly dried before they put another. The core being completed, they divide the compasses to pieces, with intent to cut the thickness of the model, and the compasses immediately put in their place to begin the shell piece of the mould. It consists of a mixture of earth and hair, applied with the hand to the core, in several cakes that close together. The work is finished by several layers of a thinment of the same matter, smoothed by the compasses, and thoroughly dried before they lay on another. The first layer of the model is a mixture of wax and grease spread over the whole which are applied the inscriptions, coats of arms, &c. besmeared with a pencil dipped in a wax in a chafing dish: this is done for every part. Before the shell is begun, the compasses are divided to pieces, to cut off all the thickness of the place of the thickness to be given to the model. The first layer is the same earth with which it is fitted very fine; whilst it is tempering it is mixed with cow's hair to make it firm. The whole being a thin cullis, is gently rubbed on the model, that fills exactly all the shell of the figures, &c. and this is repeated till the whole is two lines thick over the model.

is thoroughly dried, they cover it with a  
the same matter, but somewhat thicker ;  
the second layer becomes of some consist-  
they apply the compasses again, and light  
the core, so as to melt off the wax of the  
ns. &c. After this, they go on with the  
ers of the shell, by means of the com-  
here they add to the cow's hair a quan-  
mp. spread upon the layers, and after-  
noted by the board of the compasses.  
ness of the shell comes to 4 or 5 inches  
n the mill-stone before observed, and sur-  
quite close, which prevents the extra-  
of the metal. The wax should be taken  
the melting of the metal. The ear of  
requires a separate work, which is done  
e drying of the several incrustations of

It has 7 rings: the 7th is called the  
rd unites the others, being a perpendi-  
port to strengthen the curves. It has an  
at the top, to admit a large iron peg,  
ie bottom; and this is introduced into  
in the beam, fastened with two strong

There are models made of the rings,  
ies of beaten earth, that are dried in the  
rier to have the hollow of them. These  
gently pressed upon a layer of earth and  
in, one half of its depth: and then taken  
out breaking the mould. This opera-  
peated 12 times for 12 half moulds, that  
two united may make the hollows of the  
; the same they do for the hollow of the  
nd bake them all, to unite them together.

The open place left for the coals to be put  
placed the rings that constitute the ear.  
put into this open place the iron ring  
on the clapper of the bell; then they make  
cake of clay, to fill up the diameter of  
keels of the core. This cake, after ba-  
clapped upon the opening, and soldered  
hin mortar spread over it, which binds  
nd close to the core. The hollow of the  
filled with an earth, sufficiently moist to  
re place, which is strewed at several times  
e cover of the core; and they beat it gen-  
a pebble, to a proper height; and a work-  
with the earth at top with a wooden  
ipped in water. Upon this cover, to be  
afterwards, they assemble the hollows  
ings. When every thing is in its proper  
they strengthen the outside of the hollows  
ortar, in order to bind them with the  
and keep them steady at the bottom, by  
a cake of the same mortar, which fills  
whole aperture of the shell. This they let  
at it may be removed without breaking.  
re room for the metal, they pull off the  
of the rings, through which the metal is

before it enters into the vacuity of the  
The shell being unloaded of its ear, they  
nder the mill-stone five or six pieces of  
about two feet long, and thick enough to  
almost the lower part of the shell; between  
nd the mould, they drive in wooden wedges  
mallet, to shake the shell of the model  
and it rests, so as to be pulled up and got  
the pit. When this and the wax are re-  
they break the model and the layer of

earth, through which the metal must run, from  
the hollow of the rings, between the shell and the  
core. They smoke the inside of the shell, by  
burning straw under it, that helps to smooth the  
surface of the bell. Then they put the shell in the  
place, so as to leave the same interval between  
that and the core; and before the hollows of the  
rings or the cap are put on again, they add two  
vents, that are united to the rings, and to each  
other, by a mass of baked cement. After which  
they put on this mass of the cap, the rings, and  
the vent, over the shell, and solder it with thin  
cement, which is dried gradually by covering it  
with burning coals. Then they fill up the pit  
with earth, beating it strongly all the time round  
the mould. The surface has a place for the fire,  
and another for the metal. The fire place has a  
large chimney with a spacious ash-hole. The fur-  
nace which contains the metal is vaulted, whose  
bottom is made of earth, rammed down; the rest  
is built with brick. It has four apertures; the  
first, through which the flame revibrates; the se-  
cond is closed with a stopple that is opened for  
the metal to run; the others are to separate the  
dross or scorizæ of the metal by wooden rakes:  
through these last apertures passes the thick smoke.  
The ground of the surface is built sloping, for  
the metal to run down.

2. **FOUNDRY OF GREAT GUNS AND MORTAR  
PIECES.** The method of casting these pieces is  
different from that of bells: they are run massy,  
without any core, being determined by the hol-  
low of the shell; and they are afterwards bored  
with a steel trepan, that is worked either by horses  
or a water mill. For the metal, parts, propor-  
tions, &c. of these pieces, see GUNNERY.

3. **FOUNDRY OF LETTERS, OR CASTING OF  
TYPES FOR PRINTING.** In the business of cut-  
ting, casting, &c. letters for printing, the letter-cut-  
ter must be provided with a vice, hand vice, ham-  
mers, and files of all sorts such as watch makers  
use; also gravers and sculptors of all sorts, and  
an oil-stone, &c. suitable and sizeable to the sever-  
al letters to be cut: a flat gauge made of box to  
hold a rod of steel, or the body of a mould, &c.  
exactly perpendicular to the flat of the using file:  
a sliding gauge whose use is to measure and set off  
distances between the shoulder and the tooth, and  
to mark off from the end, or from the edge of  
the work: a face gauge, which is a square notch  
cut with a file into the edge of a thin plate of  
steel, iron or brass, of the thickness of a piece of  
common tin, whose use is to proportion the face of  
each sort of letter, viz. long letters, ascending  
letters, and short letters. So there must be 3 gauges,  
and the gauge for the long letters is the length  
of the whole body supposed to be divided into  
42 equal parts. The gauge for the ascending let-  
ters Roman and Italic are five 7ths, or 30 parts of  
42, and 33 parts for the English face. The gauge  
for the short letters is three 7ths, or 18 parts of  
42 of the whole body for the Roman and Italic,  
and 22 parts for the English face. The Italic and  
other standing gauges are to measure the scope of  
the Italic stems, by applying the top and bottom  
of the gauge to the top and bottom lines of the let-  
ters, and the other side of the gauge to the stem;  
for when the letter complies with these three sides

**F O U ( 4 ) F O U**

of the parts, and either cast in one shape. The next part of the entrepreneur is to prepare good dies, patterns, wax, temper, and a free form above and below the face of which he draws or prints the exact shape of the letter with pen and ink. These letters be large, or with a smooth bottom, or with a neck, will be first cast then cast in wax, and properly shaped and polished patterns are made, which are kept for the first before the strokes or marks be made on the face of the pattern, and these the marks are drawn on the wax, having well shaped the entire number of figures, and exposing the wax to the same heat, for if a letter be not deep, dipping it into molten wax, rather used at present, will do, and be used for casting. This wax is generally regular in the depth of the counter punch. The wax makes the slide with proper finish it is to be for the mould. If this be printed to the top and bottom parts of the matrix, we must procure a mould to justify them by. See Plate CIV. *Fig. 21. and 22.* Every mould is composed of an upper and an under part. The under part is delineated in *fig. 21.* The upper part is marked *fig. 22.* and in all respects made like the under part, excepting the foot behind, and the bow of being a little behind; and excepting a final round wire between the body and carriage, near the neck, where the under part has a final round partive made in the body. This wire, or rather half wire, in the upper part makes the side in the side of the letter, when part of it is received into the groove in the under part. These two parts are exactly fitted, and gauged into one another, viz. the male-gauge marked *c* in *fig. 21.* In the female marked *d* in *fig. 21.* so that when the upper part of the mould is properly placed on, and in the under part of the mould, both together make the entire mould, and may be fixed backwards or forwards, till the edge of either of the jaws of the female of either carriage comes full to the edge of the female grooves in each carriage, and may be fixed forward or backward, till the edges of each part full in, or stand together, as the side of the female of the upper part of the mould. The parts of the mould are as follows, viz. *a*, The carriage. *b*, The body. *c*, The male of the die. *d*, The female part of it. *e*, The runner. *f*, The female gauge. *g*, The hole. *a a a a*, The bottom plate. *b b b*, The wax. *c c c c*, The bottom plate. *d d d d*, The wax. *e e e e*, The bottom. *f f f f*, The male die. *g g g g*, The female. *h h h h*, The wax. The wax must be as white and fine as the finest of the body, by melting all the profits of samples of letters, which are set upon a supporting block, with a thin wire as to be in the right hand, and then by compressing these with the pattern letters, set in the same manner, he finds the exact figure of the body to be cast. If a few lines of the top of the body are parallel to the bottom, body to be no longer at the head than at the rest, by taking half the number of his profits and turning

them with their heads to the feet of the other and so on, the heads and the feet of the wax being even upon each other, and a better to cut in a groove, the two sides may be more parallel. His former work, whether it be of the thickness of the letter be parallel, setting it a pencil in the composing stick, and sides upwards, and the bottom of the wax being to the feet of the other half, and the head and feet be exactly about each and round, *fig. 23. and 24.* getting the two, the thickness are parallel. The wax is first, the most building to prepare the wax. A matter is a piece of this or another of an iron and a wooden, or of iron, which pattern to the side of the letter, and in the mould, or the wax is cast, the letter is to be cast, by making the letter piece, the depth of the letter, or the side of the letter, or the side of the letter, and so on, every thing thus prepared, it is printed, furnished, which is built of brass, iron, square sides, and a stone on the top, which is a wide round hole for the pattern. A fragment of any extent necessary, the faces in it. As to the mould, in which the wax is to be cast, the wax is a few and a few prepared in large quantities, and the final bars, of about an inch and a half, is delivered out to the workman, or the artist. In the letter foundry, which has a reputation with reputation, under the direction of Alex. Wilson and his at Glasgow, we found, that a flood of metal is made up, different times of the year, sufficient for his colors, at the furnace for his most excellent purpose, a large mould is put to the trade, furnished with a wheel, with more more equally to heat the wax, and the cut iron, which binds when filled with metal. The fire being kindled, the iron or lead are set to flow into the pot, sufficient promoted by throwing in some pot talow, which soon flames. An outer shell which is built to as to project about a foot to the farthest lip of the pot, catches the flame, with the pot, and makes it as powerfully in melting metal, which it serves for a time to convey away all the fines, as the workman, so when this laborious part business is committed. When the lead is roughly melted, a due proportion of the iron or tin and other ingredients are put in, none to be allowed is intended to make the composition flow. The workmen, having all the contents of the pot very thoroughly stirring, with a large iron ladle next to draw the metal into the bush, the rest iron, which are raised to the number upon a level platform faced with iron, by words the right hand. In the course of a few of metal can be easily prepared in this way, and the operation is continued for six days, as is necessary to prepare a stock of all the various degrees of hardness. At the whole is disposed into profits according quality, to be delivered out occasionally.

orkmen. The foundry must now be provided with a ladle, which differs nothing from other ladles but in its size; and he is provided always with ladles of several sizes, which he uses according to the size of the letters he is to cast. As soon as the cafter begins to cast, he must kindle his fire in the furnace to melt the metal in the pan: therefore he takes the pan out of the hole in the floor, and there lays in coals and kindles them; and when they are well kindled, he sets the pan again, and puts in metal into it to melt: if it is a plain-bodied letter he casts, or a thin letter of great bodies, his metal must be very hot; nay sometimes red-hot, to make the letter come. He having chosen a ladle that will hold about as much as the letter and break are, he lays it at a smelting hole, where the flame bursts out, to melt it. Then he ties a thin leather, cut with its lower end against the face to the leather groove of the matrice, by whipping a brown thread twice between the leather groove, and fastening the thread with a knot. Then he puts both halves of the matrice together, and puts the matrice into the smelting hole, and places the foot of the matrice upon the end of the mould, and the broad end of the matrice upon the wood of the upper half of the mould; but not tight up, lest it might hinder the metal from sinking close down upon the matrice, and so ruin a train of work. Then laying a little wood on the upper wood of the mould, and having the casting ladle hot, he with the boiling side of the ladle pours the metal in; and when it is yet melted, he with the broad end of the leather hard down upon the wood, and so fastens it to the wood; all this is the preparation. Now he proceeds to casting; taking the under half of the mould in his left hand, with the hook or hag forward, he cuts the ends of its wood between the lower part of the wood of his thumb and his three hind fingers; he then sets the upper half of the mould upon the side of the stool, so that the male gauges may fall into the female gauges, and at the same time the foot of the matrice places itself upon the stool; and dipping his left hand thumb strong over the upper part of the mould, he nimble catches hold of the lower part with his right hand fingers at the upper part, and his thumb under it, and places the part of the matrice against the middle of the notch in the upper part of the mould, pressing it both forwards and downwards by the shoulder of the matrice, and downwards by the shoulder of the notch close upon the stool; while at the same time with his hinder fingers, he draws the upper half of the mould towards the ball of his hand, and thrusts by the ball of his thumb the lower part towards his fingers, that both the sides of the mould may press against both sides of the matrice, and his thumb and fingers press both halves of the mould close together. Then he takes the handle of his ladle in his right hand, and with the bowl of it gives a stroke, two or three, outwards upon the surface of the melted metal, to burn or clear it from the film or dust that may be upon it; then he takes up the ladle full of metal, and having his mould, as aforesaid, in his left hand, he a little twists the left side of his body towards the furnace, and brings the geat of his ladle to the mouth of the mould, and with the upper part of his right hand towards

him to turn the metal into it, while at the same moment of time he jilts the mould in his left hand forwards, to receive the metal with a strong shake (as it is called; not only into the body of the mould, but while the metal is yet hot, running swift and strongly, into the very face of the matrice, to receive its perfect form there, as well as in the flank. Then he takes the upper half of the mould off the under half, by placing his right hand thumb on the end of the wood next his left hand thumb, and his two middle fingers at the other end of the wood; and finding the letter and break lie in the under half of the mould (as most commonly by reason of its weight it does), he throws or tosses the letter, break and all, upon a sheet of waste paper laid for that purpose on the bench, just a little beyond his left hand, and is then ready to cast another letter as before; and also, the whole number that is to be cast with that matrice. A workman will ordinarily cast about 3000 of these letters in a day. When the casters at the furnace have got a sufficient number of types upon the tables, a set of boys come and nimble break away the jets from them: the jets are thrown into the pots, and the types are carried away in parcels to other boys, who pass them swiftly under their fingers, defended by leather, upon smooth flat stones, in order to polish their broad sides. This a very dexterous operation, and is a remarkable instance of what may be effected by the power of habit and long practice; for these boys, in turning up the other side of the type, do it so quickly by a mere touch of the finger of the left hand, as not to require the least perceptible intermission in the motion of the right hand upon the stone. The types, thus finely smoothed and flattened on the broad sides, are next carried to another set of boys, who sit at a square table, two on each side, and are there ranged up on long rulers or sticks, fitted with a small projection, to hinder them from sliding off backwards. When these sticks are full, they are placed, two and two, upon a set of wooden pins fixed into the wall, near the dresser, sometimes to the amount of an hundred, in order to undergo the finishing operations. This workman, who is always the most expert and skilful in all the different branches carried on at the foundry, begins by taking one of these sticks, and, with a peculiar address, slides the whole column of types off upon the dressing stick: this is made of well seasoned mahogany, and furnished with two end pieces of steel, a little lower than the body of the types, one of which is moveable so as to approach the other by means of a long screw-pin, inserted in the end of the stick. The types are put into this stick with their faces next to the back or projection; and after they are adjusted to one another so as to stand even, they are then bound up, by screwing home the moveable end-piece. It is here where the great and requisite accuracy of the moulds comes to be perceived; for in this case the whole column, so bound up, lies flat and true upon the stick, the two extreme types being quite parallel, and the whole has the appearance of one solid continuous plate of metal. The least inaccuracy in the exact parallelism of the individual type, when multiplied so many times, would render it impos-

able to bind them up in this manner, by disposing them to rise or spring from the stick by the smallest pressure from the screw. Now, when lying so conveniently with the narrow edges uppermost, which cannot possibly be smoothed in the manner before mentioned by the stones, the workman does this more effectually by scraping the surface of the column with a thick edged but sharp razor, which at every stroke brings on a very fine smooth skin, like to polished silver; and thus he proceeds till in about half a minute he comes to the farther end of the stick. The other edges of the types are next turned upwards, and polished in the same manner. It is whilst the types thus lie in the dressing stick that the operation of bearding or barbing is performed, which is effected by running a plane, faced with steel, along the shoulder of the body next to the face, which takes more or less off the corner, as occasion may require. Whilst in the dressing stick they are also grooved, which is a very material operation. To understand this, it must be remembered, that when the types are first broken off from the jets, some superfluous metal always remains, which would make them bear very unequally against the paper whilst under the printing press, and effectually mar the impression. That all these inequalities may, therefore, be taken away, and that the bearings of every type may be regulated by the shoulders imparted to them all alike from the mould, the workman or dresser proceeds in the following manner. The types being screwed up in the stick, as before mentioned, with the jet-end outermost, and projecting beyond the wood about one 8th of an inch, the stick is put into an open press, so as to present the jet end uppermost, and then every thing is made fast by driving a long wedge, which bears upon a slip of wood, which lies close to the types the whole length: then a plane is applied, which is so constructed as to embrace the projecting part of the types betwixt its long sides, which are made of polished iron. When the plane is thus applied, the steel cutter bearing upon that part between the shoulders of the types, where the inequalities lie, the dresser dexterously glides it along, and by this means strips off every irregular part that comes in the way, and so makes an uniform groove the whole length, and leaves the two shoulders standing; by which means every type becomes precisely like to another, as to the height against paper. The types being now finished, the stick is taken out of the press, and the whole column replaced upon the other stick; and after the whole are so dressed, he proceeds to pick out the bad letters, previous to putting them up into pages and papers. In doing this he takes the stick into his left hand, and turning the faces near to the light, he examines them carefully, and whenever an imperfect or damaged letter occurs, he nimbly plucks it out with a sharp bodkin, which he holds in the right hand for that purpose. Those letters which, from their form, project over the body of the type, and which cannot on this account be rubbed on the stones, are scraped on the broad sides with a knife or file, and some of the metal next the face pared away with a pen-knife, in order to allow the type to come close to any other. *This operation is called* **KERNING.**

The excellence of printing types consists not in the due performance of all the operations: described, but also in the hardness of the form, and fine proportion of the character, in the exact bearing and ranging of the letter relation to one another.

4. **FOUNDRY OF SMALL WORKS, OR CASTING IN SAND.** The sand used for casting small work is at first of a pretty soft, yellowish, and clay nature: but it being necessary to strew charcoal dust in the mould, it at length becomes of a black colour. The red-hot metal, by burning of the sand, contributes also to blacken it. The sand is worked over and over, with a roller, board, placed across a chest to receive it, and is by these means sufficiently prepared, and from small stones or hard lumps of sand. When done, they take a smooth wooden board length and breadth proportional to the thinness to be cast, and laying the first half of an open mould or wooden frame upon it, they place within it upon the board, either wooden or metal models of what they intend to cast, and then fill it up with the prepared sand, a little moistened to make it cohere properly, pressing it upon the pattern with the roller, so as to leave their impression. Along the middle of the mould is also placed half a small brass cylinder, to make an impression for the chief canal for the metal to run through when melted, into the models or patterns; from this chief canal are drawn several other canals which extend to each model or pattern place in the frame. Then placing the other half of the mould over the one with the patterns in it, so that the pins enter into the holes that correspond to them in the other, they proceed to work it in the same manner, so as to make the two cavities of the pattern fall exactly on each other. After the frames of the mould are thus finished, and the backs scraped smooth, they take out the patterns first loosening them gently all round, that they may not give way. The moulds are then carried to the melter; who, after strewing mill dust upon them, dries them in a kind of oven for that purpose. Both parts of the mould being dry, they are joined together by means of the pins; and to prevent their giving way, by reason of the red metal passing through the chief cylindrical canal, they are screwed or wedged up in a pair of wooden screws, like a kind of press. When the moulds are thus prepared, the metal is melted in a crucible, of a size proportionate to the quantity of metal intended to be cast, and when brought to a proper heat, is poured into them at the mouth of the chief canal. When the moulds are cooled, the frames are unscrewed, and the cast work taken out of the sand, which is wet and worked over again for other castings.

5. **FOUNDRY OF STATUES.** The casting of statues depends on the due preparation of the sand, the core, the wax, the outer mould, the inner furnace to melt off the wax, and the upper to receive the metal. The pit is a hole dug in a dry ground something deeper than the intended figure, made according to the prominence of certain parts thereof. The inside of the pit is commonly lined with stone, or brick; or, when the figure is large, they sometimes work on the ground,



life a proper sense to resist the impulsion of the melted metal. The inner mould, or core is a rude sketch to which is given the intended attitude and contours. It is raised on an iron grate, strong enough to sustain it, and is strengthened within by several bars of iron. It is generally made either of potter's clay, mixed with hair and horse dung; or of plaster of Paris mixed with brick-dust. The use of the core is to support the wax, the weight, and lessen the weight of the metal. The iron bars and the core are taken out of the brass figure through an aperture left in it for that purpose, which is soldered up afterwards. It is necessary to leave some of the iron bars of the core, to contribute to the steadiness of the projecting part, within the brass figure. The wax is a representation of the intended statue. If it be a piece of sculpture, the wax should be all of the sculptor's own hand, who usually forms it on the spot: Though it may be wrought separately in carves, moulded on a model, and afterwards arranged on the ribs of iron over the grate; filling the vacant space in the middle with liquid plaster and brick-dust, whereby the inner core is proportioned as the sculptor carries on the wax. When the wax, which is the intended thickness of the metal, is finished; they fill small waxen tubes perpendicular to it from top to bottom, to serve both as canals for the conveyance of the metal to all parts of the work; and as vent-holes, to give passage to the air, which would otherwise occasion great disorder when the hot metal came to encompass it. The work being brought thus far, must be covered with its shell, which is a kind of crust laid over the wax, and which being of a soft matter, easily receives the impression of every part, which is afterwards communicated to the metal upon its taking the place of the wax, between the shell and the mould. The matter of this outer mould is varied according as different layers are applied. The first is generally a composition of clay, and old white crucibles well ground and fired, and mixed up with water to the consistence of a colour fit for painting: accordingly they apply it with a pencil, laying it 7 or 8 times over, and letting it dry between whites. For the 2d impression, they add horse-dung and earth to the former composition. The 3d impression is only horse-dung and earth. Lastly, the shell is finished by laying on several more impressions of this last matter, made very thick with the hand. The shell, thus finished, is secured by several iron girths, bound round it, at about half a foot distance from each other, and fastened at the bottom to the grate under the statue, and at top to a circle of iron where they all terminate. If the statue be so big that it would not be easy to move the mould with safety, they must be wrought on the spot where it is to be cast. This is performed two ways: in the first, a square hole is dug under ground, much bigger than the mould to be made therein, and its inside lined with walls of free stone or brick. At the bottom is made a hole of the same materials, with a kind of furnace, having its aperture outwards: in this is a fire made to dry the mould, and afterwards melt the wax. Over the furnace is placed the grate, and upon this the mould, &c. formed as above. Lastly, at one of the

edges of the square pit, is made a large furnace to melt the metal. In the other way, it is sufficient to work the mould above ground, but with the like precaution of a furnace and grate underneath. When finished, 4 walls are to be run around it, and by the side thereof a massive made for a melting furnace. For the rest the method is the same in both. The mould being finished, and inclosed as described, whether under ground or above it, a moderate fire is lighted in the furnace under it, and the whole covered with planks, that the wax may melt gently down, and run out at pipes contrived for that purpose, at the foot of the mould, which are afterwards exactly closed with earth, so soon as the wax is carried off. This done, the hole is filled up with bricks thrown in at random, and the fire in the furnace augmented, till such time as both the bricks and mould become red hot. After this, the fire being extinguished, and every thing cold again, they take out the bricks, and fill up their place with earth moistened, and a little beaten to the top of the mould, in order to make it the more firm and steady. These preparatory measures being duly taken, there remains nothing but to melt the metal, and run it into the mould. This is the office of the furnace above described, which is commonly made in the form of an oven with three apertures, one to put in the wood, another for a vent, and a third to run the metal out at. From this last aperture, which is kept very close, while the metal is in fusion, a small tube is laid, whereby the melted metal is conveyed into a large earthen basin, over the mould, into the bottom of which all the big branches of the jets, or casts, which are to convey the metal into all the parts of the mould, are inserted. These casts or jets are all terminated with a kind of plugs, which are kept close, that, upon opening the furnace, the brass, which gushes out with violence, may not enter any of them, till the basin be full enough of matter to run into them all at once. Upon which occasion they pull out the plugs, which are long iron rods with a head at one end, capable of filling the whole diameter of each tube. The whole of the furnace is opened with a long piece of iron fitted at the end of each pole, and the mould filled in an instant. This completes the work in relation to the casting part: the rest being the sculptor's or carver's business, who, taking the figure out of the mould and earth wherewith it is encompassed, saws off the jets with which it appears covered over, and repairs it with chisels, graters, puncheons, &c.

\* FOUNTAINLESS. *adj.* [from *fontaine*.] Having no fountain; wanting a spring.—

So large

The prospect was, that here and there was room For barren desert *fontaines* and dry. *Milt.*

\* FOUNTAINFUL. *adj.* [*font* and *full*.] Full of spring.—

But when the *fontainful* Ida's top they scald'd With utmost haste,

All fell upon the high hair'd oak. *Chap. II.*

\* To FOUPE. *v. a.* To drive with violence and retentively. A word out of use.—*Vie* pronounce, by the collision of strangers, a word which is moderately as any of the northern languages.

*foepe* their words out of the throat with fat and full spirits. *Camden.*

**FOUQUIERES**, James, an eminent painter, born at Antwerp in 1580. He received his chief instructions from Velvet Brughel; and applied himself to the study of landscapes, and went to Rome and Venice to improve himself in colouring. He succeeded so happily, that his works are said to be nearly equal to those of Titian. He was much caressed at the elector Palatine's court, and afterwards spent several years in France; where his works met with universal approbation, and were proportionably well paid for. Yet by some misconduct he fell into poverty, and died in the house of an inconsiderable painter in 1659.

(1.) \* **FOUR.** *adj.* [*fourer*, Saxon.] Twice two.—

Just as I wish'd, the lots were cast on *four*;  
Myself the fifth. *Pope's Odyssey.*

(2.) **FOUR**, in geography, a rock in the British Channel, near the S. coast of Jersey.

\* **FOURBE.** *n. f.* [French.] A cheat; a tricking fellow. Not in use.—

Jove's envoy, through the air,  
Brings dismal tidings: as if such low care  
Could reach their thoughts, or their repose disturb!

Thou art a false impostor, and a *fourbe.* *Denb.*  
**FOURCES**, a town of France in the dept. of Gers, 6 miles WNW. of Condom.

**FOURCHE**, a chain of mountains in the Helvetic republic, at the E. extremity of the Valais.

**FOURCHEE**, or } in heraldry, a cross forked at  
**FOURCHY**, } the ends. See **HERALDSY.**

**FOUR-FEET ISLAND**, an island on the coast of Kent, near Margate Road.

\* **FOURFOLD.** *adj.* [*four* and *fold*.] Four times told.—He shall restore the lamb *fourfold*, because he had no pity. 2 *Sam.* xii. 6.

\* **FOURFOOTED.** *adj.* [*four* and *foot*.] Quadruped; having twice two feet.—

Augur Aftylos, whose art in vain  
From sight dissuaded the *fourfooted* train,  
Now beat the hoof with Nessus on the plain. }  
*Dryden.*

(1.) **FOUR-MILE WATER**, a river of Ireland in Cork, which runs into Dunmannus Bay, 5 miles SW. of Bantry.

(2.) **FOUR-MILE WATER**, a village of Ireland in Waterford, 4 miles from Clonmell.

(1.) **FOURMONT**, Stephen, professor of the Arabic and Chinese languages, and one of the most learned men of his time, was born at Herbelai, a village 12 miles from Paris, in 1683. He studied in Mazarine college, and afterwards in the Seminary of Thirty-three. He was at length professor of Arabic in the Royal College, and was made a member of the Academy of Inscriptions. In 1738 he was chosen F. R. S. in London, and of that of Berlin in 1741. He was often consulted by the duke of Orleans, who greatly esteemed him, and made him one of his secretaries. He wrote a great number of books. The chief of those which have been printed are, 1. *The Roots of the Latin Tongue*, in verse. 2. *Critical Reflections on the Histories of ancient Nations*, 2 vols 4to. 3. *Meditationes Senecæ*, folio. 4. *A Chinese Grammar, in Latin*, folio. 5. *Several Dissertations printed*

in the Memoirs of the Academy of I &c. He died at Paris in 1745.

(2.) **FOURMONT**, Michael, youngest Stephen, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) took orders, was of the Syriac language in the Royal Col member of the Academy of Inscription in 1746.

**FOURNEAUX' ISLAND**, a small island in the S. Pacific Ocean. Lon. Lat. 17 11. S.

**FOURNELS**, a town of France, in Lozere, 7 miles W. of St Chely.

(1.) **FOURNESS**, a tract in Loynsd shire, between the Kent, Leven, at Sands, which runs N. parallel with th of Cumberland and Westmoreland, an runs into the sea as a promontory. H Camden expresses it, "the sea, as if it, lashes it more furiously, and in big even devoured the shore, and made 3 *viz.* Kent-land, into which the river K itself; Leven-land and Dudden-land which the land projects in such a man has its name thence; Forencis and Fo nifying the same with us as *promontori* in Latin." Bishop Gibson, however, name of *Fourness*, or *Furness*, from the *furnaces* that were there anciently, the services of which (called *bloomsfinithy* still paid. Here are several cotton mill few years ago; and if fuel for fire plentiful, the trade of this country w increase: but there being no coals r Wigan, or Whitehaven, firing is rat the country people using only turf or the mosses of Fournels much fir is 1 more oak: the trunks in general lie heads to the east, the high winds having the west. Fourness produces all sort: but principally oats, whereof the bread ly made; and there are veins of a ver ore, which is not only melted and wr exported in great quantities. The th bove-mentioned are very dangerous to by the tides and the many quicksands. a guide on horseback appointed to Kei cafter sand at 10l. a-year, to Leven at the public revenue; but to Dudden s. are most dangerous, none; and it is 1 mon thing for persons to pass over it 100 at a time like caravans, under th of the carriers, who pass every day. are less dangerous than formerly, being and better known, and travellers never thout guides.

(2.) **FOURNESS ABBEY**, or "FURNIS in the mountains," was begun at Tu mounderness, in 1124, by Stephen ca logne, afterwards king of England, for of Savigni in France, and 3 years afe to the valley, then called *Bekangejgill* vale of night shade." It was of the Ci der, endowed with above 800l. *per an*: the monks of this abbey, Camden says, 1 of the Isle of Man, which lies over agai to be chosen by ancient custom; it 1 were the mother of many monasteries in Ireland. Some ruins, and part of the f

ed the monastery, are still to be seen at  
The remains at Fournels breathe the  
placidity of the Cistercian abbeys; the  
out was the only piece of elegant Gothic  
it, and its roof has lately fallen in.  
The painted glass from the E. window, representing  
the crucifixion, &c. is preserved at  
this church in Bowdles, Westmoreland.  
Except the N. side of the nave), the  
aisle, refectory, &c. remain, only un-

WYNNES FIELDS, high hills, with vast  
becks, in the above district, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) which  
the ancient Britons found a secure retreat  
the victorious Saxons: for we find  
led here 228 years after the arrival of the  
when Egfrid king of Northumberland  
with the land called *Carthmell*, with  
itons in it, as is related in his life. In  
mountains are quarries of a fine durable blue  
covering buildings, which are used in  
parts of the kingdom. The inhabitants  
numbers of sheep, which browse upon  
s. The woods afford charcoal for me-  
tals, and oak bark for tanners, in great  
quantity. The forests abound with deer and  
wild fowl, and the *leggs* or *jeoffs*, or large stags,  
which are frequently found underground

NO, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caria-  
gia, 10 miles WSW. of Satalia.

ROSEVAUX, a town of France, in the  
Upper Garonne, 10 m. S. of Toulouse.  
*ROSEVAUX*, *adj.* [*four* and *score*.] 1. Four  
score; eighty.—When they were out of  
the straits and crossed the ocean to Spain,  
the *fortune* of their ships, and the greater  
the *fortune*. *Bacon's War with Spain*.—The  
most free people, being a common-  
wealth, maintaining a navy of *four score* ships. *San-*  
*chove's Letters* had, by the practice of near  
years, obtained great veneration from all  
nations. *Cicero*. 2. It is used ellipti-  
cally for years in numbering the age of

fourteen years many their fortunes seek;  
*four score* it is too late a week. *Shak.*  
few might be of use in council upon great  
matters: three score and ten; and the  
numbers in Spain were so 'till *four score*.

WHITE STONES, a village of Oxfordshire,  
Engl.

SQUARE, *adj.* [*four* and *square*.] Qua-  
re; having four sides and angles equal.—  
The spot of Bel was invironed with a wall car-  
ved of great height and beauty; and  
beside certain brazen gates curiously en-  
riched. *Hist.*

FOURTEEN, *adj.* [*four* and *teen*.] Four  
and ten.—I am not *fourteen* pence  
worth for this ale. *Shak.*

FOURTEENTH, *adj.* (from *fourteen*.) The  
fourteen; the fourth after the tenth.—  
The *fourteenth* day that see the ninth day, few  
are left, and the eyes of some do not o-  
pen. *Fourteenth day*. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*  
A. Part. L

(1.) \* FOURTH, *adj.* (from *four*.) The ordi-  
nal of four; the first after the third.—

A third is like the former: filthy hags!  
Why do you shew me this? A *fourth*? start eye!  
What? will the line stretch out to th' crack of  
doom? *Shak.*

(2.) FOURTH REDUNDANT, in music. See IN-  
TERVAL.

\* FOURTHLY, *adv.* (from *fourth*.) In the  
fourth place.—*Fourthly*, plants have their seed and  
feminal parts uppermost, and living creatures have  
them lowermost. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

\* FOURWHEELED, *adj.* [*four* and *wheel*.]  
Running upon twice two wheels.—

Scarce twenty *fourwheeled* cars, compact and  
strong,

The massy load could bear, and roll along.

*Pope's Odyssey.*

FOUSSERET, a town of France in the dep. of  
the Upper Garonne; 2 miles W. of Rieux, and  
27 SW. of Toulouse.

(1.) FOU-TCHEOU, a city of China of the 1st  
rank in the province of FO-KIEN. It carries on a  
great trade; and has a good harbour and a most  
magnificent bridge, which has more than 100  
arches, constructed of white stone, and ornamented  
with a double balustrade throughout. It is  
the residence of a viceroy, and has under its jurisdic-  
tion 9 cities of the 3d class. It lies 870 miles  
S. of Pekin. Lon. 126. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 4. N.

(2.) FOU-TCHEOU, a city of China of the 1st  
rank, in the prov. of Kiang si; formerly one of  
the finest cities in the empire, but almost ruined  
by the Tartar invasion. It lies 735 miles E. of  
Pekin. Lon. 133. 42. E. of Ferro. Lat. 27. 25. N.

\* FOUTRA, *n. f.* (from *four*, French.) A  
fig; a scold; a word of contempt. Not used.—  
A *foutra* for the world, and a willings' hale.  
*Shak. Henry IV.*

FOUYENT LA VILLE, a town of France, in  
the dep. of Upper Saone; 7 m. NE. of Champlitte.

(1.) FOWEY, FAWEY, or FOY, a populous and  
flourishing town of Cornwall, with a commodious  
haven on the British Channel. It extends above 1  
mile on the E. side of the river, (N. 2.) and has  
a great share in the fishing trade, especially of  
pilchards. It rose so much formerly by naval wars  
and piracies, that in the reign of Edward III. its  
ships refusing to strike when required, as they  
failed by Rye and Winchelsea, were attacked by  
the ships of those ports, but defeated them: where-  
upon they bore their arms mixed with the arms of  
those two cinque ports, which gave rise to the  
name of the "Gallants of Fowey." And Camden,  
informs us that this town quartered a part of the  
arms of all the other Cinque Ports with their own;  
intimating, that they had at times triumphed o-  
ver them all; and indeed once they were so power-  
ful, that they took several French men of war.

In the reign of Edward III. they rescued certain  
ships of Rye from pirates, for which this town  
was made a member of the Cinque Ports. Ed-  
ward IV. favoured Fowey so much, that when  
the French threatened to come up the river to  
burn it, he caused two towers, the ruins of which  
are yet visible, to be built at the public charge  
for its security: but he was afterwards so provoked  
at the inhabitants for attacking the French,

after a truce proclaimed with Lewis XI. that he took away all their ships and naval stores, together with a chain drawn across the river between the two forts, which was carried to Dartmouth. It is said they were so insolent, that they cut off the ears of the king's pursuivants; for which some lives and estates were forfeited. The corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, 8 aldermen, a town clerk, and 2 assistants; the market is on Saturday; the fairs on May day and Sept. 10. Here are a fine old church, a free school, and an hospital. The toll of the market and fairs, and keyage of the harbour, were vested in the corporation on the payment of a fee-farm rent of about 40s. It has sent 4 members to parliament since the 13 of Q. Elizabeth. Fowey lies 32 miles S. of Launceston; 32 ENE. of Falmouth, 26 of Plymouth, and 240 WSW. of London. Lon. 4. 23. W. Lat. 50. 19. N.

(2.) FOWEY, PAWEY, FOUTH, or FOY, a river of Cornwall, which rises 4 miles SE. of Camel-ford, passes by Lestwithiel, and runs into the British Channel, a little below FOWEY (N. 1.) where it is very broad and deep. It was formerly navigable up to Lestwithiel.

(1.) \* FOWL. *n. f.* [*fugel, fuhl*, Saxon; *voegel*, Dutch] A winged animal; a bird. It is colloquially used of edible birds, but in books of all the feathered tribes. *Fowl* is used collectively: as, we dined upon fish and *fowl*.—

The beasts, the fishes, and the winged *fowl*,  
Are their males subjects, and at their controul.

*Sbat.*

—Lucullus entertained Pompey in a magnificent house: Pompey said, this is a marvellous house for the Summer; but methinks very cold for the Winter. Lucullus answered, do you not think me as wise as divers *fowls*, to change my habitation in the Winter Season? *Bacon's Apoph.*—

This mighty breath

Instructs the *fowls* of heaven. *Thomson.*

(1.) FOWL, among zoologists, denotes the larger sorts of birds, whether domestic or wild: such as geese, pheasants, partridges, turkey, ducks, &c. Tame fowl make a necessary part of the stock of a country farm. See POULTRY. Fowls are again distinguished into two kinds, *viz.* land and water fowls, these last being so called from their living much in and about water: also into those which are accounted *game*, and those which are not. See GAME.

\* To FOWL. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To kill birds for food or game.

\* FOWLER. *n. f.* [from *fowl*.] A sportsman who pursues birds—

The *fowler*, warn'd

By those good omens, with swift early steps  
Treads the crimp earth, ranging through fields  
and glades,

Offensive to the birds. *Philips.*

With slaughter'd guns th' unwear'd *fowler*  
roves,

When frosts have whiten'd all the naked groves.

*Pope.*

(1.) FOWLING, *n. f.* the art of catching birds by means of bird lime, decoys, and other devices; or the killing of them by the gun. See BIRD-CATCHING, BIRD LIME, DECOY, &c. SHOOTING, and the names of the different birds in their order.

(2.) FOWLING is also used for the pursuing taking birds with hawks, more properly called FALCONRY or HAWKING. See these articles.

(1.) \* FOWLINGPIECE. *n. f.* [*fowl* and *piece*] A gun for birds.—'Tis necessary that the country man be provided with a good *fowlingpiece*. *A*

(2.) FOWLINGPIECES are reckoned best, if they have a long barrel, from 5½ to 6 feet, of a moderate bore. But every fowler should have them of different sizes, suitable to the game designs to kill. The barrel should be well bored and smooth within, and the bore of an equal bigness from one end to the other; which may be proved, by putting in a piece of pasteboard, of the exact roundness of the top: for if this will slide down without stops or stopping, you may conclude the bore good. The bridge-pan may be somewhat above the touch hole, and ought to have a notch to let down a little powder: this will prevent the piece from recoiling, which would otherwise be apt to do. As to the hammer, it should be well hardened, and the springs must be neither too strong nor too weak. The hammer ought to be well hardened, and pliable to go down to the pan with a quick motion.

(1.) FOWLNESS, a village in Norfolkshire.

(2.) FOWLNESS ISLAND. See FOULNESS, &c.

(1.) FOX, George, the founder of the sect of Quakers, was a shoemaker in Nottingham. he wrought at his trade, he used to meditate much on the scriptures; which, with his solitary course of life, improving his natural melancholy, he began at length to fancy himself inspired; in consequence thereof set up for a preacher, proposed but few articles of faith; insisting chiefly on moral virtue, mutual charity, the love of God, and a deep attention to the inward motions and secret operations of the spirit: he recommended a plain simple worship, and a religion without ceremonies, making it a principal point to observe in profound silence the directions of the Spirit. Fox met with much rough treatment; his zeal, was often imprisoned, and several times in danger of being killed. But in spite of all discouragements his sect prevailed much, and many great men were drawn over to them; among whom were BARCLAY and PENN. He died 1681. See QUAKERS.

(2.) FOX, John, the martyrologist, was born at Bolton in Lincolnshire, in 1517. At 16 he was entered a student of Brazen-nose college, Oxford; in 1543, he proceeded M. A. and was chosen fellow of Magdalen college. He discovered an early propensity for poetry, and wrote several Latin comedies on Scriptural subjects, which his son assures us were written in an elegant style. He now applied himself with uncommon assiduity to divinity, particularly church history; and, discovering a mature propensity to the doctrine of reformation, he was expelled the college as an heretic. In distress on this occasion was very great; he soon found an asylum in the house of Sir Thomas Lucy of Warwickshire, who employed him as a tutor to his children. Here he married the daughter of a citizen of Coventry. Sir Thomas's children being grown up, after residing a short time with his wife's father, he came to London; finding no immediate means of subsistence, he

d to the utmost degree of want; but as one day sitting in St Paul's church, emaciated with hunger, a stranger accosted him familiarly, bidding him be of good cheer, put a shilling into his hand; telling him at the same time, that in a few days new hopes were before him. He was soon after taken into the family of the dukes of Richmond, as tutor to the earl's children. In this family he lived, at the court of Henry VIII. the entire reign of Edward VI. and the first part of that of Q. Mary I: but at length, persecuted by his implacable enemy Bp. Gardiner, he was obliged to seek refuge abroad. Basil in France was the place of his retreat, where he was employed by correcting the press. On the death of Henry VIII. he returned to England; where he was again received by his former pupil the duke of Norfolk, who retained him in his family as long as he lived, and bequeathed him a pension at his death. Mr. Secretary Cecil also obtained for him a rectory at Shipton near Salisbury; and he had been long had considerable preferment, had he been willing to subscribe to the canons. He died at London, aged 70; and was buried in the chancel of St. Giles's, Cripplegate. He was a man of industry, and considerable learning; a zealous but not a violent reformer; a nonconformist, and an enemy to the church of England. He had two sons; one of whom was bred a divine, and the other a physician. He wrote many pieces: his principal work is, the *Acts and Monuments of the Church*, &c. commonly called *Fox's Book of Martyrs*.

\* **FOX**, *n. f.* [*fox*, Saxon; *vos*, *wosch*, Slavonic.] A wild animal of the canine kind, with long ears, and a bushy tail, remarkable for its cunning, being in holes, and preying upon small animals.—

*He fox hunts not when he would steal the lamb.* *Shak.*

He that trusts to you, will never find you lions, finds you hares; he that trusts to foxes, gets geese. *Shak. Macbeth.*

The fox retreats are more like the dens of robbers, than the fortresses of fair warriors. *Locke. 2.* By way of reproach, applied to a cunning fellow.

**FOX**, in zoology. See **CANIS**, § I, N<sup>o</sup> xvi, 1. The fox is a great nuisance to the husbandman, by taking away and destroying his lambs, poultry, &c. The common way to catch him is, by setting a trap, which being baited, and a train made by string raw flesh across in his usual paths or to the gin, it proves an inducement to him to the place of destruction. The fox is a beast of chase, and is taken with greyhounds, harriers, &c. See **HUNTING**.

**FALL**, a town SE. of Ipswich, Suffolk.

**FOX BROOK**, a village in Staffordshire.

**FOXCASE**, *n. f.* [*fox* and *case*.] A fox's skin.—*It had better be laughed at for taking a foxcase than be destroyed by taking a live fox.* *L'Estrange.*

**FOXCHASE**, *n. f.* [*fox* and *chase*.] The pursuit of fox with hounds.—

*See the same man, in vigour, in the gout; here, in company; in place or out;*

Early at business, and at hazard late;

Mad at a foxchase, wise at a debate. *Boyd.*

**FOXERNA**, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland; 25 miles N. of Gothenburg.

\* **FOXEVIL**, *n. f.* [*fox* and *evil*.] A kind of disease in which the hair sheds.

\* **FOXFISH**, *n. f.* [*rudpecula piscis*.] A fish.

**FOXFORD**, a town of Ireland, in Mayo county, seated on the May, 8 miles N. of Castlebar, and 112 NW. of Dublin.

(1.) \* **FOX-GLOVE**, *n. f.* [*digitalis*.] A plant.

(2.) **FOX GLOVE**, in botany. See **DIGITALIS**.

**FOXHAM**, a village NW. of Calne, Wilts.

\* **FOXHUNTER**, *n. f.* [*fox* and *bunter*.] A man whose chief ambition is to show his bravery in hunting foxes. A term of reproach used of country gentlemen.—*The foxhunters went their way, and then out steals the fox.* *L'Estrange.*—John Wildfire, foxhunter, broke his neck over a six-bar gate. *Speck.*

(1.) **FOX ISLAND**, an island in Atlantic, on the W. coast of Ireland; 7 miles E. of Slyme-Head.

(2.) **FOX ISLANDS**, or **LYSIE OSTROVA**, a group of 16 islands situated between the E. coast of Kamtschatka, and the West. coast of America. Each Island has a particular name; but the general name, *Fox Islands*, is given to the whole group, on account of the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. They are called *Lysie Ostrova*, by the Russians. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a tur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party coloured bird's skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a screen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties, they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But when they choose to dress their victuals, they use a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices, with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts; and for defence they use wooden shields. The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a *race*, who, in case of an attack or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always claim to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children



when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or set fire to train-oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion of one rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become furious and inflexible, taking the most violent revenge without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair. Lat. between 51° and 55° N.

FOXLEY, 2 villages: 1 in Norfolk, SW. of Repeham: 2 in Wilts, near Malmesbury.

\* FOXSHIP. *n. f.* [from *fox*.] The character or qualities of a fox; cunning; mischievous art.—

Had'st thou foxship

To banish him that struck mere blows for Rome,  
Than thou hast spoken words. *Shak. Coriol.*

\* FOXTAIL. *n. f.* [*sclerpeconus*.] A plant.

FOXTON, 3 English villages: 1. in Cambridge; 2. in Durham: 3. in Leicestershire.

\* FOXTRAP. *n. f.* [*fox* and *trap*.] A gin or snare to catch foxes.—Answer a question, at what hour of the night to set a foxtrap? *Tull-r.*

(1.) \* FOY. *n. f.* [*foi*, Fr.] Faith; allegiance. An obsolete word.—

He Easterland subdued, and Denmark won,  
And of them both did *foy* and tribute raise.

*Fairy Queen.*

(2, 3.) FOY, in geography. See FOWEY.

(4.) FOY, ST, a town of France in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, 35 miles E. of Bourdeaux. Lon. 6. 5. E. Lat. 44. 49. N.

FOYE, a village in Herefordshire.

(1.) FOYLE, a river of Ireland in Derry; which runs by Londonderry, into LOUGH FOYLE. See N° 2.

(2.) FOYLE, LOUGH, a large bay of Ireland; at the mouth of the Foyle (N° 1.) 4 miles below Londonderry. It is 12 miles long and 7 broad, and is well sheltered by the land on all sides; the entrance not exceeding half a mile wide, having only one deep channel in the middle between sands and shallows.

FOYN'S ISLAND, an island of Ireland, in the Shannon, 21 miles below Limerick.

FOYN TON, a town of Sussex, W. of Devenfy.

FOYSTON, W. of Knaresborough, Yorkshire.

(1.) FOZ, a town of France, in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone, 5 miles W. S. W. of Martigues.

(2.) Foz, a town of France, in the dep. of Var, 9 miles NE. of Barjols.

(3.) Foz, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Aliento; at the conflux of the Zayas and the Tago, 24 miles NE. of Lisbon.

FOZA, a district of Maritime Austria, & the 7 Communes in the Vicentino.

FOZZANO, a town of the French rep. in the island and dept. of Corsica; 4 miles Sarzano.

FRACAS, *n. f.* [French, pronounced *Fr* noise; a hurly-burly.

FRACASTOR, Jerome, a most eminent an poet and physician, born at Verona in Two singularities are related of him: one is his lips adhered so closely to each other he came into the world, that a surgeon was forced to divide them with his knife; the other his mother was killed with lightning, while though, in her arms at the very moment, & unhurt. He was eminently skilled in the letters, and in all arts and sciences. He poet, a philosopher, a physician, an astronomer and a mathematician. Pope Paul III. made of his authority to remove the council of Boulogne, under the pretext of a contumacious temper, which, as Fracastor deposed, was no longer safe to continue at Trent. He was intimately acquainted with cardinal Bembo, Scaliger, and all the great men of his time died of an apoplexy at Cast near Verona 1553; and in 1559, the town of Verona erected a statue in honour of him. He was the author of many performances, both as a poet and as a physician; no man was ever more disintegrated in either of these capacities; for he practised without fees, and as a poet whose usual recompense, no man was ever more dissident about. Owing to this dissidence, little of his poetry is extant, in comparison of what he wrote; a his Odes and Epigrams, which were read with admiration, yet never passing the press. All that remain are his 3 books of "Nights of the French disease;" a book of Miscellaneous Poems; and two books of a poem, intitled, which he began towards the end of his life did not live to finish. And these would have rivalled with the rest, if his friends had not saved and communicated copies of them. He composed also a poem, called *Alcon, sive de canum venaticorum*. His works are all in Latin. His medical pieces are, *De Sympatibus & Antibia*; *De contagione & contagiosis morbis*; *De criticorum dierum*; *De vini temperaturs*. His works have been printed separately at lezevily. The best edition is that of Padua in 2 vols 4to.

FRACHES, in the glass trade, are the stoves into which the glass vessels already made are put when in the lower over the workman's face, and by means of which they are drawn through the leers, that they may be taken off from the fire, and cool by degrees.

\* To FRACT. *v. a.* [*fractus*, Lat.] To to violate; to infringe. Found perhaps the following passage.—

His days and times are past,  
And my reliance on his *fract* dates  
Has suit my credit. *Shak.*

(1.) \* FRACTION. *n. f.* [*fractio*, Fr. Latin.] 1. The act of breaking; the state being broken.—The surface of the earth has

be parts of it dissected; several parts retain still the evident marks of *fractura*. *Burnet's Theory*. 2. A broken part al.—

*actions* of her faith, arts of her love, scraps, the bits and greasy re-

er-eaten faith, are bound to Diomedes.

*Sbak.*

the motion of the moon, whereby computed, nor the sun, whereby years are, consisteth of whole numbers, but *fractions* and broken parts. *Broqua's cur.*—Pliny put a round number near rather than a *fraction*, *Arbut. on Coins.* **FRACTION**, in arithmetic and algebra, a fifth of an unit or integer; or a number, in the relation of a part to a whole. The word literally imports a broken. Fractions are usually divided into *axagonal*, and vulgar. See **ALGEBRA ARITHMETIC.**

**FRACTIONAL**. *adi.* [from *fraction*.] Be a broken number; comprising a broken. We make a cypher the medium between increasing and decreasing numbers, connected absolute or whole numbers, and negative numbers. *Coker's Arithmetick.*

**FRACTURE**. *n. f.* [*fractura*, Lat.] 1. Separation of continuous parts.—That without any great *fracture* of the more solid parts of nature, or the infringement of laws thereof. *Hale's Origin of Mankind.* 2. Separation of a continuity of a bone in life.

Man wilt sin and grief destroy,  
The broken bones may joy,  
Be together in a well-tet song,  
Of his praises,  
Dead men raises;  
As well cur'd make us more strong.

*Herber.*

of the skull are dangerous, not in consequence of the injury done to the cranium itself, but because the brain becomes affected. *Sharp's Surg.*

**FRACTURE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To break.—The leg was dressed and the *fractures* united together. *Wise's Surgery.*

**FRENUM**, or **FRENUM**, BRIDLE, in anatomy given to divers ligaments, from their restraining and curbing the motions of the parts they are fitted to: as,

**FRENUM LINGUÆ**, or *Bridle of the Tongue*; a ligament, which ties the tongue to the jaws, larynx, fauces, and lower parts of the mouth. In some subjects the *frenum* runs the length of the tongue to the very tip; in others, if it were not cut, it would take away the possibility of speech. See **SURGERY**, *Ind.*

**FRENUM PENIS**, a slender ligament, where the *prepuce* is tied to the lower part of the penis. Nature varies in the make of it; it being so short in some, that unless dissected it would not admit of perfect erection. It is a kind of little *frenum*, fastened to the neck of the clitoris.

**FRAGA**, a strong town of Spain in the kingdom of Arragon. It is situated among the mountains, having the river Cinca before it, whose high banks are difficult of access; and at its back a hill, which cannot easily be approached with large cannon. Alphonso VII, king of Arragon, and I. of Castile, was killed by the Moors in 1134, in besieging this town. It is 53 miles ESE. of Saragossa, and 30 S. of Balbastio. Lon. o. 23. E. Lat. 41. 27. N.

**FRAGARIA**, the **STRAWBERRY**: A genus of the polygynia order, belonging to the icofandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 35th order, *Scitocofa*. The calyx is oecymid; the petals five; the receptacle of the seeds ovate, in the form of a berry, and deciduous. There is but one species, viz.

**FRAGARIA VESCA**, the cultivated Strawberry. The principal varieties are,

1. **FRAGARIA VESCA ALPINA**, the *Alpine*, or *mountain Strawberry*, having small oval leaves, small flowers, and moderate-sized, oblong, pointed fruit.

2. **FRAGARIA V. CHILCENSIS**, the *Chili Strawberry*, with large, oval, thick, hairy leaves, large flowers, and very large firm fruit.

3. **FRAGARIA V. MOSCHATA**, the *hautboy*, or *musky Strawberry*, having oval, lanceolate, rough leaves, and large pale-red fruit.

4. **FRAGARIA V. SYLVESTRIS**, the *wood Strawberry*, with oval sawed leaves, and small round fruit.

5. **FRAGARIA V. VIRGINIENSIS**, the *Virginian scarlet Strawberry*, with oblong oval sawed leaves, and a roundish scarlet-coloured fruit. All these varieties are hairy, low, perennials, durable in root, but the leaves and fruit stalks are renewed annually in spring. They flower in May and June, and their fruit comes to perfection in June, July, and August; the Alpine kind continuing till the beginning of winter. They all prosper in any common garden soil, producing abundant crops annually without much trouble. They increase exceedingly every summer, both by off-sets or suckers from the sides of the plants, and by runners or strings, all of these rooting and forming plants at every joint, each of which separately planted bears a few fruit the following year, and bears in great perfection the succeeding summer. Those of the Alpine kind (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) will even bear fruit the same year that they are formed. All the sorts are commonly cultivated in kitchen gardens, in beds or borders of common earth, in rows lengthwise 15 or 18 inches distance; the plants the same distance from one another in each row. Patches of the different sorts, disposed here and there in the fronts of the different compartments of the pleasure ground, will appear ornamental both in their flowers and fruit, and make an agreeable variety. Strawberries, eaten either alone, or with sugar and cream, are universally esteemed a most delicious fruit. They are grateful, cooling, subacid, and juicy. Though taken in large quantities, they seldom disagree. They promote perspiration, impart a violet smell to the urine, and dissolve the tartareous incrustations on the teeth. People afflicted with the stone have found relief by using them very largely; and Hoffman says, he has known

F R A ( 14 ) F R A

known consumptive people cured by them. The bark of the root is astringent. Sheep and goats eat the plant: cows are not fond of it; horses and swine refuse it.

\* FRAGILE. *adj.* [*fragile*, Fr. *fragilis*, Lat.]  
 a. Brittle; easily snapped or broken.—

To ease them of their griefs,  
 Their pangs of love, and other incident throes,  
 That nature's *fragile* vessel doth sustain  
 In life's uncertain voyage. *Sbak. Timon.*  
 —The stalk of ivy is tough and not *fragile*. *Bacon's Natural History.*—

When subtle wits have spun their threads too fine,  
 'Tis weak and *fragile*, like Arachne's line.  
*Denham.*

—A dry stick will be easily broken, when a green one will maintain a strong resistance; and yet in the moist substance there is less rest than in what is drier and more *fragile*. *Glanville.* 2. Weak; uncertain; easily destroyed.—

Much ostentation, vain of fleshly arms,  
 And *fragile* arms, much instrument of war,  
 Long in preparing, soon to nothing brought,  
 Before mine eyes thou'st set. *Mik. Par. Reg.*

\* FRAGILITY. *n. f.* [from *fragile*.] 1. Brittleness; easiness to be broken.—To make an induration with toughness, and less *fragility*, decoct bodies in water for two or three days. *Bacon's N. Hist.* 2. Weakness; uncertainty; easiness to be destroyed.—Fear the uncertainty of man's *fragility*, the common chance of war, the violence of fortune. *Knolles's History.* 3. Frailty; liableness to fault.—All could not be right in such a state, in this lower age of *fragility*. *Wotton.*

\* FRAGMENT. *a. f.* [*fragmentum*, Lat.] A part broken from the whole; an imperfect piece. He who late a sceptre did command,  
 Now grasps a floating *fragment* in his hand.  
*Bryden.*

—Cowley, in his unfinished *fragment* of the *Davideis*, has shewn us this way to improvement. *Harris on the Mind.*—If a thin or plated body, which, being of an even thickness, appears all over of one uniform colour, should be slit into threads, or broken into *fragments* of the same thickness with the plate, I see no reason why every thread or *fragment* should not keep its colour. *Newton's Opticks.*—

Some on painted wood  
 Transfix'd the *fragments*, some compar'd the food.  
*Pope's Odyssey.*

\* FRAGMENTARY. *adj.* [from *fragment*.]  
 Composed of fragments. A word not elegant, not in use.—

She, she is gone; she's gone: when thou know'st this,  
 What *fragmentary* rubbish this world is,  
 Thou know'st it, and that it is not worth a thought;  
 He knows it too too much that thinks it nought.  
*Donne.*

FRAGNINO, and } Two towns of Naples, in  
 FRAGNITELLO, } the province of Principato  
 Ultra; the former 8 miles, and the latter 6,  
 from Benevento.

FRAGOA DE S. PEDRO, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 13 m. SSW. of Lamego.

FRAGOAS, a town of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura; 6 miles NW. of

\* FRAGOR. *n. f.* [Latin.] A noise or crash. Not used.—

Pursu'd by hideous *fragors*, as bel  
 The flames descend, they in their bre

\* FRAGRANCE. } *n. f.* [*fragrant*  
 \* FRAGRANCY. } Sweetness of si  
 sing scent; grateful odour.—

Eve separate he spic,  
 Veil'd in a cloud of *fragrance*, when  
 Half spy'd. *Milton's*

—I am more pleas'd to survey my row  
 worts and cabbages springing up in the  
*grancy* and verdure, than to see the ten  
 of foreign countries kept alive by artifi  
*Spektor.*—

Not lovelier seem'd Narcissus to tl  
 Not, when a flower, could boast more,

Such was the wine; to quench wh  
 steam

Scarce twenty measures from the livi  
 To cool one cup suffic'd: the goblet  
 Breath'd aromattick *fragrances* arou

\* FRAGRANT. *adj.* [*fragrans*, L.  
 rous; sweet of smell.—

*Fragrant* the fertile earth  
 After soft show'rs; and sweet the co  
 Of grateful evening mild.

The nymph vouchsaf'd to place  
 Upon her head the various wreath;  
 The flow'rs, less blooming than her  
 Their scent, less *fragrant* than her bre

\* FRAGRANTLY. *adv.* [from *fragr*  
 sweet scent.—As the hops begin to chan  
 and smell *fragrantly*, you may conclude:  
*Mortimer's Husbandry.*

FRAGUIER, Claude-Francois, a polite  
 ed French writer, born at Paris, of a no  
 in 1666. He was educated under the J  
 was admitted into their order, but after  
 ted it; and, soon after assist'd the Ab  
 in conducting the *Journal des Sçavans*.  
 tings consist of Latin poems, and man  
 dissertations. He died in 1728.

(1.) \* FRAIL. *adj.* [*fragilis*, Latin.]  
 easily decaying; subject to casualties;  
 stroyed.—

I know my body's of so *frail* a kin  
 As force without, severs within can kil

—When with care we have raised an  
 treasure of happiness, we find, at last, th  
 terials of the structure are *frail* and per  
 the foundation itself is laid in the san  
 a. Weak of resolution; liable to error  
 tion.—The truly virtuous do not easily  
 that is told them of their neighbours; fi  
 may do amiss, then may these also sp  
 man is *frail*, and prone to evil, and the  
 soon fail in words. *Taylor.*

(2.) \* FRAIL. *n. f.* 1. A basket made  
 a. A rush for weaving baskets.

(3.) FRAIL signifies also 75 lb. of raif  
 \* FRAILNESS. *n. f.* [from *frail*]  
 in

—There is nothing among all the frail-uncertainties of this sublunary world so and unstable as the virtue of a coward.

S, in geography, rocks of Ireland, on the Wexford, 12 m. SW. of Carnfore Point. ILTY. *n. f.* [from *frail*.] 1. Weakness of ; infirmity of mind ; infirmity.—Tho' secure foot, and stands so firmly on his *zity*, yet I cannot put off my opinion so *ake*spere.—

should'ft thou have trusted that to wean's *frailty* :  
O thee, thou to thyself wast cruel.

*Milton's Samson Agonistes.*  
shows our *frailty*, pities our weakness, fires of us no more than we are able to c. 2. Faults proceeding from weakness ; firmity : in this sense it has a plural.—

Love did his reason blind,  
we's the noblest *frailty* of the mind.  
*Dryden's Indian Emperor.*  
ind wits will those light faults excuse ;  
are the common *frailties* of the muse.

*Dryden.*  
th. only death, can break the lasting chain ;  
ere, ev'n then, shall my cold dust remain ;  
all its *frailties*, all its flames resign,  
ret, 'till 'tis no sin to mix with thine. *Pope.*  
Christians are now not only like other men  
*frailties* and infirmities, might be in some  
excusable ; but the complaint is, they are  
thers in all the main and chief articles of  
res. *Law.*

FRAISCHHEUR. *n. f.* [Fr.] Freshness ; cool-  
A word foolishly innovated by *Dryden*.—  
ther in Summer-ev'nings you repair,  
ste the *fraischheur* of the purer air. *Dryd.*  
FRAISE. *n. f.* [Fr. the caul of an animal.]  
ake with bacon in it.

FRAISE, in fortification, a kind of defence,  
rg of pointed stakes, six or seven feet long,  
parallel to the horizon into the retrench-  
of a camp, a half-moon, or the like, to pre-  
y approach or scalade. Fraises differ from  
les chiefly in this, that the latter stand per-  
ular to the horizon, and the former jet out  
d to it, or nearly so, being usually made a  
loping, or with the points hanging down.  
are chiefly used in entrenchments and other  
rown up of earth ; sometimes they are  
under the parapet of a rampart, serving in-  
st the cordon of stone used in stone works.

FRAISE, in geography, a town of France,  
:dept. of Volges ; 6 miles S. of South Diez,  
of E. of Bruyeres.

FRAISE A BATTALION, is to line the mus-  
ers round with pikes, that in case they should  
aged with a body of horse, the pikes being  
ted may cover the soldiers from the shock,  
ere as a barricade.

FRAMBANT SUR PISSE, a town of France,  
:dept. of Maine, 9 miles NNW. of Laffay.

\* FRAME. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A fa-  
; any thing constructed of various parts or  
ers.—If the *fram* of the heavenly arch should  
re itself, if celestial spheres should forget their  
d motions, and by irregular volubility turn

themselves any way, as it might happen. *Hooker.*—  
Castles made of trees upon *frames* of timber, with  
turrets and arches, were anciently matters of mag-  
nificence. *Bacon.*—

These are thy glorious works, parent of good !  
Almighty ! thine this universal *frame*. *Milton.*  
Divine Cecilia came,  
Inventress of the vocal *frame*. *Dryden.*  
The gate was adamant ; eternal *frame*,  
Which, hew'd by Mars himself, from Indian  
quarries came,  
The labour of a god ; and all along  
Tough iron plates were clench'd to make it  
strong. *Dryden.*

—We see this vast *frame* of the world, and an in-  
numerable multitude of creatures in it ; all which  
we, who believe a God, attribute to him as the  
author. *Tillotson.* 2. Any thing made so as to in-  
close or admit something else.—Put both the tube  
and the vessel it leaned on into a convenient wood-  
en *frame*, to keep them from mischances. *Boyle.*  
His picture scarcely would deserve a *frame*.  
*Dryden's Juv.*

—A globe of glass, about eight or ten inches in  
diameter, being put into a *frame* where it may be  
swiftly turned round its axis, will, in turning,  
shine, where it rubs against the palm of one's  
hand. *Newton's Opticks.* 3. Order ; regularity ;  
adjusted series or disposition.—

A woman, that is like a German clock,  
Still a-repairing, ever out of *frame*,  
And never going aright. *Shakespeare.*  
Your steady soul preserves her *frame* ;  
In good and evil times the same. *Swift.*

4. Scheme ; order.—Another party did resolve to  
change the whole *frame* of the government in state  
as well as church. *Clarendon.* 5. Contrivance ;  
projection.—

John the Bastard,  
Whose spirits toil in *frame* of villainies. *Shak.*  
6. Mechanical construction. 7. Shape ; form ;  
proportion.—

A bear's a savage beast,  
Whelp'd without form, until the dam  
Has lick'd it into shape and *frame*. *Hudibras.*

(2.) FRAME is also used for a sort of loom,  
whereon artificers stretch their linens, silks, stuffs,  
&c. to be embroidered, quilted, or the like.

(3.) FRAME, among founders, a kind of ledge,  
which, being filled with wetted sand, serves as a  
mould to cast their works in. See FOUNDERY, § 4.

(4.) FRAME, in joinery, a kind of case, wherein  
a thing is set or inclosed, or even supported ; as a  
window frame, a picture frame, &c.

(5.) FRAME, among painters, a kind of square,  
consisting of 4 long slips of wood joined together,  
whose intermediate space is divided by threads in-  
to several little squares like a net ; and hence some-  
times called *reticula*. It serves to reduce figures  
from great to small ; or, on the contrary, to aug-  
ment their size from small to great.

(6.) FRAME, among printers, is the stand which  
supports the cases. See CASE, § 4.

\* To FRAME. *v. a.* 1. To form or fabricate by  
orderly construction and union of various parts.—

The double gates he findeth locked fast ;  
The one fair *fram'd* of burnish'd ivory,  
The other all with liver overcast. *Spenser.*

2. To fit one to another.—They rather cut down their timber to *frame* it, and to do necessaries to their convenient use, than to fight. *Abbot*.—Hew timber, saw it, *frame* it, and set it together. *Mart*.

3. To make; to compose.—  
Then chusing out few words most horrible,  
Thereof did verses *frame*. *Spenser*.

Fight valiantly to-day;  
And yet I do thee wrong to mind thee of it;  
For thou art *fram'd* of the firm truth of valour.

*Shakespeare*.

4. To regulate; to adjust.—Let us not deceive ourselves by pretending to this excellent knowledge of Christ Jesus our Lord, if we do not *frame* our lives according to it. *Tillotson*. 5. To form to any rule or method by study or precept.—  
Thou art their soldier, and, being bred in broils,

Hast not the soft way; but thou wilt *frame*  
Thyself forsooth hereafter theirs. *Shak. Coriol.*

I have been a truant to the law;  
I never yet could *frame* my will to it,  
And therefore *frame* the law unto my will.

*Shakespeare*.

6. To form and digest by thought.—The most abstract ideas are only such as the understanding *frames* to itself, by joining together ideas that it had either from objects of sense or from its own operations about them. *Locke*.—

Full of that flame his tender scenes he warms,  
And *frames* his goddess by your matchless charms. *Granville*.

Urge him with truth to *frame* his sure replies.  
And sure he will; for wisdom never lies. *Odyssey*.

—How many excellent reasonings are *framed* in the mind of a man of wisdom and study in a length of years. *Watts*. 7. To contrive; to plan.—Unpardonable the presumption and insolence in contriving and *framing* this letter was. *Clarendon*.—

8. To settle; to scheme out.—  
Though I cannot make true wars,  
I'll *frame* convenient peace. *Shak. Coriolanus*.

9. To invent; to fabricate, in a bad sense; as, to *frame* a story or lie.—Astronomers, to solve the phenomena, *framed* to their conceit eccentricks and epicycles. *Bacon*.

FRAMECOURT, a town of France in the dep. of the Straits of Catalis; 4½ miles S. of St Pol.

\* FRAMER. *n. s.* [from *frame*; *fremman*, Sax.] Maker; former; contriver; schemer.—The forger of his own fate, the *framer* of his fortune, should be improper, if actions were predetermined. *Hammond*.—There was want of accurateness in experiments in the first original *framer* of those medals. *Arbutnot on Coins*.

FRAMESDEN, a town in Suffolk.

FRAMEFIELD, a village in Suffolk.

FRAMINGHAM, a town SE. of Norwich.

FRAMLINGHAM, a large and ancient town of Suffolk. It has the remains of a castle, built by one of the first kings of the East Angles. Its walls, which are still to be seen, are 21 feet high, and 8 thick; and have 13 towers, 14 feet each above the walls. Two of these are watch-towers. To this castle, Mary Tudor, afterwards Q. Mary I, retired, when the unfortunate Lady Jane Gray was proclaimed queen. See ENGLAND, § 40. Framlingham has a tithe church, built of black

sint, with a steeple 100 feet high, and market place; with a weekly market on and a fair, in May and Sept. It is pleated, upon a clay hill near the source of 18 miles NE. of Ipswich, 30 E. of Bury NNE. of London. Lon. 1. 26. E. Lat.

\* FRAMPOLD. *n. s.* [This word is Dr Hacket, *frampul*. I know not its Peevish; boisterous; rugged; crossgrained husband! Alas, the sweet woman leads with him: she leads a very *frampold* life *Shak*.—The *frampul* man could not be *Halket's Life of Williams*.

(1.) FRAMPON, or PROMETON, England, in Dorsetshire, on the Frome WNW. of Dorchester, 12 NW. of W and 126 NE. of London. Lon. 2. 30. W 45. N.

(2-4.) FRAMPON is also the name of small towns, in Berks, Lincoln, and (shires.

(5, 6.) FRAMPON UPON SEVERN, in Gloucestershire, between Berkley and Berkley on the S. and the Severn on the N. The tide comes up in a straight line for length with great rapidity, till it comes to the ham of Nob, a natural Bulwark, which is a torrent to the E. and by N. of Frampton. FRANC. See FRANK, § IV.

FRANCAISE PORT, a port and bay on the coast of Brasil. Lon. 17. 0. W. of Ferrer 0. S.

FRANCASTEL, a town of France, in the dep. of Oise, 5 miles SW. of Breteuil.

FRANCAVILLA, the name of five towns in the province of Abruzzo: viz. 1. in the province of Chieti: 2. in that of Basilicata: 3. in Calabria Citra: 4. in Calabria Ultra: 5. in Otranto NW. of Oria.

(1.) FRANCE, an extensive country, for many ages a kingdom, but at present a republic: situated between 5° W. and 7° and between 43° and 51° N. Lat. In the present war, it was bounded by the English and the Austrian Netherlands on the N. Germany, the Alps, Switzerland, Savoy, and the E.: by the Mediterranean Sea on the S.; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the W.

(2.) FRANCE, AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, &c. The air of France is pure, temperate, and healthy. It is so happily situated in the middle of the temperate zone, that some parts are equal to Italy, both with regard to its fertility and the fertility of the soil. The undoubtedly much more salubrious. It produces corn, wine, oil, flax, fruits, &c. in great abundance.

(3.) FRANCE, ANCIENT GOVERNMENT. France was absolute before the revolution: and the subjects were extremely oppressed, even under the greatest monarchs. The parliaments, for a long time past, had little or no share in the

and their business was confined to the passing and registering the arrets or laws which the king issued to them. However, they did not always show obedience to the king, and there have been frequent instances of their making a very spirited opposition. In civil causes they were the last to be decided, provided the court did not interpose. The city of Paris was the most considerable, and the king used often to come in person to give judgment in great affairs recorded. It consisted of the great peers of France, besides the ordinary judges, who purchased their places; and they had cognizance of causes belonging to the crown.

The revenues of the crown arose from the sale of land tax, and the aids which proceeded from customs and duties on all merchandize, and the tax upon which commodity was called *gabelle*. See GABEL. Besides these, there were other taxes, as, the capitation or poll-tax on all estates, offices, and employments, besides the 15th penny, from which neither nobility nor clergy were exempted; the tithes were gifts of the clergy, who were also taxed themselves; and, lastly, crown rents, and forfeitures, which brought in a considerable sum. All these are said to have amounted to 20,000,000 *l.* sterling a-year. But the king had several other sources and ways of raising money, when necessity obliged him.

FRANCE, ANCIENT HISTORY OF, FROM THE CONQUEST OF GAUL, TO THE ACCESSION OF CLOVIS. France was originally possessed by the *Gauls* or *Gauls*; a very warlike people, who checked the progress of the Roman empire, and they yield till Julius Cæsar totally conquered their country, and reduced it to the form of a Roman province. See GAUL. The Romans held in quiet possession of Gaul, as long as the empire retained sufficient strength to repress the incursions of the German nations, whom they were able to subdue. But in the reign of Valerian the ancient Roman valour and discipline had declined, and the same care was not taken to defend the provinces. The barbarous nations, therefore, began to make much more frequent incursions; and among the rest the FRANKS, a German nation, inhabiting the banks of the Rhine, proved particularly troublesome. Their origin is variously accounted for; but the most probable account is, that about the time of the fall of the Roman empire, the people inhabiting the banks of the lower Rhine entered into a confederacy with the *Franks*, or *Freemen*. Their first invasion, according to Valefius, happened A. D. 406, in the second year of Valerian's reign; when they were driven back by Aurelianus, afterwards emperor. They returned two years after in far greater numbers; and were again defeated by Gallienus, Valerian's successor in the empire. Others, however, contend that Gallienus engaged one of their kings to defend the frontiers against his countrymen, and other invaders. But in A. D. 260, the emperor Gallienus, being obliged to retire to Persia, again ravaged Gaul, and drove the *Franks* into Italy. In 275, they were driven back by Probus, by whose victorious and numerous conquests, several of their kings submitted to Rome. X. PART I.

him, and promised an annual tribute.—They continued quiet till A. D. 287; when, along with the Saxon pirates, they plundered the coasts of Gaul. To revenge this insult, the emperor Maximian entered the country of the Franks the following year, and obliged two of their kings to submit to him. The Franks, however, did not remain long in peace. About the year 293, they seized Batavia and part of Flanders; but were entirely defeated by Constantius Chlorus, who transplanted them into Gaul. All these victories, however, were not sufficient to prevent the incursions of this restless and turbulent nation; insomuch that, in 355, they had made themselves masters of 40 cities in Gaul. Soon after, they were totally defeated by Julian, and again by count Theodosius, father to the emperor; but, in 388, they ravaged the province with more fury than ever. As the western empire was at this time in a very low state, they for some time found more interruption from other barbarians than from the Romans, till their progress was checked by Aetius. At this time, the Franks were governed by one *Pharamond*, the first of their kings of whom we have any distinct account. He is supposed to have reigned from A. D. 417 or 418, to 428; and is thought by Abp. Usher to have been killed in the war with Aetius. By some he is said to have compiled the *Salic Laws*, with the assistance of four judges, named *Witegode, Lofgode, Witegode, and Selgode*. Pharamond was succeeded by his son Clodio, who likewise carried on a war against the Romans.

(5.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CLOVIS TO CLOVIS THE GREAT. Clodio is said to have received a terrible overthrow from Aetius, near the city of Lens; however, he advanced to Cambrai, where he for some time took up his residence. After this he destroyed the cities of Treves and Cologne, Tournay, and Amiens. He died in 428, and was succeeded by Meroveus. Whether the new king was related to Clodio, is not certain. From him the first race of French kings were called *Merovingian*. He was respected by his people, and died in 428. Meroveus was succeeded by his son Childeric; who made war on the Romans, and proceeded as far as the river Loire. He took the city of Paris after a siege of 5, some say 10 years. The Roman power was now totally destroyed in Italy; and therefore *Chlodomer, Clodius, or Louis*, who succeeded Childeric, attempted the entire conquest of Gaul. Part of the province was still retained by a Roman named *Naucius*, who was defeated and killed, and his dominions reduced, by Clovis. Thus was the French monarchy established by Clovis in the year 427.

(6.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CLOVIS'S ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FRENCH MONARCHY, TO HIS DEATH. Clovis now possessed all the country lying between the Rhine and the Loire. He had been educated in paganism; notwithstanding which he allowed his subjects full liberty of conscience. He married Clotilda, daughter of the duke of Burgundy, who was a Christian; and, happening to pass a battle, where, being in great danger, he had invoked the god of Clotilda, and the Christians, he soon declared himself a convert, and was baptized in 496. But his profession of Christianity was not followed by any amendment

of life: he spent the remainder of his life in aggrandizing himself and extending his dominions, by the most abominable treachery and violence. In his attacks on Armorica he proved unsuccessful. The inhabitants of that country, though abandoned by the Romans, united together, and made a powerful defence against the barbarians who assaulted them on all sides. Clovis, finding them too powerful, proposed an union, which they accepted, the more readily as he professed Christianity. Burgundy at this time extended from the forest of Vosges to the sea of Marseilles, under Gondebald, the uncle of Clotilda; who had killed two of his brothers, one of them the father of the French queen. The 3d brother, Godagesil, whom he had spared and allowed to possess Geneva, conspired with Clovis to drive him from his dominions. A war having commenced between the French and Burgundian monarchs, the latter was deserted by Godagesil, and fled to Avignon, leaving his antagonist master of Lyons and Vienna. The victor next besieged Avignon; but it was defended with such vigour, that Clovis accepted of a ransom; and an annual tribute from Gondebald; who was likewise obliged to cede to Godagesil, Vienne and several other places. Gondebald was no sooner at liberty than he assembled a powerful army, and advanced towards Vienne, where Godagesil resided. It was strongly garrisoned by 5000 Franks; but Gondebald being admitted through an aqueduct, massacred most of the Franks, sent the rest prisoners to the king of the Visigoths, and put Godagesil to death. All the other places speedily submitted: and Gondebald, now thinking himself able to resist Clovis, informed him, that he must no longer expect tribute; Clovis, though much mortified with this defection, put up with the injury, and accepted of the alliance of the king of Burgundy. He next attacked the Visigoths, who had possessions on both sides of the Pyrenees, and whom he attacked under pretence of zeal for the true religion: To his nobles, assembled at Paris, he said, "It is with concern that I suffer the ARIANS to possess the most fertile part of Gaul; let us, with the aid of God, march against them; and having conquered them, annex their kingdom to our dominions." The nobility approved, and Clovis attacked a prince for whom he had but lately professed the greatest regard, vowing to erect a church in honour of the holy apostles, if he succeeded. Alaric, king of the Visigoths, was a young man of no military experience, though personally brave. He did not therefore hesitate to engage his antagonist; but his army was utterly defeated on the banks of the Clain, 10 miles S. of Poitiers; A. D. 507. Alaric rushed desperately against Clovis in person, by whom he was killed, and his army pursued with great slaughter. Aquitain now submitted, and Clovis took up his winter quarters at Bourdeaux. Tholouse surrendered next spring; and the royal treasures of the Visigoths were transported to Paris. Angouleme was next reduced, and Arles invaded. But here the victorious career of Clovis was stopped by Theodoric king of the Ostrogoths, who had overthrown Odoacer in Italy. He had married Abollida Clovis's sister, and given his own daughter to the king of the Visi-

goths, and endeavoured to preserve standing between the two sovereigns; this impossible, he sent one of his powerful army against Clovis; who with the loss of 30,000 men. Clovis obliged to raise the siege of Arles: Franks still retained the greatest part of the empire. In 509, Clovis was vested with the title of Roman emperor; he entered the church of St Martin in Tours; after entering the cathedral clothed in a purple mantle, the badges of his consular rank; then proceeded to augment his power over his kinsmen the princes of the race. Among those who perished in the king of Cologne, his son Cloderic; Clotaire, who governed the country of *Cambresis*; and Renomer king of the *Maine*. All these murders, however atoned by his zeal and liberality to the church, he died in 511, after having reformed the Salique laws: a few lines of which women from inheriting any part of the lands, were extended so far as to disinherit the males of the royal family of France of succession to that kingdom. Clovis is buried in the church of St Genevieve, in Paris; his tomb is still to be seen.

(7.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH, TO THAT OF CLOTAIRE I. Clovis's dominions were divided among his 4 sons; Theodoric, the eldest, had the eastern part of the empire; and, from his making Metz his capital, is commonly called *Metz*. Clodomir, the eldest son by Clotilda; Childobert and Clotaire, both infants, had the kingdoms of Burgundy and Neustria, under the tutelage of their mother; the prudence of Clotilda kept matters quiet in the empire for 8 years; but about 529 a numerous fleet of Danes arrived at the mouth of the Meuse; and their king Coenwald landed his forces, began to destroy the country with fire and sword. Against him his son Theodobert, who defeated them by land, my and navy, and killed their king, retired to retire with precipitation. In 531, Ermanfrid, king of Thuringia, having destroyed his brethren named *Berthaire*, and his dominions, applied to Thierris for assistance; his other brother Balderic, whom he had treated in the same manner. In this juncture Thierris embarked, on condition that he should have one half of Balderic's dominions, after Balderic was overcome and killed; Ermanfrid seized all his dominions. Clovis, perceiving no opportunity of revenging himself on the king of the Ostrogoths, he perceiving the power of the Ostrogoths, he much dreaded, to be considerably weakened by the death of king Theodoric, he engaged Clotaire to assist him. They entered Thuringia with two powerful armies; and their forces after passing the Rhine, were quickly after reinforced by a considerable number of troops under the command of Theodobert; the allies attacked the army of Ermanfrid, who was advantageously posted; and having



was forced to fly from place to place in diffi-  
culty. Soon after this the capital was taken,  
and Hermanfroi himself, being invited to a con-  
ference by Thierry, was treacherously murdered;  
by which his extensive dominions became prey  
to Thierry. In the mean time, Clotilda  
excited her sons to make war on the Burgun-  
dia, to revenge the death of her father Chil-  
peric, whom Gondebald had murdered. Gonde-  
bald was now dead, and had left his dominions  
on his sons Sigismund and Godemar. Sigismund's  
army was quickly defeated; and himself deliv-  
ered up to Clodomir, who threw him into a pit,  
where he perished. Godemar thus became mas-  
ter of Burgundy. Clodomir defeated him, but  
pursuing too eagerly, was surrounded by his ene-  
mies and slain. After the reduction of Thuringia,  
however, Childibert and Clotaire entered Bur-  
gundy with a powerful army, and in 534 com-  
pleted the conquest of it; Godemar was killed;  
others say, he retired into Spain, and thence into  
Africa. In 560 Clotaire became monarch of France.  
He had murdered the sons of Clodomir. Thierry  
and his children were dead, as was also Child-  
ibert; so that Clotaire was sole heir to all the  
dominions of Clovis. He had 5 sons; and Chram-  
nes had some time before rebelled in Auvergne.  
While Childibert lived, he supported the young  
prince; but on his death, Chramnes implored his  
father's clemency. He was at this time pardon-  
ed; but soon after engaged the count of Bretagne  
to assist him in another rebellion. The Bretons,  
however, were defeated, but Chramnes, perceiving  
his wife and children surrounded by his father's  
troops, attempted to rescue them. He was taken  
prisoner, and with his family thrust into a thatched  
cottage near the field of battle; which when the  
king heard of, he commanded the cottage to be  
set on fire, and they all perished in the flames.  
Clotaire did not long survive this cruel execution  
of his son and grand-children, but died in 562.

(2.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CLOTAIRE I'S  
DEATH, TO THAT OF CLOTAIRE II. After Clo-  
taire's death, the empire was divided among his 4  
remaining sons, Caribert, Gontran, Sigebert, and  
Chilperic. The old king had made no division of  
his dominions before he died. They therefore  
divided them by lot; Caribert had Paris; Gon-  
tran, Orleans; Sigebert, Metz, or Austrasia; and  
Chilperic, Soissons. Provence and Aquitaine  
were possessed in common. Peace was first dis-  
turbed in 565, by the *Abares*; a barbarous na-  
tion, said to be the remains of the Huns. They  
entered Thuringia, belonging to Sigebert; who  
defeated and obliged them to repass the Elbe.  
Sigebert pursued them close, but quickly conclu-  
ded a peace with them; his brother Chilperic ha-  
ving invaded his dominions, and taken Rheims  
and some other places. Against him, therefore,  
Sigebert marched, made himself master of Soissons  
his capital, and of his eldest son Theodobert. He  
then defeated him in battle; and not only recover-  
ed the place which he had seized, but overran the  
greater part of his dominions: by the mediation  
of the other two brothers, Sigebert abandoned his  
conquests, set Theodobert at liberty, and thus re-  
stored peace. Soon after, Sigebert married Brun-  
ehaut daughter to Athanagild king of the Visigoths

in Spain; and his brother Caribert, king of Paris,  
died, whose dominions were divided. In 567  
Chilperic married Galswintha, Brunehaut's eldest  
sister, whom he obtained with some difficulty.  
Before her arrival, he dismissed his mistress, *Fre-  
degonde*, a woman of great abilities, very ambi-  
tious, and capable of the blackest crimes. The  
new queen, who brought immense treasures from  
Spain, and made it her whole study to please the  
king, was for some time entirely acceptable. How-  
ever, Chilperic gradually suffered Fredegonde to  
appear at court, and was suspected of having re-  
newed his intercourse with her; which so hurt  
the queen, that she desired leave to return to  
Spain, offering to leave all her wealth. The king,  
knowing that this would render him extremely o-  
dious, quieted her suspicions, and soon after cau-  
sed her to be privately strangled; upon which he  
publicly married Fredegonde. This atrocious ac-  
tion excited the greatest indignation. His do-  
minions were quickly invaded and conquered by  
Sigebert and Gontran; after which they made  
peace, Chilperic consenting that Brunehaut should  
enjoy those places which he had bestowed upon  
Galswintha, viz. Bourdeaux, Limoges, Cahors,  
Bigorre, and Bearne, now called *Lascar*. The French  
princes were not long at peace. A war quickly  
commenced; Gontran and Chilperic coalesced a-  
gainst Sigebert. The latter prevailed; and com-  
pelling Gontran to a separate peace, seemed de-  
termined to make Chilperic pay dear for his re-  
peated perfidy; but he was assassinated by order  
of Fredegonde, who thus preserved herself and  
Chilperic. On his death, Brunehaut fell into the  
hands of Chilperic; but Gondebald, one of Sig-  
bert's best generals, escaped into Austrasia with  
Childibert, the only son of Sigebert, about 5  
years of age, who was proclaimed king. In a short  
time, however, Meroveus, eldest son to Chilperic,  
fell in love with Brunehaut, and married her pri-  
vately. Chilperic immediately went to Rouen,  
where Meroveus and his consort were; and ha-  
ving seized them, sent Brunehaut and her two  
daughters to Metz, and carried Meroveus to Sois-  
sons. Soon after, one of his generals being de-  
feated by Gontran, who espoused Brunehaut's  
cause, Chilperic, in a fit of rage, caused Meroveus  
to be shaved and sent to a monastery. From  
hence, however, he escaped, and arrived in Aus-  
trasia; but the jealousy of the nobles forced him  
to leave that country; and being betrayed into  
the hands of his father's forces, he was murdered  
at the instigation of Fredegonde. France was at  
this time divided between Gontran king of Orle-  
ans and Burgundy, Chilperic king of Soissons,  
and Childibert king of Austrasia. Chilperic, in  
579, had a dispute with Vearc count of Bretagne,  
Chilperic dispatched a body of troops against him;  
who were defeated, and he was forced to submit  
to a dishonourable peace. His brother and ne-  
phew lived in strict union, and had no reason to  
be pleased with him. His subjects were oppressed,  
poor, and discontented. His son Clovis, by his for-  
mer marriage, avowedly hated Fredegonde. To  
crown all, the country was threatened with fa-  
mine and pestilence. The king and queen were  
both attacked by an epidemic disease. They re-  
covered, but their 3 sons, Clodobert, Samson,

Aquitain. Pepin now at peace, began to think of assuming the title of *king*. His wishes were agreeable to the nation. The nobility, however, were bound by an oath of allegiance to Childeric, and this oath could not be dispensed with, but by the pope's authority. Ambassadors were therefore dispatched to pope Zachary. His holiness replied, that it was lawful to transfer the regal dignity from hands incapable of maintaining it to those who had so successfully preserved it. On this the unfortunate Childeric was shaved, and confined in a monastery for life; Pepin assumed the title of *king of France*, and the Merovingian line was finally set aside.

(12.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHILDERIC'S DEPOSITION TO THE DEATH OF PEPIN AND ACCESSION OF HIS SONS. This revolution took place in 751. Pepin's attention was first claimed by a revolt of the Saxons; whom he soon reduced. During his expedition against them he got rid of his restless and treacherous brother Grippon; who, weary of Aquitain, fled to Astolphus king of the Lombards, but was killed in attempting to force a pass on the confines of Italy. The submission of the Saxons was followed by the reduction of Brittany, and the recovery of Narbonne from the Infidels. Pepin's next exploit was the protection of pope Stephen III. against Astolphus, king of the Lombards. The pope, unable to contend with such a powerful rival, crossed the Alps and implored the protection of Pepin, who received him with all due respect. He was lodged in the abbey of St Dennis, and attended by the king in person during a dangerous sickness with which he was seized. On his recovery Stephen solemnly placed the diadem on the head of his benefactor, bestowed the regal sanction on his sons Charles and Carloman, and conferred on the three princes the title of *patricians of Rome*. In return for these honours, Pepin accompanied the pontiff into Italy at the head of a powerful army. Astolphus shut himself up in Pavia, where he was closely besieged by the Franks, and obliged to renounce all pretensions to the sovereignty of Rome. No sooner was Pepin gone, however, than Astolphus broke the treaty. The pope was again reduced to distress, and again applied to Pepin; who instantly set out for Italy, and compelled Astolphus a 2d time to submit to his terms, which were now more severe. Not long after Astolphus died, and his throne was usurped by his general Didier; who received the papal sanction, and was recognised as lawful sovereign of the Lombards in 756. Pepin returned to France in triumph; but his peace was soon disturbed by another revolt of the Saxons. But their attempts proved as unsuccessful as formerly, being obliged to submit and purchase their pardon by a renewal of their tribute, and an additional supply of 300 horse. During Pepin's absence, Vaisar duke of Aquitain ravaged Burgundy, and proceeded as far as Chalons. Pepin soon returned, and entering his dominions, committed similar devastations, and would probably have reduced all Aquitain, but for the hostile preparations of his nephew Tassilon, duke of Bavaria. The king, however, contented himself with securing his frontiers by a chain of posts, against any invasion;

after which he resumed his enterprize on the dominions of Vaisar. Victory declared in favour of Pepin, who advanced to the banks of the Rhone; while Vaisar was abandoned by the duke of Bavaria, and even by his own subjects. In distress he retired with a few faithful followers into Saintonge, where he defended himself as long as possible, but was at last deprived of his crown and life by the victor. Thus Aquitain was more annexed to the crown of France. Pepin was soon after seized with a slow fever, which put an end to his life in 768, the 54th of his age and 17th of his reign. He was of a short stature whence he was surnamed *Le Bref*, or *the Short*; he was justly intitled a HERO: though in the preceding reign this seemed to be forgotten, as his tomb was only inscribed, "Here lies the father of Charlemagne." Pepin was succeeded by his two sons, Charles and Carloman.

(13.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLES I'S ACCESSION, TO HIS CONQUEST OF LOMBARDY. Pepin's sons continued to reign jointly some time; but the active and enterprising spirit of Charles gave umbrage to the weak and jealous Carloman. The first enterprize of Charles was against Hunald, the old duke of Aquitain; leaving the monastery where he had resided upwards of 20 years, assumed the royal title, and was joyfully received by his subjects, although weary of the French yoke. Charles quickly crossed the field, and with difficulty prevailed upon his brother Carloman, to join him with his forces. But the junction was scarce effected, when Carloman suddenly withdrew his troops. Charles though thus deserted, engaged and overcame his enemy in a great battle, and obliged Hunald to fly to Lupus duke of Gascony. Charles demanded the fugitive prince; and Lupus, not daring to disobey such a powerful monarch, yielded up the unfortunate Hunald, who was instantly cast into prison. The death of Carloman, in 771, Charles sole master of France; but the revolt of the Saxons involved him in a series of wars for many years. They had long been tributaries to the French, and now, when freed from the terror of Pepin's arms, thought to shake off the yoke together. Charles entered their country with a powerful army; and having repeatedly defeated them, advanced towards their chief station, a town near Paderborn. The Saxons made an obstinate defence, but were at last obliged to submit; and Charles spent three days in demolishing the monuments of idolatry in this place; which so much disheartened the whole nation, that they submitted to such terms as he pleased to impose. Charles had concluded a marriage with the daughter of Didier, king of the Lombards, who he seized and frightened to death pope Stephen endeavoured to reduce his successor Adrian I. to a state of entire dependance on himself. Adrian applied to the French monarch. The French monarchy were averse to an Italian war: so that several embassies were sent to Didier, entreating him to restore to the pope those places which he had taken from him, and at last even offering him a large sum of money if he would do so; but this proposal being rejected, Charles obtained the consent of his nobility to make war on the Lombards.

led of his troops so advantageously, that officers were of opinion, that it would be possible to force a passage. This, however, accomplished, either through his superior panic which seized the Lombard soldier which, Didier, with the old duke of , who had escaped from his prison, and sage at his court, shut themselves up in Adalgise, the only son of Didier, with the and children of Carloman, fled to Verona. ty was immediately invested by the con- and soon submitted. Adalgise escaped antinople. Charles, after a short visit to returned to the siege of Pavia. The place grossly defended, until famine and pesti- laged the inhabitants to implore the cle- of Charles. Hrunald fell a sacrifice to his y in opposing the intention of the people, her was taken prisoner and carried into his kingdom was totally dissolved; and was crowned king of Lombardy at Milan,

FRANCI, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLES QUEST OF LOMBARDY TO HIS REPEATED IS OF THE SAXONS. Charles, after the oaths of allegiance from his new sub- it out for Saxony, which had again revol- l seized Erfshourg its capital. The king covered this important post; but a detach- of his army being cut off, and new troubles in Italy, he was obliged to accept of the aid of the Saxons. Having therefore strength- he fortifications of Erfshourg, he set out ly, which was all in commotion. The pro- of Charles restored tranquillity; but in the ime, the Saxons, retaking Erfshourg threat- ) annihilate the French power in that quar- rles, on his return, found them employ- e siege of Sigebourg. His sudden arrival the barbarians with such terror, that they y sued for peace; which he once more , but took care to secure their obedience ain of forts along the Lippe, and by re- the fortifications of Erfshourg. An assem- he Saxon chiefs was held at Paderborn; romise was made, that the nation should : Christianity, after which the king set out ession to Spain in 778. This enterprise lertaken at the request of Ibunala, the sovereign of Saragossa, who had been um his territory. He was restored, how- ) the prowess of Charles, who reduced ma, Saragossa, Barcelona, Navarre and ; but on his return, the Gascons, at- and defeated the rear of his army with- ighter as they passed the Pyrenean moun- Next year, 779, he visited Italy with his . Having passed the winter at Pavia, he Rome amidst the acclamations of the in- . Here, in the 39th year of his age, he in dominions, in presence of the pope, be- ) two sons Carloman and Lewis. The rhonow took the name of Pepin, had Lom- he latter Aquitain. He then set out for where he took a most severe revenge on le of that country for their repeated- . This revolt was owing to a chief itiking, who had twice before fled from

Charles, to the court of Denmark. Returning in the king's absence, he roused his countrymen to action, while Charles's generals, disagreeing among themselves, took no proper method for repelling the enemy. In consequence of this, they were entirely defeated on the banks of the Weser in 782. Charles arrived in time to prevent the total destruction of his people, and directly penetrated into the heart of the country. Witiking once more fled into Denmark; but 4,500 of his followers perished at once by the hands of the executioner. An universal insurrection was the consequence of this unheard of cruelty; and though during 3 years Charles was constantly successful in the field, he could not subdue the spirit of the people. At last he was obliged to negotiate. Witiking and several other chiefs were invited to an interview; where Charles represented to them in such strong colours the ruin which must ensue to their country, that they persuaded their countrymen finally to submit, and embrace the Christian religion.

(15.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF FROM CHARLES-MAGNE'S CONQUEST OF THE SAXONS, TO HIS CORONATION AS EMPEROR. Charles having thus brought his affairs in Saxony to a conclusion, turned his arms against Tassilon duke of Bavaria, who had privately supported the Saxons. Entering his country with a powerful army in 787, the total destruction of Tassilon seemed inevitable. Charles had advanced as far as the Lech, where Tassilon, privately entering his camp, threw himself at his feet. The king had compassion on his faithless kinsman, but no sooner was the traitor at liberty, than he stirred up the Huns, the Greek emperor, and the fugitive Adalgise, against the king. He fomented also the discontents of Aquitain and Lombardy; but his own subjects, made a discovery of the whole to Charles. Tassilon, ignorant of this, entered the diet at Ingelheim, but was instantly arrested by order of the French monarch. Being brought to a trial, the proofs of his guilt were so clear, that he was condemned to lose his head: this was afterwards mitigated to perpetual confinement in a monastery, and the duchy of Bavaria was annexed to the dominions of Charles. The Huns, however, and other enemies of the French monarch continued to prosecute their enterprises, though all their attempts only served to enhance the fame of Charles. He defeated the Huns in Bavaria, and the Greek emperor in Italy. The Huns still continuing to infest the French dominions, Charles entered their country at the head of a formidable army and penetrated as far as Raal on the Danube, but was compelled by an epidemic distemper to retire before he had finished his conquest. He had now the mortification to learn that his eldest son Pepin had conspired against him. The plot was discovered by a priest, who had accidentally fallen asleep in a church where the conspirators were met: awakened by their voices, he overheard their consultations; on which he instantly awoke the monarch from his bed, to inform him. Pepin was seized, but had his life spared, though condemned to spend the rest of his days in a monastery. Charles was no sooner freed from this danger than he was again called to arms by a revolt of the Saxons on

the one hand, and a formidable invasion of the Moors on the other; the Hunns at the same time renewing their depredations on his dominions. The king did not at this time make war against the Moors; the victories of Alphonso VI. obliged them to leave France; after which Charles marched in person to attack the Saxons and Hunns. The former consented again to embrace Christianity, and to deliver up a third part of their army; but the Hunns defended themselves with incredible valour. Though often defeated, their love of liberty was altogether invincible; so that it was only the death of the king, and an almost total destruction of the people which terminated the war: only one tribe could be induced to acknowledge the authority of the French monarch. This happened between the years 793 and 798; after which Charles subdued the islands of Majorca and Minorca. His satisfaction from this new conquest, however, was soon damped by the troubles which broke out in Italy. After Adrian I's death his nephew aspired to the dignity; but one Leo being preferred, he determined on revenge. He concealed his designs for 4 years, till on the day of a procession, Leo was assaulted, and left for dead on the ground; but having with difficulty recovered, and escaped to the Vatican, he was protected by the duke of Spoleto, at that time general of the French forces. Leo's cause was espoused by the Sicilians, who invited him to his camp, whence he dispatched him with a numerous guard to Rome, promising soon to follow him and redress all grievances. But the Normans having made inroads into the maritime provinces, he was obliged to defer the promised assistance, till he had constructed forts at the mouths of the navigable rivers, and provided for the defence of his territories, by instituting a militia, and appointing squadrons to cruise against the invaders: after which he set out for the 4th and last time on a journey to Rome, where he was received with the highest possible honours. Leo cleared himself of the crimes laid to his charge by his enemies, while his accusers were exiled. At last, on Christmas, A. D. 800, when Charles appeared in the cathedral of St Peter, and assisted devoutly at mass, the pope suddenly crowned him, and the place instantly resounded with "Long life to Charles the August, crowned by the hand of God! Long life and victory to the great and pacific emperor of the Romans!" He was then consecrated and anointed with royal unction; and conducted to a throne where he was treated with all the respect usually paid to the ancient Cæsars; from this time also being honoured with the title of CHARLEMAGNE, or *Charles the Great*. He afterwards often said, that he was ignorant of the pope's intention at this time; and that had he known it, he would not have been present; but this was not generally believed; and the pope is said to have known the acknowledged emperor, evidently showed

disappointed by the marriage of that prince with Nicephorus; however, the latter acknowledged his new dignity of Augustus, and the union of the two empires were amicably settled. Charles was further gratified by the great HARUN RASCHID, caliph of the Saracens, who presented him the sacred city of Jerusalem, and the pulchre. Mean time his empire was troubled with invasion by the Normans, under Godfrey, a celebrated warrior, who by their adventurous and maritime skill, threatened all the west of Europe with desolation. A temporary truce was settled, and Charles made use of this time to settle the final distribution of his empire. Aquitaine and Gascony, with the Spanish provinces were assigned to his son Lewis. Pepin the greatest part of Bavaria, with the kingdom of the Grifons. Charles the eldest had Aufrasia and Thuringia. This division was sanctioned by the pope; but it had scarce taken effect when the princes were obliged to defend their dominions by force of arms. Lewis and Charles were attacked by the Saracens, and the latter by the Sclavonians. All these enemies were repulsed; but Charles was once more called to exert his martial exertions, by Godfrey, the Norman. Charles sent a message of defiance, which was turned: but the king, by artfully stirring divisions among the northern powers, for a while the threatened danger; these being repulsed, the Normans renewed their depredations and Charles was obliged to face them in person. But Godfrey being assassinated by a private enemy, the Normans retreated, and the dominions of Charles were freed from these invaders. The latter days of Charles were embittered by domestic misfortunes. His favourite daughter died, as did also Pepin king of Italy; and after them, his eldest son Charles. He was finally associated his only surviving son Louis for the government; at Aix la-Chapelle. Charles himself survived this transaction only a few days. He died on the 27th of Jan 814; in the 46th of his age, and 47th of his reign. By the French monarchy was raised to its utmost extent. He had added Aquitaine to the territories of his ancestors; he had confined the independent Britanny to the shores of the ocean, and made them tributaries. He had reduced all the kingdoms of Spain from the Pyrenees to the Ebro; Roussillon, Navarre, Arragon, and Catalonia; he had seized Italy from the Alps to the borders of the Adriatic; but the duchy of Beneventum, or the present kingdom of Naples, escaped the yoke. He also added the whole of Germany, Pannonia; so that the French now had the possession of all the country from E. to W. from the Ebro in Spain to the Vistula; and from the duchy of Beneventum to the Elbe. The boundary between Germany and Denmark these achievements Charles had been attended with horrid misfortunes; for which his only son was the barbarity of the people with whom he had to deal, upon whom no mild measures were likely to have had any effect. His schools showed his inclination to govern and to advance their civilization; yet in his private conduct bordered on cru-

14. FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLEMAGNE'S DEPARTURE TO THE PRESENT. Charles, now Charlemagne, retained the imperial dignity in the western part of the empire, and the whole power of the East was exercised by marrying Louis the 1st, 22

of the fate of the sons of Carloman. His son Lewis, was excellent: exhorting his people as his children; to be good in his administration, but firm in executing; to reward merit; to promote his nobles, and choose his ministers deliberately, to remove them capriciously.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM CHARLES'S DEATH, TO THAT OF LEWIS I, AND DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE. All Charles's maxims were not sufficient to enable Lewis his dominions so extensive, and people so great as he had to deal with. At the time of his death, he was about 36 years of age, and married Ermengarde, daughter of the King of the diocese of Liege, by whom he had 3 sons, Lothaire, Pepin, and Lewis. Lothaire the eldest, was associated with himself in the empire, and the two youngest were entrusted with the governments of Aquitain and Bavaria. Lothaire proved unfaithful to their father, and enemies to one another. The death of Lewis, and the marriage of the emperor with a princess of Bavaria, artificial but accidental, proved the first source of calamity to the empire. In 823, Charles, the emperor's son, was born; and his pretensions became more fatal to the public tranquillity, than the rest. Various parts of the Imperial empire were likewise assailed by foreign enemies: Brittany and Navarre revolted; the Moravians and Hungarians; while the ambition of Judith the Empress, among the brothers themselves, was not had been appointed sovereign of the East Germany bounded by the Danube, the Neckar, and the Rhine; the Gothons and Burgundians, comprising the West and the Swiss cantons; but this was the golden age. Pepin and Lewis joined with the united forces of Aquitain and Burgundy, the Imperial forces defeated their king and banished the malcontents. The emperor took possession, and the empress retired to Italy. Lothaire, the eldest of the princes, adherent were obliged to submit, receive the emperor in his possession, but his reign terminated with remote. Dreadful revolts, and threatened by the church, he threw himself into the sea, begged pardon, and to distinguish what he had unjustly usurped, Lewis was re-established by the diet of Speyer which had met to depose him. This was to recall his empire; but this man, already now persecuted Lothaire to such a degree, he was obliged to join the brothers and terms against their father. The old emperor sought to check this rebellion by the grant of Aquitain to Pepin, and the youngest son Charles, then only six years of age, but pope Gregory IV, conferred the crown on Lothaire, opposing the grant of Aquitain to Pepin, and the youngest son Charles. The unnatural behaviour of Lewis, however, once more excited the complaints of his subjects. Dreux, Bp. of Metz, was first with Lewis king of Bavaria to depose his father and sovereign. In this the Bavarian monarch was joined by

the French and Saxons; so that the aged emperor was once more restored, the empress released from her nunnery, and Charles from his prison, in 833. But the ambition of Judith soon set matters once more in a flame. She persuaded the emperor to invest her son Charles with Neustria, besides the dominions formerly assigned him. This produced great discontents in Lothaire and Pepin; but their power was now too much broken to accomplish any thing by force. Pepin's death produced a new division of the empire. The claims of young Pepin and Charles his sons were disregarded, and his French dominions divided between the two brothers, Charles and Lothaire, the latter becoming guardian to his infant nephew. This enraged Lewis of Bavaria to such a degree, that he again revolted; but the unexpected appearance of the Saxons obliged him to submit. Still, however, the ambition of the empress kept matters in a ferment. The emperor died, in 841, after a most unfortunate reign of 27 years. Lewis I. was eminent for the mildness of his manners and peaceful virtues, which procured him the title of *Le Debonnaire*, or the gentle: but such was the turbulence and excessive barbarity of the age in which he lived, that all his virtues, instead of procuring him respect and esteem, produced only contempt and rebellion from those, whom duty and justice should have taught submission and obedience. The emperor's death produced a civil war among his sons. The united forces of Lothaire and Pepin were defeated by those of Charles and Lewis on the plains of Fontenoy, where 70,000 Franks perished, in 842. The conquerors having retired, each into their own dominions, Lothaire found means not only to recruit his troops, but to persuade the other two princes to vigorously, that they were glad to consent to a new partition of the empire. By this partition, Lothaire retained Burgundy, with the tract of country between the Rhine and Reine, and between the Moselle and Scheldt. Charles had Aquitain, with the country between the Loire and the Meuse, while Lewis had Bavaria, with the rest of Germany, from whence he was named *Le Roi des Germains*. By this partition, Germany and France were divided, to us never to be reunited. That part of France called to Lothaire, was more properly called *Lotharing*, now corrupted to *Lorraine*. The severity, however, which he had punished at the expense of every kind of duty, and to which he had attached himself, but little respected. Displeas'd with the emperor and his conduct by his situation, he found it not necessary to give up his kingdom, but he did not long stay in it, he sent Lewis the younger to his Kingdom, Lothaire with the eldest son Pepin, and to his youngest son Charles, furnished the *Bell. Bretonne*, Burgundy, and part of France, to his youngest son Charles, and properly the king of France.

THE HISTORY OF CHARLES THE GREAT, EMPEROR OF THE ROMANS, TO HIS DEATH. From 843 to 877 his province had been divided by the annual depredations of the Normans, a man who Charles was said to procure peace at a water engine *that might have ended on a field of war.* Brittany had also revolted; and then he returned by the appearance of Charles himself, and a

powerful army, he was no sooner embarrassed by the Normans, than they threw off the yoke, and under the conduct of their duke Lewis subdued the neighbouring country of Rennes; after which Lewis assumed the title of king, which he transmitted to his son Henspee. He subdued Charles; and his subjects, despising the imbecility of their king, put themselves under the protection of Lewis the German; who, taking the opportunity of Charles's absence repelling the Danes, marched with a formidable army into France, and was solemnly crowned by the Abp. of Sens in 857. Too confident, as it is established on the throne, he was persuaded to dismiss his German forces; when Charles marched against him with an army, and Lewis abandoned his new kingdom as easily as he had obtained it. The kingdom of Charles, however, continued in a very tottering situation. The Normans harassed him in one quarter, and the Bretons in another. He marched against the latter in 856; but was totally defeated after an engagement which had lasted two days. This was chiefly owing to a noted warrior named *Robert le Fort, or the Strong*, who commanded the Bretons; but Charles yielded him over, by giving him the title of Duke of France, including the country between the Seine and the Loire. The abilities of Robert supported Charles for a little; but his difficulties returned on his death; he was killed in repelling the Danes. The death of the king of Lorrain in 859 made some reparation; the cities of Lyons, Vienne, Toul, Belouan, Verdun, Cambrai, Viviers, and Uz. with the territories of Hainault, Zealand, and Holland, came to his share. Cologne, Utrecht, Treves, Mentz, Straßburg, and the rest of Lothaire's territories, were assigned to Lewis the German. Meanwhile the Normans continued their incursions, so that Solomon King of Brittany joined with Charles, to repel the common enemy: an event which ruined their enterprise, and they were glad to relinquish all the spoil they had taken. Charles delivered from a formidable enemy, aspired to the imperial crown, vacant by the death of Lewis. It belonged of right to Lewis the German; but Charles, having quickly assembled a powerful army, marched into Italy before Lewis could be apprised; and being favourably received at Rome, the Imperial crown was put upon his head by Pope Adrian II, in 873. Lewis discharged his duty on the defenceless country of Champagne; and though Charles obliged him to retire, yet he continued his preparations with such vigour, that Charles would probably have found him a very formidable adversary; but he died in 877. Charles no sooner heard of his brother's decease, than he invaded Franconia, Thuringia, and Lower Lorrain, which belonged to his son Lewis. He was unsuccessful; and though superior in numbers, was defeated with great slaughter; and was at same time informed that the Normans had invaded his own territories, and taken possession of Rouen. These disasters affected him so that he fell dangerously ill, from which he was scarce recovered, when he was called into Italy to assist the Pope against the *Baracens*, aided by the duke of Paveventum and the *Greek emperor*. Charles passed into Italy with *but a few followers; but when he came to Pavia,*

where the Pope had appointed to meet was informed that Carloman king of Bavaria son of Lewis the German, had entered I a powerful army, and claimed the imp in his father's right. Charles prepared to meet him; but his generals conspired against I the soldiers refused to pass the Alps. Charles obliged to retire to France, while C dreading him, prepared to return to C This was the last of Charles's enterpri journey brought on a return of his d which was rendered fatal through the tre a Jewish physician named Zedechias, w uttered poison to him. He expired in a cottage upon mount Cenis, in the 34th his age, and 38th of his reign.

(19.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM C II'S DEATH, TO THE DEPOSITION OF C III. The ambition of Charles had occasioned much distress both to himself and his son Lewis II, surnamed, *the Stammerer*, of a quite different disposition; but his administration was ill calculated to retrieve. He died on the 10th of April 879, a queen Adelaide pregnant; who soon delivered of a son, named *Charles*. His death followed an interregnum; during which a faction was formed in favour of the princes, sons to Lewis the brother of C II. It proved abortive; and the two sons of king, Lewis III. and Carloman, were kings of France. Another kingdom was then erected by an assembly of the states, of Provence, which consisted of the count called *Lyonnais, Savoy, Dauphiny, Franche* and part of Burgundy; and this kingdom given to Duke Boïon, brother-in-law to C II. In 883, they both died; Lewis, by a wound, and Carloman of a wound. This produced an interregnum; which ended with the death of Charles III, surnamed *the Good*, in Germany. His reign was very unfortunate; the Normans whom he had allowed to settle in the land, sailed up the Seine with a fleet of 2000, and laid siege to Paris. Charles, who had force to oppose them, prevailed on them to retire by a large sum of money. But as he could not advance the money at once, they remained all the winter; and in return, plundered the country, amassing vast wealth besides which Charles had promised. Charles fled to Germany, in a very declining state. Here he quarrelled with his empress; and abandoned by all his friends, he was reduced to such distress, that he would have had bread to eat, had not he been supplied by the Abp. of Mentz, out of charity.

(20.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM C III'S DEPOSITION, TO THE EXCLUSION OF THE CARLOVINGIAN RACE. Eudes count of Flanders chosen king by the nobility during the minority of Charles IV. surnamed *the Simple*, the son of C II, by Adelaide. He defeated the Normans, and repressed the power of the nobility; but a faction was formed in favour of Charles V. was sent for, with his mother, from Germany. Eudes with uncommon moderation, distinguished with great bravery, peaceably re-

greatest part of the kingdom to him, and consented to do homage for the rest. He died soon after this agreement, in 973. During the reign of Charles IV, the French Government declined. By introducing fiefs, those noblemen who had got possession of governments, confined to them and their heirs for ever, became in a manner independent sovereigns: and as they had others under them, and they again others under them, and even these had their vassals a vast number of intemporal little tyrannies were thus erected. The Normans, too, ravaged the country in the most unmerciful manner. At last Charles ceded to Rollo, the captain of these barbarians, the duchy of Normandy; who thereupon became Christian, changed his name to Robert, and that of the duchy to NORMANDY. During the remainder of the reign of Charles the Simple, the usurpations of Robert, grandfather of Hugh Capet, and of Rodolph D. of Burgundy, and the whole reigns of Lewis IV. furnished the *Saxons*, Lothaire, and Lewis V. the poster of the Carolingian race continually declined; till at last they were supplanted by Hugh Capet, who had been created duke of France by Lothaire. This revolution happened in 987, and was brought about much in the same manner as the former one had been by Pepin.

(11) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM HUGH CAPE'S ASSUMPTION OF THE CROWN, TO HENRY I'S DEATH. Hugh Capet did not assume the crown till the death of Lewis V, when he was preferred by the voice of the nation, to his rival Charles D. of Lorraine. He proved an active and prudent monarch, and very fit to keep his tumultuous subjects in awe. He died on the 24th Oct. 996, leaving his dominions in perfect quiet to his son Robert. The new king inherited the good qualities of his father. In his reign the kingdom was enlarged by the death of Henry duke of Burgundy, the king's uncle, whom he succeeded. This new territory, however, occasioned a war of several years continuance, against some pretenders to that duchy; and had it not been for the assistance of the D. of Normandy, it is doubtful whether the king would have succeeded.—As Robert preferred peace and tranquillity to extended dominions with a precarious tenure, he refused Italy and the imperial crown, both which were offered him. He died on the 20th July, 1030, having reigned 33 years, and lived 60. He was succeeded by his son Henry I. who met with great opposition from his mother. She had always hated him; and preferred his younger brother Robert, in whose favour she now raised an insurrection. By the assistance of Robert duke of Normandy, however, Henry overcame all his enemies, and established himself on the throne. In return he supported William, Robert's natural son, afterwards king of England, in the duchy of Normandy: but afterwards, he not only supported the pretenders to the duchy of Normandy secretly, but invaded that country himself. Proving unsuccessful, he was obliged to make peace: but no sincere reconciliation ever followed; the treaty, therefore, was quickly broken; and Henry once more invaded Normandy with two armies. The first was harassed by continual skirmishes, and the last totally defeated; after which Henry was obliged

to agree to the duke's terms; but the rancour between them never ceased, and was the cause of that enmity, which for many years produced perpetual quarrels between France and the Norman kings in England. Henry died in 1065, as was suspected, by poison.

(12) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM HENRY I'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP I. Henry was succeeded by his eldest son Philip, only 7 years of age. Baldwin earl of Flanders, his guardian, died in 1066, about the time that William of Normandy conquered England. After his death, Philip began to show a very sincere, haughty, and oppressive disposition. He engaged in a war with William the Conqueror, and supported his son Robert in his rebellion against him: (see ENGLAND, § 19.) and after William's death he assisted Robert's brothers against him; by which he was forced to consent to a partition of his dominions. In 1092, Philip procured a divorce from Bertha, and proposed marriage to Emma, daughter to Roger count of Calabria. The treaty was concluded; and the princess sent over, with much treasure in jewels, and ready money: but the king retained her fortune, dismissed the princess, and carried off the princess of Anjou, one of the handsomest women in France, from her husband. He procured a divorce between her and her husband, and a Norman bishop solemnized his own marriage with her. These transactions were so scandalous, that pope Urban II, in a council held at Autun, in 1094, excommunicated Philip, in case he would not part with the countess. He professed repentance and was absolved, a 2d and a 3d time, always returning to the countess when the censure was taken off; by which conduct he became despicable; although too many of the nobility followed his example, but at the same time despised his authority; not only making war upon each other, but robbing his subjects with impunity. In 1110, Philip prevailed on the court of Rome to have his affair revised in an assembly at Poitiers; where, in spite of his utmost efforts, sentence of excommunication was a 4th time pronounced against him. Notwithstanding all these sentences, as Q. Bertha was dead, and the count of Anjou, bribed by a large sum of money, assisted in procuring a dispensation, the countess was proclaimed queen of France. But though their domestic affairs were now quieted, his negligence had thrown the affairs of the nation into great disorder. He therefore associated in the government his eldest son Lewis. This prince was the very reverse of his father; and by his activity and resolution, he reduced the rebellious nobility to submission, and saved the state from being utterly subverted. For these services the queen became so jealous of his popularity, that he found it necessary to retire to England; where he was graciously received by Henry I. He had not been long at court, before Henry received a letter from Philip, requesting him closely to confine his son, or even *dispute him!* Henry, however, instead of complying with this infamous request, showed the letter to Lewis, and sent him home with all imaginable marks of respect. On his return, he demanded justice; but the queen caused poison to be given him. A stranger, however, saved his life; but a palene



remained in his face ever afterwards, though he grew so fat that he was surnamed *the Gross*. He determined to revenge his quarrel by force; but his father having caused the queen to make the most humble submissions to him, he was appeased. Philip died in 1108, and was succeeded by his son Lewis VI.

(23.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS VI'S ACCESSION, TO THE DEATH OF LEWIS VII. The first years of Lewis's reign were disturbed by insurrections of his lords, which were secretly fomented by Henry I. of England, that, by weakening France, Normandy might be the more secure. This quickly brought on a war; in which Henry was defeated, and his son William obliged to do homage to Lewis for Normandy. But Lewis not long after espoused the cause of William the son of Robert duke of Normandy, whom Henry had unjustly deprived of that duchy. This brought on a new war, in which Lewis, being defeated, was obliged to make a short-lived peace upon any terms. Lewis soon renewed his intrigues in favour of William, and formed a confederacy against Henry; which the latter not only dissipated, but prevailed upon the emperor Henry V. to invade France with all his forces on one side, while he was to attack it on the other. But Lewis having collected an army of 200,000 men, both thought proper to desist. He would have marched into Normandy, but his great vassals refused; saying that they had assembled to defend France from a foreign prince, not to enlarge his power. This was followed by a peace with Henry; which, as both monarchs had now seen the extent of each other's power, was made on pretty equal terms, and kept during the life of Lewis, who died in 1137, and was succeeded by his son Lewis VII. The young king was not endowed with any of those qualities which constitute a great monarch. In compliance with the superstition of the age, he undertook an expedition to the Holy Land, from whence he returned without glory. His queen Eleanor accompanied him; but he was so much offended with her gallantries there, as well as afterwards, that he divorced her, and returned the duchy of Guienne, her portion. Six weeks after this she married Henry duke of Normandy, count of Anjou and Maine, and heir apparent to the crown of England. This marriage was a very great mortification to Lewis; and procured him the surname of *the Young*, on account of his jealousy. When Henry II. ascended the throne of England, some wars were carried on between him and Lewis, with little advantage on either side. At last, however, a reconciliation took place; and Lewis took a voyage to England, to visit the shrine of St Thomas of Canterbury. On his return he was struck with an apoplexy; which, though he partially recovered, rendered his right side paralytic; and having languished for about a year, he died on the 17th Sept. 1180, leaving the kingdom to his son Philip II.

(24.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS VII'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP II. Philip II. formed *The Gift of God*, *The Magnanimous*, and *The Conqueror*, during his life, and *Augustus* after his death, is reckoned one of the greatest princes that ever sat on the throne of France. It is not

clear that these titles were well founded. Early in his reign he was opposed by a strong faction excited by his mother. Them he repressed with a vigour which did him honour; but his taking part with the children of Henry II. of England, their unnatural contests, and his treacherous combination with John to seize his brother's kingdom when he was detained in prison by the emperor Germany, are indelible stains on his character, and for ever exclude him from the title of *Magnanimous*. As to military skill and personal valour, he was evidently inferior to Richard I. of England; and can his recovering of the provinces held by the English in France, from such a dastardly prince John, intitle him to the epithet of *Conqueror*. In politics he was evidently the dupe of the pope. An account of these transactions, which are the principal ones of this reign, is given under ENGLAND, § 23—26. Philip II. died in 1223.

(25.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS VII'S ACCESSION TO THE DEATH OF ST LEWIS. Lewis VIII. succeeded his father Philip II. in 1223; and had been crowned king of England, while Dauphin, in 1216. See ENGLAND, § 25, 26. His reign in France was short, being only 3 years. He besieged Avignon with 50,000 men; lost his brave troops; and dying in 1226, was succeeded by Lewis IX, afterwards surnamed *St Louis*. This prince possessed many good qualities, but was deeply tinctured with superstition. This induced him to engage in two expeditions. The first was against the Saracens in Egypt, in which he was taken prisoner and cruelly treated; but ransomed by paying a million of pieces of gold, and surrendering Damietta. He no sooner regained his liberty, than entered on a new expedition into Syria; but for this he was soon obliged to return, by the death of his mother, whom he had appointed regent and who had managed the national affairs with great prudence. He found many disorders on his return, which he set himself to reform. Having succeeded in this, he yielded to Henry III. of England, the Limousin, Querci, Perigord, and for other places; in consideration of Henry and his son prince Edward renouncing all pretensions to Normandy, and the other provinces of France which the English had formerly possessed. The reputation of Lewis for justice was so great, that the barons of England and king Henry III. made him umpire in their differences. But though he just, his decision had no good effect. At last, having settled every thing in his kingdom, he set out on another expedition for Africa; where he died of the plague, on the 25th Aug. 1270.

(26.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS IX'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP III. Philip III, surnamed *the Simple*, notwithstanding his father's misfortunes, continued the war against the Infidels with great vigour; and by the assistance of his uncle Charles king of Sicily, he brought the war to a fortunate conclusion. The Saracens were defeated in two engagements, and the king of Tunis was obliged to sue for peace; offering to double the tribute he formerly paid the crown of Sicily; reimburse the expenses of the war; and to permit Christianity to be freely propagated throughout his dominions. The two princes then set sail for Europe; but the seeds of the distemper which he

infected

infected the army in Africa, not being eradicated, broke forth on their arrival in Sicily, and raged with great violence. The king's brother John, his queen Isabella, with the king and queen of Navarre, the count and countess of Poitiers, and many others, perished by this dreadful malady. On his return, Philip took possession of Provence and Toulouse; married his 2d son, then very young, to the only daughter of the king of Navarre; while he himself espoused Mary, daughter of the duke of Brabant. He cultivated the friendship of Edward I. of England, and entered into a war with Spain. But his attention was quickly called off by the death of his eldest son Lewis, in 1275, at the age of 12. The young queen, Mary, was accused by one La Brosse, of having poisoned him. Philip gave some credit to this accusation; but, applying to an inspired nun, her answer proved fatal to La Brosse. Mary, cleared by this pretended prophesy, La Brosse was accused of treason, and condemned. The manner of his trial and execution, however, were such, that the tide of popular favour was turned; La Brosse was thought innocent, and the king and queen strongly suspected. At this time the Sicilians, over whom Charles of Anjou ruled, instigated by John of Procida, a noble exile, resolved to break the French yoke by a general massacre. This was accordingly put in execution; and the French, to the number of 8000, murdered in one night. Charles, sensibly affected by this, laid siege to Messina, and sailed directly to Marseilles, where he obtained a powerful reinforcement. In his absence his son, to whom he had entrusted the siege, having nobly engaged with the Spanish fleet, was defeated and taken prisoner. His father died of grief, and Sicily was attached to the house of Arragon. The misfortunes of Charles were followed by others equally great to Philip himself. Pope Martin IV. in his zeal for the duke of Anjou, had excommunicated Peter king of Arragon, and bestowed his kingdom on Charles of Valois, a younger son of the king of France. In defending himself against this unjust sentence, Peter was mortally wounded; but the defeat of the French fleet so much affected Philip, that he fell sick. His disease, aided by the heat of the climate, fatigue, grief and infirmities, proved fatal. He died at Burgundy in the 41st year of his age, and 16th of his reign.

IN FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP IV's ACCESSION TO HIS DEATH. By the death of Philip the Hardy the French crown devolved on his 2d son, called also Philip, from the beauty of his person, surnamed *the Fair*; who had espoused the princess of Navarre, and was then in his 17th year. By marrying this princess he had obtained the counties of Champagne and Brie; yet with all this additional power he was unable to support the war in which his predecessor had engaged. For this reason he abandoned the interest of the Infants de la Cerda, and settled the differences with Castile. This was effected by Edward I. of England; by whose mediation also Charles the Lame, son to the duke of Anjou, was released from his captivity; Edward himself paying part of his ransom. On this Charles renounced his claim to Sicily; and Philip promised that his

kinsman, Philip of Valois, should renounce pretensions to the crown of Arragon. In return the latter obtained the eldest daughter of Charles with Anjou and Maine as a dowry. This tranquillity, however, was soon interrupted by differences with Edward the promoter of it, pope Boniface VIII. and Guy de Dampier, count of Flanders. That with England was accidental. A Norman and an English vessel having met off the coast of Bayonne, and both needing water, the crew quarrelled. A Norman was killed by his own weapon, with which he assaulted an Englishman; the Normans complained to Philip; who, instantly allowed them to redress their supposed injury. On this a piratical war commenced, in which the sovereigns for some time took no active part though other nations interfered; the Irish and Dutch seamen siding with the English, and those of Flanders and Genoa with the French. At last the affair became so serious, that in one engagement 15,000 French perished. Philip, alarmed, summoned the king of England as his vassal to attend; and, on his refusal, declared his estates France forfeited. After many negotiations, Philip declared he would be satisfied with the nomination of Guienne, which he conveyed instantly to the king of England, as soon as it should be put into his hands. Edward accepted, but if sooner had Philip obtained possession, than he possessed in the forfeiture; this treachery instantly produced a war. Edward concluded a treaty with the emperor Adolphus, together with the count of Brittany, Holland, Bar, Juliers, Gueldres, and Flanders; while Philip league'd with John Balliol of Scotland. During this war the French made descent on the coast of England, and destroyed Dover; while Edward, in revenge, landed in Guienne with an army of 30,000 men. But being pretty equally matched, a suspension of arms for two years was agreed to; during which a peace was finally concluded, by pope Boniface VII. Guienne was restored; Edward espoused Margaret the sister of Philip; while his daughter Isabel was given to the prince of Wales. Philip and Edward behaved to their allies with equal perfidy. Balliol was abandoned to the resentment of Edward; while Guy, earl of Flanders, was left exposed to the resentment of Philip. This reconciliation was soon followed by a difference with pope Boniface, the mediator between them. They had inserted in their reference, that he was chosen as a private man, and not as Pope. The haughty pontiff soon showed that he was not to be treated so, and a contest with Philip quickly ensued. Boniface forbid the clergy to grant the king any subsidies without the consent of the Holy See. Philip in revenge prohibited them from sending monies out of the kingdom without his leave; and protecting the Colonnas, the implacable enemies of Boniface. This irritated his holiness that he summoned the clergy of France to Rome; while Philip retaliated, by seizing the temporalities those who obeyed the summons, and recalling his brother Charles of Valois, the pope's general. He also dispatched two cardinals, to levy such a body of troops as might execute his hostile purposes. With these he suddenly invested the pope in Avignon; and while the bull was preparing for

excommunication of Philip, the Pope himself was taken prisoner by Philip's troops. Though Boniface had been delivered up by the treachery of the people of Anagnina, yet he was no sooner a prisoner and in distress, than they rescued him and conveyed him to Rome, where he soon after died. His successor Benedict X. revoked the excommunication, and attempted to regain Philip by gentle means: but, before this could be effected, he died, not without suspicion of poison. After his decease Philip offered to procure the papal chair for Bertrand archbishop of Bourdeaux, if he would condemn the memory of Boniface, restore the Colonnes which had been forfeited, allow him, for five years, the tenths of the clergy of France, and comply with a request which at that time it was not proper to divulge. Bertrand, on these terms, ascended the papal throne by the name of *Clement V*, but was nearly killed returning from the cathedral of Lyons, by the falling of a wall; by which accident the duke of Brittany was killed, and the king and count of Valois considerably bruised. The new pope resided at Avignon, where he complied with all the conditions, except as to the conduct of Boniface, which he refused. That which Philip had at first concealed, was discovered by the death of the emperor Albert of Austria; after which event he desired Clement to assist him in placing his brother Charles of Valois on the Imperial throne. But his holiness, apprehensive of danger, urged the diet instantly to elect Henry of Luxemburg. The election was over before Philip arrived at Avignon; and the only consolation he could obtain was the possession of Lyons, which had hitherto maintained an independency under its own archbishop. Mean time Guy, E. of Flanders, abandoned by Edward of England, was obliged to throw himself on the mercy of the French monarch, who had sent his brother, Charles of Valois, with a powerful army to invade his dominions. From the latter indeed he had obtained a promise, that if he could not, within a year, compose the differences between him and Philip, he should be at liberty to retire, and pursue what measures he pleased. But Philip detained him, with two of his sons, in close confinement, while he himself entering Flanders was every where received as sovereign; and at his departure appointed John de Chatillon, a relation of the queen to govern those territories. The new governor repaired the fortifications, but being of a very tyrannical disposition, and the times not allowing his master to keep regular garrisons, an insurrection took place. This would have been effectually quelled by the magistrates, had not Chatillon unluckily entered Bruges, and publicly displayed two hogheads of ropes, which he threatened to employ in the execution of the inhabitants. On this they flew to arms, and massacred 1500 French; Chatillon escaped by swimming over the town ditch. The insurgents, soon amounting to an army of 60,000 men, besieged Courtray. Here they were rashly attacked by count Artois, who was cut off with 20,000 of his troops. Philip determined on revenge; tho' at the expense of debasing the coin of the kingdom. But this enabled him to enter Flanders with such force as would probably have subdued the whole country, had not Edward artfully

communicated to the queen of France, as a feigned correspondence between the French nobility and the court of Rome; by which intelligence Philip was induced to abandon the enterprise. The war continued, but Philip was finally defeated by the Flemings; and the only compensation Philip obtained was Courtray. The next remarkable transaction was the expulsion of the Templars, who enjoyed immense possessions in France. Their estates were confiscated and upwards of 50 of them were put to death. The grand master with three of his principal officers, were killed by a slow fire. All these unfortunate knights were accused of the most gross sensualities. Particulars were said to be revealed, by two criminals who were pardoned for the discovery they made; which were confirmed by their confession. But this confession was afterwardstracted, as being extorted; and those who still maintained their purity to the last: On the whole, it was believed that Philip consulted avarice in this cruel execution. His latter years were embittered by domestic misfortunes. His daughters-in-law, Margaret daughter of the king of Navarre and Jean and Blanch of the count of Burgundy the wives of Lewis, Philip, and Charles, were charged with infidelity. After a severe trial Margaret and Blanch were condemned to perpetual imprisonment; and Margaret was afterwards strangled by order of her husband Lewis. His other paramours, Philip and Walter de Launay, two others, were stayed alive, and hung on a gibbet with an usher, their confidant. The uneasiness which Philip suffered on this account is supposed to have hastened his death, in 1314, in the 50th year of his age, and 30th of his reign.

(28.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP IV'S DEATH, TO THAT OF PHILIP V, AND THE ACCESSION OF CHARLES IV. Lewis X, surnamed *Hautin*, or the *Boysen*, on account of his violent temper, found his treasury so exhausted that he was obliged to delay the ceremony of coronation with his queen Clemente, daughter of the king of Hungary. Finding the kingdom very distracted, he applied himself to appease his subjects, and conciliate their affection. In this he was assisted by his uncle Charles of Valois whom he at length deposed of the government of the kingdom. This regent, however, acted with such cruelty as is said to have proved fatal to himself; for having put to death a noble named *Enguerrand de Poitiers de Marigni*, who enjoyed the late king's confidence, this was so resented, that his friends were thought to administer poison to the king; who expired suddenly after drinking a glass of cold water, in the 26th year of his age, and 2d of his reign. On his death, Charles prepared to dispute the regency with his brothers. Philip count of Flanders, the eldest brother, was then at Rome assisting in the election of a new pope; but on his return the throne was assigned to him by the unanimous voice of the people. His prospects were clouded by the queen-dowager Clémence being delivered of a son, who was introduced among the king's France, under the name of *Jehan I*. His death lasted 3 weeks, or as Marcel says, in 8 days, before the throne to Philip V, who, on account

was surnamed the *Long*. His conduct superior to that of his predecessor, as he the Flemings, and compelled their sovereign to a peace. He summoned Edward king of England to do homage for his lands in France; but that monarch was in difficulties, which rendered the visit out, and sent excuses to Philip, which he refused. He sent an army into Italy to quiet the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, which long filled that country with blood; but the event proved unfortunate, a contagious distemper swept off many thousands of the French. Superstition imputed this to a conspiracy with the Saracens to poison the king. A persecution instantly commenced against them, and great numbers of them were burnt; while the populace insulted their persons and plundered their houses without remorse. The remainder of Philip's reign was spent in regaining internal concerns of the kingdom. He died of a fever and dysentery in 1322, the 28th of April and 6th of his reign, and was succeeded by his son Charles IV. surnamed the *Fair*.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP THE SIXTH TO THAT OF PHILIP VI. Charles settling some disputes with the duke of Burgundy, dissolved his marriage with Blanche, and married in prison, and espoused Mary sister of Henry VIII. emperor of Germany; his marriage had in view the imperial crown, which had been so long separated from France; and in 1325 the imperial crown was disputed between Lewis of Bavaria duke of Austria; the latter of whom had been prisoner in a battle with Lewis. But Lewis, who entertained an implacable hatred against Lewis, excommunicated him. The king then embarked in the same cause, with an alliance of Bavaria; while Frederic contended to acquish his claim to the empire which Lewis successfully maintained. Lewis, however, receiving his prisoner, and dismissing him, alarmed the pope and Leopold preserved their neutrality, while it was determined that a new election should be held, to transfer the crown to Charles. In pursuit of this scheme, the king of France set out for Germany with a splendid army; but soon found that the impossibility of accomplishing his wish, Leopold alone remained his friend; and even in law the king of Bohemia absented himself from the diet; while the death of the king put an end to all connections with that prince. On the decease of Mary, Charles espoused his daughter to the count of Evreux; and to avoid the danger of an infant succession, he contracted an alliance with Robert king of Scotland; that it was provided, that should either die without heir apparent, the states of the kingdom should elect the vacant throne, and the surviving king should assist with his whole power at the nomination. Charles died in the 24th year of his age, leaving his son Edward a regent; and as the succession depended on a regent, a regent was necessary. Two candidates instantly appeared, urging at the same

time their right to the crown as well as the regency. These were, Philip of Valois, cousin-german to the deceased king; and Edward III. king of England the nephew of Charles, who aspired to the throne in right of his mother. His pretensions were easily set aside, and Philip was confirmed regent: from which he soon after stepped into the throne, the queen being delivered of a daughter; from which he acquired the surname of the *Fortunate*. He summoned the English monarch to do homage for his possessions in France; and upon his not answering his summons, forfeited them, and seized his revenues. This induced Edward to cross the sea and pay homage; which Philip consented to receive, upon condition of a proper explanation being given; but as this was studiously delayed, after the return of the king of England, Guienne was again seized by the French monarch. Edward unwilling to lose his continental dominions, or involve himself in a war for the sake of a mere ceremony sent over a formal deed, acknowledging that he owed liege homage to France. Thus the flame was smothered for the time, and would perhaps have been entirely extinguished, but for the intrigues of Robert of Artois, brother-in-law to Philip VI. who had been expelled his country, and had taken refuge in England. By him he was persuaded to renew his pretensions to the crown of France, which of necessity produced a war. For some time, neither party made any open declaration of hostility; but each knew the other's designs. Philip, under pretence of taking the cross, made prodigious armaments, and formed alliances on every side; while Edward, resolving to renew his claim to the crown of France, projected the conquest of Scotland. In this, he failed; and Philip, to favour the Scots, with whom he was in alliance, suffered his subjects to make irruptions into Guienne. In 1337, the war broke out. Philip, having detached part of his fleet against the Infidels, employed the rest, chiefly Genoese vessels, against the English. The Flemings were courted by both. Lewis count of Flanders declared for Philip, but his subjects were more inclined to Edward. James Arteville a brewer, a valiant and artful man, governed them as if he had been their prince; and the English commencing determining him in favour of Edward, that prince, at his request, embarked for Stuyves with a numerous army. He arrived in 1338; and on his first landing, it was resolved that the German princes in alliance with him should attack Arras. But the Flemings, who were vassals of France, pretended scruples at invading their hegemony. To quiet these, Edward assumed the title of *King of France*; and by virtue of this right claimed their assistance to dethrone Philip of Valois as an usurper. This step, which he feared would beset jealousy, he could not take without consulting, and, from that time we may date that national animosity which the English have so long born to the French. A bold and rash attempt was made on the city of Cambrai; but it was soon repulsed upon by Robert of Artois, to raise the king's army to march into Brandy. This country he covered with an army of near 60,000 men, in May 1340. Philip appeared with an army of 100,000 men, and a

pected. But Edward was averse to engage against so great a superiority; and Philip thought it sufficient if he eluded the attacks of his enemy. The two armies faced each other for several days; mutual challenges were sent; and Edward at last retired into Flanders, and dispersed his army. Such was the fruitless conclusion of Edward's first expedition, which plunged him into difficulties. He had contracted near 300,000*l.* of debt; anticipated all his revenue; pawned every thing of value either of his own or his queen's; nay, he was obliged in some measure even to pawn himself to his creditors, by desiring their permission to go over to England to procure supply, and by promising to return in person if he did not remit their money. On his arrival in England, however, he procured a large supply, sufficient to make all the necessary preparations for a new invasion; and so certain were the English that France would now be conquered, that the parliament, before Edward's departure, protested that they owed him no obedience as king of France, but that the two kingdoms must remain for ever distinct and independent. Edward set out on his second expedition with a fleet of 240 vessels. Philip had prepared a fleet of 400 vessels, manned with 40,000 men; which he stationed off Sluys, to intercept him. The two fleets met on the 13th of June 1340; the English, with the wind of the evening, and the sun on their backs, began the action. It was fierce and bloody: The English archers, whose address was now much celebrated, galled the French; and when the ships grappled, the example of the king and nobility with him so animated the seamen and soldiers, that they everywhere maintained the superiority. The Flemings, observing the battle from the shore, sent a reinforcement to the English; which, coming unexpectedly, had a greater effect than in proportion to its power and numbers; 230 ships were taken, and 30,000 Frenchmen killed, with two admirals: the loss of the English was inconsiderable, compared to the importance of the victory. None of Philip's courtiers dared to inform him of the event; till his jester gave him a hint, by which he discovered the loss he had sustained. After this great victory, Edward landed, and laid siege to Tournay. Philip marched to its relief; and acted with so much caution, that Edward found himself in a manner blocked up in his camp; and the countess dowager of Hainault, sister to Philip, mother-in-law to Edward, and sister-in-law to Robert of Artois, coming out of a convent, interposed with so much spirit and address, that she effected a truce for one year, and might perhaps have brought about a peace had she survived. In 1341, however, Edward's ambition was once more excited by the count de Montfort, who had possessed himself of Brittany, an appanage to Edward to reward his services. This request entirely coincided with Edward's desires. Montfort was an active and valiant prince, and inclined to him by interest, and he had had an entrance into the heart of France. The English projects, however, were dashed by the opposition of Montfort; who, some being discovered, he was besieged in Nantz and taken. But *Jane of Flanders, his wife, soon made up for the*

loss of her husband; assembled the inhabitants of Rennes, where she then resided; and carrying infant son in her arms, deplored her misfortune and inspired the citizens with zeal for her cause. The inhabitants of Nantz instantly espoused her interests, and all the other fortresses of Brittain followed their example. Edward was intreated to send succours with all possible expedition to Hennebone, where she resolved to sustain the attacks of the enemy. Charles de Blois, Philip's general, anxious to make himself master of this important fortress, and still more to take the countess a prisoner, sat down before the place with a large army, and conducted the siege with indefatigable industry. The defence was less vigorous: several sallies were made by the garrison, in which the countess herself led on the assault. Observing one day that all the French had quitted the camp to join in a general sally, she sallied out at the head of 306 horse, set fire to the enemies tents, put their sutlers to the sword, and occasioned such an alarm, that the French desisted from the assault, to cut off her communication with the town. Thus intercepted, she retired to Auray, where she continued 5 or 6 days, then returning at the head of 500 horse, she found her way through the French camp, and joined her faithful citizens in triumph. But the besiegers had at length made several breaches in the walls; and it was thought that a general assault would be fatal. A capitulation was proposed, and a conference begun, when the countess, being informed of the approach of the English ships at sea, desisted from the negotiation. She immediately exclaimed that succours were arrived, and forbade any further capitulation. She was not disappointed; the fleet arrived a day or two of English gentlemen, with 6000 archers whom Edward had sent, and who had been detained by contrary winds. They were led to the harbour by Sir Walter Mauny, one of the most valiant commanders of his time. This reinforced the army, and served to keep up the declining spirits of the countess until the late truce was expired; when she was followed by a more considerable reinforcement under Robert of Artois, who made himself master of Vannes: but the Bretons soon recovered the city, and Robert was mortally wounded. Edward, eager to revenge his death, soon landed at Morbihan with an army of 12,000 men. At these he undertook at once the siege of Vannes, Nantz, and Rennes; but by dividing his forces he failed in all, and gave an opportunity to John, duke of Normandy, the king of France's cousin, to invade him in his camp. His provisions soon failed, and Edward, with all his valour, had he not, by artful negotiations, induced Philip to consent to a truce of 10 years. This was effected by the court of Rome, and the French monarch soon saw the partition of that court, and the imprudence of the step he had taken. Edward found a pretence to renege the truce, from the execution of some noble Bretons, who, he said, were partisans of Montfort, and chose to look upon this as an infraction of the treaty. Philip secured himself against the power of his rival by alliances, and by purchasing Montpellier from the king of Majorca: but it meantime, the English, commanded by the

by, had invaded Guienne, twice defeated  
 each army under Count de Lisle, and made  
 riev matters of many towns. Philip, by  
 exhausted state of his treasury, could not  
 any opposition. To recruit his finances,  
 a duty on salt; which nearly excited a re-  
 1. When these discontents were alluaged,  
 led an army of 100,000 men, whose courage  
 uted by the presence of the dukes of Nor-  
 y and Burgundy. The English general was  
 re compelled to stand upon the defensive.  
 fortres yielded after another, till at length  
 appeared but a total extinction of the  
 of England upon the continent. In this  
 00, Edward embarked, in 1345, at South-  
 on, on board a fleet of near 1000 sail. He  
 id with him the chief nobility of England,  
 usel left son the prince of Wales (the *Black*  
 ), a youth of about 15 years old, and alrea-  
 markable both for understanding and valour.  
 army consisted of 4500 men at arms, 10,000  
 ns, 10,000 Welsh infantry, and 6000 Irish;  
 hich he landed safely at La Hogue, a port in  
 ndy, which country he determined to make  
 out of the war. The intelligence of Edward's  
 ing, and the devastations made by his troops,  
 great universal consternation. The rich ci-  
 ties was taken and plundered; the villages  
 town, up to Paris, shared the same fate;  
 the French could only break down their  
 ge, to stop the invader's career. In the mean  
 a Philip had stationed his general, Godemar  
 Bre, with an army on the opposite side of the  
 00, over which Edward must pass; while he  
 left at the head of 120,000 fighting men, ad-  
 ed to give battle. Edward, thus exposed to  
 00, or being inclosed in an enemy's coun-  
 00, promised a reward to any that should inform  
 00, of the passage over the Somme. This was dis-  
 00, of a peasant, named *Cobin Lycaze*; and  
 00, and he got his whole army over the  
 when Philip appeared, in his rear. A bat-  
 00, in which the French were overthrown  
 00, great slaughter. See *CRESSY*. Edward  
 00, advised Calais, which was then defended by  
 de Vienne, an experienced commander, and  
 00, and with every thing necessary for defence.  
 00, at length taken, after a year's siege. See  
 00, 1358. From the beginning of this un-  
 00, Philip had invariably showed him-  
 00, self desirous of peace, and the victory of Cressy  
 00, did not make him more so. Edward also, not-  
 00, withstanding his necessities, was unable to support  
 00, any longer. The mediation of Rome  
 00, was readily accepted, and a truce for 3  
 00, years made. At the same time, Philip met  
 00, with recompense for the losses he had suf-  
 00, fered by the acquisition of Dauphiny. See  
 00, 1355. Soon after this, Philip was married  
 00, to the daughter of Philip count of Ev-  
 00, and Jane queen of Navarre; and his son  
 00, the count of Boulogne. But this do-  
 00, double treaty was soon interrupted by the death  
 00, of Philip, who expired in 1350, the 37th year  
 00, of his reign.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP VI's  
 TO THE DEFEAT AND CAPTURE OF H.  
 THE BLACK PRINCE. On his death, his

eldest son John succeeded; but he very soon disga-  
 ted his nobility by an unseasonable act of severity.  
 Robert de Brienne, count of Eu and Guines, had  
 been taken prisoner at Caen; and under pretence  
 of negotiating his ransom, had passed several times  
 between France and England; but being accused  
 of a treasonable correspondence with Edward, he  
 was suddenly arrested, and beheaded, without any  
 trial. At his death it is said, that he confessed  
 his treason; but this has not been authenticated.  
 Having been countable of France, the badge of his  
 office was delivered to Charles de la Carda; but  
 he was equally unfortunate, being soon after as-  
 sassinated by Charles king of Navarre, surnamed  
*The Wicked*. This prince, celebrated for his per-  
 sonal qualifications, but detested for his crimes,  
 was John's son-in-law. He had demanded the  
 duchy of Angouleme of the king; but as the lat-  
 ter bestowed it upon Carda, he had taken this  
 method of revenging himself. John did not fail  
 to show a proper resentment; but such was the  
 weakness of his government, that the king of Na-  
 varre let him at defiance, and would not even ask  
 pardon, until John had sent him his 2d son as an  
 hostage for his personal security. But the king of  
 Navarre even aspired to the crown of France it-  
 self; pretending a right from his mother, being  
 grandson by the female side of Louis X. But his  
 more immediate demands were Champagne and  
 Brie. John however bestowed Normandy on his  
 eldest son Charles; and commanded him to seize  
 the estates of the king of Navarre. On this the  
 latter soon appeared at Paris; and John was ob-  
 liged to appease his murmurs at the expence of  
 100,000 crowns. All this time the truce with Eng-  
 land had been ill observed on both sides; the  
 French had seized the port of St Jean d'Angeli;  
 and the English the town of Guisars. The rival  
 houses of Montfort and Blois still continued their  
 animosities; while Edward still threatened war.  
 The king of Navarre continued his intrigues; and  
 even the dauphin was drawn into a confederacy  
 against his father. John, however, being inform-  
 ed, found means to defeat them effectually. The  
 dauphin was reclaimed, by shewing him the dis-  
 advantages which must accrue to himself from the  
 connections he had formed. The king of Navarre  
 was invited, with his principal adherents, to an  
 entertainment, where they were arrested; the  
 former sent prisoner to Chateau Gaillard, and feve-  
 ral of the most obnoxious of the latter put to  
 death. The rest of the conspirators, not dismay-  
 ed by this check, immediately appeared in open  
 rebellion; and unable, without assistance to gain  
 their point, they invited over Edward from Eng-  
 land. That enterprising monarch had never lost  
 sight of his original object; and on the expiration  
 of the truce had sent his son, Edward the *Black*  
*Prince*, with a fleet towards the coast of France.  
 With this fleet the prince had entered the Gir-  
 00, 00, and burnt the towns and villages of Languedoc,  
 and retired with the plunder into the country of  
 Guienne. Edward himself, who had likewise  
 passed over to the continent, waited the country  
 at 120 miles St Omer; but the French king, deter-  
 mined to avoid a battle, prohibited his general,  
 the countable of Bourbon, from engaging, though  
 his army was much superior to that of the prince

of Wales. With the flower of his troops, however, he pursued Edward from St Omer to Hesdin, where he desired him to a pitched battle; but the latter disregarding his bravadoes, marched to Calais, and embarked for England. After his departure, John assembled the states of Paris, where he showed to fully the necessity of assisting him in the defence of the kingdom; that they voted him an army of 30,000 men during the war. To supply other exigencies they revived the duty on salt, and added other imposts; but at the same time appointed a committee to take care that the money was solely appropriated to the public service. John's satisfaction from these grants, and the suppression of some disturbances which happened about this time, was soon overcast by the news, that the Black Prince had marched with an army of 12,000 men from Bourdeaux; and, after ravaging the Agenois, Quercy, and the Limousin, had entered Berry. Young Edward had penetrated into the heart of France with this handful of forces, in hopes of joining the duke of Lancaster in Guienne. But he soon found that this was impracticable: the country before him was too well guarded to permit his advancing further; and all the bridges behind were broken down, which prevented a retreat. In this embarrassment his perplexity was increased, on learning that John was actually at the head of 60,000 men to intercept him. He at first thought of retreating: but finding that impossible, he determined calmly to await the approach of the enemy; and notwithstanding the disparity of forces, to hazard a battle. It was at *Maupey*, near Poitiers, that the armies came in sight. John might easily have starved the English into his own terms; but such was the impatient valour of the French nobility, and their certainty of success, that it might have been equally fatal to attempt repressing their ardour. In the meantime, while both armies were drawn out, and expecting the signal to begin, they were stopped by the cardinal of Perigord, who attempted to be a mediator between them. However, John, who thought himself sure of victory, would listen to no other terms than the restitution of Calais; with which the Black Prince refusing to comply, the onset was deferred till the morning, for which both sides waited in anxious suspense. During this interval, the prince strengthened his post; and placed 300 men in ambush, with as many archers, who were commanded to attack in flank during the heat of the engagement. Having taken these precautions, he ranged his army in three divisions; the van was commanded by the earl of Warwick, the rear by the earls of Salisbury and Suffolk, and the main body by himself. In like manner, the king of France arranged his forces in three divisions: the first commanded by the duke of Orleans; the 2<sup>d</sup> by the dauphin, attended by his younger brothers; while he himself led up the main body, seconded by his youngest and favourite son, then only 14 years of age. As the English were to be attacked only by marching up a long narrow lane, the French ordered greatly from their archers, who were posted behind the hedges. Upon emerging from this danger, they were met by the Black Prince himself at the head of his chosen troops, who made a furious

onset upon their forces, already in great disorder. A dreadful overthrow ensued: those yet on the recoiled on their forces; while the English had been placed in ambush, took that opportunity to increase the confusion, and confirm the rout. The dauphin and the duke of Orleans were among the first that fell. The king made the utmost efforts to retrieve by his valour what his rashness had forfeited; but his courage unable to stem that consternation which had prevailed through his army; and his cavalry flying, he found himself exposed to the enemy's fury. At length, spent with fatigue, and desisting of success, he cried out, that he would render to his cousin the prince of Wales, the honour of taking him, however, was reserved to a much more ignoble hand; he was seized by Dennis de Morbec, a knight of Arras who been obliged to fly his country for murder. April following, the prince conducted his prisoner through London, attended by an immense concourse of people of all ranks and states. Edward's modesty on this occasion was remarkable: The king of France was clad in royal purple, and mounted on a beautiful white steed, while the prince himself rode by his side on a little horse, and in very plain attire.

(31.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEFEAT OF K. JOHN, TO HIS DEATH. This disastrous defeat, which happened in 1256, almost entirely ruined the French affairs; and the mischief which ensued from this cause were greatly augmented by intestine commotions. The dauphin who had now assumed the government, was together unable to govern a turbulent people in such a crisis. An assembly of the states, which he called, limited the power of the prince, impeached former ministers, and demanded the liberty of the king of Navarre; and the treasurer of the crown was murdered by Marcel's order. The king, whom Marcel employed, was dragged to an altar where he had taken refuge, and instantly put to death. The bishop of Paris resented indignantly done to the church; and Marcel atoned his fate, by murdering both the king and the bishop, that his clothes were stained with their blood. The prince indignantly asked him, if he would be involved in the same destruction? when Marcel affected to provide for his safety by putting him a blue hood, the badge of the adherents of Navarre. The public disorders were augmented by the king of Navarre; and, tho' the dauphin even assured, that he had administered a dose of poison to him, he was obliged to pay him some assistance of regard. A scheme was even formed to change the government, to vest all the power in the commons, and leave the king an empty name; but though this was favourably received by the city of Paris, it was rejected by the rest of the kingdom. The dauphin was likewise rejected as regent by the states general, and the intendants of Picardy and Champagne took up his cause. In this critical situation, the minds of the people were heightened by an unexpected evil. The peasants, who had been long oppressed by the nobles, rose in great numbers to revenge themselves; the castles of the nobility were



of his daughters ravished, and themselves cruel deaths. At last they were obli-

The duke of Orleans cut off 12,000 heads, near the city of Paris; 12,000 sent by the king of Navarre; 9000, beheaded the town of Meaux, where the king three of her ladies of high rank had been taken by an officer in the service.

Amidst these confusions, Marcel perished by the result of his own raising; and the independent people of the nation revolted. His most dangerous enemy, king of Navarre, who had shared the Norman and English adventures, forced Edward into France, and brought back their fortunes; where they assumed the name of *Companions*. By such a competitor the dauphin was reduced to extremity, when his hopes were revived by a peace proposal from his rival, of peaceable terms. On the expiration of the treaty, Edward III. again set sail for England, before Calais with 1200 sail, under the *king of France*, and augmented to 100,000 men. The dauphin was cast on the defensive; shutting Paris, London, and allowing the English to ravage the country, and to penetrate through into Champagne; but Rheims, where he was to have been crowned, baffled their attempts. From Champagne, therefore, he retreated into Burgundy; pillaging Tonnerre, and Avalon. Burgundy was ransomed for 200,000 marks, and a like sum was paid for the dauphin and citizens had rendered it liable to famine, as well as to the assaults of

Thus the war went on till 1369, when Edward inclined to peace, as is said, by a message, to which his army was exposed camped in the fields around Châtillon. Adding all his victories, the French showed the least favour to his claim of succession; of Navarre, was a dangerous rival, and the dauphin deprived him of all admiration his valour and military skill. Conditions of peace were opened at Breigny; and on the following conditions, viz. That Edward should pay for his ransom, at different times three millions of crowns of gold (about half an half of our money); Edward never renounce all claim to the kingdom, and should remain possessed of Poitou, the Agenois, Perigord, the Limousin, Rouergue, Angoumois, and other dis- quarters, together with Calais, Guines, and Pontieu. Other stipulations were the allies of England, as a security for conditions. On John's return, he found himself unable to ratify these terms. He was James, at the head of an exhausted state; without discipline, and his peasants in a state of insubordination. These had risen in great numbers, and one of their chiefs assumed the title of *God and the terror of Man*. A knight of Sens, named *John Gouge*, also got him- self proclaimed king; and he soon caused as

many calamities by his devastations, as the real king had brought on by his misfortunes. Such was the state of that wretched kingdom on the return of its captive monarch: and yet such was his absurdity, that he prepared for a crusade into the Holy Land, before he was well replaced on the throne. Had his exhausted subjects been able to equip him, it is probable he would have gone through with it; but their miseries were such, that they could not pay his ransom. This was a breach of treaty that John could not submit to; and he was heard to express himself in a very noble manner upon the occasion. He therefore actually returned to England, and yielded himself a prisoner, since he could not be honourably free. He was lodged in the Savoy, the palace where he had resided during his captivity; and soon after closed a long and torturous reign, by his death, in 1374, the 56th year of his age.

(32.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF JOHN, TO THOSE OF CHARLES V, AND THE KING OF NAVARRE. Charles V. surnamed *the Wise*, succeeded his father, and, merely by a fine conducted policy, even though he met with some defeats, restored his country once more to tranquillity and power. He quelled the *Companions*, who had long been a terror to the peaceable inhabitants. He invaded them in a body, and led them into Castile against Peter, surnamed *the Cruel*, whom his subjects had dethroned, and who, by an alliance with the English, endeavoured to be re-instated on the throne. In consequence of these alliances, the English and French again came to an engagement; the one side commanded by the Black Prince; the other, by Henry of Trastamarre, and Bertrand du Guesclin, one of the most consummate generals and accomplished characters of the age. However, the usual good fortune of the English prince prevailed; the French lost above 20,000 men, while only 4 knights and 20 private men on the side of the English were slain. But these victories, however glorious, were attended with very few good effects. The English, by their frequent levies, had been quite exhausted. Charles, on the other hand, cautiously forbore coming to any engagement; but allowed his enemies to waste their strength in attempts to plunder a fortified country. When they retired, he stalked forth, and possessed himself of such places as they could not defend. He first seized Ponthieu; Abbeville opened its gates to him; St Valois, Roc, and Crottoy, imitated the example; and the whole country was in a little time reduced. The southern provinces were invaded by his generals with equal success; while the Black Prince, without supplies, and waited by a consumption, returned to England, leaving his affairs in the south of France in a deplorable condition. In this exigence, the resentment of Edward III. was excited to the utmost pitch; and he resolved to take signal vengeance of his enemies on the continent. But the fortunate occasion was elapsed; and all his designs were marked with ill success. The earl of Pembroke and his whole army were intercepted at sea, and taken prisoners by Henry king of Castile. Sir Robert Knoll, one of his generals, at the head of 30,000 men, was defeated by Bertrand du Guesclin; while the

duke of Lancaster, at the head of 25,000 men, saw his troops diminished one half by flying parties, without ever coming to a battle. At last, the English affairs were totally ruined by the death of the Black Prince and king Edward. On this news, the armies of Charles attacked the English on all sides. One, under the duke of Burgundy, entered Artois; another entered Auvergne, under the duke of Berry; a third acted in Guienne under the duke of Anjou; and the forces in Bretagne were under Guefcin: the king himself led a powerful body of troops, to repair any accident that should happen. The constable Guefcin joined the duke of Burgundy, who found it difficult to oppose Sir Thomas Felton and the Senechal of Bourdeaux. Soon after his arrival, the constable attacked and defeated them, making them both prisoners of war. This victory was so well pursued, that, at the close of 1377, Bayonne, Bourdeaux, and Calais, with their dependencies, were all the places left to England on the continent. Thus Charles established once more the house of Valois on the throne of France, but did not long enjoy his good fortune. He died in 1379, aged 44, from the effect of the poison formerly given him by the king of Navarre. The immediate operation of this poison had been suspected by the skill of a physician sent by the emperor Charles IV. Not long before his death, Charles had commenced a process against the king of Navarre for this crime, who was deprived of his possessions in Normandy, as well as his lordship of Montpellier. He did not long survive the monarch he had murdered. His death was singular and terrible; for having been afflicted with the leprosy, he had been obliged to use bandages dipped in sulphur and brandy, which by the carelessness of a page, took fire, and he was burnt to death.

(33.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF K. CHARLES V, TO THOSE OF HENRY V, AND CHARLES VI. Charles V. was succeeded by his son Charles VI. surnamed the *Well beloved*, who at his accession was only 12 years of age. The Duke of Anjou, brother to the late king, had been appointed guardian during his minority; but he being totally unfit for the office, readily resigned it to the dukes of Burgundy and Bourbon, the former, uncle to the king by his father's side, the latter by his mother's. None of these tutors, however proved faithful to their trust. The duke of Anjou seized the plate and treasures of the late king. At that time Q. Joan, infamous for her profligacy, reigned in Naples. She had appointed one Charles Durazzo, her relation, to succeed her in the throne; but the wretch murdered his benefactress, who with her last breath reposed her grant of the kingdom, and bestowed it on the duke of Anjou. His influence at the French court enabled him to waste the treasures of the kingdom in support of his pretensions; though he proved ultimately unsuccessful, his forces being constantly defeated, and his designs frustrated by the superior skill of his adversary. The duke of Burgundy, instead of instructing his pupil in the ways of virtue, indulged him in every kind of vicious pleasure, hoping thereby to gain his favour afterwards. The citizens of Paris, oppressed by taxes, broke out into tumults, and were quelled with difficul-

ty; while the mal-administration of Philip fr involved the nation in hostilities with the Flemish. Philip invaded their country with an army of 80,000 men, with whom was the young king, and the principal nobility of France. The first operations were favourable to the Flemings; but they were at length totally defeated on the banks of the river Lis, where their leader, with 25,000 of his followers, perished. This victory was followed by the submission of the whole country; but the satisfaction of the king was disturbed by new seditions and revolts in Paris, and other great towns. His return, however, at the head of a victorious army, soon reduced them to their duty, and several of the revolted cities were severely punished; while the duke of Anjou's death had freed him from dependence on his tutors, and assumed the reins of government into his own hands in 1384. The genius, which Charles displayed in his early years, raised the hopes of the nation. The young king, whose marriage he had to be a subject of attention to the council, insisted upon seeing the person designed for his consort. An interview was accordingly procured between him and Isabella, daughter to the duke of Bavaria, whom he fell in love with and afterwards married. His administration was for some time prudent and vigorous. He conciliated the affections of his people by restoring their privileges, and relieving them from the taxes which had been imposed in his minority. He reduced the Flemings to the authority of the duke of Burgundy; detached 15,000 archers and 1500 men at arms, to assist the Scots in their incursions into England; and in 1385 fitted out a prodigious armament against England. A vast fleet was assembled in the harbour of Sluys, and a very numerous army in the neighbourhood. According to some, the armament consisted of 1200 ships, 20,000 foot differently armed, 20,000 cavalry, and 20,000 cross-bow men. There was besides a vast wooden edifice or floating tower contrived for the protection of the soldiers when landed; but all these preparations were altogether brought to nothing by the duke of Berry, who being inimical to this measure, carried on his progress so slowly, that he did not arrive at Sluys till 9th September, when no invasion was practicable. A storm drove the greatest part of the fleet on shore, and beat the wooden edifice to pieces; the remains of it was given to the duke of Burgundy with the port of Sluys, which was very considerable, and of the utmost importance. This was only a prelude to more extraordinary calamities. The Sieur de Craon, a profligate nobleman, had been entrusted by the court with a considerable sum of money for the duke of Anjou, which he had dissipated at Venice; but, by the credit of the duke of Orleans, the king's brother, he was pardoned, and returned to court. Here he attempted to assassinate Oliver Clifton the constable, who he suspected of having promoted his disgrace. This veteran hero was attacked by a band of ruffians, against whom he defended himself with wonderful intrepidity, when at last he fell, a receiving more than 50 wounds. Happily, however, he recovered; while the assassin fled for protection to the duke of Brittany. The king demanded he should be given up to him in satisfaction.

duke answered, that he knew nothing of such the king not crediting, marched with forces into his territories. When the army arrived at Mans, the king was seized with a fever; but could not be prevailed upon to take physic. On the 5th of August 1391, he marched all day in the heat of the sun, a pale, ragged, wild-looking fellow, darted behind a tree, and laying hold of the bridle of a horse, cried out, "Stop! where are you going? You are betrayed; and immediately threw again into the wood. The king passed not a little disturbed; and soon after one of his pages, who rode behind and carried his horse, who rode behind and carried his horse, overcome with heat, fell asleep, and let it fall from the helmet which was carried by the king. The king, hearing the noise, looked about; receiving the page lifting the lance, killed immediately: then riding furiously with his lance drawn, he struck on every side of him, and upon every person, till he broke his sword; upon one of his gentlemen leaped up behind him and seized his arm. He fell soon after, and lay as he was carried back in a waggon to Mans, where he lay two days in a lethargy, after which he recovered a little, and expressed great concern for the blood he had shed in his delirium. The king, rejoiced at the news of his recovery; but soon discovered, that he no longer possessed strength of judgment for which he had formerly been remarkable. Hence a regency became necessary; and the competition for it brought out the characters of the queen and duke of Burgundy. The former was a beautiful and accomplished princess; but vindictive, intriguing, without affection, and easily accessible to flattery and every impulse of lawless passion. The duke of Burgundy was equally remarkable for his talents and accomplishments, but notwithstanding his marriage with Valentina daughter of the king of Hungary, he was engaged in many disputes with the king, and among the rest, with his wife Isabella. During the king's illness he aspired at the regency: but the administration was committed to the duke of Burgundy. In a few months the health and understanding of the king seemed to be restored; but in 1393 it was again disturbed by another accident. At an entertainment given at the marriage of one of the king's attendants, six masques entered the apartment dressed like satyrs, in linen clothes covering their bodies, and stuck over with down. These they threw at the king and five lords. The duchess of Burgundy, in her attention to the king though she did not see the masques. Mean time the duke of Orleans, who was then in the city, ran a lighted torch against one of the king's attendants. His whole dress was instantly in a flame, and he was communicated to the rest. The king, notwithstanding the dreadful situation he was in, called out, *Save the king; save the king!* On which the duchess of Burgundy, recollected that it must be him with whom she had been in conversation, wrapped him in her cloak, and carried him out. Only one of the rest escaped being singed into a cistern of water; the other four perished in the flames. The terror which the king's delirium instantly occasioned a relapse; and he continued delirious at intervals as long as he

lived. While in this state he was intractable by every person, except Valentina duchess of Orleans. So great was her ascendancy, that in those superstitious times it was supposed by many to be the effect of magic; others, ascribed it to her charms; and this produced her a number of enemies, particularly the duchess of Burgundy; and the quarrel between the ladies soon extended to their husbands. They did not however neglect the administration of public affairs; they strove to conciliate the parliament by preserving the rights of the commons; and they endeavoured to check gaming, and to substitute manly and martial exercises in its place. During his lucid intervals, Charles resumed the government: and as the war with England still continued, though in a languid manner, the French monarch, had an interview with Richard II. king of England, to put an end to hostilities, of which both were weary. Still, however, their claims were so difficult to be adjusted, that they could only conclude a truce for 25 years; during which space it was hoped that a lasting peace might be established. Richard gave up Cherbourg to Charles, and Breft to the duke of Brittany: a marriage was also concluded betwixt the king of England and Isabella the daughter of Charles, though the latter was then only 7 years of age; but it was never consummated. During this unfortunate reign, France was still farther weakened by the succours sent to the Hungarians against the Turks. On this fatal expedition upwards of 1000 of the bravest knights were sent under John Count of Nevers, eldest son of the duke of Burgundy; the count of Eu constable of France; John de Vienne admiral of France; and the count of Marche, a prince of the blood royal; together with De Courey, one of the most experienced captains in Christendom. The prudent counsels of this veteran, however, were not obeyed by the youthful warriors. Attacking the enemy rashly, they were all either killed or taken prisoners. Notwithstanding this, assistance was sent, in 1400, to Wenceslaus emperor of Germany; and the duke of Orleans acquitted himself so well that he acquired the duchy of Luxemburg for himself, and left his ally satisfied: but while the friendship of France was thus courted by foreign powers, the kingdom itself was in the most miserable situation. The king's distemper daily gained ground; while the interests of the contending parties kept the nation in a ferment. The most violent animosity took place betwixt the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy. The former, by his own interest with the queen, and the ascendancy of his duchess over the king, got the better of his rival, and was made lieutenant general and governor of the kingdom; but having presumed to levy new imposts on the people, and oppressing also the churchmen, whom he ought to have let alone, he was deprived of his authority, and obliged to yield to the duke of Burgundy. For some time, however, these powerful rivals were kept within bounds by the mediation of the duke of Bourbon, who seems to have been the only grandee of a pure and unspotted character; but by his death in 1404, the unhappy nation was left exposed to their fury. In 1405, the queen and duke of Orleans again seized the administration; but were soon deprived of it by the

the voice of the people. During this period Charles and his children were abandoned to distress; but they were relieved by the duke of Burgundy on his obtaining the regency; and Isabella, with the duke of Orleans, was obliged to retire from Milan. A sudden return of the king's reason for a much longer time than usual, now deprived both parties of their power; and the administration was vested in the queen and a council of princes of the blood. The two rival dukes, prohibited from interfering in public affairs, exercised themselves in hostilities against the English, with whom the truce had been lately concluded. They were encouraged to this infraction of the treaty by the unsettled situation of the affairs of Henry IV.: but proving unsuccessful, the truce was renewed, after obtaining restoration of the princess Isabella, who had been married to Richard II. The failure of their enterprises produced a new scene of discord betwixt the dukes, who mutually threw the blame upon each other. By the intreaties of the duke of Burgundy they were apparently reconciled; but the duke of Burgundy pretended friendship only to take the more signal vengeance. To this he was now further inflamed by jealousy. Having hired a band of ruffians, the duke was one evening attacked by 18 of them while attended only by two pages. A Norman, whom the duke had deprived of an employment, headed the assassins, and attacked the duke. At the first blow he cut off his hand, at the second he struck him from his mule, and at the third put an end to his life. His wife Valentina died soon after. The duke of Burgundy escaped to Flanders: and the whole nation was rent into two factions, called the *Burgundians* and *Armagnacs*; the latter being the title of the party of the duke of Orleans, from Armagnac, his father-in-law. A dreadful confusion ensued: the duke of Burgundy returned to France, and extorted a pardon from the unhappy king, who could no longer resist him: and it will give some notion of the state of the kingdom, that 2000 perished in one tumult in the capital. The king was alternately the prisoner of each party, and alternately transferred the power, as he happened to fall into their hands. This was thought by Henry V. of England a favourable opportunity to recover those grants that had been formerly ceded. But previously, to maintain the appearance of justice, he sent ambassadors to Paris, offering perpetual peace and alliance, if put in possession of those provinces which had been taken from the English, and to espouse Catharine, the French king's daughter, with a suitable dowry. Though the French court was at that time averse to war, yet the exorbitance of these demands could not be complied with; and Henry probably made them in these hopes. He therefore assembled a great fleet and army at Southampton; and having allured all the military men in the kingdom to attend him, from the hopes of conquest, he put to sea, and landed at Harfleur, at the head of an army of 6000 men at arms, and 24,000 foot, mostly archers. His first operations were upon Harfleur; which promised to surrender at a certain day, unless relieved before that time. The day arriving, and the garrison still resolving to defend the place, Henry ordered an assault to be made, took the town by storm, and

put all the garrison to the sword. From the victor advanced farther into the country which he now laid waste. But although my made a feeble resistance, yet the climate against the English; a contagious dysentery rying off three 4ths of Henry's army. In situation he had recourse to an expedient enough in that barbarous age. He challenged the dauphin, who commanded the French a single combat. This challenge was rejected the French at last seemed to unite at the prospect of the common danger. A number of 14,000 men at arms, and 40,000 foot bled under count Albert, and was now prepared to intercept Henry's weakened forces on their march. The English monarch, when it was too late to repent of so rashly making an invasion into a country where disease and a powerful enemy everywhere threatened him with death, he therefore thought of retiring into Calais, this retreat, which was both painful and dangerous, Henry took every precaution to surround his troops with patience and perseverance: and he presented them the brightest example of fortitude and resignation. He was continually harassed by small parties of the enemy; and whenever he attempted to pass the Somme, he saw troops on the opposite side ready to oppose his passage. However, he seized, by surprise, a passage near St. Quintin, there he safely carried over his army. His enemy was still resolved to intercept him, and after passing the small river of Te Blangi, he was surprised to observe from the heights the whole French army drawn up on the plains of Agincourt; and so posted, that it was impossible to avoid coming to an engaged battle accordingly took place, in which the English gained a victory, the most remarkable of any recorded in history. See AGINCOURT. This victory, gained on the 25th of October, was however attended with no immediate success. Henry still retreated, after the battle of Agincourt, and carried his prisoners to Calais, and from thence to England. In 1517, he once more landed in Normandy with an army of 25,000 men in Normandy; and intended to strike a decisive blow for the crown of France. That wretched country was now in a deplorable situation. The whole kingdom was divided as one vast theatre of crimes. The duke of Orleans was assassinated by the duke of Burgundy; and the duke of Burgundy, in his turn, fell a victim to the treachery of the dauphin. The duke's revenge for his father's death, entered into a treaty with the English; in which he promised to revenge the murder of the late king Henry, therefore, proceeded without opposition. Several towns and provinces fell into his approach; the city of Rouen was likewise Pontoise and Gisors. He even threatened Paris, and obliged the court to remove to Bourges. At this city the duke of Burgundy, who had offered upon him the protection of the French king, Henry to ratify that treaty formerly broken, by which the crown of France was transferred to a stranger. The imbecility in which Charles had fallen, made him passive in the negotiation of this remarkable treaty; and Henry dictated the principal articles were, That Hen-

ncess Catharine; that king Charles should have the title and dignity of king for life; that Henry should be declared heir to the kingdom; that he should be intrusted with the regency; that France and England should be united under one king, but should still retain their respective laws and privileges; that the dauphin should unite his arms with those of king Charles; that the duke of Burgundy, to depress and ruin the dauphin and his partisans. Not long after, Henry married the princess Catherine, which he carried his father-in-law to take a formal possession of that part of the estates of the kingdom ratified by an act; after which he turned his arms against the dauphin; who, in the mean time, considered about a stranger in his own country, to his enemies successes only opposed. Henry was obliged to return to prevail upon his parliament to favour his cause; and on his arrival in England he found his subjects highly pleased with the prospect of his conquests, yet they were not desirous of the advantage of them. A treaty, proposed to transfer the seat of empire to France, was not much relished by the parliament; and various pretences, they refused him to comply with his exigencies; but he was refusing his schemes; and, joining to the dauphin, he was able once more to raise an army of 28,000 men, and with these he sailed for Calais. In the mean time, the duke of Burgundy, in consequence of the opportunity of repairing his ruined situation, took advantage of Henry's absence, and appointed the regent of Scotland to send him 8000 men; and with these, and a few of his own, he attacked the duke of Burgundy, who commanded the troops in Henry's absence, and gained a complete victory. This was the action which turned the tide against the dauphin.

But it was of short duration: for after appearing with a considerable army in France; while many places which were held for the dauphin, surrendered to the duke of Burgundy. Thus, while Henry was everywhere: he fixed his residence at Paris; and there he had a small court, he was attended by a magnificent one. On Whitsunday, the king and his two queens with their heads dined together in public; and the duke of Burgundy, paying apparent homage, but Henry retained the absolute authority. In the mean time, the dauphin was chased beyond the Rhine, and was even pursued into the south, by the arms of the English and Burgundians. In consequence, he found it necessary to spin out time, and to evade all hazardous actions. Meanwhile, the king of England died, and Charles VI. reigned.

CE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLES VI, TO THE CORONATION OF HENRY VI. Charles VII. succeeded his father on the throne. Nothing could be more deplorable than his situation on assuming the crown. He was surrounded by the arms of the English; and he was the possessor of almost all France; though but an infant, was invested

with regal power by legates from Paris. The duke of Bedford was at the head of a numerous army, in the heart of the kingdom, while the duke of Burgundy, who had entered into a firm confederacy with him, seconded his claims. Yet, notwithstanding these favourable appearances, Charles VII. means to break the leagues formed against him, and to bring back his subjects to their natural interests and their duty. However, his first attempts were unsuccessful. Wherever he endeavoured to face the enemy he was overthrown; and he could scarcely rely on the friends next his person. His authority was insulted; every advantage was gained against him; and a battle fought near Verneuil, in which he was totally defeated by the duke of Bedford, seemed to render his affairs altogether desperate. But as the English could not keep the field without new supplies, Bedford was obliged to retire to England; and in the mean time his vigilant enemy recovered from his late consternation. Dumois, one of his generals, at the head of 10000 men, compelled the earl of Warwick to raise the siege of Montargis; and this advantage, slight as it was, began to make the French suppose that the English were not invincible. But they soon had still greater reason to triumph, and a new revolution was produced by means the most unlikely. In the village of Domremy, near Vaucouleurs, there lived a country girl, about 17 years of age, called *Joan de Arc*. She had been a servant at a small inn; and had submitted to those hardy employments which fitted the body for the fatigues of war. She was of an irreproachable life, and had hitherto discovered none of those enterprising qualities which appeared soon after. She contentedly fulfilled the duties of her situation, and was remarkable only for her modesty and religion. But the miseries of her country was one of the greatest objects of her compassion. Her mind, inflamed by these objects, began to feel several impulses, which she was willing to consider as the inspirations of heaven. Convinced of this, she had recourse to one Baudricourt, governor of Vaucouleurs, and informed him of her destination by heaven to free her native country. Baudricourt treated her at first with neglect: but her importunities prevailed; and willing to make a trial of her pretensions, he gave her some attendants, who conducted her to the court, which at that time resided at Chinon. The French court were probably sensible of the weakness of her pretensions; but they were willing to make use of every artifice to support their declining fortunes. It was therefore given out, that Joan was inspired; that she had discovered the king among the number of his courtiers, although without any distinction of his authority; that she had told him alone some secrets; and that she had demanded, and minutely described, a sword in the church of St Catharine de Fierbois, which she had never seen. In this manner, the minds of the vulgar being prepared for her appearance, she was armed cap-a-pee, and shown to the people. She was then brought before the university; and they, willing to scowl the imposture, declared that she had actually received her commission from above. When her commission was completely blazoned, the next aim was to send her against the enemy. The English

were then besieging Orleans, the last resource of Charles, and every thing promised a speedy surrender. Joan undertook to raise the siege; and girded herself with the miraculous sword. Thus equipped, she ordered all the soldiers to confess themselves before they set out; she displayed a consecrated banner, and assured the troops of certain success. Such confidence soon raised the spirits of the French army; and even the English, who pretended to despise her, felt secretly the terrors of her mission. A supply of provisions was to be conveyed into the town; Joan, heading some French troops, covered the embarkation, and entered Orleans at the head of the convoy. While leading her troops along, a dead silence and astonishment reigned among the English; and they regarded with religious awe that temerity, which they thought nothing but supernatural assistance could inspire. But they were soon roused from their amazement by a sally from the town; Joan led on the besieged, bearing the sacred standard in her hand, encouraging them with her words and actions, bringing them to the trenches, and overpowering the besiegers in their own redoubts. In attacking one of the forts, she was wounded in the neck with an arrow; but instantly pulling out the weapon with her own hands, and getting the wound quickly dressed, she hastened back to head the troops, and to plant her victorious banner on the ramparts of the enemy. These successes continuing, the English found it impossible to resist troops animated by such superior energy; and Suffolk, who conducted the attack, thinking that it might prove extremely dangerous to remain any longer in the presence of such a victorious enemy, raised the siege, and retreated with all imaginable precaution. From being attacked, the French in turn became the aggressors. Charles formed a body of 6000 men, and sent them to besiege Jargeau, whither the earl of Suffolk had retired, with a detachment of his army. The city was taken; Suffolk yielded a prisoner; and Joan marched into the place in triumph. A battle was soon after fought near Patay, where the English were worsted, as before; and the generals Seales and Talbot were taken prisoners. The raising of the siege of Orleans was one part of the maid's promise to Charles; the crowning him at Rheims was the other. She now declared that it was time to complete that ceremony; and Charles, by her advice, set out for Rheims at the head of 12,000 men. The towns through which he passed opened their gates to receive him; and Rheims sent him a deputation, with its keys, upon his approach. The ceremony was there performed with the utmost solemnity; and the *Maid of Orleans* (for so she was now called) seeing the completion of her mission, desired leave to retire. But the king could not think of parting with her; he pressed her to stay so earnestly, that she at length complied.

(35.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE CORONATION OF CHARLES VII. TO THE EXPULSION OF THE ENGLISH. A tide of success followed this solemnity; Laon, Soissons, Chateau Thierry, Provins, and many other fortresses submitted on the first summons. The English, discomfited and dispirited, fled on every quarter; not knowing whether to ascribe their misfortunes to the power

of sorcery or to a celestial influence; terrified at both. They now found themselves deprived of the conquests they had gained as the French had formerly for their power. Their own divisions entered them for carrying on the war; and the duke of Bedford saw himself divested of his share in the country, without being able to stop the progress of the enemy's progress. In order, therefore, to reverse the declining state of his affairs, he resolved Henry VI. crowned king at Paris, that the natives would be allured to obedience by the splendour of the ceremony. In 1430, accordingly crowned, the vassals swore fealty and homage. But it was now too late to attempt a coronation to give a turn to the generalty of the kingdom had declared against them, and the remainder only waited an opportunity to follow their example. A sally ensued soon after, which, though it promoted the English cause in France, served to render it odious. The duke of Burgundy, at the head of a powerful army, laid siege to Compiègne; and the Maid of Orleans, thrown herself into the place, contrary to the wishes of the governor, who did not think it worth his company of one whose authority would be less than his own. The garrison, however, was terrified at her appearance, and believed themselves more formidable. But their joy was of short duration, Joan having the day after her arrival made a sally, and twice driven the enemy from the trenches, she was at last obliged to place herself in the rear, to protect the rear of her forces. But in the end she drew her troops into the city, the gates and the bridge drawn up by order of the duke of Burgundy, who is said to have long wished an opportunity of delivering her up to the duke of Burgundy. Nothing could exceed the joy of the duke of Burgundy having taken a person who had been so famous for her valor to their arms. *Te Deum* was sung on this occasion; and it was hoped, that the capture of this extraordinary person would give the English their former victories and the duke of Burgundy was no sooner than he purchased her of the count Vendôme had made her his prisoner, and ordered her committed to close confinement. The duke of Burgundy was at that time so great a thing was too absurd to gain credit. A fore, from her successes, was regarded as a sorceress, upon her captivity, confessed herself, forsaken by the demon who had seduced her a temporary and fallacious assistance. Accordingly it was resolved to send her to be tried for witchcraft; and the bishop of Meaux, a man devoted to the English, presented a petition against her for that university of Paris were so mean as to refuse. Several prelates, among which the duke of Winchester was the only one who were appointed her judges. They held their court in Rouen, where Henry resided; and she, clothed in her former military apparel, and surrounded with irons, was produced before them. Her behaviour there no way disgraced her gallantry; she betrayed neither weakness

submission; but appealed to God and the truth of her former revelations. In she was found guilty of heresy and witchcraft and sentenced to be burnt alive. But pre- this sentence, they were resolved to make re her errors; and at length so far pre- upon her, that her spirits were entirely bro- the hardships she was obliged to suffer. sely declared herself willing to recant, and d never more to give way to the vain de- This was what they desired; and willing some appearance of mercy, they changed ce into perpetual imprisonment, and to a bread and water. But their rage was cessated. Suspecting that the female dres he had consented to wear, was disagree- her, they purposely placed in her apart- ment of mens apparel, and watched for the their temptation. Their artifices prevail- ed, struck with the sight of a dress in which gained so much glory, threw off her pe- robes, and put on the forbidden garment. mics caught her equipped in this manner; they considered as a relapse into her for- getfulness. No recantation would suffice, pardon would be granted. She was con- to be burnt alive in the market-place of and this infamous sentence was accord- ed. One of the first misfortunes which tin felt after this, was the defection of the Burgundy; who had for some time seen of his conduct, and wished to break an connection, that only served to involve ty in ruin. A treaty was therefore con- between him and Charles, in which the served to assist him in driving the English France. This was a mortal blow to their and such was its effects upon the populace, that they killed several of the duke of subjects, who happened to be there. It perhaps have hastened the duke of Bur- gundy, who died at Rouen a few days after; and of Cambridge was appointed his suc- to the regency of France. From this pe- English affairs became irretrievable. The Paris returned once more to its duty. Valois, who commanded it, only fit- for the safe retreat of his troops to Nor- . Their ground was continually, though rained by the French; and although their we had waste, and their towns depopu- let they found protection from the weak- divisions of the English. At length both began to grow weary of a war, which, turned on but feebly, was yet a burden which either could support. A truce, there- 22 months, was concluded in 1443. No was this settled, than Charles employed in repairing those numberless ills to which gen had to long been exposed. He dis- cipline among his troops, and justice a- his governors. He revived agriculture, and ed nation. Thus being prepared once for the field, he took the first favourable oc- of breaking the truce; and Normandy was ed by a powerful armies; one commanded uce himself, a 2d by the duke of Brittany, by the count of Alençon, and a 4th by the

count of Dunois. Every place opened its gates almost as soon as the French appeared. Rouen alone promised to hold out; but the inhabitants clamoured so loud, that the duke of Somerset, who commanded, was obliged to capitulate. The skirmish of Fourmings was the last stand which the English made. However, th were put to the rout, and above 1000 were slain. All Nor- mandy and Guienne, that had so long acknow- ledged subjection to England, were lost in one year; and the English saw themselves entirely dis- possessed of a country which for above 3 centuries they had considered as annexed to their native dominions. Calais alone remained; and this was but a small compensation for the blood and trea- sure which had been lavished in that country, and only served to gratify ambition with a transient applause. Thus, in 1450, the power of the Eng- lish in France was entirely destroyed; and Charles deservedly obtained the surname of *the Victorious*.

(36.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLES VII, TO THAT OF LEWIS XI. The satisfaction of Charles was now greatly diminished by domestic misfortunes. The dauphin, forget- ting the duty he owed his father, had already im- peded his conquests by his seditious intrigues. He had used every endeavour to thwart the designs of his ministers, and it was said that he had poison- ed Agnes Soreille, his father's favourite mistress. He had married Charles's daughter to the duke of Savoy; which Charles resented by a declaration of war against the duke, but had been persuaded to recall it, to prosecute the war against Gui- enne, which made part of the dominions of the English. At last weary of the disobedience of his son, he commanded him to be arrested; but Lewis withdrew to Francie Comte, and after- wards to Brabant; of which the duke of Bur- gundy (then sovereign of the country) was no longer apprised, than he ordered him to be supplied with every necessary, and treated with all imaginable respect. He refused to see him, however, until he should obtain the approbation of his father; on which Lewis having in vain attempted to draw in the duke, employed himself in sowing dissen- sion betwixt his benefactor and his son the count of Charolois, while he himself was receiving a pen- sion of 12,000 crowns annually from the father. Thus he at last destroyed the domestic peace of his benefactor, while his unnatural behaviour cre- ated continual suspicions in the mind of his father. Charles was repeatedly informed that his own do- mestic, along with his undutiful son, were in a conspiracy against his life. The miserable monarch, therefore, in continual fear of being poisoned, and having none in whom he could repose any confi- dence, obstinately refused for some days to take any nourishment; and when at last prevailed upon by the importunities of his attendants to do so, his nourishment had become incapable of reaching food, so that he died for want of sustenance in 1461. His body, neglected by his unnatural son, was interred at the expense of Tannegui de Char- tel, who had been his faithful companion. On Charles's death, his son Lewis XI. succeeded. He did not even attempt to conceal his joy at his father's death. He pretended much friendship for the Count of Charolois, son to the duke of Bur-

gundy, and even conferred upon him a pension of 12,000 crowns annually; but all this show of affection soon degenerated into a mortal aversion on both sides. Some differences which took place between the courts of France and Castile produced an interview betwixt the two monarchs Lewis, and Henry, surnamed the *Impotent*. They met at Maulcon on the confines of Navarre: but their negotiations came to nothing. In his negotiations with the duke of Burgundy, Lewis proved more successful; persuading him to restore some towns on the Somme, which had been ceded by Charles VII. and which rendered the duke master of Picardy. By this transaction he effectually ensured the hatred of Charolois, while he eminent-ly displayed his own duplicity; for though he had agreed to retain in those towns the officers appointed by the duke, he was no sooner in possession of them, than he nominated others in their stead. Brittany was at this time governed by Francis a weak but generous prince, and whose defect of capacity was supplied by the abilities of his ministers. Him Lewis grossly insulted, but as Francis found himself unable to oppose such a powerful adversary alone, he joined in a close alliance with the duke of Burgundy and the court of Charolois. The conspiracy was joined by several of the principal French nobility, and though the secret was confided to upwards of 500 persons, not one of them ever divulged it. Lewis, finding matters become very critical, marched with an army towards the capital, which the count of Charolois already insulted. A battle ensued, in which both princes exerted themselves to the utmost. About 1500 perished on each side, but the count of Charolois remained master of the field. Lewis, however, entered the capital; where he endeavoured, by concession, to conciliate his subjects; in which he succeeded so well, that though the insurgents were above 100,000, they were unable to make themselves masters of the city. At last a treaty was set on foot betwixt Lewis and the count of Charolois; by which the latter obtained the towns formerly ceded, with Boulogne, Guines, Peronne, Mondidier, and Royé, as a perpetual inheritance. By granting favours to the other confederates, the league was broken; and the moment that Lewis found himself freed from danger, he protested against the whole treaty in presence of some confidential members of parliament, and therefore waited the first favourable opportunity, to crush one by one those who had been ready by their united efforts to destroy him. He gained over the duke of Bourbon, one of the most able of the confederates, while, by the discontents betwixt the dukes of Brittany and Normandy, he was enabled to secure the neutrality of the former, and to recover from the latter some territories which he had unwillingly ceded to him. In 1467, Philip duke of Burgundy, from his amiable qualities surnamed *The Good*, died, and left his dominions to his son Charles, count of Charolois. That impetuous prince, an implacable enemy of Lewis, had entered into a secret treaty with Francis; but Lewis had driven the Bretons from the posts they occupied in Normandy, before the duke of Burgundy could pass the Somme. Lewis, however, concluded a peace with Brittany; and, determi-

ned to have a personal interview with the duke of Burgundy. This took place in 1468; and Peronne, a city of Picardy, but belonging to the duke of Burgundy, was appointed as the place rendezvous. To this place Lewis repaired attended only by Cardinal Beaufort, the duke of Bourbon, and the count of St Pol, constable of France seemingly without reflecting that he was entering an hostile city, where he might be treated at the pleasure of the duke, who was his mortal enemy. Indeed he had not been long in the place when he began to see his error; and by the daily course of Burgundian lords and other persons of rank, who were his avowed enemies, he became alarmed for his personal safety. His fears suggested a worse measure than the former; he requested apartments in the castle, when he was in the power of his rival in a moment to make him a close prisoner. This event accordingly took place, and that through the arts and machinations of Lewis himself. His design had been from beginning to keep the duke of Burgundy constantly employed in domestic war. For this purpose he had, before his interview with Charles, excited the inhabitants of Liège, who were subject to the duke of Burgundy, to revolt. It is most probable that he did not imagine the effects of this treaty would so soon begin to appear. At the time, however, that Lewis was in the castle of Peronne, the people of Liège revolted, seized the bishop and governor; and having massacred great numbers retired to the capital. Charles was informed of this massacre, with the additional circumstance, that the ambassadors of Lewis were seen animating the insurgents. He flew in transport of rage; commanded the castle to be shut; denouncing the severest vengeance against the perfidious monarch. Lewis, however, though greatly and justly alarmed, did not neglect to take the proper methods for securing himself. He distributed large sums of money among those officers, to whom he imagined the duke was most inclined to pay any regard, and by splendid promises and presents endeavoured to allay the resentment of his other enemies. At last the resentment of Charles being subsided, he entered into a treaty with the king, and concluded it upon much the same terms as those which had been agreed upon before. It was not long, however, before the new alliance was dissolved. A confederacy against Lewis, whom neither promises nor threats could bind, was formed betwixt his own brother the duke of Normandy, and the duke of Burgundy; but before their measures were ripe for execution, Lewis had already commenced hostilities. The duke of Burgundy, as a peer of France, summoned to parliament; and on his refusal, the constable of St Pol made himself master of Quintin. Several other cities were soon afterwards taken; Baldwin, the natural brother of Charles, corrupted by Lewis, deserted his cause; the proud spirited duke, was at last obliged to solicit a peace. This however, was of no long duration. Charles, encouraged by Edward IV of England, his brother-in-law, began once more league with the dukes of Brittany and Guien the latter being the king's brother. But the prospects were suddenly overcast by the death



duke of Guienne, which was universally supposed to have been occasioned by poison, and is now as universally looked upon as the author. The abbot of St Jean d'Angeli was fixed for the immediate perpetrator of the deed: on the day appointed for his trial he was admitted into his cell; and this also was with a probability, supposed to have been the deed of Lewis, who after the death of his brother invaded the territory of Guienne, and seized the dominions of France. By this and the conduct of the French monarch, Charles was exasperated, that he vowed the most bitter enmity against the French, and threatened to sacrifice to the memory of the duke of Burgundy every one who now fell into his hands. A great number of Nivelle were massacred without distinction of sex or age; Beauvais resisted his attacks; against Charles wreaked his fury on the occasion. Having entered the country of Caux, he seized the cities of Eu and St Valery, burnt the country, and wasted the whole country as far as Reims. Lewis, on the other hand, determined to dissolve the league between the duke of Burgundy and Edward IV. of England. Accordingly he embarked with his army on the frontiers of Brittany, while the duke was obliged to content to a truce for a year; and the duke of Burgundy himself was obliged to follow his example. In a very little time, he again began to conspire with the king of England against Lewis and a general invasion was determined upon. Edward embarked the sea with an army of 10,000 men, while Charles assembled all his forces to join him. Lewis, however, still avoided the storm. Charles, instead of depending on the assistance of Edward, who had entered France at the head of 15,000 archers and 1200 men at arms, laid siege to Nizac on the Rhine; while the constable of St Pol, instead of delivering up the towns as he had promised, deceived his allies, and enabled Lewis to dissolve a confederacy, which, had it been vigorously maintained, might have involved him in the greatest difficulties. To procure the departure of Edward, however, he was obliged to consent to a tribute of 75,000 crowns, as well as to settle on the king himself 50,000 crowns for life; betrothing also the dauphin to the eldest daughter of the king of England. The duke of Burgundy exclaimed loudly against this treaty: but Edward persisted in his resolution; and it was accordingly executed at a place called *Pecquigny*, near Amiens; but in such a manner as showed the little confidence the two sovereigns reposed in each other. A power was reserved by Edward, for the duke of Burgundy to accede to the treaty; but the latter haughtily replied, that he was able to support himself without the assistance of England; and that he would make no peace with Lewis till 3 months after the return of Edward. To this resolution he adhered; but no sooner was the term expired, than he concluded a truce with Lewis for 9 years. The constable of St Pol, having rendered himself obnoxious to all parties by his complicated treachery, fled to Mons in Hainault; but the duke of Burgundy had already agreed to deliver him up, on condition of receiving his estates and moveables as the price of his treachery.

Thus Lewis, without any qualification but cunning, falsehood, and duplicity, got rid of all his enemies except the duke of Burgundy, whose growing power rendered him a constant object of jealousy and terror. The duke's own imprudence however, soon proved his ruin. Having rashly entered into a war with the Swiss, he was defeated in the first engagement with the loss of his military chest and baggage, with his plate and jewels, supposed to be the richest in Europe. His disappointment on this occasion was so great, that he was seized with a severe sickness, from which he had hardly recovered when he returned his mad scheme of conquering the Swiss. Another battle ensued; in which, after an obstinate dispute, Charles was defeated with the loss of 18,000 men, himself escaping with difficulty. This disaster was followed by the defection of most of his allies; the duke of Lorraine recovered Nancy, and great part of his dominions, which Charles had seized; while the latter overwhelmed with shame and disappointment, spent his time in solitude and inactivity. From this he was at last roused by the misfortunes, which fell upon him in such quick succession. He now invested the city of Nancy; and in this, as well as in every other instance, he acted against the advice of his best officers; and the consequences were still more fatal than before. The duke of Lorraine advanced with a strong body of Germans to the relief of the city, while Charles had scarcely 4000 men to oppose him. His troops were therefore easily defeated, and himself, notwithstanding the most heroic efforts of valour, hurried away in the crowd. The count de Campobasso, an Italian nobleman in whom he put a great deal of confidence, but who was in reality a traitor, had deserted with about 80 men in the beginning of the engagement. He left 12 or 15 men about the duke's person, with strict orders to assassinate him in the tumult; and this order they punctually complied with; the body of Charles being found two days after the battle pierced with three wounds. The news of Charles's death was received with the utmost joy by Lewis, whose sole object now was to unite the territories of the duke of Burgundy to his own. This might be done in two ways; one by a match betwixt the dauphin and Mary the heiress of Burgundy; the other, by marrying her to the duke of Angouleme, a prince of the royal blood of France, and on whom Mary had shown some inclination to bestow herself. The king, however, to whom duplicity and falsehood seem to have been absolutely necessary, chose a third method, more agreeable to his character. The match with the dauphin was attended with such circumstances as rendered it evidently impracticable. The disparity of age was very great, the dauphin being only 3 years old, and the princess 20; the Flemings were besides averse; but, Lewis insisted upon the match, at the same time that he endeavoured to make himself master of her dominions by force of arms. He addressed circular letters to the principal cities of Burgundy; representing, that the duchy had been given up by king John to the male heirs of his son Philip; and that now, when they were extinct by the death of Charles, the territory reverted of course to the crown. He corrupted the

governors of some towns, and seduced the inhabitants of others to rise against their governors; whilst he himself, at the head of an army, prepared to enforce obedience from those who could not be worked upon by other methods. Thus Burgundy was entirely reduced; but Flanders could not be brought under subjection either by fair means, force, or fraud. In his conduct for this purpose, indeed, Lewis displayed the most detestable treachery and falsehood. To render Mary odious to her subjects, he negotiated with her ministers, and prevailed upon them to disclose to him some of the most important state secrets; after which he communicated their letters to the states of Flanders. This double treachery, however, did not answer his purpose. Mary was thus induced to bestow herself upon the emperor Maximilian; and Lewis had the mortification to find, that all his arts had contributed only to aggrandize a rival power, whom he had already sufficient cause to dread. To remedy this oversight, he entered into an alliance with Edward IV. of England, whom he had inspired with a jealousy of his brother Clarence, in order to prevent a match betwixt that nobleman and the princess Mary, which had also been in agitation. Thus a peace was concluded between the two monarchs, to continue during the life of each, and for a year after. The marriage of Mary with Maximilian effectually secured the independence of Flanders; while the return of the prince of Orange to the party of that princess extended the flames of war once more to the cities of Burgundy. The French were on the point of being totally expelled from that country, when Maximilian unexpectedly made proposals of peace. A truce was concluded; but without any term limited for its duration, or without any conditions stipulated in favour of the Burgundians; so that the whole country was quickly after reduced by Lewis. The king now, freed from the apprehension of foreign enemies, turned his vindictive disposition against his own subjects; over whom, under pretence of former rebellions he exercised the most insupportable tyranny. The principal victim to his sanguinary disposition on this occasion was James d'Armagnac duke of Nemours, one of the first noblemen in the kingdom but who had formerly appeared a zealous confederate against him in the league in which Edward and Charles were concerned. The unfortunate nobleman, fled to a fortress named *Carlat*, situated among the mountains of Auvergne. Here he was besieged by the Seigneur de Beaujeu, who had married Anne the daughter of Lewis. The place, however, was almost impregnable to any force; so that his enemies were obliged to make the most solemn promises of safety to induce him to surrender. By these he was at last persuaded to trust himself in the hands of the faithless tyrant; who no sooner had him in his power than he shut him up in the Bastille in an iron cage, and reprimanded the judges because they had released him from this close confinement during the time of his examination. The judges reluctantly condemned him to be beheaded: but the king's cruelty extended beyond the sentence; and he ordered the two sons of the duke, though yet in childhood, to be placed directly under the scaffold,

that they might be covered with the blood of their father: 4000 persons are said to have upon this occasion without any form or ceremony were it not for the concurrent testimony of historians of that age, the inhuman barbarities of this monarch would scarce be credible. By these he broke the spirit of the Franks, and gradually extended the power of France beyond all bounds; so that at last it was only by the king's pleasure. In 1479, the emperor Maximilian, who had lightly abandoned the duchy of Burgundy when he might have retained it, now renewed his claims when it was in his power to enforce them. After negotiations, and destruction of cities, on a bloody battle was fought at Guinegate. The Flemings were routed; but as the French fought with too great ardour, the infantry of France rallied, and the battle was renewed with slaughter on both sides. A more decisive victory was afterwards gained by the capture of several Flemish vessels, which induced that people to think of peace. In the year 1480, however, Lewis, received warning of his approaching end, by a fit of apoplexy with which he was seized in 1480. He lay speechless for several days after which he recovered in some degree, but his illness neither prevented him from pursuing his schemes, nor from using the same method to attain them. He seized the duke of Bourbon, the only nobleman in France whose power could give him any occasion of suspicion; yet, notwithstanding his being a prisoner in the castle of Amboise. He kept his own consort, and endeavoured to marry his own son with aversion towards her. By the death of Charles, king of Naples, he became master of the country of Provence; but his satisfaction was marred by a second stroke of apoplexy; however, he revived, and, again began to pursue his ambitious intrigues. The death of Edward IV. of Burgundy, who perished by a fall from his horse, inspired him with new views; he betrothed his son to the infant daughter of Edward IV. Thus he offended Edward IV. of France, whose eldest daughter Elizabeth he had previously contracted to the dauphin; which would have undoubtedly ensued, had it not been for the death of Edward. This was followed after by that of Lewis himself, who exhausted the skill of the physician, and the clerical order with prayers and processions to avert the impending stroke. He expired after a reign of 23 years; during which he was detested by his subjects, and equally despised by his neighbours; notwithstanding he obtained the title of *Pope*, which his successors have ever since retained. Notwithstanding the dark character of his reign, it must be allowed, that he laid the foundation of the grandeur of the French monarchy; he deprived the people of their liberties, oppressed the nobility, established a standing army, and even induced the states to render it perpetual, which formerly were only convened to support the army which was to keep the provinces in slavery.

(37) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF LEWIS XI, TO THAT OF CHARLES VIII. Charles VIII was only 14 years old, when he succeeded his father Lewis XI, in 1483. But though might, even at that age, have ascended the throne without any violation of the laws, yet it was judged necessary to have a regent, on account of his delicacy of constitution and want of education. Three competitors appeared, for this important trust, viz. 1. John duke of Bourbon, a prince of the blood, and who had, till the age of 40, maintained the most unblemished character; 2. Lewis duke of Orleans, presumptive heir to the crown, but who, from his being only 20 years old himself, seemed incapacitated on that account from undertaking such an important office; and 3. Anne, the eldest daughter of Lewis, to whom the latter had, in his last moments, committed the charge of the kingdom, with the title of governess. The claim of this lady was supported by the assembly of the states-general at Tours; and though she was only in the 22d year of her age, the office could not have been more properly bestowed. Being married to Peter of Bourbon, sire of Beaujeu, her title was *the Lady of Beaujeu*; but she acted entirely independent of her husband, who was but of a moderate capacity, and indeed had been recommended to her by Lewis on account of his slender abilities. Left by any other match the House of Bourbon should be too much aggrandized. Her first step was to ingratiate herself with the people by some popular acts; among which one was to punish the instruments of her father's cruelties. One of these, named Oliver le Dain, who, from the station of a barber, had raised himself to the confidence of the king, and had distinguished himself by the invention of new modes of torture, was publicly hanged. Another, named John Doyac, who by continual acts of rapacity had oppressed the people, was condemned to be whipped, to have one of his ears cut off, and his tongue pierced with a hot iron; then taken to his native city of Montferand, again whipped, and his other ear cut off; after which his estates, as well as those of Oliver, were confiscated. James Cailler, the physician of Lewis, who had availed himself of the terror of death with which the king was influenced, to extort great sums of money from him, was ordered to answer for the immense wealth he had acquired; but he averted the danger by paying a fine of 50,000 crowns. Thus the prince gained the affections of the people; and many of those who were averse to her government. The duke of Bourbon was made constable, an office which he had long desired; but the duke of Orleans behaved so as to exclude all hopes of power. Incensed at the determination of a trifling dispute at tennis against him, by the governess, he exclaimed, that whoever had decided it in that manner "was a liar if a man, or a strumpet if a woman." After this furious declaration he fled to the castle of Beaujeu, where, however, he was forced to surrender. He then applied to Henry VII, but that prince, paying little attention to his proposal, he next made his application to the court of Brittany. Here he was received with great marks of esteem, and began to entertain hopes of marrying the daughter of the duke;

but being looked upon with a jealous eye by the nobility, they entered into secret negotiations with Anne, and even solicited her to invade the country. In these however, they stipulated that only a certain number of troops should enter the province, and that no fortified place should remain in the hands of the French. Brittany however was invaded at once by 4 armies, each of them superior to the stipulated number, who quickly made themselves masters of the most important places; while the troops of the duke retired in disgust. Finding at last, however that the entire subjection of their country was determined upon, the nobility began to exert themselves in defence of it; and, inflamed by the enthusiasm of liberty, they raised an army of 60,000 men, and compelled the French to abandon the siege of Nantz. But this proved only a transient success; Anne persevered in her design, and the state of Europe at that time favoured it. England alone was then capable of affording any effectual assistance; and the avarice of Henry prevented him from giving it, which for his own interest he ought to have done. Thus the Bretons were left to defend themselves the best way they could; and having ventured a battle, they were entirely defeated, and most of their leaders taken prisoners. A small body of English, under lord Woodville, who assisted them, were entirely cut in pieces. The duke soon after died by a fall from his horse, leaving his dominions to his daughter Anne, at that time only 13 years of age. The lady Beaujeu, then, finding that the conquest of Brittany would still be difficult, determined to conclude a marriage betwixt the young king of France and the duchess, though the former had already been married to Margaret of Austria, the daughter of Maximilian. This marriage indeed had not been consummated by reason of the tender age of the princess; but she had been sent to Paris for her education, and had for several years been treated as queen of France. In 1491, however, Margaret was sent back to her father: Anne of Brittany for a long time refused to violate the engagements into which she had entered; but at last, finding herself distressed on all sides, and incapable of resisting the numerous forces of France with which she was pressed, she reluctantly consented to the match, and the nuptials were celebrated at Langeais in Touraine. Maximilian, enraged at the double disgrace he had suffered, began, when too late, to think of revenge. France was now threatened by the united forces of Austria, Spain, and England. But this formidable confederacy was soon dissipated. Henry was bought off with money; the immediate payment of 745,000 crowns, and the promise of 25,000 annually ever after, persuaded him to retire into his own country. Ferdinand king of Spain had the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne restored to him; while Maximilian was gratified by the cession of part of Astois, which had been acquired by Lewis XI. The young king of France agreed to these terms the more readily, that he was bent upon an expedition into Italy, to conquer the kingdom of Naples, to which he claimed a right. Most of his counsellors were against it, but he was inflexible, though Ferdinand king of Naples offered

ed to do homage for his kingdom, and pay him a tribute of 50,000 crowns a-year. He appointed Peter duke of Bourbon regent in his absence; after which he set out with very few troops and very little money. By the way he fell ill of the smallpox, but soon recovering he entered Italy with only 6000 horse and 12,000 foot; he was attended with the most surprising success, traversing the whole country in six weeks, and becoming master of Naples in less than a fortnight. Had Charles acted up to the character generally given him, he might have raised his name as high as any hero of antiquity. His behaviour, however, was very different. He amused himself with feasts and shows; and leaving his power in the hands of favourites, they shared it with any who would purchase titles, places, or authority, at the rates they imposed. But while Charles was thus losing his time, a league was concluded against him at Venice; into which entered the pope, the emperor Maximilian, the archduke Philip, Lewis Sforza, and the Venetians. The confederates assembled an army of 40,000 men, commanded by Francis marquis of Mantua; and they waited for the king in the valley of Fornovo, in Parma, into which he descended with 9000 men. On the 6th July 1495 he attacked the allies; and, notwithstanding their great superiority, defeated them, with the loss of only 80 of his own men. Thus he got safe to France; but his Italian dominions were lost almost as soon as he departed. Some schemes were proposed for recovering these conquests; but they were never put in execution, and the king died of an apoplexy in 1498. The premature death of this monarch, in the 28th year of his age, was supposed to have been owing to his irregular life. He was greatly celebrated for his sweet temper and agreeable disposition, which procured him the titles of the *Affable* and *Courteous*. Two of his domestics are said to have died of grief after his death, and his widow abandoned herself to the most pungent sorrow for *two days*.

(38.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM LEWIS XII'S ACCESSION TO THAT OF FRANCIS I. By the death of Charles VIII. the crown passed from the direct line of the house of Valois, and Lewis duke of Orleans succeeded. At his accession he was in his 36th year, and had long been taught in the school of adversity. During the administration of the Lady Beaujeu, he had been constantly in disgrace; after his connections with the Duke of Brittany, he had spent a considerable time in prison; and though afterwards set at liberty by Charles, he had never possessed any share of his favour. Towards the conclusion of that reign, he fell under the displeasure of the queen; and had continued at his castle of Blois till he was called to the crown. He had been married in early life, and against his will, to Jane the youngest daughter of Lewis XI. a princess of an amiable disposition, but deformed, and supposed to be incapable of bearing children. Afterwards he entertained thoughts of having this marriage dissolved, and was supposed to possess the affection of the duchess of Brittany before she became queen of France. After the death of her husband, that princess retired to Brittany, where she pre-

tended to assume an independent form; but Lewis having got his marriage with her dissolved by pope Alexander VI. quickly proposed to the queen dowager, which she accepted; but it was stipulated, that if she have two sons, the younger should inherit the crown. As Lewis, while duke of Orleans, had some pretensions to Naples, he instantly set about realizing them. On his accession, he found that the people of that country much more favoured his designs than formerly. The pope was interested, he had conciliated the friendship of the Venetians; he concluded a truce with the duke Philip; and renewed his alliance with the kings of England, Scotland, and France. He then entered Italy with an army of 20,000 men, and, assisted by the Venetians, quickly recovered one part of the duchy, while they conquered the other, the duke himself being obliged to retire to his family to Inspruck. He then attacked the king of Spain with three armies at once: one by land, and one by sea; but not performing any thing remarkable, he returned to Naples in 1504. In 1506 the Genoese drove out the nobility; chose 8 tribunes, and declared Paul Nuova, a silk-dyer, their chief; after which, they expelled the French, and reduced a great part of the Riviera to their obedience. Lewis's return into Italy in 1507, he obliged the Genoese to surrender; and, in 1508, entered into the treaty of Cambrai, with the other princes of the league, to reduce the overgrown power of the Venetians. Pope Julius II. who had been the first contriver of this league, very soon broke it; and declared, that if the Venetians refused to restore the cities of Faenza and Rimini, which had been unjustly taken from him, he would attack them. This was refused; and in 1512 the forces of the republic received such a defeat from Lewis, that they agreed to restore only the two cities, but whatever else was required. The pope now, instead of making peace, made war on the king, without the least provocation. Lewis called an assembly of his clergy; where it was determined, that in some cases it was lawful to make war on the pope; upon which the king declared against him, and committed the care of the kingdom to Marshall de Trivulce. He soon obliged the pope to retire into Ravenna; and in 1512 the duke of Nemours, gained a great victory at Ravenna, but was killed in the engagement. His death the army disbanded for war, and the French affairs in Italy, and elsewhere, fell into confusion. They recovered the duchy of Milan, and lost it again in 1515, when Henry VIII. of England invaded France, and took Terracena and Tournay; and the same year he reduced Burgundy with an army of 25,000 men. This desperate state of affairs the queen Lewis put an end to the opposition of her dangerous enemies by negotiating a marriage with Ferdinand of Spain he offered his second son for either of his grandsons, Charles or Lewis; and to renounce, in favour of that marriage, his claims on Milan and Genoa. This proposal was accepted; and Lewis himself married t

Francis found it impossible to succeed; and at the same time an irreconcilable hatred took root between the two monarchs. In 1521, this hatred produced a war; which, however, might have been terminated, if Francis had retreated into Calabria, but this being refused, hostilities were renewed with greater vigour than ever; they continued till France was brought to the very brink of ruin, Francis himself being taken prisoner, on the 24th Feb. 1524. This disaster threw the whole kingdom into the utmost confusion. The Flemish troops made continual ravages; many thousand boers assembled in Alsace, and an invasion from that quarter; Henry VIII. assembled a great army, and threatening the kingdom on that side also; and a party of English troops disposed of the remainder of the money: the duke of Vendôme, however, who, after the constable, was the head of the House of Bourbon, went on to Lyons, where he assured the regent that he had no view but for her service, and that he would be ready to die for her; upon which she formed a council of the best men of the kingdom, and of this she appointed a president. The famous Andrew Doria, with the French galleys to take on board the remains of the French troops under the duke of Vendôme, whom he landed safely in France. Those who were expelled out of the Milanese also made their way to France. Henry VIII. under the influence of the regent, resolved not to oppress the oppressed; and the emperor agreed to a truce with the regent for ten years. In Picardy the Flemings were repulsed; and count Guise, with the duke of Lorraine, with a handful of troops, defeated and cut off the German peasants. In the mean time Francis was detained in captivity in Italy: weary of his confinement in that country, the princes of Italy beginning to cabal for his liberation, he was carried to Madrid; where,

he was presented to an assembly of the notables; to whom he proposed the question, Whether he was bound to perform the treaty of Madrid? or, Whether if he did not perform it, he was obliged in honour to return to Spain? To both these questions, the assembly answered in the negative. When the ambassadors delivered their propositions, Charles treated the English herald with respect, and the French one with contempt; which produced a challenge from Francis to the emperor. See *DUEL*, § 3. All differences, however, were at last adjusted; and a treaty was concluded at Cambray, on the 24th Aug. 1528. By this treaty, the emperor contented himself with reserving his right to the duchy of Burgundy, and to receive two millions of crowns, as the ransom of the king of France's two sons. Of these he was to receive 1,000,000 in ready money: the prince's lands in Flanders belonging to the house of Bourbon were to be delivered up; these were valued at 400,000 more: and the remaining 400,000 were to be paid by France in discharge of the emperor's debt to England. Francis was likewise to discharge the penalty of 500,000 crowns, which the emperor had incurred, by not marrying his niece the princess Mary of England; and to release a rich *jeur-de-lis* which had been many years before pawned by the house of Burgundy for 50,000 crowns. The town and castle of Hesden were also yielded; together with the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois, and all the king's pretensions in Italy. As for the allies of France, they were abandoned to the emperor's mercy, without the least stipulation in their favour; and Francis himself protested against the validity of the treaty before he ratified it, as did also his attorney general before he registered it in parliament; but both of them with the greatest secrecy imaginable. Not long after, the war was renewed with Charles V, who made an invasion into France, but with very bad success; nor was peace

the people to their duty without making many examples: the other behaved with the utmost haughtiness and cruelty; and though the king afterwards remitted many of his punishments, yet from that time the constable became odious to the people, while the family of Guise were highly respected. In 1548, the king began to execute the edicts which had been made against the Protestants with the utmost severity; and, thinking even the clergy too mild in the prosecution of heresy, erected for that purpose a chamber composed of members of the parliament of Paris. At the queen's coronation, which happened this year, he caused a number of Protestants to be burned, and was himself present at the spectacle. He was, however, so much shocked, that he could never forget it; but complained, as long as he lived, that, at certain times, it appeared before his eyes, and troubled his understanding. In 1549, a peace being concluded with England, the king purchased Boulogne from the latter, for the sum of 400,000 crowns; one half to be paid on the day of restitution, and the other a few months after. Scotland was included in the treaty, and the English restored some places they had taken there. This was the most advantageous peace that France had hitherto made with England; the vast arrears which were due to that crown being in effect remitted; and the pension which looked so like tribute, not being mentioned, was in fact extinguished. The earl of Warwick himself, who had concluded the peace, was so sensible of the disgrace suffered by his nation on this occasion, that he pretended to be sick, in order to avoid setting his hand to such a scandalous bargain. This year, an edict was made to restrain the extravagant remittances which the clergy had been in use of making to the court of Rome. With this edict pope Julius III. was highly displeased; and in 1550, war was declared by the king of France against the pope and the emperor. The emperor soon found himself in such danger, that he could not support the pope as he intended, who on that account was obliged to sue for peace. After this, the king continued the war against the emperor with success; reducing Toul, Verdun, and Metz. He then entered the country of Alsace, and reduced all the fortresses between Haguenau and Wissemburg. He failed, however, in his attempt on Strafsburgh: and was soon after obliged by the German princes and the Swiss to desist from farther conquests on that side. This war continued with very little interruption, and as little success on the part of the French, till 1557, when a peace was concluded; and in 1559, the king was killed at a tournament by the count de Montgomery, one of the strongest knights in France, who had done all he could to avoid this encounter with the king. The reign of his son and successor Francis II. was remarkable only for the persecution of the Protestants, of whom he made a dreadful slaughter; 1200 died by the hands of the executioner; the waters of the Loire were tinged with their blood, and their bodies, being denied burial, tainted the air. He died in his 18th year, and end of his reign, A. D. 1560.

(41.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF FRANCIS II. TO THE MASSACRE OF THE PRO-

TESTANTS UNDER CHARLES IX. succeeded his brother in 1560. He at last took up arms in their own defence, which occasioned several civil wars, the first continued till 1562, when a peace was concluded by which the Protestants were to have freedom, and liberty of conscience. In 1562, a civil war broke out anew, and was continued with little interruption till 1569, when peace was concluded upon very advantageous terms for the Protestants. After this, king Charles IX. took the government into his hands, and persecuted the Protestants in an extraordinary manner. He ordered to court the admiral Coligni, who was of the Protestant party; and cajoled him, till he was lulled into a perfect security, receiving the many warnings given him by the duke of Guise, the head of the Catholics. On the 22d Aug. 1571, as he was walking in the court to his lodgings, he received a blow in the window, which carried away the admiral's right hand, and wounded him grievously in the left arm. This he ascribed to the duke of Guise, the head of the Catholics. After dinner, the king went to parliament, and amongst others made him this speech: "You have received the wound, but do not suffer." This satisfied the admiral of the king's sincerity, and hindered him from complying with the desire of his friends, who would have forced him away, and who were strong enough to have forced a passage out of Paris, if they had intended it. In the evening, the queen mother, Catherine de Medicis, held a cabinet council, in which she determined on the execution of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, which had been long meditated. The council, which was composed of the duke of Anjou, the king's brother, the duke of Nevers; Henry of Angoulême, the prior of France, and bastard brother of the king; the marshal de Tavannes; and Albert count de Retz. The direction of the massacre was given to the duke of Guise. The guard was pointed to be in arms, and the city was ordered to dispose the militia to execute the king's command, of which the signal was the ringing of the bells of the Louvre. Some say, that when the king approached, which was that of midnight, the uproar grew undetermined: that he expected to find the people whom he would destroy were his subjects, who had no other capital at his command, and in confusion; and particularly the admiral who was detained so lately by his caresses. The queen mother, however, reproached him with the massacre, and represented to him the great number of Protestants; which obliged him to consent. According to the custom of the times, ever, the king himself urged on the massacre, and when it was proposed to him to take a few of the heads, he cried out, "I will not die, let there not be one left to reproach me with breach of faith." As soon as the signal was given, a body of Swiss Catholic troops, led by the duke of Guise, the chevalier of Angoulême, and accompanied by many persons of quality, entered the admiral's house. Having forced the doors, the foremost of the assassins

ment; and one of them asked if he was to this he answered that he was; and Young man respect these gray hairs:" the assassin replied by running him thro' with his sword. The duke of Guise chevalier, growing impatient below stairs, to know if the business was done; and that it was, commanded that the body be thrown out at the window. As soon on the ground, the chevalier, or (as some Duke of Guise, wiping the blood off the sword to the fury of the populace; who, cries of indignities, dragged it to the cellars, to which they chained it by the feet, and being cut off and carried to the queen; who caused it to be embalmed and sent to the king himself went to see the body upon the gibbet; where a fire being kindled it, part was burnt. In the Louvre, the men belonging to the king of Navarre and the prince of Conde were murdered under the great. Two of them wounded, and pursued assassins, fled into the bed-chamber of the queen of Navarre, and jumped upon her bed, begging her to save their lives; and as she went this favour of the queen mother, two more, by these circumstances, rushed into the room, and threw themselves at her feet. The queen came to the window to enjoy their dreadfulness; and the king, seeing the Protestants fled on the other side of the river flying cries, called for his long gun, and fired them. In 3 or 4 days many thousands were killed in Paris, by the most cruel deaths which could be invented. Peter Ramus, professor of philosophy and mathematics, after voided of all he had, his belly being first open, was thrown out of a window. This was affected Denis Lambin, the king's professor though a zealous Catholic, he died of

The first two days the king denied it was his orders, and threw the whole blame upon the Duke of Guise; but, on the 28th of August to the parliament, avowed it, was committed upon it, and directed a process against him, by which he was stigmatized as a traitor. Two innocent gentlemen suffered as his accomplices in a pretended plot against the life of the prince of Conde. They were executed by the king; and the king and the queen mother were spectators of this horrid deed; and at the jubilee to thank God for the execution of it.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DIABOLICAL MASSACRE OF THE PROTESTANTS, TO THE DEATH OF CHARLES IX. This massacre confined to the city of Paris alone. On the 24th of St. Bartholomew, orders had been first given to the governors of provinces to fall upon the Protestants themselves, and to let loose the people upon them; and though an edict was published the end of the week, assuring them of the protection, and that he by no means designed to exterminate them because of their yet private orders were sent, of a nature

directly contrary; in consequence of which, the massacre, or, as, in allusion to the Sicilian vespers; (see ITALY) it was now styled, the *Matins of Paris*, were repeated in Meaux, Orleans, Troyes, Angers, Thoulouze, Rouen, and Lyons: so that in the space of two months 30,000 Protestants were butchered. The next year Rochelle, the only strong fortress which the Protestants held in France, was besieged, but was not taken without the loss of 24,000 Catholics, who besieged it. After this a pacification ensued on terms favourable to the Protestants, but to which they never assented. This year the duke of Alençon was elected king of Poland, and soon after set out to take possession of his new kingdom. The king accompanied him to the frontiers of the kingdom; but during the journey was seized with a slow fever, which had a very dangerous appearance. He lingered for some time under the most terrible agonies both of body and mind; full of remorse, and blood oozing from all the pores of his body. He died on the 30th of May 1572, having lived 33 years, and reigned 13. It is said, that after the dreadful massacre, the prince had a fierceness in his looks, and a colour in his cheeks which he never had before. He slept little, and never sound. He waked frequently in agonies, and was obliged to have some music to compose him again to rest.

(43.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF HENRY III. During the first years of the reign of Henry III. who succeeded his brother Charles, the war with the Protestants was carried on with indifferent success on the part of the Catholics. In 1573, a peace was concluded, called by way of eminence the *Edict of Pacification*. This edict gave occasion to the Guises to form an association in defence, as was pretended, of the Catholic religion, afterwards known by the name of the *Catholic League*. In this league, though the king was mentioned with respect, he could not help feeling that it struck at the very root of his authority: for, as the Protestants had already their chiefs, so the Catholics were, for the future, to depend entirely upon the chief of the league; and well, by the very words of it, to execute whatever he commanded, for the good of the cause, against any, without exception of persons. The king to avoid the bad effects of this, by the advice of his council, declared himself head of the league; and of consequence recommenced the war against the Protestants, which was not extinguished so long as he lived. The faction of the Duke of Guise, in the mean time took a resolution of supporting Charles cardinal of Bourbon, a weak old man, as presumptive heir of the crown. In 1584, they entered into a league with Spain, and took up arms against the king; and though peace was concluded the same year, yet in 1587, they again proceeded to such extremities, that the king was forced to fly from Paris. Another reconciliation was soon after effected: but it is generally believed that the king from this time resolved on the destruction of Guise. Accordingly, finding that this nobleman still behaved towards him with his usual insolence, the king caused him to be murdered, as he was coming into his presence, by his order, on the 23d Dec. 1587. The king himself did not

long survive him; being stabbed by one James Clement, a Jacobine monk, on the first of August 1589. His wound at first was not thought mortal; but his frequent swooning quickly discovered his danger; and he died next morning, in the 39th year of his age, and 16th of his reign.

(44.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF HENRY IV. Before the king's death, he nominated Henry Bourbon, king of Navarre, to be his successor, but as he was a Protestant, or at least greatly favoured their cause, he was at first owned by very few except those of the Protestant party. He met with the most violent opposition from the members of the Catholic league; and was often reduced to such straits, that he went to people's houses under colour of visits, when in reality he had not a dinner in his own. By his activity and perseverance, however, he was at last acknowledged throughout the kingdom, to which his abjuration of the Protestant religion, no doubt, contributed. As the king of Spain had laid claim to the crown of France, Henry, no sooner found himself in a fair way of being firmly seated on the throne, than he formally declared war against that kingdom; in which he at last proved successful, and in 1597 entered upon the quiet possession of his kingdom. The king's first care was to put an end to the religious disputes which had so long distracted the kingdom. For this purpose, he granted the famous edict, dated at Nantes, April 13, 1598. Soon after, he concluded peace with Spain upon very advantageous terms. This gave him an opportunity of restoring order and justice throughout his dominions; of repairing all the ravages occasioned by the civil war; and abolishing all those innovations which had been made, either to the prejudice of the prerogatives of the crown or the welfare of the people. His plans of reformation, indeed, he intended to carry beyond the boundaries of France. If we may believe the duke of Sully, he had in view no less a design than the new-modelling of all Europe. He imagined that the European powers might be formed into a kind of Christian republic, by rendering them as nearly as possible of equal strength; and that this republic might be maintained in perpetual peace, by bringing all their differences to be decided before a senate of wise, disinterested, and able judges; and then he thought it would be no difficult matter to overturn the Ottoman empire. With a view, it is now thought, of executing this grand project, but under pretence of reducing the exorbitant power of the house of Austria, Henry made immense preparations both by sea and land; but if he really had such a design, he was prevented by death from attempting to execute it. He was stabbed in his coach by one Ravillac, a friar, on the 12th of May, 1610.

(45.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF LEWIS XIII. Of the murder of Henry IV. the queen mother assumed the regency. Ravillac was executed after half an hour's severe torments. It is said that he made a confession, which was so written by the party who took him down, that not one word of it can ever be read, and thus his instigator and accomplices could never be discovered. The regency during the minority of Lewis XIII. was distinguished for cabals and

intrigues of the courtiers. In 1617, the king assumed the government himself, banished the queen mother to Blois, castrated her favourite mignon d'Aure to be killed, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu. In 1620, a war broke out between the Catholics and Protestants, which was carried on with the greatest fury on both sides. Both parties soon became weary of such a destructive war; and a peace was concluded in 1621, by which the edict of Nantes was confirmed. This treaty, however, was of no long duration. A new war broke out, which lasted till the year 1628, when the edict of Nantes was again confirmed; only the Protestants deprived of all their cautionary towns, and frequently of the power of defending the cities in time to come. This put an end to the wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were expended in carrying them on; and that 9 cities, 40 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monasteries, and 1000 houses were burnt or otherwise destroyed during their continuance. The next year, the king attacked with a slow fever which nothing could allay, an extreme depression of spirits, and a disgusting swelling in his stomach and belly. A year after, however, he recovered, to the great disappointment of his mother, who had been desirous of regaining her power. She was arrested but escaped into Flanders, where she remained during the rest of this reign. Richelieu, a masterly train of politics, though himself was to an enthusiast for popery, supported the pretensions of Germany and Gustavus Adolphus against the house of Austria; and, after quelling all rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, died some months before Lewis XIII. in 1642.

(46.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH OF LEWIS XIV. Lewis XIV. surnamed *the Great*, succeeded to the throne when only five years of age. During his minority, the kingdom was torn into pieces under his mother Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a Protestant had turned Papist. The misfortune of France was involved at once in civil and foreign wars; but the queen mother having the choice of Cardinal Mazarine for her first minister, found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and so divided the domestic enemies of the court, that when Lewis assumed the government into his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the despotic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the navy, commerce, and manufactures of France which he carried to a surprising height. The king himself, ignorant and vain, was blind to the patriotic duty of a king, promoting the interests of his subjects only to answer the purposes of greatness; and by his ambition he embroiled



th all his neighbours, and wantonly rundermany a dismal scene of devastation. By politic and unjust revocation of the edict of sin 1685, with the dragging the Protest that followed it, (see DRAGOONING,) he many to take shelter in England, Holland, fterent parts of Germany, where they cita his manufactories, to the great prejudice ce. He was so blinded by flattery, that egated to himself the divine honours paid eads for his conveniency: and in the rained himself a confederacy of almost all rprinces of Europe; at the head of which r King William III. He was so well ferat he made head for some years against this r; and France seemed to have attained the rch of military glory, under the conduct rrenowned generals Conde and Turenne. rited PROVINCES.) At length, having r the English by his repeated infidelities, rns under the duke of Marlborough, and r the Austrians under prince Eugene, render- rter part of Lewis's life as mis-rable as rning of it was splendid. His reign r to 1711, was one continued series of r and calamities; and he had the mortifica- r these places taken from him, which, r former part of his reign, were acquired at r of many thousand lives. (See ENG- r 75—76.) Just as he was reduced, old r, to the desperate resolution of collec- r people and dying at their head, he was r the English Tory ministry deserting the r, withdrawing from their allies, and conclu- r peace of Utrecht in 1713. The last years r XIV. were all embittered by domestic r; which, added to those he had already r of a public nature, impressed him with a r melancholy. He had been for some time r with a fistula; which, though successful- r ever afterwards affected his health. The r fore the peace, his only son, the duke of r, died, together with the duchess and r eldest son; and the only remaining child was r the point of death. The king himself sur- r the month of Sept. 1715; but on the r that month expired, leaving the kingdom r great-grandson Lewis, then a minor.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, TO THE MAR- r LEWIS XV. By the last will of Lewis r devolved the regency during the minority r young king, upon a council, at the head of r was the duke of Orleans. That nobleman, r, disgusted with a disposition which gave r by a casting vote, appealed to the parlia- r Paris, who set aside the will of the late r and declared him sole regent. His first acts r extremely popular. He restored to parlia- r the right of remonstrating against the edicts r crown, and forced those who had enriched r lives during the former reign to restore their r. He also took every method to efface the r occasioned by the unsuccessful wars r his predecessor had engaged; promoted r rce and agriculture; and, by a close alli- r with Great Britain and the United Provinces, r to lay the foundation of a lasting tranquil-

lity. This happy prospect, however, was soon overcast by the intrigues of Alberoni the Spanish minister, who had formed a design of recovering Sardinia from the emperor, Sicily from the duke of Savoy, and of establishing the house of Stuart on the throne of Britain. To accomplish these purposes, he negotiated with the Ottoman Porte, Peter the Great of Russia, and Charles XII. of Sweden; the Turks intended to resume the war against the emperor; the two latter to invade Great Britain. But as long as the duke of Orleans retained the administration of France, he found it impossible to bring his schemes to bear. To remove him, therefore, he fomented divisions in the kingdom. An insurrection took place in Brittany; and Alberoni sent small parties in disguise into the country, to support the insurgents, and even laid plots to seize the regent himself. All of a sudden, however, the Spanish minister found himself disappointed in every one of his schemes. His partisans in France were put to death; the king of Sweden was killed at Frederickshall, in Norway; the Czar, intent on making new regulations, could not be persuaded to make war upon Britain; and the Turks refused to engage in a war with the emperor, from whom they had lately suffered so much. The cardinal, nevertheless, continued his intrigues: which quickly produced a war betwixt Spain on the one part, and France and Britain on the other. The Spaniards, unable to resist the union of two such formidable powers, were soon reduced to the necessity of suing for peace; and the terms were dictated by the regent of France; and of these the dismissal of Alberoni the Spanish minister was one. A double marriage was now set on foot: the duke of Orleans gave his own daughter Mad. Montpensier, to Don Lewis prince of Asturias, while the infant of Spain was betrothed to her cousin the king of France. From this time the house of Bourbon continued united; both princes being convinced, that it was their interest not to waste their strength in wars against each other. The spirit of conquest having now greatly subsided, and that of commerce taken place throughout the world in general, France became the scene of as remarkable a project in the commercial way as ever was known in any country. John Law, a Scots projector, of uncommon genius, (see LAW,) proposed the plan of a company which might by notes pay off the debt of the nation, and reimburse itself by the profits. The nation being at this time involved in a debt of 200 millions, the regent as well as the people in general were very fond of embarking in his new scheme. The bank was established in 1716, and proceeded at first with some caution; but having by degrees extended their credit to more than 80 times their real stock, they soon became unable to answer their demands: so that the company was dissolved in 1720, the 4th year after it had been instituted. The confusion into which the kingdom was thrown by this fatal scheme, required the utmost exertions of the regent to put a stop to it; and the king, in 1723, took the government into his own hands. The duke then became minister; but he did not long enjoy this post. His irregularities had broken his constitu-

was, and brought on a number of maladies, under which he soon sunk, and was succeeded in his administration by the duke of Bourbon Conde. The king had been married, when very young, to the infanta of Spain, but the marriage had never been consummated. The princess, however, had been brought to Paris, and for some time treated as queen of France; but as Lewis grew up, he contracted an inveterate hatred against the intended partner of his bed. The minister therefore, at last consented that the princess should be sent back; an affront so much resented by the queen her mother, that it had almost produced a war betwixt the two nations. The dissolution of the marriage of Lewis was the last act of Conde's administration; and the procuring of a new match was the first act of his successor, Cardinal Fleury. The princess pitched upon was the daughter of Stanislaus Leszinski, king of Poland, who had been deposed by Charles XII. of Sweden. This princess was destitute of personal charms, but of an amiable disposition; and though, perhaps, she never possessed the love of her husband, her excellent qualities commanded his esteem; and the birth of a prince, soon after their marriage, removed all fears concerning the succession.

(48.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XV. TILL THE FAMILY COMPACT. Cardinal Fleury continued the pacific schemes pursued by his predecessors; though they were somewhat interrupted by the war which took place in 1733. Notwithstanding the connection betwixt that monarch and the French nation, however, Fleury was so parsimonious in his assistance, that only 2500 soldiers were sent to relieve Dantzic, where Stanislaus himself resided, and who at that time was besieged by the Russians. This pitiful reinforcement was soon overwhelmed by a multitude of Russians; and Stanislaus was at last obliged to renounce the crown of Poland, though he was permitted to retain the title of king: and that this title might not be merely nominal, the king of France bestowed upon him the duchies of Bar and Lorraine; so that, after his death, these territories were again united to the dominions of France. Fleury steadily pursued his pacific plans; the disputes between Spain and England, in 1737, very little affected the peace of that kingdom; and it must be remembered to his praise, that instead of fomenting quarrels betwixt the neighbouring states, he laboured to keep them at peace. He reconciled the Genoese and Corsicans: and his mediation was accepted by the Ottoman Porte, who carried on a successful war with the emperor of Germany, but made peace with him at the cardinal's intercession. All his endeavours to procure the general peace, however, proved at last ineffectual. The death of the emperor Charles VI. in 1740, set all Europe in a flame. The emperor's eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, claimed the Austrian succession. Among the many competitors who pretended a right to these extensive dominions, the king of France was one. But as he wished not to awaken the jealousy of the European princes by preferring directly his own pretensions, he chose rather to support those of Frederick II. who laid claim to Silesia. This brought on the war of 1740, of which an account

will be found under ENGLAND, § 80, & PRUSSIA. It was terminated in 1748 by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; but to this Lewis secretly meditated a severe vengeance against, only consented, that he might have recruit his fleet and put himself somewhat upon an equality with that formidable monarch. But while he meditated great exploits to stir up the internal tranquillity of his kingdom, he was troubled by violent disputes betwixt the parliaments of France. In the reign of Lewis there had been violent contests betwixt the parliaments and Jesuits, and the opinions of the Jesuits had been declared heretical by the celebrated bull named *Unigenitus*; the reception of which was enforced by the king, in opposition to the parliaments, the archbishop of Paris, and the people. The archbishop with the prelates protested against it. The duke of Orleans favoured the bull by inducing the parliaments to submit to it; but at the same time stopped the execution which was going on against its authors. This matters passed over till the conclusion of peace; soon after which the jealousy of the parliaments was awakened by the minister attempting to divide the wealth of individuals of the kingdom. To prevent this, they revived the contest against the bull *Unigenitus*; and it was resolved, that professional notes should be obtained of every clergyman, that these notes should be signed by him, and maintained the authority of the bull; and without such notes, no person could obtain the sacrament, or extreme unction. On this occasion the new archbishop and the parliament took opposite sides: the latter imprisoned the clergy as refused to administer the sacraments. Other parliaments followed the example of Paris; and a war was instantly kindled between the civil and ecclesiastical departments of France. In this dispute the king interfered, for the parliaments to take cognizance of the ecclesiastical proceedings, and commanded them to discontinue all prosecutions relative to the refusal of the sacraments; but instead of acquiescing, they presented new remonstrances, refused to attend to any other business, and resolved they would not obey this injunction without their duty as well as their oath. They presented a petition to the king before their tribunal, in which they demanded all writings, in which its jurisdiction was disputed, to be burnt by the executioner. In the assistance of the military, they enforced the administration of the sacraments to the sick, and to distribute that justice to the subject which they had been originally instituted. Enraged at their obstinacy, arrested and imprisoned four members who had been most obstinately banished the rest to Bourges, Poitiers, and other parts of the kingdom; while, to prevent any impediment to the administration of justice by their absence, letters patent, by which a royal chamber was constituted for the prosecution of civil and criminal suits was granted. The counsellors refused to plead before the new courts; and the king, finding that the nation was about to fall into a state of anarchy, recalled the parliament. The banished members entered Paris amidst the acclamations of the people; and the archbishop, who still

rage the priests in refusing the sacraments, banished to his seat at Conflans; the bishops of Sens and Troyes were also banished, and their see established; but it was of no long duration. In 1756, the parliament again fell under the censure of the king, by their imprudent perseverance of those who adhered to the bull *Unigenitus*. They even refused to register the taxes for carrying on the war. By this Lewis revoked, that he suppressed the 4th and 5th articles of inquest, the members of which punished themselves by their opposition. He ordered the bull *Unigenitus* to be respected, and prohibited the secular judges from ordering the administration of the sacraments. On this, 15 members of the great chamber resigned their offices. 124 members of the different parliaments followed their example: and the most grievous disorders took place throughout the kingdom. An attempt was made by a fanatic, named *Damien*, to assassinate the king; and he was actually killed, though slightly, between the ribs, in the presence of his son, and in the midst of his

The assassin was put to the most exquisite torments; in the midst of which he persisted, in the most obstinate manner, to declare that he had no intention to kill the king; but that his design was only to wound him, that God might purify his heart, and incline him to restore peace to his dominions, &c. These expressions, which were daily indicated insanity, had no effect on the secular judges, who consigned him to one of the most horrid deaths the ingenuity and cruelty of man could invent. This attempt, however, had some effect upon the king, as he afterwards banished the archbishop of Paris, who had been recalled, and accommodated matters with his parliament once more. The unfortunate issue of the war of 1755, had brought the nation to the brink of ruin, when Lewis implored the assistance of Spain; and on this occasion, the *Family Compact* was signed; by which, the single exception of the American trade, between France and Spain were naturalized in both kingdoms, and the enemy of the one soon was invariably to be looked upon as the enemy of the other. At that time, however, the power of Spain availed very little; both powers were reduced to the lowest ebb, and the arms of France were triumphant in every quarter of the globe.

See ENGLAND, § 82, 83.

FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XV. HIS DEATH. The peace concluded at Utrecht in 1763, though it freed the nation from a destructive and bloody war, did not restore internal tranquillity. The parliament, eager to see the victory they had formerly gained over their religious enemies, now directed their efforts against the Jesuits, who had obtained and enforced the bull, *Unigenitus*. That once powerless, however, was now on the brink of destruction. A general detestation of its members had taken place throughout the whole world. A rivalry formed by them against the king of England, and from which he narrowly escaped, kindled the indignation of Europe, and this was further inflamed by some fraudulent practices which they had been guilty in France.

Le Valette, the chief of their missionaries at Martinico, had, ever since the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, carried on a very extensive commerce, in such a manner that he even aspired at monopolizing the whole West India trade, when the war with Britain commenced in 1755. Leonay and Gouffre, merchants at Marseilles, in expectation of receiving merchandizes to the value of two millions from him, had accepted of bills drawn by the Jesuits to the amount of a million and an half. Unhappily they were disappointed by the vast number of captures made by the British; in consequence of which they were obliged to apply to the Society of Jesuits at large: but they, either ignorant of their true interest, or too slow in giving assistance, suffered the merchants to stop payment. Their creditors demanded indemnification from the Society at large; and on their refusal to satisfy them, brought their cause before the parliament of Paris. That body, eager to revenge themselves on such powerful adversaries, carried on the most violent prosecutions against them. In the course of these, the volume containing the constitution and government of the order itself was appealed to, and produced in open court. It then appeared, that the order of Jesuits formed a direct body in the state, submitting implicitly to their chief, who alone was absolute over their lives and fortunes. It was likewise discovered that they had, after a former expulsion, been admitted into the kingdom upon conditions which they had never fulfilled; and to which their chief had obstinately refused to subscribe; consequently that their existence at that time in the nation was merely the effect of toleration. The event was, that the writings of the Jesuits were pronounced to contain doctrines subversive of all civil government, and injurious to the security of the sacred persons of sovereigns; the attempt of *Damien* against the king was attributed to them, and every thing seemed to prognosticate their speedy dissolution. In this critical moment, however, the king interfered, and by his royal mandate suspended all proceedings against them for a year; a plan of accommodation was drawn up, and submitted to the pope and general of the order: but the latter, by his ill-timed haughtiness, entirely overthrew the hope of reconciliation. The king withdrew his protection, and the parliament redoubled their efforts against them. The bulls, briefs, constitutions, and other regulations of the Society, were determined to be encroachments on authority, and abuses of government; the Society itself was finally dissolved, and its members declared incapable of holding any clerical or municipal offices; their colleges were seized; their effects confiscated; and the order annihilated. The parliament having gained this victory, next made an attempt to set bounds to the power of the king himself. They now refused to register an edict which Lewis had issued for the continuance of some taxes which should have ended with the war, and likewise to conform to another, by which the king was enabled to redeem his debts at an inadequate price. The court attempted to get the edicts registered by force, but the parliament everywhere seemed inclined to resist to the last. In 1766, the parliament of Brittany refused the crown a gift of

900,000 livres; in consequence of which, they were singled out to bear the weight of royal vengeance; but while matters were just coming to extremities, the king dropt the process altogether, and published a general amnesty. The parliaments, however, affected to despise the royal clemency; which exasperated the king to such a degree, that he ordered the counsellors of the parliament of Brittany (who had refused to resume the functions of which he deprived them) to be included in the list of those who were to be drafted for militia; and those upon whom the lot fell were immediately obliged to join their respective regiments; the rest being employed in forming the city guard. The parliament of Paris remonstrated so freely upon this conduct of the king, that they also fell under his censure; and Lewis in the most explicit manner declared, that he would suffer no earthly power to interfere with his will; and the parliaments were thus intimidated into submission. The interval of domestic tranquillity was employed by the king in humbling the pride of the pope, who refused to recall a brief he had published against the duke of Parma. On this the French monarch reclaimed the territories of Avignon and Venaissin; and while the pontiff denounced his unavailing censures against him, the marquis de Rochecouart, with a single regiment of soldiers, drove out the troops of the pope, and took possession of these territories. A more formidable opposition was made by the natives of the small island of Corsica; the sovereignty of which had been transferred to France by the Genoese, its former masters, on the condition that Lewis should reinstate them in the possession of the island of Capraria, which the Corsicans had lately reduced. These islands defended themselves with the most desperate intrepidity; and it was not till after two campaigns, in which several thousands of the bravest troops of France were lost, that they could be brought under subjection. The satisfaction which this unimportant conquest might afford to Lewis, was clouded by the distress of the nation at large. The East India Company had totally failed, and most of the capital commercial houses in the kingdom were involved in the same calamity. The minister, the duke of Choiseul, by one desperate stroke, reduced the interest of the funds to one half, and at the same time took away the benefit of the survivorship, in the tontines, by which the national credit was greatly affected; the altercation betwixt the king and his parliaments revived, and the dissensions became worse than ever. Choiseul attempted in vain to conciliate the differences; his efforts tended only to bring misfortunes upon himself, and, in 1771, he was banished by the king, who suspected him of favouring the popular party too much. This was soon followed by the banishment of the whole parliament of Paris, and that by the banishment of others; new parliaments being every where chosen in place of those who had been expelled. The people were by no means disposed to pay the same regard to these new parliaments that they had done to the old ones; but every appearance of opposition was at last silenced by the absolute authority of the king. In the midst of this plenitude of power, however, which he had so ar-

dently desired, his health daily declined, a period of his days was evidently at no great distance. As he had indulged himself in sensuality to the greatest excess, they now provided immediate means of his destruction. His favourite, Madame de Pompadour, who had long governed him with absolute sway, had long been dead, and the king had for some time been equally enslaved by the charms of Madame Barre. At last even her beauty proved insufficient to excite desire; and a succession of mistresses became necessary to rouse the languid appetite of the king. One of these, who was infected with the small-pox, communicated the disease to the king; who died of it, notwithstanding all the assistance given him by the physicians.

(50.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER I. XVI. TILL THE AMERICAN TREATY. I. XVI. succeeded his grandfather, in 1774, in the 20th year of his age; and to secure himself against the disease which had proved fatal to his predecessor, submitted to inoculation, with several others of the royal family. Their quick and recovery contributed much to extend that practice throughout the kingdom, and to remove prejudices against it. The king had no sooner regained his health, than he applied himself gently to extinguish the differences which had taken place between his predecessor and the parliaments. He removed those from their employments who had given cause of complaint by their arbitrary and oppressive conduct; and he conciliated the minds of his subjects, by removing the new parliaments and recalling the old ones. But though the prudence of Lewis had suggested to him these measures, he endeavoured still to preserve pure and entire the royal authority. He explained his intentions by a speech in the great chamber of the parliament, which he concluded thus: "That in his desire to bury in oblivion all grievances; he should ever behold with extreme disapprobation whatever might tend to create divisions and disturb the general tranquillity; and that his successor would read his ordinance to the assembly from which they might be affirmed he would suffer the smallest deviation to be made." This ordinance was conceived in the most explicit terms, and was immediately registered by the king's command. The articles of it limited within very narrow bounds the pretensions of the parliament of Paris: The members were forbidden to look upon themselves as one body with the other parliaments of the kingdom, or to take any step, or assume any title, that might tend towards or imply an union: They were enjoined never to interrupt the administration of public justice, except in the cases of absolute necessity, for which the first president was to be responsible to the king; and it was added, that on their disobedience the Grand Council might displace the parliament without any new edict. They were still never permitted to enjoy the right of remonstrating, before the registering of any edicts or letters patent, which they might conceive injurious to the welfare of the people, provided they served in their representations the respect due to the throne. But these remonstrances were never to be repeated; and the parliament, if they pre-

, were to register the edict objected to soon as farthest from the first day of its issued. They were forbidden to issue which might excite trouble, or in any tard the execution of the king's ordinance they were assured by the king himself conclusion of this code for their future, that as long as they adhered to is prescribed, they might depend upon grace and protection. In short, the which Lewis consented to re-establishments were such, that they were reduced cyphers, and the word of the king used to be the only law in the kingdom. bishop of Paris, who had likewise praised some commotions about the bulls, was obliged to submit; and severely if he should afterwards interfere in such The final conquest of the Corsicans, vexed by the oppression of their government more attempted to regain their liberty the first event of importance which took this restoration of tranquillity; but the was yet filled with disorder from other scarcity of corn happening to take place a time that some regulations had been M. Turgot, the new financier, the posted in great bodies, and committed such that a military force became absolutely to quell them; and it was not till upwards of them were destroyed, that they reduced. The king, however, by his vigorous conduct on this occasion, a stop to all riots, and eminently displayed clemency as well as prudence in the method for the restoration of the publicty. The humanity of Lewis was next an edict which he caused to be registered sent, sentencing the deserters of his army to work as slaves on the public roads, punishing them as formerly with death; equal attention to the welfare of his subjects the moment of peace to fulfil those of economy, which on his accession he owed to his people. Various regulations took consequence; particularly the suppression of the *Mulquetaires* and some other corps, being more adapted to the parade of guard than of a real military service, supported at a great expence, without any return of benefit to the state. Particular attention was also paid to the marine; and the appointment of M. de Sartine in 1776, to that post, did honour to the penetration of the king. That minister, fruitful in resources, varied in his application, was incessantly in augmenting the naval strength of his kingdom; and the various preparations that filled the harbours and docks, created no small uneasiness in the public mind. The next appointment made in the navy was equally happy, and in one regular and unprecedented. M. Turgot, possessed of integrity and industry, had been able to command the public confidence. His successor, M. Clugny, intendant general of the navy, had been elevated to the vacant post; and soon after, M. Taboureaux des Reaux

was appointed his successor; and the king associated with him in the management of the finances M. Neckar, by birth a Swiss, and by religion a Protestant. That gentleman, in the preceding reign, had been chosen to adjust some differences between the East India company and the crown; and had discharged his trust in a manner which gained the approbation of both parties. Possessed of distinguished abilities, his appointment would have excited no surprise, had it not been contrary to the constant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith, from the controul of her revenue. It was a new instance of enlargement of mind and liberality of sentiment; and will to posterity mark the prominent features of the reign of Lewis XVI. Although the king was of a pacific disposition, and not destitute of generosity of sentiment, yet his own and the public exultation had been openly and constantly proportioned to the success of the Americans in their contest with Britain: the princes of the blood and chief nobility were eager to embark in support of the cause of freedom; and the prudence of the king and his most confidential ministers alone restrained their ardour. The fatal events of the former war were still impressed on the mind of Lewis; and he could not readily consent to expose his infant marine in a contest with a nation who had so long asserted the dominion of the seas, and so lately broken the united strength of the house of Bourbon. At the same time, he was sensible, that the opportunity of humbling the British court should not be entirely neglected, and that some advantages should be taken of the commotions in America. Two agents from the United States, Silas Deane and Dr Franklin, had successively arrived at Paris; and though all audience was denied them in a public capacity, still they were privately encouraged to hope, that France only waited the proper opportunity to vindicate by arms the independence of America. In the mean time, the American cruizers were hospitably received into the French ports: artillery and all kinds of warlike stores were freely sold or liberally granted to the colonists; and officers and engineers, with the connivance of government, entered into their service. Some changes were about this time introduced into the different departments of state. The conduct of M. Neckar in the finances had been attended with universal approbation; and M. Taboureaux des Reaux, his colleague, had resigned, but still retained the dignity of counsellor of state. To afford full scope to the genius of M. Neckar, Lewis determined no longer to clog him with an associate; but, with the title of Director General of the Finances, submitted to him the entire management of the funds and revenue of France. In the following year, count St Germain, secretary at war, died; and the prince of Montbarey, who had already filled an inferior situation in that department, was appointed to succeed him. In the mean time, Lewis's negotiations with foreign courts were not neglected. He concluded a new treaty of alliance with Switzerland; vigilantly observed the motions of the different princes of Germany on the death of the elector of Bavaria; and when questioned by the

English ambassador, Lord Stormont, respecting the various warlike preparations which were diligently continued through the kingdom, he replied, That at a time when the seas were covered with English fleets and American cruizers, and when such armies were sent to the New World as had never before appeared there, it became prudent for him also to arm for the security of the colonies, and the protection of the commerce, of France. The king was sensible at the same time, that the remonstrances of Great Britain, and the importunities of the United States, would soon compel him to adopt some decisive line of conduct. This was hastened by the capture of Gen. Burgoyne's army. See AMERICA, § 28, 29. The news of that event were received at Paris with unbounded exultation. M. Sartine, the marine superintendent, was eager to measure the naval strength of France with that of Great Britain; the queen, who had long seconded the applications of the American agents, espoused their cause with fresh ardour; and the pacific inclinations of Lewis being overborn, by the suggestions of his ministers and his queen, he at length determined openly to acknowledge the independence of the United States. Dr Franklin and Silas Deane were now acknowledged as public ambassadors from those states to the court of Versailles; and a treaty of amity and commerce was signed between the two powers, in February 1778.

(51.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TILL THE GENERAL PEACE, IN 1783. The duke of Naoilles, ambassador to the court of London, was in March instructed to acquaint that court with the above treaty. At the same time he declared, that the contracting parties had not stipulated any exclusive advantages in favour of France, and that the United States had reserved the liberty of treating with every nation whatever on the same footing of equality and reciprocity. But this stipulation was treated by the British court with contempt; and the recall of Lord Stormont, their ambassador at Versailles, was the signal for the commencement of hostilities.—The events produced by this war will be found under the articles AMERICA, § 29—33; ENGLAND, § 98, 99, 102—104, 106; and INDOSTAN. Here we have chiefly to notice domestic transactions, the measures of the cabinet, and the internal economy of the state. In 1780, new changes in the French ministry took place. M. Bertin had resigned the office of secretary of state; the prince de Montbarey had retired from the post of secretary at war, and was succeeded by the marquis de Segur. But the most important removal was that of M. Sartine, who had for several years presided over the marine department, and whose unwearied application and ability had raised the naval power of France to a height that astonished Europe: but his colleagues in the cabinet loudly accused a profusion, which would have diverted into one channel the whole resources of the kingdom; and his retreat opened a road to the ambition of the marquis de Caltries, who was appointed to supply his place. This year the king fixed on the anniversary of his birth-day to render it memorable by a new instance of humanity, in abolishing for ever the inhuman custom of putting the

question, as it was called, by torture; which had been so established by the pages, that it seemed to be an inseparable constitution of the courts of justice. At the same time, to defray the charge he continued to diminish his own exp and sacrificing his magnificence to his subjects, dismissed at once above 40 belonging to his court. Unhappily, the public discontents were excited next the dismissal of their favourite minister. He had conceived the arduous but popular of supporting a war by loans without the rigid economy which he had introduced all the departments of the royal household; the various resources that presented themselves, his fertile genius, had supported him a difficulties that attended this system. Bitterness of temper had not rendered him acceptable to the sovereign and his subjects; repeated reforms he had recommended presented as inconsistent with the dignity of the crown: he was therefore in 1781 dismissed his office of comptroller-general; and L. Fleuri, counsellor of state, was appointed to that important department. The defeat of de Grasse happened next year, and impeded the kingdom with general grief and consternation. Immense preparations were, however, made for the operations of 1783, and in conjunction with the courts of Madrid and the Hague, I determined this year to make the most of the efforts to bring the war to a conclusion. In the midst of these preparations, the voice of peace was again heard; and Lewis was induced to the proffered mediation of the two emperors in Europe, the emperor of Germany and the empress of Russia. The count de Vergennes, who still occupied the post of secretary of state, was appointed to treat with M. Bertin, the British minister at Brussels, and lately proceeded to Paris to conduct the negotiation. The way was already opened for the restoration of the public tranquillity by the provisional articles signed at the conclusion of the war between the States of America and Great Britain, and which were to constitute a treaty of peace, and which were to be concluded when that between France and Great Britain took place. Preliminary articles were accordingly agreed upon and signed at Versailles; which were soon after succeeded by the definitive treaty of peace in 1783.

(52.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE ASSEMBLY OF THE NATIONAL CONVENTION. Though the late war had been attended with most brilliant success, and the independence of America seemed to strike deep at the foundation of her rival's power, yet France herself had not been entirely free from inconvenience. The M. Neckar had diminished the public credit by 3 different persons, who had since occupied the post, increased the jealousies of the people, and the failure of the celebrated CAISSE D'ESCOMPTE completed the universal consternation. A bank had been established in 1776. The plan was formed by a company of private adventurers, whose capital was fixed at 500,000*l.* sterling. The professed design of the Company was to

best dates, at the rate of 4 per cent per annum; but as this interest could never be a return for the capital sunk by the proprietors, it was entrusted with the additional power of notes to the amount of their capital, which were capable of being converted into specie at the option of the proprietors, and which were often voluntarily taken by their customers for more convenience. The reputation of the bank caused its stock to sell above par; and it was still at the highest, when, to the ruin of the nation, it suddenly stopped on the 24th Oct. 1783. The cause assigned was a sudden scarcity of specie: But the effect was that the failure arose from a loan made to government; and what confirmation of this was, that government about the same time stopped the payment of the bills drawn upon by their army in America. Whatever the cause of this event, the king was prevailed upon to extend his protection to the company, and to issue edicts the banks in Paris were ordered to receive the notes of the *Caisse d'Escompte*; and a lottery with a stock of one million, redeemable in 3 years, raised 100 millions.

The tickets were made purchasable in five parts d'Escompte. By these expedients public confidence in the bank was restored, and its stock rose to double the original subscription; the bills drawn were at the same time put in a circulation, and public credit was restored to the Kingdom. Some compensation was made for the losses that had been incurred during the war, was drawn from a treaty with the States of America. These engaged to furnish in the sum of 18 millions of dollars, which had been advanced in the hour of distress; and Lewis consented to receive the American conversion to the States, in the 12 years, by 12 equal and annual payments. The general peace was first after the establishment of a treaty between France and Holland, which was effected with great secrecy by the King's ministers. It included all the principal conditions to cement in the closest union the nations under distinct governments; which they may mutually participate, in the war, of good or of evil; and in all matters the most perfect aid, counsel, and support to each other. It also prohibited, if their post offices for the preservation of peace were interrupted, the assistance they were to furnish each other by sea and land. France was to furnish Holland with 10,000 effective infantry, 1200, twelve ships of the line and 6 frigates. Their High Mightinesses, on the other hand, agreed that France should furnish by sea, were to contribute to the defence of the line and 3 frigates; and in the event of an attack on the territory of France, the neutral were to have the option of furnishing a contingent either in money or troops, to the amount of 5000 infantry and 1200 cavalry.

If the stipulated succours should be interrupted, the defence of the party attacked, during a proper peace, they engaged to assist each other with all their forces, if necessary; however agreed that the contingent of

troops to be furnished by the States general should not exceed 20,000 infantry and 4000 cavalry. It was further added, that neither of the contracting powers should disarm, or make or receive proposals of peace or truce, without the consent of the other: they promised also not to contract any alliance or engagement whatever, directly, or indirectly, contrary to the present treaty; and on any treaties or negotiations being proposed which might prove detrimental to their joint interest, they pledged their faith to give notice to each other of such proposals as soon as made. Thus Holland became the firm ally of that power against which she had formerly aimed the most powerful kingdoms of Europe; while France supporting America against Great Britain, and converting a formidable foe into a useful friend, seemed to have attained a political influence she had never before been possessed of. Notwithstanding these appearances, the seeds of future contention were already sown. The parliament of Paris had taught the people to look with a less envious eye on the lustre of the throne; the war in America had enlarged their political ideas; they had stood forth as the champions of liberty, in opposition to regal power. From this time, instead of blindly acquiescing under the edict of their sovereign, they canvassed each act with address and impartiality. The dissolution of M. Necker had given very great dissatisfaction to the public; his successor in office, M. de Fleury, had retired in 1773, and the transient administration of M. de Calonne had expired in the same year that gave it birth. On his retreat, M. de Calonne was nominated comptroller general. Though unacceptable to the sovereign, he did not enter upon his arduous station favoured by the breath of popularity. The bold and judicious measures of Calonne, however, restored credit to the *Caisse d'Escompte* which had stopped payment a few weeks before his accession. His next measure, in 1784, the establishment of the *Caisse d'Amortissement*, or sinking fund, was intended to yield higher degrees of utility. The principal measure of 1785, was the establishment of a New India Company; a measure not equally commendable with the preceding, and which therefore excited violent complaints. Although peace had been re-established throughout Europe for 3 years, yet the finances of France seemed scarcely affected by this interval of tranquillity, and it was found requisite to close every year with a loan. The treaty of commerce, which was concluded in 1770 with Great Britain, proved a new source of discontent. It was represented as likely to extinguish those instant establishments, which were yet unable to vie with the manufactures of England that had attained to maturity; and the market that it held out for the wines and oils of France was passing over to France, while the duties of the tariff was piled on the most striking objects. But when the edict for regulating the law of the circulation of the 1st year, and which amounted to the sum of 50,000,000, was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, through the remonstrances of that assembly, assumed a more legal and formidable aspect. The king however signified, that he expected to be obeyed without

farther delay. The ceremony of the registering accordingly took place on the next day; but it was accompanied with a resolution, importing, "that public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the necessities of the state, and restoring that credit which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin." The king was no sooner informed of this step, than he commanded the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; when he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted; and observed, that though it was his pleasure that the parliament should communicate, by respectful representations, whatever might concern the good of the public, yet he never would allow them so far to abuse his clemency, as to erect themselves into the censors of his government. Calonne, however gratified by the approbation of his sovereign, felt deeply mortified by the opposition of the parliament. His attempts to conciliate that assembly had proved ineffectual; and he experienced their inflexible aversion at the critical juncture when their acquiescence might have been of the most essential service. An anxious enquiry into the state of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure by far exceeded the revenue. In this situation, to impose new taxes was impracticable; to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous; to have recourse only to economical reforms would be found wholly inadequate; and he hesitated not to declare, that it would be impossible to place the finances on a solid basis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the constitution of the state. To give weight to this reform, M. de Calonne was sensible that something more was necessary than the royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would they submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom. Though originally a body of lawyers, indebted for their appointments to the king, there was not an attribute of genuine legislative assembly but what they seemed desirous to engross to themselves; and they had been supported in their pretensions by the plaudits of the people, who were sensible that there was no other body in the nation that could plead their cause against royal or ministerial oppression. To suppress, therefore, the only power of controul that remained, and to render the government more arbitrary, was deemed too perilous a measure: yet to leave the parliament in the full possession of their influence, an influence that the minister was convinced would be exerted against him, was at once to render his whole system abortive. In this dilemma, the only expedient was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and which should in a greater degree consist of members from the various orders of the state and the different provinces of the kingdom. This promised to be a popular measure; it implied a deference to the people at large, and might be expected to prove highly acceptable. But the true and legitimate assembly of the nation, the States General, had not met since the year 1614; nor

could the minister flatter himself with the obtaining the royal assent to a meeting: despotic sovereign could not but regard with secret jealousy. Another assembly had been substituted in the room of the States: this was distinguished by the title of the A and consisted of a number of persons from every order of the kingdom, chiefly selected from the orders of the state, and nominated by himself. This assembly had been convened by Henry IV, again by Lewis XIII, and was once more summoned by the authority of Louis XVI. The writs for calling them together were dated the 29th Dec. 1786; and were addressed to 7 princes of the blood, 9 dukes and 11 counts of France, 8 field marshals, 22 nobles, 8 lords of state, 4 masters of requests, 11 archbishops and bishops, 37 heads of the law, 12 deputed by the *proys d'etats*, the lieutenant civil, and the magistrates of the different towns of the kingdom. The number of members was 144; and on the 1st of Jan. 1787, was appointed for the next day, the arrival of the Notables at Paris, however the minister found himself yet unprepared to submit his system to their inspection, and postponed the opening of the council to the 5th of Feb. 1787. On the 14th, was occasioned by the death of M. de Calonne himself, and the count de Vergennes, president of the council, and first secretary of state; a vacancy which was the necessary result of the death of the minister on the day previous to that fixed for the opening of the meeting. He was succeeded in the management of foreign affairs by the count de Mirabeau, a nobleman of unblemished character, whose loss at this critical juncture was severely felt by M. de Calonne; the count alone, of the ministers, having entered with warmth and activity into his plans. The chevalier de Mirabeau, keeper of the seals, was avowedly his rival; the marshal de Castries, secretary of the marine department, was personally attached to M. Neckar; and the baron de Breteuil, secretary for the household, was the creature of the queen, and deeply engaged in what was called the Austrian system. Under these difficulties M. de Calonne, on the 22d Feb. first met the assembly of the Notables, and opened his long exposition.

(53.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER Louis XVI, TO THE DISMISSION OF THE NOTABLES. M. de Calonne, began by stating, that the expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenue, and that a very considerable deficit had of course existed; that the Missions of 1720 had by no means restored the balance, and that under the economical administration of cardinal Fleury the deficit still existed; that the progress of this derangement under the administration of M. de Calonne had been extreme; the deficiency amounted to three millions Sterling at the appointment of M. de Calonne; who, however, by the administration of M. de Terray; who, however, by the administration of M. de Neckar; who, however, by the administration of M. de Calonne recommended a territorial tax like the English land-tax, from which no



men were to be exempted; and an int-  
to the poss. of the clergy, which  
had been de. from contributing  
public burd- of these branches of  
taxation were to be a strict ex-  
; and a cont- of the force was pre-  
mortgaging the lands of the

The very necessity of this was  
ed with boldness and a person-  
instead of meeting with a acqui-  
the comptroller general of the  
the boundless ocean of public contro-  
M. Neckar, previous to his retirement,  
riched his *Compte rendu au Roy*, which  
was represented as possessing a clear far-  
prospect of steering. This performance had  
ed with avidity, and probably contributed  
to the author the royal favour; but  
it was ably vindicated by M. de Bri-  
ghe, of Toulouse. M. de Calonne met  
his more formidable adversary in the count  
Necker. This extraordinary man, reflect-  
disposition, licentious in his morals, but  
penetrating, and enterprising, had visited  
part in Europe. He had been admitted  
into the confidence of the minister; and  
of the great Frederick: in this capacity  
his reports were often left neglected; and  
his letters were often left unanswered;  
he ascended to admiration; and he, who had  
been the intimate friend, relative  
Paris the avowed enemy, of M. de  
Necker. While the archbishop therefore arraign-  
the understanding, the count impeached his  
eloquence of M. de Calonne,  
might have successfully vindicated his  
reputation against the calculations of  
and the invectives of Mirabeau; but he  
to support himself against the influence of  
great bodies of the nation. The ancient  
clergy had ever been free from all  
assessments; and through the shameful  
of buying patents of nobility, such crowds  
of nobles started up, that every province  
was deluged with them. The magistracies likewise  
of the kingdom enjoyed their share of these  
; so that the whole weight of the  
taxation fell on those who were least able to bear

The minister's design, then, of equalizing  
the burd- and, by rendering the taxes  
equally, diminishing the load born by the lower  
classes of people, though undoubt-  
ed and patriotic, at once united against  
the nobility, the clergy, and the magistracy.  
The intrigues of these 3 bodies raised against him  
a clamour, that finding it impossible to  
stop the torrent, he not only resigned his place  
on the 12th of April, but soon after retired to  
avoid the storm of persecution. During  
his absences at home, Lewis's attention was  
led to the state of affairs in Holland. The  
of Orange had been stripped of all autho-  
the aristocratic party; and, retiring from  
the scene, maintained the shadow of a court at  
Brussels. His brother-in-law, however, the  
king of Prussia, endeavoured to promote his

interest; and having offered, in concert with  
France, to undertake the arduous task of com-  
piling the differences which distracted the re-  
public. the proposal was received with apparent  
cordiality by the court of Versailles. But it  
could scarce be expected that France would wish  
to restore the prince of Orange to that degree of  
power which he had before occupied, and thus  
abandon one of the most favourite objects of her  
policy, the establishing a supreme and permanent  
control in the affairs of Holland. In fact, the  
conditions framed by the Louvestein faction, as  
the basis of reconciliation, were such as plainly  
indicated their design to reduce the influence and  
authority of the stadtholder within very narrow  
limits. But the Prince of Orange was admirably  
supported and assisted by the genius, spirit, and  
abilities of his consort; who firmly rejected every  
measure tending to abridge any rights that had  
been attached to the office of stadtholder; and  
M. de Rayneval, the French negotiator, having  
in vain endeavoured to overcome her resolution,  
broke off the correspondence between the Hague  
and Nimuegue, and returned to Paris in January  
1787. The events that ensued will be found un-  
der the article UNITED PROVINCES. It is only  
necessary to observe here, that the republican  
party were totally disappointed in their hopes  
from France. The court of Versailles had indeed  
long trusted to the natural strength of the republi-  
can party, and had been assiduous during the  
whole summer in endeavouring to second them  
by every species of succours that could be pri-  
vately afforded. These aids, which might have  
proved effectual had the contest been confined to  
the state of Holland and the stadtholder, were  
overwhelmed in the rapid invasion of the Prussians;  
for the court of Berlin had taken its measures  
with so much celerity, and the situation of the  
republicans was already become so desperate,  
that it was doubtful whether their affairs could be  
restored by any assistance that France was capable  
of giving. Yet on great Britain sitting out a  
strong squadron of men of war at Portsmouth to  
give confidence to the operations of the king of  
Prussia, the court of Versailles also sent orders to  
equip 16 sail of the line at Brest, and recalled a  
small squadron which had been commissioned on  
a summer's cruise on the coast of Portugal. But  
in these preparations Lewis seemed rather to re-  
gard his own dignity, than to be actuated by any  
hopes of effectually relieving his allies. All op-  
position in Holland might be already considered  
as extinguished. The states assembled at the  
Hague had officially notified to the court of Ver-  
sailles, that the disputes between them and the  
stadtholder were now happily terminated; and  
as the circumstances which gave occasion for their  
application to that court no longer existed, so the  
succours which they had then requested would  
now be unnecessary. The French court there-  
fore readily listened to a memorial from the  
British minister at Paris; who proposed, to pre-  
serve the good understanding between the two  
crowns, that all warlike preparations should be  
discontinued, and that the navies of both king-  
doms should be again reduced to the footing of a  
peace establishment. This was gladly acceded to

by the court of Versailles; and harmony between the two nations was restored. Though Lewis could not but sensibly feel the mortification of thus relinquishing the ascendancy he had attained in the councils of Holland, the state of his own domestic concerns and the internal situation of his kingdom furnished matter for more serious reflection. The dismissal of M. de Calonne had left France without a minister, and almost without a system; and though the king bore the opposition of the Notables with admirable temper, yet the disappointment he had experienced sunk deep into his mind. Without obtaining any relief for his most urgent necessities, he perceived too late that he had opened a path to the restoration of the ancient constitution of France, which had been undermined by the crafty Lewis XI. and had been nearly extinguished by the daring and sanguinary counsels of Richlieu under Lewis XIII. The Notables had indeed demeaned themselves with respect and moderation, but at the same time they had acted with firmness. The appointment of the archbishop of Thoulouze, the vigorous adversary of M. de Calonne, to the office of comptroller general, probably contributed to preserve the appearance of good humour in that assembly; yet the proposed territorial impost, or general land-tax, which was an object so ardently coveted by the court, was rejected. Lewis, therefore, deprived of any further hope of rendering the convention subservient to his embarrassments, determined to dissolve the assembly; which he accordingly did, with a very moderate and conciliatory speech to the members on their dismissal.

(54.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE RECALL OF THE EXILED PARLIAMENT. Thus, disappointed of the advantage which he expected to have drawn from the acquiescence of the Notables, the king was obliged to recur to the usual mode of raising money by royal edicts. Among the measures proposed for this purpose were, the doubling of the poll-tax, the re-establishment of the third twentieth, and a stamp duty. But the whole was strongly disapproved of by the parliament of Paris; and that assembly, in the most positive terms, refused to register the edict. Lewis was obliged to apply, as the last resort, to his absolute authority; and, by holding what was called a *bed of justice*, compelled them to enroll the impost. The parliament, though defeated, were far from being subdued; and on the day after the king had held his bed of justice, they entered a formal protest against the edict; declaring, "that it had been registered against their approbation and consent, by the king's express command; that it neither ought nor should have any force; and that the first person who should presume to attempt to carry it into execution, should be adjudged a traitor, and condemned to the galleys."—This spirited declaration left the king no other alternative, but either to proceed to extremities in support of his authority, or to relinquish for ever the power of raising money without the consent of the parliament. Painful as every appearance of violence must have proved to the mild disposition of Lewis, he could not expect to surrender, without a struggle, that

authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors. Since the commencement of present discontents, the capital had been generally filled with considerable bodies of troops about a week after the parliament had eute protest, an officer of the French guards, party of soldiers, went at break of day to the house of each member, to signify the king's command, that he should immediately get in his carriage, and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about 70 miles from Paris, without speaking to any person out of his house before his departure.—These orders were served at the same instant; and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the true nature of their magistrates were already on the road to their place of banishment. Previous to their removal, however, they had presented a remonstrance to the late measures of government, and the present state of public affairs: wherein they declared, that neither the parliaments, nor any other authority, excepting that of the king, of the kingdom collectively assembled, warranted the laying of any permanent tax on the people; and they strongly expressed their desire of the renewal of these national assemblies, which had rendered the reign of Charles IX. to great advantages. This requisition of the parliament to establish the national council, or states-general, was the more honourable, as the former assembly must have sunk under the influence of the court, and returned to their original condition of registers and courts of law. The considerate attachment of the people therefore rose in support to this instance of disinterestedness; and numbers were openly expressed in the streets of the capital, and the general disaffection augmented by the stop put to public business, the exile of the parliament. Lewis, by his rigorous counsels, wished to allay the general discontent by every expectation that was consistent with his dignity; but the queen strongly dissuaded him from any step that might diminish his authority. The influence of that princely cabinet was undoubtedly great: but the party which once had accompanied her was no longer the court of Artois, the king's uncle, who had espoused himself in the most ungenerous terms against the conduct of the parliament; and the utmost popular hatred, not only in the capital that the same once manifested; it blazed with equal strength in the provincial parliaments.—Among various instances of this, the parliament of Grenoble passed a decree against LETTRES DE CACHET, one of the most odious engines of arbitrary power. The king had endeavoured to soothe the Parisians by regulations of economy, and by continual presents in his household; but these instances attracted attention, which once would have been regarded with the loudest acclamations, were now regarded under their affliction for the sake of their parliament. Lewis therefore, to regain the affections, consented to restore to the assembly the stamp-duty and the territorial

(55.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PARLIAMENT OF NOTABLES. These measures were, first

gent to establish harmony between the court and parliament. The necessities of the state continued; nor could the deficiency of the revenue be supplied but by extraordinary resources. In the middle of November 1787, in a full session of the parliament, attended by all the princes of the blood and the peers of France, the king entered the assembly, and proposed two edicts for the approval: one was for a new loan of 20 millions, near 19 millions Sterling: the other for the re-establishment of the Protestants in all their ancient civil rights; a measure which had been warmly recommended by the parliament. On this occasion, the king delivered a speech of great length, filled with professions of respect for the people, but strongly expressive of the ease he expected to his edicts. An animated debate took place, and was continued for 9 days; when the king, chagrined at some freedom in their debates, suddenly rose and interrupted the edict to be registered without delay. This measure was most unexpectedly opposed by the duke of Orleans, who, considering it as an infringement of the rights of parliament, protested against the whole proceedings as being thereby null and void. Though the king could not conceal his astonishment and anger at this decisive step, he contented himself with repeating his orders; and immediately quitting the assembly, retired to Versailles. On the duke's departure, the parliament confirmed the edicts of the duke of Orleans. It was not to be expected that Lewis would suffer to hold an article of his laws with impunity. A letter was next addressed to the duke of Orleans, commanding him to retire to Villars Cotterel, one of his great estates near Paris, and to receive company there except his own family; at the same time the Abbé Sabatier and M. Freteau, members of the parliament, who had distinguished themselves in the debate, were seized and carried, the first to the castle of Mont St Michel in Brittany, the last to a prison in Picardy. The acts of despotism roused the feelings of the people. On the following day they waited on the king, and expressed their astonishment that the use of the blood had been called, and two members imprisoned, for declaring what their duty and consciences dictated. The answer being reserved, forbidding, and unbecoming; and tended to increase the resentment of the parliament. At the same time, it did not prevent them from attending to the exigencies of the state; and convinced of the emergency, they consented to register the loan for 20 millions of livres, which had been the source of his unfortunate difference. This concession pleased the king, and the sentence of the two ministers was in consequence changed from imprisonment to exile; M. Freteau being sent to his country seat, and the Abbé Sabatier to a convent of Benedictines. The parliament, however, would not give up the points against which they had originally remonstrated. In a second session, held in the most animated language, they boldly reprobated the late acts of arbitrary power. Lewis naturally mild, and willing to see measures of reconciliation, in the beginning

of 1788, recalled the duke of Orleans to court, who soon after obtained leave to retire to England; and he permitted the return of the Abbé Sabatier and M. Freteau to the capital. The parliament also seconded the parliament of Grenoble, by loudly inveighing against LETTRES DE CACHET. These repeated remonstrances, mingled with personal reflections, seconded most probably the suggestions of the queen, and Lewis was once more instigated to measures of severity. Mess. d'Espremevil and Monsabert, whose bold and pointed harangues had pressed most closely on the royal dignity, were doomed to experience its immediate repentment. While a body of armed troops surrounded the hotel in which the parliament were convened, Colonel Degout entered the assembly, and secured the persons of the obnoxious members, who were instantly conducted to different prisons. This new instance of arbitrary violence occasioned a fresh remonstrance from parliament, which in boldness far exceeded all the former representations of that assembly. They declared they were now more strongly confirmed, by every proceeding, of the insupportable innovation which was aimed at in the constitution. "But, sire," added they, "the French nation will never adopt the despotic measures to which you are addicted, and which offend alarm the most faithful of your magistrates: we shall not consent that all the unfortunate circumstances which afflict us; we shall only represent to you with respectful firmness, that the fundamental laws of the kingdom must not be trampled upon, and that your authority cannot be exercised so long as it is tempered with justice." Language so pointed and decisive, and which asserted the controlling power of the laws above the royal authority, could not fail forcibly to alarm the king; and with a view to diminish the influence of parliament, it was determined again to convene the Notables.

(36.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI. TO THE RESTORATION OF THE STATES GENERAL. Lewis appeared in the assembly of the Notables, about the beginning of May, 1788, and after complaining of the excesses of the parliament of Paris which had drawn down his reluctant indignation on a few of the members, he declared his resolution, to recall them to their duty and obedience by a salutary reform. M. de la Motte, as keeper of the seals, then explained his majesty's pleasure to establish a *cour plénière* or supreme assembly, to be composed of princes of the blood, peers of the realm, great officers of the crown, the clergy, marshals of France, governors of provinces, knights of different orders, a deputation of one member from every parliament, and two members from the chambers of council, and to be summoned as often as the public emergency, in the royal opinion, should render it requisite. If the assembly of the Notables listened in silent deference to the project of their sovereign, the parliament of Paris received it with aversion. That body protested against the establishment of any other tribunal; and declared their final resolution not to assist at any deliberations in the supreme assembly which his majesty proposed to institute. A more unexpected mortification occurred to the king in the opposition of several

Several peers of the realm: these expressed their regret at beholding the fundamental principles of the constitution violated; and while they were lavish in their professions of attachment to the person of their sovereign, concluded with apologizing for not entering on those functions assigned them in the plenary court, as being inconsistent with the true interests of his majesty, which were inseparable from those of the nation. The flame quickly spread throughout the more distant provinces; at Rennes in Brittany, and Grenoble in Dauphine, the people broke out into acts of the most daring outrage; several hundreds of the inhabitants perished in a conflict with the military; yet they maintained their ground against the regulars; and the commanding officer, at the intreaties of the first president, readily withdrew his troops from a contest into which he had entered with reluctance. The different parliaments of the kingdom at the same time expressed their feelings in the most glowing language: and strongly urged the necessity of calling together the states general, the lawful council of the kingdom, as the only means of restoring the public tranquillity. Lewis now plainly saw, that the re-establishment of the *states general* was absolutely necessary, in order to avoid the calamities of a civil war. It was not, however, till after many a painful struggle that he could resolve to restore an assembly, whose influence must naturally diminish that of the crown, and whose jurisdiction would confine within narrow limits the boundless power he had inherited from his predecessors. It is probable that Lewis XVI, still flattered himself with the hope of being able to allure the members of that assembly to the side of the court; and having employed them to establish some degree of regularity in the finances, and to curb the spirit of the parliaments, that he could again have dismissed them to obscurity. Under these impressions an arrest was issued in August, fixing the meeting of the states general to the 1st of May 1789; and every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public during the interval.

(57.) FRANCE, HISTORY OF, UNDER LEWIS XVI, TO THE REVOLUTION, IN 1789. New arrangements now took place in the administration; and M. Necker, whom the confidence of the people had long followed, was again introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part, was now entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed, that in future, sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of 3 judges. The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the states general: but the moment of that assembly's meeting was far from being auspicious: The minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; and the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the states was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent which had been ex-

torted. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom created the general discontent; and the people pressed by hunger, and inflamed by resentment were ripe for revolt. The sovereign also, impatient of the obstacles he daily encountered, could conceal his chagrin; while the influence of queen in the cabinet was again established, was attended by the immediate removal of Necker. The dismissal of that minister, so the favourite of the public, was the signal to open insurrection; the Parisians assembled in riots; the guards refused to imbrue their hands in the blood of their fellow citizens; the court of Artois and the most obnoxious of the nob thought themselves happy in eluding by flight the fury of the insurgents; the Bastille, so long deemed impregnable, was attacked, demolished, and governor beheaded; and thus on the 14th, 1789, a revolution was accomplished, the most extraordinary of any recorded in history. But rapid succession of new revolutions, that had taken place in France since that period, and various forms of government that have been successively established and abolished within these 21 years, having rendered it extremely problematical, whether even the present *aristo-democratic* or *semi-royal* form of government, of the French republic, will prove ultimately more permanent than its predecessors, whatever marks of stability it may seem to possess, we shall postpone account of the history of France, during its revolutionary state, and of all the astonishing events that have accompanied it, with the great crimes and the great virtues, that have been exhibited in its course to the article REVOLUTION. Long before we arrive at that article, it is to be hoped by every friend of the human race, that a period will be put to the slaughter of Britons, of Frenchmen, of the allies of both, by a solid and lasting peace founded on the principles of reciprocal justice.

(58.) FRANCE, LATE PROVINCES OF. France before the revolution was divided into the following military governments, or provinces: Alsace, Angoumois, Anjou, Armagnac, Artois, Auvergne, Barrois, Basques, Bearne, Berry, Bretagne, Brabant, Burgundy, Brie, Champagne, Caux, Flanders, Forez, Franche Comte, French Flanders, Gascony, Gevaudan, Guienne, French Hainault, Ile of France, Languedoc, Lorraine, Lorraine, Lyonnais, Marche, Maine, Normandy, Navarre, Nivernois, Normandy, Orleans, Perche, Perigord, Picardy, Poitou, Provence, Quercy, Ruoergue, Roussillon, Saintonge, Soissonois, Touraine, Vevey, and Vermandois. They varied much from each other in point of extent and importance, and there were others of still inferior consideration.

(59.) FRANCE, MODERN DIVISION OF. France was divided by the first legislative assembly into 83 departments, and these were subdivided into districts, cantons, and municipalities. The names of the departments are, Ain, Aisne, Allier, Alpes Lower, Alps Upper, Ardeche, Ardennes, Aube, Aude, Aveiron, Calvados, Cantal, Charente Lower, Cher, Correze, Corsica, Creuse, Creuse, Dordogne, Doubs, Drome, Eure and Loire, Finisterre, Gard, Garonne Upper

code, Herault, Indre, Indre and Loire, and Vilaine, Jura, Landes, Loire, Loire Lower, Loire Upper, Loiret, and Garonne, Lozere, Maine, Maine, Manche, Marne, Maine Upper, Meuse, Morbihan, Moselle, Mouths of the Seine, Nièvre, Nord or North, North, Orne, Paris, Puy de Dome, Pyrenees Lower, Pyrenees Upper, Rhine Upper, Rhone and Loire, Saone and Loire, Sarthe, Seine and Marne, Seine and Marne, the Two Sommes, Straits of Calais, Tarn, Var, Vienne, Vienne Upper, Vosges, and About 18 new departments have been set out of the conquered territories of the republic. See FRENCH REPUBLIC.

**FRANCE, MOUNTAINS OF.** The chief mountains of France, are those of the Alps, Pyrenees, and Auvergne: Mount Blanc, &c.

**FRANCE, NEW CONSTITUTIONS AND GOVERNMENT OF.** No country ever had a greater succession of changes in the form of government, than France has had within these years, since the 14th July 1789. The first constitution formed by the National Assembly, an overthrow of the old despotic government, and a beautiful limited monarchy: wherein, and hereditary honours were abolished, and still retained a considerable degree of revenue and enjoyed a large annual income; no more than 1,500,000 l. Sterling being allotted for personal expenses; a sum evidently one third less than is allowed his present Majesty in Britain; and nearly double if we deduct from the civil list. The next constitution which was erected upon the total overthrow of monarchy, in August 1792, was a government upon the principles of liberty and equality which was still further amended in May 1793, and was never carried into execution. (See ACT, § 2.) Instead of this, the most arbitrary measures were carried on under the name of a juncto of the Convention, by their atheistical revolutionary tribunals. These were abolished by the mild government, which succeeded in 1795, under the form of a Directory and Councils. Of this constitution we have already given a pretty full account, under the article COUNCIL, § 8, 9; and DIRECTORY, § 2, the present existing constitution, established in 1799, when Bonaparte overturned the Directory Councils, and fixed the supreme powers in the hands of a triumvirate, under the title of Consuls, a conservatory senate of 24, appointed a tribunate of 100, and a legislative body of 500 members. See FRENCH REPUBLIC.

But we cannot conclude this section, without observing, that, tho' France still retains the name of a republic, and its public acts are in the words LIBERTY and EQUALITY, the present constitution retains very little of the spirit of either; as the successive controul of great classes of voters, arranged by it in relation to their property, over the preceding

voters possessed of less property, reduces any effect of the first suffrages given by the citizens at large, to a mere shadow; and the 41st article of the Constitution gives to the First Consul a degree of power almost despotic, and greatly superior to that enjoyed by the unfortunate Lewis XVI, under the beautiful limited monarchy established by the Constitution of 1789—91.

(62.) **FRANCE, POPULATION OF.** The population of France, before the revolution, was stated by the French at 25 millions; but from the great extent of territory added to the republic since the commencement of the present war, and now incorporated with it, (see FRENCH REPUBLIC,) the total population is supposed to be now increased to at least 33 millions.

(63.) **FRANCE, PRESENT EXTENT OF.** See FRENCH REPUBLIC.

(64.) **FRANCE, PRODUCTIONS OF.** Besides all the necessaries of life, (see § 2.) France produces many of its luxuries; as silk, perfumes, lemons, oranges, olives, prunes, peaches, &c. The forests abound with wood, and the mountains with mines of copper, lead, tin, iron; and some gold and silver. Gold in grains is also found among the sands of some rivers.

(65.) **FRANCE, RELIGION OF.** The established religion of France, from the reign of Clovis I. to the revolution, has been the Roman Catholic; and though it was never accompanied by that dreadful engine of ecclesiastical tyranny, the inquisition, yet no country in Europe has exhibited more barbarous and bloody proofs of the intolerant spirit of that system of superstition than France. (See § 41.) Yet, though universal liberty of conscience was established upon the revolution in 1789, the Roman Catholic system was not attempted to be abolished. So far from this, the kingdom was divided into 10 archbishoprics (formerly 13), and 73 bishoprics (formerly 113), an episcopal hierarchy; an episcopal town being allotted to each department. But Danton and his atheistical associates, in the Convention of 1793, endeavoured to overthrow all religion whatsoever. Upon the fall of Danton, Robertspierre, affecting an abhorrence of the impiety of ATHEISM, did his utmost to recommend DEISM, in its stead. But since his death, CHRISTIANITY has been again openly professed; the churches have been restored to the use of all who incline to attend them; and people of all religious persuasions are allowed to worship God in the way most agreeable to themselves; only as no particular system is established, no salaries are paid to the priests at the public expence, but each party pays its own clergy.

(66.) **FRANCE, RIVERS OF.** France is watered and fertilized by a great number of rivers, many of which afford names to the new departments. (See § 59.) The principal of these are the Seine, Loire, Garonne, and Rhone.

(67.) **FRANCE, SOIL OF.** See § 2.

(68.) **FRANCE, STRENGTH OF.** The present strength of the French republic, we shall not attempt to estimate. It has been sufficiently tried during the course of the present war, and will probably be still more so before it be concluded. Previous to the revolution, the army, in time of peace,

consisted of 200,000 men, and, in time of war, of 400,000; among whom were many Swifs, Germans, Scots, Irish, Swedes, and Danes.

(69.) FRANCE, TAXES AND CI-DEVANT REVENUES OF. See § 3.

(70.) FRANCE, TRADE AND MANUFACTURES OF. The French in time of peace carry on a great trade with Spain, Italy, and the E. Indies. Before the war, a trade very advantageous to Britain was established by the Commercial Treaty. They have very extensive manufactures of linens, woollens, silks, laces, paper, china, soap, &c. and particularly what is called *Cassile* soap.

(71.) FRANCE, TOWNS, CITIES, AND VILLAGES IN. France before the war, was said to contain 400 cities or walled towns, and 43,000 small towns and villages. Paris is the capital.

(II.) FRANCE, ISLE OF, a ci-devant province of France, so called, because it was formerly bounded by the rivers Seine, Marne, Oise, Aisne, and Ourque. It comprehended the Beauvoisis, the Valois, the county of Senlis, the Vexin, the Hurepois, the Gatinois, the Multien, the Goele, and the Mantois. Paris was the capital. It is now divided into 4 departments; viz. Oise, Seine and Oise, Seine and Marne, and Paris.

(III.) FRANCE, ISLE OF, or MAURITIUS, an island in the Indian Ocean. See MAURITIUS.

(IV.) FRANCE, LITTLE, a village of Scotland, 2 miles SE. of Edinburgh, near CRAIGMILLAR Castle; built in the 16th century, for the accommodation of the French retinue, that attended Queen Mary after her return from Paris.

FRANCESCA, Peter, an eminent Florentine painter of night pieces and battles, who was employed to paint the Vatican. He also painted portraits, and wrote on arithmetic and geometry. He died in 1452.

(1.) FRANCFORT ON THE MAINE, an Imperial and Hanseatic town of Germany, in Franconia, where the emperors were formerly elected. It is a handsome, strong, and rich place, and has a great deal of commerce. Here the golden bull is preserved, which is the original of the fundamental laws of the empire. The town is seated in a fine fertile plain; and extremely well fortified. It has 2 great fairs, and has great conveniency for carrying on an extensive trade with the other parts of Germany, by the Maine, which runs through it. The suburbs are called SAXEN-HAUSEN, and are joined to the town by a stone bridge over the Maine. Lutheranism is the established faith, but the Calvinists are richest and most numerous. It is 20 miles E. of Mentz, and 350 W. by N. of Vienna. It was taken by the French in Oct. 1792, by the Prussians in Dec. retaken by the French, in 1793, and afterwards by the Austrians. It is at present, (July 1856,) blockaded by the French, under gen. St. Simeon. Lon. R. 49. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

(2.) FRANCFORT ON THE ODER, a rich and handsome town of Germany, in the middle Marche of Brandenburg, formerly imperial, but now subject to the king of Prussia. It has 3 great fairs, an academy and 2 colleges: and is 43 miles SE. of Berlin, and 72 S. of Stettin. Lon. 14. 39. E. Lat. 52. 23. N.

FRANCHE COMTE, a ci-devant province of France, bounded on the S. by Breffe; on the W.

by Burgundy; on the N. by Lorraine; an E. by Alsace and Switzerland. It is 1 long from N. to S. and 80 broad. It is p and partly hilly. The flat country is fr grain, wine, hemp, and pasture; and th bound in cattle, copper, lead, iron, silver, waters, stone, marble, and alabaster. It divided into 3 departments; viz. Doubs and Upper Saone.

FRANCHEMONT, or } a town and  
FRANCHIMONT, } a ci-devant  
sate, of Germany, in the late bishopric o  
now included in the French republic, an  
ment of Ourte. The town lies 13 mile  
Liege.

FRANCHIRE, a river of Madagascari  
province of Anossi.

FRANCHIS, a town NW. of Burwash

(1.) \* FRANCHISE. *n. f.* [*franchise*, Fr  
emption from any onerous duty. 2. P  
immunity; right granted.—They grant  
markets, and other *franchises*, and erect  
rate towns among them. *Davies on Irela*

His gracious edict the same *franchise*  
To all the wild increase of woods and

3. District; extent of jurisdiction.—The  
ther privileges granted unto most of the  
tions, that they shall not be travelled forth  
own *franchises*. *Spenser's Ireland*.

(2.) FRANCHISE AND LIBERTY, in law,  
as synonymous terms; for "a royal priv  
branch of the king's prerogative, submitt  
hands of a subject." Being therefore deri  
the crown, they must arise from the king  
or, in some cases, may be held by pres  
which presupposes a grant. The kinds a  
rous and various. We shall briefly ment  
of the principal; premising only, that t  
be vested either in natural persons or bod  
tic; in one man, or in many; but the sa  
tical franchise, that has before been gr  
one, cannot be bestowed on another,  
would prejudice the former grant. A  
PALATINE is a franchise vested in several  
It is likewise a franchise for a number of  
to be incorporated and subsist as a body  
with a power to maintain perpetual it  
and do other corporate acts: and each m  
member of such corporation is also said  
franchise. Other franchises are, to hold  
lect; to have a manor or lordship; or,  
to have a lordship paramount: to ha  
weeks, essays, treasure-trove, royal  
feitures, and deodands: to have a court  
own, or liberty of holding pleas and tryin  
to have cognizance of pleas; which is call  
liberty, being an exclusive right, so that  
court shall try causes arising within that  
tion: to have a bailiwick, or liberty exer  
the sheriff of the county; wherein the gr  
ly, and his officers, are to execute all p  
to have a fair or market; with the right  
toll, either there or at any other public  
at bridges, wharfs, or the like; which  
have a reasonable cause of commencing  
consideration of repairs, or the like, else  
chite is illegal and void: or lastly, to ha

warren, or fishery, endowed with pri-  
royalty. See CHASE, FOREST, &c.  
ANCHISE is also used for an asylum or  
, where people are secure of their per-  
Churches and monasteries in Spain are  
for criminals; so were they anciently in  
till they were abused to such a degree  
was a necessity for abolishing the cus-  
of the most remarkable capitulars made  
magne in his palace of Heristal, in 779,  
relating to the franchises of churches  
of franchise was held so sacred, that  
of religious kings observed it to a degree  
ouster; but to such excess in time was  
, that Charlemagne resolved to reduce it.  
ly he forbid any provision to be carried  
as retired into churches for refuge.

FRANCHISE OF QUARTERS is a certain  
district at Rome, wherein are the houses  
of the princes of Europe; and  
as they cannot be arrested or seized,  
dated at law. The people of Rome look  
an old usurpation and a scandalous pri-  
ambassadors, out of a jealousy of  
er, carried to a great length in the 15th  
by charging infinitely the dependencies  
aces or houses, within which the right  
was anciently confined. Popes Julius  
XV, Gregory XIII, and Sixtus V, pub-  
s and ordinances against this abuse;  
d refused so considerable a part of the  
their authority, and rendered it a re-  
the most abandoned persons. At length  
XI, expressly refused to receive any more  
ers, but such as would make a formal  
of the franchise of quarters.

FRANCHISE. *v. a.* (from the noun.) To  
; to make free; to keep free.—

I lose no honour  
ing to augment it; but still keep  
from *franchis'd*, and allegiance clear.

*Sicak. Macbeth.*  
ANCIA, Francis, a celebrated Bolognese  
in 1490. He was first a jeweller, a  
crafter of coins and medals; and ap-  
plied to painting, obtained great reputa-  
as works, particularly by a piece of St  
, whom he had drawn bound to a tree  
ands tied over his head. He pined him-  
a consumption, by despairing to equal  
and died in 1518.

ANCIA, a town of Naples, in the prov.  
ia Ultra; 8 miles NE. of Nicotera.

ANCIENNE, or ST DENYS. See DENYS, N<sup>o</sup> 5.

ANCIENNE. See FRANKLEDGE.

ANCIENNE I. and II, kings of France.

ANCIENNE. § 39, 40.

ANCIENNE, Philip, D. D. a very ingenious  
of Irish extraction, if not born in Ireland.

ANCIENNE being dean of a cathedral in that king-  
was invited to the church. He was more  
than as a translator than as an original

His versions of Horace and Demosthenes  
are justly valued; the former is accompa-  
nied with learned and useful notes. He was also  
a considerable political writer; and is supposed to  
be employed by the government; for which  
he was appointed *rector of Barrow in Sul-*

*Part I.*

folk, and chaplain of Chelsea hospital. He was  
also the author of two tragedies, *Eugenia*, and *Con-*  
*stantia*. He died at Bath in March 1773; leaving  
a son, then one of the supreme council at Bengal.

(4.) FRANCIS, ST, the founder of the society of  
the FRANCISCANS, was the son of a merchant of  
Assisi, in the province of Umbria. Having led a  
dissolute life, he was reclaimed by a fit of sickness,  
and afterwards fell into an extravagant kind of de-  
votion, that looked less like religion than aliena-  
tion of mind. In 1208, hearing the passage quoted,  
(Matt. x. 9, 10.) "Provide neither gold, nor sil-  
ver," &c. he was led to consider a voluntary  
and absolute poverty as the essence of the gospel,  
and to prescribe it as a sacred rule to himself and  
those who followed him. See FRANCISCANS. He  
died in 1226.

FRANCISCANS, in ecclesiastical history, reli-  
gious of the order of ST FRANCIS, founded by  
him in 1209. This society, which appeared to  
Innocent III. extremely adapted to the state of  
the church, was solemnly approved and confirm-  
ed by Honorius III. in 1223. Francis, through an  
excessive humility, would not suffer the monks of  
his order to be called *fratres*, i. e. brethren or  
friars, but FRATERCULI, i. e. little brethren, or  
*friars minor*, by which denomination they still  
continue to be distinguished. They are also call-  
ed *rossifrons*, on account of the colour of their  
clothing, and CORDELIERS, &c. The Francis-  
cans and DOMINICANS were zealous and active  
friends to the papal hierarchy. In 1287, Matthew  
of Aqua Sparta, being elected general of the or-  
der, discouraged the ancient discipline of the Fran-  
ciscans, and indulged his monks in abandoning  
even the appearance of poverty. This conduct  
raised the indignation of the spiritual or austere  
Franciscans; so that from 1290, schisms arose in  
an order that had been famous for its pretend-  
ed disinterestedness and humility. Such was the  
enthusiastic frenzy of the Franciscans, that they  
impiously maintained, that St Francis was a *second*  
*Christ*, in all respects similar to the first; and that  
their institution and discipline were the true gos-  
pel of Jesus. Accordingly, Albizi, a Franciscan  
of Pisa, published a book in 1383, with the ap-  
plause of his order, intitled, *The Book of the Con-*  
*formities of St Francis with Jesus Christ!* In the  
beginning of the 18th century, the whole Francis-  
can order was divided into two parties; the one  
called *Spirituals*, who embraced the severe disci-  
pline and absolute poverty of St Francis; and the  
other, *Brethren of the Community*, who insisted on  
mitigating the austere injunctions of their founder.  
They wore long, loose, and good habits, with large  
hoods; the former were clad in a strait, coarse, and  
short dress, pretending that this dress was enjoined  
by St Francis, and that no power on earth had a  
right to alter it. Neither the moderation of Cle-  
ment V, nor the violence of John XXII, could ap-  
pease the tumult occasioned by these two parties;  
however their rage subsided from A. D. 1329. In  
1368 these two parties were formed into two large  
bodies, which still subsist, comprehending the  
whole Franciscan order; viz. the *observant bre-*  
*thren*, and the *brethren of the observance of obser-*  
*vation*, from whom sprung the Capuchins and Re-  
collects. The Franciscans are said to have count-

into England in 1224, and to have had their first house at Canterbury, and their second at London; but there is no certain account of their being here till Henry VII. built 2 or 3 houses for them. At the dissolution of the monasteries, the conventual Franciscans had about 55 houses, which were under 7 wardenships; viz. those of London, York, Cambridge, Bristol, Oxford, Newcastle, and Worcester.

FRANCKEMONT. See FRANCHMONT.

FRANCKENBERG, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Hesse; 16 m. N. of Marburg, and 29 SW. of Cassel.

FRANCKENMARK, or FRANKEMARK, a town of Germany, in Aultria; 8 m. SW. of Voglabruck.

FRANCKS, a town of Kent, E. of the Crays.

FRANCOCCI, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Spoleto, 7 miles WNW. of Spoleto.

FRANCOIS, CAPE, a town in the N. part of Hispaniola. It suffered much from the dreadful commotions that took place in that island, in 1794, 95, and 96. Lon. 72. 18. W. Lat. 19. 46. N.

FRANCOISE, a town of France, in the dept. of Lot, 7½ miles NW. of Montauban, and 20½ SSW. of Cahors. Lon. 18. 54. E. of Ferro. Lat. 44. 7. N.

FRANCOLIN. See ATTAGEN.

FRANCONIA, a circle of Germany, bounded on the N. by Meissen and Thuringia, on the S. by Bavaria and Suabia; on the E. by Bohemia and the Upper Palatinate, and on the W. by the Lower, and the electorate of Mentz; being 88 miles from N. to S. and 95 from E. to W. The middle is very fertile in corn, wine, and fruits; but the borders are full of woods and barren mountains. The majority of the people are Lutherans; but there are also many Calvinists, Roman Catholics, and Jews. The FRANKS, who conquered and gave name to France, came from this province. See FRANCE, § 4. Nuremberg is the capital.

FRANCONVILLE, a town of France, 10 miles N. of Paris.

FRANCOSO, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, 22 miles E. of Viseu.

FRANCOVILLA, a town of the Ligurian republic, 6 miles S. of Novi.

FRANCREMONT, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Ourte, and late bishopric of Liege. 4 miles N. of Spa.

(1.) FRANCTON, a town in Warwickshire, on the Foss, near Dunsmore Heath.

(2.) FRANCTON, ENGLISH, } two villages in

(3.) FRANCTON, WELSH, } Shropshire, near Ellesmere.

FRANE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Doubs, 7½ miles SW. of Pontarlier.

FRANEKER, FRANEQUER, or FRANKER, a town of the Batavian republic, in the department of Eems, and ci-devant province of N. Friesland. It has a castle, 2 navigable canals, many magnificent buildings, and an university, rendered famous by its learned professors; particularly Adrian Metius, George Palor, Pierius Winsemus, Sixtus Amama, &c. It lies 9 miles W. of Lewarden, and 5 E. of Haringen. Lon. 5. 33. E. Lat. 53. 11. N.

FRANEKERADEEL, or } a late canton of the  
FRANQUEKADEEL, } ci-devant United

Provinces, in the district of Westerpoovince of North Friesland, now included partment of Eems.

FRANFIELD, a village in Sussex.

\* FRANGIBLE. *adj.* [*frango*, Lat. brittle; easily broken.—Though it seemest wood, if wrought before it be wet it will shew itself very *frangible*. *Boyle*.

FRANGULA, in botany. See RHAM.

\* FRANION. *n. f.* [Of this word I the derivation.] A paramour; a boon com.

First, by her side did sit the hoid;

Fit mate for such a mincing minion,

Who in her looseness took exceeding

Might not be found a franker *franion*;

(1.) \* FRANK. *adj.* [*franc*, Fr.] 1. I.

nerous; not niggardly.—The moister it

yield little mois, for the reason of the

ting up of the sap into the boughs. *Ba-*

were left *debitus*, either by narrow pr

by their *frank* hearts and their open

their charity towards others. *Spratt*.—

dinary practice of the world to be *fran-*

ties that cost them nothing. *L'Esfran-*

pen; ingenuous; sincere; not reserved.

out conditions; without payment.—

Thou hast it won; for it is of *fra-*

And he will care for all the rest to fl

*Hubt*

4. Not restrained; licentious. Not in

Might not be found a *franker fr*

(II.) FRANK, or FRANC, in the ancient customs, signifies literally *free* from contributions, or exempt from public tax in various senses: sometimes compound sometimes not; though the latter is doubtful proper. Thus,

1. \* FRANKALMOIGNE. *n. f.* The *fr* we in Latin call *libera elemosyna*, or *fr* English; whence that tenure is common among our English lawyers by the nature in *frank aumone*, or *frankalmoig* according to *Briton*, is a tenure by *dis* *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

2. FRANKALMOIGNE is a tenure, religious corporation, aggregate or sole lands of the donor to them and their for ever. The service which they were render for these lands was not defined in general to pray for the souls of the his heirs, dead or alive; and therefore t fealty (which was incident to all other because this *divine service* was of a *fr* nature. This is the tenure by which all ancient monasteries and religious houses lands; and by which the parochial c very many ecclesiastical and elemosynations, still hold them; the nature of being upon the reformation altered, conformable to the purer doctrines of of England. It was an old Saxon te continued under the Norman revolution the great respect that was shown to religious men in ancient times. This reason that tenants in frankalmoigne were freed of all other services except the *trill* *tas*, of repairing the highways, buildi



pellage invasions; just as the druids, among ancient Britons, had *omnium rerum immunita*. And even at present this is a tenure of a different nature from all others; being not in itself feudal, but merely spiritual. For, if the land be neglected, the law gives no remedy by writ or otherwise, to the lord of whom the land is holden; but merely a complaint to the lord or visitor to correct it.

**FRANK CHACE** is a liberty of free chase, by persons that have lands within the county; the same, are prohibited to cut down any wood out of the view of the lord.

**FRANK FEE** signifies the same thing as holden and tenements in fee simple; that is, to the person and his heirs, and not by such service as is required by ancient demesne, but is pleaded as common law. See **FEE**.

**FRANK LAW**, the free and common law of the land, or the benefit a person has by it. He who is guilty of offence loath this frank law incurs many inconveniences, viz. He may not be permitted to serve on juries, nor used as an evidence in any suit; and if he has any thing to do in the court, he must not approach it in person, but by his attorney; his lands, goods, and chattels shall be seized into the king's hands; and if he be effracted, his trees rooted up, and he committed to custody.

**FRANK MARRIAGE**, in law, is where tenements are given by one man to another, together with a daughter who is the daughter or cousin to the donor, and is held in frank marriage. By such gift, both the donor and his heirs but *frank marriage* is expressed, and the donee shall have the tenements to them, and out of their two bodies begotten; that is, the donee and his heirs in special tail. For this expression *frank marriage*, denotes, *ex vi termini*, not by purchase, like *frank almoigne*, but like inheritance; supplying, not only the want of descent, but of procreation also. Such persons in frank marriage are liable to no service to the lord; nor a rent reserved therein is void unless the degree of consanguinity be past between the donor and donee.

**FRANKPLEDGE**. *n. s.* [*franciplegium*, Lat. *n. s. i. e. liber & pleige. i. e. fidi jussor.*] A surety for freemen. For the ancient custom of England, for the preservation of the peace, was that every freeborn man at 14 years of age, religious persons, clerks, knights and their sons excepted, should find security for himself to the king, or else be kept in prison; and it became customary for a certain number of neighbours to be bound for one another, to see that the terms of their pledge forthcoming at all times, unless the transgression of any one absent himself. This was called *frankpledge*, and the terms thereof was called *decenna*, because it consisted of ten households; and every party to the pledge, thus mutually bound, was called *frankpledger*. This custom was so strictly observed, that the sheriffs, in every county, did from time to time take the oaths of young ones as they grew up, of fourteen years, and see that they were bound in one dozen or other: this branch of the king's authority was called *visus franciplegii*, & *frankpledge*. *Cowel*.

**8. FRANK PLEDGE**.—In such cases, as those above-mentioned, (§ 7.) whenever any person offended, the persons bound either produced the offender in 31 days, or made satisfaction for his offence.

**9. FRANK TENEMENT**. See **TENURE**.  
(III. i.) \* **FRANK**. *n. s.* [from the adjective.]  
1. A place to feed hogs in; a sty: so called from liberality of food.—Where sups he? Doth the old boar feed in the old *frank*? *Shakspeare, Henry IV.*  
2. A letter which pays no postage.—You'll have immediately, by several *franks*, my epistle to lord Colbain. *Pope*. 3. A French coin.

(ii.) **FRANK**, § III, i; *def.* 2. See **FRANKED LETTERS**.

(iii.) **The FRANK**, or **FRANC**, (§ III, i; *def.* 3.) anciently current in France, was either of gold or silver:

1. **FRANK, GOLD**, was something more than that of the gold crown.

2. **FRANK, SILVER**, was a third of the value of the gold one. This coin has been long out of use, though the term is still retained as the name of a money of account; in which sense it is equivalent to the livre, or 20 sols.

(IV.) **FRANK**, in geography, a town of the United States, in S. Carolina, 11 m. E. of Kingston.

(V.) **FRANK LANGUAGE**, *Lingua Franca*, a kind of jargon spoken on the Mediterranean, and particularly throughout the coasts and ports of the Levant, composed of Italian, Spanish, French, vulgar Greek, and other languages.

\* **To FRANK**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To shut up in a frank or sty. *Hammer*.—

In the sty of this most bloody boar,  
My son George Stanly is *frank'd* up in hold.

*Shakspeare*.  
2. To feed high; to fat; to cram. *Junius and Ainsworth*. 3. [From the adjective.] To exempt letters from postage.—My lord Orrery writes to you to-morrow; and you see I send this under his cover, or at least *franked* by him. *Swift*.—

Gazettes sent gratis down, and *frank'd*,  
For which thy patron's weekly thank'd. *Pope*.

**FRANKED LETTERS**. The privilege of letters coming free of postage to and from members of parliament was claimed by the House of Commons in 1660, when the first legal settlement of the present post-office was made; but afterwards dropped, upon a private assurance from the crown, that this privilege should be allowed the members. Accordingly a warrant was constantly issued to the postmaster general, directing the allowance thereof to the extent of two ounces in weight: till at length it was expressly confirmed by 4 Geo. III. c. 24. which added many new regulations, rendered necessary by the great abuses in franking; whereby the annual amount of franked letters had increased from 23,600*l.* in the year 1715, to 170,700*l.* in the year 1763. Other regulations afterwards took place; in particular, franks were required to be dated (the month written at length), and put into the office the same day; notwithstanding which, the revenue still lost by this privilege above 80,000*l.* per annum. The following are the regulations of franking required by 35 Geo. III. and now in force. No letter directed by or to any M. P. shall be exempted from postage if it

exceeds 1 oz. in weight. No letter directed by any member shall be exempted, unless he shall actually be in the post town, or within the limits of its delivery of letters, or within 20 miles of it on the day, or the day before it, on which the letter shall be put into the office. No member shall be entitled to send free from postage more than ten letters in one day, nor to receive more than 15. Whenever the number of letters sent or received by such number in one day shall exceed the number exempted, and the postage upon any of them shall differ, the letters chargeable with a higher postage shall be included in the number exempted, in preference to any chargeable with a lower postage, and the remainder shall be chargeable with the postage to which common letters are now chargeable. Persons who may now in right of their offices send and receive letters free may continue so to do. Printed votes or proceedings in parliament, and printed newspapers may also be sent as usual. No single letter sent by the post from any non-commissioned officer, seaman, or private, in the navy, army, militia, fencible regiments, artillery, or marines, shall be charged with more postage than one penny, but must be paid at the time of putting it into the post office; and such letter must have written thereon, in the hand writing of and signed by the commanding officer, the name of such commanding officer, and of the ship, vessel, corps, regiment, or detachment. Also no single letter directed to any such non-commissioned officer, seaman, or private, shall be charged with more postage than one penny, to be paid on the delivery thereof; but such letter must be directed to such persons, specifying the ship, vessel, regiment, troop, corps, company, or detachment to which they belong: And the postmaster must deliver such letter either to the party to whom it shall be directed, or to some person appointed to receive the same by the commanding officer, and to no other. Every letter containing patterns or samples of goods, not exceeding one ounce, shall be charged only as a single letter, if sent open at the sides, and without any letter or writing therewith, other than the name of the person sending the same, the place of his abode, and the prices of the articles.

(1.) **FRANKEL**, Francis, commonly called *Old Frank*, a famous Flemish painter, supposed to have been born about A. D. 1544. He painted historical subjects from the Old and New Testament; and was remarkable for introducing a great number of figures into his compositions, which he had the address to set up very distinctly. Vandyck greatly commended his works.

(2.) **FRANKEL**, Francis, or *Young Frank*, the son of the former, born in 1620, was distinguished by his father, whose style he imitated so closely, that their works are not easily distinguished. He travelled into Italy for improvement in drawing. His chief performances are a large oval piece in the church of Notre dame at Antwerp; and another, of Solomon's idolatry. He died in 1642.

**FRANKENAU**, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and principality of Hesse, 24 miles SW. of Cassel, and 16 S.W. of Waldeck.

(1.) **FRANKENBERG**, a town of Germany, Austria; 6 miles W.N.W. of Voislanowz.

(2.) **FRANKENBERG**, a town of Upper Erzgebirg, 9 miles W. of Freyberg NNE. of Chemnitz.

(3.) **FRANKENBERG**. See **FRANKENFRANKENDAL**, a strong town of lately in the dominions of the Elector now included in the French republic, of Mont Tonnerre. It was taken by the in 1623, by the Swedes in 1632, and the French in 1688. It was taken by the and laid under contribution in 1793, by the Austrians, and finally taken by the Oct. 1794, and annexed to the republic a good trade in porcelain, cloth, silks; a navigable canal to the Rhine. It is NW. of Mannheim, and 8 S. of Worms 29. E. Lat. 49. 25. N.

**FRANKENFELS**, a town of Austria Nieder-Ober, 20 miles WSW. of Mainz

**FRANKENHAUSEN**, two towns Saxony; 1. in Erzgebirg, 8 miles W. of Zwickau; 2. in Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt on the Wipper. It has rich salt-works E. of Sonderhausen, and 26 N. of Erfurt 28. 43. E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 16. N.

**FRANKENIA**, in botany, a genus of the noxygia order, belonging to the hexandria of plants; and in the natural method to the 17th order, *Calycanthemum*. The quinquefid, and funnel shaped; the petals stigma sexpartite; the capsule unilocular.

(1.) **FRANKENSTEIN**, a town of Germany in the circle of the Upper Rhine; 5 miles Darmstadt.

(2.) **FRANKENSTEIN**, a town of Silesia Bautzen, 9 miles W. of Muefberg.

(3.) **FRANKENSTEIN**, a town of the public, in the department of Sarre and of ci-devant duchy of Deux-Ponts; 20 of Deux Ponts, and 22 NW. of Landau 55. E. Lat. 49. 18. N.

(1.) **FRANKFORD**, a town of Virginia capital of Pendleton county, situated on a branch of the Potomac; 180 miles NW. of Philadelphia, and 350 WSW. of Philadelphia 31. W. of that city. Lat. 38. 42. N.

(2.) **FRANKFORD**, a village of Virginia Shenandoah county, seated on Faterion's Creek NW. of Romney.

(1.) **FRANKFORT**, a town of the United States on the river and in the State of Kentucky 25. 12. W. Lat. 36. 3. N.

(2.) **FRANKFORT**. See **FRANCO**

(1.) **FRANKINCENSE**, a resinous substance so called perhaps from its liberal distribution. *Frankincense* is a dry resinous substance in pieces or drops, of a pale yellowish white colour, but not disagreeable, aromatic, and resinous taste. It is very rare. The earliest histories inform us that it was used among the sacred rites and that it continues to be in many parts. We are uncertain as to the place whence it is brought, and as to the tree which produces it. *Hist.*—Take unto thee sweet spices, *frankincense*. *Exodus*.—I find in Dioscorid.

*Frankincense* gotten in India. *Brerewood* on 1785.—

ack ebon only will in India grow,  
od'rous *frankincense* on the Sabcean bough.

*Dryden's Virgil.*

car and *frankincense*, an od'rous pile,  
'd on the hearth, and wide perfum'd the  
ise. *Pope.*

ANKISTAN, the name given by the Asia-  
Europe.

ANKLAND'S ISLANDS, a cluster of Islands  
South Sea; 6 miles from the NE. coast of  
Island. Lon. 146. 0. E. Lat. 17. 13. S.

FRANKLIN, Benjamin, LL. D. and F. R. S.  
of the most celebrated philosophers and  
of the 18th century, was born at Boston,  
1706. He was the son of Josias Franklin, a  
candler, descended from an ancient Eng-  
lish, who had refused upwards of three cen-  
turies in Northamptonshire, possessing  
a freehold estate of 30 acres, and the eldest  
heret had been uniformly bred up to the  
ten of a blacksmith. This family had early  
ed the opinions of the reformation, and  
in danger of suffering for them, under the  
pre-son of Q. Mary I. Benjamin was the  
eldest son of the youngest branch of this family.  
His father had joined the non-conformists, and  
the prohibition of conventicles under Charles  
migrated with his wife and family, to New  
York in 1682; where, on the death of his first  
wife married Abiah Folger, daughter of Peter  
Folger, author of several tracts on liberty of con-  
science, who bore him 9 children besides our  
author. Benjamin early acquired reading and  
writing, made no progress in Arithmetic, as  
evident in his memoirs written by himself.  
Up to 22 years of age he wrought at his  
father's trade, but his inclination for books  
induced his father to make him a printer,  
where his elder brother James was already of  
prestation. To this brother he was ac-  
quainted as apprentice, and by his rapid  
progress in the business soon became of great  
value, though he often treated him rather  
severely. Mean time he improved himself  
in several other branches of science, as well  
as composition, by writing anonymous essays  
for another's paper, *The New England Courant*,  
which, being much admired, were for some  
time of advantage to it. But one of them, upon  
a political subject, happening to give offence to  
the Assembly, his brother was taken up, imprison-  
ed a month, and prohibited from printing his  
paper. The paper was then continued under  
the name of *Benjamin Franklin*, whose indentures  
discharged, and a new secret contract agreed  
to: but fresh differences afterwards arising  
between the brothers, our author, at the age  
of 17, emigrated to Philadelphia, where he ar-  
rived without knowing a single individual in it,  
escaping the danger of being taken up as a  
way servant, and various other droll ad-  
ventures, which he humourously describes in his  
memoirs. Here he soon got employment from  
Benjamin Franklin and Keimer, the two only printers then  
in the city. After this he was introduced by his  
cousin-law, Captain Holmes, to Sir William

Keith, governor of the Province, who *promised* to  
do much for him, but, except entertaining him  
occasionally, in his own house or a tavern, per-  
formed nothing. By his advice, however, he  
paid a visit to his parents, and in the end of 1724,  
failed for London, where by his own merit, with-  
out Sir William's promised letters of recommen-  
dation and credit, he obtained the best employ-  
ment, first in Palmer's printing office, and after-  
wards in Watt's. At this time our author falling  
in with some Deistical companions, renounced  
the religious principles in which he had been edu-  
cated, commenced Sceptic, and published a  
*Dissertation on Liberty and Necessity, Pleasure and  
Pain*, wherein he endeavoured to prove that there  
is no difference between virtue and vice; which  
he afterwards considered as one of the grand er-  
rors of his life. This work, however, introduced  
him to the acquaintance of Dr Mandeville, Dr  
Pemberton, Sir Hans Sloane, and other celebra-  
ted authors. He had been only 18 months, how-  
ever, in London, during which time, living very  
temperately, or rather abstemiously, he had begun  
to lay up money, when a proposal was made to  
him by his friend, Mr Denham, of returning to  
Philadelphia. This gentleman had been formerly  
a merchant in Bristol, and, having failed, emigra-  
ted to America, where he made a fortune; then  
returned, invited his creditors to a feast, and paid  
their balances with interest. He engaged Franklin  
as his clerk and book-keeper, and to superintend  
the goods he was carrying back to America. They  
accordingly sailed on the 23d July, 1726, and ar-  
rived at Philadelphia, Oct. 11. but Denham dying  
in Feb. 1727, our author engaged once more as  
a printer with Keimer; whom he also served as a  
letter-founder, ink-maker, engraver, and copper-  
plate printer; as well as constructor of a press for  
that purpose. This press which was the first that  
had been seen in the country, was erected by Mr  
Franklin at Burlington, to print some New Jersey  
money bills; and proved the means of his ac-  
quaintance with Judge Allen, and several other  
members of the assembly, who were afterwards  
of great service to him. After this he com-  
missioned types from London, set up a printing  
office, in company with Hugh Meredith, one of  
Keimer's lads; and, at the same time established  
a weekly club, for mutual improvement, which  
not only proved an excellent school of philosophy  
and politics, but turned out also very beneficial  
to his business. This Society, which was called  
the *Junto*, lasted near 40 years. Mean time he  
astonished the public by his personal industry.  
Early and late at work, he composed and distri-  
buted a sheet per day of a work in folio, on picca-  
ny letter loaded with heavy notes in a smaller type,  
besides doing other occasional jobs as they came  
in. This indefatigable industry soon raised his  
credit, and Keimer, being unable to continue his  
News-paper, sold the copy-right to Franklin for  
a mere trifle; who by his improvements in the  
conduct and execution of it, soon raised it to such  
a degree of celebrity, as to make his fortune by  
it. After this his accurate and elegant manner of  
printing recommended him to the employment of  
the Assembly: And his partner Meredith being  
unable to raise his share of the money to pay for  
the

the printing materials, gave up the printing, turned farmer, and thus left Franklin sole proprietor of the business, in 1729. Whereupon his friends Mess. Coleman and Grace offered him money to carry it on extensively, and he accepted of half the offered sum from each. Soon after a new emission of Paper currency being wished for by the public, but opposed by the opulent part of the Assembly, Franklin published a pamphlet on the subject, which, being unanswerable, occasioned the measure to be carried through, and himself to be rewarded by being employed to print the bills. Public and private employment now flowing upon him more and more, he, in 1736, married a lady, for whom he had entertained an affection before he went to London, and whose attachment was mutual. This lady was not his partner's daughter, as the Editors of both the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and the *English Encyclopædia* affirm; but a young widow, whose maiden name was Read, and who, during his absence had been prevailed on by her mother, to marry one Rogers, a potter, who had used her so ill, that she did not so much as bear his name. (See *Franklin's Life*, written by himself, and published by Dr R. Price.) To our author she proved an excellent wife, and contributed much to the success of his Stationary shop. In 1731, Franklin's love of literature led him to set on foot, first a private, and afterwards a public library, which, in 1742, was incorporated by the name of *The Library Company of Philadelphia*; which now consists of many thousand volumes, besides a philosophical apparatus, &c. In 1732, he began to publish *Poor Richard's Almanack*, a work which he rendered remarkable by its numerous valuable and concise moral maxims, recommending industry and œconomy, and which he at last collected into one humorous address to the reader, entitled *The Way to Wealth*, which has since been translated into various languages. In 1736, he entered on his political career, by being appointed Clerk to the General Assembly of Pennsylvania. In 1737, he was appointed Postmaster. In 1738, he formed the first Company for preventing damages by fires, and soon after got an insurance office erected. In 1744, during the war between France and Britain, the French and Indians having made inroads upon the frontiers of the province, he proposed a voluntary association for its defence; which was approved of, and immediately signed by 1200 citizens, who chose Franklin their colonel. But he was then too deeply engaged in philosophical and political pursuits to accept of that honour. In 1745, he published an account of his new invented fire-place. See FIRE-PLACE, § 2. In 1747, he was elected a member of the General Assembly, where he supported the rights of the citizens in opposition to the proprietaries. In 1749, he completed the plan of the Philadelphia Academy, upon the most liberal principles, which was incorporated in 1753. Franklin had now conducted himself so well in his office of postmaster to the province, that in 1753, he was appointed deputy post-master general for the British Colonies; and in his hands this branch of the revenue soon yielded three as much annually as that of Ireland. Yet none of these public avocations pre-

vented his making important discoveries in sci-  
 The Leyden experiment in ELECTRICITY he rendered that science an object of general curiosity, Mr Franklin applied himself to it, and distinguished himself so eminently in that sci-  
 as to attract the attention and applause of not only the Count de Buffon, and other French philosophers, but even of Lewis XV. himself. He the first who thought of securing buildings from lightning; and he was also the first inventor of the electrical kite; having completed his experiment in June 1752, a full year before M. DuRoi's discovery. His theory of positive and negative electricity has likewise received the sanction of public approbation; though many think not fully capable of supporting itself. See ELECTRICITY, *Index*. His theories were at first opposed by the members of the Royal Society in London; but in 1755, when he returned to his native city, they voted him the gold medal, which is annually given to the author of a memoir of most curious and interesting subject. He likewise admitted a member of the Society, and had the degree of LL. D. conferred upon him by the universities of St Andrews, Edinburgh, and Oxford. When the war broke out between Great Britain and France, he returned to America, to take a share in the public affairs of his native country. About 1753, he set on foot, and prevailed upon the assembly to establish the Pennsylvania hospital. In 1754, the American colonies having suffered severely by the depredations of the Indians on their frontiers, he drew up and presented to the commissioners from several colonies, a plan of union (called the *Albany Plan*, from the place where it was met,) which, though unanimously approved by the commissioners, was at last rejected, by the British assemblies, as giving too much influence to the president, who was to be appointed by the king, and disapproved of by the British ministry, as giving too much power to the representatives of the people. This rejection on both sides affords the strongest proof of the excellency and impartiality of his plan, as suited to the situation of Great Britain and America at that period. It appears to have steered exactly between the opposite interests of both countries. In 1757, he restored tranquility to the province, by an amicable and equitable settlement of the differences that had long subsisted between the proprietaries and the people, touching taxation. In 1766, he travelled into Holland and Germany, and in 1767, he visited France, and was every where received with the great marks of attention by men of science. He was introduced in the latter kingdom to Lewis XV. Returning to England in 1767, he was examined before the house of commons concerning the *Stamp Act*. In 1773, having been appointed agent for Pennsylvania, he again came over to England, while the disputes between Great Britain and America were on the point of coming to extremities; when he attracted the public attention by a letter on the duel betwixt Mr Whatley and Temple, concerning the publication of gov. Hutchinson's letters. On the 28th Jan. 1774, he was examined before the privy council on a petition he had presented long before, as agent for Massachusetts Bay against Mr Hutchinson: but this

being disagreeable to ministry, was precipitately rejected, and Dr Franklin was soon removed from his office of postmaster general, which was now looked upon by government as a jealous eye, that it was proposed to him as a foment of rebellion. The Doctor, however, departed for America in the beginning of 1775 with such privacy, that he had left no trace before it was suspected that he entertained such a design. Being elected a delegate to the Continental Congress, he had a principal share in the proceedings about the revolution, and declaration of independence. In 1776 he was deputed by the British to Canada, to persuade the Canadians to throw off the British yoke; but they had been so disgusted with the hot-headed zeal of the British commanders, who had burnt some of their towns, that they refused to listen to the proposition, though enforced by all the arguments Dr Franklin could urge. On his return to Philadelphia, sensible how much he was esteemed, sent him to finish the negotiations with the French, as Sir Thomas Mifflin was then Secretary of the Navy. This important commission was accepted by the Doctor, though then 71st year of his age. The event is well known; a treaty was signed between France and America; and M. le Roi asserts, that the Doctor had advised M. Maurepas not to lose a single day, if he wished to secure the friendship of America, and to detach it from the mother country. In 1777 he was regularly appointed plenipotentiary from Congress to the French court, and he has seen the full accomplishment of his mission by the conclusion of the peace in 1783, which confirmed the independence of America, and which he is to be recalled, and Mr Jefferson was sent to succeed him. Dr Franklin arrived in Philadelphia in Sept. 1785, and was received with the acclamations of a vast multitude, who conducted him in triumph to his own house. For several days he was visited by the members of the Assembly and the principal inhabitants. He was a second time elected president of the Assembly. In 1787, he was appointed a delegate from Pennsylvania, for revising the articles of confederation; and he signed the new constitution in the name of the United States. He was also chosen president of the Pennsylvania Society for alleviating the miseries of the African race, and of the Pennsylvania Society for promoting the abolition of Slavery. His last public act was a memorial on this subject, 12th Feb. 1789. For the greatest part of his life he had been afflicted with the gout. In 1735, indeed, he was attacked with the stone, which ended in a suppuration of the prostate gland, so that he was almost choked by the quantity of matter thrown up. In 1740, as well as another attack, he recovered completely, that his breathing was not affected. As he advanced in years, however, he was again subject to fits of the gout, to which in 1750 nephritic colic was added. From this time he was subject also to the stone, and during the last year of his life these complaints almost confined him to his bed; notwithstanding which, neither his mental abilities nor his health forsok him. His memory was tenacious to the last; a remarkable instance of which was, that he learned to speak French after he was

70. About 16 days before he died, he was seized with a feverish disorder; which, about the 3d or 4th day, was attended with a pain in the left breast, accompanied with a cough and laborious breathing. Thus he continued for 5 days, when the painful symptoms ceased; but a new imposthume had now taken place in the lungs, which suddenly breaking, he was unable to expectorate the matter fully. Hence the difficulty of respiration increased, and he expired on the 17th April 1790. He left one son, governor William Franklin, a zealous loyalist; and a daughter, married to Mr William Bache merchant in Philadelphia, who waited upon him during his last illness. Dr Franklin was sententious but not fluent in society; more inclined to listen than to talk; and an instructive rather than a pleasing companion. With regard to religion, after renouncing his sceptical principles, as neither true nor beneficial to society, he became a firm believer in the Scriptures; and his sentiments on death may be gathered from a letter written about 35 years ago to Miss Hubbard on the death of her father-in-law and his brother, Mr John Franklin. "We are spirits (says he); That bodies should be lent us while they can afford us pleasure, assist us in acquiring knowledge, or doing good to our fellow creatures, is a kind and benevolent act of God. When they become unfit for these purposes, and afford us pain instead of pleasure; instead of an aid they become an incumbrance, and answer none of the intentions for which they were given: it is then equally kind and benevolent, that a way is provided by which we may get rid of them. Death is that way. Our friend and we are invited abroad, on a party of pleasure, that is to last forever. His carriage was first ready, and he is gone before us; we could not all conveniently start together; and why should you and I be grieved at this, since we are soon to follow, and know where to find him?" The Doctor was author of many tracts on electricity, and other branches of natural philosophy, on politics and miscellaneous subjects. The following epitaph on himself was written by Dr Franklin many years before his death:

The BODY of  
 BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, PRINTER,  
 Like the COVER of an OLD BOOK,  
 Its contents torn out,  
 And stript of its lettering and gilding,  
 Lies here food for worms.  
 Yet the WORK itself shall not be lost;  
 For it will (as he believed) appear once more,  
 In a NEW and MORE BEAUTIFUL EDITION,  
 Corrected and amended  
 BY THE AUTHOR.

(II.) FRANKLIN, Thomas, D. D. chaplain to his majesty, was the son of Richard Franklin, printer of a famous anti-ministerial paper called, *The Craftsman*; in the conducting of which he was greatly assisted by Lord Bolingbroke, Mr Pulteney, and other excellent writers, who opposed Sir Robert Walpole's measure's. By Mr Pulteney's advice, young Franklin was devoted to the church, under a promise of being provided for by the patriot; who, however, forgot it, and neglected him. He was educated at Westminster; whence

whence he went to Cambridge, became fellow of Trinity college, and professor of Greek. In Dec. 1758, he was named vicar of Ware and Tunbridge; afterwards lecturer of St Paul's, and at last rector of Brafted in Kent. He was long a favourite in the literary world. His translations of Phalaris, Sophocles, and Lucian, evince his learning and genius, as they are equally distinguished for fidelity, and congeniality with the spirit of the originals. He suffered a translation from the French of Voltaire's works to be printed in his name; but the Orestes and Electra are supposed to be all that were really by him. His own dramatic compositions, particularly the tragedies of *The Earl of Warwick* and *Matilda*, are deservedly esteemed. He died, March 15, 1784.

(III.) \*FRANKLIN. *n. f.* [from *frank*.] A steward; a bailiff of land. It signifies originally a little gentleman, and is not improperly Englished a gentleman servant. Not in use.—

A spacious court they see,  
Both plain and pleasant to be walked in,  
Where them does meet a *franklin* fair and free.  
*Fairy Queen.*

(IV—XIX.) FRANKLIN, in geography, the name of 6 counties, 8 townships, an island, and a fort, in the United States of America, viz.

1. FRANKLIN, a county of Georgia, in the Upper District, seated on the Tugulo, which separates it from S. Carolina, containing 885 citizens, and 156 slaves, in 1790.

2. FRANKLIN, a populous and well cultivated county of Kentucky, bounded by Scott, Shelby, Fayette, and Woodford counties. Frankfort is the capital.

3. FRANKLIN, a county of N. Carolina, in Halifax district, bounded by the Greenville, Warren, Johnston, Wake, and Orange counties; containing 4842 citizens, and 2717 slaves, in 1790. Lewisburg is the chief town.

4. FRANKLIN, a fertile county of Pennsylvania, seated chiefly between the N. and S. Mountains, comprehending 800 square miles, or 512,000 acres. It is divided into 11 townships, and contained 15,325 citizens, and 330 slaves, in 1790. Iron is found in it. Chambersburg is the capital.

5. FRANKLIN, a county of Vermont, bounded on the N. by Lower Canada, and W. by Lake Champlain; containing 23 townships.

6. FRANKLIN, a county of Virginia, bounded by Bedford, Campbell, Patrick, and Montgomery counties; 40 miles long and 15 broad. It comprehends a part of the Alleghany mountains on the NW. and contained 5769 citizens, and 1073 slaves, in 1790.

7. FRANKLIN, an islet of Maine district, in Lincoln county, in the mouth of St George's river, 12 miles S. of Thomaston.

8. FRANKLIN, a township of Connecticut, in New London county, 6 miles NW. of Norwich, containing above 1000 citizens, in 1790, chiefly farmers.

9. FRANKLIN, a township of Massachusetts, in Norfolk county, bounded on the N. by the Charles, containing 1700 acres, and above 1100 citizens, 30 miles S. of Boston.

20—13. FRANKLIN, four townships of Pennsyl-

vania, in Fayette, Washington, W. and York counties.

14, 15. FRANKLIN, two townships of in Delaware and Dutchess counties.

16. FRANKLIN, FORT, a fort of P in Alleghany county, near Venango, bank of the Alleghany, 63 miles N. (Lon. 79. 41. W. Lat. 41. 1. N.

FRANKLINIAN DOCTRINE, or electricity. See ELECTRICITY, *Inde.*

FRANKLINVILLE, a town of K miles ESE. of Frankfort.

\* FRANKLY. *adv.* [from *frank*.] ly; freely; kindly; readily.—

Oh, were it but my life,  
I'd throw it down for your deliver  
As *frankly* as a pin. *Sbak. Me.*

If ever any malice in your h  
Were hid against me, now forgive  
*Sbak.*

—When they had nothing to pay, he gave them both. *Luke*, vii. 42.—By th of the earth the sap cannot get up to spr ly as it should do. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*— garden more for being full of blackbirds ries, and very *frankly* gave them fruit to *Speet.* 2. Without constraint.—The ted their servants upon their own horit with the volunteers, who *frankly* listec amounted to a body of two hundre horse. *Clarendon.* 3. Without refer ted very *frankly* into those new del were contrived at court. *Clarendon.*

\* FRANKNESS. *n. f.* [from *frank* nels of speech; openness; ingenuou the Conde duke had some eclairecism duke, in which he made all the protest sincere affection, the other received his; with all contempt; and declared; with cessary *frankness*, that he would have with him. *Clarendon.*—Tom made h man of sense, and always treated h ring the whole time of courtship: his per and good breeding hindered him any thing disagreeable, as his sinceri nels of behaviour made him convert fore marriage in the same manner he do afterwards. *Addis. Guardian.* 2. bounteousness. 3. Freedom from delivered with the *frankness* of a frie word by word, what Kalandier ha touching the strange story. *Sidney.* men that ever were, have had all an c *frankness* of dealing, and a name of c veracity. *Bacon.*

FRANKLEDGE. See FRANK,

(1.) FRANKS, FRANCES, FRANKIQUIS, a name which the Turks, Ar &c. give to all the people of the west Europe. The appellation is commo to have had its rise in Ana, at the crusades; when the French made it sible figure among the crocettes: time the Turks, Saracens, Greeks, &c. used it as a common term for a tians of Europe, and called Europe KISTAN. The Arabs and Malabar:

The term *Franks* not only to the name originally belonging to the Latins and Europeans in his notes on Condinus, cap. 5. origin of the appellation *Franks*, by. The Greeks, he says, at name to the *Franci*, or German settled in Gaul; (see *FRANCE*, ards they gave to the Apulians after they had been conquered by and at length they extended it to all its sense is the name used by several as Comnenus, &c. who to distinguish, called them the *western Franks*. is, that about the time of Charle-distinguished eastern France, west-Latin or Roman France, and Ger-which was the ancient France after-FRANCONIA.

15. See *FRANKSTOWN*.

*FRANKSTADT*, a town of Moravia, in Prerau, 4 miles S. of Freyberg.

*FRANKSTADT*. See *FRAUSTADT*.

*FRANKSTOWN*, or *FRANKS*, a town and Pennsylvania, in Huntingdon county, branch of the Juniata, 20 miles W. lon.

*FRANKFELD*, or *PUSKOWITZ*, a town of les NW. of Fekenberg.

*FRANKFURT*, a town of France, in the dept. 1½ miles W. of Abbeville.

*FRANKMONT*, a town of the Helvetic Baile, on the Doubs, 16 miles N. of and 23 W. of Soleure.

*FRANKVILLE*, a town of France, in the ver Seine, 6 miles SE. of Rouen.

*FRANK*. See *FRANKS*, N° 1.

*FRANTICK*. *adj.* [corrupted from *phrenetick*, Lat. *phreneticus*.] 1. Mad; deprived of 1g by violent madness; outrageously itly mad.—

he wonders what makes him so glad, as' merry fruit they did invent, s *frantick* rites have made them mad.

*Fairy Queen*.

ted by violence of passion; outrage-ent.—Esteeming, in the *frantick* error ds, the greatest madness in the world n, and the highest wisdom foolishness.

h a height their *frantick* passion grows, t both love, both hazard to destroy.

*Dryden*.

rs her hair, and, *frantick* in her griefs, Lucia.

*Addison's Cato*.

*ad.*—

The lover, *frantick*, i's beauty in a brow of Egypt. *Shak*.

*TICKLY*. *adv.* [from *frantick*.] Mad- dly; outrageously.—

; how *frantickly* I square my talk.

*Shak*.

*TICKNESS*. *n. f.* [from *frantick*.] Mad- of passion; distraction.

*ZDORF*, a town of Silesia, in the prin- Neisse, 4 miles N. of Neisse.

*ZIUS*, Wolfgang, professor of divi- temberg, was born in 1564. He wrote,

**PART I.**

1. *Animalium Historia Sacra*: 2. *De Interpretatione Sacrarum Scripturarum*. He died in 1620.

*FRANZBURG*, a town of Up. Saxony, in Swedish Pomerania, founded in 1587, 14 miles S. of Stralsund. Lon. 30. 36. E. of Ferro. Lat. 54. 9. N.

*FRASCATI*, or *FRESCATI*. See *FRESCATI*.

(1.) *FRASERBURGH*, or *FRASERSBURGH*, a small sea-port town in Aberdeenshire, seated on the S. extremity of the Murray Frith, called Kinnaird's Head. It was erected in the 16th century, on Sir *Alex. Fraser's* estate, whence the name. It has a good harbour, made and kept up at a considerable expence by the proprietor and the town, and well adapted for building small vessels. There are from 12 to 15 feet water within the harbour, and 20 feet immediately without at spring tides; without is a tolerable road for shipping, in a bay nearly a league in length and half a league in depth, with good anchorage in a sandy bottom. Vessels of about 200 tons burden enter the harbour. *Fraserburgh* contains about 1600 inhabitants, and is well situated for trade with the east coast of Europe. The town has lately advanced considerably, and requires only encouragement to render it a port of importance. At present it carries on a small trade to the east sea; several manufactories are forming in its neighbourhood. It is 16 miles E. of Banff, and 40 N. of Aberdeen. Lon. 1. 16. E. of Edinburgh. Lat 57. 37. N.

(2.) *FRASERBURGH*, a parish of Scotland, on the coast of Aberdeenshire, so named from the above town, (N° 1.) but anciently called *PHILORTH*. It is 6 miles long from N. to S. 3½ broad, and 4 along the coast; comprehending above 10,000 acres, intersected by the parish of Rathven. The soil is various but mostly fertile, though intermixed with mosses and moors. The climate is dry and healthy, and many of the natives long-lived. Husbandry is much improved, and inclosures are general. Barley, oats, pease, and beans, are the most general produce; potatoes, turnips, cabbages, and clover, are also cultivated, with some wheat and flax. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. Alexander Simpson, in his report to Sir John Sinclair, was 2200, and had increased 518 since 1755. Linen yarn is the chief manufecture. Kelp is also made on the coast. Cod, ling, turbot, haddocks, lobsters, &c. are taken in great quantities. Fish and grain are exported.

*FRASLA*, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria, 10 miles W. of Cilly.

*FRASSINETO*, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Bari, 9 miles SSW. of Conversano.

*FRASTENTZ*, a town of Germany, in the county of Feldkirk, 2 miles E. of Feldkirk.

*FRAT*, the name given by the Asiatics to the *EUPHRATES*.

(1.) *FRATELLI*, two small islands in the Mediterranean, 25 miles W. of Scarpanto.

(2.) *FRATELLI*. See *FRATRICELLI*.

(1.) *FRATELLINI*, Joanna, a celebrated Italian paintress, born at Florence, in 1666. She acquired an excellent stile in painting historical subjects and miniatures, and was patronized by the archduchess Victoria. She died in 1731.

**K**

(2.) *FRAT*

(2.) **FRATELLINI**, Laurence Maria, the son of Joanna, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) was born in 1690, and studied under Galvani. He painted portraits, animals, landscapes, and historical subjects, admirably. He died in 1729.

(1) \* **FRATERNAL**, *adj.* [*fraternel*, French; *fraternus*, Lat.] Brotherly; pertaining to brothers; becoming brothers.—

One shall rise

Of proud ambitious heart; who, not content

With fair equality, *fraternal* state,

Will arrogate dominion undeserv'd,

Over his brethren. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

—The admonitions, *fraternal* or paternal, of his fellow Christians, or of the governors of the church; then more public reprobations; and upon their unsuccessfulness, the censures of the church, until he reform and return. *Hammond.*—

Plead it to her,

With all the strength and heats of eloquence,  
*Fraternal* love and friendship can inspire.

*Adif. Cats.*

(2.) **FRATERNAL AFFECTION** is the love and attachment subsisting among, or due to one another by, children of the same family. An hearty benevolence, an ardent concern for each other's welfare, and a readiness to serve and promote it, are the peculiar offices of this relation. See *Cicero, De Officiis.*

\* **FRATERNALLY**, *adv.* [from *fraternal*.] In a brotherly manner.

**FRATERNISATION**, *n. f.* [from *fraterniser*, Fr. to fraternise,] one of the many new words to which the French revolution has given birth, literally signifies the act of living together as brethren; but in an enlarged sense, it is used for the act of one nation voluntarily agreeing with another, to be governed by the same laws, or to live in strict alliance, and under the same democratical form of government, with another.

To **FRATERNISE**, *v. n.* [*fraterniser*, Fr.] To live together like brothers. *Bailey.* This verb is also now used in the same enlarged political sense with the noun. See last article.

(1) \* **FRATERNITY**, *n. f.* [*fraternité*, Fr. *fraternitas*, Lat.] 1. The state or quality of a brother. 2. Body of men united; corporation; society; association; brotherhood.—'Tis a necessary rule in alliances, societies, and *fraternities*, and all manner of civil contracts, to have a strict regard to the humour of those we have to do withal. *L'Esperance.* 3. Men of the same class or character.—With what terms of respect knaves and fops will speak of their own *fraternity*. *South.*

(2.) **FRATERNITY**. See **COMPANY** and **GUILD**.

(3.) **FRATERNITY**, in the Roman Catholic system, signifies a society for the improvement of devotion. Of these there are several sorts; as, 1. The fraternity of the rosary, founded by St Dominic. It is divided into two branches, called the *common rosary* and the *perpetual rosary*; the former of whom are obliged to confess and communicate every next Sunday in the month, and the latter to repeat the rosary continually. 2. The fraternity of the Immaculate, whom the blessed Virgin, according to the sabbatine bull of pope John XXII. has promised to deliver out of hell the first Sunday after their death. 3. The fraternity of St

Francis's girdle are clothed with a sack of colour, which they tie with a cord; an cessions walk bare-footed, carrying in th a wooden cross. 4. That of St Austin's girdle comprehends many devotees. Ital and Portugal are the countries where the number of these fraternities, some of whic the name of *arch-fraternities*, are to b Pope Clement VII. instituted the arch of charity, which distributes bread every among the poor, and gives portions to girls on the feast of St Jerome their pa The fraternity of death buries such dead abandoned by their relations, and causes be celebrated for them.

**FRATHORP**, a town S. of Butlington

**FRATINO**, a town of Maritime A the prov. of Triuli, 9 miles W. of Conco

**FRATRES ARVALES**. See **ARVALES**

**FRATRIAGE**, *n. f.* the partition an thers, or coheirs, coming to the same int

**FRATRICELLI**, or **FRATELLI**, [Ital. *terculi*, little Brothers,] in ecclesiastical hi enthusiastic sect of Franciscans, which ro ly, particularly in Ancona, about A. J The word was used as a term of derision were most of them apostate monks.

reason the term, as a nick-name, was many other sects, as the Catharists, W &c. however different in their opinion their conduct. But this denomination, a the austere part of the Franciscans, was ed as honourable. See **FRANCISCANS**. T ders were P. Maurato, and P. de Foss who having obtained of pope Celestin mission to live in solitude, after the name mits, and to observe the rule of St Fra its rigour, several idle vagabond monk them, who, living after their own fan making all perfection to consist in pover soon condemned by pope Boniface VIII successor, and the inquisitors ordered to agant them as heretics; which commi executed with their usual barbarity. U retiring into Sicily, Peter John Oliva de had no sooner published his Comment c people, than they adopted his opinion held the Romish church to be Babylon, posed to establish another far more pur They maintained, that the rule of St Fr the evangelical rule observed by Jesus C his apostles. They foretold the reformati church, and the restoration of the true Christ, by the genuine followers of St and declared their assent to almost all the which were published under the name o bet Joachim, in the "Introduction to the ing Gospel," a book published in 1252, phined by one of the spiritual fathers, wh was Gerhard. Among other enormi cated in this book, it is pretended that was the angel mentioned in Rev. xiv. 6. promulgated to the world the true and e gospel of God; that the gospel of Chri be abrogated in 1262, and to give place to gospel; and that the ministers of this g mation were to be bumble and bare-foot destitute of all worldly employments. 2



elect a pope of their church; at least elected in general, with superiors, and built ries, &c. Besides the opinions of Oliva, d, that the sacraments of the church were because those who administered them, were not power or jurisdiction. They admitted archb. by pope John XXII. in case of whose cruelty they regarded him as antichrist; but several of them returned to Germany were sheltered by Lewis, duke of the emperor. There are authentic reasons which it appears that no less than 2000 were burnt by the inquisition, from 1318 to the poverty of St Francis. The persecutions were again revived towards the end of the 15th century, by pope Nicolas V. and his successors. However, all the persecutions, his sect endured, were not sufficient to destroy it; for it subsisted till the time of the reformation in Germany, when its remaining doctrines the doctrine and discipline of Luther. This has led Popish writers to charge it with many enormities, some of which are cited by Bayle, under the article, FRAUD. They had several other denominations were called *Dulcini*, from one of their; *Baschi*, *Requins*, and *Begharai*.  
**FRATRICIDE**. *n. s.* [*fratricida*, French; *frater*, Lat.] The murder of a brother.  
**FRATA**, a market town of Maritime Austria, w. of Rovigo, on the Soortico, containing many palaces.  
**FRUNNEN**, a town of the Helvetic republic; miles N. of Bern, near which a battle was fought by the Bernese over an army of English and Normans, under S. de Courcy.  
**FRAUD**. *n. s.* [*fraus*, Lat. *fraude*, Fr.] Deceit; trick; artifice; subtilty; intrate-

deceitfully; artfully; subtilly; treacherously; by stratagem.  
 \* **FRAUDULENCE**. } *n. s.* [*fraudulentia*, Lat.]  
 \* **FRAUDULENCEY**. } Deceitfulness; trickiness; proneness to artifice — We admire the Providence of God, in the continuance of the Scripture, notwithstanding the endeavours of infidels to abolish, and the *fraudulence* of hereticks always to deprave the same. *Hooker*.  
 \* **FRAUDULENT**. *adj.* [*fraudulens*, Fr. *fraudulentus*, Lat.] 1. Full of artifice; tricky; subtle; deceitful.—

He with serpent tongue  
 His *fraudulent* temptation thus began. *Milton*.  
 She mix'd the potion, *fraudulent* of soul;  
 The potion mantled in the golden bowl. *Odyf*.  
 2. Performed by artifice; deceitful; treacherous.—  
 Now thou hast wrong'd  
 Supplanted Adam,  
 And frustrated the conquest *fraudulent*. *Milton*.

\* **FRAUDULENTLY**. *adv.* [from *fraudulent*.]  
 By fraud; by deceit; by artifice; deceitfully.—  
 He that by fact, word, or sign, either *fraudulently* or violently, does hurt to his neighbour, is bound to make restitution. *Taylor*.

**FRAUENBACH**, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Elbe, 2 miles SW. of Colleda, in Thuringia.

(1.) **FRAUENBERG**, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Pilsen, 3 miles SW. of Hayd.

(2.) **FRAUENBERG**, a town of Bavaria, in the palatinate of Neuburg, 9 miles NW. of Ratibon.

**FRAUENBOURG**, a town of Prussia Royal, in Poland, on the river Frisch haff, 6 or 7 leagues from Elbing, to the NE. In the cathedral of Frauenbourg is the tomb of the great COPERNICUS, on the subject of which the eminent John BERNOULLI of Berlin wrote to D. S. Earl of Buchan a letter, dated the 22d of Feb. 1704, of which his lordship has favoured us with the following translation:—"In the year 1777, the bishop of Warmia, whom I met in the abbey of Oliva, near Dantzic, told me that he had the pleasure to discover, in his cathedral of Frauenbourg, the long neglected tomb of Copernicus. In the year 1778, on my journey to Russia, passing through that town, and having nothing to do during my short stay there, that could interest me more, I went to the cathedral in search of this precious monument. I knew nobody in Frauenbourg, but on the street I accosted a canon, whose countenance and manner encouraged my address, and I was not disappointed. He told me, that as for the spot where lay interred the ashes of Copernicus, there was no certainty, because it was usual to place the coffins of the deceased canons in a vault, where, in the course of time, from their number, it was impossible to distinguish them from each other; but that with respect to the sepulchral stone, it was a slab of marble, such as was usual for others of the same station, with the short inscription, NIC. COPERNICUS, THOR. That this stone had been hidden, from neglect, many years, and afterwards accidentally observed and placed in the chapter-house of the cathedral, with a view to consider maturely of a proper place for its erection. I regret, however, very much, that I did not make a point with my guide to shew me this stone, as, if

Our better part remains  
 ork in close design, by *fraud* or guile,  
 force effected not. *Milton*.  
 we need the *frauds* of sly Ulysses fear.  
*Dryden's Æn.*

If success a lover's toil attends,  
 asks if force or *fraud* obtains his ends.  
*Pope*.

**FRAUD**, in law, signifies deceit in grants, conveyances of lands, &c. or in bargains and goods, &c. to the damage of another person. Fraudulent conveyance of lands or goods, to creditors, as to creditors is void in law. Fraudulent conveyance, to defraud purchasers, such purchasers void; and the persons giving or putting off such grants as good, shall pay the year's value of the lands, and the full value of the goods and chattels, and likewise shall be fined. See CHEAT, § 3.

**FRAUDFUL**. *adj.* [*fraud* and *ful*.] Treacherous; artful; tricky; deceitful; subtle.—

The welfare of us all  
 is on the cutting short that *fraudful* man.  
*Shak. Hen. VI.*

He, full of *fraudful* arts,  
 well-invented tale for truth imparts.

**FRAUDFULLY**. *adv.* [from *fraudful*.] De-

A part of the inscription be not effaced, it does not tally with that recorded by Gassendi, who says, p. 325, in his life of Copernicus, that bishop *Martin Cromer*, a celebrated Polish historian, caused to be erected to the memory of that great astronomer *unam tabulam marmoream*, with this inscription;

D. O. M.  
 N. D. NICOLAO COPERNICO  
 TORUNENSI. ARTIUM ET  
 MEDICINÆ DOCTORI.  
 CANONICO VARMIIENSI.  
 PRÆSTANTI ASTRÓLOGO ET  
 EJUS DISCIPLINÆ INSTAURATORI.  
 MARTINUS CROMERUS  
 EPISCOPUS VARMIIENSIS  
 HONORIS ET AD POSTERITATEM  
 MEMORIÆ CAUSA POSUIT.  
 M, D, LXXXI.

Gassendi adds, that it was 36 years after the death of Copernicus; but this does not agree with the date of our stone. My Canon had for his apartment the Dormitory of Copernicus, and he kindly asked me to pay it a sentimental visit, an invitation you may believe I accepted with emotion, and enjoyed with pleasure. Above the range of the Dormitories there is another little apartment, which my guide allotted to the memory of his great predecessor, and which he has decorated with his portrait in oil colours, well preserved, and perhaps only a copy from some original painting. It was from this place that Copernicus enjoyed a fine scope of the heavens and a large horizon; here that he made the heavens his study, and rendered himself a luminary of the first magnitude, in the constellation of modern astronomers; and when he found it necessary to make his observations in the open air, there is a little gallery or terrace, that communicates with this apartment, and the adjoining steeple, or belfry, which served to accommodate the great Copernicus in his researches. You, my Lord, are able to conceive the divine satisfaction I enjoyed in this place!—classic and sacred!—where I inhaled as it were the spirit of departed greatness! and it was the shock of these transcendent emotions, that made me to forget the stone I have described in the former part of my letter, my time being elapsed and my carriage ready to depart. Near the cathedral my Canon showed me a large reservoir of water, with a high tower which contains the remains of a hydraulic machine, said to have been invented by Copernicus, for carrying and distributing the water by pipes to the different apartments of the canons, his brethren: a convenience now lost, and which, from the ruin of the machine, they are obliged to fetch from a fountain in the lower part of Frauenbourg. I have read in an old German Journal, that in the ancient town of KÖNIGSBERG there are or were preserved many of the books belonging to Copernicus at the time of his death, with his portrait *fraught* in oil colours, which were purchased at Thorn, probably in his house in that town, possessed by the family so late as the year 1720; and in this house Copernicus was born.—Frauenbourg was built in 1277, and lies 38 miles SW. of Königsberg.

FRAUENBREITUNGEN, a town of Prussia, in the county of Henneberg, on the 4 miles W. of Schmalkalden.

FRAUENBURG, a town in the duchy of Saxe, 20 miles SSE. of Goldingen.

FRAUENFELD, a town of the Helvetic, the capital of the late bailiwick of 7 It was taken from the Austrians by the 1460. Great part of it was burnt in 1771 20 miles NE. of Zurich. Lon. 9. 56. E. 35. N.

FRAUENMARCK, a town of Hungary NE. of Levens.

(1.) FRAUENSTEIN, a castle of German Carniola, 5 miles N. of Crainberg.

(2.) FRAUENSTEIN, a town of Upper Saxe the Mulda, in Erzgebirg, 11 m. SSE. of F

FRAUENTHAL, a town of German duchy of Stiria, 10 miles S. of Voitsburg

(1.) FRAUGHT. *n. s.* [from the pa A freight; a cargo.—

Yield up, oh love, thy crown and throne

To tyrannous hate! swell, bosom, *fraught*;

For 'tis of aspicks tongues. *Shak*  
 The bark that all our blessings bore

Charg'd with thyself and James, a doul *fraught*.

(2.) FRAUGHT. *particip. pass.* [from now written *freight*.] 1. Laden; charge

In the narrow seas that part  
 The French and English, there miscan

A vessel of our country, richly *fraught*  
 With joy

And tidings *fraught*, to hell he now re *Milton's P*

And now approach'd their fleet fro *fraught*

With all the riches of the rising sun,  
 And precious sand from southern brought.

2. Filled; stored; thronged.—The Scit *fraught* even with the laws of nature. *H*

By this sad Una, *fraught* with angui  
 Arriv'd; where they on earth their bl

spilt.

—I am so *fraught* with curious business  
 leave out ceremony. *Shak.*—Whosoever

mind *fraught* with many thoughts, his  
 understanding do clarify and break up in

municating and discoursing with another  
 Hell, their fit habitation, *fraught* w

Unquenchable, the house of woe and *Milton's P*

—Abdallah and Belfora were so *fraught*  
 kinds of knowledge, and possessed with

stant a passion for each other, that their  
 never lay heavy on them. *Addison.*

\* To FRAUGHT. *v. a.* [for *freight*, by  
 tion.] To load; to crowd.—

Hence from my sight:  
 If after this command thou *fraught* the

With thy unworthiness, thou dy'dst. *Shak*

\* FRAUGHTAGE. *n. s.* [from *fraught*  
 ing; cargo. A bad word.—

Our *fraughtage*, sir,  
 I have convey'd aboard. *Shak. Comed*  
 FRA

HEIM, a town of Germany, in Stiria.

HOFEN, a town of Germany, in Lower Silesia, 3 miles S. of Landshut.

NEBERG, a town of Germany, in Stiria, SE. of Oberwoltz.

REUTH, a town of Upper Saxony, in Silesia, 6 miles NE. of Greitz.

LAUSTADT, a town of Silesia, on the frontiers of Poland, 70 miles NW. of Breslau, where a battle gained by the Swedes over the Poles in 1706. Lon. 15. 50. E. Lat. 51. 45. N.

AUSTADT, or WACHOWA, a town of Posen, on the frontiers of Silesia, and in the palatinate of Posen; 48 miles W. of Posen.

WENLOB, Henry, a German author, wrote some books in favour of the fair sex. In 1717, his funeral was attended by a great number of students, who poured so large a quantity of water over his grave as to overflow the church, and run into the Anglesa.

INELLA, in botany. See *DICTAMNUS*. A remarkable of this odorous plant, that, when in blossom, the air which surrounds it is so much inflamed by the approach of a candle. Dr Watson doubts whether inflammability proceeds from an inflammable substance by the plant, or from some of the finer essential oils of the plant being dissolved in the common atmospherical air. The latter, he thinks, is most probable, for were it inflammable air, it would, on account of its specific gravity, leave the plant as soon as it was produced. Common air acquires the property of becoming inflammable, by being transfused with several essential oils.

FRAXINUS, the ASH: A genus of the diœcia belonging to the polygamia class of plants; natural method ranking under the 44th order. There is no hermaphrodite calyx, tripartite; and there is either no corolla, papilionaceous: there are two stamina; one uniloculated seed; and the pistil of the same loculation. There are 6 species; of which the most useful is the common ash. See 1. If a wood of these trees is rightly managed, it will turn out greatly to the advantage of the owner: for, by the underwood, which will cut every 8 or 10 years, there will be a considerable income, more than sufficient to pay the ground and all other charges; and still to leave a stock preserved for timber, which in 20 years will be worth 40s. or 50s. per tree. The ash flourishes best in groves, but grows very rich soil in open fields. It bears transplanting and lopping. In Lancashire they lop the best trees to feed the cattle in autumn; and as the grass is on the decline; the cattle peel the bark as food. The wood has the singularity of being nearly as good when it is very old. It is hard and tough, and is used to make the tools employed in husbandry.

The ashes of the wood afford very good manure. The bark is used in tanning calf skin. When infused in water, it appears of a pale yellowish green when viewed between the eye and the light; but when looked down upon, or placed betwixt the eye and an opaque object, it appears blue. This is destroyed by the addition of an acid,

but recovered by alkalis. The seeds are acrid and bitter. In the church-yard of Lochaber, Dr Walker measured the trunk of a dead ash tree, which, at 5 feet from the surface of the ground, was 58 feet in circumference.—Horses, cows, sheep, and goats eat it: but it spoils the milk of cows.

\* FRAY. *n. f.* [*effrayer*, to fright, Fr.] 1. A battle; a fight.—

Time tells, that on that ever blessed day,  
When Christian swords with Persian blood were dy'd,

The furious prince Tancredi from that *fray*  
His coward foes chased through forests wide.

*Fairfax.*

After the bloody *fray* at Wakefield fought.

*Shak. Henry VI.*

He left them to the fates in bloody *fray*,  
To toil and struggle through the well-fought day.

*Pope.*

2. A duel; a combat.—

Since, if we fall before th' appointed day,  
Nature and death continue long their *fray*.

*Denham.*

The boaster Paris oft desir'd the day  
With Sparta's king to meet in single *fray*.

*Pope.*

3. A broil; a quarrel; a riot of violence.—

I'll speak between the change of man and boy  
With a reed voice, and turn two mincing steps  
Into a manly stride; and speak of *frays*,

*Shak.*

Like a fine bragging youth.  
\* To FRAY. *v. a.* [*effrayer*, Fr.] 1. To fright; to terrify.—

The panther, knowing that his spotted hide  
Doth please all beasts, but that his looks them  
fright,

Within a bush his dreadful head doth hide,  
To let them gaze, whilst he on them may prey.

*Spenser.*

So diversly themselves in vain they *fray*,  
Whilst some more bold to measure him stand  
nigh.

*Spenser.*

—Fishes are thought to be *frayed* with the motion caused by noise upon the water. *Baron's Nat. Hist.*

—These vultures prey only on carcasses, on such stupid minds as have not life and vigour to *fray* them away. *Gov. of the Tongue.* 2. [*frayer*, Fr.] To rub.

FRAYLES, a cluster of islands in the W. Indies, 6 miles NE. of Margarita.

FRAYPONT, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Ourte, and ci-devant bishopric of Liege; seated on the Weze; 8 miles SE. of Liege.

FRAZE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire; 12 miles E. of Nogent le Rotrou.

FRAZERSBURG. See FRASERBURGH.

FREA, or FRIGGA, the wife of Odin, or Woden, was, next to him, the most revered divinity among the Heathen Saxons, Danes, and other northern nations. As Odin was believed to be father, Frea was esteemed the mother of all the other gods. In the earliest times, Frea was the same with the goddess HERTHUS, or EARTH, who was so devoutly worshipped by the Angli and other German nations. But when Odin, the conqueror of the north, usurped the honours due only to the true Odin, his wife Frea usurped those which had been formerly paid to mother Earth. She was worshipped as the goddess of love and pleasure,

pleasure, who bestowed on her votaries a variety of delights, particularly happy marriages and easy births. To Frea the sixth day of the week was consecrated, which still bears her name, *Friday*, or *Frea's day*.

\* **FREAK**. *n. s.* [*frecb*, Germ. fancy, petulant; *fræc*, Sax. fugitive.] 1. A sudden and causeless change of place. 2. A sudden fancy; a humour; a whim; a capricious prank.—

O! but I fear the tickle *freaks*, quoth she,

Of fortune, and the odds of arms in field. *P. Q.*  
—When that *freak* has taken possession of a fantastical head, the distemper is incurable. *L'Espr.*  
—She is restless and peevish, and sometimes in a *freak* will instantly change her habitation. *Spett.*

To vex me more, he took a *freak*

To slit my tongue, and make me speak. *Swift.*

\* To **FREAK**. *v. a.* [A word, I suppose, Scotch, brought into England by *Tbomson*.] To variegate; to chequer.—

There furry nations harbour:

Sables of glossy black, and dark embrown'd,

Or beauteous, *freak'd* with many a mingled hue.

*Tbomson.*

\* **FREAKISH**. *adj.* [from *freak*.] Capricious; humourish.—It may be a question, whether the wife or the woman was the more *freakish* of the two; for she was still the same uneasy top. *L'Espr.*

\* **FREAKISHLY**. *adv.* [from *freakish*.] Capriciously; humourishly.

\* **FREAKISHNESS**. *n. s.* [from *freakish*.] Capriciousness; humourishness; whimsicalness.

**FREAM**, *n. s.* in husbandry, ploughed land worn out of heart, and laid fallow till it recover.

\* To **FREAM**. *v. n.* [*fremer*, Lat. *fremir*, Fr.] To growl or grunt as a boar. *Bailey.*

**FREATS**, or **FREITS**, *n. s. obs.* a term still used in Scotland for *ill omens*, and sometimes denoting accidents supernaturally unlucky. K. James VI. in his *Demonologie*, MS. pen. Edit. B. I. ch. IV. p. 13.

“But I pray you forget not lykeways to tell what are the Devill's rudimentis? E. His rudimentis I call first in general all that quihilk is called vulgairelie the vertu of woode, herbe, and staine; quihilk is used by unlawfull charmis without natural causis. As lykeways all kynd of prattiques, *freitis*, or *utber lyk extraordinair actions, quihilk cannot abyde the tress tawiche of natural raison.*” It occurs again in the same sense in p. 14, *margin. note*; and in p. 41, speaking of *Sorcerers*; “And in generall that naime was gevin thaim for using of sic charmis and *freitis*, as that craft teachis thaim.”

**FRECHILLA**, a town of Spain in the province of Leon; 17 miles NW. of Valencia.

**FRECKELBEN**, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt-Deffau; 30 miles WSW. of Deffau.

**FRECKENHORST**, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Munster, 1m. SW. of Wardendorf.

(1.) \* **FRECKLE**. *n. s.* [*flec*, a spot, German; whence *stecle*, *freckle*.] 1. A spot raised in the skin by the sun.—

Ruddy his lips, and fresh and fair his hue;

Some sprinkled *freckles* on his face were seen,

Whose dusk set off the whiteness of the skin.

*Dryden.*

2. Any small spot or discoloration.—

The cow-slip tall her pensioners be;

In their gold coats spots you see:

Those he rubies fairy favours;

In those *freckles* live their favours. *S.*

—The farewell frosts and easterly wind  
your tulips; therefore cover such with  
prevent *freckles*. *Evelyn.*

(2.) **FRECKLES** (**LENTIGINES**) are 1 yellowish colour, of the bigness of a le scattered over the face, neck, and hands. are either natural, or proceed from the or the action of the sun upon the part. a sudden change of weather will often skin appear of a darker colour than is na thereby produce what is called *tan*, *sun morpheus*; which seem to differ only and usually disappear in winter. Perfor complexion, and those whose hair is red subject to freckles, especially in parts e the sun and air. To remove freckles, p lemons in a glass vial, and, mixing it v and borax finely powdered, let it dige and then use it. Homberg proposes gall mixed with alum, and, after the precipitated, exposed 3 or 4 months to a close vial, as one of the best menstria viag freckles.

\* **FRECKLED**. *adj.* [from *freckle*.] maculated; discoloured with small spot Sometimes we'll angle at the brook

The *freckled* trout to take

With silken worms.

*Drayton*

The even mead that erst brought sw

The *freckled* cowslip,

Wanting the icythe, all uncorrected,

Conceives by idleness. *Shak*

Now thy face charms ev'ry shep

Spotted over like a leopard;

And, thy *freckled* neck display'd,

Envy breeds in ev'ry maid.

\* **FRECKLY**. *adj.* [from *freckle*.] Full e

\* **FRED**. The same with *peace*; of our forefathers called their sanctuarie: i. e. the seats of peace. So *Frederick* is or wealthy in peace; *Winifred*, victorio *Reinfred*, sincere peace. *Gibson's Canoe*

**FREDBERG**, or **FREDEBERG**, a rich town of Germany, in Misnia, remarkable mines, and for being the burying place of princes and of the house of Saxony. lightful place, seated on the river Multa 40. E. Lat. 51. 2. N.

**FREDDO**, a river of Sicily, in the val mona, which runs into the Mediterranean **FREDEBURG**, or **FREDENBURG**; Germany, in Westphalia, 52 miles E. e and 50 W. of Cassel. Lon. 8. 16. E. Lat.

**FREDEGARIUS**, an ancient French who wrote a *Chronicle*, which extends t 641; preserved in Duchesne's collection

**FREDELAND**, a town of Prussia, in nia, 60 miles SSW. of Dantzick.

**FREDENBURG**. See **FREDEBURG** **FREDENWALDE**, a town of Gei Brandenburg, 11 miles S. of Prenzlow

(1.) **FREDEKICA**, a town of Delawa county, 7 miles N. of Milford, and 88 ladelphia.

(2.) **FREDERICA**, a town of Georgi island of St Simons, at the mouth of

and fortified by General Oglethorpe.  
W. Lat. 31. 0. N.

ICHRODE, a town of Germany, in  
ly, 6 miles S. of Gotha.

ICHSHULE, a town of Upper Sax-  
duchy of Croßen, 5 miles SE. of Zu-

ICHTHAL, a town of Upper Sax-  
ony, 6 miles W. of Senftenberg.

ICHSWALDE, a town of Upper  
Saxony, on the Ilna, 3 miles NW.

ICIA, a strong sea port town of Den-  
mark, seated on the Little Belt.  
It has a Synagogue, 1 Calvinist, 1 Popish,  
and 2 Greek churches; a custom house,  
a dock, and a good arsenal. Lon. 7. 4.  
57. N.

FREDERICK, the name of 11 Euro-  
pean emperors of Germany, 5  
kings of Denmark, and 2 kings of Prussia; and  
names of other 2 kings of Prussia, and  
1 king of Denmark. See DENMARK, § 6-8; GERMANY,  
and PRUSSIA. Amongst these we shall  
first take notice of the 3 following:

FREDERICK I, King of Prussia, the son of  
William, the Great, elector of Bran-  
denburg, born in 1657; and succeeded his  
father, A. D. 1688. In 1700, he  
made an association with the emperor, Geo-  
rge I, Prussia erected into a kingdom;  
but obtained by a singular accident.  
His advances were rather unpromising, he  
learned from his minister written in  
French, obliging him to use the interest of a cer-  
tain prince, he mistaking the ciphers, ap-  
peared as the emperor's confessor; who, being a  
Protestant deceiver, that he exerted his  
power and that of his order, to procure  
his object. Frederick was according-

ly King of Prussia, Jan. 18, 1701. He  
was distinguished with many virtues. He was magni-  
ficient, constant to his marriage vows,  
and attentive to the true interest of his subjects,  
by his dominions in peace. He was three  
times married; his 2d queen was sister to king

George I. He founded the university of Halle,  
and an academy at Berlin. He died in 1713.

FREDERICK II. surnamed the GREAT, K. of  
Prussia, one of the greatest warriors the present  
age has produced, was the son of Frederick-Wil-

helm, hereditary prince of Brandenburg, and  
Sophia Dorothea, daughter of king George I.

He was born in 1712, the year before his  
father ascended the throne, who was so far from

regarding literature, that he regarded  
it what related to the military art; and  
his generals scarce knew how to sign their

orders, his son was of a disposition the very re-

verse, being put from his birth under the care of  
a French lady of great merit and  
taste, he early acquired a taste for liter-

ature, and a predilection for the French language,  
which never obliterated. At 7 years of age,  
Frederick was put under the military tuition

of Count de Finkestein, and Col. de Kalk-

reid, renowned for courage and experi-

ence. He was taught mathematics and fortifica-

tion by Major Senning; Hau de Jendun, a French-

man, instructed him in other branches of know-

ledge; and a cadet of the name of Keuzel, taught

him his exercise. At 8, he was furnished with a

small arsenal, stored with all sorts of arms pro-

portioned to his age and strength, of which his

father left him absolute master. Soon after he

was named captain and chief of the corps of

cadets; and he performed every day, in mini-

ature, with his little soldiers, all the evolutions

with which his father exercised his giants. At

last he received the command of a company in

his father's famous gigantic regiment composed

of men of whom scarce one was short of 7 French

feet. Endued however, with a taste for the arts,

he devoted to their cultivation every moment he

could escape the vigilance of his guardians. He

was particularly fond of poetry and music, and

when he could find a moment's leisure, read

French authors, or played on the flute; but his

father, as often as he surprized him playing or read-

ing, broke his flute and threw his books into the fire.

The prince, chagrined at this treatment, and

having a great desire to visit Germany, England,

France, and Italy, desired permission to travel.

This, however, his father refused, but permitted

him to accompany himself occasionally into Ger-

many; and, in 1738, took him to Dresden to see

the king of Poland. By these little expeditions the

prince's desire to travel was only the more infla-

med; so that at last he resolved to set out without

his father's knowledge. The design was intrusted

to two of his young friends, named Kat and Keit;

money was borrowed, and the day of departure

fixed, when unluckily the whole project was dis-

covered. The old king, immediately in his retri-

but, and considering his son as a deserter, de-

termined to put him to death. He was shut up

in the fortress of Custrin; and it was with diffi-

culty that the count de Seckendorf, sent purposely

by the emperor Charles VI. was able to alter the

king's resolution. Captain Keit, however,

was determined on his intended escape. Keit

escaped the danger by flying into Holland;

but Kat had not that good fortune. The king

first directed that he should be tried by a court-

martial; but as they only sentenced Kat to per-

petual imprisonment, the revengeful monarch, by

an unheard-of exercise of his prerogative, caused

him to be beheaded. The execution was per-

formed under the windows of the prince, whose

face being held towards the scaffold by 4 gren-

adiers, he fainted away at the shocking sight; and

during the remainder of his life he considered

capital punishments with so great a degree of

horror, that they were rare throughout his domi-

nions while he reigned. When the emperor had

succeeded in preventing the execution of Frederick,

the old king remarked, that "Austria would

one day see what a serpent she had nourished."

The prince remained prisoner a year at Custrin;

during which time his father wished that he should

learn the maxims of government and finance.

For this purpose M. de Münchow, president of

the chamber of domains and finances, was order-

ed to make him assist at all their assemblies, to

consider him as a simple councillor and to treat

him

him as such. But though Frederick assisted at their meetings, he did not trouble himself with reading acts or copying decrees. Instead of this, he amused himself sometimes with reading French pamphlets, and at others with drawing caricatures of the president or members of the assembly. Munchow was also very favourable to the prince at this time, by furnishing him with books and other articles of amusement, notwithstanding the express prohibition of his father; though in this he certainly ran a great risk of his life. Frederick, after this, was recalled to Berlin, on pretence of being present at the celebration of his eldest sister's marriage with the hereditary prince of Bareith; but the true reason was, that the king had now prepared a match for the prince himself. This was the princess Elizabeth Christina of Brunswick, niece to the empress. Frederick, who was not only totally indifferent to the fair sex in general, but particularly prejudiced against this princess, made some objections; his father, however, overcame all obstacles with "his usual arguments (says the author of the life of Frederick), viz. his cane, and a few kicks." But the coldness which Frederick at this time showed for the fair sex was not natural; for as early as 1723, though then only in his 11th year, he fell in love with the princess Anne, daughter of K. George II. Even at this early period he vowed to refuse every other but her for his consort; nor was his vow ever broken, as far as depended on himself. This marriage might have taken place, had it not been for some differences, which arose between the courts of Prussia and Hanover about a few acres of meadow land, and two or three Hanoverians enlisted by the Prussian recruiters. The princess whom he espoused had a large share of beauty, and, what was still better, an excellent heart; but Frederick is said to have suffered so much in his former amours, that certain unformountable impediments remained to the completing of his marriage with any woman. Scarcely therefore was he in bed with his young spouse, when a cry of *Fire!* was raised by his friends. Frederick got up to see where the conflagration was, but finding it a false alarm, he sent messengers to compose the princess; but neither that night, nor any other, did he ever disturb her rest. On this occasion, Frederick received from his father the county of Rupin. He resided in Rupin, the capital, for some time; but afterwards preferred Rheinsberg, which then contained only 1000 inhabitants. Having inscribed over the great gate of the castle, FREDERICO TRANQUILLITATEM COLLENTI, his father was displeas'd with it, and therefore hurried him into the noise and tumult of war. The succession to the crown of Poland had kindled a general war throughout Europe, and the king of Prussia was to send 10,000 auxiliaries to the imperial army, then commanded by prince Eugene. The king conducted his troops in person, and took this opportunity of giving his son an idea of war. At this time, however, he learnt but little, and only saw, as he expressed it, the shadow of the great Eugene. That consummate general, however, predicted that he would one day be a great captain. Frederick having gone to reconnoitre the lines at *Philipburg*, in his return through a very open wood, was exposed to the cannon which thundered incessantly. The number of branches on every side of withstanding which, he never caused move quicker; nor altered the main hand which held the bridle; but conversed calmly with the generals with him. During this campaign the health of the king was so much impaired, that Frederick for some time intrusted with signing all in his name. On his recovery the prince returned to Stetten, under the prince of Dessau fortifications. He was afterwards sent to Rheinsberg to see king Stanislaus, who was remarkable for his philosophy and confidence for his misfortunes. With him Frederick resided for some weeks, and contracted a friendship which was not dissolved but by death. Frederick was allowed to return to his peaceful Rheinsberg, where he remained till the death of his father. In this place his time was alternately by the study of the arts and the pleasures of friendship. Philosophy, politics, the military art, poetry, agreeably succeeded each other, and he spent his period. The prince passed the greatest part of the day in his library; and the evening in the society of a select company of learned men. In these meetings, gaiety generally prevailed, and the generals were wont to speak of war, music, the ear, and excellent painters to decorations. The morning was usually spent in study; agreeable conversation prevailed in the evening; and every evening there was a concert. In this retreat Frederick conceived an ardent passion for military glory, for which he became at last so remarkable; and here he formed the most sublime and daring projects, fired with a desire of imitating the heroes of antiquity, of whom he read the accounts of ancient authors. He never spoke but with a view to the great warriors of Greece and Rome, and when seated on the throne, though not distinguished as an able soldier in a more able manner, than by conferring on him the surname of *Quintus Iulius M. Guichard*, who had written some treatises on the military art of the ancients, he gave him at the same time a free baton in his pursuit of glory. Frederick cultivated the friendship of celebrated poets, philosophers, and men; and commended, complimented, and flattered all the most celebrated literati at that time. "The philosophers (says of his life) answered him as a mad lover his mistress. They wrote to him that he was a great poet, a great philosopher, the greatest of his age, the north. All these hyperboles were and *Solomon* was not sorry for it, though too much understanding to believe in the Rollin, Graveland, Maupertuis, Algarotti, were honoured with his correspondence. The best especially, accustomed to offer to the idol of the day, were it trampled on the dunghill to the altar, did not fail the first man of the universe a prince and the expectancy of the throne, and who at that time he was the greatest philosopher of

poet in the world." That Frederick set up his character with the literati, or on a real predilection for his principles, and the *Apology of Wolf*, (a philosopher who had banished, for writing a work which diffused harmony,) and had his principal translated into French. He even prevailed on his father to relax a little in favour of the philosopher. In 1736, a letter was sent to Frederick, inviting him to return; but he ventured to make his appearance till on his protector was seated on the throne, during his residence at Rheinsberg, which imposed his refutation of the principles of Machiavel, under the title of *Anti-Machiavel*; he sent the MS. to Voltaire to correct, and printed. The old king, now worn with infirmity, saw with regret the predilection retained for men of letters; and, in his private life, often threatened the whole society of the court in the fortress of Spandau. His visits frequently occasioned a violent alarm to the joyous company at Rheinsberg, which all the eloquence of Frederick to quiet their apprehensions, however, were removed, in the old monarch died on the 31st of February, and the throne to his son. The possession of a kingdom did not abate Frederick's predilection for literature, though to this he was now added the qualities and labours of a

His transactions in this character will be seen in the article Prussia; and therefore it remains to be said here, than to relate the motives by which we may be able to trace the character of this great and singular monarch. After his accession, gone into Prussia to receive the homage of the provinces, he formed a resolution of proceeding as far as Paris. Being discovered at Paris, however, he laid aside his design, and went to see his states in Lower Germany. He wrote the celebrated *Voltaire*, that he came *incognito* to visit him at Brussels; but he went with an indisposition in the little *chaise*, two leagues from Cleves, he went to that philosopher, requesting him to give him the first advances. The following curious anecdote given by him of his reception, &c. "A guard I found at the gate was one of the privy counsellors, Rambonet, was dressed in the court: he had large ruffles on his coat; a hat full of holes; and an old peruke, one end of which descended to his pockets, and the other scarcely touched his shoulder. I was conducted into his apartment, where there was nothing remarkable. I perceived in a cabinet, by the side of a taper, a truckle bed, two feet wide, on which lay a little man in a night-gown of coarse blue cloth. The king, in a strong perspiration, and lying under a wretched blanket, in a state of the ague. I bowed to him, and feeling his pulse, as if I had been his physician. The fit over, he dressed himself and went to table. Algarotti, Kayserling, and the king's minister to the states were of the party; where

ART I.

we conversed profoundly on the immortality of the soul, on liberty, and the androgynes of Plato." This rigid economy, and contempt of every luxury, was maintained by Frederick as long as he lived. The following account, likewise from Voltaire, will give an idea of his manner of living. "He rose at 5 A. M. in summer, and 6 in winter. A lacquey came to light his fire, and dress and shave him; though indeed he almost wholly dressed himself. His room was not inelegant. A rich balustrade of silver, ornamented with little cupids, seemed to enclose an alcove bed, the curtains of which were visible; but behind them, instead of a bed, there was a library: the king slept on a truckle bed with a slight mattress concealed behind a screen. Marcus Aurelius and Julian, those apostles of Stoicism, did not sleep in a more homely manner. At 7 his prime minister arrived with a great bundle of papers under his arm. This prime minister was no other than a clerk, who had formerly been a soldier and valet-de-chambre. To him the secretaries sent all their dispatches, and he brought extracts of them, to which the king wrote answers in two words on the margin: and thus the affairs of the whole kingdom were expedited in an hour. At 11 the king put on his boots, reviewed his regiment of guards in the garden, and at the same hour the colonels were following his example in their respective provinces. The princes his brothers, the general officers, and one or two chamberlains, dined at his table; which was as good as it could be in a country where there is neither game, tolerable butcher's meat, nor a pullet, and where the very wheat is brought from Magdebourg. After the repast he retired alone into his cabinet where he made verses till 3 or 6 o'clock. Then came a young man named D'Arget, who read to him. A little concert began at 7, in which the king played on the flute with as much skill as the first performer; and pieces of his composition were frequently executed. Supper was served in a little hall, the most singular and striking ornament of which was a fine picture of Priapus. These repasts were not in general the less philosophic on that account. Never did men converse in any part of the world with so much liberty respecting all the superstitious of mankind, and never were they treated with more pleasantry and contempt. God was respected: but none of those who had deceived men in his name were spared. Neither women nor priests ever entered the palace. In a word, Frederick lived without a court, without counsel, and without religious worship." As Frederick had espoused his princess contrary to his inclination, it was imagined that on his accession, he would set himself free from engagements so disagreeable to himself. The queen impressed with suspicions of this kind, was on the point of fainting away when he made his first visit to her. To the surprise of all parties, however, he made her a very affectionate speech, apologizing for his indifference, and inviting her to participate with him the throne of which she was so worthy. In the 1st year of his reign, he restored the academy of sciences at Berlin; See ACADEMY, § XIII, N° 15. His war with the queen of Hungary, however, which took place almost immediately after his accession.

L

107

for some time prevented him from taking such an active part in literary matters as he was inclined to do. After the peace, he gave full scope to his passion for literature; and in the interval betwixt the conclusion of the first war and beginning of that of 1756, he composed most of his works; particularly his *History of my own Time*. Voltaire was his principal literary correspondent, whom he invited to reside with him. Afraid of losing his liberty, that philosopher hesitated, excused himself, and entered into pecuniary treaties. At last he was determined by seeing a poem from Frederick to M. D'Arnaud, in which the latter was compared to the rising, and Voltaire to the setting, sun. By this Voltaire was so much piqued, that he set out for Berlin without delay, and arrived there in June 1750. He was received in the most magnificent and affectionate manner, and for some time his situation was very agreeable; but the disputes and rivalry which took place betwixt him and Maupertuis soon threw every thing into confusion. In these the king interfered in such a manner as was certainly below his dignity; and he often exercised himself in making a jest of the other men of letters, in a way which induced many of them to leave him. The squabbles with Voltaire were sometimes very diverting; See VOLTAIRE. They ended at last in a final quarrel with that wit, and his departure from the kingdom. The restless disposition of Frederick showed itself after his departure, by his attempts to provoke the literati who remained at his court, to quarrel with him as Voltaire had done. But they were of too passive a disposition to gratify him in this respect, choosing rather to suffer the most mortifying strokes of raillery, or to leave the kingdom, than to contend with him. This proved so uneasy to the king, that he one day exclaimed, "Shall we have no more quarrels then?" The breaking out of the war in 1756, however, put a stop to this diversion, and afforded him as many enemies as he could wish. The exploits he performed, during the 7 years which this unequal contest lasted, are almost incredible; (See PRUSSIA;) and it is amazing how the fortitude and resolution of any man could enable him to sustain the difficulties which during this period he encountered. Once however even the resolution of Frederick was on the point of giving way. After the battle of Colin, when his affairs seemed altogether desperate, he wrote to his sister at Bareith, that he was on the point of putting an end to his own life. And as he wished to have it said that he made verses even on the brink of the grave, he wrote a long poetical epistle to the marquis d'Argens, in which he communicated to him his design, and bade him farewell. His affairs, however, took a better turn, and such desperate thoughts were laid aside. But his constitution was irreparably injured by the excessive fatigues he had sustained. Soon after the peace, his body began to bend, and his head to incline to the right side: by degrees he became very infirm; he was tormented with the gout, and subject to frequent indigestions. All his distempers, however, were born with invincible patience; and, till a very short time before his death, he never ceased to attend his reviews, or visit the provinces. He has

been known to review his troops, and go through all the ranks, as if he felt no pain, or an abscess, which approached to a suppuration touched the saddle. In Aug. 1785, he improved his health still farther by assisting at a review where he was exposed without a cloak to a hard rain for 4 or 5 hours. On his return to Potsdam he was seized with a fever; and, for the first time, became unable to assist at the military exercises. His malady, however, did not prevent him from dictating the disposition of these exercises during the 3 days they lasted. About the end of August the fever left him, but was succeeded by a violent cough; by which he was greatly weakened, prevented from sleeping; but this did not interrupt either the execution of business, or the routine of his literary exertions; wherein he continued to employ himself till the day he died. On the 17th and 18th of May 1788 he was unable to assist at the ordinary reviews. At last his disorder terminated in a dropsy. He was now no longer able to remain in bed, he sat up and night in an arm-chair with springs, and could be moved at pleasure. For near a month before his death the swelling of his feet gave him violent pain, so that he wished an incision to be made; but the surgeon refused to perform the operation, suspecting that it might hasten his death. Nature, however, accomplished his design, his right leg opened, and discharged such a quantity of matter, that he was greatly relieved. On the 16th Aug. 1786, his throat began to swell violently; and he soon after fell into a stupor, though from this he recovered so far as to be able to speak. His respiration and voice became gradually more feeble; and he expired on the morning of the 17th, at 19 minutes after 2, in the 75th year of his age, and 47th of his reign. This great monarch was of the middle size, had large blue eyes and a piercing look. He spoke German incorrectly, and in a very rough manner, but talked French very fluently and agreeably. His constitution was naturally feeble, but he greatly improved it by his laborious life. He was the art of relieving every one from that embarrasment, which is apt to occur in accosting a monarch. His universal knowledge enabled him to converse on all subjects. He talked of war with military men, of verses with the poet, of agriculture with the farmer, of jurisprudence with the lawyer, of commerce with the merchant, and of politics with the Englishman. He had a very retentive memory; was fond of solitude and gardening; took great pleasure in dogs, of which animals he constantly kept a number about him, giving them little balls to play with. In company, he was fond of asking questions and jesting; in which at last proceeded such lengths as undoubtedly were unbecoming in a superior towards his inferiors. In military affairs he was excessively fond of not to say cruel; of which the following anecdote may serve as an instance. In the first war of Frederick, wishing to make some alteration in his camp during the night, he forbade every person, on pain of death, to keep, after a certain hour, any light in his tent. He himself went to his rounds; and in passing the tent of a captain, he perceived a light. Entering the tent



tain sealing a letter to his wife, for a great affection. "What are you (says he;) Do you know the order?" fell on his knees and asked pardon. (says Frederick), and add a few words o dictate to you." Zittern obeyed; dictated, "To morrow I shall die." The unfortunate man wrote them, was executed. His cruel treatment ENCK is well known. In matters of illation, he was more arbitrary than h we have a notable example in the of Arnold the miller. This man had y the rest of his mill, on pretence m which turned it had been diverted nd. But as the water which ran in- also ran out of it into the same chan- the miller evidently suffered no da- judges therefore gave sentence against king not only reversed their sentenc- them. For this he was celebrated be newspapers in Europe; and yet he rong, and afterwards even acknow- lf to have been so: but notwithstand- not only made no reparation to the d, but allowed them to lie in prison ce. He entertained most unaccounta- s against certain places and persons, r conduct nor merit could eradicate. unfortunate places was Westphalia, never conferred any bounty: and one of that country, a man of great me- posed to him for a place, he refused, is a Westphalian; he is good for no- laire justly accuses him of ingrati- Count de Seckendorf; who saved his inst whom he conceived the most im- ed. His neglect of others who af- he most essential service, was shame- a robust butcher prevented him from and all, over a precipice, where both btedly have been killed, the king on- out and saying, *Thank you friend*, rode ver enquiring farther about his pre- th regard to his literary merits, ts of having corrected his works, and wing furnished him with materials y. He has been accused of stealing ichs of poetry from Voltaire, Boileau, d others; nor does the charge seem lation. Such of his verses, as have un- orrection, are very indifferent. But s mention the foibles of Frederick, it record his acts of virtue. Upon his reated his mother with great respect, she should bear the title of *Queen Mo- t* instead of addressing him as *His Ma- ld* call him *son*. As he was passing ween Berlin and Potsdam, a thousand d been marked out for military service . surrounded his coach, and cried out ing deliver us from our slavery." He m their liberty, and next day order- es to be taken off. He granted a ge- on of religion, and among other con- ved the profession of free masonry. this monarch was illustrious, as well

for the variety of characters he sustained, as for the important vicissitudes he experienced. But the pacification of Dresden, in 1745, enabled him to appear in a character far more glorious than that of the conqueror of Silesia. He was now entitled to the noblest eulogy, as the wise legislator of his country. Exclusive of his general attention to agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, he peopled, in particular, the deserts of Pomerania, by encouraging, with royal bounties, a great number of industrious emigrants to settle in that province; the face of which, in a very few years, underwent the most agreeable alteration. Above 60 new villages arose amidst a barren waste; and every part of the country exhibited marks of successful cultivation. Those desolate plains, where not a foot- step had been seen for ages, were now converted into fields of corn; and the happy peasants, under the protection of a patriot king, sowed their grounds in peace, and reaped their harvests in security.

iii. FREDERICK V. king of Denmark, reigned 20 years, and on his death bed, expressed his satisfaction to his son Christian VII, in a circumstance, which few monarchs can boast who have reigned so long. "It is a great consolation to me my son, (said he) in my last moments, that I have not injured any person, and that my hands are not stained with one drop of blood." See DENMARK.

(XI.) FREDERICK, Colonel, the son of THEODORE, king of Corsica, by an Irish lady of the noble family of Lucan, was born in Spain, and had a liberal education, and was also well qualified for the military line. He came to England in 1754, and taught the Italian language for some years. He afterwards went to the continent where he obtained the rank of Colonel, and the cross of merit, from the late duke of Wurtemberg; for whom he acted as agent, upon his return, and disposed of a regiment to the E. India Company. He married a German lady, while abroad, by whom he had a son, who fell in the American war, and a daughter. His finances falling low at last, he shot himself, at Westminster Abbey, on the 1st Feb. 1796. He was a man of general knowledge, and considerable talents. He wrote, 1. *Memoires pour servir l'histoire de Corse*, 8vo, 1768. 2. The description of Corsica; with an account of its union to the crown of Great Britain, 8vo, &c. 1796.

(XIII.) FREDERICK, in geography, the name of two counties, 2 towns, and a fort, in the United States; viz.

1. FREDERICK, a county of Maryland, bounded on the N. by Pennsylvania, E. by Baltimore, SW. by the Potomac, and W. by Washington; extending 30 miles every way. There are 37 mills, an iron and glass manufactory in it. It had 27,150 citizens, and 3,641 slaves in 1795. Fredericktown is the capital.

2. FREDERICK, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by Berkley, E. and S. by the Shanandoah, and W. by Hampshire; 30 miles long, and 20 broad. It contained 15,431 citizens, and 4,230 slaves, in 1795. It abounds with lime-stones and iron ore; iron works have been erected which produce from 800 to 1000 tons of iron annually. Winchester is the chief town.

3. **FREDERICK**, a fort of Maryland, in Washington county, on the Potomac, near Pennsylvania.

4. **FREDERICK**, a town of Maryland, in Cecil county, on the Sassafras, 6 miles SW. of Warwick. Lat. 39. 22. 36. N.

5. **FREDERICK**, a township of Pennsylvania, in Montgomery county.

6. **FREDERICK**, a town of New Brunswick, on the N. side of St John's river. Lon. 66. 45. W. Lat. 46. 3. N.

**FREDERICK-AUGUSTUS I**, king of Poland, the son of John George III. elector of Saxony, was born at Dresden in 1670, and succeeded his father in 1694. He made several campaigns against the French and Turks; and having embraced the Roman Catholic religion, he was elected king of Poland, in 1697. But having joined with Peter the Great, and Frederick IV. of Denmark, against Charles XII. of Sweden, tho' at first very successful, he was at last constrained to sign a treaty in 1706, resigning his crown to Stanislaus Leczinski. See SWEDEN. After the battle of Pultowa, however, he was restored to his throne. See POLAND. He died in 1733. He was endued with great personal strength, and undaunted courage.

**FREDERICK-AUGUSTUS II**, king of Poland, the son of the preceding monarch, was born in 1696, and elected in 1734. The latter years of his reign were very unfortunate. In 1736, the king of Prussia invaded Saxony, and retained it till the peace of 1763. Frederick Augustus died Oct. 5th 1762. See POLAND.

**FREDERICKENBURG**, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt Zerbst, 1 mile SW. of Zerbst.

**FREDERICK-LEWIS**, Prince of Wales, the eldest son of K. George II, and father of his present Majesty, was born, Jan. 31st, 1707. He came over to England in Dec. 1728; married Princess Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, May 1736, by whom he had 9 children; and died March 31st, 1751, very much regretted, being a prince of an excellent character and disposition. See ENGLAND, § 81.

**FREDERICK-NAGORE**, a town of Bengal, belonging to Denmark, 18 miles above Calcutta, and 7½ below Chandernagore. See BENGAL, N<sup>o</sup> 1, § 10.

(1.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a castle and palace of the king of Denmark, in the isle of Zealand, 15 miles NW. of Copenhagen. Lon. 12. 25. E. Lat. 55. 52. N.

(2.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a fort on the Gold Coast of Guinea, in Africa, near Cape Threepoints, 62 miles from Cape Coast Castle. It is subject to Denmark. Lon. 1. 5. W. Lat. 4. 30. N.

(3.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a town of Upper Saxony, in Pomerania, formerly called Quarckenburg, 30 miles SSW. of Colberg.

(4.) **FREDERICKSBURG**, a town of Virginia, in Spottsylvania county, on the SW. bank of the Rappahannock, 110 miles from its mouth. It contains about 200 houses; the chief street runs parallel with the river. It had 1413 citizens and 587 slaves in 1790. It is 50 miles SSW. of Alexandria. Lon. 27. 26. W. Lat. 38. 22. N.

**FREDERICKSHALL**, a town of Norway in the province of Aggerhuys, on the frontiers of Sweden, and on the extremity of the Swinefud,

at the mouth of the Tiste. The harbor and commodious; but the saw-dust bro the river from the mills occasions an pence to clear it. It contains 3000 in and lies 31 miles SE. of Christiania, and Uddevalla. Lon. 10. 55. E. Lat. 59. 2  
**FREDERICKSHOLM**, a fort of N miles S. of Christianland.

**FREDERICKSODE**, a town of De Jutland, taken by the Swedes in 1657, subject to Denmark. It is seated near 1 m. N. of Sleswick. Lon. 10. 0. E. Lat.

**FREDERICKS-SUND**, a sea port of in the isle of Zealand, 10 miles NW. hagen. Lon. 12. 13. E. Lat. 55. 50. N

(1.) **FREDERICKSTADT**, a town mark, in S. Jutland; built in 1621. It on the river Eyder, 17 miles WSW. of Lon. 9. 10. E. Lat. 54. 26. N.

(2.) **FREDERICKSTADT**, a town of N the prov. of Aggerhuys, seated on the 26 miles W. of Frederickshall. Lon. Lat. 59. 2. N.

**FREDERICKSTEIN**, a strong forte way, on the summit of a rock, which **FREDERICKSHALL**; famous for the Charles XII. killed while besieging it,

(1.) **FREDERICKSTOWN**, a town of York, in Dutche's county; which contains citizens, and 63 slaves in 1795.

(2.) **FREDERICKSTOWN**, a town of the county of Tyrone, and province of

**FREDERICKSVORN**, a town of N the prov. of Aggerhuys 3 miles S. of L

**FREDERICKSWERK**, a seaport of on the N. coast of Zealand, where foundery for cannons, &c.

**FREDERICK-TON**, a township of N wick, 90 miles up St John's river.

**FREDERICKTOWN**, a flourishing Maryland, capital of Frederick county, Carroll's creek, containing 700 houses for Presbyterians, German Lutherans, and Baptists, a court-house, &c. It is by N. of Baltimore, and 148 SW. of P Lon. 77. 30. W. Lat. 39. 24. N.

(1.) **FREDERICK WILLIAM**, the Gr tor of Brandenburg, was born Feb. 6th. succeeded his father William George, it was declared the first sovereign duke of 1658, and died in 1688. See PRUSSIA.

(2.) **FREDERICK WILLIAM I**, K. the son of Frederick I. and grandson t ceding, was born Aug. 4th, 1688, and su father in 1713. He was a man of nar violent passions, and of an arbitrary His chief pride was to be master of th giment in Europe. See PRUSSIA.

1740, and was succeeded by his son F Great.

(3.) **FREDERICK-WILLIAM II**, late sia, and grandson to the preceding mo born Sept. 25th 1744, and succeeded li derick the Great, in 1786. He was first promoters of the present war w and the first who deserted the coalition peace with the French republic. See

tion. He died in 1797, and was his son Frederick-William III.

EE. *adj.* [*frank*, Sax. *vry*, Dutch.] ; not a vassal; not enslaved; not a dependant.—A free nation is that never been conquered, or thereby enervated by conditions of subjection. *Temple*.—What? and fetter'd with so many chains?

*Dryden*.  
We think any one freer than to have do what he will? *Locke*.—

etch'd body trembles at your power: could fortune; but she can no more: feel: my potent mind remains, the victor's rage, nor feels his chains.

*Prior*.  
Unhappy prisoner free,  
intended harm to thee. *Prior*.

ried; unrestrained.—Their use of it like unto our ceremonies, that be of private action in common life, man was free to order that which himself is a publick constitution for the be church. *Hooker*.—

ful homage, and receive free honours, we pine for now. *Shak. Macbeth*.  
, and in my choice whether or no I in these discourses: yet the publick-ice resolved, the dedication was not — *South*. 3. Not bound by fate; not

hey stood who stood, and fell who fell: that proof could they have giv'n sincere legiance, constant faith, or love, y what they needs must do, appear'd; they would? *Mills. Par. Lost*.  
; allowed.—

ir, I pray, are not the streets as free for you? *Shak. Taming of the Shrew*.  
ig as impure what God declares commands to some, leaves free to all. *Milton*.

my cares my thoughts alone are free. sports with troubled thoughts agree, *Pope*.

s; unrestrained.—  
O conspiracy!  
iou to shew thy dang'rous brow by

s are most free? *Shak. Julius Caesar*.  
are too free upon the subject, in the of their friends. *Temple*.—The cri-ten very free in their censures. *Felton*.  
there are to whose presumptuous;hts

r beauties, ev'n in them seem faults. *Pope*.

ingenuous; frank.—  
, I have doubts within my heart;  
be free and candid to your friend?  
*Otway's Orphan*.

ed; conversing without reserve.—  
Tis not to make me jealous;  
wife is fair, feeds well, loves company,  
p'ecch, sings, plays, and dances well,  
tue is, these make more virtuous.  
*Shak. Othello*.

—Being one day very free at a great feast, he suddenly broke forth into a great laughter. *Hakewill*.

Free and familiar with misfortune grow,  
Be us'd to sorrow, and inur'd to woe. *Prior*.

8. Liberal; not parsimonious: with of.—  
Glo'ster too, a foe to citizens,  
O'ercharging your free purses with large fines,  
That seeks to overthrow religion. *Henry IV*.  
No statute in his favour says,

How free or frugal I shall pass my days;  
I, who at sometimes spend as others spare. *Hor*.

—Alexandrian verses, of twelve syllables, should never be allowed but when some remarkable beauty or propriety in them atones for the liberty: Mr Dryden has been too free of these in his latter works. *Pope*. 9. Frank; not gained by importunity; not purchased.—We wanted words to express our thanks: his noble free offers left us nothing to ask. *Bacon's New Atlantis*. 10. Clear from distress.—

Who alone suffers, suffers most i' th' mind,  
Leaving free things and happy shows behind,  
*Shak. King Lear*.

11. Guiltless; innocent.—  
Make mad the guilty and appal the free,  
Confound the ignorant. *Shak. Hamlet*.

My hands are guilty, but my heart is free. *Dryden*.

12. Exempt; with of anciently; more properly from.

## These

Are such allow'd infirmities, that honesty  
Is never free of. *Shak. Winter's Tale*.

Who fears not to do ill, yet fears the name;  
And free from conscience, is a slave to fame.

Let envy, then, those crimes within you see,  
From which the happy never must be free. *Denham*.

Their steeds around,  
Free from the harness, graze the flow'ry ground. *Dryden*.

—The will, free from the determination of such desires, is let to the pursuit of nearer satisfactions. *Locke*. 13. Invested with franchises; possessing any thing without vassalage; admitted to the privileges of any body: with of.—

He therefore makes all birds of every sect  
Free of his farm, with promise to respect  
Their several kinds alike, and equally protect. *Dryden*.

What do'st thou make a shipboard? To what end  
Art thou of Bethlem's noble college free?  
Stark-staring mad, that thou should'st tempt  
the sea? *Dryden*.

14. Without expence; by charity, as a free-school.

(2.) FREE OR IMPERIAL CITIES in Germany, are those not subject to any particular prince; but governed, like republics, by their own magistrates. There were free cities (*libera civitates*) even under the ancient Roman empire: such were those to whom the emperor, by the advice or consent of the senate, gave the privilege of appointing their own magistrates, and governing themselves by their own laws. See CITY, § 2.

(3.) FREE FISHERY. See FISHERY, § 4.

(4.) FREE

(4.) FREE MASON. See MASON.

(5.) FREE WARREN. See WARREN, § 2.

\* To FREE. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] 1. To set at liberty; to rescue from slavery or captivity; to manumit; to loose.—

The child was prisoner to the womb, and is By law and process of great nature thence Free'd and enfranchis'd; not a party to The anger of the king, nor guilty of, If any be, the trespass of the queen. *Shak.*  
—He recovered the temple, free'd the city, and upheld the laws which were going down. *2 Mac.* ii. 22.—

Can'st thou no other master understand,  
Than him that free'd thee by the pretor's wand?

*Dryden.*  
Should thy coward tongue  
Spread its cold poison through the martial throng,  
My jav'lin shall revenge so base a part,

And free the soul that quivers in thy heart. *Pope.*  
2. To rid from; to clear from any thing ill: with of or from.—It is no marvel, that he could think of no better way to be free'd of these inconveniences the passions of those meetings gave him, than to dissolve them. *Clarendon.*—

Hercules  
Free'd Erymanthus from the foaming boar. *Dryd.*  
Our land is from the rage of tygers free'd.

*Dryden.*  
3. To clear from impediments or obstructions.—  
The chaste Sibylla shall your steps convey,  
And blood of offer'd victims free the way.

*Dryden.*  
Fierce was the fight; but hastening to his prey,  
By force the furious lover free'd his way. *Dryd.*  
This master-key

Frees every lock, and leads us to his person.  
*Dryden.*

4. To banish; to send away; to rid. Not in use.  
We may again  
Give to our tables meat, sleep to our nights,  
Free from our feasts and banquets bloody knives.

*Shak.*  
Never any sabbath of release  
Could free-histravels and afflictions deep. *Daniel.*

5. To exempt.—For he that is dead is free'd from sin. *Rom.* vi. 7.

FREE-BENCH, signifies that estate in copyhold which the wife, being espoused a virgin, has after the decease of her husband for her dower, according to the custom of the manor. In regard to this free-bench, different manors have different customs. In the manor of E. and W. Enbourne in Berkshire, and other parts of England, there is a custom, that when a copyhold tenant dies, the widow shall have her free-bench in all the deceased husband's lands, *dum sola & casta fuerit*, "whilst the lives single and chaste;" but if she shall be guilty of incontinency, she shall forfeit her estate. Nevertheless, upon her coming into the court of the manor riding backwards on a black ram, with his tail in her hand, rehearsing a ridiculous and indelicate form of words in doggerel rhymes, characteristic of the times in which they were composed, the steward is bound by custom to restore her to her free-bench.

(1.) \* FREEBOOTER. *n. f.* [free and booty.] A robber; a plunderer; a pillager.—Perkin was

not followed by any English of name, he consisted mostly of hafe people and free fitter to spoil a coast than to recover a k Bacon.—The earl of Warwick had, as oft met with any Irish frigates, or such freebooters failed under their commission, taken all open. *Clarendon.*

(2.) FREEBOOTER, or FLIBUSTER, usually a name given to the pirates who scoo American Seas, and made war against t niards. See BUCCANIER.

\* FREEBOOTING. *n. f.* Robbery; plunder; act of pillaging.—Under it he may cleanly any fit pillage, that cometh handsomely in and when he goeth abroad in the night booting, it is his best and surest friend. *Sp.*

\* FREEBORN. *n. f.* [free and born.] Not inheriting liberty.—

O baseness, to support a tyrant's throne  
And crush your freeborn brethren of the

—I shall speak my thoughts like a free subject, such things perhaps as no Dutch collector could, and I am sure no Frenchman *Dryden's Æn. Ded.*—

Shall freeborn men, in humble awe,  
Submit to servile shame,  
Who from consent and custom draw  
The same right to be rul'd by law,  
Which kings pretend to reign?

FREEBURG, a town in Yorkshire.

\* FREECHAPEL. *n. f.* [free and chape] chapels as are of the king's foundation, him exempted from the jurisdiction of the ry. The king may also license a subject such a chapel, and by his charter exempt the ordinary's visitation. *Cozuel.*

\* FREECOST. *n. f.* [free and cost.] expence; free from charges.—We must not any man for an exact master in the rule modern policy, but such a one as has himself so far to hate and despise the ab being kind upon freecost, as not so much a friend what it is o'clock for nothing. *S.*

(1.) \* FREEDMAN. *n. f.* [free and man] slave manumitted. *Libertus.*—

The freedman jostles, and will be p  
First come, first serv'd, he cries. *D.*

(2.) FREED MAN. See LIBERTUS.

(1.) \* FREEDOM. *n. f.* [from free.] ty; exemption from servitude; independence; The laws themselves they do specially as most repugnant to their liberty and freedom. *Spenser on Ireland.*—

O freedom! first delight of human kind  
Not that which bondmen from their ma  
The privilege of doles; nor yet t' inf  
Their names in this or t'other Roman  
That false enfranchisement with ease i  
Slaves are made citizens by turning re

*Dryd.*  
2. Privileges; franchises; immunities.—  
By our holy sabbath have I sworn  
To have the due and forfeit of my bo  
If you deny it, let the danger light  
Upon your charter, and your city's f.

3. Power of enjoying franchises.—This;

men to servants, so as to become citizens  
privileges with the rest, which very much  
the power of the people. *Swift*. 4. Ex-  
rom fate, necessity or predetermination.

I else must change  
ature, and revoke the high decree  
geable, and eternal, which ordain'd  
eedom; they themselves ordain'd their

*Milton*.  
fin, by how much the more free will  
ice, by so much is the act the more  
d where there is nothing to importune,  
rove the will to any act, there is so  
ighter and perfecter degree of freedom  
act. *South*. 5. Unrestraint.—I will that  
fts and sabbaths shall be all days of free-  
e Jews in my realm. *1 Mac*. 2. 6. The  
ring without any particular evil or ince-  
ce.—The freedom of their state lays them  
reater necessity of always chusing and  
best things. *Law*. 7. Ease or facility  
it showing any thing.

EDOM, (§ 1. *def*. 1.) See LIBERTY.  
EDOM OF A CORPORATION, (§ 1. *def*.  
CORPORATION, § III, VII. The free-  
ties, and other corporations, is regularly  
by serving an apprenticeship; but it is  
hased with money, and sometimes con-  
way of compliment.

EDOM OF CONSCIENCE. See TOLER-

EDOM OF THE WILL, (§ 1. *def*. 4.)  
er or faculty of the mind, whereby it is  
f acting or not acting, choosing or reject-  
er it judges proper. Of this every man  
sensible, who finds in himself a power to  
sustain, continue or end several actions,  
a thought or preference of the mind.  
PHYSICS.

EFooted. *adj*. [*free* and *foot*.] Not  
in the march.—

We will fetters put upon this fear,  
now goes too freefooted. *Shak*. *Hamlet*.

HEARTED. *adj*. [*free* and *heart*.] Li-  
restrained.—

: must freehearted be, and voluntary;  
x enchanted, or by fate constrain'd.

*Davies*.  
FREEHOLD. *n. f*. [*free* and *bold*.] That  
ement which a man holdeth in fee,  
r for term of life. *Freehold* indeed is the  
sion of lands or tenements in fee, fee-  
r life. *Freehold* in law is the right that  
is to such land or tenements before his  
seizure. *Freehold* is sometimes taken in  
n to villenage. Land, in the time of the  
was called either blockland, that is, holden  
or writing, or foreland, that is, holden  
writing. The former was held by far-  
pditions, and by the better sort of ten-  
oblemen and gentlemen, being such as  
call *freehold*. The latter was commonly  
sfeffion of clowns, being that which we  
at the will of the lord. *Cowel*.—No alie-  
lands holden in chief should be available,  
the *freehold* or inheritance thereof, but  
re it were made by matter of record.  
*See of Alienation*.—There is an unspeak-

able pleasure in calling any thing one's own: a  
*freehold*, though it be but in ice and snow, will  
make the owner pleased in the possession, and  
stout in the defence of it. *Addison*.—My friends  
here are very few, and fixed to the *freehold*, from  
whence nothing but death will remove them. *Swift*.  
—I should be glad to possess a *freehold* that could  
not be taken from me by any law to which I did  
not give consent. *Swift*.

(2.) FREEHOLD, or FRANK TENEMENT; *liberum  
tenementum*. See FEE and TAIL.

(3.) A FREEHOLD, by the common law, cannot  
commence *in futuro*; but it must take effect pre-  
sently, either in possession, reversion, or remain-  
der. Whatever is part of the freehold goes to the  
heir; and things fixed thereto may not be taken  
in distress for rent, or in execution, &c. No man  
shall be disseised of his freehold by stat. *Magna  
Charta*, cap. 29. but by judgment of his peers, or  
according to the laws of the land: nor shall any  
distrain freeholders to answer for their freehold, in  
any thing concerning the same, without the king's  
writ. Freehold estates, of certain value, are re-  
quired by statutes to qualify jurors, electors of the  
knights of the shire in parliament, &c.

(4.) FREEHOLD, in geography, a town of New  
Jersey, in Monmouth county, 15 miles W. of  
Shrewsbury, 20 SE. by S. of New Brunswick,  
and 44 NE. of Philadelphia. It has an academy,  
and contained 3,258 citizens, and 627 slaves in  
1795. A bloody battle was fought here between  
the British under Sir H. Clinton, and the Ameri-  
cans under Gen. Washington on the 28th June,  
1778. See AMERICA, § 30.

(5.) FREEHOLD, a township of New York, in  
Albany county, containing 1817 citizens, of whom  
562 were electors; and 5 slaves, in 1795.

(1.) \* FREEHOLDER. *n. f*. [from *freehold*.]  
One who has a freehold.—As extortion did banish  
the old English *freeholder*, who could not live but  
under the law; so the law did banish the Irish  
lord, who could not live but by extortion. *Davies*.

(2.) FREEHOLDERS, in the ancient laws of Scot-  
land, are called *milites*, knights. In *Reg. Judicial*.  
it is expressed, that he who holds land upon an  
execution of a statute merchant, until he hath sa-  
tisfied the debt, *tenet ut liberum tenementum sibi et  
assignatis suis*; and the same of a tenant *per elegit*:  
the meaning of which seems to be, not that such  
tenants are freeholders, but as freeholders for the  
time, till they have received profits to the value  
of their debt.

\* FREELY. *adv*. [from *free*.] 1. At liberty;  
without vassalage; without slavery; without depen-  
dence. 2. Without restraint; heartily; with  
full gust.—If my son were my husband, I would  
*freelier* rejoice in that absence wherein he wou  
honour, than in the embraces of his bed,  
where he would shew most love. *Shakesp*. *Coriol*.

3. Plentifully; lavishly.—  
I pledge your grace; and if you knew what  
pains

I have bestow'd to breed this present peace,  
You would drink *freely*. *Shak*. *Henry IV*.

4. Without scruple; without reserve.—

Let such teach others who themselves excel,  
And censure *freely* who have written well. *Pope*.

5. Without impediment.—To follow rather the  
Goutis

Goths in rhyming, than the Greeks in true verifying, were even to eat acorns with swine, when we may freely eat wheat-bread among men. *Afcham.*

The path to peace is virtue: what I show,  
Thyself may freely on thyself bestow:  
Fortune was never worshipp'd by the wife;  
But set aloft by fools, usurps the skies. *Juv.*  
6. Without necessity; without predetermination.  
*Freely they stood who stood, and fell who fell.*  
*Milton.*

—He leaves us to chuse with the liberty of reasonable beings; they who comply with his grace, comply with it *freely*; and they who reject it, do also *freely* reject it. *Rogers.* 7. Frankly; liberally; without cost.—By nature all things have an equally common use: nature *freely* and indifferently opens the bosoms of the universe to all mankind. *Soutb.* 8. Spontaneously; of its own accord.

(1.) \* FREEMAN. *n. f.* [*free* and *man.*] 1. One not a slave; not a vassal.—Had you rather Cæsar were living, and die all slaves, than that Cæsar were dead, to live all *freemen*? *Shakefp.*—If to break loose from the conduct of reason, and to want that restraint of examination and judgment which keeps us from chusing or doing the worst, be liberty, true liberty, madmen and fools are only the *freemen*. *Locke.* 2. One partaking of rights, privileges, or immunities.—

He made us *freemen* of the continent,  
What nature did like captives treat before.

—What this union was is expressed in the preceding verse, by their both having been made *freemen* on the same day. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) FREEMAN, Susannah, afterwards Mrs CARROL and Mrs CENTLIVRE, a celebrated comic writer, daughter of Mr Freeman of Holbeach, in Lincolnshire. She had such an early turn for poetry, that it is said she wrote a song before she was 7 years old. Before she was 12, she could not only read Moliere in French, but enter into the spirit of all the characters. Her father dying, left her to the care of a step-mother, whose treatment being harsh, she determined, though almost destitute of every necessary, to go up to London to seek a better fortune. As she was proceeding on foot, she was met by the noted libertine, Anthony Hammond, Esq. who was so struck with her beauty, that he instantly fell in love with her; and inquiring into her story, soon prevailed upon her unexperienced innocence to go with him to Cambridge. After some months cohabitation, he persuaded her to come to London; where, in a short time, she was married to a nephew of Sir Stephen Fox. But he dying about a year after, her wit and beauty soon procured her a 2d husband, one Carrol, an officer in the army; but he being killed in a duel about 18 months after, she became a votary of the Muses, and under this name of Carrol, some of her earlier pieces were published. Her first attempt was a tragedy, the *Perjured Husband*; but her natural vivacity leading her to comedy, we find but one more attempt in the buskin, among 18 dramatic pieces which she afterwards wrote. In 1706, Mr Joseph Centlivre, principal cook to Q. Anne, married her; and, after passing several years happily together, she died at his house in Spring Garden, in Dec. 1723. She for

many years enjoyed the intimacy and the most eminent wits of the times, viz. and Steele, Rowe, Budgell, Farquhar, &c. and few authors received more esteem and patronage from the great. do not abound with wit, and the language times poor; but her plots are well conceived characters natural.

FREE-MARTIN. See HERMAPHRODITE.  
\* FREEMINDED. *adj.* [*free* and *mind.*] perplexed; without load of care.—] *mind*, and cheerfully disposed at hours sleep, and exercise, is one of the best long lasting. *Bacon.*

\* FREENESS. *n. f.* [*from free.*] 1. or quality of being free.— 2. Openness of vedness; ingenuoufness; candour.—] may pardon it, if he please, for the *free* confession. *Dryden.* 3. Generosity; I hope it will never be said that the laity the clergy are taught to be charitable, if corporations exceed the clergy itself, sons, in *freeness* of giving. *Spratt.*

FREEPORT, a township of the Un in Maine district, and Cumberland co ed at the head of Casco Bay, 10 mi Portland, and 140 of Boston. It contains citizens in 1795.

\* FREESCHOOL. *n. f.* [*free* and *school.*] school in which learning is given with To give a civil education to the youth in the time to come, provision was made by law, that there should be one school at least erected in every diocese. *Davies.*—] gymen stood candidates for a small gentleman who happened to have a better standing than his neighbours, procure for him who was the better scholar. *Spratt.*

\* FREESPOKEN. *adj.* [*free* and *spoken.*] accustomed to speak without reserve;—] night supped privately with some six or seven amongst whom there was one that was a very rough man, and began to take the liberty of Marcellus and Regulus had done:—] fell into discourse of the injustice of the former time, and, by name, of the others; and said, what should we do with them if we had them now? One of them, who was a *freespoken* senator, answered, they should sup with us. *Bacon.*

(1.) \* FREESTONE. *n. f.* [*free* and *stone.*] commonly used in building.—] *Freestone* from its being of such a constitution wrought and cut freely in any direction —I saw her hand; she has a leathern hand stone coloured hand. *Shakefp.* As you lie streets are generally paved with brick and always kept very neat. *Addison on*

(2.) FREE-STONE is a whitish stone many parts of Britain, that works ill but is more hard and durable; being used in building, &c. It is a species of limestone, but finer grained and smoother. The different parts of Europe vary much in this general property indeed are softer while in the quarry, than have been some time exposed to the air

nal property differs greatly in degree. It is a sort of grey free-stone in use at Paris, which we have not yet met with any in this country which has the above-mentioned quality to a degree, that the expence of working great measure saved. This stone lies on the southside of the river Seine, and is of a soft and large grit. It is so soft when cut out of the strata, that they fashion it conveniently with a sort of broad axe, and many stones for building in this manner, as an equal number of our people do or two. Though this stone is as soft as when first taken up, it is found to harden considerably in the air, that it becomes more than our ordinary free-stone. The Portland is the finest kind, which is white, and of a fine grain, is very fit for hewing and carving; neither resist water nor fire, which is a rare instance in so dense a stone; while one of Kent, which is less beautiful to the eye, is of a greyish colour, and consists of a rougher grain, resists the air every well. The free-stone of Derbyshire, on the other hand, is so brittle as to be unfit for working; and so coarse and open, that it lets water through: yet it is cut extremely well, and is fit for ovens, &c.

**FREE THINKER.** *n. f.* [*free* and *think*.] One who is a contemner of religion.—Atheist is a stronger word: I'm a *freethinker*, child. —Of what use is freedom of thought, if it does not produce freedom of action, which is not how remote soever in appearance, of the true and Christian? And therefore we should consider it as an edifice, wherein we have such a mutual dependance on each other, that if you pull out one single nail, the whole must fall to the ground. See *Free*.

**FREEBORN.** See *Free*, and *Birth*.

**FREEBORN,** a village SW. of Yarmouth.

**FREEBORN,** a town of Massachusetts, in the county, 50 miles S. of Boston, containing 1000, in 1795.

**FREEBORN.** *n. f.* [*free* and *will*.] 1. The directing our own actions without necessity or fate.—We have a power to be the prosecution of this or that desire; and to be the source of all liberty; in this world, that which is improperly called *Liberty*. 2. Voluntariness; spontaneity. —I desire, that all they of the people of my nation, which are minded of their duty to go up to Jerusalem, go with thee.

**FREEBORN,** an island in the East Indies. Lon. 137. 52. E. Lat. 0. 50. N.

**FREEBORN.** *n. f.* [*free* and *woman*.] A woman who is freed.—All her ornaments are taken from her; she is become a bondswoman. See *Free*.

**FREEZE.** *n. f.* in architecture, that part which are of columns, between the architrave and the frieze. It is properly a large flat member, separating the architrave from the frieze. See *ARCHITECTURE*, *Index*.

1. PART I.

(2.) FREEZE, FRIEZE, or *Frize*, in commerce. See *FRIEZE*, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

(1.) \* *To FREEZE.* *v. a.* pret. *froze*; part. *frozen* or *froze*. [*wiezen*, Dutch.] 1. To congeal with cold. 2. To kill by cold.—

When we both lay in the field,  
Frozen almost to death, how did he lap me,  
Ev'n in his garments! *Shak. Rich. III.*  
—My master and mistress are almost *frozen* to death.  
*Shak.* 3. To chill by the loss of power or motion.  
I have a faint cold fear thrills through my veins,  
That almost *freezes* up the beat of life. *Shak.*  
Death came on again,  
And exercis'd below his iron reign;  
Then upward to the seat of life he goes:  
Sense fled before him, what he touch'd he *froze*.

(2.) \* *To FREEZE.* *v. a.* pret. *froze*. 1. To be congealed with cold.—The aqueous humour of the eye will not *freeze*, which is very admirable, being it hath the perspicuity and fluidity of common water. *Ray on the Creation*.—The *freezing* of water, or the blowing of a plant, returning at equidistant periods in all parts of the earth, would as well serve men to reckon their years by as the motions of the sun. *Locke*. 2. To be of that degree of cold by which water is congealed.—

Opulous with his lute made trees  
And mountain tops, that *freeze*,  
Bow themselves when he did sing.  
*Shak. Henry VIII.*  
Thou art all ice, thy kindness *freezes* me.  
Heav'n *freezes* above severe, the clouds congeal,  
And thro' the chrystal vault appear'd the standing hail.

(1.) FREEZING, *n. f.* in philosophy, the same with congealation. See *COLD*, *CONGELATION*, *FROST*, and *ICE*. Freezing may be defined the fixing of a fluid body into a solid mass, by the addition of cold. Water and some other fluids suddenly dilate and expand in the act of freezing, so as to occupy a greater space in the solid than in the liquid state; in consequence of which ice is specifically lighter than water and floats upon it. Water also loses of its weight by freezing, being found lighter after it is thawed, than before it was frozen. And it even evaporates nearly as fast while frozen, as while it is fluid. Water which has been boiled freezes more readily than that which has not been boiled; and a slight disturbance of the fluid disposes it to freeze more speedily; having sometimes been cooled several degrees below the freezing point, without coming to a congelation when kept quite still, but suddenly freezing on the least motion or disturbance. Water covered over with a surface of oil of olives, does not freeze so readily as without it; and melted absolutely preserves it under a strong frost, where olive oil would not. Rectified spirit of wine, nut oil, and oil of turpentine, seldom freeze. The surface of water, in freezing, appears all wrinkled; the wrinkles being sometimes in parallel lines, and sometimes like rays, proceeding from a centre to the circumference. Fizz's standing in a current of air grew much colder than before. Fahrenheit had long ago observed, that a pond, which stands quite calm, often appears to be covered

of cold much beyond what is sufficient for freezing, and yet no congelation ensued: but if a slight breath of air happens in such a case to brush over the surface of the water, it freezes the whole in an instant. It has also been discovered, that all substances grow colder by the evaporation of the fluids which they contain, or with which they are mixed. If both these methods, therefore, be practised upon the same body at the same time, they will increase the cold to almost any degree of intenseness we please.

(2.) **FREEZING, ASTONISHING EXPANSIVE FORCE OF.** Although cold, in general, contracts most bodies, and heat expands them, yet there are some instances to the contrary, especially in the extreme cases or states of these qualities of bodies. Thus, though iron, in common with other bodies, expands with heat, yet, when melted, it is always found to expand in cooling again. Thus also, though water expands gradually as it is heated, and contracts as it cools, yet in the act of freezing it suddenly expands again, and that with an enormous force, capable of rending rocks, or bursting the very thick shells of metal, &c. A computation of the force of freezing water has been made by the Florentine Academicians, from the bursting of a very strong brass globe or shell, by freezing water in it; when, from the known thickness and tenacity of the metal, it was found that the expansive power of a spherule of water only one inch in diameter was sufficient to overcome a resistance of more than 27,000 pounds, or 13 tons and a half. See the experiments on bursting thick bomb-shells, by freezing water in them, by Major Edward Williams of the Royal Artillery, in the *Edin. Philos. Transf.* vol. 2. Such a prodigious power of expansion, almost double that of the most powerful steam-engines, and exerted in so small a mass, seemingly by the force of cold, was thought a very material argument in favour of those who supposed that cold, like heat, is a positive substance. Dr Black's discovery of latent heat, however, has afforded a very easy and natural explanation of this phenomenon. He has shewn, that, in the act of congelation, water is not cooled more than it was before, but rather grows warmer: that as much heat is discharged, and passes from a latent to a sensible state, as had it been applied to water in its fluid state, would have heated it to 135°. In this process, the expansion is occasioned by a great number of minute bubbles suddenly produced. Formerly these were supposed to be cold in the abstract; and to be so subtle, that, insinuating themselves into the substances of the fluid, they augmented its bulk, at the same time that, by impeding the motion of its particles upon each other, they changed it from a fluid to a solid. But Dr Black shews, that these are only air extricated during the congelation; and to the extrication of this air he ascribes the prodigious expansive force exerted by freezing water. The only question, therefore, is, By what means this air comes to be extricated, and to take up more room than it naturally does in the fluid? To this it may be answered, that perhaps part of the heat, which is discharged from the freezing water, combines with the air in its latent state, and, by restoring its elasticity, gives

it that extraordinary force; as is seen in the case of air suddenly extricated in the explosion of gun-powder.—The degree of expansion in the state of ice, is by some authors at about  $\frac{1}{10}$  of its volume. Oil and metals shrink and contract after freezing. Malton relates several experiments of vessels made very thick and strong; in which, when water, close stopped, and exposed to the water being expanded in freezing, finding either room or vent, burst the strong barrel of a gun, with water in it, ped and frozen, was rent the whole length, to try the force with which it expanded a cannon with it, whose sides were annealed and then closed up the mouth and vent, so none could escape; the whole being exposed to strong freezing air, the water froze in a few hours, and burst the piece in two places. Mathematicians have computed the force of this expansion; and they say, that such a force will raise a weight of 27720 pounds. Mr Williams, of the Royal Artillery, made several experiments on the force of it, at Quebec, in 1785. He filled all sizes of iron bomb-shells with water, then plugged the fuze hole close, and exposed them to the strong freezing air of winter in that climate; sometimes driving the plugs as hard as possible with a sledge, and yet they were always thrown out by the sudden expansion of the water in the act of freezing, like a ball shot by gunpowder, sometimes at a distance of between 400 and 500 feet, and they weighed near 3 pounds; and when they were screwed in, or furnished with hooks to lay hold of the inside of the shell, they could not possibly be forced out, unless the shell was always split in two, and the thickness of the metal of the shell was less than an inch. Through the circular crack, in the shells, where they burst, there is a thin film or sheet of ice, like a fan; in cases where the plugs were projected into the water, there suddenly issued out from the hole a bolt of ice of the same diameter, over it to the height sometimes of 8½ inches.

(3.) **FREEZING MIXTURES,** prepared to produce the artificial congelation of water, and other fluids. See **COLD**, § 8, 9; and **ICE**.

(4.) **FREEZING, MR CAVENDISH'S EXPERIMENT ON.** "If a vessel of water, (says Mr Cavendish) with a thermometer in it, be exposed to the air, the thermometer will sink several degrees below the freezing point, especially if the water is covered up so as to be defended from the wind, and care taken not to agitate it; and then, when a thin layer of ice is formed upon the surface, or a bit of ice, or on mere agitation of ice shoot suddenly through the water, the thermometer rises quickly to the point, where it remains stationary." Mr Cavendish adds, that though, in conformity to common opinion, he has allowed that "mercury may set the water a freezing, yet for experiments lately made by Dr Blagden, he is of opinion that it has not much, if any, effect of otherwise than by bringing the water to a temperature with some substance colder than itself. In general also the ice shoots rapidly, and



thermometer rises very quick; yet he once did it to rise very slowly, taking up not less than a minute, before it ascended to the freezing point; but in this experiment the water cooled not more than one or two degrees below the freezing point, and it should seem, that the more the water is cooled below the freezing point, the more rapidly the ice shoots and the more the thermometer rises." Mr Cavendish then observes, from the foregoing experiments we learn that water is capable of being cooled considerably below the freezing point, without any congealing piece; and that, as soon as by any small part of it is made to freeze, the ice spreads rapidly through the whole of the water. The cause of this rise of the thermometer is, that almost all bodies, by changing from a fluid state, or from the state of an elastic fluid, generate heat; and the heat is produced by the contrary process. In all the circumstances of the phenomenon are perfectly well explained; for, as soon as part of the water freezes, heat will be generated; and in consequence of the above-mentioned law, so that the new formed ice and the water will be warmed, and must continue to receive heat by the freezing of fresh portions of water, till it is heated exactly to the freezing point, unless the water could become solid before a sufficient quantity of heat was added to raise it to that point, which is not the case; and it is evident, that it cannot be heated above the freezing point; for as soon as it is at that point, no more water will freeze, and consequently no more heat will be generated.—Reason why the ice spreads all over the water instead of forming a solid lump in one part, is, as soon as any small portion of ice is formed, the water in contact with it will be so warmed as to be prevented from freezing, and the water at a little distance from it will still be below the freezing point, and will consequently continue to freeze. Were it not for this generation of heat, the whole of any quantity of water would freeze as soon as the process of congelation began; and in like manner the cold is generated by the melting of ice; which is the cause of the time required to thaw ice and snow. It was first found that, by adding snow to warm water, and stirring it about until all was melted, the water was as much cooled as it would have been by the addition of the same quantity of water which was more than 150° degrees colder than the water; or, in other words, somewhat more than 150° of cold are generated by the thawing of snow; and there is great reason to believe that as much heat is produced by the freezing of water. The cold generated in the experiment mentioned was the same whether ice or snow was used."

**FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER.** The congealing of quicksilver was first ascertained by Mr Adam Braun professor of philosophy at Göttingen. He had been employed in making geometrical experiments, not with a view to the discovery he actually did, but to see how degrees of cold he could produce. An ex-

cellent opportunity for this occurred on the 14th of December 1759, when the mercury stood naturally at 34°, which is now known to be only 3° or 6° above its point of freezing. Mr Braun, to increase this great degree of natural cold, prepared a freezing mixture of aquafortis and powdered ice, by which his thermometer was sunk to 69°. Part of the quicksilver had now really congealed; yet so far was Mr Braun from entertaining any suspicion of the fact, that he had almost desisted from further attempts, being satisfied with having so far exceeded all former philosophers. But in the hopes of producing a still greater degree of cold, he renewed the experiment; but having expended all his powdered ice, he was obliged to substitute snow in its place. With this fresh mixture the mercury sunk to -100, 240, and 352°. He then supposed that the thermometer was broken; but on taking it out, he found the quicksilver fixed, and continuing so for 12 minutes. On repeating the experiment with another thermometer which had been graduated no lower than 220°, all the mercury sunk into the ball, and became solid as before, not beginning to re-ascend till after a still longer interval of time. He now concluded that the quicksilver was really frozen, and prepared for making a decisive experiment. This was accomplished on the 25th, and the bulb of the thermometer broken as soon as the metal was congealed. The mercury was now converted into a solid and shining metallic mass, which flattened and extended under the strokes of a pestle, in hardness rather inferior to lead, and yielding a dull sound like that metal. Professor Zepinus made similar experiments at the same time, employing both thermometers and tubes of a large bore; in which last he remarked, that the quicksilver fell sensibly on being frozen, assuming a concave surface, and likewise that the congealed pieces sunk in fluid mercury. The fact being thus established, and fluidity no longer to be considered as an essential property of quicksilver, Mr Braun communicated an account of his experiments to the Petersburg Academy, on the 6th of September 1760; of which a large extract was inserted in the *Philos. Trans.* vol. lxx. p. 156. After this he never suffered a winter to elapse, without repeating the experiment of freezing quicksilver, and never failed of success when the natural cold was of a sufficient strength for the purpose. This degree of natural cold he supposes to be 10° of Fahrenheit, though some commencement of the congelation might be perceived when the temperature of the air was as high as +2. The results of all his experiments were, that with the abovementioned frigorific mixtures, and once with rectified spirits and snow, when the natural cold was at 28°, he congealed the quicksilver, and discovered that it is a real metal which melts with a very small degree of heat. Not perceiving, however, the necessary consequence of its great contraction in freezing, he confounded its point of congelation with that of its greatest contraction in freezing, and thus marked the former a great deal too low. The experiments of Mr Braun were successfully repeated at Göttingen, in 1774, by Mr John Frederick Blumeubach;

who was encouraged to this attempt by the excessive cold of the winter that year, especially the night of Jan. 12th. when he made the experiment, the thermometer standing at 16° in the open air. Mr. Böhmenbach, at 5 P. M. put 3 drams of quicksilver into a small sugar glass, and covered it with a mixture of snow and Egyptian sal ammoniac, setting the glass out in the air upon a mixture also of sal ammoniac. At one the next morning, the mercury was found frozen quite solid, and hard to the glass; and did not melt till 7 or 8 A. M. The colour of the frozen mercury was a dull pale white with a bluish cast, like zinc, very different from the natural appearance of quicksilver. In Jan. and Feb. 1755, by similar means, quicksilver was twice frozen by Mr Hutchins, governor of Albany fort, in Hudson's bay. And the same was done on the 28th of Jan. 1776, by Dr Lambert Becker, secretary of Rotterdam. The temperature of the atmosphere was then at +12°; and the lowest it could reduce the thermometer by artificial cold was 94°; when, on breaking the glass, the mercury was found frozen. In the beginning of 1780, M. Ven Elterlein of Vytegra, a town of Russia, in lat. 61° north, and long. 36° east, froze quicksilver by natural cold. On the 4th January 1789, the cold being increased to 34° that evening at Vytegra, he exposed to the open air 3 oz. of very pure quicksilver in a china tea cup, covered with paper pierced full of holes. Next day, at 8 A. M. he found it solid, and looking like a piece of cast lead, with a considerable depression in the middle. On attempting to loosen it in the cup, his knife raised shavings from it as if it had been lead, which remained sticking up; and at length the metal separated from the bottom of the cup in one mass. He then took it in his hand to try if it would bend: it was stiff like glass, and broke in two pieces; but his fingers immediately lost all feeling, and could scarcely be restored in an hour and a half by rubbing with snow. At 2 o'clock the thermometer stood at 27°; but by half past 5 it was risen to 40°; and then the two pieces of mercury which lay in the cup had lost so much of their hardness, that they could no longer be broken, or cut into shavings, but resembled a thick amalgam, which though it became fluid when pressed by the fingers, immediately afterwards resumed the consistence of paper. With the thermometer at 39° the quicksilver became fluid. The cold was never less on the 24th than 27°, and at 9 P. M. it had increased again to 35°. This experiment seems to fix the freezing point of mercury at 40° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, or 20 below 0; which is 72° below the freezing point of water. In the winter of 1791 and 1792, Mr. Hutchins, repeated the method of freezing quicksilver by artificial cold, with such success, that from his experiments and those of M. Ven Elterlein, the freezing point of mercury may be well as well settled, to be 20 below 0, or 72° below the freezing point of water. Other points of mercury, that not been altogether new to the subject. Prof. Dr. Esauus has lately published an interesting site it; but he was not able to determine the difference between the expansion of the fluid mercury, by cold, and that of the corresponding metal by heat; he could not determine any thing

certain concerning it. On this subject of other curious facts may be found in *Transf.* vol. 51, p. 672; vol. 52, p. 156; 174; vol. 73, p. 303 and 325; vol. 76 vol. 77, p. 285; vol. 78, p. 43; vol. 7 &c.; being experiments on the congelation of quicksilver in England, by Mr Richard where he proves that mercury may be only in England in summer, but even in the best climate, at any season of the year, out the use of ice or snow.

(6.) FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER BY COLD. The most remarkable congelation of mercury, by natural cold, that has ever been observed, was that related by Dr Peter Simon who had been sent by the empress of Russia some other gentlemen, on an expedition to that of Dr Gmelin. Being at Krat: 1772, in N. lat 56° 35', and E. lon. 93° an opportunity of observing this phenomenon. On the 6th and 7th of Dec. (1772) he perceived the greatest cold I have ever known in Siberia: the air was calm at the time, and singularly thickened; so that, though the sky in some respects clear, the sun appeared only as a fog. I had only one thermometer left the scale went no lower than 7°; and on the 7th in the morning, I remarked, that the mercury in it sunk into the ball, except some that which stuck fast in the tube. When I touched the thermometer, as it hung in the open air, the mercury touched with the finger, the quicksilver it could plainly be seen, that the solid mercury stuck and resisted a good while, and was pushed upward with a sort of violence. At the time I placed upon the gallery, on the roof of my house, some quicksilver in an open vessel. Within an hour I found the edges and the middle frozen solid; and some minutes after it was condensed by the natural cold into a very much like tin. While the metal was still fluid, the frozen surface exhibited a variety of branched wrinkles; but in general appeared pretty smooth in freezing. The solid mercury was more flexible than lead being bent short, it was found more brittle; and when hammered out thin, somewhat granulated. If the mercury had been perfectly closed, the quicksilver would have run under it in drops; and the same would have happened when the metal was touched with the finger, by which also the water was immediately condensed. When the frozen mass was broken in the cold, the fragments adhered to each other, and to the bowl in which they lay. In the morning it thawed on us further gradually, like wax on the fire, and did not melt at all. Although the most frozen mercury was not melted, yet the condensed quicksilver immediately adhered to the open vessel with which it could still be separated. On the 10th of Dec. an opportunity of making the same experiment all day; but, some hours after sunset would resume its usual fluidity, which could be done at 45°, when the rest of quicksilver began to melt. An instance of the natural congelation of quicksilver also occurred in Jan. 1781, at Upsala, Sweden, on the 11th Jan. 1781; and on

is observed the same effect of the cold; Bay; when he found that at the point of a mercurial thermometer stood at spirit thermometer at 30°.

**FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, DR BLACK'S METHOD FOR.** Mr Cavendish and Dr Black ed the proper method of obviating the in this subject, which had not been clear- of. Braun. (See § 5.) Dr Black, in a r Hutchins, dated Oct. 5, 1779, gave ng directions for making the experi- accuracy: Provide a few wide and of thin glass, sealed at one end and : other; the wideness of these tubes m one half to 3 quarters of an inch, gth of them about three inches. Put an inch and a half depth of mercury these tubes, and plunging the bulb of meter into the mercury, set the tube ercury and the thermometer in it into mixture, which should be made for e in a common tumbler or water glass:

in making a freezing mixture with spirit of nitre, the quantity of the acid r be so great as to dissolve the whole s, but only enough to reduce it to the of panada. When the mercury in the s thus set in the freezing mixture, it irred gently and frequently with the thermometer; and if the cold be suf- ong, it will congeal by becoming thick like an amalgam. As soon as this is the thermometer should be examined ting it out of the congealing mercury ; no doubt that in every experiment ; with the same mercury, the instru- always point to the same degree, provi- den made and graduated with accuracy."

**FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, MR AEPHON'S METHOD FOR.** Mr Aephus gives the direction for using the tuming spirit of like some of this spirit, cooled as much and put it into a wine glass till it be full, filling it up with snow, and stir- til the mixture become of the consist- p; by which means you obtain, almost nt, the necessary degree of cold for g of quicksilver."

**FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, MR BRAUN'S METHOD FOR.** In the course of his obser- r Braun found, that double aquafortis effectual than spirit of nitre; but with spirit, which seldom brings the mer- than 148°, this metal may be frozen wing manner: Six glasses being filled as usual, and the thermometer put in m, the spirit of nitre was poured upon he mercury would fall no lower in this, meter was removed to the second, and ie third and fourth, in which fourth im- he mercury was usually congealed. Mr arks, that by the mixture of snow and ich froze the mercury, he never was ng thermometers, filled with the most i- d spirit of wine, lower than 148° : cold which will freeze mercury, will spirit of wine; and therefore spirit ther- are the most fit to determine the de-

gree of coldness in the frigorific mixtures, till we can construct solid metallic thermometers with sufficient accuracy. Mr Braun tried the effects of different fluids in his frigorific mixtures: he always found that Glauber's spirit of nitre and double aquafortis were the most powerful; and from a number of experiments made when the temperature of the air was between 21° and 28° of Fahrenheit, he concludes, that spirit of salt pounded upon snow increased the natural cold 36°; spirit of sal ammoniac, 12; oil of vitriol, 42; Glauber's spirit of nitre, 70; aquafortis, 48; simple spirit of nitre, 35; dulcified spirit of vitriol, 24; Hoffman's anodyne liquor, 38; spirit of hartshorn, 12; spirit of sulphur 12; spirit of wine rectified, 24; camphorated spirit, 18; French brandy, 14; and that several kinds of wine increased the natural cold to 7, 8, or 9 degrees.

(10.) **FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, MR CAVENDISH'S APPARATUS FOR, AND MR HUTCHINS'S EXPERIMENTS ON.** The apparatus recommended by Mr Cavendish, and which Mr Hutchins made use of (§ 11.) consisted of a small mercurial thermometer, the bulb of which reached about 2½ inches below the scale, and was inclosed in a glass cylinder swelled at the bottom into a ball, which, when used was filled with quicksilver, so that the bulb of the thermometer was entirely covered with it. If this cylinder be immersed in a freezing mixture till great part of the quicksilver in it is frozen, it is evident that the degree shown at that time by the inclosed thermometer is the precise point at which mercury freezes; for as in this case the ball of the thermometer must be surrounded for some time with quicksilver, part of which is actually frozen, it seems impossible that the thermometer should be sensibly above that point; and while any of the quicksilver in the cylinder remains fluid, it is impossible that it should sink sensibly below it. The diameter of the bulb of the thermometer was rather less than a quarter of an inch; that of the swelled part of the cylinder two thirds; and as it was easy to keep the thermometer constantly in the middle of the cylinder, the thickness of quicksilver betwixt it and the glass could never be much less than the other sixth part of an inch. The bulb of the thermometer was purposely made as small as it conveniently could, to leave a sufficient space between it and the cylinder, without making the swelled part larger than necessary, which would have caused more difficulty in freezing the mercury in it. The first experiment with this apparatus was made on the 15th Dec. 1781; the thermometer had stood the evening before at 18°. A bottle of spiritus nitri fortis was put on the house-top, to cool it to the same temperature. The thermometers made use of had been hung up in the open air for three weeks, to compare their scales. On the morning of the experiment they were about 23° below 0.—In making it, the thermometer of the apparatus was suspended in the bulb of the cylinder by some red worsted wound about the upper part of its stem, to a sufficient thickness, to fill the upper part of its orifice; and a space of near half an inch was left empty between the quicksilver and the worsted. The apparatus was placed in the open air, on the top

of the sort, with only a few deer skins sewed together for a shelter; the snow lay 18 inches deep on the works, and the apparatus was stuck into the snow, to bring it to the temperature of the air. The instruments were afterward placed in three fresh freezing mixtures, in hopes of being able by their means to produce a greater degree of cold, but without effect; nor was any greater cold produced by adding more spirit of nitre. The mercury, however, was very completely frozen, that in the thermometer descending to 448°. On plunging the mercury into the freezing mixture, it descended in less than one minute to 40° below 0. Mr Hutchins made other 7 experiments with various proportions of the mixture, of which we shall only describe the last. His 8th experiment was made with a view to try whether quicksilver would congeal when in contact with the freezing mixture. For this purpose, he did not use the apparatus provided for other experiments, but filled a gallipot made of flint stone (as being thinner than the common sort), containing about an ounce, half full of quicksilver, into which he inserted a mercurial thermometer, employing another as an index. Thus he hoped to determine exactly when the quicksilver was congealed, as he had free access to it at all times, which was not the case when it was inclosed in the cylindrical glass, the worsted wound round the tube of the thermometer to exclude the air being equally effectual in excluding any instrument from being introduced to touch the quicksilver. He then made a kind of skewer, with a flat blunt point, of dried cedar wood, on account of its lightness, which he found would remain in the gelatinous freezing mixture at any depth he chose; but, when inserted into the quicksilver, the great difference betwixt the specific gravity of it and that ponderous fluid, made it always rebound upwards; and by the degree of resistance, he could always know whether it proceeded from fluid or solid metal. At this time, however, the experiment did not succeed; but, at another trial, having employed about  $\frac{1}{2}$ ths of a pound of metal, and let it remain a considerable time immersed in the same mixture which had just now been supposed to fail, he found that part of it was congealed; and on pouring off the fluid part, no less than two thirds remained fixed at the bottom.

(II.) FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, Mr CAVENDISH'S EXPERIMENT ON. An experiment was at last made by Mr Cavendish himself, of which he gives the following account in the *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxxiii. p. 325. Here, speaking of the cold of freezing mixtures, he says, "There is the utmost reason to think that Mr Hutchins would have obtained a greater degree of cold by using a weaker nitrous acid than he did. I found (says he) by adding snow gradually to some of this acid, that the addition of a small quantity produced heat instead of cold; and it was not until so much was added as to increase the heat from 28 to 51°, that the addition of more snow began to produce cold; the quantity of snow required

for this purpose being pretty exactly one quarter of the weight of the spirit of nitre, and the weight of the snow, and air of the room, as well as the acid, being 28°. The reason of this is, a great deal of heat is produced by mixing it with spirit of nitre; and the stronger the acid the greater is the heat produced. Now it appears from this experiment, that before the acid was diluted, the heat produced by its union with the water formed from the melting snow, was greater than the cold produced by the same; it was not until it was diluted by the addition of one quarter of its weight of that substance, that the cold, generated by the latter cause, began to exceed the heat generated by the former. From what has been said, it is evident, that a freezing mixture made with undiluted acid will not generate cold until so much snow is dissolved as to increase its heat from 28 to 51°; so that the greater cold will be produced than would be obtained by mixing the diluted acid heated with snow of the heat of 28°. This method of adding snow gradually is much the best I know, of finding what strength it ought to be in order to produce the greatest effect possible. By means of this acid diluted in the above mentioned proportion, I froze quicksilver in the thermometer called G † by Mr Hutchins, on the Feb. 1781. I did not indeed break the thermometer to examine the state of the quicksilver in; for as it sunk to 110°, it certainly must have been in part frozen; but immediately took it out and put the spirit thermometer in its room, in order to find the cold of the mixture. It sunk to 30°; but by making allowance of the space the tube being not so cold as that in the balance appears, that if it had not been for this cause, it would have sunk to 35° ‡; which is 6° below the point of freezing, and is within one degree of the great a cold as that produced by Mr Hutchins in this experiment the thermometer G sunk to rapidly; and, as far as I could perceive, was stopping at any intermediate point till it came to the above mentioned degree of 110°, where it stuck. The materials used in making the mixture were previously cooled, by means of salt and lime to near 0; the temperature of the air was between 20° and 25°; the quantity of acid was  $4\frac{1}{2}$  oz.; and the glass in which the mixture was made, was surrounded with wool, and placed in a wooden box, to prevent its losing its cold as it would otherwise have done. Some time before this, I made a freezing mixture with spirit of nitre, much stronger than that used in the foregoing experiment, though not quite so strong as the undiluted acid, in which the cold was less intense by  $4\frac{1}{2}$ °. It is true, the temperature of the air was much less cold, namely 35°, but the spirit of nitre was at least as cold, and the snow was much less so. The cold produced by mixing of vitriol, properly diluted with snow, is not so great as that produced by spirit of nitre, though it does not differ from it by so much as 8°. A freezing mixture, prepared with diluted o

† This was a small mercurial thermometer, made by Nairne and Blount, on an ivory scale, and marked every five degrees, and reaching from 215° above, to 250° below the cypher.

‡ This is to be understood of a spirit thermometer, whose 29° = 40° of Fahrenheit's mercurial.

whose specific gravity, at 60° of heat, 642, sunk in the thermometer C to 37°, experiment being tried at the same time, and the same precautions, as the foregoing. It was also found, by adding snow gradually to this acid, as was done by the nitrous acid it was a little, but not much stronger, ought to be, in order to produce the greatest.

**FREEZING OF QUICKSILVER, Mr WALLER'S EXPERIMENTS ON.** See COLD, § 9.

**FREEZING OF VITRIOLIC ACID.** Acids, of those of the mineral kind, powerfully congelate. There is, however, a peculiarity in regard to that of vitriol. M. Chaptal found, that it condensed by the cold of the ice, and the crystals began to melt only 2° of his thermometer; which, if Reaumur's scale, amounts to about 47° of Fahrenheit. The crystals are unctuous from the melting acid, and are warmer than the neighbouring bodies; the prism was that of a prism of six sides, flattened terminated by a pyramid of six sides; but the flat appeared on one end only; on the other, the flat was lost in the general mass. The crystals resulted from an assemblage of six isosceles triangles: the oil when the crystal was melted was brownish black; on redistilling it in a proper apparatus, no peculiar gas came over. M. Chaptal repeated his experiments with the highly condensed acid, but found that it did not freeze; the density of the acid which he thought froze was to the oil, of the usual strength, as from 63 and 65 to 66; and the necessary degree of cold about 19° of Fahrenheit. Nitrolic acid melted will not crystallize again at the same degree of cold. M. Moric, a chemist and manufacturer of oil of vitriol at Hadimont Vervier, in Limbourg, attributes this peculiarity to the addition of nitrous air. The oil of vitriol is usually separated from sulphur by distilling it in close vessels; and the air is supplied by adding to the sulphur a little nitre. He found that by mixing the acid, capable of being condensed, with water, or employing it for other purposes, orange-coloured fumes, and the smell of true nitrous acid, were very evident. This gas was destroyed, no degree of cold could congelate the acid, whatever was its degree of concentration; and the congelation was generally observed immediately after the process by which the acid was obtained. Mr Macquer repeats in the 2d edition of his *Chemical Dictionary*, under **VITRIOLIC ACID**, that the duke d'Ayen observed the congelation of concentrated vitriolic acid, which had been exposed to a cold expressed by 13° or 14° below 0 on Reaumur's thermometer; but that mixtures, consisting of one part of the above mentioned concentrated acid, to 10 or more parts of water, could not be congelated by the cold to which he exposed them, till he diluted the acid so much that its density was that of water as 104½ to 96; in which latter case it is probable that the water was only frozen, and the acid in diluted solutions of salts. Similar experiments were made by M. de Morveau, with equal success. Having produced an indurated mass by pouring spirit of nitre on pounded

ice, he congelated a part of some vitriolic acid which had been previously concentrated; but he observed, that though a very intense cold had been made use of to congelate the acid at first, it nevertheless remained congelated in much smaller degrees of cold, and that it thawed very slowly. This coincides with the observations of M. Chaptal; though the latter observes, that there is some difference between strong oil of vitriol lowered with water, and that produced by a given strength by rectification. The latter always has some colour; and it will not dissolve indigo in such a manner as to carry the colour into stuff, though the stronger oil, diluted to the same degree, succeeds very well. Some observations were also made by Mr M'Nab at Hudson's Bay, an account of which is given in the *Phil. Trans.* for 1786, by Mr Cavendish. From them it appears, that a vitriolic acid, whose specific gravity was to that of water as 184½ to 1000, froze when exposed to a cold of 15° of Fahrenheit's scale; that another more diluted vitriolic acid, consisting of 629 parts of the former concentrated acid, and 351 parts of water, congelated in a temperature of 36°; and that, when farther diluted, it was capable of sustaining a much greater degree of cold without freezing at all. In these experiments, as well as in those of Mr Morveau, it appeared that the whole of the acid did not congelate, but that part of it retained its fluidity; and on examining the strength of that which remained fluid, Mr Cavendish found that there was very little difference between it and the other; whence he was led to suppose, that the reason of this congelation does not arise from any difference in strength, but on some less obvious quality, and such as constitutes the difference between common and icy oil of vitriol. In all the experiments hitherto made, however, Mr Cavendish had found some uncertainty in determining the point of easiest freezing; neither could he determine whether the cold necessary for congelation does not increase without any limitation in proportion to the strength of the acid. A new set of experiments were therefore made by Mr Keir to determine this point, which our room permits us not to quote; but from which Mr Keir draws the following inferences: "1. That the vitriolic acid has a point of easiest freezing, and that this is when its specific gravity is to that of water as 178½ to 1000. 2. That the greater or less disposition to congelation does not depend on any other circumstance than the strength of the acid. 3. That the freezing and thawing degree of the most congelable acid is about 45° of Fahrenheit's scale. It is, however, to be observed, that this degree is inferred from the temperature indicated by the thermometers immersed in the freezing and thawing acids; but the congelation of the fluid acid could never be accomplished without exposing it to a greater degree of cold, either by exposing it to the air in frosty weather, or to the cold of melting snow. 4. Like water, this acid possesses the property of retaining its fluidity when cooled several degrees below the freezing point; and of rising suddenly to it when its congelation is promoted by agitation, or by contact even with a warmer thermometer. 5. That, like water and other congelable fluids, the vitriolic

... of the spring of an ash tree, o quarters of a pound, the ice on whi 16 pounds. Some were frighted wi in the air; till they discerned it was th icy boughs, dashed against each other.' observes, that there was no considerat served on the ground during the who he concludes, that a frost may be very dangerous on the tops of some hills: while in other places it keeps at feet distant above the ground, rivers, and may wander about very furious in ces, and remains in others not far off. was followed by glowing heats, and a forwardness of flowers and fruits.

(16.) FREEZING WYTH. See C15: N° 1.

FREEZZLAND PEAK, a cape on S land, in the South Sea. Lon. 27. o. V 2. S.

FREGOSO, Baptist, Doge of Ven 1478, was author of several works: 1. Life of Pope Martin V; 2. A Treatise ed Ladies, in Latin; 3. On Memorabi and 4. Against Love, both in Italian.

FREHER, Muquard, a learned G thor, born at Aufburg in 1765. He der Cajacins in France, and in his 23 made professor at law, at Heidelberg afterwards made vice-president of eun deric IV. elector Palatine, who sent in courts as his ambassador. He wrote n on antiquities, law and history, though 1691, aged only 27.

FREIDBERG, a town of Austria, 7 of lbs.

FREIDNAM, a town of Germany, city of Hesse, 7 miles W. of R. de. 10.

FRIEDLAND, a town of Spau, 47 n S. of B.

FRIEDENSPHAIN, a town of Germi d. 10 miles S. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Saxony, 10 n. of Leipzig.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

FRIEDRICH, a town of Prussia, 12 n. of Berlin.

... of the spring of an ash tree, o quarters of a pound, the ice on whi 16 pounds. Some were frighted wi in the air; till they discerned it was th icy boughs, dashed against each other.' observes, that there was no considerat served on the ground during the who he concludes, that a frost may be very dangerous on the tops of some hills: while in other places it keeps at feet distant above the ground, rivers, and may wander about very furious in ces, and remains in others not far off. was followed by glowing heats, and a forwardness of flowers and fruits.

as the burthen; to be the thing with  
which is freighted.—

I would  
sink the sea within the earth, or ere  
I'd sink the good ship so have swallow'd, and  
leaving souls within her. *Shak. Temp.*  
KILGATER. *n. f.* [*fretteur*, French.] He  
is a vessel.

US, John Thomas, a learned German,  
Leyden, in the 16th century. He studied  
Latin and Remus, and was made rector of  
the school at Altorf in 1575. He died at Basil in  
1600. He wrote, 1. *Questiones Geometricæ et  
Arithmeticæ*: 2. *Logica Consultorum*: 3. A Latin  
translation of Frobenius's voyages: 4. Notes, his-  
torical, political, &c. on Cicero's Orations.

NE, a town of France, in the dep. of  
the Mayenne: 20 miles W. of Angers.

ERSHEIM, a town of Germany, in the  
electorate of the Rhine, taken by the French in  
1794, and now included in the French republic,  
of the Mont Tonnerre. It is 4 miles NNE.

D, John, a learned English physician,  
born at Croton, in Northamptonshire,  
in 1696, he published, in conjunction  
with Foulkes, an edition of two Greek o-  
rations of Æschines against Ctesiphon, and  
one of *de Corona*, with a new Latin ver-  
sion, in 1699, he wrote a letter to Dr Sloane  
concerning an *Hydrocephalus*, published in the  
*Transactions*, and another letter in Latin to  
a gentleman, *De spasmi variolæ historia*,  
and the same Transactions. In 1703, a  
dissertation appeared; which gained him  
a fellowship in the university of Oxford. In  
1704, he was chosen professor of anatomy  
in the university of Oxford. In 1705,  
attended the earl of Peterborough to  
physician to the army there; and upon  
his return in 1707, published an account of the  
disease. In 1709, he published his *Cle-  
renia*. In 1712, he attended the duke of  
Burgundy as his physician. In 1716,  
elected a fellow of the college of physi-  
cians in London. This year he published the 1st  
edition of his *Commentary on Fevers*, written by him-  
self M. P. for Launceston in Cornwall in  
1717, he distinguished himself by his opposi-  
tion to the ministry. In March 1722, he was com-  
mitted to the tower on a charge of high treason;  
he was under confinement, he wrote a  
letter to Dr Mead, *De quibusdam variolarum  
speciebus*, and began his *History of Physic*, the first  
edition of which was published in 1725, and the 2d  
in 1728. Upon the accession of George II, he  
was appointed physician to the queen, who showed  
the highest esteem for him. He died at Lon-  
don in 1733. His works were published together  
at London, in folio, in 1733, and dedica-  
ted to the queen.

DORFF, a town of Germany in Auf-  
spitz: 10 miles SE. of Tulln.

ERSHEIM, a town of Germany, lately in  
the electorate of the Rhine, now included in the  
French republic, of Mount Tonnerre: 10  
miles W. of Manheim.

SEMIUS, John, a learned and elegant  
scholar.

— PART I.

author, born at Ulm in 1608. He made supple-  
ments to Livy, Tacitus, and Q. Curtius, in 68  
books, printed at Strasburg in 1664. He wrote  
likewise Notes upon Q. Curtius, Florus, Tacitus,  
and some other Latin classics: and died in  
1660. He was professor at Upsall and Heildelberg.

FREIRE DE ANDRADE, Hyacinth, a Portu-  
guese author, born at Beja, in 1597. He was ab-  
bot of St Mary de Chins, and wrote a life of John  
de Castro, which is much esteemed. He also  
wrote some poems in the Portuguese tongue, and  
died at Lisbon, in 1657.

FREISACH. See FRIESACH, N° 1.

FREISCHBACH, a town of Germany, in the  
late Palatinate of the Rhine, taken by the French  
in 1794, and now included in the French republic  
and dep. of Mount Tonnerre. It is 6 miles ENE.  
of Landau.

FREISENGEN. See FREYSINGEN, N° 1, 2.

FREITS. See FREATS.

FREJULS, or } A town of France, in the dep.  
FREJUS, } of Var, anciently called FO-  
RUM JULIUM, or JULIUM. See FORUM, § V, N°  
8. It was a flourishing sea port town in the  
time of Julius Cæsar. An amphitheatre, statues,  
inscriptions, and other relics of antiquity are still  
to be seen in it. It was the birth place of Julius  
Agricola. It is seated near the Argens, 40 miles  
NE. of Toulon. Lon. 6. 50. E. Lat. 43. 23. N.

FREIXEL, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of  
Tras-os-Montes, 15 miles S. of Meraoela.

FREIXEIRA, a town of Portugal, in the prov.  
of Entre-Duero-e-Minho; 7½ miles NE. of Ama-  
rante.

FREKENHAM, 2 English villages: 1. in Nor-  
folk; on the Bure: 2. in Suffolk, near Mildenhall.

FREMINGTON, 2 small towns: 1. in De-  
vonshire, W. of Barnstaple: 2. in Yorkshire, near  
Richmond.

\* FREN. *n. f.* A stranger. An old word  
wholly forgotten here; but retained in Scotland.  
*Beattie.*—

But now from me his madding mind did part,  
And wooes the widow's daughter of the glen;  
And now fair Rosalind hath bred his heart.

So now his friend is changed for a fren. *Spens.*

FRENAYE, two towns of France, in the dep.  
of Sarthe: 1. six miles E. of Alençon: 2. ci-devant  
*Le Vicomte*: 9 miles SSW. of Alençon. Lon. 17.  
41. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 17. N.

(1.) FRENCH. *adj.* belonging to France.

(2.) FRENCH, *n. f.* the citizens of France.

(3.) FRENCH, in geography, a river of the Uni-  
ted States, in Massachusetts, which rises from a  
pond in Worcester county, and runs into the  
Quinebaug in Connecticut; so named from the  
French Protestants, who settled on its banks, af-  
ter the revocation of the Edict of Nantz, in 1685.

(4.) FRENCH BEAN, in botany. See PHASEO-  
LUS.

(5.) FRENCH BROAD, a navigable river of Ten-  
nessee, from 400 to 500 yards broad, formed by  
several head waters that rise in N Carolina, on  
the SE. of the Great Iron and Bald Mountains.  
After running 56 miles NW. between these moun-  
tains, and 25 miles N. it joins the Holston 11  
miles above Knoxville.

(6.) \* FRENCH CHALK. *n. f.* French chalk is an  
indurated

Indurated clay, extremely dense, of a smooth glossy surface, and soft and unctuous to the touch; of a greyish white colour, variegated with a dusky green. *Hill.*—*French chalk* is unctuous to the touch, as steatites is, but harder, and nearer approaching the consistence of stone. *Woodward.*

(7.) FRENCH CREEK, a river of N. America, the N. head water of the ALLEGANY, into which it falls on the N. side of Fort Franklin, 80 miles N.E. of Pittsburg.

(8.) FRENCH HONEY-SUCKLE. See HEDYSARUM.

(9.) FRENCH LANGUAGE, the language now spoken in France, which, like the English, is not an original language, but a medley of several. Those that prevail most, and are the basis of it, are, 1. The Celtic; whether that were a particular language itself, or whether it were only a dialect of the Gothic, as spoke in the West and North: 2. The Latin, which the Romans carried with them into Gaul, when they conquered it: And, 3. The Teutonic, or that dialect of the Teutonic spoken by the FRANKS, when they passed the Rhine, and established themselves in Gaul. Of these three languages, in the space of about 1300 years, was the modern French gradually formed. Its progress was very slow. Both the Italian and Spanish were regular languages long before the French. Pasquier observes, it was under Philip of Valois that the French tongue first began to be polished; and that, in the register of the chamber of accounts of that time, there is a purity almost equal to that of the present age. However, the French was still very imperfect till the reign of Francis I. The custom of speaking Latin at the bar, and of writing the public acts and instruments of the courts of justice in that language, had made the French overlook their own language. The preceding ages had been remarkable for their ignorance, owing, in a great measure, to the long and calamitous wars which France had been engaged in: whence the French nobility deemed ignorance a kind of merit; and the generals did not regard whether they wrote and talked politely or not, provided they could fight well. But Francis I. restored learning, and changed the face of affairs; and after his time, Henry Stevens printed his book, *De la Precellence du Langage François*. The change was become very conspicuous at the end of the 16th century; and under Henry IV, Amyot, Coeffeteau, and Malherbe, contributed towards bringing it to perfection; which Cardinal Richelieu completed, by the establishment of the French academy; a society of which the most distinguished persons in church and state have been members. Nor did the long reign of Lewis XIV. contribute little to the improvement of the language; his taste for the fine arts rendered his court the politest in Europe. Wit and magnificence lent to vice; and his generals might have disputed with the Greeks, Romans, &c. the glory of writing well, if they could not that of fighting. From the court, the elegance and purity of the language soon spread itself into the provinces; where there are now very few who do not write and speak good French. One character of the French language is, that it is natural and easy. The words are ranged in it

much in the same order as the ideas in which it differs exceedingly from the Latin, where the inversion of the natural words is reputed a beauty. The Helles even the French in this point, but of it in copiousness and variety. But analogy of grammar, and the simplicity with the moods of verbs are formed, has the advantage not only over the over all the known languages in the the peculiar expressions and idioms of are sometimes so quaint and extraor it loses a good deal of the advantage grammatical simplicity gives it over the French has few compound words, which differs widely from the Greek, High English. This the French authors are to be a great disadvantage; the Greek deriving a great part of their force from the composition of words, and expressing that in one founding word, French cannot express but by a periphrastic diminutives in the French are as few as pounds, the greatest part of those in lost their diminutive signification. It is chiefly admired for its justness, purity and flexibility. It is the most universal language in Europe. The policy of courts has rendered it necessary for the of princes, &c. and the discoveries and ment-made by the French in arts have had the same effect among the in Germany, and elsewhere, the princesses of distinction value themselves on speaking French; and in several courts the French is almost as much used as the in the country.

(10.) FRENCH REPUBLIC. See FRANCE 59, 61, 65; and REPUBLIC. Under we mean here only to give a sketch of extent of the territory of the republic, been greatly increased since the commencement of the present war, in consequence of its conquests and annexations. The cede of Savoy, the county of Nice, and ty of Monaco; the whole Belgic comprehending the countries of Liege, Stav Malméd, Hainault, Tournetais, Flabant, Namur, Aultrian Gueldres, Macloo, Limburg, and Luxemburg; and territories on the left, or W. bank of comprehending those of Mœurs, Cleveduchies of Juliers, Arreberg, and D part of the electorates of Cologne, Tre and the Palatinate of the Rhine; the Saarbruck, the bishopric of Worms, together with the ci-devant republic are now annexed to the French rep divided into the following 18 de viz. Mount Blanc, Maritime Alps, the Scheldt, the Lys, Jemappes, F bre and Meuse, the Ourte, the Lov the two Nethes, the Roer, the Eiffel, and Moselle, the Rhine and Nahe, the Moselle, Mount Tonnerre, and Lake I that the republic now consists of 101 d in all. Besides these extensive terri county of Venaisin, and the principa



and Mountbelaïrd, (which, though insular France, were considered as no part of the monarchy.) are also now included public. Whether the French government may be able to retain all these important acquisitions, the future events will, and the definitive treaty of peace will show. At present (July 1800) the total territory of the republic, exclusive of Corsica, is from 5° 5' Lon. W. to 7° 47' E. 42° 30' to 51° 0' Lat. N.

**RENCH RIVER**, a river of Upper Canada, rises from Lake Huron, to Lake Ni-

**RANCH TOWN**, a town of Maryland, in 1770 on the Elk, 1 mile S. of Elktown.

**RAY**, a village in Gloucestershire.

**REHURZE**, a town of Ireland in Kil-

**RENCHIFY**, *v. a.* [from *French*.] To imitate the manners of France; to make a country disliked nothing more in king Edward's time than that he was *Frenchified*; noted the desire of foreign language then broken of bringing in foreign powers, and happened. *Comden*.—

Has he familiarly disliked  
How scarce, or said your doublet  
Exactly *Frenchified*? *As you like it*.

**RENCHMAN'S BAY**, a bay on the S. maica, between Great Pedro and Starve-

**RENCHMAN'S BAY**, a bay of the United States on the coast of Lincoln county, in the distance, between Mount Desert Island and Point. Lon. 68. 1. W. Lat. 44. 20. N. **REH**, a river of Germany in the circle of the Rhine, which runs into the Ergeltz, &c.

**REH**, a town of France, in the department of Maine, 4 miles ESE. of Bouillon.

**REH**, *adj.* [*freneticque*, French; generally therefore written *phrenetic*.] Frenzied.—

He himself impotent,  
Of his *frenetic* malady. *Daniel*.

**REH**, a lake of N. America in New York, St John's River runs through it.

**REH**, a town of France, in the department of Oise, 7 miles SW. of Compiègne.

**REH**, a town of Westphalia, in the department of Bentheim, 3 miles NNW. of Nor-

**RENZY**, *n. f.* [*epireus*; *phrenitis*, Lat. *enatis*; *phrenetis*, *phrenzy*, or *frenzy*.] Distraction of mind; alienation of mind; any violent passion approaching to that knave, Ford, hath the finest mad o'isy in him that ever governed *frenzy*.

*Wives*.—  
Fortitude is seen in great exploits,  
Ice warrants, and that wildon guides:  
Tow'ring *frenzy* and distraction. *Cato*.  
It is a disposition of the body induceth  
Which disturbs all the operations of the  
Senses, a lethargy or *frenzy*: this  
Exceeds our narrow faculties. *Bentley*.  
**REH**. See MEDICINE & PHRENITIS.

\* **FREQUENCY**, *n. f.* [*frequentia*, Fr. *frequentia*, Latin.] Crowd; concourse; assembly.—

The *frequency* of degree  
From high to low throughout. *Shak. Timon*.  
He, in full *frequency* bright

Of angels, thus to Gabriel smiling spake. *Milt.*

\* **FREQUENCY**, *n. f.* [*frequentia*, Latin.] 1. Common occurrence; the condition of being often seen or done.—Should a miracle be indulged to one, others would think themselves equally intitled to it; and if indulged to many, it would no longer have the effect of a miracle; its force and influence would be lost by the *frequency* of it. *Afterbury*. 2. Concourse; full assembly.—

Thou can'st erewhile into this senate: who  
Of such a *frequency*, to many friends

And kindred thou hast here, seduced thee? *Jonf.*

\* **FREQUENT**, *adj.* [*frequent*, Fr. *frequent*, Latin.] 2. Often done; often seen; often occurring.—The *frequent* these times are, the better.

*Duty of Man*.—  
An ancient and imperial city falls;  
The streets are fill'd with *frequent* funerals.

*Dryden's Æneid*.  
Frequent fereses shall besiege your gates. *Pope*.

2. Used often to practise any thing.—The Christians of the first times were generally *frequent* in the practice of it. *Duty of Man*—Every man thinks he may pretend to any employment, provided he has been loud and *frequent* in declaring himself hearty for the government. *Swift*. 3. Full of concourse.—

*Frequent* and full. *Milton*.  
\* **To FREQUENT**, *v. a.* [*frequentio*, Latin; *frequentier*, French.] To visit often; to be much in any place; to resort often to.—

They in latter day,  
Finding in it fit ports for silbers trade,  
'Gan more the time *frequent*, and further to invade.

—There were synagogues for men to resort unto;  
Our Saviour himself and his apostles *frequent*  
Them. *Hooker*.—

This fellow here, this thy creature,  
By night *frequent* my house. *Shak. Timon*.

—At that time this land was known and *frequent*  
ed by the ships and vessels. *Bacon*.—

With tears  
Wat'ring the ground, and with our sighs the air  
*Frequenting*, sent from hearts contrite, in sign  
Of sorrow unteign'd, and humiliation meek.

*Milton*.  
To serve my friends, the senate I *frequent*;  
And there what I before digested, vent. *Dennis*.

—That he *frequent*ed the court of Augustus, and was well received in it, is most undoubted. *Dryd.*

\* **FREQUENTABLE**, *adj.* [from *frequent*.] Conversable; accessible. A word not new itself, but not inelegant.—While youth lasted in him, the exercises of that age and his humour, not yet fully discovered, made him somewhat the more *frequentable* and less dangerous. *Sidney*.

\* **FREQUENTATIVE**, *adj.* [*frequentativus*, Fr. *frequentativus*, Lat.] A grammatical term applied to verbs signifying the frequent repetition of an action.

\* **FREQUENTER**, *n. f.* [from *frequent*.] One who often resorts to any place.—Petitions under

seen but some light skirmishes, in their vain bravery made light account of the Turks. *Knolles's Hist. of the Turks.*

(2.) FRESHWATER, in geography a river of Wales in Pembrokehire, which runs into the Sea, and forms a bay, 6 miles SE. of Pembroke Haven.

(3.) FRESHWATER-BAY, a bay in the Straits of Magellan. Lon. 72. 13. W. Lat. 53. 27. N.

(4.) FRESHWATER BAY, a bay on the E. coast of Newfoundland. Lon. 53. 30. W. Lat. 49. 10. N.

(5.) FRESHWATER BAY, a bay on the W. coast of the isle of Wight. Lon. 1. 31. W. Lat. 50. 37. N.

(1.) FRESNE, Charles DE, Sieur DU CANGE, one of the most learned writers of his time, was born at Amiens in 1610, and studied at the Jesuits college in that city. Afterwards he studied the law at Orleans, and gained great reputation by his works; among which are, 1. The history of Constantinople under the French emperors. 2. John Cinnamus's History of the affairs of John and Manuel Comnenus, in Greek and Latin, with historical and philological notes. 3. *Glossarium ad Scriptores medie & infime Latinitatis*: 6 vols folio. 4. A Greek Glossary, consisting of curious passages from rare MSS. 2 vols folio. He died in 1688, aged 78. Lewis XIV settled pensions on his 4 children.

(2.) FRESNE, a town of France, in the dept. of the Meuse; 10½ miles SE. of Verdun, and 12 NNE. of St Mihiel.

(3.) FRESNE ST MEMETZ, a town of France, in the dept. of Upper Saone; 12 miles SE. of Gray, and 12 SW. of Vesoul.

FRESNEAU, a town of France, in the dept. of Oise; 10 miles S. of Beauvais.

(1.) FRESNES, a town of France, in the dept. of Calvados, 12 miles S. of Vire.

(2.) FRESNES, a town of France, in the dept. of the Straits of Calais; 7½ miles NE. of Arras.

FRESNILLO, a town of Mexico, in the prov. of Zacatecas, 40 miles N. of Zacatecas.

FRESNO, 2 towns of Spain: 1. in Old Castile, 5 miles S. of Borgo d'Oima: 2. in Andalusia, 20 miles N. of Cordova.

(1.) FRESNOY, Charles Alphonso DU, an excellent poet and painter, born at Paris in 1611. He was instructed by Perrier and Simon Vouet in painting, but as soon as he fix'd himself at Rome, he made the works of Titian his models. He was, however, more celebrated as a poet than as a painter; and is better known by his incomparable poem *De arte graphica*, than by his performances on the canvass. He bestowed so much pains on it, that he died in 1665, before it was published. It was printed afterward with a French prose translation and notes, by M. de Piles; and was translated into English by Mr Dryden, who prefixed an original preface with a parallel between painting and poetry.

(2.) FRESNOY, a town of France, in the dept. of Aisne; 7 miles SW. of Compiègne.

FRESQUEL, a river of France, which runs into the Aude, near Carcassone.

FRESSELINES, a town of France, in the dept. of Craue, on the Craue, 15 m. NNW. of Gueret.

FRESSEVILLE, a town of France, in the dept. of Somme; 10 miles W. of Abbe

FRESSIN, a town of France, in the Straits of Calais, 4½ miles N. of H

FRESTA, a town of Sweden, in the dept. of Upland, 21 miles SE. of Upsal.

(1.) FRESWICK, a river of Scotland, which runs into the Sea near W

(3.) FRESWICK, a town of England, in the county of York.

(1.) \* FRET. *n. f.* [Of this word the etymology is very doubtful: some derive it from the verb *to eat*; others from *fretan*, to devour; *Skinner* more probably from the French *freticler*: perhaps it comes from the Latin *fretum*.] 1. A narrow strait of the sea, where the water by its passage is always rough.—Euripus generally signifies a strait, *fret*, or channel of the sea, between two shores. *Brown*. 2. Any astringent liquours by fermentation, confinement, &c.—Of this river the surface is covered with froth and bubbles; for it runs long up and is still breaking against the stones through its passage. *Addison on Italy*.—The fretting fever, if well governed, like wine upon the stone, discharges itself of heterogeneous matter. 3. That stop of the musical instrument which causes or regulates the vibrations of the string. It requireth good winding of a string will make any note; and, in the top of the higher they go, the less distance between the frets. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

The harp

Had work, and rested not: the soft  
And dulcimer, all organs of sweet it  
All founds on fret by string or gold  
Temper'd soft tunings, intermix'd  
Choral or unison. *Milton's Pa*

—They are fitted to answer the modulation of harmony: two or three pipes to adorn the church organ, or to all the strings and lute. *Grew's Conf. Sac.* 4. Work rising, or herances.—The frets of houses, and figures, please; whereas unequal figures deformities. *Bacon's Natural History*.—delight in a prospect well laid out, and with fields and meadows, woods and the curious fret works of rocks and groves. 5. Agitation of the mind; commotion; temper; passion.—

Calmness is great advantage: he that  
Another chase, may warm him at his  
Mark all his wand'rings, and enjoy  
As cunning tencers suffer heat to  
The incredulous Phœac, having y  
Drank but one round, reply'd in toil

You, too weak, the slightest loss  
Are on the fret of passion, boil and

Yet then did Dennis rave in fury  
I never answer'd; I was not in debt

(2.) FRET, or FRETTE, in architecture, a kind of knot or ornament, consisting of two lists or small fillets variously interwoven, and running at parallel distance to their breadth.

in heraldry, a bearing composed of fess and variously interlaced. Some see *lover's knot*. See HERALDRY.

in music, (§ 1, def. 3.) a kind of instruments, particularly bass viols. Frets consist of strings tied round the instrument, at certain distances, within and such notes are to be found.

FRET. v. a. [from the noun.] 1. To fret by external impulse or action.— as well forbid the mountain pines their high tops, and to make a noise they are fretted with the gulls of heav'n.

*Shakespeare.*

away by rubbing.—

up them still upon one place,

have fretted us a pair of graves

in earth. *Shakespeare's Rich. II.*

banks of rivers, with the washing of the

we were divers times fretted out big

id. *Abbot*.—Before I ground the object

the pitch, I always ground the potty on

concave copper, 'till it had done

off; because, if the particles of the

not made to stick fast in the pitch, they

rolling up and down, grate and fret

metal, and fill it full of little holes.

*pitch*. 3. To hurt by attrition.—

*Antony*

and dejected; and, by starts,

if fortunes give him hope and fear

he has and has not.

*Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*

to; to eat away.—It is fret inward,

and bare within or without. *Lev. xiii. 55.*

useful husband, plowing up his ground,

all fret with rust, both pikes and

his,

thy helms under his harrow found.

*Hakeswill.*

into raised work.—

Nor did there want

or freeze, with bossy sculptures grav'n;

was fretted gold. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

gate; to diversify.—

Yon grey lines,

the clouds, are messengers of day.

*Shak. Julius Cesar.*

to angry; to vex.—

rather part with Mary and with Ruth

you hast; and they that over-ween,

by growing virtues fret their spleen,

never find in thee, but pity and truth.

*Milton.*

how hast fretted me in all these things,

will recompence thy way upon thine

xvi. 43.—Such an expectation, cries

never come to pass: therefore I'll even

and go and fret myself. *Collier*.—In-

friends fret and gall more, and the

them is not so easily obliterated. *Arb.*

*Bull.*

FRET. v. n. 1. To be in commotion;

sed.—No benefits whatsoever shall ever

say that diabolical rancour, that frets

its in some hellish breaths, but that it

is in slander and invective. *South*.—

Th' adjoining brook, that purls along  
The vocal grave, now fretting o'er a rock,  
Now scarcely moving through a reedy pool.

*Thomf. Summ.*

2. To be worn away; to be corroded.—Take a piece of glove's leather that is very thin, and put your gold therein, with sal armoniack, binding it close, and then hang it up: the sal armoniack will fret away, and the gold remain behind. *Peacock on Drawing*.—3. To make way by attrition or corrosion.—These do but indeed scrape off the exuberances, or fret into the wood, and therefore they are very seldom used to soft wood. *Moxon's Mech. Exer.*—It inflamed and swelled very much; many wheals arose, and fretted one into another with great excoriation. *Witman*. 4. To be angry; to be peevish; to vex himself.—They trouble themselves with fretting at the ignorance of such as withstand them in their opinion. *Hooker*.—We are in a fretting mind at the church of Rome, and with angry disposition enter into cogitation.

*Hooker*.—  
Helpless, what may it boot  
To fret for anger, or for grief to moan? *P. Q.*  
Their wounded steeds  
Fret fetlock deep in gore, and with wild rage  
Yerk out their armed heels at their dead masters.

*Shak. Henry V.*

Be lion-mettled, proud, and take no care

Who chafes, who frets, or where conspirers

are. *Shak. Macb.*

—His heart fretteth against the Lord. *Prov. xix. 3.*  
*Rudibras fretting*

Conquest should be so long a-getting,

Drew up his force. *Rudibras.*

He swells with wrath, he makes outrageous

moan,

He frets, he fumes, he stares, he stamps the

ground. *Dryden.*

How should I fret to mangle ev'ry line,

In reverence to the sins of thirty-nine. *Pope.*

FRETEVAL, a town of France, in the dep. of Loire and Cher, 6 miles NE of Vendome, and 6 N. of Blois.

\* FRETFUL, *adj.* [from fret.] Angry; peevish; in a state of vexation.—

Thy knotty and combined locks to part,

And each particular hair to stand on end,

Like quills upon the fretful porcupine.

*Shak. Hamlet.*

Where's the king?

—Contending with the fretful elements;

Bids the wind blow the earth into the sea.

*Shak. K. Lear.*

—They are extremely fretful and peevish, never well at rest; but always calling for this or that, or changing their posture of lying or sitting. *Har.*

Are you positive and fretful;

Heedless, inconstant, forgetful? *Swift.*

\* FRETFULLY, *adv.* [from fretful.] Peevishly.

\* FRETFULNESS, *n. s.* [from fretful.] Passion; peevishness.

FRETIFLUX, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, 3 miles S. of Calais.

FRETTON, a town of England, in Norfolk.

FRETOY, a town of France, in the department of the Oise, 5 miles NW. of Nogon.

(1.) FRETTS,

(1.) **FRETTS**, *n. f.* in mineralogy, a term used by miners to express the worn side of the banks of the rivers in mine countries, where they search for the thoad stones or grewts waiked down from the hills, in order from thence to trace out the running of the thoad up to the mine.

(2.) **FRETTS**, **FREATS**, or **FREITS**. See **FREATS**.  
\* **FRETTY**. *adj.* [from *fret*.] Adorned with raised work.

**FRET-WORK**, work adorned with frets. It is sometimes used to fill up and enrich flat empty spaces; but it is mostly practised in roofs, which are fretted over with plaster work.

**FREUDENBERG**, the name of 3 towns of Germany: viz. 1. in the circle of Bavaria, and Up. Palatinate, 4 miles E. of Amberg; 2. in that of Franconia, and county of Wertheim, on the Main, 8 miles N. of Wertheim, and 28 NE. of Heidelberg; 3. in Westphalia, in Nassau-Siegen, 5 miles WNW. of Siegen.

**FREUDENSTADT**, a fortified town of Suabia, with a citadel, in the duchy of Wirtemberg; founded in 1600, as an asylum for the persecuted German Protestants. It is seated in the Black Forest, 24 miles SE. of Straßburg, and 36 SW. of Stuttgart. A part of the French army, under Gen. Jourdan, were posted here, on the 7th April 1799, when they attacked the Austrians under the Archduke Charles, but were forced to retreat. Lon. 26. 0. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 23. N.

(1.) **FREUDENTHAL**, a town of Silesia, in Troppau, famous for fine linen and good horses; 11 m. SW. of Jagendorf, and 19 W. of Troppau.

(2.) **FREUDENTHAL**, or **BISTRA**, a village of Carniola, seated near the Falsritz, 5 miles N. of Circuitz.

**FREVENSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 3 miles NE. of Windisch Weitritz.

**FREVENT**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais; 7½ miles S. of St Pol, and 6 W. of Arras.

**FREVILLE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine, 4½ miles NE. of Candebeec.

**FREUNDSBERG**, a town of Germany in the Tyrolse, 2 miles E. of Schwatz.

**FREUNDSDIEM**, a town of Germany, in the Tyrolse, 24 miles W. of Innsbruck.

**FREYA**, **FRIA**, or **FREGGA**, the Venus of the Saxons. See **FREA**. The following German towns appear to have been named from here:

**FREYBERG** or **FRIEBERG**, a town of Up. Saxony in the margraviate of Meissen, on the Muldaw; containing 6 churches and about 2000 houses. The environs abound with mines of silver, copper, lead, and tin, which produce about 10,000 rix-dollars annually. It is 18 miles SSW. of Meissen, and 19 WSW. of Dresden. Lon. 31. 1. E. of Ferro. Lat. 50. 59. N.

**FREYBERG** or **PEINER**, a town of Moravia, 28 miles ENE. of Párau, and 36 E. of Olmutz.

(1.) **FREYBERG**, a town of Silesia, in Schweidnitz, near the Pommitz, 7 miles W. of Schweidnitz.

(2.) **FREYBERG**, or **FRIEBURG**, a town of Up. Saxony, 15 miles S. of Hildr, and 4 NNW. of Naumburg.

(3.) **FREYBERG**. See **FRIEBURG**. N. 1, 2.

**FREYENBERG**, a territory of the Helvetic

republic, surrounded by the late cantons rich, Bern, Lucerne and Zug; ancient *Rori* and *Wuggenthal*. The Swiss to Count Hapsburg in 1415. It is 24 and 12 broad; and contains about 20,

**FREYENSTADT**, a town of Bavar Schwarzach; 20 miles SE of Nuremb NW. of Ratibon. Lon. 29. 8. E. of Ferro. 49. 9. N.

**FREYENSTEIN**, a town of Upper miles SE. of Meyenburg.

**FREYENTHURN**, a town of Carnic Kulp, 7 miles S. of Rudolfswoth.

**FREYENWALD**, a town of Brandenb Oder. The natives export corn, b fish, alum, &c. It lies 24 miles NW. and 32 NE. of Berlin.

**FREYHAN**, a town of Silesia, in Oel

**FREYHEIL**, a town of Bohemia, in of Koniggratz, 6 miles NW. of Frat

**FREYHOFF**, a town of Carniola, on 7 miles SW. of Landstrafs.

**FREYHUNG**, a town of Bavaria, in 10 miles NE. of Sulzbach, and 11 N. of

**FREYLA**, a town of Spain, in Gra

**FREYLING**, a town of Austria, 4 1 of Esserling.

(1.) **FREYINGEN**, or **FRIESINGEN**, a small principality of Germany in B between Munich and Landshut. It co the counties of Ismaning and Werd the lordship of Burgkrain.

(2.) **FREYSINGEN**, the capital of bishopric. See **FRIESINGEN**, N. 2.

(1.) **FREYSTADT**, or **FREUSTADT**, Austria, 82 miles W. of Vienna.

(2.) **FREYSTADT**, a town of Prussia land, 80 miles SW. of Konigsberg.

(3, 4.) **FREYSTADT**; 2 towns of Si the principality of Glogau, 14 miles N 2. in that of Teschen, 7 miles, NNW. of

**FREYSTATTL**, a town and castle of on the Waag, 2 miles NE. of Leopold

**FREYSTETT**, or **FREYSTAETT**, a to many in the circle of the Upper Rhin NW. of Darmstadt.

**FREYUNG**, a town of Bavaria, in th of Passau, 14 miles N. of Passau.

**FREYVALDE**, 2 towns of Silesia: 1. cipality of Grotkau, 15 miles S. of in that of Sagan, 12 miles SW. of Sag

**FRIA**, or **FREGGA**. See **FREA**.

\* **FRIABILITY**, *n. f.* [from *friabile*.] being easily reduced to powder.—Har ability, and power to draw iron, are be found in a loadstone. *Locke*.

\* **FRIABLE**, *adj.* [from *friabile*, French Latin.] Easily crumbled; easily reduced.—A spongy excrescence grows roots of the bee tree, and sometimes very white, light, and friable, which anach. *Plasch's Nat. Hist.*—The 1 the subject is the most friable, and 1 like or dissolved. *Johnson's Diet.*

(1.) \* **FRIAR**, *n. f.* [A corrupted French.] A religious; a brother of f order.—

Holy Franciscan *friar* brother!

he priests and *friars* in my realm, procession sing her endless praise. *Shak.* out a *frator*, but he's big enough to be a *frator*.—Many jesuits and *friars* wear the disguise of Presbyterian and Independentists, to preach up rebellion. *Swift.* would needs show his talent in Latin.

**FRIAR, or FRIER.** [Lat. *frater*. Ital. *fra*, *fratello*, i. e. *brother* &c.] A term common to all orders; founded on this, that kind of brotherhood presumed between the superior of the same monastery. Friars are distinguished into these 4 principal orders: 1. FRANCISCANS, Minor, or grey; 2. AUGUSTINES; 3. DOMINICANS, or black; 4. CARMELITES, or white nuns. See the rest of the orders descend. See *Black*.

**FRISK,** in a more peculiar sense, is reserved for monks as are not priests; for *frisks* are usually dignified with the appellation of *fraters*.

**FRATRES OBSERVANT,** [*fratres observantes*] a kind of the Franciscans; thus called, because they live together in any number, or congregation, as the convents are; several among themselves to observe the rules of the order, and that more strictly than others do, from whom they are distinguished by a singularity of zeal, living in order of their own choosing.

**FRATRY, adj.** [*frater* and *fratres*] Monastic; in the world.—Their *fratry* general signifies it is one holy day in the Church, in remembrance of thirty thousand years, which the Jews *Kezab*.

**FRIAR, n. s.** from *frater*.—A man, who is not in the line.—Stick not proud riches, for thou may'st be justly, suddenly, & eternally, and leave others to say, yet *frisks* not *friskily* contempt of them. *Shak.*

**FRIAR, n. s.** [*frater* and *fratres*] A plant, which grows from which it derives only in flower resembling a cowslip.

**FRIAR, n. s.** an island on the W. coast of Spain, S. of Iber's Bay.

**FRIAR, n. s.** a celebrated architect of antiquity. He translated Palladio's works, &c. Parallel between ancient and modern use.

**FRIARY, adj.** Like a friar.—Francis had scratch his elbow when he had sweetened his hand's name. St. Francis with a name a corner. *Chival's Revivings.*

**FRIARY, n. s.** [from *frater*] A monastery of friars.

**FRIARY, n. s.** a town of Spain, in Old Castile, on an island in the Bay; 13<sup>th</sup> m. N. of Madrid. **FRIAY,** a town of France, in the dep. of Vendée, 7 miles S. of Broy.

**FRIAY, n. s.** To trifle.—*Shak.* I would have been more industrious than that with the *frisks* of *frisks*. *Mad.* *frisks* of *frisks*. [from the verb] A trifle. *Shak.* one who professes rupture but the *frisks* her content. *Spektator.*

(1.) **FRIBURG, or FREYBURG,** a large town of Germany, in Suabia capital of Amuln Braggaw; founded in 1118, by R. hold III. D. of Zahringen. The streets are broad and well paved, and the steeple of the great church, next to that of Strasburg, is reckoned the finest in Germany. Its university was founded in 1457, by Albert, D. of Austria. The inhabitants are famous for publishing crystal and precious stones. It has been several times taken and retaken; particularly by the French in 1744, who demolished the fortifications. It is seated on the Triser, 20 miles E. of A. rich, and 24 SSE. of Strasburg. Lon. 7. 57. E. Lat. 46. 4. N.

(2.) **FRIBURG,** a town of Germany, in Upper Rhenia, 13 miles SSE. of Bismar, and 18 of Buxhausen.

(3.) **FRIBURG, or FREYBURG,** a town of the Helvetic republic, capital of the canton (N. 2.) seated on the Saue, in a most singular and picturesque situation. M. Cox, in a *Travels in Switzerland*, thus describes it: "It stands partly on a level plain, partly on bold precipitous rocks, half enclosed by the river Saue; and is a most curious one, &c. by its situation, and hills, that the traveler is reminded of the same, which he could be burnt upon, was at the whole, which in the overlooking and nature, the hills, which are of a height of 1000 feet, and in the midst of a chert mountain, at a distance within which tower the eyes of merchants a large mountain of rocks, rocks, &c. &c. and meadows, rising into hills from wild to green, from the base of a town to the solitude of the desert retirement. The Saue winds in the most extensive manner as to form in the middle, where the distance of two miles, in the middle, between which the intervening parts of the current are parallel to each other. On the left, the distance to the town is extremely deep, in the middle, the rocks even pass over the roofs of the houses. Many of the edifices, erected in regular proportion to the scale of an immense street, and many overlook the edge of a precipice in such a manner, that in looking down, a man's head would be apt to turn giddy. But the most extraordinary point of view is from the Parliament. On the NW. a part of the town stands boldly on the sides and the peak back of an abrupt ridge, and from E. to W. a semicircle of high perpendicular rocks, is seen, whose base is washed and undermined by the winding Saue, and whose tops and sides are thickly clad with thrub and underwood. On the highest point of the rocks, and on the very edge of the precipice, appears, half rising in the air, the gate called *Burggatter*, a strange structure on the bridge would compare to the prospect of the Living Island in Guibner's Travels; and would not conceivably be accessible, but by means of a road and ladder. The houses are fringed with a grey iron stone, the roof and walls black, and the public edifices, particularly the church, are extremely beautiful. The town is 12 miles SW. of Bern, and 75 of Zurich. Lon. 6. 57. E. Lat. 46. 4. N.

(4.) **FRIBURG,** one of the 23 independent cantons of Swiss land. It is surrounded on all sides by the canton of Bern. The town is seated on the

fruits, and pastures: and the canton can send 28,000 men into the field. The total population is above 72,800. The people are Roman Catholics. The bishop of Lausanne's diocese extends over this canton, and part of that of Soleure.

(5.) FRIBURG, a celebrated hermitage, in the above canton, (N. 4.) 3 miles from the capital (N. 3.) containing a church and steeple, a vestry, a kitchen, a large hall, two rooms on each side, two pair of stairs, and a cellar, all cut out of the solid rock. The church is 63 feet long, 36 broad, and 22 high. But the most wonderful thing is the steeple, which is 70 feet high above the rock. The chimney of the kitchen is also very surprising, for the passage up is 90 feet in height. It is almost inconceivable how one man, with his servant, could perform so difficult a work, though they were 24 years in executing it.

(6.) FRIBURG. See FREYBURG. N. 2.

(7.) FRIBURG L'ÉVÊQUE, a town of France, in the dept. of Meurthe, 6 miles E. of Dieuze and 7½ W. of Strasburg.

FRIBUS, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Elbogen, 9 miles W. of Joachimsthal.

\* FRICASSEE. *n. f.* [French.] A dish made by cutting chickens or other small things in pieces, and dressing them with strong sauce.—

Oh, how would Homer praise their dancing dogs,  
Their stinking cheese, and *fricassée* of frogs!

He'd raise no fables, sing no flagrant lye,  
Of boys with custard choak'd at Newberry.

*King.*  
\* FRICATION. *n. f.* [*fricatio*, Latin.] The act of rubbing one thing against another.—Gentle *frication* draweth forth the nourishment, by making the parts a little hungry, and heating them: this *frication* I wish to be done in the morning. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Resinous or unctuous bodies, and such as will flame, attract vigorously, and melt thereof without *frication*, as good hard wax, which will convert the needle almost as actively as the loadstone. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

FRICENTI, or } an episcopal town of Naples,  
FRICENTY, } in Principato Ultra, near the  
Tirpato; 12 miles NW. of Conza, and 20 SE.  
of Benevento. Lon. 15. 9. E. Lat. 40. 59. N.

(1.) \* FRICTION. *n. f.* [*friction*, Fr. *frictio*, from *frico*, Latin.] 1. The act of rubbing two bodies together.—Do not all bodies which abound with terrestrial parts, and especially with sulphureous ones, emit light as often as those parts are sufficiently agitated, whether the agitation be made by heat, *friction*, percussion, putrefaction, or by any vital motion? *Newton's Optics.* 2. The resistance in machines caused by the motion of one body upon another. 3. Medical rubbing with the flesh-brush or cloths.—*Frictions* make the parts more fleshy and full, as we see both in men and in the currying of horses; for that they draw a greater quantity of spirits to the parts. *Bacon.*

(2.) FRICTION, (§ 1. *def.* 1) is called also ATTRITION. The phenomena arising upon the friction of divers bodies, under different circumstances, are very numerous and considerable. Mr Hawkihee gives a number of experiments of this kind; particularly of the attrition or friction of glass, under various circumstances, the result of which

was, that it yielded light and became  
All bodies by friction are brought  
heat; many of them to emit light;  
● cat's back, sugar, beaten sulphur,  
sea water, gold, copper, &c. but  
diamonds, which when briskly rub  
glass, gold, or the like, yield a light  
of a live coal when blown by the bl  
ELECTRICITY, *Index.*

(3.) FRICTION, in mechanics, (§ 1. from the roughness or asperity of the body moved on, and that of the body for such surfaces consisting alternately of eminences and cavities, either the eminences must be raised over those of the other, or must be both broke and worn off; can happen without motion, nor can be produced without a force impressed. force applied to move the body is either wholly spent on this effect; and consequently there arises a resistance or friction, which is greater, *ceteris paribus*, as the eminences are greater and the substance the harder: a body, by continual friction, becomes more polished, the friction diminishes. Amontons, De La Hire, Camus, Muschenbroek, Ferguson, Euler, and other chancians, have made a number of experiments to settle a principle for the determination of the quantity of friction. A successful set of experiments, made on iron, are those of the rev. Samuel Vince of Cambridge; published in the 75th volume of *Philos. Trans.* p. 165. Mr Emerson, in his *Elements of Mechanics* has also made several remarks on the friction of wood and iron. MECHANICS.

(4.) FRICTION, in medicine and surgery (§ 3.) is performed with oils, unguents, matters, to relieve, or cure a diseased joint. Frictions with mercurial ointment are most useful in venereal cases. The application of friction externally, is preferred to give a salivation. Friction of the flesh-brush, a linen cloth, or even the hand, contribute greatly to health, in all diseases which impede the circulation of the blood and humors, or the power of the nerves. Persons therefore, of weak nerves and low spirits, should supply the want of other pleasures, by spending half an hour, morning and evening, in rubbing their whole body, especially their arms, with a flesh-brush. This is most advantageous, when the *prima vie* are most debilitated.

FRIDATHORP, a village E. of Kingston.

FRIDAW, a town of Germany, 10 miles ESE. of Pettaw, and 104 S. of V. 33. 57. F. of Ferro. Lat. 46. 30. N.

(1.) \* FRIDAY. *n. f.* [*Frige Ides*, Saxon deity, the sixth day of the week, so named after the Saxon deity.—As the were not kin to the goddess, she would be as fair on Friday as Helen is on Saturday.] *Sbak. Troil. and Cress.*

For Venus, like her day, will change  
And seldom shall we see a Friday cl

(2.) FRIDAY, by the Romans was called *Veneris*. See VERA, and GOOD-FRIDAY.

(1.) FRIDBERG, a town of Ger

, with a castle. It was plundered by the  
in 1032; and taken by the Austrians in  
It lies 4 miles SE. of Augsburg, and 28  
of Munich. Lon. 11. 10. E. Lat. 48. 20. N.  
FRIDBERG, an imperial town of Germany,  
crania, and in the landgravate of Hesse;  
on a mountain, 12 miles NE. of Frankfurt,  
ENE. of Mentz. Lon. 8. 46. E. Lat. 50.

FRIDBERG, a town of Germany in Stiria,  
5 E. of Pruck, and 42 S. of Vienna. Lon.  
E. of Ferro, Lat. 47. 32. N.

FRIDBERG, in Silesia. See FRIEDBERG.  
FRIDBURG, a town of Germany, in the circle  
of Saxony, and province of Thuringia,  
on the Unstrut, 30 miles W. of Leiptick.  
Lon. 21. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

FRIDECK, a town of Silesia, 15 miles  
of Teichen, and 12 S. of Odelberg.

FRIDECK, a town of Prussia, 12 miles E. of

FRICHSBERG, a fort on the coast of  
, 7 miles from Cape Coast Castle.

FRICHSODE. See FREDERICKSODE.

FRIDEWALDE, a town of Germany in  
Saxony, 18 m. W. of Eisenach and 35 SSE.  
of Jena.

FRIDEWALDE, a town of Westphalia, in  
the county of Sayn, 9 miles S. of Siegen.

FRIED. a town of Germany, in Austria,  
on the Danube; 20 miles SE. of Tubing-  
en and 12 NE. of Constance. Lon. 9. 31. E.  
Lat. 48. N.

FRIEDLAND, a town of Bohemia, 55 m.  
Dresden. Lon. 15. 15. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

FRIEDLAND, a town of Prussia, in the prov.  
of Pomerania, 20 m. NE. of Konigsberg.

FRIEDMAN, a town of Hungary, 17 m. NNW.  
of Pest.

FRIEDMAN, a town of Naples, in the province of  
Naples, 7 miles ESE. of Potenza.

FRIEDSTEIN, a town of Germany, in  
the county of Nassau, 1 mile NW. of Gottschee.

FRIEDSTOL, one of the ancient immunities  
granted to churches. The word signifies a seat,  
or place of peace and security, where cri-  
minals find safety and protection. Of these  
there were many in England; but the most fa-  
mous were those at Beverly, and in St Peter's  
parish, York, granted by charter of king Henry I.

FRIEDBERG, or FRIDBERG, a town of  
Germany, in the county of Nassau, 6 miles SW. of Ziegenhals.

FRIEDBERG, or FRIEDENBURG, a town of  
Germany, in the county of Jauer, on the Queiss; 11 m.  
of Lowerberg, and 14 WNW. of Hirschberg.

FRIEDBERG HOHEN, a town of Silesia, in  
the county of Schweidnitz; where Frederick the  
Great defeated the Austrians, June 4th, 1745. It  
lies SW. of Striegau, and 10 NW. of  
Schweidnitz.

FRIDEBURG, a Moravian settlement of N.  
Carolina in Surry county.

FRIDEBERG, a town of Brandenburg, 46  
m. of Frankfort on the Oder, and 82 ENE.  
of Berlin.

FRIEDEBURG, a town of Saxony, in the  
county of Mansfeld, 4 m. E. of Gerbstadt.

FRIEDEBURG, a town of Westphalia, in E.

Friedland, 22 miles ENE. of Embden. Lon. 25. 8.  
E. of Ferro. Lat. 53. 30. N.

FRIEDELAND, a town of Silesia, in the duchy  
of Schweidnitz, 16 miles SW. of Schweidnitz.

FRIEDENSBERG, [D. n. i. e. the *Mountain of  
Peace*] a palace of Denmark, near lake Elleron,  
4 miles from Fredericksburg, built by Frederick  
IV, K. of Denmark, in 1720, when peace was  
concluded with Sweden.

FRIEDENSBUCHTEN, [i. e. *Tents of Peace*]  
a Moravian town and settlement in Pennsylvania,  
on the Susquehanna, 24 miles below Tioga Point.  
Besides a neat chapel and elegant houses, it con-  
tains 15 Indian huts, and 250 acres.

FRIEDERICKSTÆD, a town on the W. coast  
of Santa Cruz. Lon. 93. 25. W. Lat. 17. 48. N.

FRIEDEWALDE, a town of Silesia, in the  
duchy of Niesse, 6 miles S. of Grottkaw.

(1.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Bohemia, in the  
circle of Boleslau, 9 miles NE. of Krottaw.

(2.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Lusatia, on a canal  
of the Spree, 8 miles N. of Lieberose.

(3.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Moravia, in the  
circle of Olmutz; 18 miles NNE. of Olmutz.

(4.) FRIEDLAND, a town of Up. Saxony, in  
Mecklenburg, 14 miles NE. of New Branden-  
burg.

FRIEDLINGEN, or FRIDLINGEN, a town and  
fort of Suabia, 3 miles E. of the Rhine, and 4 N.  
of Balle. Lon. 7. 36. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

FRIELED, a town of Sweden, in the province  
of Smoland, 33 miles NW. of Wexio.

\* FRIEND. *n. f.* [friend, Dutch; *freund*, Sax.]  
This word, with its derivatives, is pronounced  
*friend*, *friendly*; the *i* is usually neglected. 1. One joined  
to another in mutual benevolence and intima-  
cy; opposed to foe or enemy.—

*Friends of my soul, you twain*  
Rule in this realm, and the gor'd state sustain.

*Shakespeare.*  
—Some man is a friend for his own occasion, and  
will not abide in the day of thy trouble. *Ecclus.*  
vi. 8.—

God's benison go with you, and with those  
That would make good of bad, and *friends* of  
foes.

*Shakespeare.*  
Wonder not to see this foul extend  
The bounds, and seek some other self, a *friend*.

*Dryden.*  
2. One without hostile intentions.—  
Who comes so fast in silence of the night?  
—A *friend*.

—What *friend*? your name? *Sh. Merch. of Ven.*

3. One reconciled to another; this is put by the  
custom of the language somewhat irregularly in  
the plural number.—

He's *friends* with Cæsar,  
In state of health thou say'st, and thou say'st free.

*Shakespeare.*  
My son came then into my mind; and yet my  
mind

Was then scarce *friends* with him. *Sh. Lear.*  
If she repent, and would make me a *friend*,  
Bid her but send me her's, and we are *friends*.

*Lucius.*

4. An attendant, or companion.—  
The king ordains their entrance, and ascends  
His regal seat, surrounded by his *friends*. *Æn.*

5. Favourer, one propitious.—Aurora rising up

on Pegasus, sheweth her swiftness, and how she is a *friend* to poetry and all ingenious inventions. *Peacock*. 6. A familiar compellation—*Friend*, how camest thou in hither? *Mat.* xxii. 12.

What support me, do'st thou ask?

The conscience, *friend*, t'have lost mine eyes o'erply'd

In liberty's defence. *Milton.*

\* To FRIEND. v. a. [from the noun] To favour; to befriend; to countenance; to support.—

I know that we shall have him well to *friend*.

*Shakespeare.*

When vice makes mercy, mercy's so extended, That, for the fault's love, is th' offender *friend*-

ed. *Shakespeare.*

\* FRIENDED. *adj.* Well disposed; inclined to love.—

Not *friended* by his wish to your high person,

His will is most malignant, and it stretches

Beyond you to your friends. *Shakespeare.*

\* FRIENDLESS, *adj.* [from *friend*.] 1. Wanting friends; wanting support; without countenance; destitute; forlorn.—

Alas! I am a woman, *friendless*, hopeless.

*Shakespeare's H. VIII.*

—Woe to him that is alone, is verified upon none so much as upon the *friendless* person. *South.*—

To some new clime, or to thy native sky,

Oh *friendless* and forsaken virtue fly. *Dryd.*

To what new clime, what distant sky,

Forsaken, *friendless*, will ye fly? *Pope.*

\* 2. FRIENDLESS MAN. The Saxon word for him whom we call an-outlaw, because he was, upon his exclusion from the king's peace and protection, denied all help of friends.

\* FRIENDLINESS. *n. s.* [from *friendly*.] 1. A disposition to friendship.—Such a liking and *friendliness* as hath brought forth the effects. *Sidney.* 2. Exertion of benevolence.—Let all the intervals be employed in prayers, charity, *friendliness* and neighbourhood, and means of spiritual and corporal health. *Taylor's Rule of holy living.*

(1.) \* FRIENDLY. *adj.* [from *friend*.] 1. Having the temper and disposition of a friend; kind; favourable; benevolent.—They gave them thanks, desiring them to be *friendly* still unto them. 2 *Blac.* xii. 31.—

Thou to mankind

Be good, and *friendly* still, and oft return! *Milt.*

How art thou

To me so *friendly* grown above the rest

Of brutal kind? *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

Let the Nassau star in rising majesty appear,

And guide the prosperous mariner

With everlasting beams of *friendly* light. *Prior.*

2. Disposed to union; amicable.—

Like *friendly* colours found our hearts unite,

And each from each contract new strength and

light. *Pope.*

3. Salutory; homogeneal.—

Not that Nepenthe, which the wife of Thone

In Egypt gave to Jove born Heiæna,

Is of such power to stir up joy as this,

To be so *friendly*, or so cool to thirst. *Milton.*

(2.) \* FRIENDLY. *adv.* In the manner of friends; with appearance of kindness; amicably.—

Here between the armies,

Let's drink together *friendly*, and embrace;

That all their eyes may bear those tokens h

Of our restored love and amity. *Shak. H*

(3.) FRIENDLY ISLANDS, a cluster of island the Pacific Ocean, so named by Capt. Cook in 1 on account of the friendship which appears subsist among the inhabitants, and from 1 courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel J Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first tu ed here in 1643, and gave names to the prin islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored whole cluster, which he found to consist of more 60, and left some European plants and anima pon them. (See COOK, N<sup>o</sup> III, § 10.) three islands which Tasman saw he named 1 *Amsterdam*, *Rotterdam*, and *Middleburg*. first is the largest, See AMSTERDAM, N<sup>o</sup> II. chief of these islands are ANNAMOOKA, TAI TAHOO, LEFOOGA, and EAGOA, or MIDDLEB See these articles. The natives of these is seldom exceed the common stature, but are strong and well made. They are generally h about the shoulders; and though the muscula pearance of the men rather conveys the ide strength than of beauty, several of them are handsome. Most of the women are well pro tioned, and some are absolutely perfect mode beauty both in features and figure. But the remarkable distinction, is the uncommon smal and delicacy of their fingers. The general co is a cast deeper than the copper brown; but ral have a true olive complexion; and some of women are even a great deal fairer. Their c tenances express their natural mildness, being tely free from that savage keenness which m most nations in a barbarous state. They are cheerful, and good-natured. There are few tural deformities to be found amongst them. most common is the tetter or ring-worm, seems to affect almost one half of them, and k whitish serpentine marks everywhere behind Captain Cook had the mortification to learn all the care he took when he first visited 1 islands, to prevent the venereal disease from b communicated to the inhabitants, had pr intellectual. But they do not seem to regai much. As there appeared few signs of its effects, probably the climate, and their way ving, abate its virulence. There are two d complaints frequent amongst them; one of w is an indolent form swelling, that affects the and arms, and increase them to an extraordi size in their whole length. The other is a t of the same sort in the testicles, which somet exceeds the size of the two fists. In other resq they seem uncommonly healthy. Their hair general straight, thick, and strong, though a have it bushy or frizzled. The natural color black; but the greatest part of the men, and f of the women, have it stained of a brown, pu or orange colour. Some have it cut off on side of the head only; others have it entirely off except a single lock; the women in get wear it short. The men have their beards short; and both men and women strip the from the arm-pits. The men are stained fro bout the middle of the belly to about half-down the thighs with a deep blue colour. women have only a few small lines or spots t



ed on the inside of their hands. The men circumcised, or rather *supercised*, as the one consists in cutting off only a small piece of skin at the upper part; which is thus incapable of ever after covering the glans. The dress of both men and women is the same: consists of a piece of cloth or matting, about 2½ wide and 2½ long: so as to go once and a half round the waist, to which it is confined by a

It is double before, and hangs down like a coat, as low as the middle of the leg. In the middle, there is cloth sufficient to draw wrap round the shoulders. The interior is wear nothing but a covering made of the maro, which is a narrow piece of sea fish, passed between the thighs, and round the waist. The use of this is chiefly for the men. The ornaments worn by men are necklaces, made of the fruit of the tree, and various sweet-smelling flowers, the name *katulo*. Others are composed of shells, bones of birds, shark's teeth, &c. by being looped upon the breast; rings of shells on the fingers; or joined together into the wrists. The lobes of the ears, and frequently only one, are perforated with holes, in which they wear cylindrical ornaments about 2 inches long. They bathe in the sea, being sensible that salt water hurts the skin when they bathe in the sea, they compare fresh water poured over them to wash. Those of superior rank use cocoa-nut oil, improves the appearance of the skin. The matting their cloth is wholly confined to the women; as is also that of their which are esteemed both for their texture and for many other articles of less note; by which they make vast numbers, and furnish with small beads; all finished with neatness and taste. The labours of the men are laborious and extensive. Agriculture, war, boat-building, fishing, and other that relate to navigation, are the objects of their care. Boats and fruits being their principal business, they pay constant attention to agriculture; they have brought to great perfection, and the planters and gardeners they observe with care, and in the rows every way respectable. The cocoa-nut and bread-fruit are scattered about without any care, and are not treasured after they have attained a height. The houses of the lower people are hut, and very small; those of the nobles are larger and more comfortable. The houses of one of a middling size are about 20 feet long, 10 broad, and 12 high. The house is, by raising, a thatched roof, supported by posts. The floor is raised with earth, and covered with strong thick matting, and very clean. A thick strong mat, about 3 feet wide, is cut into a semicircle, and set upon the floor, in shape resembling a fender, in which the master and mistress sit to sleep in. The rest upon the floor, the unmarried men and women sit apart. If the family be large, there are its adjoining, to which the servants retire at night; so that privacy is much observed. The mats they wear in the day serve for their

covering in the night. Their whole furniture consists of a bowl or two, in which they make kava; a few gourds; cocoa nut shells; and some small wooden stools, which serve them for pillows. They display much ingenuity in building and navigating their canoes. The only tools, that they use to construct them, which are very dexterously made, are hatchets, or rather thick axes, of a smooth black stone that abounds at Tootoa; augers, made of shark's teeth, fixed on small handles, and rasps of a rough skin of a fish, fastened on flat pieces of wood, thinner on one side, with handles. The cordage is made from the fibres of the cocoa-nut husk, which, though above 9 or 10 inches long, they split about the size of a quill, to any length, and roll it up in balls, from which the larger ropes are made by twisting several of these together. The lines that they fish with are as strong and even as the best cores we make. Their other fishing implements are large and small hooks made of pearl shell. Their weapons are clubs of different sorts, spears, and darts. They have also bows and arrows, for shooting birds. The clubs are about two feet long, but only 4 or 5 inches high, and near 4 broad, bending downward by the middle, with 4 strong legs, and circular feet; the whole made of one piece of black or brown wood, neatly polished, and sometimes inlaid with bits of ivory. Yams, plantain, bread-fruit, and coconuts, compose the greater part of their vegetable diet. Of their animal food, the chief articles are, hog, fowls, fish, and shell fish; the lower people eat rats. Their food is generally dressed by boiling, and they have the art of making, from different kinds of fruit, several dishes, which Captain Cook's people esteemed very good. When food is served up to the chiefs, it is commonly laid up in green plantain leaves. The women eat with the men; but there are certain ranks amongst them that can neither eat nor drink together. They seem to have no set time for meals. They go to bed as soon as it is dark, and rise with the dawn. Their diversions are chiefly singing, dancing, and music. The dancing of the men has a thousand different motions with the hands, performed with an ease and grace not to be described but by those who have seen them. Most of the men satisfy themselves with one wife. The chiefs, however, have commonly several, though only to be looked upon as the mistresses of the family. When any person of rank dies, his body is washed and decorated by women, appointed on the occasion; who, by their customs, must not touch any dead with their hands, for many months afterwards; and the length of the time they use this practice, is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief whom they had washed. The concern of their people for the dead is extraordinary. They beat their teeth with stones, fix a shark's tooth into the head until the blood flows to the eyes, and thrust a spear into the inner part of the thigh, into their sides below the armpits, and through the cheeks into the mouth. But these painful operations are only practised on the death of those most nearly connected. Their long and general mourning proves, that they consider death as a very great evil. And this is confirmed by a very odd custom which they practise to avoid

It. They suppose that the Deity will accept of the little finger, as a sort of sacrifice to procure the recovery of their health. They cut it off with one of their stone hatchets. There was scarcely one among ten of them who was not thus mutilated. The inferior people also cut off a joint of the little finger on account of the sickness of the chiefs to whom they belong. They seem to have no idea of future punishment. They believe, however, that they are justly punished upon earth; and therefore use every method to render their divinities propitious. The Supreme Author of all things they call *Kallafootonga*; who, they say, is a female residing in the sky, and directing all the changes of the weather. They believe that when she is angry with them, the productions of the earth are blasted by lightning, &c. and that they themselves are afflicted with sickness and death, as well as their hogs and other animals. They also admit a plurality of deities, though all inferior to *Kallafootonga*. They call *Isi*, or the living principle, *Otooa*; i. e. a divinity or invisible being. The power of the king is unlimited, and the lives and properties of the subjects are at his disposal. The lower ranks of people have no property, nor safety for their persons, but are at the will of their chiefs. When any one wants to speak with the king, he advances and sits down before him with his legs across; a posture to which they are so much accustomed, that any other mode of sitting is disagreeable to them. To speak to the king standing would be accounted a mark of rudeness. Though some of the chiefs may vie with the king in point of possessions, they fall very short in rank, and in certain marks of respect. It is a particular privilege annexed to his sovereignty, not to be punctured nor circumcised, as all his subjects are. Whenever he walks out, every one he meets must sit down till he has passed. The person who is to pay obedience squats down before the chief, and bows his head to the sole of his foot; which, when he sits, is so placed that it cannot be easily come at; and having tapped or touched it with the under and upper side of the fingers of both hands, he retires. The hands, after this application to the chief's feet, until they be washed, must not touch any kind of food. While in this state, they are called *taboo rama*, q. d. *forbidden hands*. Their great men are fond of having women sit beside them all night, and beat on different parts of their body until they sleep; after which they relax a little of their labour, unless they appear likely to awake; in which case they redouble their drumming until they are again fast asleep. These islands lie between 170° and 180° Lon. W. and between 26° and 23° Lat. S.

(1.) \* FRIENDSHIP. *n. f.* [*friendship*, Dut.]

1. The state of minds united by mutual benevolence; amity.—There is little *friendship* in the world, and least of all between equals, which was wont to be magnified: that that is, is between superior and inferior, whose fortunes may comprehend the one the other. *Bacon*.—He lived rather in a fair intelligence than any *friendship* with the favourites. *Clarendon*. 2. Highest degree of intimacy.—

My sons, let your unseemly discord cease,  
If not in *friendship*, live at least in peace. *Dryd.*

3. Favour; personal kindness.—

His *friendships*, still to few consist  
Were always of the middling kind.  
—Raw captains are usually sent only  
*friendship*, and not chosen by suffices  
on Ireland. 4. Assistance; help.—

Gracious, my lord, hard by here  
Some *friendship* will it lend you 'gai  
pest;

Repose you there. *Shak*

5. Conformity; affinity; correspondence to unite.—We know those colour a *friendship* with each other, and tho incompatible, in mixing together tho which we would make trial. *Dryd. D*

(2.) FRIENDSHIP, (§ 1. *Def.* 1.) may a mutual attachment between two per not merely from the general principle lence, from emotions of gratitude fo ceived, from views of interest, from in fection or animal passion, but from entertained by each of them, that the dued with many amiable and estimab Among the ancients, friendship was highest veneration. Even the charac heroes were not reckoned complete The poets therefore never failed to ori greatest characters with this virtue. CHILLES is represented to have had h ÆNEAS his *Achates*, ORESTES his / Nor was their history deficient in exhib instances to what a pitch of heroic n friendship was sometimes carried in re friendships of DAMON and PYTHIAS, us and ARISTOGITON, &c. are univer (See these articles.) Some modern at ticularly Voltaire, and even the late Soa.ze Jenyns, Esq; have alleged it as among the moral precepts of Christiani no-where expressly enjoin private fri Christian Duty. But in answer to been justly observed, that friendship accident of Society, a consequence of o as moral and social beings, than a re regulated and defined by institutions “ the precepts of Christianity, thou not directly enjoin it, yet have a dire to form those exalted characters, w capable of true friendship, by incul virtues, which give rise to this gen: ment, and are absolutely necessary it.” Besides, the Scriptures afford ample of friendship, carried to the u of perfection of which human nature in the instance of David and Jonath: JONATHAN'S disinterested attachmen litical rival is unparalleled in the ann: kind. Nor is there wanting in the l ven a still higher example. Mr W. in a note on his *Translation of Cicero's* ly observes, that “ the Divine Founder c tian religion, as well by his own exa the spirit of his moral doctrine, has i couraged but consecrated FRIENDSHIP sentiments, (he says) which Christ en Lazarus, were a peculiar species of benevolence, with which he was actual all mankind.”—And that emphatical

“ciple whom Jesus loved,” repeatedly ap-  
the apostle John, affords a decisive evi-  
the justice of Mr Melmoth’s remark on  
“altruism” displayed by our Saviour to  
his peculiar friends; and which Mr Mel-  
s finely illustrated in the note, which  
here only partially quoted.

FA, a town of Portugal, in the province  
of Alentejo, 12 miles SW. of Oporto.

FIESSACH, a town of Brandenburg, in  
the Mark, 28 miles NW. of Berlin.

FIESSACH, a town of Carinthia, in the  
province of Salzburg, with a strong fort;  
taken by the French, in March 1797. It is seated  
on a mountain, 56 miles SE. of Salzburg. Lon-  
g. Lat. 47. 12. N.

FIESSACH, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 9  
miles SE. of Windischgratz.

FIESSINGEN. See FREYSINGEN, N° 1.

FIESSINGEN, FREISINGEN, FREYSINGEN,  
INGEN, a town of Bavaria, capital of the  
county (N° 1.) seated on a mountain, near the  
border of the Isar. It was destroyed in 1116,  
in the reign of Henry II, D. of Bavaria. It has an elegant  
cathedral and episcopal palace; and lies 17 miles  
from Munich, and 18 SW. of Landshut. Lon-  
g. Lat. 48. 20 N.

FIESSINGEN, FREISINGEN, FREYSINGEN,  
INGEN, a town of Bavaria, capital of the  
county (N° 1.) seated on a mountain, near the  
border of the Isar. It was destroyed in 1116,  
in the reign of Henry II, D. of Bavaria. It has an elegant  
cathedral and episcopal palace; and lies 17 miles  
from Munich, and 18 SW. of Landshut. Lon-  
g. Lat. 48. 20 N.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

FRIESLAND, or NORTH FRIESLAND,  
one of the seven United provinces, now includ-  
ed in the Batavian republic. It was so named  
after FRISSON, and was bounded on the E.  
by the Zuider Zee, which separates it from Gronin-  
gen, on the S. by Overijssel, on the W. by the  
Zee, and on the N. by the German ocean.

If all the world

Should in a pet of temperance feed on pulse,  
Drink the clear stream, and nothing wear but

*frieze*,  
Th’ All-giver would be unthank’d. Milton.

‘The captive Germans of gigantick size,  
Are rank’d in order, and are clad in *frieze*.

*Dryd. Pref.*  
—He could no more live without his *frieze* coat  
than without his skin. *Guarlian*.—

See how the double nation lies,  
Like a rich coat with skirts of *frieze*;

As if a man, in making posies,  
Should bundle thistles up with roses. *Swift*.

(2.) \* FRIEZE. FRIZE. *n. f.* [In architecture.]  
A large flat member which separates the architrave  
from the cornice; of which there are as many  
kinds as there are orders of columns. *Harr*.—

No jutting *frieze*,  
Buttrick, nor coigne of vantage, but this bird  
Hath made his pendant bed, and procreant  
cradle. *Shakefp.*

Nor did their want  
Cornice or *frieze* with bossy sculptures grav’n;  
The roof was tressed gold. *Milt. Par. Loll.*

—Polydore designed admirably well, as to the  
practical part, having a particular genius for  
*friezes*. *Dryd. Duple*.

\* FRIEZED. *adj.* [from *frieze*.] Shagged or  
napped with *frieze*.

\* FRIEZELIKE. *adj.* [*frieze* and *like*.] Resem-  
bling a *frieze*.—I have seen the figure of Thalia,  
the comick muse, sometimes with an entire head-  
piece and a little *frieze-like* tower, running round  
the edges of the face, and sometimes with a mask  
for the face only. *Milly on Italy*.

(1.) \* FRIGAT. *n. f.* [*frigata*, French; *frigata*,  
Italian.] 1. A small ship. Ships under 50 guns  
are generally termed *frigates*.—The treasure they  
fought for was, in their view, embezzled in cer-  
tain *frigates*. *Raleigh’s Apology*.—

On high rais’d decks the haughty Belgians  
ride,  
Beneath whose shades our humble *frigates* glide.  
*Dryden*.

2. Any small vessel on the water.—  
Behold the water work and play  
About her little *frigate*, therein making way.  
*Spencer’s Fairy Queen*.

(2.) FRIGATES are usually of two decks, light  
built, designed for swift sailing. When heavier,  
with but one deck, they are called *light frigates*.  
Those mounting from 20 to 44 guns are esteemed  
excellent cruisers. The name was formerly known  
only in the Mediterranean, and applied to a long  
kind of vessel navigated in that sea with sails and  
oars. The English were the first who appeared  
on the ocean with these ships, equipped for war  
as well as for commerce.

FRIGATE-BUILT, *adj.* denotes the disposition  
of the decks of such merchant ships as have a de-  
cent of 4 or 5 steps from the quarter deck and  
fore-castle into the waist; in consequence of which  
those whole decks are on a continued line for the  
whole length of the ship, which are called GAL-  
LEY-BUILT.

FRIGATOON, a Venetian vessel, commonly  
used in the Adriatic, built with a single deck.

and without any fore-mast, having only a main mast, mizen-mast, and bow-sprit.

\* FRIGEFACION. *n. f.* [*frigus* and *facio*, Latin.] The act of making cold.

FRIGGA. See FREA.

(1.) \* FRIGIT. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A sudden terror.—

You, if your goodness does not plead my cause,

May think I broke all hospitable laws,  
To bear you from your palace-yard by might,  
And put your noble person in a fright. *Dryd.*

(2.) FRIGHT, or TERROR. See FEAR. Sudden fear is frequently productive of very remarkable effects upon the human system. Of this many instances occur in medical writings.—In general, the effects of terror are a contraction of the small vessels and a repulsion of the blood in the large and internal ones: Hence proceed general oppression, trembling, and irregularity in the motions of the heart; while the lungs are also overcharged with blood. Frights often occasion incurable diseases, as epilepsy, stupor, madness, &c. In this way they have killed many, by the agitation into which they have thrown the spirits. We have also accounts of persons absolutely killed by terror, when in perfect health at the time of receiving the shock. Persons ordered to be led to execution, but with private orders to be relieved on the scaffold, have expired at the block without a wound.—Out of many instances of the fatal effects of fear, the following is selected as one of the most singular:—"George Grochantzy, a Poland, who had enlisted as a soldier in the service of the king of Prussia, deserted during the last war. A small party was sent in pursuit of him, and, when he least expected it, surprised him singing and dancing among a company of peasants, in an inn. This event so sudden and so dreadful in its consequences, struck him in such a manner, that, giving a great cry, he became altogether stupid and insensible, and was seized without the least resistance. They carried him a way to Glocan, where he was brought before the council of war, and received sentence as a deserter. He suffered himself to be led and disposed of, at the will of those about him, without uttering a word, or giving the least sign that he knew what had happened or would be done to him. He remained immovable as a stone wherever he was placed, and was wholly passive with respect to all that was done to him or about him. During all the time that he was in our custody, he neither eat, nor drank, nor slept, nor had any evacuation. Some were commiserated, and sought to relieve him; after that he was visited by the officers of his corps, and by those soldiers who were attached to the same troop, with offers of food, and of various kinds of relief. But all these offers were rejected; and he remained as before. It was at length determined that he should be executed; and he was accordingly led to the gallows. He was led as if he were insensible to pain, and he was executed without any other signs of life than that it was known to be his. He was buried in the same manner as the other prisoners of war, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

whether he would. He received his life the same insensibility that he had shewn on occasions; he remained fixed and immovable, his eyes turned wildly here and there, making cognizance of any object, and the muscles of his face were fallen and fixed like those of a dead body. Being left to himself, he passed in this condition, without eating, drinking, or any evacuation, and died on the 20th day after he had been some times heard to fetch deep breath.

once he rushed with great violence on the wall, who had a mug of liquor in his hand, and threw it from him, and having drunk the liquor, the great eagerness let the mug drop to the ground. When a person is affected with terror, the principal endeavour should be to restore him to his due order, to promote peace, and to allay the agitation of the patient.

For these purposes he may drink a little warm chamomile tea, &c. the feet and legs may be put into warm water, the legs rubbed, and a little chamomile tea repeated every six or eight hours, and when the skin is warm, and there is a profuse perspiration, sleep may be promoted by gentle opiate. Yet frights have been cured, as well as to cause diseases. Mr Eustachius agues, gout, and sciatica, thus cured among the ludicrous effects of fear, the following instance, quoted from a French author, Andrews in his volume of Anecdotes, is what is most remarkable.

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

purposes he may drink a little warm chamomile tea, &c. the feet and legs may be put into warm water, the legs rubbed, and a little chamomile tea repeated every six or eight hours, and when the skin is warm, and there is a profuse perspiration, sleep may be promoted by gentle opiate. Yet frights have been cured, as well as to cause diseases. Mr Eustachius agues, gout, and sciatica, thus cured among the ludicrous effects of fear, the following instance, quoted from a French author, Andrews in his volume of Anecdotes, is what is most remarkable.

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

On what slight occasions this passion may be excited in a very high degree, in persons the most unlikely to enter into such a state of mind, the following instance is a proof.

"Charles Gustavus (the successor of Charles X. of Sweden) was besieging Prague, when he sent a messenger to demand admittance into the city; and being allowed entrance, he went in a way of amusing the king, to devour a piece of bread of 100 weight in his presence. There was a Count of Koenigsmarc, who stood by the king's side, who, soldier as he was, had not got over the prejudices of his childhood, hinted to the king that the peasant ought to be executed for his crime. 'Sir, said the king, with a smile, if your majesty will but let the gentleman take off his sword and his pistol, I will let him immediately before I begin the siege.' The Count, who had, at the head of a regiment of Swedes, performed wonders at the battle of Lutzen, and who was looked upon as one of the greatest heroes of the age, could not stand this insult, especially as it was accompanied by a great deal of preternatural expansion of the Count's face. With out uttering a word, he suddenly turned round, ran to the Count, and thought not himself safe, till he arrived at his quarters; where he found the Count locked up securely, by order of the king, and that he was not to be seen or heard of any more. The Count was not long after dead, and his death was reported to the king, who ordered that his body should be buried with military honours, and that his name should be mentioned with respect in the army, as a man who had sacrificed himself for his country, and who had died in the most heroic manner."

ties. Yet there are evils which we ought those that arise from ourselves, or which our power to prevent, it would be madness, and audacity not to guard against. evils, which we cannot prevent, or could without a breach of duty, it is manly and praiseworthy to bear with fortitude. Inferior danger is not fortitude, no more than facility of feeling pain can be called pain to expose ourselves unnecessarily to worse than folly, and very blameable preference. It is commonly called *fool-hardiness*; such a degree of hardness or boldness as fools are capable of. See FORTITUDE. **FRIGHT**. *v. a.* [*frighian*, Sax.] To terrify with fear; to shock with fear; to dismay. This was in the old authors frequently written *affright*, as it is always in the Scripture.—

The herds  
strongly clam'rous in the *frighted* fields.  
*Shakesp. Henry IV.*

Such a numerous host  
sat in silence through the *frighted* deep,  
slain upon ruin, rout on rout,  
their eyes were confounded. *Milton.*  
public watch, and of a sword the flame  
savage, all approach far off to *fright*,  
said all passage to the tree of life. *Milt.*  
peril or danger can *fright* a brave spirit,  
vigilance guarded,  
true reward,  
be in my full springs a merit. *Dryd. Albion.*  
and *frights* itself with any thing reflected  
at, and at a distance: things thus offered  
to mind, carry the show of nothing but  
terror.—

see glaring off with many a broadened'd  
eye, the nations. *Thomson's Autumn.*

**RIGHTEN**. *v. a.* To terrify; to shock  
—  
rugged bear's, or spotted lynx's brood,  
in the valleys and in the wood. *Pope.*  
**THRIFFUL**. *adj.* [from *fright*.] 1. Ter-  
rified; full of terror.—

My and wayward was thy infancy,  
holidays *frightful*, desperate, wild, and  
loud. *Shakesp.*  
Without aid you durst not undertake  
*frightful* passage o'er the Stygian lake.  
*Dryden's En.*

word among women for any thing un-

**THRIFFULLY**. *adv.* [from *frightful*.] 1.  
; horribly.—This will make a prodigi-  
ous of water, and looks *frightfully* to the  
eye; 'tis huge and great. *Burnet.* 2. Dif-  
ferently; not beautifully. A woman's word.—  
to her glass; and Betty, pray,  
to look *frightfully* to-day? *Swift.*

**THRIFFULNESS**. *n. f.* [from *frightful*.]  
; of impressing terror.

**RIGID**. *adj.* [*frigidus*, Lat.] 1. Cold;  
; harsh. In this sense it is seldom used  
;—In the torrid zone the heat would  
be intolerable, and in the *frigid* zones the

cold would have destroyed both animals and ve-  
getables. *Cbeys's Phil. Princ.* 2. Wanting warmth  
of affection. 3. Impotent without warmth of bo-  
dy. 4. Dull; without fire of fancy.—

If justice Phillip's costive head  
Some *frigid* rhymes disbursts,  
They shall like Persian tales be read,  
And glad both babes and nurses. *Swift.*  
(2.) FRIGID ZONE. See ZONE.

(1.) \* FRIGIDITY. *n. f.* [*frigiditas*, Lat.] 1.  
Coldness; want of warmth. 2. Dullness; want  
of intellectual fire.—Driving at these as at the  
highest elegancies, which are but the *frigidities* of  
wit. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—Of the two extremes,  
one would sooner pardon phrenzy than *frigidity*.  
*Pope.* 3. Want of corporeal warmth.—The boil-  
ing blood of youth hinders that serenity which is  
necessary to serve intemperance; and the *frigidity* of  
decrepit age is as much its enemy, by reason of its  
dulling moisture. *Glanville's Sermons.* 4. Coldness  
of affection.

(2.) FRIGIDITY. See IMPOTENCE.  
\* FRIGIDLY. *adv.* [from *frigidly*.] Coldly;  
dully; without affection.

\* FRIGIDNESS. *n. f.* [from *frigid*.] Coldness;  
dullness; want of affection.

FRIGIDO, a river of Italy, in the now restored  
Cisalpine republic, which runs through the de-  
partment of the Apennines, (see devout duchy of  
Modena,) and falls into the Gulf of Genoa, near  
Massa.

FRIGILIANA, a town of Spain, in Granada,  
13 miles E. of Velez Malaga.

FRIGNANO, a territory of the Cisalpine re-  
public, in the dept. of Parma, and side-vant duchy  
of Modena, comprehending Acquara, Pemanog  
Gara, Ronca, Sestola, and some other small towns.

(1.) \* FRIGORIFICK. *adj.* [*frigorifickus*, *frigo*,  
and *frigo*, Lat.] Causing cold. A word used in  
science.—*Frigorifick* atoms or particles mean those  
nitrous salts which float in the air in cold weather,  
and occasion freezing. *Boyer.*

(2.) FRIGORIFIC PARTICLES, in philosophy,  
small particles of matter, which, according to Gal-  
lenus and others, being actually and essentially  
cold and penetrating other bodies, produce in  
them that quality which we call cold. See COLD.

FRIKEN, a lake of Sweden in the province of  
Warmland, 40 miles long but narrow.

FRILAZIN, a class or rank of people among  
the Anglo-Saxons, consisting of those who had  
been slaves, but had obtained their liberty, either  
by purchase or otherwise. Though these were  
in reality free men, they were not considered as  
of the same rank and dignity with those who had  
been born free, but were still in a more depen-  
dent condition, either on their former masters or  
on some new patrons. This custom the Anglo-  
Saxons seem to have derived from their ancestors  
in Germany, among whom those who had been  
made free did not differ much in point of liberty or  
importance from those who continued in servitude.  
This distinction, between those who have been  
born free and those who enjoy freedom by des-  
cent from a long race of free men, still prevails  
in many parts of Germany; and particularly in  
the original seats of the Anglo-Saxons. Many of

the inhabitants of towns and cities in England, in that period, seem to have been of this class of men, who were in a kind of middle state between slaves and freemen.

\* To FRILL. *v. a.* [*frilleux*, French.] To quake or shiver with cold. Used of a hawk; as the hawk *frills*. *Diſt.*

FRIMAIRE, [Fr. *i. e.* the sleet or frost month, from *frimas*, hoar frost.] The 3d month in the new French calendar. It begins the 21st of Nov. and ends the 20th of Dec.

\* FRINGE. *n. s.* [*friggio*, Italian; *frange*, Fr.] Ornamental appendages added to dress or furniture. It is in conversation used of loose and separate threads.—Those offices and dignities were but the facings or *fringes* of his greatness. *Wotton*.  
The golden *fringe* ev'n set the ground on flame,  
And drew a precious trail. *Dryden*.

—The shadows of all bodies, in this light, were bordered with three parallel *fringes*, or bands of coloured light, whereof that which was contiguous to the shadow was broadest and most luminous; and that which was remotest from it was narrowest, and so faint as not easily to be visible. *Newton's Opt.*

\* To FRINGE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To adorn with fringes; to decorate with ornamental appendages.—Either side of the bank, *fringed* with most beautiful trees, resisted the sun's darts. *Sidney*.—  
Of silver wings he took a shining pair,  
*Fringed* with gold. *Fairfax*.

Here, by the sacred bramble ting'd,  
My petticoat is doubly *fring'd*. *Swift*.

FRINGILLA, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of passerines. The bill is conical, straight, and sharp pointed. See *Plate CLVIII*. There are no less than 108 species comprehended under this genus, distinguished principally by varieties in their colour. The following are the most noted:

1. FRINGILLA AMANDAVA, the AMADUVADE BIRD, is about the size of a wren. The colour of the bill is of a dull red; all the upper parts are brown, with a mixture of red; the under the same, but paler, the middle of the belly darkest; all the feathers of the upper wing coverts, breast, and sides, have a spot of white at the tip; the quills are of a grey brown; the tail is black; and the legs are of a pale yellowish white. It inhabits Bengal, Java, Malacca, and other parts of Asia; and feeds on millet.

2. FRINGILLA CÆLEBS, the CHAFFINCH, has black limbs, and the wings white on both sides; the 3 first feathers of the tail are without spots, but the 2 chief ones are obliquely spotted. It has its name from its delighting in chaff. This species entertains us agreeably with its song very early in the year, but towards the end of summer assumes a chirping note: both sexes continue with us the whole year. In Sweden, the females quit that country in September, migrate in flocks into Holland, leaving their mates behind; and return in spring. In Hampshire Mr White has observed something of this kind; vast flocks of females with scarcely any males among them. Their nest is almost as elegantly constructed as that of the goldfinch, (N. 5.) and of much the same materials, the inside has the addition of some large fea-

thers. They lay 4 or 5 eggs of a dull whitish tinged and spotted with deep purple. caught in plenty in flight time; but the rarely found, though they build in the trees of all sorts. They make their nest of wool, or any thing they can gather have young ones thrice a year. They bred from the nest, being not apt to leave the bird's song, nor to whistle; so that it leave the old ones to bring them up.

finches are generally allowed to be the best for length and variety of song, ending in very pretty notes. They are hardy, and almost upon any seeds. They are seldom diseased, but become very lousy, if not with wine two or three times a month.

3. FRINGILLA CANARIA, the CANARY, hath a whitish body and bill, with the feathers of the wings and tail greenish. See § 3—6. It was originally peculiar to the island to which it owes its name. See CANARY. Though the ancients celebrate the island for its multitude of birds, they have mentioned any in particular. It is probable that our species was not introduced in till after the second discovery of the island 1402. Belon, who wrote in 1555, is the first who speaks to these birds: Gesner is the first who mentions them; and Aldrovand speaks of their rarities, observing that they were very difficult to be obtained, on account of the difficulty attending the bringing them from so distant a country, and that they were chased by people of rank alone. They were first found on the same spot to which we are indebted for the production of these characters; but they are now become so numerous in our own country, that we are under no necessity of crossing the ocean for them. The male will prove fertile with the female of the same species (N. 12. finch (N. 5.); but in this case the male is the most part, proves sterile: the pair best when the hen is the Canary, and the opposite species. She will also prove fertile with the linnet, yellow hammer, chaffin, even the house sparrow; but the male will not assimilate with the female of any other species; the hen must be always of the same species, and the young generally prove Canaries are said by some to live 15 years, 18.

4. FRINGILLA CANNABINA, the GREY FINCH, is rather less than the common finch; has a blood-coloured spot on the forehead; the breast of the male is tinged with red. It is a common fraud in the city of London, when a male bird is distinguished from the female by a red breast, as in this species the feathers, so that the deceit is easily discovered. These birds are frequent in the country; and are often taken in flight in London. They are familiar, and cheerfully answer the call of their captors, a few minutes after they are caught.

5. FRINGILLA CARDUELIS, the GOLDFINCH, with the quill feathers red forwards, and the rest without any spots; the two outer feathers of the tail are white in the middle, as the rest are at the tip. The young bird before it moults is greenish; and hence it is termed by the bird-

FRINGILLA.



FULICA.

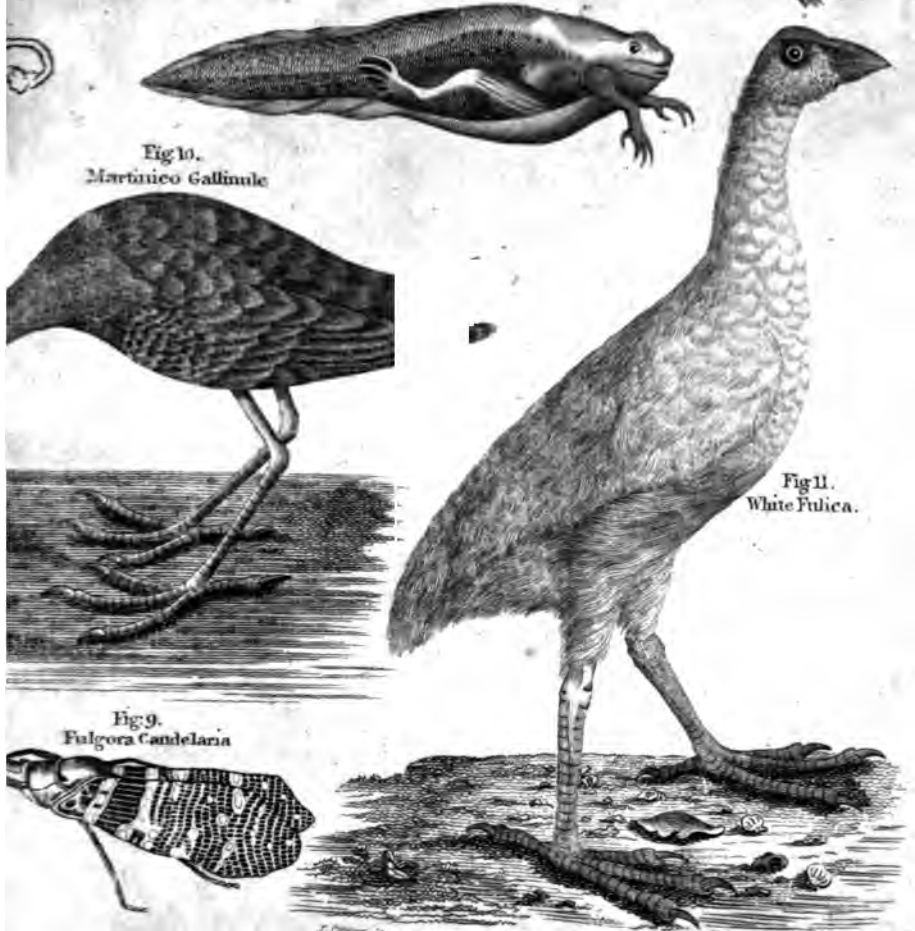




Figure 1: Scatter plot of Score vs Frequency

This figure illustrates the distribution of scores and their corresponding frequencies. The x-axis represents the score, and the y-axis represents the frequency. The data points are scattered, showing a general trend where higher scores correspond to higher frequencies, though there is significant variability.

The plot shows a positive correlation between the score and the frequency, with a dense cluster of points in the lower-left quadrant (low score, low frequency) and a more sparse distribution of points extending towards the upper-right quadrant (high score, high frequency).

There are several points at zero frequency for various scores, and a few points at zero score for various frequencies, indicating that some scores or frequencies are not observed or are very rare in the dataset.

The overall distribution appears to be non-uniform, with a higher density of observations at lower scores and frequencies, suggesting a right-skewed distribution of both variables.

The scatter plot provides a visual representation of the relationship between the two variables, highlighting the concentration of data points and the overall trend of the data.

The data points are scattered across the plot, with a notable concentration between scores of 20 and 60 and frequencies of 20 and 60. There are also several points at zero frequency for various scores, and a few points at zero score for various frequencies.

The plot shows a positive correlation between the score and the frequency, with a dense cluster of points in the lower-left quadrant (low score, low frequency) and a more sparse distribution of points extending towards the upper-right quadrant (high score, high frequency).

There are several points at zero frequency for various scores, and a few points at zero score for various frequencies, indicating that some scores or frequencies are not observed or are very rare in the dataset.



7. There is a variety of this species, the London bird-catchers a *cheverel*, manner in which it concludes its jerk. distinguished from the common sort by a streak, or by two, sometimes three, white streaks on the throat. Their note is very sweet, and much esteemed on that account, as well as their great docility. Towards winter, they are in flocks; and feed on various seeds, and those of the thistle. They are fond of building, and often build in apple or pear trees. They are very elegantly formed of fine moss, and bents, on the outside; lined with hair and hair, and then with the goslin or hen fallow. The hen lays 5 white eggs, with deep purple spots on the upper end: they brood in the year. When kept in cages they are commonly fed much on hemp-seed, which they eat freely, but which is said to grow black, and lose both their red and yellow. Goldfinches often attain the age of 2 years. They abound throughout Europe; and are met with in Asia and Africa, but less com-

8. FRINGILLA DOMESTICA, the SPARROW, has the feathers of the wings and tail brown, variegated with grey and black, and a streak on the wings. These birds are very voracious, and have 3 broods in the year. They are every where common about our houses; they build in every place they can find; under the roof, corner of the house, or in holes of the wall. They make a nest of mud; generally a little hay ill put together, lined well with feathers; where they lay 4 or 5 of a reddish white colour spotted with black. They sometimes build in trees, in which they take more pains with the nest; and of the martins from theirs, to save the labour of constructing one of their own. Sparrows frequenting only habitations and parts may be said to be chiefly fed from human industry; for in spite of every precaution, they partake with the pigeons, poultry, &c. of what is thrown out to them, grain of all kinds, &c. and agreeable to their taste, though they are so familiar from the kitchen of most kinds. They are very crafty, and do not so easily fall into a snare as many others. In autumn they collect into flocks, and roost in numerous neighbouring trees, when they may be taken in nets, or caught in great numbers at a bat fowling-net. The flesh is accounted for by many. The sparrow has no song, and its chirp or two frequently repeated. This bird is found every where throughout Europe; and is met with in Egypt, Senegal, Syria, and the parts of Africa and Asia.

9. FRINGILLA LINARIA, the LESSER RED-POLE, is about the size of the greater red-pole; (see N 11.) It has a rich spot of purplish red on the breast; the breast is of the same colour, but the female is less lively in colour; and the spot on the breast; and the spot on the breast is of a saffron hue. This species is common in England; and lays 4 or 5 eggs of a bluish green, sprinkled near the blunt end with blackish spots. Mr Pennant mentions an in-

stance of this bird being so tenacious of her nest, as to suffer herself to be taken off by the hand, and when released she would not forsake it. This species is known about London by the name of the *stone red pole*. Whole flocks of them, mixed with the liskin, (see N 12.) frequent places where alders grow, for the sake of picking the catkins: they generally hang like the titmouse, with the back downwards; and in this state are so intent on their work, that they may be entangled by dozens, by means of a twig smeared with birdlime fastened to the end of a long pole. This species seems to be plentiful throughout Europe, from the extreme parts of Russia to Italy. It is very common in Greenland, and was also met with by our late voyagers at Oonalashka. In America it is likewise well known. Hence it seems to be a bird common to all the northern parts of the globe.

8. FRINGILLA LINOTA, the LINNET, has the bottom of the breast of a fine blood-red, which heightens as the spring advances. These birds are much esteemed for their song. They feed on seeds of different kinds, which they peel before they eat; the seed of the LINUM or flax is their favourite food; from whence the name. They breed among furze and white thorn: the outside of their nests is made with moss and bents, and lined with wool and hair. They lay 5 whitish eggs, spotted like those of the goldfinch.

9. FRINGILLA MONTIFRINGILLA, the BRANBLING, has a yellow bill tipped with black; the head, hind part of the neck, and back, are black; the throat, fore part of the neck, and breast, pale rufous orange; lower part of the breast and belly white; the quill feathers brown, with yellowish edges; the tail a little forked; the legs grey. This species migrates into England at certain seasons, but does not build. It is frequently found among chaffinches, and sometimes comes in vast flocks. They are also seen at certain times in vast clouds in France, insomuch that the ground has been quite covered with their dung, and more than 600 dozen were killed each night. They eat various seeds, but are particularly fond of beech mast. Their flesh is eaten by many, but is apt to prove bitter. They are said to breed about Luxemburg, making their nests on the tall fir trees, composed of long moss without, and lined with wool and feathers within: the hen lays 4 or 5 eggs, yellowish, and spotted; and the young are fledged at the end of May. This species is found more or less throughout Europe; and is common in the pine forests of Russia and Siberia, but those of the last are darker in colour and less in size.

10. FRINGILLA MONTIUM, the TWITE, is about the size of a linnet. It has the feathers of the upper part of the body dusky; those on the head edged with ash-colour, the others with brownish red; the rump is pale crimson; the wings and tail are dusky, the tips of the greater coverts and secondaries whitish; the legs pale brown. The female wants the red mark on the rump. Twites are taken in the flight season near London, along with linnets. The name seems to have been taken from their twittering note. The bird-catchers tell at some distance whether there be any twites among linnets, merely from this. The twite is

supposed to breed in the more northern parts of Britain.

11. FRINGILLA SENEGALA, the SENEGAL FINCH, is a very little bigger than the wren. The bill is reddish, edged all round with brown; on the ridge of the upper, and beneath the under mandible, is a line of brown quite to the tip: the upper parts of the body are of a vinaceous red colour; the lower parts, with the thighs and under tail coverts, of a greenish brown; the hind part of the head and neck, the back, scapulars, and wing coverts, are brown; the tail is black; and the legs are pale grey. It inhabits Bengal, and feeds on millet. The natives catch them by supporting a large hollowed gourd, bottom uppermost, on a stick, with a string leading to some covered place, and stretching under it some millet; the little birds, hastening in numbers to pick it up, are caught beneath the trap, by pulling away the stick. The females sing nearly as well as the males. They are familiar, and when once used to the climate, frequently live 5 or 6 years in a cage. They have been bred in Holland.

12. FRINGILLA SPINUS, the SISKIN, has the prime feathers of the wings yellow in the middle, and the four first chief tail feathers without spots; but they are yellow at the base, and black at the points. Mr Willoughby says, that this is a song bird; and that in Suffex it is called the *barley bird*, because it comes to them in barley seed time. It visits these islands at very uncertain times, like the *grose-beak*, &c. It is to be met with in the bird shops in London; and being rather scarce, sells at a higher price than the merit of its song deserves: it is known there by the name of the *aberdivine*. It is very tame and docile; and is often kept and paired with the canary bird, with which it breeds freely. Dr Kramer informs us, that this bird conceals its nest with great art; and though there are infinite numbers of young birds in the woods on the banks of the Danube, which seem just to have taken flight, yet no one could discover it.

FRINTON, a town in Essex, near Gunfleet.

FRINWALT, a town of Brandenburg, on the Oder, 30 miles NE. of Berlin.

(1.) FRIO, a river of Spain, in Granada.

(2.) FRIO, CAPE, a promontory of Brasil, in the prov. of Rio de Janeiro. Lon. 41. 31. W. Lat. 22. 54. S.

(1.) \* FRIPPERER. *n. s.* [from *frippier*, Fr.] One who deals in old things vamped up.

(2.) FRIPPERERS, or FRIPPIERS, were a regular corporation at Paris, of an ancient standing, and made a considerable figure in that city before the revolution.

\* FRIPPERY. *n. s.* [*fripperie*, Fr. *fripporia*, Italian.] 1. The place where old cloaths are sold. — We know what belongs to a *frippery*. *Shak.* — Lurana is a *frippery* of bankrupts, who fly thither from Druma to play their after game. *Hoswell's Focal Forest.* 2. Old cloaths; cast dresses; tattered rags. —

Poor poet ape, that would be thought our chief,

Whose works are ev'n the *frippery* of wit;

From brocade is become so bold a thief,

As we, the robb'd, leave rage, and pity it.

*Ben Jonson.*

The fighting place now seascots rage

And all the tackling is a *frippery*.

— Ragfair is a place near the Tower of 1 where old cloaths and *frippery* are sold. F

FRISCHACH, a bay of the Baltic, at the mouth of the Vistula.

FRISHBACHALLEN, a mountain of 3 miles E. of Pruck.

(1.) FRISCH-HAFF, a gulf between EN Konigsberg, separated from the Baltic, by 1 NERUNO, 18 leagues long, and 2 broad, communicating with the Baltic by a narrow passage.

(2.) FRISCH-HAFF, a gulf on the coast of Pomerania, 25 miles long, from E. and 8 broad from N. to S. The Oder flows through it, at the E. end.

FRISCHLIN, Nicodemus, a learned C born at Baling in Suabia, in 1547. At the age of 20, he was made a professor in the Univ. of Tubingen. In 1580, he published an original praise of a country life, with a paraphrase of Virgil's Eclogues and Georgics, in which he made such severe remarks on some courtiers that he threatened his life. This led him to retire to a castle in Carniola, and afterwards to discontinue his German; but at last his enemies got him up in Wirtemberg castle, from whence he escaped by falling down from a great height among the rocks, and was killed on the spot. He wrote also a Latin grammar, of geometry, and many poems, comedies and tragedies.

FRISCH-NERUNG, a narrow strait of 1 league long, between the Baltic and Frisch-Haff, and hardly 2 broad.

FRISEI, } or FRISONES, an ancient  
FRISII, } of Germany, so called either  
FRISIONES, } their ardent love of freedom from the fresh and unbroken lands they occupied. Tacitus divides them, from their extent of territory into

1. FRISIONES MAJORES, situated on the banks of the Rhine and the Ems; and

2. FRISIONES MINORES, occupying the banks about the lakes lying between the channel of the Rhine.

\* FRISK. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A frolic of wanton gaiety.

\* To FRISK. *v. n.* [*frizarre*, Ital.] 1. To skip. — Put water into a glass, and with your finger, and draw it round about the lip of the glass, pressing it somewhat hard; and after doing it some few times about, it will make a fine dew. 2. The hills fell a *frisking* in the net. *L'Estrange* Whether every one hath experimented this frolicsome intrusion of some *frisking* ideas, thus importune the understanding, and hindered from being better employed, I know not. 2. To dance in frolic or gaiety. —

We are astwin'd lambs, that did *frisk* i'  
And bleat the one at the other: what we  
Was innocence for innocence; we knew not  
The doctrine of ill doing. *Shak. Wint.*

About them *frisking* play'd

All beasts of th' earth. *Milt. P.*

— A wanton heifer *frisked* up and down in the dews at ease and pleasure. *L'Estrange.* —

h the quick motions of the *frisking* tail,  
rve their fury with the rushing male.

*Dryden's Virgil.*  
ccchus thro' the conquer'd Indies rode,  
its in gambols *frisk'd* before their ho-  
t god. *Dryden.*  
o the mountains airy tops advanc'd,  
*frag* satyrs on the summits danc'd.

Those merry blades,  
/t it under Pindus' shades. *Prior.*  
its at the sound of an organ, and yet  
and *frisk* at the sound of a bagpipe.  
Buli.—

enters thus, in Borneo's isle,  
h a monkey by a wile,  
nick animal amuse;  
ace before him gloves and shoes;  
when the brute puts aukward on,  
tightly is gone:

to *frisk* or climb he tries:  
attention seize the grinning prize. *Swift.*  
KER. *n. f.* [from *frisk*.] A wanton; one  
ot or settled.—

I will wear this, and now I will wear that;  
will wear I cannot tell what:  
fashions be pleasant to me:  
an a *frisker*, all men on me look;  
ould I do but set cock on the hoop?

*Camden.*  
KINESS. *n. f.* [from *frisk*.] Gaiety;  
A low word.

KY *adj.* [*frisque*, Fr. from *frisk*.] Gay;  
low word.

INES. See FRISIL.

RT, a town of Germany, in the bishop-  
ter, 14 miles SW. of Oldenburg, and  
Münster. Lon. 24. 4. E. of Ferro.  
N.

RIT. *n. f.* [among chymists.] Ashes or  
r tried together with sand. *Ditt.*

R, or FRIR, in the glass manufacture, is  
r ingredients whereof glass is to be  
en they have been calcined or baked in a  
A salt drawn from the ashes of the plant  
tern or other plants mixed with sand or  
baked together, makes an opaque mass,  
glassine *frir*; probably from the Italian  
o fry; or because the *frir* when melted,  
amps. like fritters, called by the Italians  
rit, by the ancients, was called *ammoni-*  
*um*, sand, and *nitre*; under which  
thus described by Pliny: Fine sand  
Volturnian sea, mixed with three times  
ity of nitre, and melted, makes a mass  
*monitrum*, which being rebaked makes

. *frir*, Neri observes, is only the calx  
terials which make glass; which though  
it be melted, and glass be made, with-  
calcining them, yet it would take much  
e. This calcining, or making of *frir*, serves  
ad incorporate the materials together,  
vaporate all the superfluous humidity.  
once made, is readily fused and turned  
e. There are 3 kinds of frits: 1. The  
t, or that for crystal metal, made with  
berine and sand: 2. The ordinary frit,  
h bare ashes of pulverine or barilla, with-

out extracting the salt from them. This makes  
the ordinary white or crystal metal. 3. The frit  
for green glasses, made of common ashes, without  
any preparation. This last requires 10 or 12  
hours baking. The materials in each are to be  
finely powdered, washed, and searced; then e-  
qually mixed, and frequently stirred together in  
the melting pot. See CRYSTAL, and GLASS.

(1.) \* FRITH. *n. f.* [*fratum*, Lat.] 1. A strait  
of the sea where the water being confined is  
rough.—

What desp'rate madman then would venture  
o'er  
The *frith*, or haul his cables from the shore?  
*Dryden's Virgil.*

Batavian fleets  
Defraud us of the glittering tinny swarms  
That heave our *friths*, and crowd upon our  
shores. *Tbomson.*

2. A kind of net. I know not whether this sense  
be now retained.—The Wear is a *frith*, reaching  
through the Ose, from the land to low water  
mark, and having in it a bunt or cod with an eye  
hook; where the fish entering, upon their coming  
back with the ebb, are isopt from issuing out a-  
gain. *Carew.*

(2.) FRITH, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) usually signifies the  
opening of a river into the sea; such are the Frith  
of Forth, or of Edinburgh, the Frith of Clyde,  
Moray Frith, &c.

(3, 4.) FRITH, in geography, 2 English villages:  
1. in Kent. 2. in Middlesex, near Hendon.

FRITILLARIA, FRITILLARY; a genus of the  
monogynia order, belonging to the hexa-dria class  
of plants; and in the natural method ranking un-  
der the 10th order, *Crocovite*. The corolla is  
hexapetalous and campanulate, with a nectari-  
ferous cavity above the heel in each petal; the fla-  
mina are as long as the corolla. There are 5 spe-  
cies, all bulbous-rooted showery perennials, pro-  
ducing annual stalks from about one foot to a yard  
or more high, terminated by large, bell-shaped,  
lilaceous flowers, of a great variety of colours.  
They are all propagated by offsets, which they  
furnish abundantly from the sides of their roots,  
and which may be separated every second or third  
year. They are hardy plants, and will thrive in  
ny of the common borders.

\* FRITILLARY. *n. f.* [*fritillaire*, French.] A  
plant. *Miller*

FRITILLUS, a dice-box. See DICE-BOX, § 2.

\* FRITINANCY. *n. f.* [from *fritinnio*, Lat.]  
The scream of an insect, as the cricket or cicada—  
The note or *fritinnancy* thereof is far more shrill  
than that of the locust, and its life short. *Brown's*  
*Vulgar Err.*

FRITINDEN, a village in Kent.

\* FRITTER. *n. f.* [*friture*, Fr.] 1. A small  
piece cut to be fried.—

Maids, *fritters* and pancakes now see ye make,  
Let Slut have one pancake for company sake.

*Tusser.*  
2. A fragment a small piece.—Sense and putter!  
have I lived to stand in the taunt of ore that  
makes *fritters* of English! *Shak. Merry Wives of*  
 *Windsor*—If you strike a solid body that is brittle  
as glass or sugar, it breaketh not only where the im-  
mediate force is, but breaketh all about into shivers  
and

*and fritters*; the motion, upon the pressure, searching all ways, and breaking where it findeth the body weakest. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

The ancient errant knights

Won all their ladies hearts in fights;

And cut whole giants into fritters,

To put them into amorous twitters. *Hudib.*

3. A cheesecake; a wig. *Ainsworth.*

\* To FRITTER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To cut meat into small pieces to be fried. 2. To break into small particles or fragments.—

Joy to great chaos! let division reign!

My racks and tortures soon shall drive them hence,  
Break all their nerves and fritter all their sense.

*Dunciad.*

How prologues into prefaces decay,

And these to notes are fritter'd quite away.

*Dunciad.*

FRITZLAR, a town of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, on the Eder, 13 miles SSW. of Cassel. Lon. 26. 41. E. of Retz. Lat. 50. 0. N.

FRIULANI, the people of FRIULI.

(1.) FRIULI, a province of Maritime Austria, in the ci-devant republic of Venice, bounded on the N. by Tirol and Carinthia; E. by Carniola and Gradisca; S. by the Adriatic, and W. by the Trevisan, Feltrin, and Bellunese. According to Dr Oppenheim, it is 55 miles long, 65 broad, and 263 in circumference; containing 4 cities, 20 towns and boroughs, and 600 villages. The country is partly level, partly mountainous. The former is very fertile, producing all kinds of corn, wine, fruits, &c. but the mountains produce only timber and game; and the roads through them are truly terrific, being in many places hardly passable, either on foot or on horseback. The chief rivers are the Tagliamento, Meduna, Cellina and Stella. Cattle are numerous, and the culture of silk is so extensive, that 1000 cwt. are annually produced. The population in 1581, was only 196,510; in 1735 it had arisen to 342,158; and in 1795 to 365,512. The inhabitants called *Furlani* or *Friulani*, are reckoned, says Dr Oppenheim, the *wildest* in Italy, tho' we should suppose they cannot exceed the Calabrians in barbarity. They speak a dialect resembling the ancient French, widely differing from both the modern Italian and German. This country was called by the Romans FORUM JULI. It was taken from the Lombards by Charlemagne, but belonged to the Venetians from 1420 to 1797. It is divided into the dioceses of Udina and Concordia. Udina is the capital.

(2.) FRIULI, CIVIDAD, or CIVIDAD DI. See CIVIDAD, N° 5. This town, anciently called FORUM JULI, is reckoned the 2d capital of the above province, (N° 1.) and contained 400 inhabitants, in 1795.

\* FRIVOLOUS. *adj.* [*frivolus*, Lat. *frivole*, Fr.] Slight; trifling; of no moment.—It is *frivolous* to say we ought not to use bad ceremonies of the church of Rome, and presume all such bad as it pleaseth themselves to dislike. *Hooker.*—These seem very *frivolous* and fruitless; for by the breach of them, little damage can come to the commonwealth. *Spenser.*—

She tam'd the brinded lioness,

And spotted mountain pard; but set at nought  
The *frivolous* bolt of Cupid. *Milton.*

Those things which now seem /  
flight,

Will be of serious consequence to:  
When they have made you once i

—All the impeachments in Greece agreed in a notion of being concerned, honour, to condemn whatever perjured, however *frivolous* the article, ver weak the proofs. *Swift.*—I will any mistake, and do not think myself answer every *frivolous* objection. *Art*

\* FRIVOLOUSLY. *adv.* [from *frivolously*]; without weight.

\* FRIVOLOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *frivolous*]; Want of importance; triflingness.

(1.) FRIZE, in architecture. See 1. and FRIEZE, § 2.

(2.) FRIZE, in commerce. See F Of frizes, some are crossed, others number are chiefly of English manufacture of Irish.

FRIZER, *n. f.* See next article.

FRIZING OF CLOTH, a term in manufactory, applied to the forming of stuff into a number of little hard bunnences, covering almost the whole of. Some cloths are only frized on the black cloths; others on the right coloured and mixed cloths, rattens, &c. Frizing may be performed two with the hand, by two workmen, with kind of plank that serves for a frizing. The other, by a mill, worked either a horse; and sometimes by men. The teemed the better way; as, the motion uniform and regular, the little knobs more equably and regularly. The this useful machine is as follows: The parts are the FRIZER, or crisper, the and the drawer, or beam. The two equal planks or boards, each about 10 or 15 inches broad; differing only in this: zing table is lined or covered with a woollen stuff, of a rough sturdy nap; a is incrustated with a kind of cement, glue, gum arabic, and a yellow sand, the aquavitæ, or urine. The beam thus called, because it draws the stuff between the frizer and the frizing table on roller, beset all over with little points or ends of wire, like those of carding of wool. The disposition of the machine are thus: The table stands and bears or sustains the cloth to be frized is laid with that side uppermost on which is to be raised; over the table is placed at such a distance from it as to give room for the stuff to be passed between them: the frizer, having a very slow semicircular motion, moving the long hairs or naps of the cloth rolls them into little knobs or burrs; same time, the drawer, which is continually draws away the stuff from under the winds it over its own points. All that has to do while the machine is a-going, the stuff on the table, as fast as the d it off, and from time to time to take

joint of the drawer. The design of ha-  
nizing table lined with stuff of a short  
ny nap, is that it may detain the cloth  
he table and the frizer long enough for  
to be formed, that the drawer may not  
ray too readily, which must otherwise  
; as it is not held by any thing at the  
It is unnecessary to say any thing par-  
the manner of frizing stuffs with the  
ing the aim of the workmen to imitate  
they can with their wooden instrument,  
square, and circular motion of the ma-  
e need only add, that their frizer is but  
feet long, and one broad; and that to  
nap more easily, they moisten the sur-  
y, with water mingled with whites of  
sey.

UZZLE. *v. a.* [*frizer, Fr.*] To curl in  
like nap of frizec.—

Th' humble shrub  
th, with frizled hair implicit. *Milton.*  
isled and curled their hair with hot i-  
rewill.—

'd my shoe, and swear  
I spy'd this yellow frizled hair. *Gay.*  
ZLER. *n. f.* [from *frizle.*] One that  
rt curls.

*adv.* [of *fro*, Saxon.] 1. Backward; re-  
It is only used in opposition to the word  
*fro*, backward and forward, *to* and *from*.  
thaginians having spoiled all Spain, roo-  
that were affected to the Romans; and the  
having recovered that country, did cut  
t favoured the Carthaginians: so betwixt  
k, to and *fro*, there was scarce a native  
left. *Spenser.*—

ben a heap of gather'd thorns is cast,  
y, now *fro*, before th' autumnal black,  
er clung, it rolls around the field. *Pope.*  
contraction of *from*; not now used.—

turn round like grindstones,  
they dig out *fro*' the delves,  
ir bairns bread, wives and selves. *Jonf.*  
ENIUS, John, a famous and learned prin-  
16th century, born at Hamelburg in Fran-  
studied in the university of Basil, where  
d great reputation for learning, and set-  
printing house in that city, was the first  
man printers who brought that admira-  
any degree of perfection. Being a man  
wobity and piety, he would never, for  
f profit, suffer libels or any thing that  
t the reputation of another, to go thro'

The great character of this printer, was  
pal motive which induced Erasmus to re-  
in order to have his own works printed  
A great number of valuable books were  
him with care and accuracy. He died  
Erasmus wrote his epitaph in Greek and  
ohn Frobenius left a son named *Jerome*  
and a daughter married to Nicholas E-  
y who, joining in partnership, continued  
s printing-house with reputation, and  
wreck editions of the Greek Fathers.

ROBISHER, or FOMBISHA, Sir Martin,  
rt navigator and sea officer in the 16th  
born at Doncaster in Yorkshire, and from  
brought up to navigation. He was the

first Englishman who attempted to find a NW.  
passage to China, and in 1576, he sailed with two  
barks and a pinnace for that purpose. In this  
voyage he discovered a cape, to which he gave  
the name of *Queen Elizabeth's Foreland*, and the  
next day discovered a strait to which he gave his  
own name. (See § 2.) This voyage proving unsuc-  
cessful, he attempted the same passage in 1577;  
but discovering some ore in an island, and his  
commission directing him only to search for ore,  
he returned to England with it. He sailed again  
with 25 ships and a great number of adventurers,  
to form a settlement; but being obstructed by the  
ice, and driven out to sea by a violent storm, they,  
after encountering many difficulties, returned  
home, without making any settlement; but with  
a large quantity of ore.—He afterwards command-  
ed the *Aid* in Sir Francis Drake's expedition to the  
West Indies, in which St Domingo, Carthagena,  
and Santa Justina, in Florida, were taken and  
sacked. In 1588, he bravely exerted himself a-  
gainst the Spanish armada, when he commanded  
the *Triumph*, one of the largest ships in that ser-  
vice: and as a reward for his distinguished brave-  
ry, received the honour of knighthood, from the  
lord high-admiral at sea. He afterward com-  
manded a squadron which cruised on the Spanish  
coast; and in 1592, took two valuable ships and a  
rich carrac. In 1594 he was sent to the assistance  
of Henry IV. king of France, against a body of the  
Leaguers and Spaniards, who had strongly en-  
trenched themselves at Croyzon near Brest; but  
in an assault upon that fort, on the 7th Novem-  
ber, he was unfortunately wounded with a ball, of  
which he died soon after he had brought back the  
fleet to Plymouth, and was buried in that town.

(2.) FROBISHER'S STRAITS, a narrow sea, S.  
of Cape Walsingham; W. of Davis's Strait, and  
N. of Cape Farewell in West Greenland. Lon.  
from 65. to 70. W. Lat. between 61. 50. and 63.  
20. N.

\* FROCK. *n. f.* [*froc*, French.] 1. A dress; a  
coat.—

That monster, custom is angel, yet in this,  
That to the use of actions, fair and good,  
He likewise gives a frock or livery,  
That aptly is put on. *Shak. Hamlet.*  
Chalybeat temper'd steel, and frock of mail  
Adamantean proof. *Milton's Agon.*

2. A kind of close coat for men.—  
I strip my body of my shepherd's frock.  
*Dryden.*

3. A kind of gown for children.  
FRODINGHAM, or } a town of Yorkshire, 36  
FRODLINGHAM, } miles E. of York, and  
194 N. of London. Lon. o. 12. W. Lat. 53. 56.  
N.

FRODSHAM, a town of Cheshire, noted for  
its ancient castle. It has a stone bridge over the  
Weaver, near its conflux with the Mersey, and a  
harbour for ships of good burden. By the late in-  
land navigation, it has communication with the ri-  
vers Dee, Ribble, Darwent, Ourse, Trent, Severn,  
Humber, Thames, Avon, &c. which navigation, in-  
cluding its windings, extends above 500 miles, in the  
counties of Lincoln, Nottingham, York, Lancas-  
ter, Westmoreland, Stafford, Warwick, Leicester,  
Oxford, Worcester, &c. Frodsam is 19 miles  
NE.

NE. of Chester, and 18; NNW. of London. Lon. 2. 58. W. Lat. 53. 20. N.

(1.) \* FROG. *n. f.* [*frogga*, Sax.] 1. A small animal with four feet, living both by land and water, and placed by naturalists among mixed animals, as partaking of beast and fish; famous in Homer's Poem. There is likewise a small green frog that perches on trees, said to be venomous. —Poor Tom, that eats the swimming frog, the toad, the tadpole. *Shak. King Lear.*—Auster is drawn with a pot or urn, pouring forth water, with which shall descend frogs. *Peacocks on Drawing.*

2. The hollow part of the horse's hoof.

(2.) FROG, in zoology, § 1, def. 1. See RAWA.

(3.) FROG, in geography, a town of the United States in Georgia; 6 miles W. of Tugleoo.

(1.) \* FROGBIT. *n. f.* [*frog and bit.*] An herb. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) FROGBIT. See HYDROCHARIS.

FROGES, a town of France, in the dept. of Isere, 15 miles WNW. of Grenoble.

(1.) \* FROGFISH. *n. f.* [*frog and fish.*] A kind of fish. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) The FROGFISH is a very singular animal of Surinam, of which a figure is given by Mr Edwards, in his *History of Birds*, Vol. I. There is no specimen in the British museum, nor in any private collection, except that of Dr Fothergill. It was brought from Surinam in South America. Frogs, both in Asia and Africa, according to Merian, change gradually from fishes to frogs, as those in Europe; but after many years revert again into fishes, though the manner of their change has never been investigated. In Surinam these fishes are called JAKJES. They are cartilaginous, of a substance like our mussels, and exquisite food; they are formed with regular vertebræ, and small bones all over the body divided into equal parts; are first darkish, and then grey: their scales make a beautiful appearance. Whether this animal is, in its perfect state, a species of frog with a tail, or a kind of water lizard, Mr Edwards does not pretend to determine; but observes, that when its size is considered, if it should be deemed a tadpole at first produced from spawn, and in its progress towards a frog, such an animal, when full grown, if it bears the same proportion to its tadpole as those in Europe do, must be of enormous size; for our full-grown frogs exceed the tadpoles at least 50 times. See a reduced figure on Plate CLVIII.

\* FROGRASS. *n. f.* [*frog and grass.*] A kind of herb.

FROG-LAKE, a lake of N. America. Lon. 91. 50. W. of Greenwich. Lat. 53. 15. N.

\* FROGLETTUCE. *n. f.* [*frog and lettuce.*] A plant.

FROHBURG, a town of Saxony, on the Wihara, 5 miles SSE. of Perua.

FROHENS LE GRAND, a town of France, in the dept. of Somme, 6 miles NW. of Doullens.

FROHNSDORF, a town of Germany in Upper Saxony, 7 miles SE. of Weissee.

FROHNSPURG, a town of Germany, in Austria, 1 mile S. of Haidberg.

FROJANA, a town of Spain in Galicia, 22 miles NNE. of Orense.

\* FROJED, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 7 miles S. of Helsingborg.

FROILA I, K. of Spain, succeeded Alphonso I. in 757, made several go opposed the Moors. In 760, he del racens under Omar; but sullied his dering his brother Vemazan; and w himself by his other brother Aureliu

FROILA II. succeeded his brother 923, but proved a barbarous tyrant, the Castilians revolt. He died of the l

\* FROISE. *n. f.* [from the Fren the pancake is crisped or crimped i kind of food made by frying bacon pancake.

FROISSARD, or } John, an emi  
FROISSART, } and poet, boi  
ennes, in 1537. He was canon and tre may in Hainault. His chief work is the transactions in France, Spain and 1326 to 1400, which is reckoned v The best edition is that of Lyons in 1559. Sleidan abridged it, and Mo nued it down to 1466. Froissart re the court of Q. Philippa, wife of He has been accused of partiality to but the late Lord Gardenston, in hi: *English Historians*, prefers him to his Hume. He died about 1410.

FROISSY, a town of France, in th of Oise, 5 miles SSW. of Breteuil.

(1.) \* FROLICK. *adj.* [*vrolijck*, full of levity; full of pranks.—

We fairies, that do run

By the triple Hecate's team,

From the presence of the sun,

Following darkness like a dream,

Now are frolick. *Shak. Midf. Ni*

Whether, as some sages sing,

The frolick wind that breathes the

Zephyr with Aurora playing,

As he met her once a Maying;

There on beds of violets blue,

And fresh-blown roses wash'd in d

Fill'd her with thee a daughter fai

So buxom, blithe, and debonnaire.

Who ripe, and frolick of his ful

Roving the Celtick and Iberian fie

At last betakes him to this ominou:

The gay, the frolick, and the le

(2.) \* FROLICK. *n. f.* [from the a

wild prank; a flight of whim and le

He would be at his frolick once

And his pretensions to divinity.

—Alcibiades, having been formerly

like frolicks and excursions, was imi

culed of this. *Swift.*—

While rain depends, the pensive

Her frolicks, and pursues her tail

\* To FROLICK, *v. n.* [from the play wild pranks; to play tricks of le cty.—Manly spirit and genius play with words, nor frolicks the caprice imagination. *Glauce.*—

Then to her new love let her go

And deck her in golden array;

Be sinned at every fine show,

And frolick it all the long day.

**OLICKLY.** *adv.* [from *frolick.*] Gaily;

**OLICKSOME.** *adj.* [from *frolick.*] Full gaiety.

**OLICKSOMELY.** *adv.* [from *frolicksome.*] rick gaiety.

**OLICKSOMENESS.** *n. f.* [from *frolick.*] Wildness of gaiety; pranks.

**LOIS,** a town of France, in the department d'Or, 21 miles NW. of Dijon.

**FROM.** *prep.* [from, Saxon and Scottish.]

7; noting privation.—  
ur fighting Zulima, this very hour,  
aketen thousand subjects *from* your power.

*Dryden.*  
fatters one the barking porter ty'd,  
ook him trembling *from* his sov'reign's side.

*Dryden.*  
rissa drew, with tempting grace,  
edg'd weapon *from* the shining case. *Pope.*

g reception.—  
at time would spare *from* steel receives its  
ate. *Pope.*

g proceffion, descent, or birth.—  
as the hard and stubborn race of man  
animated rock and flint began. *Blackmore.*

ong began *from* Jove. *Dryden.*  
ceeding kings rise *from* the happy bed.

*Irene.*  
g transmission.—  
messengers *from* our sister and the king.

*Shak.*  
g abstraction or vacation.—  
I shall find time  
his enormous state, and seek to give  
their remedies. *Shak. King Lear.*

g following; noting succession.—These  
we must examine *from* first to last, to find  
was the form of the earth. *Burnet's The-*  
bid her *from* time to time be comforted.

*Spectator.* 7. Out of; noting emission.  
When the most high  
Father, *from* his secret cloud  
in thunder utter'd thus his voice *Milt.*  
pierc'd with pain the shook her haugh-  
head,  
*from* her inward soul, and thus she said.

*Dryden's Æneid.*  
g progress *from* premisses to inferences.  
jection be not removed, the conclusion  
nce *from* the time past to the time pre-  
ot be found and perfect. *Bacon's War*  
s.—This is evident *from* that high and  
reality, which shined forth in some of  
it heathens. *South.* 9. Noting the place  
*from* whom a message is brought.—The  
ming, and I must speak with him *from*  
—How now, Flypellan, cam'st thou *from*  
? *Shak.* 10. Out of; noting extraction.  
high Mænia's rocky shores I came,  
r descent; Acætes is my name. *Ovid.*

ise of. Noting the reason or motive of  
effect.—  
are good, but *from* a nobler cause;  
our own knowledge, not *from* nature's  
rs. *Dryden.*

celebrates the glory of God *from* the con-  
of the greatness of his works. *Tillotson.*

*Parr.*

We sicken soon *from* her contagious care;  
Grieve for her sorrows, groan for her despair.

*Prior.*  
—Relaxations *from* plenitude is cured by spare  
diet, and *from* any cause by that which is contra-  
ry to it. *Arbutnot on Aliments.* 12. Out of.

Noting the ground or cause of any thing.—  
By the sacred radiance of the sun,  
The mysteries of Hecate, and the night;  
By all the operations of the orbs,  
*From* whom we do exist, and cease to be,  
Here I disclaim all my paternal care. *K. Lear.*

—They who believe that the praises which arise  
*from* valour are superiour to those which proceed  
*from* any other virtues, have not considered.

*Dryden's Virgil.*—What entertainment can be rais-  
ed *from* so pitiful a machine? We see the success  
of the battle *from* the very beginning. *Dryden.*

'Tis true *from* force the strongest title springs,  
I therefore hold *from* that which first made kings.

*Dryden.*

13. Not near to: noting distance.—  
His regiment lies half a mile at least  
South *from* the mighty power of the king. *Shak.*

14. Noting separation or recession.—  
To die by thee, were but to die in jest;  
*From* thee to die, were torture more than death.

*Shak.*  
Hast thou beheld, when *from* the goal they start,  
The youthful charioteers with heaving heart,  
Rush to the race, and, panting, scarcely bear  
Th' extremes of feverish hope and chilling fear.

*Dryden.*

15. Noting exemption or deliverance.—  
*From* jealousy's tormenting strife,  
For ever be thy bosom freed. *Prior.*

16. Noting absence.—  
Our father he hath writ, so hath our sister,  
Of differences, which I best thought it fit  
To answer *from* our home. *Shak. King Lear.*

17. Noting derivation.—  
I lay the deep foundations of a wall,  
And Enos, nam'd *from* me, the city call. *Æt.*

18. Since. Noting distance from the past.—The  
flood was not the cause of mountains, but there  
were mountains *from* the creation. *Raleigh's Hist.*

—I had, *from* my childhood, a wart upon one of  
my fingers. *Bacon's Natural Hist.*—The other had  
been trained up *from* his youth in the war of Flau-  
ders. *Clarendon.*

The milk of tygers was his infant food,  
Taught *from* his tender years the taste of blood.

*Dryden.*  
—Were there, *from* all eternity, no memorable  
actions done 'till about that time? *Tillotson.* 19.

Contrary to. Not in use.—Any thing so overdone  
is *from* the purpose of playing; whose end, both  
at the first and now, was and is to hold, as 'twere,  
the mirror up to nature. *Hamlet.*

Do not believe,  
That *from* the sense of all civility,  
I thus would play and trifle with your reverence.

*Shak.*  
Did you draw bonds to forfeit? Sign, to break?  
Or must we read you quite *from* what we speak,  
And find the truth out the wrong way? *Donne.*

20. Noting removal.—  
Thrice *from* the ground she leap'd. *Dryd. Æt.*

21. From

21. *From* is very frequently joined by an ellipsis with adverbs: as, *from above*, *from the parts above*; *from below*, *from the places below*; of which some are here exemplified. 22. *FROM above*.—He, which gave them *from above* such power, for miraculous confirmation of that which they taught, endued them also with wisdom *from above*, to teach that which they so did confirm. *Hooker*.—  
No sooner were his eyes in slumber bound,  
Than, *from above*, a more than mortal sound  
Invades his ears. *Dryden's Æn.*
23. *FROM afar*.—  
Light demilances *from afar* they throw. *Æn.*
24. *FROM beneath*.—  
With whirlwinds *from beneath* she tofs'd the ship,  
And bare expos'd the bottom of the deep.  
*Dryden's Virgil.*  
An arm arises out of Stygian flood,  
Which, breaking *from beneath* with bellowing sound,  
Whirls the black waves and rattling stones around. *Dryden.*
25. *FROM behind*.—  
See, to their base restor'd, earth, seas, and air,  
And joyful ages *from behind*, in crowding ranks appear. *Dryden.*
26. *FROM far*.—  
Their train, proceeding on their way,  
*From far* the town and lofty tow'rs survey. *Æn.*
27. *FROM high*.—  
Then heav'n's imperious queen shot down  
*from high*. *Dryden.*
28. *FROM thence*. Here *from* is superfluous.—In the necessary differences which arise *from thence*, they rather break into several divisions than join in any one publick interest; and *from thence* have always risen the most dangerous factions, which have ruined the peace of nations. *Clarendon.* 29. *FROM whence*. *From* is here superfluous.—  
While future realms his wand'ring thoughts delight,  
His daily vision, and his dream by night,  
Forbidden Thebes appears before his eye,  
*From whence* he sees his absent brother fly.  
*Pope's Statius.*
30. *FROM where*.—  
*From where* high Ithaca o'erlooks the floods,  
Brown with o'er-arching shades and pendent woods,  
Us to these shores our filial duty draws. *Pope.*
31. *FROM without*.—When the plantation grows to strength, then it is time to plant it with women as well as with men, that it may spread into generations, and not be pieced *from without*. *Bacon.*  
If native power prevail not, shall I doubt  
To seek for needful succour *from without*. *Æn.*
32. *From* is sometimes followed by another preposition, with its proper case. 33. *FROM amidst*.  
Thou too shalt fall by time or barb'rous foes,  
Whose circling walls the sev'n fam'd hills enclose;  
And thou, whose rival tow'rs invade the skies,  
And, *from amidst* the waves, with equal glory rise.  
*Addison.*
34. *FROM among*.—  
Here had new begun  
*My wand'ring*, had not he, who was my guide  
Up hither, *from among* the trees app  
Presence divine! *Milton's Par*
35. *FROM beneath*.—  
My worthy wife our arms mistai  
And *from beneath* my head my sword  
*Dryden*
36. *FROM beyond*.—There followed him  
titudes of people from Galilee, and fr  
Jordan. *Matt. iv. 25.* 37. *FROM forth*.  
Young Aretus, *from forth* his bride  
Brought the full laver o'er his hands:  
And canisters of consecrated flour.
38. *FROM off*.—The sea being constrain'd  
draw *from off* certain tracts of lands, wh  
then at the bottom of it. *Woodward.*—  
Knights, unhors'd, may rise *from off*  
And fight on foot, their honour to reg
39. *FROM out*.—The king with angry th  
*from out* a window, where he was not  
the world should behold him a behol  
manded his guard and the rest of his l  
hasten their death. *Sidney.*—  
And join thy voice unto the angel-  
*From out* his secret altar touch'd with  
fire,  
Now shake, *from out* thy fruitful l  
seeds  
Of envy, discord, and of cruel deeds.  
Strong god of iron, whose iron see  
The freezing North and hyperborean  
Terror is thine; and wild amazement  
*From out* thy chariot, withers ev'n t
40. *FROM out of*.—Whatsoever such  
there is, it was at the first found out by  
and *from out of* the very bowels of h  
earth. *Hooker.* 41. *FROM under*.—  
He, though blind of sight,  
Despis'd and thought extinguish'd q  
With inward eyes illuminated,  
His fiery virtue rous'd  
*From under* ashes into sudden flame. *J*
42. *FROM within*.—  
*From within*  
The broken bowels, and the bloated  
A buzzing noise of bees his ears alarm  
(1.) *FROME*, a river of England,  
from several springs in the SW. of I  
and running almost due W. passes und  
ton-bridge to Dorchester, and falls int  
the English Channel, called *Poolhaven*, i  
ham.  
(2.) *FROME*, a river of Somersetshire  
ses in Frome-Woodlands, abounds w  
eels, &c. and runs under its stone brid  
Bath: 5 miles SE. of which it falls into  
(3—5.) *FROME*, or *FROOM*, is also t  
other 3 rivers: 1. in Gloucestershire,  
into the Avon at Bristol: 2. in ditto,  
to the Severn near Berkeley: and 3. in  
shire, which runs into the Lug near H  
(6.) *FROME*, or } a town of Som  
*FROME-SELWOOD*, } and the chief t  
part of the country, which was an  
great forest, called *SELWOODSHIRE*. T  
ger than some cities, yet it has only o  
but it has 7 meeting-houses of Protestar  
The number of inhabitants, in 1786,



factory is broad and narrow cloth; of 100 yards are made annually. About 15 more wire cards, for carding wool wools, were made at this place than in any other part of England, which was for the most part with them from hence. There were 1200 matter card-makers, one of whom was a man, women, and children, in that town at once; so that even children of 7 years of age could earn half a crown a-week. This has been long noted for its fine beer, and is to a great age, and is even preferred to the wines of France and Portugal. It is 104 m. E. of Bath, and 104 W. by S. of London. Lat. 51. 10. N.

FRONCES, a town of France, in the department of Somme, 7 miles SW. of Poix.

FRONDLANDS, a forest of Somersetshire, situated at the end of the 17th century, by many coiners and clippers, many of whom were taken and executed, and their covert

FRERE, a town of France, in the department of Pyrenees, 7 m. N. of Mount Lewis.

FRONTA, a town of Spain, in the province of Castellon, 10 miles N. of Valencia.

FRONTWARD, *prep.* [from *frons* and *ward*, Sax.] ; the contrary to the word *towards*. *Use.*—As cheerfully going towards as it is forward *fronward* his death. *Sigs.*—The needle is continually varying towards East and West; and so the dipping or inclining is varying up and down, towards the zenith. *Chym.*

FRONBERG, a town of Westphalia, in the district of Marck, 2 miles W. of Unna.

FRONDESCENTIA, [from *frons*, a leaf.] the unfolding of the leaves of plants. *Use.*—said, by ellipsis, for the time of unfolding.

FRONDESCENTIAE TEMPUS, in botany, the time of the year and month, in which each plant unfolds its first leaves. All plants unfold their leaves every year; but all do not unfold at the same time. Among woody plants, the oak and ash are constantly the latest; the mosses and firs in winter; and most of the honeyuckles; and among annual herbs, the crocus and tulips, are the earliest. The unfolding of the seeds decides with respect to the oak and ash are constantly the latest; the mosses and firs in winter; and most of the honeyuckles; and among annual herbs, the crocus and tulips, are the earliest. The unfolding of the seeds decides with respect to the oak and ash are constantly the latest; the mosses and firs in winter; and most of the honeyuckles; and among annual herbs, the crocus and tulips, are the earliest. The unfolding of the seeds decides with respect to the oak and ash are constantly the latest; the mosses and firs in winter; and most of the honeyuckles; and among annual herbs, the crocus and tulips, are the earliest.

son; that is, according as the sun is sooner or later in dispensing the degree of heat suitable to each species.

\* FRONDIFEROUS. *adj.* [*frondifer*, Latin.] Bearing leaves. *Diſc.*

FRONDOSUS CORDEX. See BOTANY, *Gloss.*

FRONSAC, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde, and ci-devant province of Guienne, on the Ille; 2 miles NW. of Libourne, and 23 NE. of Bourdeaux. Lou. o. 16. W. Lat. 45. 5. N.

(1.) \* FRONT. *n. f.* [*frons*, Latin; *front*, French.] 1. The face.—

His *front* yet threatens, and his frowns command. *Prior.*

They stand not *front* to *front*, but each doth view

The other's tail, pursu'd as they pursue.

The patriot virtues that distend thy thought, Spread on thy *front*, and in thy bosom glow.

*Thomson.*

2. The face, in a sense of censure or dislike: as, a hardened *front*; a fierce *front*. This is the usual sense. 3. The face as opposed to an enemy.—

His forward hand, inur'd to wounds, makes way

Upon the sharpest *fronts* of the most fierce.

*Daniel.*

4. The part or place opposed to the face.—The access of the town was only by a neck of land; our men had shot that thundered upon them from the rampier in *front*, and from the galleys that lay at sea in flank. *Bacon.* 5. The van of an army.—

'Twixt host and host but narrow space was left,

A dreadful interval! and *front* to *front* Presented stood in terrible array. *Milt.*

6. The forepart of any thing, as of a building.—Both these sides are not only returns, but parts of the *front*; and uniform without, though severally partitioned within, and are on both sides of a great and stately tower, in the midst of the *front*. *Baron's Esays.*—Palladius adviseth the *front* of his edifice should so respect the South, that in its first angle it receive the rising rays of the Winter sun, and decline a little from the Winter setting thereof. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—

The prince approach'd the door, Possess'd the porch, and on the *front* above

He fix'd the fatal bough. *Dryden's Æn.*

—One sees the front of a palace covered with painted pillars of different orders. *Addison on Italy.*

7. The most conspicuous part or particular. (2.) FRONT, in anatomy, (§ 1. def. 1.) the forehead, or that part of the face above the eyebrows. The Latin *frons*, is derived by Martinius from the Greek *φρον*, to think, or perceive; of *φρον*, the mind or thought.

(3.) FRONT, in architecture, (§ 1. def. 6.) denotes the principal face or side of a building, or that presented to their chief aspect or view.

\* (1.) To FRONT. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To oppose directly, or face to face; to encounter.—You four shall *front* them in the narrow lane; we will walk lower: if they scape from your encounter, then they light on us. *Shak. Hen. IV.*—Can you, when you have push'd out of your gates the

very defender of them, think to *front* his revenges with easy groans. *Shak. Coriol.*—Some are either to be won to the state in a fast and true manner, or *fronted* with some other of the same party that may oppose them, and so divide the reputation. *Bacon's Essay.*—

I shall *front* thee, like some staring ghost,  
With all my wrongs about me. *Dryd.*  
2. To stand opposed or over-against any place or thing.—The square will be one of the most beautiful in Italy when this statue is erected, and a townhouse built at one end, to *front* the church that stands at the other. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) \* *FRONT*. *v. n.* To stand foremost.—  
I *front* but in that file,

Where others tell steps with me. *Shak. H. VIII.*  
(1.) \* *FRONTAL*. *n. f.* [*frontale*, Latin; *frontal*, French.] Any external form of medicine to be applied to the forehead, generally composed amongst the ancients of coolers and hypnoticks. *Quincy.*—We may apply intercipients upon the temples of mastick: *frontales* may also be applied. *Wijeman.*—The torpedo, alive, stupifies at a distance; but after death produceth no such effect; which had they retained, they might have supplied opium; and served as *frontals* in phrenesies. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

(2.) *FRONTAL*, in architecture, a little fronton, or pediment, sometimes placed over a small door or window.

(3.) *FRONTAL*, *FRONTLET*, or *Brow-band*, in the Jewish ceremonies, consists of 4 several pieces of vellum, on each of which is written some text of scripture. They are all laid on a piece of black calf's leather with thongs to tie it by. The Jews apply the leather with the vellum on their foreheads in the synagogue, and tie it round the head with the thongs.

*FRONTANA*, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 25 miles SE. of Urgel.

\* *FRONTATED*. *adj.* [from *frons*, Latin.] In botany, the *frontated* leaf of a flower grows broader and broader, and at last perhaps terminates in a right line: used in opposition to *cuspedated*, which is, when the leaves of a flower end in a point. *Quincy.*

\* *FRONTBOX*. *n. f.* [*front* and *box*.] The box in the playhouse from which there is a direct view to the stage.—

How vain are all these glories, all our pains,  
Unless good sense preserve what beauty gains!  
That men may say, when we the *frontbox* grace,  
Behold the first in virtue, as in face. *Pope.*

*FRONTE*, a town of Piedmont, in the marquisate of Ivrea, on the Marlon, 11 miles N. of Turin.

\* *FRONTED*. *adj.* [from *frons*.] Formed with a front.—

Part *fronted* brigades form. *Milton.*

*FRONTEIRA*, a town of Portugal in Alentejo, near which the Portuguese, under the D. of Schomberg, defeated the Spaniards in 1663. It is 10 miles N. of Estremoz.

*FRONTEITEN*, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Stiria, 14 miles NNW. of Graz.

*FRONTENAC*. See *FRONTIGNAC*.

*FRONTENHAUSEN*, a town of Bavaria, 5 miles S. of Dingeltingen, and 14 E. of Landshut,

(1.) \* *FRONTIER*. *adj.* [*frontiere*, Bordering; conterminous.—

A place there lies on Gallia's utmo  
Where rising seas insult the *frontier* g

(2.) \* *FRONTIER*. *n. f.* The marches; the utmost verge of any territory; the properly that which terminates not at the fronts another country.—Draw all the of those borders away, or plant garrison those *frontiers* about him. *Spenser on Ire*  
I upon my *frontiers* here keep rest  
That little which is left to defend.

(3.) *FRONTIERS* are the extremes of a country, which the enemies find in if they would enter it. They were ancient *MARCHES*.

*FRONTIGNAC*, a town of France, in the dep. of Hérault, ci-devant province of Languedoc, famous for its excellent wine, seated on the lake Maguelone, 12 miles from Montpellier. Lon. 3. 48. E. Lat. 43. 46.

*FRONTINAC*, *FORT*, a fortress on the NW. side of Lake Ontario, 3 miles from its mouth, and 300 from Quebec. It was taken from the French, in Aug. 1759, by the British, under Col. Bradstreet; though defended by 1000 men and 60 pieces of cannon, besides 100000 lbs. of powder.

*FRONTINUS*, Sextus Julius, an ancient Roman author, of consular dignity, who flourished under the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, Domitian, Nerva, and Trajan. He commanded the Roman armies in Britain, and made city prætor when Vespasian was emperor; consul; and curator of the aqueducts, which occasioned his writing *De aquæ du* *Rome*. He wrote 4 books upon the Roman art of war; a tract *De re agraria*; another *De limitibus*. These have been rarely printed; but were all collected together in a neat edition at Amsterdam, in 1661, by Robert Keuchen. He died under the reign of Trajan.

(1.) \* *FRONTISPIECE*. *n. f.* [*frontis*, quod in fronte conspicitur; *frontispice*,] That part of any building, or other structure, which directly meets the eye.—

With *frontispiece* of diamond and gold  
Embellish'd, thick with sparkling ore  
The portal shone. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

—Who is it has informed us that a race can inhabit no tenement, unless it has a sort of *frontispiece*? *Locke.*—The *frontispiece* of a townhouse has pillars of a beautiful black marble streaked with white. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) *FRONTISPIECE OF A BOOK*, a page with an engraved title on the first page, properly an emblematical engraved device on the title page.

\* *FRONTLESS*. *adj.* [from *frons*.] Wanting shame; void of dissimulation. Thee, *frontless* man, we follow'd  
Thy instruments of death and tools.

*Dryden.*  
For vice, though *frontless* and of hard  
Is daunted at the sight of awful grace  
Strike a blush through *frontless* flaccid

(1.) \* *FRONTLET*. *n. f.* [*frons*, French.] A bandage worn

—How now, daughter, what makes that ? You are too much of late i' th' frown.  
*ear.*—They shall be as *frontlets* between  
*Deut. vi. 8.*—To the forehead *frontlets*  
 ed, to restrain and intercept the influx.  
*Surgery.*

INLET. See *FRONTAL*, § 3.  
 [O, Marcus Cornelius, a Roman Ora-  
 ras preceptor to the emperors Marcus  
 nd Lucius Verus. The former made  
 l, and erected a statue to his honour.  
 him not only eloquence, but the duty  
 ch, and excellent morals.

ANTON, a town of France in the  
 per Garonne, 15 miles N. of Touloute.  
 ANTON. See *FRONTAL*, § 2.

[ONIANI, a sect of Roman Orators,  
 dered M. C. FRONTO, as a model of  
 quence.

NTROOM. *n. f.* [*front* and *room*.] An  
 in the forepart of the house.—If your  
 s in an eminent street, the *frontrooms*  
 only more airy than the backrooms; and  
 nconvenient to make the *frontroom* sha-  
 on.

ZELLA, one of the 17 almost inaccess-  
 s through the mountains of VICENZA,  
 ie Austria, commencing in the valley of  
 it is the narrowest of them, and is so  
 by perpendicular rocks, 300 feet high,  
 of the sun can scarcely penetrate into  
 and the eye cannot perceive the sky."  
 s road," says Dr Oppenheim, "is the  
 most passable" of the 17, "except dur-  
 ing snow, when it is the most perilous."  
*[Stat. Acc. of Marit. Auf. p. 452.*

GARDE, a town of Norway, in the  
 Drontheim, 60 miles SSE. of Drontheim.  
 M, or FROME. See *FROME*, N. 1, 3—5.  
 RE. *adj.* [*bevroren*, Dutch, frozen.]  
 This word is not used since the time of

The parching air  
 core, and cold performs th' effect of fire.

*Milton.*  
 RNE. *adj.* [*bevroren*, Frozen, Dutch.]  
 congealed with cold. Obsolete.—

ly heart-blood is well nigh *frore* I feel,  
 t galage grown fast to my heel. *Spen.*  
 ., a town of Up. Saxony, in the duchy  
 burg, 10 miles S. of Magdeburg.

ASCO, a town of Piedmont, 13 miles  
 urin.

AY, a town of France, in the dep. of  
 ire, 4½ miles SE. of Painbœuf.

FROST. *n. f.* [*frost*, Saxon.] 1. The  
 of cold; the power or act of conglu-

is the state of man: to-day he puts forth  
 ider leaves of hopes; to-morrow blossoms;  
 ears his blushing honours thick upon him;  
 ird day comes a *frost*, a killing *frost*,  
 hen he thinks, good easy man, full surely  
 eatness is a ripening, nips his root,  
 hen he falls. *Sbak. Hen. VIII.*

the *frost* seizes upon wine, only the more  
 parts are coggealed: there is a mighty  
 uch can retreat into itself, and within its

own compass lie secure from the freezing impres-  
 sion. *South.* 2. The appearance of plants and  
 trees sparkling with congelation of dew.—

Behold the groves that shine with silver *frost*,  
 Their beauty wither'd, and their verdure lost.

*Pope's Winter.*

(2.) FROST, or FREEZING, in physiology, is  
 such a state of the atmosphere, as occasions the  
 congelation or freezing of water and other fluids.  
 See *FREEZING*. Under the articles *COLD*, *CONGE-*  
*LATION*, *EVAPORATION*, *FLUIDITY*, and *FREEZ-*  
*ING*, it is shown, that water and other fluids are  
 capable of containing the element of fire or heat in  
 two very different states. In the one, they seem to  
 imbibe fire in such a manner, that it eludes all the  
 methods by which we are accustomed to observe it,  
 either by our sensation of feeling, or the thermom-  
 eter; in the other, it manifests itself obviously  
 to our senses, either by the touch, the thermome-  
 ter, or the emission of light. In the first of these  
 states, we call the body *cold*; and are apt to say  
 that this coldness is occasioned by the *absence* of  
 heat. But this mode of expression is not strictly  
 just, for even those fluids which are coldest to the  
 touch contain a vast deal of heat. Thus vapour,  
 which is colder to the touch than the water from  
 which it was raised, contains an immense quantity  
 of fire. The same may be said of common salt,  
 and snow, or ice. If a quantity of each of these  
 substances is separately reduced to 28° or 30° of  
 Fahrenheit's thermometer, upon mixing them to-  
 gether, the heat which could have raised the ther-  
 mometer to the degree above-mentioned, now  
 enters into the substance of them in such a man-  
 ner that the mercury falls down to 0.—Here an exces-  
 sive degree of cold is produced, and yet we are  
 sure that the substances contain the very same  
 quantity of heat that they formerly did: nay, they  
 will even seem exceedingly cold, when they most  
 certainly contain a great deal more heat than they  
 originally did; for they absorb it from all bodies  
 around them; and if a small vessel full of water  
 is put in the middle of such a mixture, it will in  
 a short time be full of ice. It appears, therefore,  
 that our senses, even when assisted by thermome-  
 ters, can only judge of the state in which the ele-  
 ment of fire is with relation to the bodies around  
 us, without regard to the quantity contained in  
 them. Thus, if heat flows from any part of our  
 body into any substance actually in contact with  
 it, the sensation of cold is excited, and we call  
 that substance *cold*; but if it flows from any sub-  
 stance into our body, the sensation of heat is ex-  
 cited, and we call that substance *hot*, without re-  
 gard to the absolute quantity contained in either  
 case. See *HEAT*.

(3.) FROST, CAUSES OF THE UNCERTAIN DU-  
 RATION OF. Of all known substances, the atmo-  
 sphere either absorbs or throws out heat with the  
 most remarkable facility: and in one or other of  
 these states it always is with respect to the surface  
 of the earth, and such bodies as are placed on or  
 near it; for these, properly speaking, have no  
 temperature of their own, but are entirely regu-  
 lated by that of the atmosphere.—When the air  
 has been for some time absorbing the heat from  
 terrestrial bodies, a frost must be the undoubted  
 consequence, for the same reason that water free-

in a vessel put into a freezing mixture; and were this absorption to continue for a length of time, the whole earth would be converted into a frozen mass. There are, however, certain powers in nature, by which this effect is always prevented; and the most violent frost we can imagine must always, as it were, defeat its own purposes, and end in a thaw. To understand this subject, we must observe, 1. In that state of the atmosphere which we denominate frost, there is a most intimate union between the air and the water it contains; and therefore frosty weather, except in very high latitudes, is generally clear. 2. When such an union takes place, either in winter or summer, we observe the atmosphere also inclined to absorb heat, and consequently to grow frosty. Thus in clear settled weather, even in summer, though the day be excessively hot by the continued sunshine, yet the mornings and evenings are remarkably cold, and sometimes even disagreeably so. 3. The air being therefore always ready in the time of frost or in clear weather, to absorb heat from every substance which comes into contact with it, it follows that it must also absorb part of that which belongs to the vapours contained in it. 4. Though vapour is capable of becoming much colder than water without being frozen, yet by a continued absorption it must at last part with its latent heat, i. e. that which essentially constitutes it vapour; and without which it is no longer vapour, but water or ice. No sooner, therefore, does the frost arrive at a certain pitch, than the vapours, everywhere dispersed through the air, give out their latent heat: the atmosphere then becomes clouded: the frost either goes off, or becomes milder by the great quantity of heat discharged into the air; and the vapours descend in rain, hail, or snow, according to the particular disposition of the atmosphere at the time. 5. Even in the polar regions, where it may be thought that the frost must increase beyond measure, there are natural means for preventing its running to extremes. The principal cause here is, the mixture of a great quantity of vapours from the temperate regions of the globe with the air in those dreary climates. It is well known, that aqueous vapour always flies from a warm to a colder place. For this reason, the vapours raised by the sun in the more temperate regions of the earth, must continually fly northward and southward in great quantities. Thus they furnish materials for those immense quantities of snow and ice which are to be found in the neighbourhood of the poles, and which we cannot imagine the weak influence of the sun in these parts capable of raising. It is impossible that a quantity of vapour can be mixed with frosty air, without communicating a great deal of heat to it; and thus there are often thaws of considerable duration even in those climates where, from the little influence of the sun, we should suppose the frost would be perpetual. 6. We may now account with some probability for the uncertain duration of frosts. In Britain they are seldom of a long continuance; because the vapours raised from the sea with which our island is surrounded, perpetually mix with the air over it, and prevent a long duration of the frost. For the same reason, *frosts are never of such long duration in maritime*

places on the continent as in the inland. There is nothing, however, more under the motion of the vapours with which the sky is constantly filled; and therefore it is impossible to prognosticate the duration of a frost with any degree of certainty. In general, we may be certain, that if a quantity of vapour is condensed in any place, no intense frost can subsist there for any length of time; and by the same causes the vapours are driven from place by place: the frosts are therefore not so general throughout the whole world. See VAPOUR.

(4.) FROST, DEPTH OF. Frost, being driven from the atmosphere, naturally proceeds from the upper parts of bodies downwards, as to the earth: so, the longer a frost is continued, the thicker the ice becomes upon the ponds, and the deeper into the earth the snow is frozen. In about 16 or 17 days frost, it was found it had penetrated 14 inches into the earth. At Moscow, in a hard season, the frost penetrated 2 feet deep in the ground; and Caspar found it penetrated 10 feet deep in Charlot and the water in the same island was frozen to a depth of 6 feet. Scheffer assures us, that in Sweden the frost pierces 2 cubits or 2 Sw into the earth, and turns what moisture there into a whitish substance, like ice; and that in the ice waters to three ells, or more. The author also mentions sudden cracks in the lakes of Sweden, 9 or 10 feet deep, a league long; the rupture being made with noise not less loud than if many guns were fired together. By such means, however, the lakes are furnished with air; so that they are not found dead.

(5.) FROST, EFFECTS OF. The effects of frost in different countries are mentioned in the article FREEZING, § 1, 2, 4, 6. In the parts of the world even solid bodies are rendered by frost. Timber is often apparently rendered exceedingly difficult to saw, and other less solid terrestrial bodies will be shattered by strong and dural Metals are contracted by frost: thus, an iron rod 12 feet long, upon being exposed to the frosty night, lost two lines of its length. Contrary, frost swells or dilates water to the tenth of its bulk. Mr Boyle made several experiments with metalline vessels, exceeding strong; which being filled with water, and stopped, and exposed to the cold, burst by the expansion of the frozen fluid within them, and were often destroyed by frost, as if by the most excessive heat; and in very strong walnut trees, alders, and even oaks, are split and cleft, so as to be seen through with a terrible noise, like the explosion of arms. (See § 7.) In cold countries, the frost proves fatal to mankind; producing gangrene and even death itself. Those who die with their hands and feet first seized, till they pass feeling it; after which the rest of the body is so invaded, that they are taken with convulsions, which if indulged, they awake but die insensibly. But there is another way whereby it proves mortal, *viz.* by freezing the blood.

and viscera, which on dissection are  
be mortified and black.

OST, HOAR. See HOAR-FROST.

OST, HURTFUL EFFECTS OF, ON VEGET-

The great power of frost on vegetables  
is generally known; but the differences between  
those of a severe winter, and those which  
occur in the spring mornings, in their effects  
on trees, were never perfectly explained,  
till Du Hamel and Buffon, in the Me-  
moires de l'Academie de Paris. The frosts of severe  
winters are much more terrible than those of the  
spring; they bring on a privation of all the  
juice of the tenderer parts of the vegetable  
sooner than they are not frequent, such  
as happens perhaps but once in an age;  
frosts of the spring are in reality greater  
to us than these, as they are every year.

In regard to trees, the great difference  
is that the frosts of severe winters affect even  
the trunk and large branches; those of the spring have only power to  
kill the buds. The winter frosts happening at  
the beginning of the year, when most of the trees in our woods and  
have neither leaves, flowers, nor fruits  
yet, and have their buds so hard as to be  
insensible to slight injuries of weather, especially  
if preceding summer has not been too wet;  
and, if there are no unlucky circumstances  
to oppose them, most trees bear moderate winters very  
well, and hard frosts, which happen late in winter,  
do great injuries even to those trees which  
are not utterly destroyed. These are, 1. Long  
frosts blowing the direction of the fibres. 2.  
Frosts of dead wood inclosed round with wood  
in a living state. And, 3. That distemper  
which foresters call the *double blea*, which is  
a circle of blea, or soft white wood, which,  
if the tree is afterwards felled, is found covered  
with a layer of hard and solid wood. The opi-  
nions about the exposition of trees to the  
quarters, have been very different, and  
are not grounded on no rational foundation.  
Some are of opinion that the effects of frost are  
most sensibly felt on those trees which are expo-  
sed to the N. and others think the S. or the W.  
are most strongly affected by them. There is no  
doubt that the N. exposure is subject to the great-

est injury. It does not, however, follow from this,  
that the injury must be always greatest on the trees  
to the N. in frosts: on the contrary, there  
are many instances, and many  
different proofs, that it is on the S. side that  
trees are generally most injured by frost: and it  
is from repeated experiments, that there are  
many accidents, under which a more mo-  
derate frost may do more injury to vegetables,  
than the most severe one which happens to them  
under the most favourable circumstances. It is plain  
from the accounts of the injuries trees received by  
frosts in 1709 that the greatest of all were  
done by repeated false thaws, succeeded by re-  
peated frosts. But the frosts of the spring  
do more abundantly more numerous examples of  
this; and some experiments made by the  
Academie de Buffon, in his own woods, prove in-  
deed, that it is not the severest cold or most  
long frost that does the greatest injury to vege-  
tables. This is an observation directly opposite to

the common opinion, yet it is not the less true,  
nor any way discordant to reason. We find by a  
number of experiments, that it is humidity that  
makes frost fatal to vegetables; and therefore  
every thing that can occasion humidity in them,  
exposes them to these injuries, and every thing  
that can prevent or take off an over proportion of  
humidity in them, every thing that can dry them  
though with ever so increased a cold, must prevent  
or preserve them from those injuries. Numerous  
experiments and observations tend to prove this.  
It is well known that vegetables always feel the  
frost very desperately in low places where there  
are fogs. The plants which stand by a river side  
are frequently found destroyed by the spring and  
autumnal frosts, while those of the same species,  
which stand in a drier place, suffer little or per-  
haps not at all by them; and the low and wet  
parts of forests are well known to produce worse  
wood than the high and drier. The coppice  
wood in wet and low parts of common woods,  
though it push out more vigorously at first than  
that of other places, yet never comes to so good  
a growth; for the frost of the spring killing these  
early top shoots, obliges the lower part of the  
trees to throw out lateral branches: and the same  
thing happens in a greater or lesser degree to the  
coppice wood that grows under cover of larger  
trees in great forests; for here the vapours, not  
being carried off either by the sun or wind, stag-  
nate and freeze, and in the same manner destroy  
the young shoots, as the fogs of marshy places.  
It is a general observation also, that the frost is never  
so hurtful to the late shoots of the vine, or to the  
flower-buds of trees, except when it follows heavy  
dews, or a long rainy season, and then it never  
fails to do great mischief, though it be ever so  
slight. The frost is always observed to be more  
mischievous in its consequences on newly culti-  
vated ground than in other places; and this is  
because the vapours which continually arise from  
the earth, find an easier passage from those places  
than from others. Trees also which have been  
newly cut, suffer more than others by the spring  
frosts, which is owing to their shooting out more  
vigorously. Frosts also do more damage on light  
and sandy grounds, than on the tougher and fir-  
mer soils, supposing both equally dry; and this  
seems partly owing to their being more early in  
their productions, and partly to their lax texture  
suffering a greater quantity of vapours to transpire.  
It has also been frequently observed, that the  
side-shoots of trees are more subject to perish by  
the spring frosts than those from the top; and  
M. Buffon, who examined into this with great  
accuracy, always found the effects of the spring  
frosts much greater near the ground than else-  
where. The shoots within a foot of the ground  
quickly perished by them; those which stood at  
two or three feet high, bore them much better;  
and those at four feet and upwards frequently re-  
mained wholly unhurt, while the lower ones were  
entirely destroyed. A series of observations have  
proved beyond all doubt, that it is not the hard  
frosts which do so much hurt plants, as these frosts,  
though less severe, which happen when they are  
full of moisture; and this clearly explains the ac-  
count of all the great damage done by the severe

frosts being on the south side of the trees which are affected by them, though that side has been plainly all the while less cold than the north. Great damage is also done to the western sides of trees and plantations, when after a rain with a west wind the wind turns about to the north at sunset, as is frequently the case in spring, or when an east wind blows upon a thick fog before sun-rising.

(8.) FROST, MELIORATION OF AROMATIC SPIRITS BY. Mr Baume observes, that aromatic spirituous waters have less scent when newly distilled, than after they have been kept about six months: and he found that the good effects of age was produced in a short time by means of cold; and that, by plunging quart bottles of the liquor into a mixture of pounded ice and sea salt, the spirit, after having suffered for 6 or 8 hours the cold hence resulting, proves as grateful as that which hath been kept many years. Simple waters also, after having been frozen, prove far more agreeable than they were before. Geoffroy takes notice of this melioration by frost; *Hist. Acad.* 1713.

(9.) FROST, MELIORATION OF LAND BY. See HUSBANDRY.

(10.) FROSTS, REMARKABLE. In the year 220, a frost in Britain lasted 5 months. In 250, The Thames was frozen 9 weeks. 291, Most rivers in Britain frozen 6 weeks. 359, Severe frost in Scotland for 14 weeks. 508, The rivers in Britain frozen for 2 months. 558, The Danube quite frozen over. 695, Thames frozen 6 weeks, and booths built on it. 759, Frost from Oct. 1 till Feb. 26, 760. 827, Frost in England for 9 weeks. 859, Carriages used on the Adriatic. 908, Most rivers in England frozen 2 months. 923, The Thames frozen 13 weeks. 987, Frost lasted 120 days: began Dec. 22. 998, Thames frozen 5 weeks. 1035, Severe frost on June 24: the corn and fruits destroyed. 1063, The Thames frozen 14 weeks. 1076, Frost in England from Nov. till April. 1114, Several wooden bridges carried away by ice. 1205, Frost from Jan. 15 till March 22. 1407, Frost that lasted 15 weeks. 1434, From Nov. 24 till Feb. 10. Thames frozen down to Gravesend. 1631, Frost for 13 weeks. In 1708—9, an extraordinary frost throughout most parts of Europe, though scarcely felt in Scotland, or Ireland. In 1715, Severe frost for many weeks. 1739, One for 9 weeks; began Dec. 24. 1742, Severe frost for many weeks. 1747, Severe frost in Russia. 1754, Severe one in England. 1760, The same in Germany. 1776, The same in England. 1788, The Thames frozen below bridge; and booths erected on it. 1795, The Zuyder Zee frozen over, and the rivers of Holland passed by the French.

\* FROSTBITTEN. *adj.* [*frost* and *bitten*.] Nipped or withered by the frost.—The leaves are too much *frostbitten*. *Martiner*.

\* FROSTED. *adj.* [from *frost*.] Laid on in inequalities, like those of the hoar frost upon plants.—The rich brocaded silk unfold,

Where rising flow'rs grow stiff with *frosted* gold. *Guy*.

FROSTENBY, a village near Scarborough.

\* FROSTILY. *adv.* [from *frosty*.] 1. With

frost; with excessive cold. 2. With of affection.—

Courting, I rather thou should'  
Dispraise my work, than praise it.]

\* FROSTINESS. *n. f.* [from *frost*] freezing cold.

\* FROSTNAIL. *n. f.* [*frost* and with a prominent head driven into shoes, that it may pierce the ice.—T strait only to take hold, for better as a horse that is shod with *frostnails*.

\* FROSTWORK. *n. f.* [*frost* and in which the substance is laid on with like the dew congealed upon shrubs.—

By nature shap'd to various figure  
The fruitful rain, and these the ha  
The snowy fleece and curious *frost*  
Produce the dew, and those the ge

\* FROSTY. *adj.* [from *frost*.] 1 power of congelation; excessive cold

For all my blood in Rome's great  
For all the *frosty* nights that I have

Be pitiful to my condemned sons. 3

—The air, if very cold, irritateth the maketh it burn more fiercely; as fit in *frosty* weather. *Bacon*.—A gnat, with cold and hunger, went out one ing to a bee-hive. *L'Esfrange*. 2. Cl

tion; without warmth of kindness or  
What a *frosty*-spirited rogue is th  
3. Hoary; grey-haired; resembling 1

Where is loyalty?

If it be banish'd from the *frosty* hea  
Where shall it find a harbour in the

\* FROTH. *n. f.* [*froe*, Danish at 1. Spume; foam; the bubbles caustic by agitation.—

His hideous tail then hurled he a  
And therewith all enwrapt the nim  
Of his *froth* foamy steed.

—When wind expireth from under th  
causeth some resounding of the water  
eth some light motions of bubble:  
circles of *froth*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Surging waves against a solid roc  
Though all to shivers dash'd, th'af  
Vain batt'ry, and in *froth* or bubble

—The useless *froth* swims on the sur  
pearl lies covered with a mass of water

The scatter'd ocean flies;  
Black sands, discolour'd *froth*, and r  
arise.

They were the *froth* my raging f  
When it boil'd up; I knew not th  
Yet then lov'd most. *Dryden's*

—If now the colours of natural bod mingled, let water, a little thickenee be agitated to raise a *froth*; and afte has stood a little, there will appear, shall view it intently, various colours in the surfaces of the bubbles; but small o so far off that he cannot di colours from one another, the who grow white, with a perfect whiteness A painter, having finished the pictare excepting the loose *froth* about his m

nd after many unsuccessful essays, de-  
o do that to his satisfaction, in a great  
a sponge at it, all besmeared with the  
which fortunately hitting upon the right  
one bold stroke of chance most exactly  
the want of skill in the artist. *Bentley*.  
mpty or senseless shew of wit or elo-  
3. Any thing not hard, solid, or sub-  
cateth his veal, pig and lamb being froth,  
vicé in a week go to bed without broth.

*Tusser*.  
ROTH. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To foam;  
out spume; to generate spume.—  
ets within, froths treason at his mouth,  
urns it through his teeth. *Dryd. Don. Seb.*  
muddies the best wit, and only makes it  
d froth high. *Grew*.

THILY. *adv.* [from frothy.] 1. With  
th spume. 2. In an empty trifling man-

HINESS, *n. f.* The state of being frothy;  
want of solidity. *Asb.*

SPIT, or CUCKOW-SPIT, a name given  
ite froth, or spume, very common in  
d the first months of summer, on the  
certain plants, particularly on those of  
non white field lychnis, or catchfly,  
lled by some *spating poppy*. All writers  
bles have taken notice of this froth,  
w have understood the cause or origin of  
ite. It is formed by a little leaping ani-  
d by some the *sea grasshopper*, by ap-  
anus close to the leaf, and discharging  
a small drop of a white viscous fluid,  
staining some air in it, is soon elevated  
in bubble: before this is well formed, it  
such another drop; and so on, till it is  
overwhelmed with a quantity of these  
which form the white froth which we  
in this spume it is seen to acquire  
on its back, wherein the wings are in-  
tefe bursting, from a reptile it becomes  
animal: and thus, rendered perfect, it  
et its mate, and propagate its kind.  
oblong, obtuse body; a large head with  
; 4 external wings, of a dusky brown  
arked with two white spots: the head  
It is a species of CICADA.

THY. *adj.* [from frothy.] 1. Full of  
th, or spume.—The sap of trees is of  
atures; some watery and clear, as vines,  
ears; some thick, as apples; some gum-  
tries; and some frothy, as elms. *Bacon*.  
d a frothy substance rise;

ious, or your bottle flies. *Swift*.  
ot solid; wasting.—Their bodies are so  
ard as you need not fear that bathing  
ike them frothy. *Bacon's Natural Hist.*  
mpy; trifling.—What's a voluptuous  
nd the frothy vanity of discourse that  
attends these pompous entertainments?  
but a mortification to a man of sense  
? *L'Estrange*.—Though the principles  
were never so clear and evident, yet  
be made ridiculous by vain and frothy  
the gravest and wisest person in the  
PART I.

world may be abused by being put in a fool's  
coat. *Tillotson*.

FROUARD, a town of France, in the dep. of  
Meurthe, on the Moselle, 5 m. NNW. of Nancy.

FROULAY-TE SSE, a town of France, in the  
dep. of Orne, 7 miles SE. of Domfront.

\* FROUNCE, *n. f.* A word used by falconers  
for a distemper, in which white spittle gathers a-  
bout the hawk's bill. *Skinner*.

\* To FROUNCE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To  
frizzle or curl the hair about the face. This word  
was at first probably used in contempt.—

Some frounce their curled hair in courtly guise,  
Some prank their ruffs, and others timely dig:  
Their gay attire. *Spenser's Fairy Queen*.

—Some warlike sign must be used; either a slovenly  
buskin, or an overfaring frounced head. *Ascham*.—

Thus, night oft see me in thy pale career,  
'Till civil suited morn appear;  
Not trick'd and frounc'd as she was wont,  
With the attick boy to hunt. *Milton*.

FROUQUIE, an islet 1 mile W. of Jersey.

\* FROUZY. *adj.* [A cant, word.] 1. Fœtid;  
mufty.—

Petticoats in frouzy heaps. *Swift*.  
2. Dim; cloudy.—

When first Diana leaves her bed,  
Vapours and steams her looks disgrace;  
A frouzy dirty-coloured red  
Sits on her cloudy wrinkled face. *Swift*.

\* FROWARD. *adj.* [from forward, Saxon.] Pee-  
vish; un governable; angry; perverse; the con-  
trary to toward.—The froward pain of mine own  
heart made me delight to punish him, whom I  
esteemed the chieftest let in the way. *Sidney*.—

She's not froward, but modest as the dove;  
She is not hot, but temperate as the dove. *Shak*.

—Whole ways are crooked, and they froward,  
in their paths. *Prov. ii. 15*.—Time moves things  
round, that a froward retention of custom is as  
turbulent a thing as innovation. *Bacon*.—'Tis  
with froward men, and froward factions too, as  
'tis with froward children; they'll be sooner qui-  
eted by fear than by any lenity or civ. *L'Estrange*.  
—Motions occasion sleep, as we find by the com-  
mon use and experience of rocking froward chil-  
dren in cradles. *Temple*.

\* FROWARDLY. *adv.* [from froward.] Pee-  
vishly; perversely.—I hid me and was wroth, and  
he went frowardly in the way of his heart. *Ishab*,  
lvii. 17.

\* FROWARDNESS. *n. f.* [from froward.]  
Peevishness; perverseness.—How many froward-  
nesses of ours does he smother? how many indig-  
nities does he pass by? how many affronts does  
he put up with at our hands? *South*.—

We'll mutually forget  
The warmth of youth, and frowardness of age.  
*Addison's Cato*.

FROWDE, Philip, an English poet, the son  
of a gentleman who had been post-master in the  
reign of Queen Anne. He was sent to the uni-  
versity of Oxford, where he contracted an inti-  
macy with Mr Addison. He wrote several ele-  
gant Latin poems, interred in the *Muze Anglica-  
næ*; and 2 tragedies: *The Fall of Sardanani-  
us*; and *Robert Walpole*; and *Philotas*,  
addressed

addressed to the earl of Chesterfield. He died at London, in 1738, with a very amiable character.

\* FROWER. *n. s.* [I know not the etymology.] A cleaving tool.—

A *frower* of iron for cleaving of lath,  
With roll for a sawpit, good husbandry hath.  
*Tusser.*

\* FROWN. *n. s.* [from the verb.] A wrinkled look; a look of displeasure.—Patiently endure that *frown* of fortune, and by some notable exploit win again her favour. *Knolles's Hist. of the Turks.*—

In his half-clos'd eyes  
Stern vengeance yet and hostile terror stand;  
His front yet threatens, and his *frowns* command.  
*Prior.*

\* To FROWN. *v. a.* [*frogner*, old French, to wrinkle, *Skinner.*] To express displeasure by contracting the face to wrinkles; to look stern.—

Say, that she *frowns*; I'll say she looks as clear  
As morning roses newly wash'd with dew. *Shak.*

They chuse their magistrate;  
And such a one as he, who puts his shall,  
His popular shall, against a graver bench  
Than ever *frown'd*. *Shak. Coriolanus.*

→How now, daughter, what makes that frontlet on? You are too much of late i'th' frown.—  
Thou wast a pretty fellow, when thou hadst no need to care for her *frowning*. *Shak. King Lear.*  
Heroes in animated marble *frown*. *Pope.*

The wood,  
Whose shady horrors on a rising brow  
Wav'd high, and *frown'd* upon the stream below.  
*Pope.*

\* FROWNINGLY. *adv.* [from *frown*.] Sternly; with a look of displeasure.—

What, look'd he *frowningly*?  
A countenance more in sorrow than in anger.  
*Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

\* FROWY. *adj.* Musty; mossy. This word is now not used; but instead of it *frouzy*—  
But if they with thy gotes should yede,  
They soon might be corrupted;  
Or like not of the *frowy* fede,  
Or with the weeds be gluttid. *Spenser's Past.*

FROXFIELD, 2 villages: 1. in Hampsh. N. of Peterfield; 2. in Wilts, 2 miles from Hungerford.

FROYEN, an island near the coast of Norway 35 m. in circuit. Lon. 9. 0. E. Lat. 63. 45. N.

FROYLE, a village in Hampshire.

\* FROZEN. *part. pass.* of *freeze*. 1. Congealed with cold.—

What was the waste of war, what fierce alarms  
Shook Asia's crown with European arms?  
E'en such have heard, if any such there be,  
Whose earth is bounded by the *frozen* sea. *Æn.*

Fierce Boreas, with his offspring issues forth  
To invade the *frozen* waggon of the North. *Ovid.*

A cheerful blaze arore, and by the fire  
They warm'd their *frozen* feet, and dry'd their wet att re. *Dryden's Flower and Leaf.*

2. Chill in affection.—Against whom was the fine *frozen* knight, *frozen* in despair; but his armour naturally representing ice, and all his furniture lively answering thereto. *Sidney.*—

Be not ever *frozen*, coy;  
One bear of love will soon destroy  
And melt that ice to floods of joy. *Carew.*

3. Void of heat or appetite.—

Even here, where *frozen* chastity  
Love finds an altar for forbidden fire  
FROZES, a town of France, in the  
of Vienne, 5 miles W. of Poitiers.

\* F. R. S. *Fellow of the Royal Society*  
Who *virtu* profess,  
Shine in the dignity of F. R. S.

FRUCTESCENCIA, [from *fructus*  
botany, literally signifies the growth of  
but is used elliptically for the process *tin*  
after the fall of the flowers, the fruit  
maturity, and disperse their seeds

plants which flower in spring ripen in the  
summer, as rye; those which flower  
have their fruits ripe in autumn as the  
fruit of autumnal flowers ripens in winter  
following spring, if kept in a stove, or  
defended from excessive frosts. These

M. Adanson, are frequently so pernicious  
olent, as to destroy the greatest part of  
nial plants of Virginia and Mississippi  
cultivated in France, even before they  
bited their fruit. The plants which flower  
our winter, such as those of the Cape  
Hope, ripen their fruit in spring, in our

FRUCTIDOR, [*i. e.* the fruit month  
*tus*, Lat.] the name of the 14th month  
new French calendar. It begins Aug. 1

Sept. 16.

FRUCTIFERI. See ACADEMY, §  
\* FRUCTIFEROUS. *adj.* [*fructi*  
Bearing fruit. *Ainsworth*

(1.) \* FRUCTIFICATION. *n. s.* [*fructi*  
*fy*.] The act of causing or of bearing  
cundation; fertility.—That the sap d  
fully rise in the Spring, to put the pl  
capacity of *fructification*, he that hath l  
many gallons of water may be drawn fr  
tree, hath slender reason to doubt. *Br*

(2.) FRUCTIFICATION OF PLANTS,  
by Linnæus to be the temporary part o  
ble appropriated to generation, termina  
vegetable, and beginning the new. See  
*Index.*

(1.) \* To FRUCTIFY. *v. a.* [*fructi*  
To make fruitful; to fertilize.—The  
the sovereign raises are as vapours whi  
exhales, which fall down in sweet show  
*tify* the earth. *Howell's Vocal Forest.*—

Where'er the look, behold some  
Adorns the trees, and *fructifies* the ear  
(2.) \* To FRUCTIFY. *v. n.* To bear  
watereth the heart, to the end it m  
maketh the virtuous, in trouble, full o  
mity and courage; and serveth as a n  
ved remedy against all doleful and he w  
which befall men in this present life  
Thus would there nothing *fructify*, eit  
under them, the sun being horizontal t  
*Brown.*

FRUCTISTÆ, } a sect of botanist  
FRUCTISTS. } TANY, *Index.*

\* FRUCTUOUS. *adj.* [*fructu*  
*fructif.*] Fruitful; fertile; impregnati  
tility.—

Apples of price, and plenteous the  
Oit interlac'd occur; and both im



congenial juice, so rich the soil,  
 ch does *fructuous* moisture o'erabound!

*Philips.*

**FRUGAL.** *a. j.* [*frugalis*, Lat. *frugal*, Fr.]  
 sparing; parsimonious; not prodigal;  
 tie; not lavish.—

Reasoning, I oft admire,  
 pure wife and *frugal* soul! commit  
 proportions, with sup. ruous hand  
 by nobler bodies to create,  
 manifold to this one use. *Milton.*  
 wing'd surveyors his sharp hunger fed  
*frugal* scraps of flesh and mass'n bread.

*Harte.*

rough mists he shoots his fallen beams,  
 of night, in loofe and straggling streams,  
 the evening day. *Dryden's Virgil.*

**GALITY.** *n. j.* [*frugalité*, Fr. *frugalitas*,  
 Lat.] parsimony; good husbandry.—As  
 general sort of men, *frugality* may be the  
 drinking water; for that is no small sa-  
 paying nothing for one's drink. *Bacon.*—

and bounty too,  
 differing virtues, meet in you. *Haller.*  
*frugality*; of your praises, some things I  
 see. *Dryden's Fables; Ded.*—The bound-  
 virtues are indissoluble lines: it is impos-  
 sible to step aside to the frontiers of *frugali-*  
 out entering the territories of parsimony.  
*John Bull.*

**FRUGALITY.** *n. j.* [from *frugal*.] Parimo-  
 niously; thriftily —  
 time young Palamides his marriage press'd,  
*frugally* resolv'd, the charge to thum,  
 his brother's bride with his own. *Dryd.*  
**FRUGES.** [Lat.] fruits, corn, herb, &c.  
**FRUGES,** in geography, a town of France,  
 partment of the Straits of Calais, 9 miles  
 from.

**FRUGIFEROUS.** *adj.* [*frugifer*, Lat.] Bear-  
 ing fruit.

**FRONZI,** Charles Innocent, an Italian poet,  
 to the academy of arts at Parma; where  
 in 1768. His works were printed in 9  
 in 1779.

**FRUTAN,** an island near the W. coast of  
 3 miles W. of Mafu Point.

**FRUIT.** *n. j.* [*fructus*, Lat. *frwyth*, Welsh;  
 ] 1. The product of a tree or plant in  
 seeds are contained.—

strawberry grows underneath the nettle,  
 wholesome berries thrive and ripen best,  
 sour'd by *fruit* of baser quality. *Shak.*  
 part of a plant which is taken for food.—

By taking of that *fruit* forbid,  
 they sought knowledge, they did error  
 bid. *Davies.*

how the rising *fruits* the gardens crown,  
 the sun, and make his light their own.

*Blackmore.*

tion.—The *fruit* of the spirit is in all  
 and righteousness, and truth. *Ephes. v. 9.*  
 offspring of the womb; the young of any

at thou their reck'nings keep? the time  
 compute,  
 their swol'n bellies shall enlarge the *fruit*.

*Sandys.*

5. Advantage gained by any enterprise or conduct.  
 —What is become of all the king of Sweden's  
 victories? Where are the *fruits* of them at this  
 day? Or of what benefit will they be to posterity?  
*Swift.*—Another *fruit*, from considering things in  
 themselves, will be, that each man will pursue his  
 thoughts in that method which will be most agree-  
 able to the nature of the thing, and to his appre-  
 hension of what it suggests to him. *Locke.* 6. The  
 effect or consequence of any action.—She blushed  
 when she considered the effect of granting; she  
 was pale when she remembered the *fruits* of deny-  
 ing. *Sidney.*—They shall eat of the *fruit* of their  
 own way. *Prov.*

(II.) **FRUIT**, in its general sense, includes what-  
 ever the earth produces for the nourishment of ani-  
 mals, expressed by the Latins under the name  
**FRUGES.**

(III.) **FRUIT**, in botany, (§ I. *def.* 1.) called by  
 the Greeks *καρπός*. in the Linnæan system, is one  
 of the parts of fructification, and is distinguished  
 into three parts, viz. the pericarpium, seed, and  
 receptacle, or *receptaculum seminum*. See **BOTANY.**

(IV.) **FRUITS, COLOURS EXTRACTED FROM.**  
 See **COLOUR-MAKING, Index.**

(V.) **FRUITS**, in commerce, (§ I. *def.* 2.) are dis-  
 tinguished into *recent* or *fresh*, and *dry*.

1. **FRUITS, DRY**, are those dried in the sun, or  
 by the fire, with other ingredients sometimes ad-  
 ded to them to make them keep; imported chief-  
 ly from beyond sea, and sold by the grocers. Such  
 are raisins, currants, figs, capers, olives, cloves,  
 nutmegs, pepper, and other spices; which see in  
 their order. Under the denomination of *dry fruits*  
 are also frequently included apples, pears, al-  
 monds, filberds, &c.

2. **FRUITS, FRESH, OR RECENT**, are those sold  
 just as they are gathered from the tree, without  
 any further preparation; as are most of the pro-  
 ductions of our gardens and orchards, sold by the  
 fruiterers.

(VI.) **FRUITS, MISCHIEFS ARISING FROM**  
**SWALLOWING THE STONES OF.** The dangers  
 arising from swallowing the stones of plums and  
 other fruits are very great. The *Philos. Transf.*  
 give an account of a woman who suffered violent  
 pains in her bowels for 30 years, returning once  
 in a month or less. At length, a strong purge be-  
 ing given her, the occasion of all these complaints  
 was driven down from the bowels to the anus;  
 where it gave a sensation of distension and stop-  
 page, producing a continual desire of going to  
 stool, but without voiding any thing. By proper  
 assistance, there was taken out with a forceps a  
 ball of an oval figure, of about 10 drachms in  
 weight, and measuring 5 inches in circumference.  
 This had caused all the violent fits of pain which  
 she had suffered for so many years; and, after  
 voiding it, she became perfectly well. The ball  
 extracted looked like a stone, and felt very hard,  
 but swam in water. On cutting it through with  
 a knife, there was found in the centre, a plum  
 stone, round which several coats of this hard and  
 tough matter had gathered. Another instance is  
 given in the same papers of a man, who, dying of  
 an incurable colic which had tormented him many  
 years, and baffled the effects of medicines, was  
 opened after death; and in his bowels was found

a ball similar to that above-mentioned; but somewhat larger, being 6 inches in circumference, and weighing an ounce and a half. In the centre of this, as of the other, there was found the stone of a common plum, and the coats were of the same nature with those of the former. These and similar instances mentioned in the same work, sufficiently show the folly of that common opinion that the stones of fruits are *wholesome*. Even cherry stones, swallowed in great quantities, have occasioned death.

\* FRUITAGE. *n. s.* [*fruitage*, Fr.] Fruit collectively; various fruits.—

In heav'n the trees  
Of life ambrosial *fruitage* bear, and vines  
Yield nectar. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Greedily they pluck'd  
The *fruitage*, fair to fight, like that which grew  
Near that bituminous lake where Sodom flam'd.  
*Milton.*

—What is more ordinary with them than the taking in flowers, and *fruitage* for the garnishing of their work? *Morgan.*

\* FRUITBEARER. *n. s.* [*fruit and bearer*]. That which produces fruit.—Trees, especially *fruitbearers*, are often infected with the measles, *Mort. H.*

\* FRUITBEARING. *adj.* [*fruit and bear*] Having the quality of producing fruit.—By this way graft trees of different kinds one on another, as *fruitbearing* trees on those that bear not. *Mortim.*

\* FRUITERER. *n. s.* [*fruitier*, Fr.] One who trades in fruit.—I did fight with one Samsop Stockfish, a *fruiterer*, behind Gray's inn. *Shak.*  
Waldite the *fruit'er's* hand in Autumn stain;  
Blue plums and juicy pears augment his gain.  
*Gay.*

(1.) \* FRUITERY. *n. s.* [*fruiterie*, Fr.] 1. Fruit collectively taken.—

Oft, notwithstanding all thy care  
To help thy plants, on the small *fruitery*  
Exempt from ills, an oriental blast  
Disastrous flies. *Philips.*

2. A fruit-loft; a repository for fruit.

(2.) A FRUITERY, (§ 1. def 2.) should be inaccessible to moisture; and should be as much as possible so, even to frost.

FRUIT-FLIES, a name given by gardeners and others to a sort of small black flies, found in vast numbers among fruit-trees, in the spring season, and supposed to do great injury to them. Mr Leeuwenhoek preserved some of these flies for his microscopical observations. He found that they did not live longer than a day or two, but that the females during this time laid a great number of longish eggs. The gardeners who suppose that these flies wound the leaves of the trees, are mistaken: it is true that they feed on their juices; but they have no instruments wherewith they can extract these for themselves: they feed on such as are naturally extravasated; and when there is not a sufficient quantity of these for their purpose, they haunt the places to which the pucerons resort, and feed on the juices which these little creatures extravasate; by means of the holes they bore in the leaves with their trunks.

\* FRUITFUL. *adj.* [*fruit and full*] 1. Fertile; abundantly productive; liberal of vegetable production.—If the continued cruel, he could do more

sustain his life, than the earth remain *fruitful*'s continual absence. *Sidney.*—

The Earth,  
Though in comparison of Heav'n, so  
Nor glitt'ring, may of solid good con  
More plenty, than the sun that barre  
Whose virtue on itself works no effect  
But in the *fruitful* earth.

2. Actually bearing fruit.—

Adonis' gardens,  
That one day bloom'd, and *fruitful*  
next.

3. Prolifick; childbearing; not barren.—  
Hear, Nature, hear; dear goddess,  
ther!

Suspend thy purpose, if thou did'st in  
To make this creature *fruitful*:

Into her womb convey sterility. *Shak.*  
Male he created thee, but thy conf  
Female for race; then blest'd mankind.  
Be *fruitful*, multiply, and fill the Ear  
Subdue it, and throughout dominion h  
—I have copied Nature, making the you  
rous and the damsels *fruitful*. *Gay.* 4. P  
abounding in any thing.—

While you, my lord, the rural shade  
And from Britannia's public posts reti  
Me into foreign realms my fate conve  
Thro' nations *fruitful* of immortal lay

\* FRUITFULLY. *adv.* [from *fruitful*]  
such a manner as to be prolifick.—

How sacred seeds of sea, and air, a  
And purer fire through universal night  
And empty space did *fruitfully* unite.

2. Plenteously; abundantly.—You have  
portunities to cut him off: if your will  
time and place will be *fruitfully* offered.

\* FRUITFULNESS. *n. s.* [from *fruitful*]  
Fertility; fecundity: plentiful productio  
ther can we ascribe the same *fruitfulness*,  
part of the earth, nor the same virtue to  
thereon growing, that they had before  
*Raleigh's Hist.* 2. The quality of being  
or bearing many children.—

The goddess, present at the match  
So blest'd the bed, such *fruitfulness* ec  
That ere ten moons had sharpen'd eit  
To crown their bliss, a lovely boy wa  
*Dryde.*

3. Exuberant abundance.—The remedy  
*fulness* is easy, but no labour will help  
trary: I will like and praise some things in  
writer, which yet, if he continues in,  
but justly hate him for. *Beh Jonson's Di*

\* FRUITGROVES. *n. s.* [*fruit and grove*]  
Shades; or close plantations of fruit trees:  
The faithful slave,

Whom to my nuptial train Icarus gav  
To tend the *fruitgroves*. *Pope*

\* FRUITION. *n. s.* [*fruo*, Lat.] Enj  
possession; pleasure given by possession  
Man doth not seem to rest satisfied eit  
*fruition* of that wherewith his life is pref  
with performance of such actions as adv  
most deservedly in estimation. *Hooker.*—

I'm driv'n, by breath of her reno  
Either to seek shipwreck, or to arrive  
Where I may have *fruition* of her love.

riches and renown to men imparts,  
 and yet their narrow hearts  
 so great a fluency receive,  
 't' *fruit* to a stranger leave. *Sandys.*  
 once, like beauty, without art or dress,  
 and unadorn'd, could find success;  
 't' *fruit*, novelty destroy'd,  
 mph must find new charms to be enjoy'd.

*Granv.*  
 on generally disables a man from pursuing  
 s in which the guilt of men consists: if  
 ion be on his body, his appetites are  
 , and capacity of *fruit* destroyed.

*sermons.*  
 [TIVE. *adj.* [from the noun.] Enjoying;  
 ; having the power of enjoyment. A  
 legitimate.—To whet our longings for  
 r experimental knowledge, it is reserved  
 e prerogatives of being in heaven, to  
 e happy we shall be, when there. *Boyle.*

ITLESS. *adj.* [from *fruit*.] 1. Barren of  
 : bearing fruit.—The Spaniards of Mexi-  
 ic first forty years, could not make our  
 heat bear seed; but it grew up as high  
 es, and was *fruitless*. *Raleigh's History.*  
 productive of no advantage; idle; un-

—  
 let me not, quoth he, return again  
 to the world, whose joys so *fruitless* are;  
 let me here for ay in peace remain,  
 ightway on that last long voyage fare.

*Spenser's Fairy Queen.*  
 ent! we might have spar'd our coming  
 ther;  
 to me, tho' fruit be here t' excess. *Milt.*  
 ber is for entirely waving all searches in-  
 ity, in relation to this controverly, as  
 her needles or *fruitless*. *Waterland.* 3.  
 o offspring.—

o my head they plac'd a *fruitless* crown,  
 it a barren sceptre in my gripe;  
 o of mine succeeding. *Shakesp. Macbeth.*  
 ITLESSLY. *adv.* [from *fruitless*.] Vain-  
 unprofitably.—After this fruit curiosity  
 nquireth, and confidence blindly deter-  
 Brown's *Vulgar Errors*.—  
 sing they talk'd, and *fruitlessly* divin'd  
 friend the priestess by those words de-  
 n'd. *Dryden.*

IT-TIME. *n. s.* [*fruit* and *time*.] The  
 the time for gathering fruit.

UIT-TREE. *n. s.* [*fruit* and *tree*.] A  
 at kind whose principal value arises from  
 produced by it.—

is, by yonder blessed moon I vow,  
 ips with silver all these *fruit-tree* tops.

*Shakespeare.*  
 possessed houses full of all goods, wells  
 vineyards and oliveyards, and *fruit-trees*  
 mce. *Neb.* ix. 25.—

with a border of rich *fruit-trees* crown'd,  
 loaded branches hide the lotty mound.

*Waller.*  
 UIT-TREES, GENERAL OBSERVATIONS  
 he cutting or pruning them when young,  
 is bearing, though it contributes to the  
 and flavour of the fruit, as well as to the

beauty of the tree. 2. Kernel fruit-trees come  
 later to bear than stone fruit-trees: the time re-  
 quired by the first, before they come to any fit  
 age for bearing, being on an average 5 years; but  
 when they do begin, they bear in greater plenty  
 than stone fruit. 3. Stone fruit, figs, and grapes,  
 commonly bear considerably in 3 or 4 years, and  
 bear full crops the 5th and 6th years; and hold it  
 for many years, if well ordered. 4. Fruit-trees  
 in the same neighbourhood will ripen a fortnight  
 sooner in some grounds than in others of a dif-  
 ferent temperature. 5. In the same country, hot  
 or cold summers set considerably forwards, or put  
 backwards, the same fruit. 6. The fruit on wall  
 trees generally ripen before those on standards,  
 and those on standards before those on dwarfs.  
 9. The fruit of all wall trees planted in the S. and  
 E. quarters, commonly ripen about the same time,  
 only those in the S. rather earlier than those in the  
 E.; those in the W. are later by 8 or 10 days;  
 and those in the N. by 15 or 20.

(III.) FRUIT-TREES, GRAFTING, PLANTING,  
 PRESERVING, &c. OF. See GRAFTING, ORCH-  
 ARD. PLANTING, TREE, &c.

(IV.) FRUIT-TREES, Mr FORSYTH'S MANAGE-  
 MENT OF. The following particulars relating to  
 Mr William Forsyth of Kensington's management  
 of fruit trees, communicated to the E. of Buchan  
 by Dr James Anderson of Mounzie, Nov. 19, 1797,  
 have been very obligingly transmitted to us by his  
 Lordship.—“This subject falls to be considered  
 under two points of view: I. That of recovering  
 decayed trees, and eradicating the diseases to which  
 fruit-trees are subjected: II. Pruning, so as to in-  
 sure a constant succession of fruit-bearing buds.  
 On each of these heads I shall offer such observa-  
 tions as I have been able to pick up.”

I. FRUIT-TREES, Mr FORSYTH'S METHOD OF  
 CURING, WHEN DECAYED, OR INJURED.—“I. The  
 recovering of decayed trees, is an operation pure-  
 ly chirological, for it is in all respects analogous to  
 what takes place in animal bodies, with this sin-  
 gular difference in respect to vegetables, that life  
 can be seemingly renovated, and the vigour of  
 youth restored, after the vital powers are nearly  
 annihilated, in consequence of the gradual decays,  
 which were the natural effects of extreme senility.  
 I mentioned to your lordship, if you recollect, at  
 Dryburgh Abbey, a cherry tree which will afford  
 a full illustration of what I here say. This cherry  
 tree had been brought from abroad by an English  
 admiral, with 3 more of the same sort, about the  
 beginning of this century, and had been planted  
 at Kensington, in the king's garden. The other 3  
 were sent to different places. These 3 trees have  
 been totally dead for many years, and that at Ken-  
 sington was so much decayed, that it had not been  
 known to carry any fruit within the memory of  
 man, and it was so far reduced about 4 years ago,  
 that it made 1.0 shoots at all, though it still conti-  
 nued to send forth a few leaves. The king chanced  
 to take notice of this decayed stump, and observed  
 to Forsyth, that he supposed this tree was past his  
 power to recover. Forsyth thought so himself,  
 but merely to try what could be done, he exami-  
 ned the tree with great care. He found that it  
 was entirely dead in every part, unless upon one  
 side,

side, where a strip of bark, not much above one inch in breadth, was still alive, and on cutting off the top of the tree, within about one foot of the root, he found the wood was totally dead, unless a small slip immediately under the living bark, a section of which you may conceive, from the annexed sketch; (see *Plate CLVIII, fig. 4.*) the whole part at A being all that was alive. His method is to pare off all the dead bark, near the place where it is alive, and to proceed onward till he comes to the *quick*. He cuts into the edges of this all round, till he feels he is every where at the quick; then scooping away the dead wood, leaving only a little at the back of the quick wood for the present to protect it, as in the section, represented on *Plate CLVIII, fig. 5.* He then covers the fresh cut edges of the bark, and the sound part of the wood that is left, with his composition. (See § 3.) The consequence of these operations are, that from the top of the bark, and the sound part of the wood, shoots of considerable vigour sprung out, which vigour was augmented by rubbing off all the buds that appeared, except 2 or 3. The edges of the bark all round begin to swell in the spring and to roll round, in the manner represented in *fig. 6.* Next year more of the dead wood next the edges is cut away, cutting into the *quick* at those places, and cutting off the inner edge of the new roll of bark next to the wood, and then covering the wound with the salve. Next year the roll at each side increases, as represented, *fig. 7.* And so on from year to year, till the decayed wood being scooped out to give room, till in a few years it assumes the form of *fig. 8.* And by continuing the same process the open is entirely closed, and the whole stem left as sound wood as any tree whatsoever. While this process is going on in the body of the tree, the branches advance with increasing vigour, and cover the top of the wound, while new roots spring out in the same manner from below; so that the tree becomes renewed in all its parts, and is for every purpose as vigorous as a young tree, and for the yielding of fruit much more beneficial, as he finds in general that an old decaying tree (not so far gone however as that just described, but past bearing good fruit) will produce commonly as much fruit in the 3d year after being cut over, as could be obtained from a young planted tree of the same kind in the 30th year from the time of planting. The cherry tree above described is now in full bearing, and produced last season some thousands of cherries of the finest sort. — Diseases affecting fruit trees are eradicated on the very same principle explained above. Cherries, plumbs, apricots, peaches, and other stone fruits, if they receive ever so slight a bruise upon the bark, become immediately covered with gum; and wherever that gum appears, it acts as a canker which kills the bark and the wood under it; and this spreads wider and wider, till in a short time the whole is destroyed. In order to guard against this, he watches his trees with care, and wherever he perceives the appearance of gum, at whatever season of the year it be, he takes his knife, cuts off the gum, and all the infected bark and wood under it, till he be at the quick every where, and immediately covers it with his salve. It heals over immediately, and in a very short time it is per-

fectly sound and beautiful. But when a tree, that has been long mis-managed, has its bark gangrened in many places in that case he scrapes off the whole bark entirely, leaving the inner bark if it is found, but in all the places where it is decayed, the whole of that decayed part and wood, is scooped entirely out, leaving nothing but the quick; and when this is thus gone over, it is entirely covered with the salve in every part. After this wounded places soon skin over, and the whole becomes covered with a new bark, and shining like the most healthy tree. This operation is peculiarly useful for old trees, whose bark has become covered and is besides rigid and unhealthy. It is to be headed down, if old and when this process ought never to be omitted.

2. FRUIT-TREES, Mr FORSYTH'S PRUNING. II. "With regard to pruning trees, if standards, Mr Forsyth never shoots. He encourages a good number to push out round the stem, and lets them stand at that state. In his garden, where cattle he heads them down very low, and keeps them rather as bushes than trees; seldom allowing them to grow so high as to be beyond his gathering the fruit. And as he always shoots young, he can easily bend them in any way. From the tendency that young trees which sprung out from old wood, to produce fruit, he seldom fails to have a year after it has been headed down which misses it in the 2d, and in the 3d year a great abundance. He showed me one pear tree, that had been headed down when he gathered 2,500 pears the 3d year after it was cut; and were 3 young trees just beside it, about 10 years old, in high health and vigour, from which he did not gather more than 600. The difference between the fertility of these young trees and the real young ones is indeed almost insupportable. On this account he buys old trees and cuts them, in preference to young ones, and supplies those persons with young trees to change for the old ones, which they are obliged to throw out of their gardens. As trees thus trained are in general very full of fruit, he takes care to cut out some of the stems when they get too large, and lets new ones spring up in their place, thus keeping them constantly in the wild state of a kind of bush rather than trees, which to my taste is the appearance of art about them, but generally irregular, is very beautiful, the fruit intermixed with the branches every where. I scarcely add, that, wherever amputating the wounds are immediately covered with salve. In stone fruit particularly, this must be done, or even delayed. In regard to this mode of pruning differs in some respects according to the diversity of the kind to be managed; for he finds, that to obtain the best fruit over the whole tree, a difference of treatment is required on every individual kind of nectarine, peach, &c. but into the

I consider as of very great importance, I pretend to enter, because I do not know myself. All I can do is to develop what I take to be the general basis of his practice. He shortens a shoot during summer, unless the upright stem, which he sometimes cuts once or even thrice in a season, if it grows too tall; to make it push out shoots for filling up part of the tree, which would be in some ways left bare without this precaution. All shoots he lays in at full length, till September, when he shortens every shoot he means to take away within about 6 inches of the stem from which it springs. In this state he leaves it till winter, when he goes over the whole as convenient; and at that time he cuts it off close to the stem, so as to leave only one or at most two eyes at the root of it, close at the stem of the tree. From these eyes, thus left, there push out only a couple of leaves next spring, which the year thereafter become fruitful, and that with great certainty. After this year the shoot has ripened its fruit, he shortens that shoot in winter, leaving only one eye or two at the root. These eyes also push out only leaves in summer, which the year thereafter become fruitful; and so on he keeps the whole tree continually covered with fruit buds of this season, and preparatory buds which are to come in their next season. Under this management there are no woody branches sticking out from the tree, as of old; but an apple or pear tree is as close dressed as a peach. In shortening shoots of apples and pears in September, he takes certain precautions; but for cherries and other fruits, he never omits to touch the tip of the shoot where cut over, with a brush dipped in lime, made of a due thickness for that purpose, and every wound at the last pruning is done in the same manner, for kernel fruit as well as stone fruit. Mr Forsyth is in general very desirous of keeping all the wood on his trees young; and when the branches begin to get old, he cuts them where a favourable shoot pushes forth, and serves it perhaps for two seasons without touching it; and then cuts out the old branch, and lays this one in its stead. You will observe, that he never shortens any of the shoots along the wall for the purpose of bearing, so that they have fewer branches, and are more ramifications of any sort, than is usual in the case; and these branches, when thus left to themselves, throw out more fruit buds and fewer shoots than they otherwise would have done. He also, that as Kensington gardens are richly manured, though the soil be not naturally favourable, tends greatly to the production of fruit. Mr Forsyth considers it as the inevitable ruin of a garden to be manured; nor does he imagine it possible to give it too much manure, if the production of fruit be the object aimed at. These remarks are the principal hints that I have been able to pick up from Mr Forsyth, in going several times through the garden with him. He is, you will perceive, very communicative; but it takes time for a person, who is not acquainted with the subject, to acquire consistent and correct notions respecting it."

3. FRUIT-TREES, Mr FORSYTH'S RECIPE FOR CURING THE DISEASES OF. Mr Forsyth received a reward from his majesty for publishing the following composition for curing diseases and injuries in all kinds of fruit and forest trees; with his method of preparing the trees, and laying on the composition. "Take one bushel of fresh cow dung, half a bushel of lime rubbish of old buildings, (that from the ceilings of rooms is preferable,) half a bushel of wood ashes, and a 16th part of a bushel of pit or river sand; the 3 last articles are to be sifted fine before they are mixed; then work them well together with a spade, and afterwards with a wooden beater, until the stuff is very smooth like fine plaster used for the ceilings of rooms. The composition being thus made, care must be taken to prepare the tree properly for its application, by cutting away all the dead, decayed, and injured part, till you come to the fresh, sound wood, leaving the surface of the wood very smooth, and rounding off the edges of the bark with a sharp knife, or other instrument, perfectly smooth, which must be particularly attended to: then lay on the plaster about one 8th of an inch thick, all over the part where the wood or bark has been cut away, finishing off the edges as thin as possible; then take a quantity of dry powder of wood ashes, mixed with a 6th part of the same quantity of the ashes of burnt bones; put it into a tin box with holes in the top, and shake the powder on the surface of the plaster, till the whole is covered over with it; letting it remain for half an hour to absorb the moisture. Then apply more powder, rubbing it on gently with the hand, and repeating the application of the powder, until the whole plaster becomes a dry smooth surface. All trees cut down near the ground should have the surface made quite smooth, rounding it off in a small degree, and the dry powder directed to be used afterwards should have an equal quantity of powder of alabaster or stucco, commonly called Paris plaster stone, mixed with it, in order the better to resist the dripping of the trees and heavy rains. If any of the composition be left for a future occasion, it should be kept in a tub or other vessel, and urine, or stale of any kind, poured on it, so as to cover the surface, otherwise the atmosphere will greatly hurt the efficacy of the application. Where lime rubbish of old buildings cannot be easily got, take pounded chalk, or common lime after having been slacked a month or so. As the growth of the tree will gradually affect the plaster, by raising up its edges next the bark, care should be taken, where that happens, to rub it over with the finger when occasion may require, (which is best done when moistened by rain,) that the plaster may be kept whole to prevent the air and wet from penetrating into the wound."

(V.) FRUIT-TREES, Mr F. D. S. BUCKNALL'S COMPOSITION FOR CURING THE CANCER OF. "Take one 4th oz. of the corrosive sublimate, reduced to a fine powder by beating it with a wooden pestle or hammer, and then put it into a 3 pint earthen pipkin, with about a glass-full of gin, or other spirits, stirred well together, and the sublimate thus dissolved: the pipkin is to be filled with vegetable or common water, and constantly stirred, till the mixture is blended together as

complete

completely as possible. This quantity will be sufficient for 200 fruit trees."

(1.) \* FRUMENTACEOUS. *adj.* [from *frumentum*, Lat.] Made of grain. *Diſ.*

(2.) FRUMENTACEOUS is applied by botanists to all such plants as have a conformity with wheat, in their fruits, leaves, ears, or the like.

FRUMENTARII, a kind of soldiers or archers under the western empire. The first mention we find made of these officers is in the reign of the emperor Adrian, who made use of them to inform himself of whatever passed. They did not make any particular corps distinct from the rest of the forces, but there was a certain number of them in each legion. It is supposed, that they were at first a number of young persons, disposed by Augustus throughout the provinces, particularly on all the grand roads, to acquaint the emperor, with all expedition, of every thing that happened. Afterwards they were incorporated into the troops themselves, where they still retained their ancient name. As their principal office was the giving intelligence, they were often joined with the CURIOSI, with whom they agreed in this part of their office. Their name is derived from their being also a sort of purveyors to the armies, cities, &c. collecting the corn from the several provinces.

FRUMENTATION, in Roman antiquity, a largess of corn bestowed on the people. This practice of giving corn to the people was very ancient among the Romans, and frequently used to sooth their turbulent humour. At first the number of those to whom this largess was given was indeterminate, till Augustus fixed it at 200,000.

FRUMENTIUS, ST, the first who preached the gospel in Ethiopia, except the eunuch who was converted by St Philip. (Acts, viii. 27.) Frumentius was ordained bishop of Ethiopia, by St Athanasius, A. D. 331. See ETHIOPIA, § 15.

\* FRUMENTY. *n. f.* [*frumentum*, corn, Lat.] Food made of wheat boiled in milk.

\* To FRUMP. *v. a.* To mock; to browbeat. *Skinner. Ainsw.*

(1.) \* FRUSH. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A sort of tender horn that grows in the middle of the sole, and at some distance from the toe: it divides into two branches, running towards the heel, in the form of a fork. *Farrier's Diſ.*

(2.) FRUSH. See FARRIERY, Part V, Sect. IX.  
\* To FRUSH. *v. a.* [*froisser*, French.] To break, bruise, or crush. *Hanmer.*—

I like thy armour well;  
I'll *frush* it, and unlock the rivets all,  
But I'll be matter of it. *Shakeſp. Troil. & Cress.*

FRUSTRANEA POLYGAMIA. See BOTANY, § 194.

\* FRUSTRANEOUS. *adj.* [*frustra*, Latin.] Vain; useless; unprofitable; without advantage.—Their attempts being so *frustraneous*, and the demonstrations to the contrary so perspicuous, it is a marvel that any man should be zealously affected in a cause that has neither truth nor any honest usefulness in it. *Mare.*—He timely withdraws his *frustraneous* baffled kindles, and sees the folly of endeavouring to stroke a tyger into a lamb, or to court an Ethiopian out of his colour. *Soutb.*

\* FRUSTRATE. *participial adj.* [from the

verb.] 1. Vain; ineffectual; useless able.—

He is drown'd

Whom thus we stray to find, and the  
Our *frustrate* search on land. *S.*

—The ruler of the province of Jude order of Julian buſied in the re-edify temple, flaming balls of fire iſſuing near dation, and oft consuming the workmen enterprize *frustrate*. *Raleigh's Hiſt.*—

All at once employ their thronging  
But out of order thrown, in air they  
And multitude makes *frustrate* the d

*Dry.*

2. Null; void.—Few things are so restrained end or purpose, that, the same be they should forthwith utterly become *Hooker.*

\* To FRUSTRATE. *v. a.* [*frustror*, Lat. Fr.] 1. To defeat; to disappoint; to It is an axiom of nature, that natural not utterly be *frustrate*. *Hooker.*—

I survive,

To mock the expectations of the world  
To *frustrate* prophecies, and to raze  
Rotten opinion. *Shakeſp.*

Stern look'd the fiend, as *frustrate*  
Not half suffic'd, and greedy yet to l  
Not more almighty to resist our mi  
Than wise to *frustrate* all our plots a

2. To make null; to nullify.—The act ment, which gave all his lands to the c cut off and *frustrate* all such conveyances  
Now thou hast aveng'd

Supplanted Adam; and by vanquishing  
Temptation, hast regain'd lost parad  
And *frustrated* the conquest fraudulent  
—The peculiar strength of the motive  
Self perhaps contribute to *frustrate* the  
it, rendering it liable to be suspected  
whom it is addressed. *Atterbury.*

\* FRUSTRATION. *n. f.* [*frustrat* from *frustrate*.] Disappointment; d states notoriously irreligious, a secret an ble power countermands their deepest splits their counsels, and smites their r licies with *frustration*. with a curse. *Sou*  
\* FRUSTRATIVE. *adj.* [from *frustr* lacious; disappointing. *Ainsw.*

\* FRUSTRATORY. *adj.* [from ] That which makes any procedure v which vacates any former process.—B strains this to a *frustratory* appeal. *Ash*

(1.) \* FRUSTUM. *n. f.* [Latin.] A off from a regular figure. A term of se

(II.) FRUSTUM, in mathematics, a pa solid body separated from the rest. Th  
1. The FRUSTUM OF A CONE is the remains when the top is cut off by a parallel to the base; and is otherwise called *cone*.

2. The FRUSTUM OF A GLOBE, or is any part thereof cut off by a plane, contents of which may be found by T To three times the square of the semid the base add the square of its height;

sum by the height, and this product multiplied by 36 gives the solidity of the frustum. **FRUSTUM OF A PYRAMID** is what remains when the top is cut off by a plane parallel

**X**, a **SHRUB**. Shrubs, according to the system of Linnaeus, make a branch of the 7th family in the kingdom, and are distinguished from trees in that they come up without buds. But this distinction is not universal, though it be generally observed with regard to those of Europe. Nature made no absolute distinction between trees and shrubs. *Prunus*, in its general acceptation, is a plant whose trunk is perennial, gemmiferous, dividing and subdividing into a number of branches. In short, it is the epitome of a tree, exemplified in the rose-bush. **FRISINGEN**, a town and ci-devant bailliwick in the Helvetic republic, in the late canton of Fribourg, S. of Spiez, and 30 SE. of Fribourg.

**FRY**, *n. f.* [from *froe*, foam, Danish. *Skin-fry*, the swarm of little fishes just produced from a pawn.—

They come to us, but as love draws;  
They follow us, and never chaws;  
As by chain'd shot, whole ranks do  
Fly to the tyrant pike, and we the fry. *Donne*.  
With the sounds and seas, each creek  
Is bay,  
By innumerable swarm and shoals  
That with their fins and shining scales  
Under the green wave in flocks, that oft  
Come mid sea. *Milton's Par. Lost*.  
The elder had the hap to draw up a very little  
Among the fry. *L'Estrange*.—  
He sits behind some promontory lie  
The Leviathans, t' attend their prey;  
There are no chace, but swallow in the fry,  
Who'er their gaping jaws mistake the way.

*Dryden*.  
Farm of animals; or young people in  
—Out of the fry of those rakish horse-  
stealing up in knavery and villany, are they  
usually supplied and maintained. *Spenser*.—  
I was born before the fry of children young,  
When on sports and childish mirth did play,  
The maidens sounding timbrels sung.

*Fairy Queen*.  
I see no constellations there,  
Nor goat, nor bull, nor bear;  
Nor of that monstrous fry  
That stalk the sky. *Oldham*.  
The fry must be held at a distance, and  
the discipline of contempt. *Collier*.  
*Fry*, *n. f.* A kind of sieve.—He dresseth  
his meat, by running it through a fan  
*Sturmer's Husbandry*.  
*Fry*, *n. f.* [from the verb]. A dish of  
fried fish. *Fry*, *v. a.* [*frigo*, Lat. *frio*, Welsh;  
to dress food by roasting it in a  
fire.

Page 1.

(1.) \* *To Fry*, *v. n.* 1. To be roasted in a pan on the fire. 2. To suffer the action of fire.—

So when with crackling flames a cauldron  
Fries,  
The bubbling waters from the bottom rise;  
Above the brims they force their fiery way,  
Black vapours climb aloft, and cloud the day.  
*Dryden's Æn.*

3. To melt with heat.—  
Spices and gums about them melting fry,  
And, phoenix like, in that rich nest they die.  
*Waller*.

4. To be agitated like liquor in the pan on the fire.  
—Oil of sweet almonds, newly drawn with sugar,  
and a little spice, spread upon bread toasted, is  
an excellent nourisher; but then, to keep the oil  
from frying in the stomach, drink mild beer after  
it. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Where no ford he finds, no water fries,  
Nor billows with unequal murmurs roar,  
But smoothly slide along, and swell the shore,  
That course he steer'd. *Dryden's Æn.*  
**FRYBERG**, a town of Bohemia, in the circle  
of Prachatz, 9 miles W. of Rosenberg.

\* **FRYINGPAN**, *n. f.* [*fry* and *pan*.] The ves-  
sel in which meat is roasted on the fire.—If I pass  
by the sea, I may chance to fall from the frying-  
pan into the fire. *Houzel's Voc. For.*—We under-  
stand by our of the fryingpan into the fire, that  
things go from bad to worse. *L'Estrange*.—A free-  
man of London has the privilege of disturbing a  
whole street with the twanking of a brass kettle,  
or a fryingpan. *Spettator*.

**FRY'S BAY**, a bay on the SW. coast of Antigua.  
(1.) **FRYTH**, John, a martyr to the Protestant  
religion, under Henry VIII. He was the son of  
an innkeeper at Seven-oaks in Kent; and educa-  
ted in the king's College, Cambridge, where he  
took the degree of B. A. Thence he removed to  
Oxford, and was made a junior canon of Wolfey's  
college. He there became acquainted with Will-  
iam Tyndale, a zealous Lutheran, who converted  
him to Lutheranism. Avowing his opinions pub-  
licly, he was apprehended, examined, and con-  
fined to his college. At length having obtained  
his liberty, in 1528, he went over to Germany,  
where he continued about two years, and then  
returned to England. At last he was taken up at  
Reading as a vagrant, and set in the stocks, where  
he remained till he was nearly expiring for want  
of sustenance. He was at length relieved by the  
humanity of Leonard Cox, a schoolmaster, who  
procured his enlargement, and supplied his wants.  
He then set out for London, where he began to  
make proselytes, but was apprehended by order  
of Sir Thomas More, and sent prisoner to the  
Tower. Refusing to recant, he was burnt in  
Smithfield, on the 4th July 1533. He left several  
works, which were printed in folio, in 1573.

(2.) **FRYTH**, a village in Middlesex, between  
Barnet and Mill hill.  
**FRUAGE**, *n. f.* in old English writers, a tax of  
12d. for every acre, levied in the time of Edw. III.  
\* **FUB**, *n. f.* A plump chubby boy. *Shinley*.  
\* *To FUB*, *v. a.* To put off; to delay by false  
pretences; to cheat. It is generally written *fib*.  
See **FOS**.—A hundred mark is a long loan for a  
\$ poor

poor lone woman to bear? and I have born, and born, and born, and have been *fall'd* off and *fall'd* off from this day to that day, that it is a shame to be thought on. *Shakespeare. Henry IV.*

\* FUCATED. *adj.* [*fucatus*, Latin.] 1. Painted; disguised with paint. 2. Disguised by false show.

FUCECCHIO, a town of Italy, in Tuscany, 18 miles SSW. of Pistoia.

FUCHSWINKE, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

(1.) FUCINUS, in ancient mythology, the god of the lake is named. His temple stood on its banks.

(2.) FUCINUS LACUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Italy in the country of the Marsi, now called CELANO, from a cognominal citadel, in the S. of Abruzzo Ultra. According to the testimony of ancient authors, it was subject to extraordinary risings and decreasings. The actual circumference is 47 miles: the breadth in the widest part is 10, in the narrowest 4; its depth 12 feet upon an average. But all these have varied prodigiously. Two miles up the plain, behind Avezzano, the fragments of boats, shells, and other marks of its ancient extent, have been casually discovered: and, on the other hand, there are people who remember when it did not flow nearer than within two miles of Avezzano. An immense tract of excellent land is lost at every increase of its level. All round this noble piece of water rises a circle of grand mountains, some of them the highest in Italy, except the Alps, and many of them covered with snow. At the foot of them are numerous villages with rich and well cultivated farms. The environs of the lake, Mr Swinburn describes, as all well inclosed, and the sides of the hills as covered with fine woods; its waters abound with fish of various kinds, and thither repair at stated seasons innumerable flights of wild fowls. As the swelling of the lake was attended with incredible damage, the Marsi had often petitioned the senate to drain it; Julius Cæsar would have attempted it, had he lived longer. His successors were averse to the project, until Claudius, who delighted in expensive difficult enterprises, undertook it. During the space of 11 years he employed 30,000 men in digging a passage through the mountain; and when every thing was ready for letting off the water, exhibited a superb naval spectacle on the lake. A great number of condemned criminals were obliged to act the parts of Rhodians and Sicilians in separate fleets; to engage in earnest, and to destroy one another, for the entertainment of the court and the multitude of spectators that covered the hills. A line of well armed vessels and rafts loaded with soldiers surrounded the scene of action, to prevent any of the wretches from escaping; but it was with great difficulty and many threats that they could be brought to engage. When this savage diversion was ended, the operations for opening the outlet commenced, and the emperor was very near being swept away and drowned, by the sudden rushing of the waters. However, either through the ignorance or negligence of the engineers, the work did not answer as was expected, and Claudius did not live long enough to have the fault amended. Nero abandoned the scheme through envy. *Adrian is said to have let off the*

waters of the Fucinus; but none now except thro' hidden channels formed by nature are probably subject to be obstructed, occasion a superabundance of water in till some unknown cause remove the obstruction and again give free passage. Sir Williamton, who visited the Fucinus in 1785, is the most beautiful lake he ever saw would be complete if the neighbouring rivers were better wooded." It furnishes abundant fish, though not of the best quality. A few large trouts, with many tenches and dace. In the shallow water on the side of the lake, he saw thousands of water frogs feeding and preying upon a little kind of our thornbacks, but much better armed their defensive weapons seemed to avail little against such ravenous foes. Claudius let it be described as still entire, though filled with earth and rubbish in many parts. He filled it with torches as far as he could. It was a covered canal, three miles long, and part through hard rock; and other parts supported by mason work, with wells to give light. It is said to have let off the waters of the lake. Our author is of opinion, that, if the canal were cleared and repaired, it would still answer its purpose, and thereby restore a great deal of land fit for cultivation.

(1.) \* FUCUS. *n. f.* [Latin.] Paint for Not now in use —

Women chat

Of *fucus* this, and *fucus* that. *B.* — Those who paint for debauchery the *fucus* pulled off, and the coarseness is discovered. *Collier.*

(II.) FUCUS, in antiquity, a name given to certain dyes and paints; particularly to a plant used to dye woollens and lincens of blue. The dye, says Theophrastus, was useful, but not lasting; for it soon began to fade and in time went wholly off. The women used something called *fucus*, to stain the red; and many have supposed, from the word expressing both, that the same was used on both occasions. But this inquiry, proves not to be the case. The colored evergreen thing *phlox*, that would stain the flesh. But this peculiar substance, the women to paint their cheeks, was distinguished from the others by the name of *stictis*, the more correct writers, from *stictis*, a root was indeed a root brought from Syria. The Latins, in imitation of the Greeks called this root *radicula*; and Pliny erroneously founds the plant with the *radix tinctoria*, the dyer's reek. The name *fucus* was in this such an universal name for paint, that the ancients and Romans had a *fucus metallicus*, which was cerule used for painting the neck and arms; after which they used the *purpura fucus*, or of the *rizium*, to give the colour to the face. In after-times they also used a *fucus* or the purple, prepared of the *Crocin orange* filer chalk, and some of the rich purple were in use at that time; and that seems to have been very little different from our *rouge*, but is now used on like occasions.



**FUCUS**, in botany, a genus of the order of algae, belonging to the cryptogamous plants. All the species afford a quantity alkaline salt. The most remarkable flowing.

**FUCUS CILIATUS**, the ciliated or ligulated fucus, found on the shores of Iona and other islands is not common. The colour is red, more membranous and pellucid, without veins; the ordinary height of the whole is 4 or 5 inches. It is variable in its appearance according to the different stages of its growth. It is eaten by the Scots and Irish people with dilie. See N<sup>o</sup> 5.

**FUCUS ESCULENTUS**, the edible fucus, or kelp, commonly called tangle in Scotland, is a native of the British shores. It grows about 4 feet long, and 7 or 8 inches thick; sometimes found 3 yards or more in length, and a foot in width. Small specimens are 1 foot long, and two inches broad. The substance is thin, membranaceous, and pellucid; green or olive. The root consists of cartilaginous fibres. The stalk is about 1½ and half an inch wide, nearly square, and in the middle between the root and the leaf, with 10 or 12 pairs of thick, oval, obtuse, foliaceous ligaments, at 2 inches long, and crowded together. It is of an oval lanceolate, or long elliptic shape and undivided, waved on the edges, and ribbed in the middle from bottom to top, running through its whole length, lying out on both sides of the leaf. It is used in N. both by men and cattle. Its growth is in Sept. when it is in perfection. The young part is rejected, and the stalk only is used; it is recommended in the disorder called scurvy, to strengthen the stomach, and restore the

**FUCUS FILUM**, the thread fucus, or sea-dawd, grows on the sea rocks, waving under the long strings, on many parts of the coast. The substance is opaque and cartilaginous, but eaten. The colour, when recent, is a dull olive; when dry, fuscous, or nearly black; and exposed for some time on the shores to wind and air, it becomes yellow, straw colour, &c. It consists only of a simple, naked, cylindrical stalk, 3 or 4 yards long, or less, from the size of a large riddle; that of a thick whip cord; smooth at the summit; smooth on the outside, full of mucous transverse diaphragms, visible when it is held between the eye and the light. The diaphragms have not yet been discovered; but transverse septa in its structure, it is reasonable to suppose this plant to belong rather to the class of conferva than that of fucus. The stalk, when half dry, and twisted, acquires considerable strength and firmness, that it is said, the Highlanders use them for the same intentions as Indian grass.

**FUCUS GIGANTEUS**, the gigantic fucus, is found in the Straits of Le Maire; and grows from sand or ooze by the enormous

length of the sea weeds that grow upon it. The stalks are 4 feet long, and some of the stalks, though not thicker than a man's thumb, are 120. Sir Joseph Banks and Dr Stanger found one of them which were 84 feet long, and as they made a very close attachment with the bottom, they were thought to be at least one half longer.

**FUCUS PUMATIUS**, the painted, or forest fucus, commonly called *dalie* or *dilie*, grows plentifully on our sea coasts, and islands. Its substance is membranaceous, thin, and pellucid; the colour red, sometimes green with a little mixture of red; its length generally about 5 or 6 inches, but varies from 3 to 12; it is ten fingered, or gradually ciliated from the base upwards. Its divisions are extremely various. The inhabitants both of Scotland and England take pleasure in eating this plant; and women of weak habits often recover an appetite by eating it raw. The inhabitants of the Archipelago also are fond of it, as we learn from Steyer. They sometimes eat it raw, but esteem it most when boiled to rigouts, oglios, &c. to which it gives a red colour; and, dissolving, renders them thick and gelatinous. In the Isle of Skye, it is sometimes used in fevers to promote a sweat, being boiled in water with butter. In this manner it also frequently purges. The dried leaves infused in water, exhale the scent of violets.

**FUCUS PINNATIFIDUS**, the jagged fucus, or pepper dilie, is frequent on sea rocks which are covered by the tides, both on the E. and W. coasts. It is of a yellow olive-colour, often tinged with red. The substance is cartilaginous, but tender and transparent; the height about 2 or 3 inches. This species has a hot taste in the mouth, and is therefore called *pepper dilie*, in this country. It is often eaten as a salad, like the preceding.

**FUCUS PLICATUS**, the matted or Indian grass fucus grows on the sea shores in many places of Scotland and England. It is generally about 3 or 4, sometimes 6 inches long. Its colour, after being exposed to the sun and air, is yellowish, or asburo; its substance pellucid, tough, and horny, so as to bear a strong resemblance to what the anglers call *Indian grass*, that is, the tendrils issuing from the ovary of the dory fish.

**FUCUS PROCAMPTUS**, the peckin's fucus, is frequent on the sea rocks, and in basins of water left by the reflux of the tides. Its natural colour is a most beautiful bright red or purple, but is often variegated with white or yellow. Its substance is cartilaginous, but extremely thin, delicate and transparent; its height commonly about 3 or 4 inches. The stalk is compressed, about half a line in diameter, erect, but waved in its growth, and divided almost from the base into many widely expanded branches. These primary branches are very long, alternate, exactly like the stalk, and subdivided into alternate secondary branches, which are again frequently compounded in the same manner, and these divisions decorated with subulated teeth, growing in alternate rows, curiously pectinated or toothed on the upper side like a comb, the smallest of these teeth scarcely visible to the naked eye. The fructifications are minute spherical capsules, or smooth dark-red globules, scattered without order on the sides of the branches;

ches; generally sessile, but some few of them supported on short peduncles. This species, on account of its elegant colours and fine divisions, is the species most admired by those who are fond of pictures and mimic landscapes, composed of marine vegetables.

9. *FUCUS PROLIFER*, the proliferous fucus, is found on the shores of the western coast, adhering to shells and stones. The colour is red; the substance membranaceous, but tough, and somewhat cartilaginous, without rib or nerve, though thicker in the middle, than at the edges. Its whole length is about 4 or 5 inches, the breadth of each leaf about a quarter of an inch. The growth of this fucus, when examined with attention, appears to be extremely singular and wonderful. It takes its origin either from a simple, entire, narrow, elliptic leaf, about an inch and a half long; or from a dilated forked one, of the same length. Near the extremity of the elliptic leaf, or the points of the forked one (but out of the surface, and not the edge), arises one or more elliptic forked leaves, which produce other similar ones, in the same manner, near the summits; and so on continually one or more leaves from the ends of each other, in a proliferous and dichotomous order, to the top of the plant; which in the manner of its growth much resembles the cactus *puntia*, or flat-leaved Indian fig. Sometimes 2 or 3 leaves, or more, grow out of the middle of the disc of another leaf; but this is not the common order of their growth. The fructifications are red, spherical, rough warts, less than the smallest pin's head, scattered without order on the surface of the leaves. These warts, when highly magnified, appear to be the curled rudiments of young leaves; which in due time either drop off and form new plants, or continue on and germinate upon the parent. The plant is very much infested with the *flustra pilosa*, the *mandrepore verucaria*, and other corallines, which make it appear as if covered with white scabs.

10. *FUCUS SACCHARINUS*, the sweet fucus or sea belt, is very common on the sea coast. Its substance is cartilaginous and leathern; and the leaf is quite ribless. By these characters it is distinguished from the *ESCULENTUS*, (See N<sup>o</sup> 2.) to which it is nearly allied. It consists only of one simple, linear, elliptic leaf, of a tawny green colour, about 5 feet long, and 3 inches wide in its full-grown state; but varies to exceedingly as to be found from a foot to 4 yards in length. The ordinary length of the stalk is two inches, but it varies even to a foot. The root is composed of branched fibres, which adhere to the stones like claws. This plant is often infested with the *ferularia ciliata*. The inhabitants of Iceland make a kind of pottage of it; boiling it in milk, and eating it with a spoon. They also boil it in fresh water, dry it in the sun, and then lay it up in wooden vessels, where it is soon covered with a white effluence of sea salt, which has a sweet taste like sugar. This they eat with butter; but if taken in too great a quantity, the salt is apt to irritate the bowels and bring on a purging. Their cattle feed and get fat upon this plant, both in its recent and dry state; but their flesh acquires a

bad flavour. It is sometimes eaten by the people on the coast of England, boiled as a pot-herb.

11. *FUCUS SERRATUS*, the ferrated fucus, sea wrack, is frequent at all seasons upon the rocks at low water mark, but produces its seed in July and August. It consists of a flat, radii and dichotomous leaf, about two feet long; branches half an inch wide, ferrated on the edge with dents of unequal size, and at unequal distances, having a flat stalk or rib divided like the leaf and running in the middle of it through all its ramifications. A small species of coralline, called by Linnæus, *Sertularia pumila*, frequently grows along the leaf. This species affords a much smaller quantity of alkaline salt than most others, the ash of the ashes yielding only 3 of fixed salt. The Dutch cover their crabs and lobsters with this fucus to keep them alive and moist; and prefer to any other, as being destitute of those mucous vesicles with which some of the rest abound, which would sooner ferment and become putrid.

12. *FUCUS VESICULOSUS*, the bladder fucus, common sea wrack, or sea ware, grows in great abundance on the sea rocks about the water mark, producing its fructifications in July and August. It has the same habit, colour, and substance as the foregoing, (N<sup>o</sup> 11); but the edges of the leaves have no serratures, being quite entire; in the surface are immersed hollow, spherical, or oval air-bladders, hairy within, growing generally in pairs, but often single in the angles of the bladders, which are probably destined to buoy up the plant in the water; and on the extreme segments of the leaves, appear tumid vesicles about 1/2 of an inch long, sometimes oval and in pairs, sometimes single and bifid, with a clear viscid mucus interspersed with downy hairs.—This species is an excellent manure for land; for which purpose it is often applied in the maritime parts of Scotland and other countries. In the islands of Jura and Skye it serves as a winter food for cattle, who regularly come down to the shores at the recess of the tides to seek it. And sometimes even the stags, after a storm, descend from the mountains to the sea-side to feed upon it. Linnæus informs us, that the inhabitants of Gothland boil it in water and mixing a little coarse meal or flour, feed their hogs with it; for which reason they call the plant *svintang*. And in Scania, he says, the poor people cover their cottages with it, and sometimes use it for fuel. In Jura, and some other of the Hebrides, the inhabitants dry their cheeses without salt, by covering them with the ashes of this plant; which abounds with such a quantity of salts, that from 5 oz. of the ashes, may be procured 2 1/2 of fixed alkaline salts. But the most beneficial use, to which the fucus vesiculosus is applied, is in making pot-ash, or KELD, a work much practised in our Western Isles. There is a great difference in the goodness and price of this commodity, and much care and skill required in properly making it. That is esteemed the best which is hardest, finest grained, and free from sand or earth. The price of kelp in Jura is 10s. per ton, and about 20 or 30 tons are exported annually from that island. So great a value set upon this plant by the inhabitants, that it

its of rocks and huge stones into the sea to prevent the growth of it. Its medical virtues are much celebrated by Dr Ruffel, in a dissertation concerning the use of Sea water in the treatment of the Glands. He found the saponaceous mucus, in the vesicles of this plant, an excellent resolvent, extremely serviceable in all scorbutic and scrofulous swellings. He recommends the patient to pour with these vesicles bruised in his urine, and the mucus has thoroughly penetrated the pores, and afterwards to wash with sea water. Or, to take 1 lb. of the tumid vesicles, in July, when they are full of mucus, and infuse them in sea-water, in a glass vessel, for 15 days, till the liquor will have acquired nearly the consistence of honey. Then strain it off through a cloth, and rub this liquor 3 or 4 times a day hard scrofulous swellings, washing afterwards with sea water, and nothing so efficacious to disperse them. Even the scrofulous breasts, in women, have been cured by this treatment. By calcining the vesicles in the open air, he made a very black powder, which he called *vegetable etriops*; a powder used as a resolvent and disobstruent, recommended also as an excellent demulcent for the scorbutic laxity of the gums, and for the looseness of the teeth.

**FUDDLE**, *v. a.* [Of unknown etymology.] To make drunk.—  
The table floating round,  
The guests all went faithless to the fuddled feet.

*Thomson.*  
**FUDDLE**, *v. n.* To drink to excess.—  
Whoring and fuddling on still. *L'Es.*  
A small mountainous island of Scotland, N. of BARRAY.

**FUGO**, or **FOGO**, one of the Cape de Verde Islands, in the Atlantic, so named from its being called also St PHILIP, from its having been discovered on St Philip's day. It is 15 miles long and is much higher than any of the other islands, and is much higher than any of the islands at sea, to be one single mountain, and the sides there are deep valleys. There are at the top which burns continually, and is seen a great way off at sea. It vomits fire and smoke, and throws out pieces of rocks to a vast height. Sometimes melted lava run down the sides. The first who inhabited it, brought negroes with them, and a stock of cows, horses, and their descendants are not now distinguishable from the negroes, the chief inhabitants being blacks, and of the Romish religion. *W.* Lat. 15. 10. N.

**FUGO**, or **TERRA DEL FUEGO**, a large island situated from the S. extremity of America, in the Straits of Magellan. (See COOK, N° 1.) It consists of a chain of stupendous mountains, some of which are volcanoes, covered with eternal snow; notwithstanding which the natives go naked, and paint their bodies, naturally fair. Those on the S. side are barbarous and treacherous, but those on the N. perfectly simple and harmless. In 1768, Dr Solander, and others, landed on the island, which, though the summer

time of the stand, was so cold, that two of their company perished by sleeping one night on it. The coast abounds with harbours. *Lon.* from 51. 20. to 58. W. *Lat.* from 52½. to 55. 35. S.

\* **FUEILLEMORTE**, *n. f.* [French.] Corruptly pronounced and written *philomat*.—*Fueillemorte* colour signifies the colour of withered leaves in Autumn.

\* **FUEL**, *n. f.* [from *feu*, fire, French.] The matter or aliment of fire.—This shall be with burning and *fuel* of fire. *Is.* ix. 5.—

This spark will prove a raging fire,  
If wind and *fuel* be brought to feed it with.  
*Shakspeare. Henry VI.*

Mov'd by my charms, with them your love  
may cease;  
And as the *fuel* sinks, the flame decrease. *Prior*  
\* To **FUEL**, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To feed fire with combustible matter.—

And yet she cannot waste by this,  
Nor long endure this torturing wrong;  
For more corruption needful is,

To *fuel* such a fever long *Donne.*  
Never, alas! the dreadful name  
That *fuels* the infernal flame. *Corley.*  
The *fuel*'d chimney blazes wide.

2. To store with firing.—Some are plainly economical, as that the land be well watered, and well *fuelled*. *Watts's Axiom.*

**FUELOE**, one of the FARO islands.  
**FUEN**, a river of China, which runs into the Hoang, in the province of Chanfi.

**FUENCALIANTE**, a town of Spain in Old Castile, near the Xalon, 9 miles N. of Siguencia.  
**FUENHIO**, a river of China in Chanfi.

**FUENHOA**, a city of China, in the province of PEICHELLI, celebrated for its extent and the number of its inhabitants, as well as for the beauty of its streets and triumphal arches. It is situated near the great wall, amidst mountains; and has under its jurisdiction 2 cities of the 2d, and 3 of the 3d class, and a great number of fortresses, which bar the entrance of China against the Tartars.

**FUENSALIDA**, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 18 miles NNW. of Toledo.

**FUEN-TCHEOU**, or **FUEN-TCHEOU-FOU**, a city of China, of the 1st rank, in the province of Chanfi, on the Fuen, famous for its hot baths and springs. It is 280 miles SW. of Pekin. *Lon.* 129. 6. E. of Ferro. *Lat.* 37. 20. N.

(1.) **FUENTE**, a town of Spain in the prov. of Asturia, 20 miles SW. of Santillane.

(2.) **FUENTE DE LA PIEDRA**, a village of Spain, in Granada, 6 miles from Antequera, famous for its medicinal spring.

(3.) **FUENTE DEL SAHUCO**, or **SAHURRO**, a town of Spain, in Leon, 6 miles from Salamanca.

(4.) **FUENTE DUEGNA**, a town of New Castile, on the Tagus, 24 miles SE. of Madrid.

(5.) **FUENTE EL OLMO**, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, between Segovia and Aranda.

(6.) **FUENTE GINALDO**, a town of Spain, in Estremadura, 16 miles NW. of Coria. It was plundered by the Portuguese, in 1734.

(7.) **FUENTE OVEJUNA**, a town of Spain, in Cordova, 32 miles NW. of Cordova.

FUENTELSO, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, 32 miles N. of Avila.

(1, 2.) FUENTES, two towns of Spain; 1. in Arragon, on the Ebro, 20 miles SSE. of Saragossa; 2. in Leon, 13 miles NW. of Palencia.

(3.) FUENTES DE ONORO, a town of Spain, in Leon, 13 miles W. of Ciudad Rodrigo.

FUERSBRUNN, a town of Germany, in Austria, 2 miles NE. of Haderstorf.

FUERTEVENTURA, or FORTAVENTURA, one of the Canary islands, consisting of two peninsulas, joined by an isthmus 12 miles broad. It is 50 miles long according to Mr Cruttwell, but 65 according to Dr Brookes, and from 8 to 24 broad. The soil is fertile, producing wheat, barley, mastic, orchel, dates, olives, and various other fruits; particularly a species of fig tree, that yields a medicinal balsam as white as milk. It abounds in cattle and goats: 10,000 kids being bred annually. Lon. 14. 32 W. Lat. 28. 4. N.

FUERTY, a town of Ireland, in Roscommon.

FUESSEN, or FUSSEN, a town of Suabia, in the bishopric of Augsburg, on the Lech. In 1745, peace was settled here between Austria and Bavaria. It is 47 miles E. of Augsburg, and 65 E. of Constance.

FUFETIUS. See METIUS SUFFETIUS.

\* FUGACIOUS. *adj.* [*fugax, fugacis*, Latin.] Volatile.

\* FUGACIOUSNESS. *n. f.* [*fugax*, Latin.] Volatility; the quality of flying away.

\* FUGACITY. *n. f.* [*fugax*, Latin.] 1. Volatility; quality of flying away.—Spirits and salts, which, by their fugacity, colour, smell, taste, and divers experiments that I purposely made to examine them, were like the salt and spirit of urine and foot. Boyle. 2. Uncertainty; instability.

FUGALIA, in Roman antiquity, a feast supposed by some to be the same with the REGURTIUM, held on the 24th of February, in memory of the expulsion of the kings, and the abolition of monarchy. Others think, that the fugalia was the same with *poplifugia*, or the feast of FUGIA, the goddess of joy, occasioned by the rout of an enemy; which was the reason the people abandoned themselves to riot and debauchery.

FUGAS, a river of Africa, which runs into the Indian ocean, near Juba, on the coast of Zanguebar.

FUGGER, Huldric, a liberal encourager of learning, born at Augsburg, in 1426, and descended of an illustrious family, though originally sprung from a weaver. He was chamberlain to Pope Paul III. but afterwards turned Protestant. He spent large sums in purchasing ancient MSS. and getting them printed by the celebrated Henry Stephens. His relations therefore raised an action against him, and got him declared incapable of managing his own affairs. "Thus (says Dr Watkiss) what we should call wisdom was decreed by a German court a proof of idiotism." He died at Heidelberg, in 1584, and left his extensive library to the elector Palatine, with a fund to support six poor scholars.

\* FUGH. *interj.* [perhaps from *φύω*.] An expression of abhorrence. Commonly *foe*.—A very filthy fellow: how odiously he smells of his coun-

try garlick! *fugb*, how he stinks of Sp. Don Seb.

(1.) \* FUGITIVE. *adj.* [*fugitivus, Fr* *tivus*, Latin.] 1. Not tenable; not to be detained.—Our idea of infinity is a *fugitive* idea, still in a boundless progression can stop no where. Locke.—

Happiness, object of that waking  
Which we call life, mistaking: *fugu*  
Of my pursuing verse, ideal shade,  
Notional good, by fancy only made

2. Unsteady; unstable; not durable. apt to fly away.—The more tender a part, the leaves, of many of the most getables, fall off for want of the support: those only which are more tenacious, stand firm without such reinforcement. *Nat. Hist.* 4. Flying; running; getting.—

Whilst yet with Parthian blood t  
warm,

The *fugitive* Parthians follow.

The Trojan chief

Thrice *fugitive* about Troy wall.

5. Flying from duty; falling off.—Can a daughter enjoy herself, while her parents weep? *Clarissa*. 6. Wandering; roving; vagabond.—The most malicious surmises are tenanted by a libellous pamphlet of a physician. *Wotton*.

(2.) \* FUGITIVE. *n. f.* [from the ad.] One who runs from his station or duty: tried men are best friends, best masters, but not always best subjects; light to run away, and almost all *fugitives* in that condition. *Bacon*.—

Back to thy punishment

False *fugitive*! and to thy speed add  
Lest with a whip of scorpions I pur  
Thy ling'ring.

We understand by some *fugitives*  
commanded

The general's to return with victory.  
A shameful death, *Dent*

7. One who takes shelter under arms from punishment.—Too many, being in inheritance, are led beyond the seas, live under princes which are her majesty's enemies; and convert and are confederate with other traitors and *fugitives* the *Spanker on Ireland*.—Your royal highness great and too just, rather to want or to do homage of rebellious *fugitives*. *Dryden* hard to be caught or detained.—

What mule but his can Nature's  
Or catch that airy *fugitive*, call'd w

(3.) FUGITIVE PIECES, in literature, poems, or other short compositions, newspapers, magazines, or the like publications; or printed on loose sheets or to be called, because easily lost and soon

\* FUGITIVENESS. *n. f.* [from *fugitivus*.] Volatility; fugacity.—That divers salt upon the analysis of many concretes; is plain from the *fugitiveness* of hartshorn attending in distillation. *B* instability; uncertainty.

UGUE. *n. f.* [French; from *fuga*, Lat.]  
 , some point consisting of 4, 5, 6, or  
 number of notes begun by some one  
 , and then seconded by a 3d, 4th, 5th,  
 part, if the composition consists of  
 beating the same, or such like notes, to  
 vernal parts follow, or come in one after  
 the same manner, the leading parts still  
 re those that follow. *Harris*.—The re-  
 figures have an agreement with the figures  
 k of repetition and traduction. *Bucou's*  
 —The skilful organist plies his grave and  
 lcant in lofty fugues. *Milt. on Educ.*—

His volant touch  
 through all proportions, low and high,  
 id puri'd transverse the resonant fugue.  
*Milton.*

has a race of heroes fill'd the stage,  
 nt by note, and through the gamut rage;  
 and airs express their martial fire,  
 in trills, and in a fugue expire. *Add.*

is a piece of music sometimes long-  
 times shorter, in which, agreeable to  
 fharmony and modulation, the composer  
 ffect; or, in other words, what expres-  
 sional thought or sentiment of the piece,  
 it to parts successively and alternately  
 part to another. These are the princi-  
 ple of the fugue; of which some are pecu-  
 lial; and others common to it with what  
 e call *imitation*. 1. The subject pro-  
 ceeds from the tonic to the dominant, or from the  
 to the tonic, in rising or descending.  
 fugue finds its response in the part im-  
 following that which commenced. 3.

one ought to resume the subject in the  
 3 4th or 5th above or below the key,  
 rise it as exactly as the laws of harmony  
 ; proceeding from the dominant to the  
 the subject is introduced from the to-  
 dominant, and moving in a contrary  
 when the subject is introduced from the  
 to the tonic. One part may likewise  
 e same subject in the octave or unison  
 ceding; but in that case, it is a repeti-  
 than a real response. 4. As the octave  
 into two unequal parts, of which the  
 ins 4 gradations descending from the to-  
 dominant, and the other only three in  
 ; the ascent from the dominant to the  
 s renders it necessary to have some re-  
 change in the expression of the sub-  
 to make some alterations in the response,  
 ay not quit the cords that are essential  
 de. It is a different case when the com-  
 ands to alter the modulation; for there  
 efs of the response itself, when taken in a  
 one, produces the alteration proper for  
 e. 5. The fugue should be planned in  
 nner, that the response may commence  
 : close of the best air, so that both the  
 he other may be in part heard at the  
 : that, by this anticipation, the subject  
 it were connected with itself, and that  
 the composer may discover it. In this  
 . It is absolute melody, instead of  
 to impose upon the hearing the false  
 y transposed from one key to another,

without any other restraint than an accompani-  
 ment afterwards formed at pleasure. This de-  
 serves at best no better name than what the French  
 call *imitation*. See IMITATION. Besides these  
 rules, which are fundamental, there are others,  
 which, though prescribed by taste alone, are not  
 less essential. Fugues, in general, render music  
 more noisy than agreeable; for this reason they  
 are most agreeable in the chorus. As their chief  
 merit consists in fixing the ear on the principal  
 air or subject, which, for this reason, is made to  
 pass incessantly from part to part, and from mode  
 to mode, the composer ought to exert his care in  
 preserving that air always distinct; or to prevent  
 it from being absorbed in, or confounded with,  
 the other parts. To produce this effect, there  
 are two different ways; one in the movement,  
 which must be incessantly contrasted with itself;  
 so that, if the procedure of the fugue be accel-  
 erated, the other parts should be more grave and  
 with protracted notes; or, on the contrary, if the  
 motion of the fugue be slow and solemn, the ac-  
 companiments must have more and quicker busi-  
 nesses. The other method is to extend the har-  
 mony by removing the parts at a greater distance  
 from each other; but the others, too nearly ap-  
 proximated to that which contains the subject,  
 should be confounded with it, and prevent it from  
 being distinguished with sufficient clearness; so  
 that what would be an imperfection any where  
 else, becomes here a beauty. The unity of me-  
 lody should be preserved; this is the great and  
 general rule, which must frequently be practised  
 by different means. The chords must be chosen,  
 and the intervals, so that one particular sound  
 may produce the chief effect; this can only result  
 from the unity of the melody. It will sometimes  
 be necessary to employ voices and instruments of  
 different kinds, that the parts which ought to pre-  
 vail may be easily distinguished; this is on the  
 necessity of preserving the unity of the melody.  
 Another object of attention, not less necessary,  
 in the different connections of modulation, which  
 are introduced by the procedure and progress of  
 the fugue, to make all these modulations to corre-  
 spond at the same time in all the parts, to con-  
 nect the whole in its progress by an exact con-  
 formity of motion; lest, if one part be in one  
 mode, and another in another, the general har-  
 mony should be in some degree, and for that rea-  
 son should no longer be able to produce the same  
 effects upon the ear, nor to please in the same  
 mind; which is another reason for preserving the  
 unity of melody. In a word, in every fugue the  
 confusion of a melody and modulation, which  
 composer has most care to avoid, is the great  
 defect, and the chief cause of the failure of  
 many of the best fugues, and the reason why  
 one may say that the fugue is the most im-  
 perfect piece of an excellent composition, and that this  
 tone. There are several other kinds of fugues;  
 such as the

(3) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(4) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(5) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(6) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(7) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(8) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(9) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(10) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(11) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(12) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(13) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(14) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(15) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

(16) *Proton*, *Proton*, *Proton*

from the tonic to the dominant, or from the dominant to the tonic, the counter fugue ought to be heard in descending from the dominant to the tonic, or from the tonic to the dominant, and *vice versa*. Its other rules are exactly like those of the common fugue.

(5.) FUGUE, PERPETUAL. See CANON, § VIII. FUHME, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Mulda, 2 miles S. of Ragune.

FUHSANAH, a town of Tunis, 110 miles W. of Tunis.

FUHSE, a river of Saxony, which runs into the Allier, near Zell.

FUICHT, or WALDFUCHT, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, 3 miles E. of Sufteren.

FUIDENTALL, a town of Silesia, taken by Frederick the Great, in 1741 and 1744.

FUILLEC, a town of France, in the dept. of the Lower Seine, 9 miles W. of Gourney.

FULA. See FOULA and THULE.

FULBECK, a small town in Lincolnshire.

FULBROOK, the name of 4 English villages: 1. in Bucks, SE. of Claydon: 2. in Lincolnshire, near Normanton: 3. in Oxford, N. of Burford: 4. near Warwick, on the Avon.

\* FULCIMENT. *n. f.* [*fulcimen, fulcimentum, Lat.*] That on which a body rests, which acts or is acted upon at each end, as a balance or a lever. —The power that equiponderates with any weight must have the same proportion unto it, as there is betwixt their several distances from the center or *fulciment*. *Wilkins*.

(1.) FULCRUM, in mechanics, the prop or support by which a lever is sustained.

(2.) FULCRUM, in botany. See BOTANY, *Index*.

(1.) FULDA, or FULDE, an episcopal principality of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, bounded on the N. by Hesse cassel, E. by Henneberg, S. by Wurzburg, and W. by Iffenburg and Hesse. It is 40 miles long, and from 7 to 25 broad; and is full of woods, mountains, medicinal springs, and rich arable lands. It was only erected into a bishopric, in 1752, by Boniface XIV.

(2.) FULDA, a river in the above bishopric, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) which passes by the town, (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) and joining the Werra at Minden, they form the WESER.

(3.) FULDA, or } the capital of the above prin-

(3.) FULDE, } cipality, N<sup>o</sup> 1. It has a celebrated abbey, erected by Benedictine Monks, in 744. The abbot is primate of the imperial abbeys, and chancellor to the emperor. It is seated on the river, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) 55 miles S. of Cassel, 58 N. of Frankfurt, and 63 ENE. of Mentz. Lon. 9. 53. E. Lat. 50. 22. N.

\* To FULFIL. *v. a.* [*full and fill.*] 1. To fill till there is no room for more. This sense is now not used.

Six gates to the city, with massy staples,  
And correspondent and *fulfilling* bolts,  
Spoke up the sons of Troy. *Shakef.*

2. To answer any prophecy or promise by performance. —They knew him not, nor yet the signs of the prophets which are read every Sabbath day, they have *fulfilled* them in condemning him. *John* 12. 37.—  
The fury bath'd them in each others blood;

Then, having fix'd the night, exulting  
And bears *fulfill'd* her promise to th  
D.

3. To answer any purpose or design.—  
Here nature seems *fulfill'd* in all h  
Mili

4. To answer desire by compliance c  
tion.—

If on my wounded breast thou dro  
Think for whose sake my breast that  
bear;

And faithfully my last desires *fulfil*,  
As I perform my cruel father's will.

5. To answer the law by obedience.—  
eth no ill to his neighbour: therefore  
*fulfilling* of the law. *Rom.* xiii. 10.—

This I my glory account  
My exaltation, and my whole delight  
That thou in me well pleas'd declar  
*Fulfil'd*, which to *fulfil* is all my bliss

FULFILMENT. *n. f.* The act of fu

FULFORD, the name of two vill  
vonshire, and one in Staffordshire.

\* FULFRAUGHT. *adj.* [*full and*  
Full stored.—

Thy fall hath left a kind  
To mark thy *fulfraught* man, the be  
With some suspicion. *Shakef.*

\* FULGENCY. *n. f.* [*fulgens, Latin*  
dour; glitter. *DiB.*

\* FULGENT. *adj.* [*fulgens, Latin.*]  
dazzling; exquisitely bright.—

As from a cloud his *fulgen*  
And shape star-bright appear'd.

—The illumination is not so bright an  
to obscure or extinguish all perceptibi  
fon. *More's Div. Dial.*

FULGENTIUS, ST, an orthodox  
the 5th century, born at Talepta, in  
noble family. Though he had a libera  
and a lucrative post, he left it and tur  
In 507, he was elected bishop of Ruip  
banished, with the other trinitarian  
shops, by Thrasimond, the Arian k  
Vandals; on whose death they were  
Fulgentius died in 533. His works w  
at Paris in 1 vol. 4to. 1684.

\* FULGID. *adj.* [*fulgidus, Latin.*]  
glittering; dazzling.

\* FULGIDITY. *n. f.* [from *fulgid*  
dour; dazzling glitter. *DiB.*

FULGENIUM. See FOLIGNI.

FULGORA, in zoology, a genus of  
loaging to the order of hemiptera. C  
ters are these: The front or fore part  
is drawn extended and empty; the a  
feated below the eyes, having two ar  
whereof the exterior is larger, and of  
form; the rostrum is inserted, or be  
under the body; and the feet are mod  
ing. There are 9 species, the most  
of which is the

FULGORA CANDELARIA, or LANT  
See *Plat.* CLVIII. *fig.* 9. The head and  
generally of a ruddy brown; and the  
lour of the clava is fresh green, but  
guled with spots of a yellowish clay co

is, at other seasons of a deeper hue. The : of a deep and beautiful yellow, with a nd of glossy black bordering the extre- The tarsi of the feet are composed of 3 ons, and are paler than the legs and rich are brown. When the insect is on , the waving of the elytra (whose thin- ers the spots thereon transparent), affixed minous quality peculiar to the tribe, and n yellow of the under wings, bordered t, occasion, in Mr Barbut's opinion, n they dart around in the night, and ages beyond probability in the minds of so ready to credit hyperboles. It is an t of China.

.GOUR. *n. f.* [*Jugor*, Latin.] Splen- zzing brightness like that of lightning. worms alive project a lustre in the dark ; *dgour*, notwithstanding, ceaseth after *roun*.—When I set my eyes on this side there shines from them such an intel- *dgour*, that methinks the very glory of names visible through them. *Mora*.

.GURATION. *n. f.* [*Julguratio*, Latin.] of lightening.

LIHAM. a village of Middlesex, 4 miles *don*. The Danes in 869 wintered at this they retired to the continent. In Wil- Conqueror's time it was held of the king dons of St Paul's ; and there is an an- cle in it, which is moated about, and be- lee of London, whose bishop has a re, and the demesne has belonged to se from 1067. From this place to Put- is a wonden bridge over the Thames, t only horses, coaches, and all carriages, foot passengers, pay toll. The church th a rectory and a vicarage.

FULHAM. *n. f.* A cant word for false

lures gripe thy guts, for gourd and Ful- m's bold,

gh and low beguile the rich and poor.

*Shakep.*  
A. in ornithology, the GALLINULE and genus of birds of the order of gallae. convex: the upper mandible fornicated over at the edge ; the lower mandible behind the tip. The forehead is bald ; et have 4 toes, subpinnated. See Plate g. 10. 11. There are 25 species ; 18 of ong to the gallinule division, distinguish- ing the toes furnished with broad scab- rances ; and 7 comprehend the coots e the toes divided to their origin. The are among the most remarkable :—

CA ATERRIMA, the GREATER COOT, is size than the common coot, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) image is blacker. This species is found ire and Scotland ; but is more plentiful nent, being found in Russia and the ria very common ; also at Salogne and uring parts, where they call it *judelle*. much esteemed.

ICA ATRA, the COMMON COOT, has a lead, a black body and lobated toes ; ut 15 inches long. They frequent lakes

. PART. I.

and still rivers ; making their nests among the rushes, with grass, reeds, &c. floating on the wa- ter, so as to rise and fall with it. They lay 3 or 6 large eggs, of a dirty whitish hue, sprinkled o- ver with minute deep rust-coloured spots ; and it is said, that they will lay 14 or more. The young when just hatched are very deformed, and the head mixed with a red coarse down. In winter they often repair to the sea, and the channel near South- ampton is sometimes observed almost covered with them. They are often brought to that market, where they are exposed to sale without their fea- thers and scalded like pigs. This species is not nu- merous, for vast numbers fall a prey while young to the buzzards, which frequent the marshes. Their food is small fish and water insects ; but they some- times eat the roots of the bulrush, and with it feed their young ; they are said likewise to eat grain. This species is supposed to extend through- out the old continent, and perhaps the new also. It inhabits Greenland, Sweden, Norway, Russia, Siberia, Persia, China, and many of the interme- diate parts. It is also met with in Jamaica, Ca- rolina, and other parts of N. America. The In- dians about Niagara dress the skins, and use them for pouches. They are called in Carolina, *flycatchers*.

3. FULICA CHLOROPUS, the COMMON GALLI- NULE, is in length about 14 inches, and has a bald forehead and broad flat toes. It gets its food on grassy banks, and borders near fresh waters, and in the very waters if they be weedy. It builds upon low trees and shrubs by the water side ; breeding twice or thrice in a summer ; and, when the young are grown up, drives them away to shift for themselves. The hen lays 7 eggs of a dirty white, thinly spotted with rust colour. The gallinule strikes with its bill, and in spring has a shrill call. In flying, it hangs down its legs ; and in running, it often flirts up its tail, and shows the white feathers. The bottoms of its toes are so very flat and broad (to enable it to swim), that it seems to be the species which connects the cloven-footed aquatic with the fin-toed. It is pretty common on the continent, and inhabits America, from New York to Carolina ; as well as Jamaica and other islands in the W. Indies. It feeds on plants and small fish, and the flesh is pret- ty good.

4. FULICA PORPHYRIO, the PURPLE GALLI- NULE, is about the size of a fowl, or 17 inches in length. The bill is an inch and a half long, and of a deep red colour. The forehead is bare and red ; the head and hind part of the neck are gloss- y violet ; the legs are very stout, and of the co- lour of the bill. This species is more or less com- mon in all the warmer parts of the globe. On the coasts of Barbary they abound, as well as in some of the islands of the Mediterranean. In Si- cily they are bred in plenty, and kept for their beauty. They are often met with in the S. of Russia and W. of Siberia, among reedy places ; and near the Caspian sea ; but in the cultivated rice grounds of Ghilar in Persia, they are in great plenty and high plumage. The female makes the nest among the reeds in the middle of March ; lays 3 or 4 eggs, and sits from 3 to 4 weeks. That they are common in China, the Chinese paper

T hang.

adings testify. They are also met with in the East Indies, the island of Java, Madagascar, &c. Our late navigators saw them at Tongataboo in vast numbers, as well as in the island of Tanna and other parts. They are also common in S. Americz. They are very docile, easily tamed, and feed with the poultry; scratching the ground with their feet, like our cocks and hens. They feed on fruits, roots and grain, but eat fish with avidity, dipping them in the water before swallowing. They often stand on one leg, and lift the food to their mouths with the other. A pair of them, kept in an aviary in France, made a nest of small sticks mixed with a quantity of straw, and laid 6 white eggs, perfectly round; but the hen was careless of them, and they produced nothing. The flesh is said to be exquisite.

\* FULIGINOUS. *adj.* [*fuliginosus* *se*, Fr. *fuliginosus*, Lat.] Sooty; smoky.—Burrage hath an excellent spirit to repress the *fuliginous* vapours of dusky melancholy, and so cure madness. *Bacon*.—Whereas history should be the torch of truth, he makes her in divers places a *fuliginous* link of lies. *Howel*.

FULIGNO. See FOLIGNI.

FULIGO, in natural history, a species of pumice stone. See PUMEX.

(1.) \* FULIMART. *n. s.* [This word, of which *Skinner* observes, that he found it only in this passage, seems to mean the same with *foat*.] A kind of stinking ferret.—The fisher, the *fulimart*, and the ferret, live upon the face, and within the bowels, of the earth. *Walton's Angler*.

(2.) FULIMART, in zoology. See MUSTELA.

FULK, William, D. D. an eminent English divine, born at London, in the 16th century. He was patronised by the E. of Leicester, who, in 1571, presented him to the livings of Warley and Diddington. He attended Leicester, when he went ambassador to France; and on his return was made master of Pembroke hall, and Margaret professor of divinity in Cambridge. His works are very numerous, and chiefly against the Papists; the most noted is his *Comment on the Rbenish New Testament*. He died in 1589.

(1.) \* FULL. *adj.* [*full*, Sax. *vol*, Dut.] 1. Replete; without vacuity; having no space void.—Better is an handful with quietness, than both the hands *full* with travel and vexation of spirit. *Ecc. iv. 6*.—Valley *full* of chariots. *Isaiab*.—The trees of the Lord are *full* of sap. *Psalms*.—

Where all must *full* or not coherent be. *Pope*.

2. Abounding in any quality good or bad.—

With pretence from Strephon her to guard,

He met her full, but *full* of warefulness. *Sidney*.

You should tread a course

Pretty and *full* of view. *Shak. Cymbeline*.

—Followers, who make themselves as trumpets of the commendation of those they follow, are *full* of inconvenience; they taint business through want of secrecy, and export honour from a man, and make him a return in envy. *Bacon*.—

That must be our cure,

To be no more; sad cure; for who would lose,

Though *full* of pain, this intellectual being,

Those thoughts that wander through eternity?

*Milton*

*Gay religion's full of pomp and gold. Milton*.

In that sweet season, as in bed I lay,  
I turn'd my weary side, but still in vain  
Tho' *full* of youthful health and void

—He is *full* of wants which he cannot surmount  
compassed about with infirmities which he  
remove. *Tillotson*.—

From you bright heaven our author  
his fire,

And paints the passions that your eyes  
*Full* of that flame, his tender scenes he  
And frames his goddess by your matchless

3. Stored with any thing; well supplied  
thing.—

*Full* of days was he;

Two ages past, he liv'd the third to see  
4. Plump; faginated; fat.—A gentleman  
body having broken his shin by a fall, it  
inflamed. *Wiseman's Surg.* 5. Saturate

—I am *full* of the burnt offerings of ram;

i. 11.—The alteration of scenes feeds an  
the eye, before it be *full* of the same obj

6. Crowded with regard to the imaginati  
mory.—Every one is *full* of the miracle

old baths on decayed and weak con  
*Locke*.

7. That which fills or makes ful  
great in effect.—Water digesteth a *full* n  
er than any liquor. *Arbushn.* 8. Compl

as that nothing further is desired or wan  
That day had seen the *full* accompl  
Of all his travels. *Daniel's C*

What remains, ye gods,

But up and enter now into *full* bliss?

—Being tried at that time only with a  
he gave *full* credit to that promise, and

evidence of his fidelity as fast as occas  
offered. *Hammond*.—The resurrection

from the dead hath given the world *full*  
of another life. *Tillotson*.

9. Complete  
abatement; at utmost degree.—At th  
two *full* years Pharaoh dreamed. *Geny*

hard riding plunge the horses into water,  
them to drink as they please; but gallop

speed, to warm the water in their bell  
10. Containing the whole matter; express

—Where my expressions are not so *full*  
ther our language or my art were defect

where mine are *fuller* than his, they a  
impressions which the often reading of

left upon my thoughts. *Denham*.—Sho  
go about with never so set study, to del

a natural form of the year before the  
that which is at present established, he co

ly do it in so few words, so fit and pro  
and express. *Woodward*.

11. Strong;  
not attenuated.—I did never know so  
issue from so empty a heart; but the er

makes the greatest sound. *Shakespeare*.—E  
ced under the floor of a chamber, mak

in the same more *full* and resounding

*Nat. Hist.*—

Dryden taught to join

The varying verse, the *full* resounding

12. Mature; perfect.—In the sultanry  
malukes, slaves reigned over families, or  
and much like were the case, if you sur



re the custom were that after full age  
ould expulse their fathers out of their  
Bacon.—

w appears imperfect, and but given  
rpose to resign them in full time  
better covenant. Milton.

These thoughts  
nel must mature. Milton.

ed to the moon.] Complete in its orb.  
s the full moon, as he was coming home  
ng, he felt his legs faulter. Wiseman's

Not continuous, or a full stop.—There-  
ded, making a full point of a hearty  
r. 15. Spread to view in all dimensions.

ut the end of the third century, I do  
ber to have seen the head of a Roman  
awn with a full face: they always ap-  
sile. Addison on Medals.

ULL. adv. 1. Without abatement or  
1.—

He full  
lent all his Father manifest  
d. Milton.

ity of place they are full as scrupulous;  
y of their criticks limit to that very spot  
where the play is supposed to begin.

ram. Poesy.—  
deft blush she wears, not form'd by art;  
m deceit his face, and full as free his  
re. Dryden.

It judicious writer is sometimes mista-  
ll his care; but the hasty critick, who  
views, is full as liable to be deceived.

mg.—  
Since you may  
By courage, if I should not lay,  
m I proffer shall be full as good.

Dryd. Virg.  
e whole effect.—'Tis the pencil, thrown  
upon the horse's mouth, to express the  
ch the painter, with all his skill, could  
n without it. Dryd. Dufr.—

harmony, from heavenly harmony,  
verbal frame began:  
harmony to harmony,  
all the compass of the notes it ran,  
ason closing full in man. Dryd.

—  
the centre of the sacred wood,  
ariseeth of the Stygian flood.

Addison on Italy.  
ineteen sailors did the ship convey;  
of nineteen dolphins round her play.

Addis. Ovid.  
t her full, but full of warefulness. Sid.  
e then confronts the bull,  
his ample forehead aiming full,  
dly stroke descending pierc'd the skull.

Dryden.  
gth resolv'd, he throws with all his force  
e temples of the warrior horse. En.  
ed before adverbs and adjectives, to in-  
ngthen their signification.—

ie why on your shield, so goodly scor'd,  
the picture of that lady's head?  
y is the semblant, tho' the substance

Spens.  
L

I was set at work  
Among my maids; full little, God knows,  
looking

Either for such men or such business. Shakesp.  
—Full well ye reject the commandment. Mar. vii. 9.  
Adam was all in tears, and to his guide

Lamenting turn'd full sad. Milt. Par. Loß.  
—You full little think that you must be the be-  
ginner of the discourse yourself. More's Div. Dial.

—Full little thought of him the gentle knight.  
Dryden.—  
Full well the god his sister's envy knew,  
And what her aims and what her arts pursue.

Dryden.  
—There is a perquisite full as honest, by which  
you have the best part of a bottle of wine for  
yourself. Swift.

(3.) \* FULL. n. f. [from the adjective.] 1.  
Complete measure; freedom from deficiency.—  
When we return,  
We'll see those things affected to the full.

Shakesp. Henry VI.  
—He liked the pomp and absolute authority of a  
general well, and preserved the dignity of it to  
the full. Clarendon.—The picture of Ptolemy  
Philopater is given by authors to the full. Dryd.—

Sicilian tortures, and the brazen bull,  
Are emblems, rather than express the full  
Of what he feels. Dryden's Perf.

If where the rules not far enough extend,  
Some lucky licence answer to the full  
Th' intent propos'd, that licence is a rule.

Pope.  
2. The highest state or degree.—  
The swan's down feather,  
That stands upon the swell at full of tide,  
Neither way inclines. Shakesp. Ant. & Cleop.

3. The whole; the total.—  
The king hath won, and hath set out  
A speedy pow'r to encounter you, my lord:  
This is the news at full. Shakesp. Hen. IV.

But what at full I know, thou knowest not part;  
I knowing all my peril, thou not art. Shakesp.

4. The state of being fatiated.—When I had fed  
them to the full. Jer. v. 7. 5. [Applied to the  
moon.] The time in which the moon makes a  
perfect orb.—Brains in rabbits, woodcocks, and  
calves, are fullest in the full of the moon. Bacon's  
Nat. Hist.

(4.) \* FULL is much used in composition to  
intimate any thing arrived at its highest state, or  
utmost degree.

\* To FULL. v. a. [fullo, Latin.] To cleanse  
cloth from its oil or grease.

\* FULLAGE. n. f. [from full.] The money  
paid for fulling or cleanting cloth.

FULLAN, an inland country of Africa, W. of  
Cahna. The dress of the natives resembles our  
highland tartan plaids.

\* FULL-BLOWN. adj. [full and blown.] 1.  
Spread to the utmost extent, as a perfect blossom.

My glories are past danger; they're full blown:  
Things, that are blasted, are but in the bud.

Denham's Sophy.  
My full-blown youth already fades apace;  
Of our short being 'tis the shortest space.

Dryden's Juvenal.  
2. Stretched by the wind to the utmost extent.—  
He

He who with bold Cratinus is inspir'd,  
With zeal and equal indignation fir'd;  
Who at enormous villany turns pale,  
And steers against it with a full-blown sail. *Dryd.*  
\* FULL-BOTTOMED. *adj.* [*full and bottom.*] Having a large bottom.—I was obliged to sit at home in my morning gown, having pawned a new suit of cloaths and a full-bottomed wig for a sum of money. *Guardian.*

FULL-BROOK, a river of Cheshire, which runs into the Wheelock at Maulbon.

\* FULL-EARED. *adj.* [*full and ear.*] Having the heads full of grain.—

As flames roll'd by the winds conspiring force,  
O'er full-ear'd corn, or torrents raging course.

*Dixban.*

(1.) FULLER, Nicholas, prebendary of Salisbury, a learned English critic; who published in 1617 *Miscellanea Theologica* in 4 books, and afterwards two more of *Miscellanea Sacra*. He died in 1623; and there are some MSS. of his remaining in the Bodleian library, that show his great skill in Hebrew and philology.

(2.) FULLER, Thomas, D. D. a learned English historian and divine, born at Alwinkle, Northamptonshire, in 1608. He studied at Cambridge, and was chosen minister of St Bennet's there. In his 23d year, his merit procured him a fellowship in Sidney college, and a prebend in Salisbury cathedral. He was afterwards appointed rector of Broad Windsor, and lecturer of the Savoy in London: but upon the pressing of the covenant, he retired to Oxford; and soon after accompanied Hopton as his chaplain in the army, which he attended in their marches. Upon the restoration, he recovered his prebend, was appointed chaplain extraordinary to Charles II, and created D. D. His memory was so amazingly tenacious, that he could repeat a sermon, *verbatim*, if once he heard it: He once undertook, in passing to and from Temple-bar to the Poultry, to tell at his return every sign as it stood in order, on both sides of the way, repeating them either backwards or forwards; and this task he actually performed. He wrote, 1. A History of the Holy War. 2. The Church History of Britain, in folio. 3. Andronicus, or the Unfortunate Politician, in 8vo. 4. A Pisgah sight of Palestine. 5. A History of English Worthies; and other works. He died in August 1661. He was fond of punning; but once attempting to play off a joke upon a gentleman named Sparrowhawk, he met with a retort in his own file. "What is the difference, said the Dr, (who was very corpulent) between an owl and a sparrowhawk?" "It is, replied the other, fuller in the head, fuller in the body, and fuller all over."

(3.) \* FULLER. *n. f.* [*fullo*, Latin.] One whose trade is to cleanse cloth.—

The clothiers have put out  
The spinsters, carders, fullers, weavers. *Shak.*  
—His raiment became shining, exceeding white as snow; so as no fuller on earth can whiten them. *Mark*, ix. 3.

(4.) FULLER. See FULLING.

FULLERBY, a village in Lincolnshire, NE. of Horncastle.

(1.) \* FULLER'S EARTH. *n. f.* Fuller's earth is

a marl of a close texture, extremely soft and tuous to the touch: when dry it is of a greenish brown colour, in all degrees, from very pale almost black, and generally has a greenish cast. The finest fuller's earth is dug in our own country. *Hill's Materia Medica.*—The fuller's earth of England very much exceeds any yet discovered in goodness; which is one great reason why English surpasses all other nations in the woollen manufacture. *Woodward on Fossils.*

(2.) FULLER'S EARTH, in natural history, a species of clay, of a greyish ash-coloured in all degrees, from very pale to almost black, and it has generally something of a greenish cast. See CLAY, § I, 4. It is very hard and firm, of a compact texture, of a rough and somewhat uneven surface, that adheres slightly to the tongue, and is very soft to the touch; not staining the hands, and breaking easily between the fingers. It has a sharpness between the teeth, and melts in the mouth. Thrown into water, it makes a great ebullition or hissing; but swells gradually, and falls into a fine soft powder. It makes a white lye, and serves for the same use as the green earth, and is more serviceable with aquafortis. The greatest quantity of it is dug in the pits at Wavedon, near Woburn, in Bedfordshire. The strata in these pits lie from the surface to the depth of six feet, and are several layers of sand, all reddish, but of a lighter colour than others. Under this is a thin stratum of a sand-stone, which they call the fuller's stone, and then they find the fuller's earth. The upper stratum of this is about a foot thick, and the workmen call it *clodge*, and throw it away as useless; being commonly fouled with the scales of iron, which covered it, and which it runs off in a good way into it. After this they come to a fine fuller's earth, which lies 8 feet deep. The matter of this is divided into several layers, being commonly about a foot and a half thick, and one horizontal fissure and another. Of these several layers, the upper half, where they break itself, is tinged red; which seems to be owing to the running of the water upon it, among the sands above; some of which are probably of a ferruginous nature, or have ferruginous matter among them. This reddish fuller's earth the workmen call *crop*; and between this and the lower stratum there is a thin stratum of matter, less than an inch, which in taste, colour, and appearance, resembles the terra Japonica, or snops. The lower half of the strata of fuller's earth they call *swall earth*. This is untinged, and of the red colour of the other, and seems to be proper for tanning. Under the fuller's earth is a stratum of white and coarse stone about a foot thick. They seldom dig through this, if they do, they find more strata of sand. Fuller's earth is of great use in scouring cloths, stuffs, and imbibing oil the grease and oil used in preparing dressings, &c. of the wool; for which reason it has made a contraband commodity, and is not exported under the penalty of 1s. for every weight. See FULLING.

(1.) \* FULLER'S THISTLE, or WEED. [*dipsacus*]; A plant.

(2.) FULLER'S THISTLE, or TEAZLE, is the same as FULLER'S WEED, or by. See DIPSACUS.

**ERTON POINT**, a cape on the W. coast  
of Lon. 61. 35. W. Lat. 17. 13. N.

**FULLERY**, *n. f.* [from *fuller*.] The place  
or trade of a fuller is exercised.

**FULLERY**. See **FULLING**.

**L-EYED**, *adj.* [*full* and *eye*.] Having large  
eyes.

**L-FED**, *adj.* [*full* and *fed*.] Sated; fat;

—  
is a partridge, plump, *full-fed* and fair,  
and this image of well-hooded air. *Pope*.

**FULLING**, *n. f.* the art or act of cleansing,  
and pressing cloths, stuffs, and stockings,  
to them stronger, closer, and firmer: cal-

**FULLING**. *Pliny* (*lib. vii. cap. 36*) assures  
us that Nicias, the son of Hermus, was the  
inventor of the art of fulling: and it appears  
from a description, quoted by Sir G. Wheeler, in  
his travels through Greece, that this Nicias was  
born in Greece in the time of the Romans.  
The fulling of cloths and other stuffs is performed  
in the north of France, where they use a  
mill of water mill, thence called a **FULLING-  
or scouring mill**. These mills, excepting  
the mill-stones and hopper, are  
the same with corn mills: and there are  
several which serve indifferently for either use:  
some are on a high ground, and cloths full'd, by the  
motion of a wheel. Whence, in some places,  
they call the fullers *mill-grinding* corn and  
milling stuffs at the mill.

The principal parts of the fulling-  
mill are, The wheel, with its trundle; which gives  
motion to the tree or spindle, whose teeth com-  
e in contact with the teeth of the pestles, which  
are fixed and made to fall alternately, accord-  
ing to the teeth catch on or quit a kind of latch  
middle of each pestle. The pestles and  
are of wood; each trough having at least  
three or four pestles, at the discretion of the  
operator, or to the force of the stream of  
water in these troughs are laid the cloths, stuffs,  
which are to be full'd: then, letting the cur-  
rent fall on the wheel, the pestles are  
suddenly fall thereon, and by their weight and  
stamp and press the stuffs very strongly,  
and thus become thickened and condensed. In  
the course of the operation, they sometimes make  
use of fulling-stuff, sometimes of fuller's earth, and some-  
times of soap. To prepare the stuff to receive the  
impression of the pestle, they are usually laid  
in a trough of water; then in fuller's earth and water; and  
lastly in soap dissolved in hot water. Soap alone  
does not serve very well; but this is expensive: tho'  
fulling-stuff, in the way of our dressing, is scarce  
thereto; but then it must be well cleared  
from stones and gittinesses, which are apt to  
stick in the stuff. As to urine, it is certain-  
ly not good, and ought to be entirely discarded;  
much on account of its ill smell, as of its  
acidity and saltness, which qualities are apt to  
ruin the stuffs dry and harsh.

**FULLING OF CLOTHS AND WOOLLEN  
STUFFS WITH SOAP**. The best method of fulling  
is, as is delivered by M. Colinet, in an au-  
thentic memoir on that subject, supported by ex-  
periments, made by order of the marquis de Lou-  
isen superintendent of the arts and manu-  
factures of France. 1. The substance of it is as

follows:—A coloured cloth, of about 45 ells, is  
to be laid in the usual manner, in the trough of a  
fulling mill; without first soaking it in water, as  
is commonly practised in many places. To full  
this trough of cloth, 15 lb. of soap are required;  
one half of which is to be melted in two peals of  
river or spring water, made as hot as the hand  
can bear it. This solution is to be poured by lit-  
tle and little upon the cloth, in proportion as it is  
laid in the trough: and thus it is to be full'd for at  
least two hours; after which it is to be taken out  
and stretched. This done, the cloth is immediately  
returned into the same trough, without any new  
soap, and there full'd two hours more. Then tak-  
ing it out, they wring it well, to express all the  
grease and filth. After the second fulling, the re-  
mainder of the soap is dissolved as in the former,  
and cast 4 different times on the cloth; remem-  
bering to take out the cloth every two hours, to  
stretch it, and undo the pouts and wrinkles it has  
acquired in the trough. When they perceive it suf-  
ficiently full'd, and brought to the quality and  
thickness required, they scour it for good in hot  
weather, keeping it in the trough till it be quite  
clean. As to white cloths, as they full more ea-  
sily and in less time than coloured ones, a third  
part of the soap may be spared.

(3.) **FULLING OF STOCKINGS, CAPS, &c.**  
should be performed somewhat differently; viz.  
either with the feet or the hands; or a kind of  
rack or wooden machine, either armed with teeth  
of the same matter, or else horses or bullock's  
teeth. The ingredients made use of herein are,  
urine, green soap, white soap, and fuller's earth.  
But the urine is also reckoned prejudicial here.  
Woven stockings, &c. should be full'd with soap  
alone: for those that are knit, earth may be used  
with the soap. Indeed it is common to full these  
kinds of works with the mill, after the usual man-  
ner of cloth, &c. But that is too coarse and vio-  
lent a method, and apt to damage the work, un-  
less it be very strong.

(1.) **\* FULLINGMILL**, *n. f.* [*full* and *mill*.] A  
mill where the water raises hammers which beat  
the cloth till it be cleaned.—By large hammers,  
like those used for paper and *fullingmills*, they  
beat their best paper. *Martimer*.

(2.) **FULLINGMILL**. See **FULLING**, § 1.

**FULLINGTON**, a village in Hampshire, near  
Bullington.

**\* FULL-LADEN**, *adj.* [*full* and *laden*.] Laden  
till there can be no more added.—It were unfit  
that to excellent a reward as the Gospel promises  
should stoop down, like fruit upon a *full-laden*  
bough, to be plucked by every idle and wanton  
hand. *Tillotson*.

**FULLIO**, Peter, an heretical bishop of Antioch,  
in the 5th century, who embraced the Eutychnian  
heresy, to which he added a singular notion of his  
own, that all the persons in the Trinity suffered  
on the cross; whence his followers were stiled  
**THEOPASCHATITES**. He usurped the see of An-  
tioch from Martyrius in 471, for which he was af-  
terwards deposed, but the emperor Zeno restored  
him. He died in 486.

**\* FULL-SPREAD**, *adj.* [*full* and *spread*.] Spread  
to the utmost extent.—

How easy 'tis, when destiny proves kind,  
With

With full-spread sails to run before the wind;  
But those that 'gainst stiff gales lavecering go,  
Must be at once resolv'd and skilful too. *Dryd.*

\* FULL-SUMMED. *adj.* [full and summed.] Complete in all its parts.—The cedar stretched forth his branches, and the king of birds nested within his leaves, thick feathered, and with full-summed wings fastening his talons East and West; but now the eagle is become half naked. *Hewel's Vocal Forest.*

FULL-SUTTON, a town W. of Wilton, Yorks.

\* FULLY. *adv.* [from full.] 1. Without vacuity. 2. Completely; without lack; without more to be desired.—There are many graces for which we may not cease hourly to sue, graces which are in bestowing always, but never come to be fully had in this present life; and therefore, when all things here have an end, endless thanks must have their beginning, in a state which bringeth the full and final satisfaction of all such perpetual desires. *Hooker.*—He fully possessed the entire revelation he had received from God, and had thoroughly digested it. *Locke.*

The goddess cry'd

It is enough, I'm fully satisfy'd. *Add. Ovid.*

(1.) FULMAR, in ornithology, a species of PROCELLARIA.

(2.) FULMAR, in zoology. See MUSTELA.

\* FULMINANT. *adj.* [fulminant, Fr. fulminans, Latin.] Thundering; making a noise like thunder.

(1.) \* To FULMINATE. *v. a.* To throw out as an object of terror.—As excommunication is not greatly regarded here in England, as now fulminated; so this constitution is out of use among us in a great measure. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

(2.) \* To FULMINATE. *v. n.* [fulmino, Latin, fulminer, Fr.] 1. To thunder.—

I cannot fulminate nor tonitruate words,  
To puzzle intellects; my ninth lap affords  
No Lycophronian bulkins. *Tbo. Randolph.*

2. To make a loud noise or crack.—Whilst it was in fusion we cast into it a live coal, which presently kindled it, and made it boil and flash for a pretty while; after which we cast in another glowing coal, which made it fulminate atreth. *Boyle.*—In damps one is called the suffocating, and the other the fulminating damp. *Woodward's Natural Hist.*

3. To issue ecclesiastical censures.

(1.) FULMINATING, *part. adj.* thundering, or making a noise resembling thunder.

(2.) FULMINATING GOLD, } See CHEMISTRY, *Index* ; DETONATION, and NITRE.

(3.) FULMINATING SILVER, } *TRY, Index.*

(1.) \* FULMINATION. *n. f.* [fulminatio, Lat. fulmination, French, from fulminate.] 1. The act of thundering. 2. Denunciations of censure.—The fulminations from the Vatican were turned into ridicule. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

(2.) FULMINATION, in chemistry. See CHEMISTRY, *Index* ; DETONATION, and NITRE.

(3.) FULMINATION, in the Romish canon law, a sentence of a bishop, official, or other ecclesiastical, appointed by the pope, by which it is decreed that some bull sent from the pope shall be executed.

\* FULMINATORY. *adj.* [fulmineus, Latin; from fulminate.] Thundering; striking horror.

FULNEK, a town of Moravia, in the circle of Prerau, 10 miles NW. of Freyburg.

\* FULNESS. *n. f.* [from full.] 1. Of being filled so as to have no part. Your heave-offering shall be reckoned of the wine-press. *Numb. xviii. 27.*—I roar and the fulness thereof. *Deut.*—Thou shalt desire nothing more than safety, freedom. *King Charles.* 2. The state coming in any quality good or bad. 3. Com such as leaves nothing to be desired.—Joyments are so complete, I turn with tulations, and congratulating their full with their continuance. *Soutb.* 4. Comes from the coalition of many parts.—The forwards to London, receiving the acclamations and applauses of the people as he went, indeed were true and unfeigned, as might appear in the very demonstration and full cry. *Bacon's Henry VII.* 5. Completion from deficiency.—In thy presence of joy. *Psalms.*—

He is the half part of a blessed man  
Left to be finished by such as she;

And she a fair divided excellence,

Whose fulness of perfection lies in him  
6. Repletion; satiety.—I need not insist on habitual intemperance of rich tables, on accidents and effects of fulness, pride, wantonness and softness. *Taylor.* 7. Pient

To lapse in fulness

Is forer than to lie for need; and fall

Is worse in kings than beggars. *Sh.*

8. Struggling perturbation; swelling in

—A principal fruit of friendship is the

charge of the fulness of the heart, which

of all kinds do cause and induce. *Bacon.*

9. Largeness; extent.—There wanted

of a plot, and variety of characters to

it ought; and perhaps something might

added to the beauty of the style. *Dr.*

Force of sound, such as fills the ear;

This sort of pastoral derives almost its

wh from a natural ease of thought and

smo verse; whereas that of most other

kind in the strength and fulness of both. *Pope.*

\* FULSOME. *adj.* [from fülle, Sax]

1. Nauseous; offensive.—

He that brings fulsome objects to me

With nauseous images my fancy fills,

And all goes down like oxymel of squi

How half the youth of Europe are

How fulsome must it be to stay behind

And die of rank diseases here at home

2. Rank; gross: to the smell.—White

of a dainty smell, if the plant puts

flowers only, and those not thin or dry

commonly of rank and fulsome smell. *J.*

Lustful.—

He stuck them up before the fulsom

4. Tending to obscenity.—A certain

which is ascribed to the emperor, is

more than any passage I have met with

in *Dryden.*

\* FULSOMELY. *adv.* [from fulsome]

ously; rankly; obscenely.

\* FULSOMENESS. *n. f.* [from fulsome]

Nauseousness. 2. Rank smell. 3. *J.*

—No decency is considered, no fulsomeness

requon is wanting, as far as dulness can  
*Dryden.*

**FUMADO.** *n. f.* [*fumus*, Latin.] A smoked  
h that serve for the hotter countries, they  
h to fume, by hanging them upon long  
e by one, drying them with the smoke  
nd continual fire, from which they pur-  
e name of *fumados*. *Carew.*

**FUMAGE.** *n. f.* [from *fumus*, Latin.]  
*ney. DiB.*

**FUMARIA,** FUMITORY, a genus of the pen-  
der, belonging to the diadelphia class of  
id in the natural method ranking under  
rder, *Corydalis*. The calyx is diphyllous;  
a ringent; and there are two membran-  
ments, each of which has three antheræ.  
many different species, all low, shrubby,  
s and evergreen plants, growing from a  
7 feet high, adorned with small simple  
nd papilionaceous flowers of different

The most remarkable is the  
**FUMARIA OFFICINALIS**, or common fumitory,  
naturally in shady cultivated grounds,  
lucæ spikes of purplish flowers in May  
It is very juicy, of a bitter taste, with-  
remarkable smell. Its medical effects are,  
ben the tone of the bowels, gently loosen  
, and promote the natural secretions. It  
recommended in melancholic, scorbutic,  
scous disorders, for opening obstructions  
viscera, attenuating, and promoting the  
m of viscid juices. Hoffman had a great  
if it as a purifier of the blood; and assures  
in this intention scarce any plant exceeds  
and sheep eat it; goats are not fond of  
and swine refuse it.

**FUMATORY.** *n. f.* [*fumaria*, Lat. *fume-*  
An herb.—

Her fallow leas  
rnel, hemlock, and rank fumatory,  
oot upon. *Shakespeare's Henry V.*  
LY, a town of France, in the dep. of  
1. Its chief trade is in flates.

To FUMBLE. *v. a.* To manage auk-

many farewels as be stars in heav'n,  
liffinct breath and consign'd kiffesto them,  
ables up all in one loose adieu. *Shak.*  
His greasy bald pate choir  
fumbling o'er the beads, in such an agony  
old 'em false for-fear. *Dryd. Sp. Fryar.*

To FUMBLE. *v. n.* [*fommelen*, Dutch.]  
tempt any thing awkwardly or ungainly.  
mechanick thefts will have their atoms  
x to have fumbled in these their motions,  
ive produced any inept system. *Cudworth.*  
uzzle; to strain in perplexity.—Am not  
l to help you out? You would have been  
half an hour for this excuse. *Dryden's*  
*Fryar.* 3. To play childishly.—I saw him  
th the sheets, and play with flowers, and  
on his finger's end. *Shak. Henry V.*

**FUMBLER.** *n. f.* [from *fumble*.] One who  
wardly.

**FUMBLINGLY.** *adv.* [from *fumble*.] In an  
manner.

**FUME.** *n. f.* [*fumée*, French; *fumus*, Latin.]  
c.—

Thus fighting fires a while themselves con-  
sume;

But stright, like Turks, forc'd on to win or die,  
They first lay tender bridges of their fume,  
And o'er the breach in unctuous vapours fly.

*Dryden.*

2. Vapour; any volatile parts flying away.—

Love is a smoke rais'd with the fume of sighs;  
Being purg'd, a fire sparkling in lovers eyes. *Sb.*  
—It were good to try the taking of fumes by pipes,  
as they do in tobacco, of other things, to dry and  
comfort. *Bacon.*—In Winter, when the heat with-  
out is less, breath becomes so far condensed as to  
be visible, flowing out of the mouth in form of a  
fume, or crasser vapour; and may, by proper  
vessels, set in a strong freezing mixture, be collect-  
ed in a considerable quantity. *Woodw. Nat. Hist.*

3. Exhalation from the stomach.—The fumes of  
drink discompose and stupify the brains of a man  
overcharged with it. *South.*—

Plunged in sloth we lie, and snore supine,  
As fill'd with fumes of undigested wine. *Perf.*  
Pow'r, like new wine, does your weak brain  
surprize,

And its mad fumes in your discourses rise;  
But time these yielding vapours will remove:  
Mean while I'll taste the sober joys of love.

*Dryden's Aurengzebe.*

4. Rage; heat of mind; passion.—The fumes of  
his passion do really intoxicate and confound his  
judging and discerning faculty. *South.* 5. Any  
thing unsubstantial.—

When Duncan is asleep, his two chamberlains  
Will I with wine and wassail so convince,  
That memory, the warder of the brain,  
Shall be a fume. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*

6. Idle conceit; vain imagination.—Plato's great  
year would have some effect, not in renewing the  
state of like individuals; for that is the fume of  
those, that conceive the celestial bodies have more  
accurate influence upon these things below, than  
they have, but in gross. *Bacon.*—To lay aside all  
that may seem to have a show of fumes and fancies,  
and to speak solids, a war with Spain is a mighty  
work. *Bacon.*

(1.) To FUME. *v. a.* 1. To smoke; to dry in  
the smoke.—Those that serve for hot countries  
they used at first to fume, by hanging them upon  
long sticks one by one, and drying them with the  
smoke of a soft fire. 2. To perfume with odours  
in the fire.—

She fum'd the temples with an od'rous flame,  
And oft before the sacred altars came,  
To pray for him who was an empty name. *Dryd.*  
—The fuming of the holes with brimstone, garlick,  
or other unfavoury things, will drive moles out of  
the ground. *Mortim.* 3. To disperse in vapours.  
—The heat will fume away most of the scent. *Mort.*

(2.) To FUME. *v. n.* [*fumer*, French; *fumo*,  
Latin] 1. To smoke.—

Their prayers pass'd  
Dimensionless through heav'nly doors; then clad  
With incense, where the golden altar fum'd  
By their great intercessor; came in sight  
Before the Father's throne. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

From thence the fuming trail began to spread,  
And lambent glories dau'd about her head.

*Dryden's Æn*

Strait hover round the fair her airy band ;  
Some, as the sipp'd, the *fuming* liquor fann'd.

*Pope.*

2. To vapour ; to yield exhalations, as by heat.  
Tie up the libertine in a field of feasts,  
Keep his brain *fuming*. *Sbak. Ant. and Cleop.*  
Silenus lay,  
Whose constant cups lay *fuming* to his brain,  
And always boil in each extended vein. *Rosc.*

3. To pass away in vapours.—

We have

No anger in our eyes, no storm, no lightning ;  
Our hate is spent and *fum'd* away in vapour,  
Before our hands be at work. *B. Jonson's Cat.*  
—Their parts are kept from *fuming* away by their  
fixity, and also by the vast weight and density of  
the atmospheres incumbent upon them. *Cheyne's*  
*Phil. Princ.*—

The first fresh dawn then wak'd the gladden'd  
race

Of uncorrupted man, nor blush'd to see  
The sluggard sleep beneath its sacred beam ;  
For their light slumbers gentle *fum'd* away.

*Tobson's Spring.*

4. To be in a rage ; to be hot with anger.—

When he knew his rival free'd and gone,  
He swells with wrath ; he makes outrageous  
moan :  
He frets, he *fumes*, he stares, he stamps the  
ground,  
The hollow tow'r with clamours rings around.

*Dryden.*

FUMEL, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot  
and Garonne, 9 miles N. of Tournon.

\* FUMET. *n. f.* The dung of the deer.

\* FUMETTE. *n. f.* [French.] A word introduced by cooks, and the pupils of cooks, for the  
sink of meat.—

A haunch of ven'fon made her sweat,

Unless it had the right *fumette*. *Swift.*

\* FUMID. *adj.* [ *fumidus*, Latin.] Smoky ;  
vaporous.—A craft and *fumid* exhalation is caused  
from the combat of the sulphur and iron with the  
acid and nitrous spirits of *aqua fortis*. *Brown's*  
*Vulg. Err.*

\* FUMIDITY. *n. f.* [from *fumid*.] Smokinens ;  
tendency to smoke.

\* To FUMIGATE. *v. n.* [from *fumus*, Latin ;  
*fumiger*, Fr.] 1. To smoke ; to perfume by smoke  
or vapour.—

Wouldst thou preserve thy fam'd family,  
With fragrant thyme the city *fumigate*,  
And break the waxen walls to save the state.

*Dryden's Virgil.*

2. To medicate or heal by vapours.

\* (1.) FUMIGATION. *n. f.* [ *fumigatio*, Latin ;  
*fumigatio*, French ; from *fumigatus* ] 1. Scents  
raised by fire.—*Fumigations*, often repeated, are  
very beneficial. *Arbuthnot*.—

My *fumigation* is to Venus, just

The basis of roses, and red corals dust ;

And, last, to make my *fumigation* good,

'Tis mixt with sparrows beaks and pigeons  
blood. *Dryden.*

2. The application of medicines to the body in  
fumes.

(2.) FUMIGATION, in chemistry, a kind of calcination, when metals or other hard bodies are

corroded or softened by receiving of  
for that purpose.

(3.) FUMIGATION, in medicine.

tile fumes produced by burning certain  
much benefit or prejudice may be pr  
cording to the nature of the case, and  
tution on which the effects are to be  
is evident from the palsies produced at  
gilders, workers in lead-mines, &c. at  
the benefits received in many cases v  
is impregnated with salutary material  
and colds, for instance, are relieved  
ceived with the breath ; by the same  
pectoration is assisted in the asthma ;  
ulcers in the lungs have been relieved  
thod. This is still more strongly ext  
the common practice of curing ven  
and exciting the general action of q  
the system, by inclosing the naked  
patient in a box fitted to receive t  
quicksilver, raised by sprinkling cinn  
red hot iron, or, what is still better  
*gyrus precipitatus cinereus* of the Ph  
Chirurgica, which, not emitting any  
vapours, proves less inconvenient to t

\* FUMINGLY. *adv.* [from *fume*.

in a rage.—That which we move for  
learning and instruction sake, turneth  
and cholera in them ; they grow alto  
quietness with it ; they answer *fuming*  
are ashamed to defile their pens with m  
to such idle questions. *Hooker*.

(1.) \* FUMITER. *n. f.* A plant.—

Why, he was met even n

As mad as the next sea ; singing all  
Crown'd with rank *fumiter* and fur

(2.) FUMITER, or } in botany. See  
FUMITORY,

\* FUMOUS. } *adj.* [ *fumeux-fe*, Fr

\* FUMY. } Producing fumes.—

From dice and wine the youth re  
And puff'd the *fumy* god from out  
Ev'n then he dreamt of drink and  
More lucky had it lasted 'till the d

\* FUN. *n. f.* [A low cant word.]

merriment ; frolicksome delight.—

Don't mind me, tho', for all my *f*

You bards may find us bloodsgood-i

FUNAMBULUS, among the Roma  
we call a *rope-dancer*, and the Greeks  
See ROPE-DANCER. There was a fun  
performed at the time when the H  
rence was acted ; and the poet con  
the spectacle prevented the people fr  
to his comedy. *Ita populus studis*  
*nambulo, animam occuparat*. At Ro  
nambulo first appeared under the com  
picius Patienus and Licinius Stolo, w  
first introducers of the scetic re ;  
They were first exhibited in the illu  
ber, and the censors Metella and C  
were promoted them to the theatre.  
*ralis*, or *ludi Florales*, held under  
were for ambulatory elephants, as w  
ed by Suetonius. Nero also showed

of his mother Agrippina. Vopiscus re-  
fame of Carinus and Numerianus.

HAL, or FUNCHIAL, the capital of Ma-  
large, strong, handsome, and populous  
th two castles, and several fine churches.  
incipal trade consists in sweetmeats and  
It belongs to the Portuguese, but the  
and French catholics are most numerous.  
re alio many free negroes and Mulattoes.  
ted in a fertile valley, at the foot of a  
n, on the S. coast of the island. Lon. 16.  
Lat. 32. 32. N.

HEON, a river of Ireland in Cork, which  
the Blackwater, 5 miles N. of Rathcor-

FUNCTION. *n. f.* [*functio*, Lat.] 1. Dis-  
performance.—There is hardly a greater  
between two things than there is be-  
representing commoner in the *function* of  
ck calling, and the same person in common  
A. 2. Employment; office.—The minist-  
now bound to any one tribe: now none  
ed from that *function* of any degree, state,  
; *Whitgift*.—You have paid the heavens  
*Flora*, and the prisoner the very debt of  
ing. *Shak.*—Nor was it any policy, or ob-  
ar partiality of affection either to the men  
*function*, which fixed me. *King Charles.*—  
ible *function* of the goddess gives a con-  
light and beauty to the ode which Horace  
vised to her. *Adajon on Italy*—Let not  
legacies discourage us from asserting the  
ages and pre-eminence of our holy *func-*  
character. *Atterbury*. 3. Single act of any  
Without difference those *functions* cannot,  
ly sort, be executed. *Hooker*.—They have  
fines and prayers against fire, tempests,  
only for the dead, in which *functions* they  
dotal garments. *Stillington*. 4. Trade;  
on.—Follow your *function*; go, and but-  
old bits. *Shak.* 5. Office of any particu-  
of the body.—The bodies of men and o-  
mals, are excellently well fitted for life  
and the several parts of them well  
to their particular *functions*. *Bentley*. 6.  
faculty: either animal or intellectual.—  
us in his eyes, distraction in his aspect,  
ken voice, and his whole *functions* suiting  
forms to his conceit. *Shak. Hamlet.*

Nature seems  
her *functions* weary of herself:  
ce of glory run, and race of thame;  
shall shortly be with them that rest. *Milt.*  
atever warms the heart, or fills the head,  
mind opens, and its *functions* spread,  
nation plies her dang'rous art,  
ours it all upon the peccant part. *Pope.*  
ch every human constitution is morbid,  
their diseases consistent with the common  
of life. *Arbutnot.*

FUNCTION, in the animal œconomy, (§ 1,  
by physicians divided into vital, animal,  
rational.

FUNCTIONS, ANIMAL, include the senses,  
judgment, and voluntary motions; with-  
or all of which an animal may live but  
comfortably. The animal functions per-  
motion of the body by the action of the

X. PART I.

muscles; and this action consists chiefly in the  
shortening the fleshy fibres, which is called *con-*  
*traction*, the principal agents of which are the ar-  
teries and nerves distributed in the fleshy fibres.  
All parts of the body have their own *functio* s, or  
actions, peculiar to themselves. Life consists in  
the *exercise* of these functions, and health in the  
*free and ready exercise* of them.

2. FUNCTIONS, NATURAL, are such as it can-  
not subsist any considerable time without; as the  
digestion of the aliment, and its conversion into  
blood.

3. FUNCTIONS, VITAL, are those necessary to  
life, and without which the individual cannot sub-  
sist; as the motion of the heart, lungs, &c.

(1) \* FUND. *n. f.* [*fund*, Fr. *funda*, a bag, Lat.]  
1. Stock; capital; that by which any expence is  
supported.—He touches the passions more deli-  
cately than Ovid, and performs all this out of his  
own *fund*, without diving into the arts and sci-  
ences for a supply. *Dryden.*—

Part must be left, a *fund* when foes invade,  
And part employ'd to roll the wat'ry tide. *Dryd.*  
—In preaching, no men succeed better than those  
who trust entirely to the stock or *fund* of their  
own reason, advanced indeed, but not overlid by  
commerce with books. *Swift*. 2. Stock or bank  
of money.—As my estate has been hitherto either  
lost upon seas, or fluctuating in *funds*, it is now  
fixed in substantial acres. *Addison*.

(2.) FUND, SINKING, that part of the national  
revenue, which is set aside for the payment of the  
NATIONAL DEBT.

(3.) The FUNDS, those large sums which have  
been lent to government, and constitute the na-  
tional debt; and for which the lenders, or their  
assignees, receive interest from revenues allotted  
for that purpose. The term *sink* is used in the  
same sense, and is also applied to the sums which  
form the capital of the bank of England, the East  
India and South Sea companies; the proprietors  
of which are entitled to a share of the profits of  
the respective companies. The practice of fund-  
ing was introduced by the Venetians and Genoese  
in the 16th century, and has been adopted since  
by most of the nations in Europe. Princes had  
often borrowed money, in former times, to sup-  
ply their exigencies, and sometimes mortgaged  
their territories in security; but these loans were  
generally extorted, and their payment was always  
precarious; for it depended on the good faith and  
success of the borrower, and never became a regu-  
lar burden on posterity. The origin of funds is  
derived from the peculiar manners and circum-  
stances of modern Europe. Since the invention  
of gunpowder, and the progress of commerce, the  
military occupation has become a distinct employ-  
ment in the hands of mercenaries; the apparatus  
of war is attended with more expence; and the  
decision of national quarrels has often been deter-  
mined by command of money rather than by na-  
tional bravery. Ambitious princes have therefore  
borrowed money, to carry on their projects with  
more vigour. Weaker states have been compel-  
led, in self-defence, to apply to the same resource;  
the wealth introduced by commerce has afforded  
the means; the regularity of administration, esta-  
blished in consequence of the progress of civiliza-

tion, has increased the confidence of individuals in the public security; the complicated system of modern policy has extended the scenes of war, and prolonged their duration; and the colonies established by the mercantile nations have rendered them vulnerable in more points, and increased the expence of defending them. When a greater sum has been required for the annual expence, than could easily be supplied by annual taxes, the government have proposed terms, to their own subjects, or foreigners, for obtaining an advance of money, by mortgaging the revenue of future years for their indemnification. This mortgage may either be for a limited period, or perpetual. If the sum allotted annually for the benefit of those who advance the money, be considerably greater than the interests of the sums advanced, they may agree to accept of such allowance, for a limited time, as a full equivalent. Thus, they may either agree for the casual produce of the revenue assigned; or a fixed annuity for a greater or less number of years; or a life annuity to themselves or nominees; or an annuity for two or more lives; or an annuity, with the benefit of survivorship, called a *tontine*, in which scheme, the whole sum to which the original annuitants were intitled continues to be distributed among the survivors. The establishment of the funds was introduced in Britain at the Revolution; and has since been gradually enlarged, and carried to an amazing extent. The various methods above-mentioned have been used in their turns, but perpetual annuities have been granted for the greatest part: and, even when the money was originally advanced on other conditions, the lenders have been sometimes induced, by subsequent offers, to accept of perpetual annuities, instead of the former terms. The debt, for which perpetual annuities are granted, is called the *redeemable debt*, and the other is called the *irredeemable debt*. Although the debts thus contracted by government are seldom paid for a long term of years; yet any creditor of the public may obtain money for what is due him when he pleases, by transferring his property in the funds to another; and regular methods are appointed for transacting these transfers in an easy manner. By these means, the stocks become a kind of circulating capital: they have the same effect, in some respects, as the circulating money in the nation. When a stockholder transfers his share, he may sometimes be able to obtain a greater price than the original value, and at other times be obliged to accept of a less one. The value of the funds depends on the proportion between the interest they bear, and the benefit which may be obtained by applying the money to other purposes. It is influenced by the plenty or scarcity of money, and by the greatness or smallness of the public debt; and it is impaired by any event which threatens the safety, or weakens the credit, of the government. The business of STOCK JOBBING is founded on the variation of the prices of stock. Persons possessed of real property may buy or sell stock, according to their notion that the value is likely to rise or fall, in expectation of making profit by the difference of price. And a practice has taken place among persons who often possess no property in the funds, to contract for the sale of

stock against a future day, at a price on. For instance: A agrees to sell bank stock, to be transferred, in 20 days. A has, in fact, no such stock; but, if bank stock, on the day appointed for should be only 118 per cent, A may much as will enable him to fulfil his 1180l. and thus he gains 20l. by the on the contrary, if the price of bank per cent, he will lose 50l. The business settled without any actual purchase of stock, by A paying to B, or receiving the difference between the current price on the day appointed, and the price of the stock. This practice, which is really nothing concerning the price of stock, is called yet it is carried on to a great extent. In the Exchange-alley, where most kind are transacted, the buyer is called the seller a *bear*. As neither party is compelled by law to implement these business of honour, and the disgrace attendant on a breach of the principles by which the business is conducted. When a person declines to pay his loaned a *lame duck*, and dare never afterwards in the Alley. This opprobrious appellation, is not bestowed on those who are owing to want of ability, providing they do not surrender of their property voluntarily; the law would have exacted if they were entitled to its sanction. The interest on the stock is paid half-yearly; and the lender has the benefit of the interest due on the buys, from the last term to the time. Therefore the prices of the stocks rise or fall, *ceteris paribus*, from term to term, at the term when the interest is paid. In consequence of the different stocks, it is necessary to convert to the term when the last interest is paid, allowance being made for this conversion, the prices of all the government stocks, which bear interest at the same rate, must be the same, as they all depend on the same principle. When a loan is proposed, such terms are offered to the lenders, as may render the transaction beneficial: and this is now regulated by the prices of the old stocks. If the stocks interest at 4 per cent, sell at par, or above par, the government may expect to borrow at that rate; but, if these stocks are undervalued, the government must either grant a higher interest, or some other advantage to the lenders, to compensate for the difference. For this purpose, besides the perpetual annuity, another method has sometimes been granted for a limited number of years. Lotteries have frequently been used to facilitate the loan, by entitling the subscribers to a certain number of tickets, for which a price is charged than the exact value of the prizes. Though their market price is sometimes 2l. or 3l. higher. Sometimes an abatement of a certain proportion of the capital has been granted, and a lender entitled to hold 100l. of stock, in reality he advanced no more perhaps 80l. It belongs to the Chancellor of the Exchequer to propose the terms of the loan in parliament, and he generally makes a previous agree-



althy merchant, who are willing to ad-  
 ze money on the terms proposed. The  
 ers to the loan deposite a certain part of  
 subscribed; and are bound to pay the rest  
 inments, or stated proportions, on appoint-  
 , under pain of forfeiting what they have  
 d. For this they are entitled, perhaps, not  
 hold their share in the capital, but to an  
 for 10 years, and to the right of receiving  
 a number of lottery tickets on advantage-  
 ns. They may sell their capital to one  
 their annuity to a second, and their right  
 ckets to a third. The value of all these in-  
 together is called *annuities*; and, in order to  
 ready subscription, it ought to amount  
 or upwards, on 100l. of capital. This  
 is called the *bonus* to the subscribers.  
 ital advanced to the public, in the form  
 scable stocks, and bearing interest from  
 appropriated for that purpose, is called the  
*loan*. Besides, there is generally a consi-  
 sum due by government, which is not dis-  
 in that manner, and therefore is distin-  
 by the appellation of the *unfunded debt*.  
 y arise from any sort of national expence,  
 ch no provision has been made, or for  
 provision has proved insufficient. The  
 nches are, 1. EXCHEQUER BILLS. These  
 d from the exchequer, generally by ap-  
 of parliament, and sometimes without  
 ointment, when exigencies require. They  
 rest from the time when issued, and are  
 by the bank of England, which promotes  
 culation. See EXCHEQUER, § 4. 2. NAVY

The sums annually granted for the navy  
 ys fallen short of what that service re-  
 To supply that deficiency, the admiralty  
 is in payment of victuals, stores, and the  
 ch bear interest six months after the time  
 The debt of the navy thus contracted is  
 id, from time to time, by parliament. In  
 war, the public expences, since the revo-  
 ave always been much greater than the  
 venue; and large sums have consequent-  
 borrowed. In time of peace, the revenue  
 the expence, and part of the public debts  
 uently been paid off. But, though there  
 u more years of peace than of war since  
 u were established, the debts contracted  
 ach war have much exceeded the pay-  
 rring the subsequent peace. This will  
 y the following abstract of the progress of  
 nal debt.

peace of Ryswich, 1697	L. 21,515,472
at the beginning of war, 1701	16,394,701
contracted during peace, 1697 to	5,121,071
at the peace of Utrecht 1714,	
ing value of annuities af-	
ds subscribed to South Sea	55,282,978
contracted during war 1701 to 1714	38,888,277
at the beginning of war 1740, in-	
cluding L. 1,000,000 charged on	
the bank	47,954,623
at the beginning of peace 1714 to	7,328,355

Debt at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle,	L. 99,293,323
1748	31,238,690
Contracted during war 1740 to 1748	73,289,673
Debt at beginning of war 1756	5,903,640
Paid off during peace 1748 to 1756	
Debt funded at the peace 1763, in-	
cluding L. 9,839,597 then owing,	
which was funded in the subse-	
quent years	133,957,270
Besides this, about L. 6,000,000 of	
of debt was paid off, without ever	
being funded.	
Funded debt, 1775	125,000,000
Paid off during peace 1763 to 1775,	
besides the above unfunded debt	8,959,270
Funded debt at the peace 1783	211,363,254
The unfortunate and destructive war, now carry-	
ing on against the French Republic, has added	
most enormously to the public debt. Some even	
suppose it has increased it by a sum of above two	
hundred millions.	

(1.) \* FUNDAMENT. *n. f.* [*fundamentum*, Latin.] The back part of the body.

(2.) FUNDAMENT, in anatomy, the lowest part of the intestinum rectum, called by anatomists the ANUS. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

(1.) \* FUNDAMENTAL. *adj.* [*fundamentalis*, Lat. from *fundament*.] Serving for the foundation; that upon which the rest is built; essential; important; not merely accidental.—Until this can be agreed upon, one main and *fundamental* cause of the most grievous war is not like, to be taken from the earth. *Raleigh's Essays*.—

You that will be less fearful than discreet,  
 That love the *fundamental* part of state,  
 More than you doubt the charge of't. *Sb. Cor*  
 —Others, when they were brought to allow the  
 throne vacant, thought the succession should go  
 to the next heir, according to the *fundamental*  
 laws of the kingdom, as if the last king were ac-  
 tually dead. *Swift*.—Gain some general and *fun-*  
*damental* truths, both in philosophy, in religion,  
 and in human life. *Watts*.—

Such we find they are, as can controul  
 The servile actions of our wav'ring soul,  
 Can fright, can alter, or can chain the will;  
 Their ills all built on life, that *fundamental* ill.

*Prior*.

Yet some there were among the founder few,  
 Of those who less presum'd, and better knew,  
 Who durst assert the juster ancient cause,  
 And here restor'd wit's *fundamental* laws. *Pope*.

(2.) \* FUNDAMENTAL. *n. f.* Leading proposi-  
 tion; important and essential part which is the  
 groundwork of the rest.—We propose the ques-  
 tion, whether those who hold the *fundamentals* of  
 faith may deny Christ, and be damnable in respect  
 of superstructures and consequences that arise from  
 them. *Soub.*—It is a very just reproach, that there  
 should be so much violence and hatred in reli-  
 gious matters, among men who agree in all *fun-*  
*damentals*, and only differ in some ceremonies, or  
 mere speculative points. *Swift*.

(3.) FUNDAMENTAL BASS, in music, that which  
 serves for a foundation to the harmony. This  
 part is according to Rousseau, and all authors  
 who have proceeded upon M. Rameau's experi-

ment, in its primary idea, that bass which is formed by the fundamental notes of every perfect chord that constitutes the harmony of the piece; so that under each chord it causes to be heard, or understood, the fundamental sound of that particular chord; that is, the sound from whence it is derived by the rules of harmony. From whence we may see, that the fundamental bass can have no other contexture than that of a regular and fundamental succession, without which the procedure of the upper parts would be illegitimate. To understand this well, it is necessary to be known, that, according to the system of Rameau, which Rousseau has followed in his dictionary, every chord, though composed of several sounds, can only have one which is its fundamental, viz. that which produces this chord, and which is its bass according to the direct and natural order. (See § 4, 5.) Now, the bass which prevails under all the other parts, does not always express the fundamental sounds of the chords: for amongst all the sounds which form a chord, the composer is at liberty to transfer to the bass that which he thinks preferable; regard being had to the procedure of that bass, to the beauty of the melody, and above all to the expression, as afterwards explained. In this case the real fundamental sound, instead of retaining its natural station, which is in the bass, will either be transferred to some of the other parts, or perhaps even entirely suppressed, and such a chord is called an *inverted* chord. In reality, says Rameau, a chord inverted does not differ from the chord in its direct and natural order from which it was produced: but as these sounds form different combinations, these combinations have long been taken for fundamental chords; different names have been given them, which may be seen at the word ACCORD, in *Rousseau's Dictionary*. These names, by the persons who bestowed them, were thought to create and sanctify their distinctions; as if a difference in names could really produce a difference in the species. M. Rameau in his *Treatise of Harmony* has shown, and M. d'Alembert in his *Elements of Music* has still more clearly evinced, that many of these pretendedly different chords were no more than inversions of one single chord. Thus the chord of the 6th is no more than the perfect chord of the 3d transferred to the bass; by adding a 5th, we shall have the chord of the 6th and 4th. Here there are three combinations of a chord, which only consists of 3 sounds; those which contain 4 sounds are susceptible of 4 combinations, since each of these sounds may be transferred to the bass. But in adding beneath this another bass, which, under all the combinations of one and the same chord, always presents the fundamental sound; it is evident, that consonant chords are reduced to the number 2, and the number of dissonant chords to 4. Add to this all the chords by supposition, which may likewise be reduced to the same fundamentals, and you will find harmony brought to a degree of simplicity, in which no person could ever hope to see it, whilst its rules remained in that state of confusion where M. Rameau found them. It is certainly, as that author observes, an astonishing occurrence, that the practice of this art could be carried so

far as it really was, without knowing that all the rules were so exact without having discovered the principles they depended on. After having shewn the fundamental bass beneath the chords, now treat of its procedure, and of the way in which it connects these chords among themselves. Upon this point the precepts of the 1st are reduced to the six following rules. 1. The fundamental bass ought never to sound notes, than those of the series or tone in which the composer finds himself, or at least those of the series or tone to which he chooses to migrate. This of all the rules for the fundamental bass is the first and most indispensable. 2. Its procedure ought to be so managed, as not to be subjected to the laws of modulation, as never the idea of a former mode to be lost, nor of a subsequent one can be legitimately that is to say, that the fundamental bass never to be devious, or suffer us to be misled at a loss in what mode we are. 3. It is subjected to the connection and the preparation of dissonances: a dissonance, which, as we shall afterwards see, is not but a method of producing this connection, which of consequence is only necessary, where a connection cannot subsist without it. 4. By the 4th it is necessary to pursue that career of resolution of the dissonance indifferently. See RESOLUTION. 5. By the 5th it is nothing else but a consequence of the 4th, that the fundamental bass ought only to move by consonant intervals; except alone in the case of a broken cadence, or after a chord of dissonance, where it rises diatonically. 6. The motion of the fundamental bass is illegitimate. By the 6th, in short, the fundamental bass ought not to be syncopated; but by changes of chords properly marked, and in such a manner, for instance, as to prepare their preparation in the imperfect time, so that all the rests may happen in time. This sixth rule admits of an infinite number of exceptions; but the composer ought ever to be attentive to it, if he would be successful in which the movements are proper, and in which the bars may end gracefully. 7. If ever these rules are observed, the harmony will be regular and without fault: this, however, is not to be understood, that the music should be belag detestable. POSITION, § 7. An illustration of the 5th rule may be useful. Whatever turn may be given to the fundamental bass, if it is properly managed, these alternatives must always be found in perfect chords moving by consonant intervals, without which their efforts would have no effect; or, dissonant chords in opera: in every other case, the dissonance neither be properly placed nor proper. Hence it follows, that the fundamental bass not move regularly but in one of these ways. 1. To rise or descend by a 3d or a 4th. 2. To rise or descend by a 4th or a 5th. 3. To rise diatonically, means of the dissonance which forms it.

by a licence upon a perfect chord. With to a diatonic descent, it is a motion abso-robhibited to the fundamental bass; or, at xerely tolerated in cases where two perfect are in succession, divided by a close expres-nderstood. This rule has no other excep-nd it is from not discerning the foundation in transitions, that M. Rameau has caused damental bass to descend diatonically un-rds of the 5th; an operation which is im-ible in legitimate harmony. See CADENCE, § III, and DISCORD, § 2. The funda-bass, which they add for no other reason-erve as a proof of the harmony, must be bed in execution, and often in practice it have a very bad effect; for it is, as M. Ra-very properly observes, intended for the-nt, and not for the ear. It would at-duce a monotony extremely noxious by-returns of the same chord, which they-nd vary more agreeably, by combining it-ent manners upon the continued bass,-t reckoning upon the different inversions-ony, which furnish a thousand means of- new beauties to the music and new energy-pression. See CHORD, § II; and INVER-But it may be objected, If the fundamen- is not useful in composing good music, if- even be retrenched in practice, what good- is, then, can it serve? We answer, that, in- it place, it serves for a rule to scholars, up- which they may learn to form a regular har- and to give to all the parts such a diatonic- mentary procedure as is prescribed them- fundamental bass. 2dly, It proves whe- harmony already formed be just and regular;- harmony which cannot be subjected to the- fundamental bass, must according to all- be said. 3dly, It serves for the investigation- continued bass under a given air; though, in- it, he who cannot directly form a continued- will scarcely be able to form a fundamental- which is better; and much less still will he- le to transform that fundamental bass into a- nate continued bass. These which follow- however, the principal rules which M. Ra- prescribes for finding the fundamental bass- ven air. 1. To ascertain with precision the- us which the composer begins, and those- gh which he passes. There are also rules- regarding the modes; but so long, so vague,- complete, that with respect to this, the ear- returned long before the rules are acquired;- he dance who should try to use them would- to improvement, but the habit of proceed- ways note by note, without even knowing- he is. 2. To try in succession, under each- the principal chords of the mode, beginning- those which are most analogous, and passing- to the most remote, when the composer sees- it under a necessity of doing so. 3. To con- whether the chord chosen can suit the upper- in what precedes and in what follows, by a- additional succession: and when this is im-icable, to return the way he came. 4. Not- ange the note of the fundamental bass till af- having exhausted all the notes which are allow- succession in the upper part, and which can

enter into its chord; or till some syncopated note in the air may be susceptible of two or a greater number of notes in the bass, to prepare the dissonance which may be afterwards resolved according to rule. 5. To study the intertexture of the phrases; the possible succession of cadences, whether full or avoided; and above all, the pauses which for ordinary return at the end of every 4, or of every 2 bars, so that they may always fall upon perfect and regular cadences. 6. To observe all the rules formerly given for the composition of the fundamental bass.—These are the principal observations to be made for finding one under any given air; for there are sometimes several different ones which may be investigated. But, whatever may be said to the contrary, if the air has accent and character, there is only one just fundamental bass which can be adapted to it. After having given a summary explication of the manner in which a fundamental bass should be composed, it should remain to suggest the means of transforming it into a continued bass; and this would be easy, if it were only necessary to regard the diatonic procedure and the agreeable air of this bass. But let us not imagine that the bass, which is the guide and support of the harmony, the soul, and as it were the interpreter of the air, should be limited to rules so simple: there are others which depend upon principles more certain and radical; fruitful, but latent principles, which have been felt by every artist of genius, without having been detected by any one. Rousseau hopes, that, in his letter upon French music, he has insinuated this principle. For those who understand him, he imagines he has said enough concerning it, and can never say enough of it for those who do not. See *Rousseau's Miscellanies*, Vol. II. p. 1. He does not here mention the ingenious system by M. Serre of Geneva, nor his double fundamental bass; because the principles, which, with a sagacity meritorious of praise, he had half detected, have afterwards been unfolded by M. Tartini, in a work of which Rousseau has given an account in his article SYSTEM.

(4.) A FUNDAMENTAL CHORD, is that whose bass is fundamental, and in which the sounds are ranged in the same order as when they are generated, according to the experiment so often repeated by M. d'Alembert, in his Preliminary Discourse and Element of Music. See MUSIC. But as this order removes the parts to an extreme distance one from the other, they must be approximated by combinations or inversions; but if the bass remains the same, the chord does not for this reason cease to bear the name of *fundamental*. Such an example is this chord, *ut mi sol*, included in the interval of a fifth: whereas, in the order of its generation, *ut sol mi*, it includes a tenth, and even a seventeenth; since the fundamental *ut* is not the fifth of *sol*, but the octave of that fifth.

(5.) A FUNDAMENTAL SOUND is that which forms the lowest note of the CHORD, and from whence are deduced the harmonical relations of the rest; or, which serves for a key to the tone. See TONIC.

\* FUNDAMENTALLY. *adv.* [from *fundamental*.] Essentially; originally.—As virtue is feated *fundamentally* in the intellect, so perceptivevly

in the fancy; so that virtue is the force of reason, in the conduct of our actions and passions to a good end. *Grew*.—Religion is not only useful to civil society, but *fundamentally* necessary to its very birth and constitution. *Bentley*.—The unlimited power placed *fundamentally* in the body of a people, the legislators endeavour to deposit in such hands as would preserve the people. *Swift*.

FUNDAON, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Beira; 23 miles W. of Alfayates.

FUNDI, in ancient geography, a town of Latium, on the Via Appia, near Cajeta; enjoying all the privileges of Roman citizens, except the right of suffrage and of magistracy; now called FONDI.

FUNDO, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, 44 miles WNW. of Birlat.

FUNDY, a bay of N. America, between New England and Nova Scotia, remarkable for its tides, which rise to the height of 50 or 60 feet, and flow so rapidly as to overtake animals which feed upon the shore. It has a good fishery.

FUNEN, FIONIA, or FYEN, a considerable island of Denmark, in the Baltic sea, separated from Jutland by a strait called the *Lesser Belt*, and from the island of Zealand by the *Great Belt*. It is 340 miles in circuit; is fertile in wheat and barley, and abounds in grain cattle, horses, game, and fish. Odensee is the capital. Lon. from 9. 40. to 10. 50. E. Lat. 55. 7. to 55. 42. N.

(1.) \* FUNERAL. *adj.* Used at the ceremony of interring the dead.—

Our instruments to melancholy bells,  
Our wedding cheer to a sad funeral feast. *Shak.*  
Let such honours

And funeral rites, as to his birth and virtues  
Are due, be first perform'd. *Denham's Sophy.*  
Thy hand o'er towns the *fun'ral* torch displays,

And forms a thousand ills ten thousand ways.  
*Dryden.*

(2.) \* FUNERAL. *n. s.* [*funus*, Latin; *funerailles*, French.] 1. The solemnization of a burial; the payment of the last honours to the dead; obsequies.—

Here, under leave of Brutus, and the rest,  
Come I to speak in Cæsar's funeral. *Shak.*  
All things that we ordained festival,

Turn from their office to black funeral. *Shak.*  
—He that had cast out many unburied, had none to mourn for him, nor any solemn funerals, nor sepulchre with his fathers. *2 Mac. v. 10.*—

No widow at his funeral shall weep. *Sandys.*  
2. The pomp or procession with which the dead are carried.—

The long funerals blacken all the way. *Pope.*  
—You are sometimes desirous to see a funeral pass by in the street. *Swift.* 3. Burial; interment.—  
May he find his funeral

I th' sands, when he before his day shall fall.  
*Denham.*

(3.) FUNERAL GAMES, a part of the ceremony of the ancient funerals. It was customary for persons of quality, among the ancient Greeks and Romans, to institute games, with all sorts of exercises, to render the death of their friends more remarkable. This practice was general, and is often mentioned by ancient writers. Patroclus's

funeral games take up the greatest part of Homer's Iliads; and Agamemnon's guided by the same poet, telling the goddesses, that he had been a spectator at a number of such solemnities. The celebrated games among the Greeks mostly consisted of races; the prizes were of different sort according to the quality and magnificence of the person that celebrated them. The games of victors on such occasions were usual which was thought to have some relation to the dead. Those games, Romans, consisted chiefly of processions, sometimes of mortal combats of gladiators the funeral pile. They, as well as the Greeks, had also a custom, though very ancient, of cutting the throats of a number of captives to appease the manes of the deceased. Cæsar relates, that the custom of the funeral games were introduced by the emperor Claudius.

(4.) FUNERAL ORATION, a discourse pronounced in praise of a person deceased, at the time of his funeral. This custom is very ancient, the annexed account of the Egyptian funeral, (See § 6.) may be perceived to be the elements of funeral orations, and what was the subject of them, which were afterwards introduced into a more polite and regular form by the Romans, who adopted this custom. I omit remarking, that those funeral orations were attended not only with prayers for the deceased, but with prayers for his one who personated the deceased. An account of one of these is preserved by Porphyry (says he) they (the Egyptians) embalmed the deceased nobles, they privately take out the heart and lay them up in an ark or chest: among other things which they do in the funeral, lifting up the ark or coffin, they invoke him; one of the Libyans has translated out of the Egyptian language is as follows:—O lord, the sun, and the gods who give life to man, receive me, and admit me into the society of the immortal ones; as I lived in this world, I religiously worshipped the gods whom my parents showed me, I always honoured those who begat me, I have killed any man, nor have I defiled of what has been committed to my trust, I have done any thing which is inexpiable whilst I was alive, if I have sinned either by eating or drinking any thing which was not through myself have I sinned, but these, showing the ark and chest which were my trails were. And having thus spoken, he cast them into the river, but the rest of the balms as pure." The Grecians received of superstition and idolatrous worship from the Egyptians, by Cecrops, Cadmus, Demeter, and Erechtheus, coming into Greece; and other customs transplanted from Egyptian solemnities used at the burial of the deceased, an encomium on the deceased added a part. From the Egyptians and especially the latter, the Romans received of their laws and customs, as well as

polytheism and idolatrous worship. It is now, that the custom of making funeral is in praise of the dead obtained among and the manner in which their funeral services performed will be found described in § 9. *xpfc* being brought into their great oratory. the *Roftra*, the next of the kin *laudabat de- s pro roftris*, i. e. made a funeral oration, commendation principally of the party de- , but touching the worthy acts also of those deceafors whose images were there prefent. *anet* fays, that: "In all the funerals of especially in the public or indiftive, the was firft brought with a vaft train of follow- o the Forum; here one of the neareft re- afcended the roftra, and obliged the audi- rith an oration in praise of the deceafed. If of the kindred undertook the office, it was god by fome of the moft eminent perfons city for learning and eloquence, as Appian of the funeral of Sylla. And Pliny the er reckons it as the laft addition to the hap- of a very great man; that he had the honour praifed at his funeral by the moft eloquent is, then conful; which is agreeable to *San's* account of this matter, *Nam et fune- te*. For the funeral orations (fays he) de- very often on fome public office, and by of *fenate* are many times given in charge to *agistrates* to be performed by themselves in l. The invention of this custom is generally ted to *Valerius Poplicola*, foon after the *lea* of the regal family. *Plutarch* tells us, *mourning* his colleague's obfequies with a *foration*, it fo pleafed the Romans, that it a customary for the beft men to celebrate *erals* of great perfons with speeches in their *endations*." Thus *Julius Cæfar*, according *lom*, made an oration in the roftra, in praise *wife Cornelia*, and his aunt *Julia*, when *wherein* he showed, that his aunt's defcent, *mother's fide*, was from kings, and by her 's from the gods. *Plutarch* fays, that "he red of the law of the Romans, which order- table praifes to be given to women as well *men* after death." Though by what he fays *ther place*, it feems that the old Roman law that funeral orations fhould be made only : *elder women*; and therefore he fays, that *was* the firft that made one upon his own it not being then ufual to take notice of *er women* in that way: but by that action *sed much favour* from the populace, who *ards* looked upon him, and loved him as a *ild* and good man. The reason why fuch *was* made in favour of the women, *Livy* is, *was* this, That when there was fuch a *y of money* in the public treasury, that the *greed* upon to give the Gauls to break up *ge of the city* and capitol could not be raifed, *men* collected among themselves and made *who* hereupon had not only thanks given *but* this additional honour, that after death, *ould* be folemnly praifed as well as the *which* looks as if, before this time, only *m* had thofe funeral orations made for them.

FUNERAL RITES, ceremonies accompany-

ing the burial of any person. See BURIAL, § 2. The Latin word, *funus*, is derived from the Greek, *φως, death*. These rites differed among the ancients according to the different genius and religion of each country. See § 6—14.

(6.) FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS. The first people who seem to have paid any particular respect to their dead, were the Egyptians, the posterity of Ham; as they were the first cultivators of idolatrous worship and superstition after the flood, they were also the first who asserted the immortality of the soul, in its migration into all kinds of animals in earth, air, and sea, and its return to the human body; which they supposed to be within the term of 3000 years. Hence proceeded their very great care in embalming their dead bodies, (see CATACOMBS, § 2; and EMBALMING,) and their being at such vast expence in building proper repositories for them; for they were more solicitous about their graves than their houses. This gave birth to those wonders of the world, the pyramids, which were built for the burial of their kings, with such vast charges, and almost incredible magnificence. See PYRAMID. Whenever a person died among the Egyptians, his parents and friends put on mournful habits, and abstained from all banquets and entertainments. This mourning lasted from 40 to 70 days, during which time they embalmed the body. See EMBALMING. The embalmed body was restored to the friends, who placed it in a kind of open chest, which was preserved either in their houses, or in the sepulchres of their ancestors. But before the dead were deposited in the tomb, they underwent a solemn judgment, which extended even to their kings. Of this remarkable custom we have a particular account in the 1st book of Diodorus Siculus. "Those, who prepare to bury a relation, give notice of the day intended for the ceremony to the judges, and to all the friends of the deceafed; informing them, that the body will pass over the lake of that district to which the dead belonged: when, on the judges assembling, to the number of more than 40, and ranging themselves in a semicircle on the farther side of the lake, the vessel is set afloat, which those who superintend the funeral have prepared for this purpose. This vessel is managed by a pilot, called in the Egyptian language CHARON; and hence they say, that Orpheus, travelling in old times into Egypt, and seeing this ceremony, formed his fable of the infernal regions, partly from what he saw, and partly from invention. The vessel being launched on the lake, before the coffin which contains the body is put on board, the law permits all, who are so inclined, to produce an accusation against it. If any one steps forth, and proves that the deceafed has led an evil life, the judges pronounce sentence, and the body is precluded from burial; but if the accuser is convicted of injustice in his charge, he falls himself under a considerable penalty. When no accuser appears, or when the accuser is proved to be an unfair one, the relations, who are assembled, change their expressions of sorrow into encomiums on the dead; yet do not, like the Greeks, speak in honour of his family, because

because they consider all Egyptians as equally well born ; but they set forth the education and manners of his youth, his piety and justice in maturer life, his moderation, and every virtue by which he was distinguished ; and they supplicate the infernal deities to receive him as an associate among the blest. The multitude join their acclamations of applause in this celebration of the dead, whom they consider as going to pass an eternity among the just below." Such is the description which Diodorus gives of this funeral judicature, to which even the kings of Egypt were subject. The same author asserts, that many sovereigns had been thus judicially deprived of the honours of burial by the indignation of their people : and that the terrors of such a fate had the most salutary influence on the virtue of their kings.

(7.) FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT GREEKS. It was usual sometimes before the interment, to put a piece of money into the mouth of the deceased, which was thought to be Charon's fare for wafting the departed soul over the infernal river. This ceremony was not used in those countries which were supposed to be situated in the neighbourhood of the infernal regions, and to lead thither by a ready and direct road. The corpse was likewise furnished with a cake, composed of flour, honey, &c. which was designed to appease the fury of Cerberus, the door-keeper of hell, and to procure the ghost a safe and quiet entrance. During the time the corpse continued in the house, there stood before the door a vessel of water : the design of which was, that those concerned about the body might purify themselves by washing ; it being the opinion of the Greeks, as well as of the Jews, that pollution was contracted by touching a dead body. The ceremonies by which they expressed their sorrow for the death of their friends were various ; but it seems to have been a constant rule to recede as much as possible in habit and behaviour from their ordinary customs. For this reason they abstained from banquets and entertainments ; they divested themselves of all ornaments ; they tore, cut off, or shaved their hair, which they cast into the funeral pile, to be consumed with the body of their deceased friend. Sometimes they throw themselves on the ground, and rolled in the dust, or covered their head with ashes ; they beat their breasts, and even tore their flesh with their nails, upon the loss of a person they much lamented. When persons of rank, such as public magistrates or great generals, died, the whole city put on a face of mourning ; all public meetings were intermitted ; the schools, baths, shops, temples, and all places of concourse, were shut up. After interment followed the *epulæ* or feasts, at which the company used to appear crowned ; when they spoke in praise of the dead, so far as they could go with truth, it being esteemed a notorious wickedness to lie upon such an occasion. And not only at those feasts, but even before the company departed from the sepulchre, they were sometimes entertained with a panegyric upon the dead person. The Grecian soldiers, who died in battle, had not only their tombs adorned with inscriptions, showing their names, parentage, and

exploits, but were also honoured with in their praise. The custom among them in the interment of their soldiers was namely, " They used to place the bodies of the dead in tents 3 days before the funeral, that persons might have opportunity to finish their relations, and pay their last respects. Upon the 4th day a coffin of cypress was made from every tribe, to convey the bodies to their own relations ; after which went a conveyance in memory of those whose bodies could not be found. All these, accompanied with the body of the people, were carried to the burying place, called *Ceramicus*, and there interred. One oration was spoken in honour of them all, and their monuments adorned with pillars, inscriptions, and all other ornaments about the tombs of the most honourable persons. The oration was pronounced by the nearest relations of those deceased persons, who behaved most valiantly. Thus, after the famous battle of Marathon, the fathers of Callimachus and Cymon were appointed to make the funeral oration. And upon the return of the fleet from the Sicilian expedition, which the solemnity was first held, the oration was constantly repeated every year, either on the day of burying the dead in the ground, or on the day of burning them. This custom have been the most ancient practice among the Greeks ; though burning came afterwards generally used among them. It was usual to throw into the funeral pile those garments which the deceased usually wore. The pile was one of the deceased's nearest relations who made prayers and vows to the gods, that the body might be consumed by the flames, that the body might be reduced to ashes ; and during the time of burning, the dead person's friends poured libations of wine, and called out the name of the deceased. See BURNING, § 5.

(8.) FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT JEWS, were solemn and magnificent. When a person was dead, his relations and friends gathered round his body, and his clothes ; which custom is but followed by the modern Jews, who only cut off a lock of their garment, in token of affliction. When the dead person's thumb was cut off, and fasten it in that posture with a cord, the thumb then having the first name of God, they thought the devil durst not approach it. When they carried the body to the burying place, they made a speech to the following terms : " Blessed be God, who has formed thee, fed thee, maintained thee, and taken away thy life. O dead ! be thou numbered among the just, and shall one day restore thee. Then they spoke the eulogium, or funeral oration of the deceased ; after which they said, " *Thou art called the righteous of judgment ;* and then they called the face of the deceased towards heaven, and called out, " Go in peace."

(9.) FUNERAL RITES, AMONG THE ANCIENT ROMANS, were very numerous. The funeral lasted 7 days ; and every day was attended with hot water, and sometimes with a cold bath. The deceased were only in a squalid state, but they were thus washed ; and every now and then a friend's meeting, made a horrible noise, with the same view ; which

led CONCLAMATIO. The last conclamation on the 7th day; when, if no signs of life, the defunct was dressed and embalmed POLLINCTORES; placed in a bed near the with his face and heels towards the street; outside of the gate, if the deceased were litigant, was garnished with cypress boughs. course of these 7 days, an altar was raised a bed-side, called ACERRA; on which his every day offered incense; and the libitovided things for the funeral. On the 7th tier was sent about the city, to invite the to the solemnization of the funeral in these: *Exequias L. Tit. L. filii, quibus est commo- jam tempus est. Ollus (i. e. ille) ex adibus*. The people being assembled, and the clamation ended, the bed was covered rple: a trumpet marched forth, follow- women called *præfice*, singing songs in if the deceased: lastly, the bed followed, the next relations; and if the person were ity and office, the waxen images of all his sions were carried before him on poles. d was followed by his children, kindred, *rati*, i. e. in mourning: from which act of ag the corpse, these funeral rites were cal- *præfice*. The body thus brought to the rostra, it of kin *laudabat defunctum pro rostris*, a funeral oration in his praise and that of sions. This done, the body was carried *pyra*, or funeral pile, and there burnt: nds first cutting off a finger, to be buried econd solemnity. The body consumed, n were gathered; and the priest sprinkling npany thrice with clean water, the eldest *præfice* crying aloud, *ilicet*, dis- cessed the y who took their leave of the deceased in *præfice*, *Vale, vale, vale: nos te ordine quo permissit sequemur.*—The ashes, inclosed n, were laid in the sepulchre or tomb.

FUNERAL RITES AMONG THE CHINESE. INA, § 36, and CHINESE, § 12.

FUNERAL RITES AMONG THE NORTH CAN INDIANS. See AMERICANS, § 9.

FUNERAL RITES AMONG THE PRIMITIVE CHRISTIANS. The ancient Christians test- ber abhorrence of the Pagan custom of the dead, and always deposited the nre in the ground: and it was usual to the honour of embalming upon the mar- east, if not upon others. They prepared ly for burial, by washing it with water, ng it in a funeral attire. The carrying the body was performed by near relations, ns of such dignity as the circumstances eceased required. Singing of psalms was t ceremony used in all funeral processions be ancient Christians.

FUNERAL RITES IN THE CHURCH OF

When a Roman catholic is dead, they e body, and put a crucifix in its hand. et stands a vessel full of holy water, and ler, that they who come in may sprinkle nselves and the deceased. In the mean e priest stands by the corpse, and prays eceased till it is laid in the earth. In the ocession, the exorcist walks first, carry- bly water; next the crossbearer; after- X PART I.

wards the rest of the clergy, and last of all the officiating priest. They all sing the *miserere*, and some other psalms; and at the end of each psalm a *requiem*. We learn from Alet's ritual, that the faces of deceased laymen must be turned towards the altar, when they are placed in the church; and those of the clergy towards the people. The corpse is placed in the church surrounded with lighted tapers; after the office for the dead, mass is said; then the officiating priest sprinkles the corpse thrice with holy water, and as often throws incense on it. The body being laid in the grave, the friends and relations of the deceased sprinkle the grave with holy water.

(14.) THE FUNERAL RITES OF THE GREEK CHURCH are much the same with those of the Latin. See § 13. It needs only to be added, that, after the funeral service, they kiss the crucifix, and salute the mouth and forehead of the deceased; after which each of the company eats a bit of bread and drinks a glass of wine in the church, wishing the soul a good repose, and the afflicted family all consolation.

(15.) FUNERAL SERMONS. The custom of the pagan Romans, in pronouncing funeral orations in praise of their deceased heroes, (§ 4,) appears to have been very early adopted by the Christians. Some of their funeral sermons or orations are still extant, as that of Eusebius on Constantine; those of Nazianzen on Basil and Cæsius; and of Ambrose on Valentinian, Theodosius, and others. Gregory, the brother of Basil, made *κατάδειξις λόγων*, a funeral oration, for Melitius bishop of Antioch: in which orations, they not only praised the dead, but addressed themselves to them, which seems to have introduced the custom of praying to departed saints. Now these orations were usually made before the bodies of the deceased were committed to the ground; which custom has been more or less continued ever since, to this day. Though this practice is now considerably improved, and cleared of many things which would smelt too rank of paganism, and is even thrown into a method which, perhaps, may be of some service to Christianity; yet, notwithstanding this new dress, its original may very easily be discerned. The method in which the characters of deceased persons are given in our funeral sermons, is very much the same with that observed in those pagan orations; where first an account is given of the parentage of the deceased, then of his education; after that, we hear of his conduct in riper years: then his many virtues are reckoned up, with his generous, noble, and excellent performances.—Nor let the practice be condemned because of its rise and original; for why may not the custom of heathens, if just and laudable in themselves, and nowise pernicious to Christianity in their consequences, be followed by Christians? Only, since we are come into this practice, there is one thing we should take care to follow them in; and that is, not to make those sermons or orations for every one; but for those only whose character: are distinguished, as eminently useful in the world, and in the church of Christ. The old heathens honoured those alone with this part of the funeral solemnity, who were men of probity and justice, renowned for their

wisdom and knowledge, or famous for warlike exploits: Thus, as Cicero informs us, (*De Legib.* l. 2.) being part of the law for burials; which directs, that the praises only of honourable persons shall be mentioned in the oration: It would be much more agreeable, therefore, if our funeral discourses were not so common, and if the characters given of the deceased were more just; devoid of that fulsome flattery with which they too often abound.

\* FUNERIAL. *adi.* [*funerea*, Latin.] Suits a funeral; dark; dismal.—

But if his soul hath wing'd the destin'd flight,  
Inhabitant of deep disastrous night,  
Homeward with pious speed repass the main,  
To the pale shade *funereal* rites ordain. *Pope.*

FUNSKIRCHEN, or FIVE CHURCHES, a town of Hungary, and bishop's see, between the Drave and the Danube; 110 miles W. of Belgrade.

FUNGANDO, or a kingdom of Africa, between the Zaire and Coanzza, subject to the king of Anoko.

(1.) FUNGI, [from *φύγγος*, *fungus*,] in botany, the 4th order of the 24th class of vegetables, in the Linnæan system; comprehending all those which are of the mushroom kind, and which in Tournefort's constitute the 2d, 3d, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th, genera of the first section in the class xvii. This order contains 10 genera. See AGARICUS, BOLETUS, CLAVARIA, LYCOPERDON, &c. and BOTANY, *Index*.

(2.) FUNGI, an order of plants in the *Fragmenta Methodi Naturalis* of Linnæus. See BOTANY, *Index*. The ancients called fungi *children of the earth*, to indicate the obscurity of their origin. The moderns have likewise been at a loss in what rank to place them; some referring them to the animal, some to the vegetable, and others to the mineral kingdom. Messrs Wilck and Münchhausen have not scrupled to rank these bodies among animal productions; because, when fragments of them or their seeds were macerated in water, these gentlemen perceived a quantity of animalcules discharged, which they supposed capable of being changed into the same substance. It was an ancient opinion, that *bees could produce bees*; but it was referred to Messrs Wilck and Münchhausen to suppose, that *bees could produce beef*. Wilck asserts, that fungi consist of innumerable cavities, each inhabited by a polype; and he does not hesitate to ascribe the formation of them to their inhabitants, in the same way as it has been said that the coral, the lichen, and the mucor, were formed. Hedwig has lately shown how ill founded this opinion is with respect to the lichen; and M. Durande has demonstrated its falsity with regard to the corallines. "Indeed (says M. Bonnet, talking of the animality of fungi) nothing but the rage for paradox could induce any one to publish such a fable; and I regret that posterity will be able to reproach our times with it. Observation and experiment should enable us to overcome the prejudices of modern philosophy; now, that those of the ancients have disappeared and are forgotten." It cannot be denied that the mushroom is one of the most perishable of all plants, and it is therefore the most favourable for the generation of insects. Considering the quickness of its growth, it

must be furnished with the power of absorption; the extremity of its vessels multiplied than in other plants. Its roots in many cases, to be merely intended for support, for some species grow upon stones or sand, from which it is impossible to derive much nourishment. We must therefore think that it is chiefly by the stalk that it is nourished. These stalks grow in a moist and fair soil, and which float multitudes of eggs, so many that every insect they produce are with difficulty to be seen by the microscope. These eggs may be compared to the particles of the Byssus, 100,000 as M. Gleditsch says, are not equal to 1. May we not suppose that a quantity of them are absorbed by the vessels of the fruit, and they remain there, without any change, until the plant begins to decay? Besides, the eggs are only deposited on the surface of the plant, and may exist in the water into which they are taken for examination. Do not we see that insects dispersed through the air, are hatched in paste, &c. and wherever they find a favourable nidus for their development? Considering then, that the corruption of the water should make the water capable of sustaining beings that are really foreign to it, is it not more easy to acquiesce in the opinion of the naturalists who place the fungi in the mineral kingdom, because they are found growing upon stones, thence called *Lapides Fungæi*, however, must be covered with a little water, in order to be watered with tepid water, in order to the growth. Such mushrooms are not produced from the stone, than the lichen on the rock to which it adheres, or the moss on which it is found. We have only to observe the growth of mushrooms, to be convinced that this happens by development, and not by combination of parts as in the opinion of Boeccone, who attributed the viscidulous matter performing the function of cement, and acquiring extension by apposition of parts; and that of Morison, who conceived they grew spontaneously out of the earth, a certain mixture of salt and sulphur, joined from the dung of quadrupeds, have never any adherents. Fungi are produced from the soil, by development; they are subject to those vicissitudes natural to the duration of life which characterize living beings; they perish and die. They extract, by the porosity of their vessels, the juices with which they are nourished; they elaborate and assimilate their own substance. They are, therefore, organized and living beings, and consequently belong to the vegetable kingdom. But whether they are real plants, or only the production of a still a matter in dispute with the ablest philosophers. Some ancient authors have pretended that the seed of mushrooms; but the opinion is never generally received. Petronius, laughing at the ridiculous magnificence of the emperor Trimalcio, relates, that he had written to the Indies for the seed of the morelle. The productions were generally attributed to the fluorous humidity of rotten wood, or to the decomposition of substances. The opinion took its rise from



grew most copiously in rainy weather. The opinion of Tragus, of Bauhin, and Columna, who, talking of the peziza, says, substance was more solid and harder, he did not originate from rotten wood, but from the *pezziza* of the earth. It is not surprising times when the want of experiment or variation made people believe that insects are generated by putrefaction, we should not be opinion general, that fungi owed their origin to the putrefaction of bodies, or to a viscous substance analogous to putridity. Malpighi could not pretend to the existence of seeds which he said he had discovered. He said, that these plants must have them, or they would not perpetuate themselves and shoot by fragments. Micheli, among the moderns, appears to have employed himself most successfully on this subject. He imagined, that he not only saw the seeds in the stamens, as well as the little bodies destined to favour the dissemination and the fecundation of these seeds. Before him, Lister thought he perceived seeds in the *peronospora crassius magna* of John Bauhin: round bodies that are found in the pezizella, at that time, passed for seeds; but did not appear at all probable to Malpighi, saying that the eye, when assisted with the microscope, could perceive nothing so much larger than the seeds. Indeed these bodies are the capsules or covers of the seeds, if not the seeds themselves. However this Malpighi, observing that fungi were often roots or branches, and that they wanted seeds, the means which nature employs for the production of perfect plants, thought it warranted in doubting whether these should be ranked in the number of vegetables. The observations of Malpighi prompted him to observe the production of fungi. Their matrix he called the *matrix* he imagined they grew in places where there was an unctuous matter, composed of wood with nitrous salt, which, by fermented heat and moisture, and insinuated between the fibres of wood; that is, he thought them the production of a viscous and tumour. Lancini, in like manner, considered fungi as owing their existence to the putrefaction of vegetables, and supposed them a disease of plants; but he imagined, "that the fish-tree were necessary to their production, as is the case in the formation of galls; he applied them to the warts and other excrescences of a human body. He added, that such vegetable tumors must necessarily assume various forms and figures, from the fluids which are tubes and vessels relaxed by putrefaction, the ductility of the fibres and their direction, the action of the air. This opinion has been confirmed by the celebrated naturalist M. de Linnæus in the *Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences*.

He maintains, that the fungi have a very soft and spongy texture, which is allowed to be vegetable; that, like the lichen, they are without stalk, branches, and leaves: that, like mosses and are nourished upon the trunks of pieces of rotten wood, and on all sorts of vegetables; that they resemble the lichen

too in the rapidity of their growth, and the facility with which many of them may be dried and restored to their former figure, upon being immersed in water; and, lastly, that there is a great similarity in the manner in which their seeds are produced. He affirms, that only the warts and excrescences which grow on animal bodies, and the knots and other tumors that are to be found on trees, can be compared with one another; for they are composed equally of the solid and liquid substance of the plant or animal on which they grow; whereas, the matter of the fungi is not only quite distinct from that of the plants on which they are found, but often entirely similar to the substance of those that spring immediately from the earth. The organization, says M. de Jussieu, which distinguishes plants and other productions of nature, is visible in the fungi; and the particular organization of each species is constant at all times and in all places; a circumstance which could not happen, if there were not an animal reproduction of species, and consequently a multiplication and propagation by seed. This is not, he says, an imaginary supposition; for the seeds may be felt like meal upon mushrooms with gills, especially when they begin to decay; they may be seen with a magnifying glass, in those that have gills with black margins: and, lastly, says he, botanists can have no doubt that fungi are a distinct class of plants; because, by comparing the observations made in different countries with the figures and descriptions of such as have been engraven, the same genera and the same species are every where found. Notwithstanding this refutation by M. de Jussieu, another naturalist, M. de Necker, has lately maintained, in his *Mycetologia*, That the fungi ought to be excluded from the three kingdoms of nature, and be considered as intermediate beings. He has observed, like Malpighi, the matrix of the fungi: and has substituted the word *carabite* (initium faciens) instead of *stus*; imagining that the rudiment of the fungus cannot exist beyond that point in which the development of the filaments or fibrous roots is perceived. He allows, that fungi are nourished and grow like vegetables; but he thinks that they differ very much from them in respect of their origin, structure, nutrition, and rapidity of growth. He says, that the various vessels which compose the organization of vegetables are not to be found in the fungi, and that they seem entirely composed of cellular substance and bark; so that this simple organization is nothing more than an aggregation of vessels endowed with a common nature, that suck up the moisture in the manner of a sponge; with this difference, that the moisture is assimilated into a part of the fungus. Lastly, That the fructification, the only essential part of a vegetable, and which distinguishes it from all other organized bodies, being wanting, fungi cannot be considered as plants. This he thinks confirmed, by the constant observation of those people who gather the morelle and the mushroom, and who never find them in the same spots where they had formerly grown. As the generation of fungi (says M. Necker) is always performed when the parenchymatous or cellular substance has changed its nature, form, and function, we must conclude that it is the degeneration

of that part which produces these bodies. But if fungi were owing merely to the degeneration of plants, they would be still better entitled to constitute a new kingdom. They would then be a decomposition, not a new formation, or new bodies. Besides, we cannot deny, that in those bodies, which form the limit between the animal and vegetable kingdoms, the organization becomes simple, as the organs destined for nutrition are multiplied: but, as the last in the class of insects belongs to the animal kingdom, fungi ought, notwithstanding the simplicity of their organization, still to belong to the vegetable kingdom. The parenchymatous or cellular substance, which, as M. Bonnet says, is universally extended, embraces the whole fibrous system, and becomes the principal instrument of growth, must naturally be more abundant in these productions; and this accounts for the rapidity of their enlargement. Besides, growth, whether slow or rapid, never was employed to determine the presence or absence of the vegetable or animal character. The *draba verna*, which, in a few weeks shoots, puts forth its leaves, its flowers, and fruit, is not less a plant than the palm. The insect that exists but for a day, is as much an animal as the elephant that lives for centuries. As to the seeds of the fungi, it is probable that nature meant to withdraw from our eyes the dissemination of these plants, by making the seeds almost imperceptible; and it is likewise probable that naturalists have seen nothing but their capsules. Since, however, from the imperfection of our senses, we are unable to perceive these seeds, ought we to infer that they do not exist? Are we authorized to conclude this, because we do not find mushrooms where we have found them a year before? Undoubtedly not; for the greater part of plants require a particular soil, and the same mould that this year will foster a rare plant, will next year allow it to perish. Neither are we at liberty to deny the existence of these seeds, because those bodies which have been called their seeds, and the fragments or cuttings of the plants themselves, have not produced others of the same species. Nature seems to have reserved for herself the care of disseminating certain plants: it is in vain, for instance, that the botanist sows the dust found in the capsules of the orchis, which every one allows to be the seed. But, after all, what are those parts in the fungi casually observed by naturalists, and which they have taken for the parts of fructification? These are quite distinct from the other parts, and whatever may be their use, they cannot have been formed by prolongation of the cellular substance, or of the fibres of the tree on which the fungus grows: they are, therefore, owing, like flower and fruit, to the proper organization of the plant. These plants, therefore, have a particular existence, independent of their putrefying nidus. The gills of certain fungi, which differ essentially from the rest of the plant in their conformation, would be sufficient to authorize this latter opinion. But can putrefaction create an organic substance? Nature undoubtedly disseminates through the air and over the surface of the earth, innumerable seeds of fungi, as well as eggs of insects. The plant and the animal are excluded, when the nidus or the

temperature is favourable for their development. No fortuitous concurrence, either of atoms could produce bodies so exquisitely and early organized. It is sufficient to throw on the beautiful plates which Schæffer has had of them, and compare them by the glass warts and other excrescences of animals, to be convinced that they have not the same origin. The function of the cellular substance in vegetables is greatly superior to that in animals, if they produce any thing but deformities. The part of fungi exhibit a configuration singular, constant, and uniform, to be the chance or putrefaction. As this form is the same in all places where fungi have been it follows, that they contain the principles of their reproduction. They resemble mistletoe, and other parasitic plants, perfectly distinct from the trees on which they grow. The fungi, therefore, are organic living substances, or true plants. If the mode of their production is unknown, that of their seeds is so too.

**FUNGIBLES**, in Scots law, are such are estimated by number, weight, or measure, as coin, butter, ale, &c.

**FUNGITÆ**, in natural history, a kind of coral, of a conic figure, though flattened and striated longitudinally.

\* **FUNGOSITY**. *n. f.* [from *fungus*.] excrescence. *Diff.*

\* **FUNGOUS**. *adj.* [from *fungus*.] Exspongy; wanting firmness.—It is often used to keep down the *fungous* lips that sprout from the bone; but it is much more painful in escharotick medicines. *Sharp's Surg.*

(1.) \* **FUNGUS**. *n. f.* [Latin.] Striated room: a word used to express such excrescence as grow out upon the lips of wounds, or other excrescence from trees or plants not naturally belonging to them; as the agarick larch-tree, and auriculæ Judæ from elde.—The surgeon ought to vary the diet as lengthen too much, are too fluid, and produce *fungules*, or as they harden and produce *Arbuth. on Diet*.—This eminence is called little points, or granula, called *fungus*, flesh. *Sharp.*

(2.) **FUNGUS**. See **SURGERY**, *Index*

\* **FUNICLE**. *n. f.* [*funiculus*, Lat.] cord; a small ligature; a fibre.

\* **FUNICULAR**. *adj.* [*funiculaire*, *funicule*.] Consisting of a small cord or 1

(1.) \* **FUNK**. *n. f.* A sink. A low

(2.) **FUNK** in geography, a small island in the Atlantic, near the NE. coast of New-  
Lon. 52. 15. W. Lat. 50. 0. N.

**FUNK-BUN**, a town of Persia, in the province of Mazanderan, 15 miles W. of Fareba

(1.) \* **FUNNEL**. *n. f.* [*infundibulum*, whence *fundible*, *fundle*, *funnel*.] 1. A hollow cone with a pipe descending from which liquors are poured into vessels with mouths; a tundiish.—If you pour a glass upon a bottle, it receives little of it: 1 *funnel*, and by degrees, you shall fill them. *Ben Jonson.*—

the long *funnel's* curious mouth extend, which ingested meats with ease de-nd.

*Blackm.* ward ear or auricula is made hollow, sted by degrees, to draw the sound in-ake in as much as may be of it, as we to pour liquor into any vessel. *Ray.* or passage of communication.—To-iddle are two large *funnels*, bored e roof of the grotto, to let in light or *Addison.*

HEEL OF A CHIMNEY, the shaft or rt of the waste, where it is gathered in-dimensions. Palladio directs, that the chimneys be carried throughout the or five feet at least, that they may carry clear from the house into the air. See

FIRE-PLACE, &c. He also advises, her chimneys be not made narrower 11 inches, nor broader than 15; for if r, the smoke will not be able to make and if too wide the wind will drive it the room.

*K. asi.* Full of fun; merry. *Asb.*

ERMUNSTER, or FINSTERMINSTER, the Helvetic republic, in Engadina; French, under Massena and Lecourbe, sion of, on the 16th March, 1799, but afterwards dislodged by the Auttrians. A, a town of Naples, in the province of itra, 21 miles SSE. of Solmona.

FUR. *n. s.* [*fouurrure*, French.] 1. Skin air, with which garments are lined for or covered for ornament.—December pressed with a horrid and fearful coun-as also at his back a bundle of holly, 1 *fur* mittens the sign of Capricorn. —'Tis but dressing up a bird of prey in d *furs* to make a judge of him. *L'Esß.*—ordly gout wrapt up in *fur*, weezing asthma, loth to stir.

*Swift.* of beasts found in cold countries, where vides coats suitable to the weather; eral.— night, wherein the cubdrawn bear would ch,

n and the belly-pinched wolf eir *fur* dry, unbonnetted he runs, ls what will take all. *Shak. K. Lear.* imals as feed upon flesh qualify it, the allowing the hair or *fur* of the beasts upon, the other by devouring some e feathers of the birds they gorge them-h. *Ray.* 3. Any moisture exhaled to ree as that the remainder sticks on the

inks I am not right in every part; kind of trembling at my heart: se unequal, and my breath is strong; a filthy *fur* upon my tongue. *Dryd. Perf.* *FUR. adv.* [It is now commonly written a distance.—

The white lovely dove n her wings her utmost swiftness prove, ; the gripe of faulcon fierce not *fur*.

*Sidney.* IR, or FURR, (§ 1. def. 1.) in commerce, be skins of wild beasts, dressed in alum

with the hair on; and used as a part of dress, by princes, magistrates and others. The kinds most in use are those of the ermine, sable, castor, hair, coney, &c. See CASTOR, § IV.; CAVIA, LEPUS, MUSTELA, &c. It was not till the later ages that the furs of beasts became an article of luxury. The refined nations of antiquity never made use of them; those alone who were stigmatized as barbarians were clothed in the skins of animals. Strabo describes the Indians covered with the skins of lions, panthers, and bears; and Seneca, the Scythians clothed with the skins of foxes and the lesser quadrupeds. Virgil exhibits a picture of the savage Hyperboreans, (*Georg. lib. 3. l. 382.*) similar to that which our late circumnavigators witnessed in the clothing of the wild Americans. Most part of Europe was then in similar circumstances. Cæsar might be as much amazed with the skindressed heroes of Britain, as our celebrated Cook was at those of his new-discovered regions. What time hath done to us, it may also effect for them; and it is to be hoped with much less bloodshed. Civilization may take place; and those spoils of animals, which are at present essential for their clothing, become merely objects of ornament and luxury. It does not appear that the Greeks or ancient Romans ever made use of furs. It originated in those regions where they most abounded, and where the severity of the climate required that species of clothing. At first it consisted of the skins only, almost in the state in which they were torn from the body of the beast; but as soon as civilization took place, and manufactures were introduced, furs became the lining of the dress, and often the elegant facing of the robes. It is probable that the northern conquerors introduced the fashion into Europe. We find, that about A. D. 522, when Totila king of the Visigoths reigned in Italy, the Suetons (or natives of Sweden) found means, by help of the commerce of numberless intervening people, to transmit, for the use of the Romans, *saphirinas pelles*, the skins of the sables. As luxury advanced, furs of the most valuable species, were used by princes as linings for their tents. Marco Polo, in 1252, found those of the Cham of Tartary lined with ermines and sables. He calls the last *Zibelines* and *Zambolines*. He says that those and other precious furs were brought from countries far north; from the *land of Dark-ness*, and regions almost inaccessible by reason of morasses and ice. The Welsh set a high value on furs, as early as the time of Howel Ddha, who reigned about 940. In the next age, furs became the fashionable magnificence of Europe. When Godfrey of Bologne and his followers appeared before the emperor Alexius Comnenus, on their way to the Holy Land, he was struck with the richness of their dresses, *tam ex ostro quam auisfrigio et nigro opere harmelino et ex nardrino grifoque et vario*. How different was the advance of luxury in France from the time of their great monarch Charlemagne, who contented himself with the plain fur of the otter! King Henry I. wore furs; yet, in his dress was obliged to change them for warm Welsh flannel. But in 1337, the luxury had got to such a head, that Edward III. enacted, that all persons who could not spend 100l. a year should be prohibited the use of this kind of finery.

These,

These, from their great expence, must have been foreign furs, obtained from the Italian commercial states, whose traffic was at this period boundless. How strange is the revolution in the fur trade! The north of Asia at that time supplied us with every valuable kind; at present, we send, by means of the possession of Hudson's Bay, furs to an immense amount, to Turkey, and even to China.

(4.) FURS, VOYAGES LATELY MADE IN SEARCH OF. During Capt. Cook's last voyage to the Pacific Ocean, besides the various scientific advantages derived from it, a new source of wealth was laid open to future navigators, by trading for furs of the most valuable kind on the NW. coast of America. The first vessel which engaged in this new branch of trade, was equipped by some gentlemen in China. She was a brig of 60 tons and 20 men, commanded by James Hanna. She sailed from the Tyra the end of April, 1785: proceeded northward, along the coast of China; passed through Diemen's Straits, the S. end of Japan; and arrived at Nootka in August following. Soon after her arrival, the natives, whom Capt. Cook had left unacquainted with the effects of fire arms, tempted probably by the diminutive size of the vessel (scarce longer than some of their own canoes), and the small number of her people, attempted to board her in open day; but were repulsed with considerable slaughter. This was the introduction to a firm and lasting friendship. Capt. Hanna cured such of the Indians as were only wounded; an unreserved confidence took place; they traded fairly and peaceably; a valuable cargo of furs was procured; and the bad weather setting in, he left the coast in the end of September, touched at the Sandwich Islands, and arrived at Macao, in the end of December. In May 1786, Captain Hanna sailed again from Macao, in the snow Sea Otter of 120 tons and 30 men, and returned to Macao in Feb. 1787. In this 2d voyage he followed his former track, and arrived at Nootka in August; traced the coast from thence as far as 53°, and explored the extensive sound discovered a short time before by Mr. Strange, and called by him Queen Charlotte's Sound, the latitude of which is 51° north, longitude 128 west. The snow Lark, Captain Peters, of 220 tons and 40 men, sailed from Macao in July 1786. Her destination was Kamtschatka (for which she was provided with a suitable cargo of arrack, tea, &c.) Copper Islands, and the NW. coast. Captain Peters was directed to make his passage between Japan and Corea, and examine the islands to the north of Japan, said to be inhabited by hairy people. No account having been received of this vessel since her departure, there is every reason to fear she has perished. In the beginning of 1786, two coppered vessels were fitted out at Bombay, under the direction of J. Strange, Esq. who was himself a principal owner. These vessels were, the snow Captain Cook, of 300 tons, and snow Experiment of 100 tons. They proceeded in company from the Malabar to Batavia; passed through the Straits of Macassar, where the Experiment was run upon a reef, and was obliged to haul ashore upon Bonuco to repair; from thence they steered to the E. of the Palaos Islands; made Sulphur Island;

and arrived at Nootka the end of June following. From Nootka, where they left their surymate (Mackay) to learn the language and exchange skins against their intended return (but which was not brought away in the Imperial Eagle the following year), they proceeded along the coast to Charlotte's Sound, of which they were the discoverers; from thence in a direct course to William's Sound. After some stay there, the experiment proceeded to Macao (their vessels provided with passes by the governor general of Goa): the Captain Cook endeavoured to visit Copper Island, but without success, being prevented by constant west winds. Two coppered vessels were also fitted out by a society of gentlemen in Bengal, viz. the snow Nootka of 200 and snow Sea Otter of 100 tons, commanded by John Meares and William Tipping, lieutenants in the royal navy. The Nootka sailed in July 1786, from Bengal; came through the China Sea, touched at the Batches, where they were very ill treated by the Spaniards, who had taken possession of these islands; arrived at Oonalashki beginning of August; found there a Russian ship and some furriers; discovered accidentally Cape Greville a new strait into Cook's River, 10 leagues wide, and 30 long; saw some Eskimo hunters in a small bay between Cape Elizabeth and Cape Bear; and arrived in Prince William's Sound the end of September. They determined to winter in Snug Corner Cove, lat. 60° 30' N. (which seem placed by providence for the comfort and refreshment of the adventurers in trade,) and were frozen up in this gloomy and frightful spot from the end of November to the end of May. By the severity of the winter they lost their 3d and 4th mates, surgeon, boat carpenter, and cooper, and 12 of the foremen; and the remainder were so enfeebled, that they were under the necessity of applying to the commanders of the K. George and Q. Charlotte, just at this time arrived in the sound, for assistance to assist in carrying the vessel to the Sandwich Islands, where, giving over all further thoughts of trade, they determined, after getting a few barrels of fish off Cape Edgecumbe immediately to proceed. The Nootka arrived at Macao in the end of October, 1787. The Imperial Eagle, Capt. Barkley, fitted out by a society of gentlemen in London, sailed from Oostend the end of November, went into the bay of All Saints; thence to the Sandwich Islands, and arrived at Nootka beginning of June; thence to the S. as far as 50°, in which space he discovered some good spacious harbours. In lat. 47° 46', lost his first mate, purser, and two seamen, who were a trading party with the long-boat, and in the meantime trustingly themselves ashore, unarmed, cut off by the natives. This place seems to be the same that Don Antonio Mourelle calls the *Islas Doloras*, where the Spaniards going ashore for water, were also attacked and cut off. The K. George of 320, and the Queen Charlotte of 200 tons, commanded by Capt. Portlock and Dr. Solander, who served under Captain Cook, in his last voyage, were fitted out by a society of gentlemen in England, who obtained a privilege to trade

of America, from the South Sea and companies. Those vessels failed from the beginning of Sept. 1785; touched at the Sandwich Islands, and arrived at Cook's River in August. From thence, taking a few furs, they steered, in the month of Prince William's Sound, intending there; but were prevented by heavy weather obliged them to bear away, and another part of the coast to winter at. Captain Cook accompanied them till they arrived at Nootka Sound, when they were so near that a canoe came off to them; but as they were near accomplishing their purpose, a storm came on, and obliged them finally to return to the Sandwich Islands, where they spent the winter months; and returning again, arrived in Prince William's Sound of the month of May. The King George remained in Prince William's Sound; and during her stay, discovered a new passage from the Cook's River. The Queen Charlotte along the coast to the south; looked into the bay, where the Russians have now a settlement, examined that part of the coast from which was not seen by Captain Cook, consists of a cluster of islands, called Dixon, *Queen Charlotte's Islands*, at a small distance from the Main, which is far more than it was supposed to be: some part of the coast may, however, be seen from the English islands; and it is probable the distance does not exceed any where 50 leagues. On the coast, Hudson's House, lat. 53° lon. 106° will not be more than 80 miles distant from that part of this coast in the same parallel. It is not improbable, that the enterprising Canadian furriers may penetrate to this communication with which is probably facilitated by lakes and rivers), and add to the comforts and luxuries of Europe this valuable trade in warmth, beauty, and magnificence, the richest furs of Siberia. These ships, laden with their furs in China, were loaded on account of the English company, sailed from Amboyna in the end of February, and arrived at England a short time since, after an absence of years. The year after the departure of the King George and Queen Charlotte, the same month out other two vessels, viz. the Prince of Wales, of 60 tons, and the Prince of Wales, commanded by Captains Colnet and Boscawen, the former of whom had served under Captain Cook. These vessels left England in August, and arrived at New Year's harbour on Staten Land, where they left an officer and 12 men to await the arrival of a vessel which was expected from England: from thence they sailed directly to Nootka, where they arrived in July, sickly and in bad condition; and the *imperial Eagle*, which had left Europe a few days after them. Leaving Nootka, they sailed along the shore to the northward, and soon arrived at the Queen Charlotte. In the beginning of the year 1788, Capt. Mears failed with two other vessels, the *Felice*, which he commanded himself, and the *Iphigenia*, Captain Cook commanded. But the history of

his settlement at Nootka, with the insolent behaviour of Don Martinez, the Spanish commander, (which had nearly occasioned a war between Britain and Spain, but was at last amicably settled,) will be found under the article *NOOTKA*. We have only to add here, that some accounts of the voyages above-mentioned, the fur trade in those parts, had at first been greatly magnified. In that published by Captain Portlock, however, he observes, that "the gains hitherto have certainly not been enviably great; though the merchants have no doubt found the trade lucrative." And later accounts assure us, that it is now become extremely advantageous.

\* *To FUR. v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To line or cover with skins that have soft hair.—How mad a sight it was to see Dametas, like rich tissue furred with lambskins? *Sidney*.—

Thro' tatter'd cloaths small vices do appear;  
Robes and furr'd gowns hide all.

*Shakesp. K. Lear.*

You are for dreams and slumbers, brother priest;

You fur your gloves with reasons. *Shakesp.*  
2. To cover with soft matter.—To make lamp-black, take a torch and hold it under the bottom of a latten basin; and as it groweth to be furred and black within, strike it with a feather into some shell. *Penckman*.—

Three sisters, mourning for their brother's loss,  
Their bodies hid in bark, and furr'd with moss.

*Dryden.*

Their frying blood compels to irrigate  
Their dry furr'd tongues.

*Philips.*

A dungeon wide and horrible; the walls  
On all sides furr'd with mouldy damps, and  
hung

With clots of rosy gore. *Addison.*

FURA, a small island on the W. coast of Scotland, 4½ miles W. of Udrigill Head.

\* *FURACIOUS. adj.* [*furax*, Lat.] Thievish; inclined to steal. *DiB.*

\* *FURACITY. n. f.* [*furax*, Lat.] Disposition to theft; thievishness.

FURANS, a river of France, which runs into the Mers, near Romans.

FURBECK, a village in Yorkshire, near Blith.

\* *FURBELLOW. n. f.* A piece of stuff plaited and puckered together, either below or above, on the petticoats or gowns of women. This, like a great many other words, is the child of mere caprice. *Trev. DiB.*—

Nay, oft in dreams invention we bestow  
To change a flounce, or add a furbelaw. *Pope.*

*To FURBELLOW. v. a.* [from the noun.] To adorn with ornamental appendages of dress.—

When arguments too fiercely glare,  
You calm them with a milder air;

To break their points, you turn their force,  
And furbelaw the plain discourse. *Prior.*

—She was flounced and furbelawed; every ribbon was crinkled, and every part of her garments in curl. *Addison.*

\* *To FURBISH. v. a.* [*furbir*, French.] To burnish; to polish; to rub to brightness.—

It may enter Mowbray's waxen coat,  
And furbish new the name of John o' Gaunt.

*Shakesp.*

—Fur—

—*Furbish* the spears, and put on the brigandines.  
*Jer.* xlv. 4.—Some others who *furbish* up and reprint his old errors, hold that the sufferings of the damned are not to be, in a strict sense, eternal; but that, after a certain period of time, there shall be a general gaol delivery of the souls in prison, and that not a farther execution, but a final release. *Soub.*—

As after Numa's peaceful reign,  
 The martial Ancus did the sceptre wield;  
*Furbish'd* the rusty sword again,  
 Resum'd the long-forgotten shield,  
 And led the Latins to the dusty field. *Dryden.*  
 Inferior ministers, for Mars repair  
 His broken axle-tree, and blunted war;  
 And send him forth again, with *furbish'd* arms. *Dryden.*

\* **FURBISHER.** *n. f.* [*fourbisseur*, French; from *furbish*.] One who polishes any thing.

**FURCA**, in antiquity, a piece of timber resembling a fork, used by the Romans as an instrument of punishment. The punishment of the furca was of three kinds: the first only ignominious, when a master, for small offences, forced a servant to carry a furca on his shoulders about the city. The 2d was penal, when the party was led about the circus, or other place, with the furca about his neck, and whipped all the way. The third was capital, when the malefactor having his head fastened on the furca, was whipped to death.

\* **FURCATION.** *n. f.* [*furca*, Lat.] Forkiness; the state of shooting two ways like the blades of a fork.—When stags grow old they grow less branched, and first lose their brow-antlers, or lowest *furcations* next the head. *Brown's Vul. Err.*

**FURCHE**, in heraldry, a cross forked at the ends.

**FURETIERE**, Antony, a learned French lawyer, born at Paris in 1620. He was eminent in the civil and canon law, and an advocate in the parliament. Afterwards taking orders, he became abbot of Chalvey, and prior of Chuines. He wrote many works, but is chiefly valued for his *Universal Dictionary of the French Tongue*, in which he explains the terms of art in all sciences; and which was published after his death. He was of the French academy, and the disputes he had with some members of it made much noise. He died in 1688.

\* **FURFUR.** *n. c.* [Latin.] Husk or chaff, or scurf or dandriff, that grows upon the skins, with some lickness to bran. *Quincy.*

\* **FURFURACEOUS.** *adj.* [*furfuraceus*, Lat.] Husky; branny; scaly.

**FURIA**, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of vermes zoophyta. There is but one species, viz. the

**FURIA INFERNALIS.** It has a linear smooth body ciliated on each side, with reflexed feelers pressed to its body. In Finland, Bothnia, and the northern provinces of Sweden, people were often seized with a pungent pain, confined to a point, in the hand or other exposed part of the body, which presently increased to a most excruciating degree, and sometimes proved suddenly fatal. This disorder was particularly observed in Finland, especially about boggy and marshy places,

and always in autumn. At length it was discovered that this pain instantly succeeded some that dropped out of the air, and in a moment penetrated and buried itself in the flesh. The landers had tried a variety of applications for purpose, until at length a poultice of curd cheese was found the most effectual in easing pain; and the event confirmed that the insect allured by this application to leave the flesh on its removal; this worm, no longer than sixth of an inch, was found in it, and the cause of this painful disease explained. What means this creature is raised into the air as yet unknown.

**FURIES**, } in Pagan mythology, goddesses, } whose offices it was to punish the guilty after death. They sprang from the wound which Coelus received from Saturn. According to others, they were daughters of Earth, and conceived from the Saturn. Some make them daughters of Aë and Night, or Pluto and Proserpine. According to the more received opinions, they were three in number, Tisiphone, Megæra, and Alekto, which some add Nemesis. Plutarch mentions one called *Adrasta*, daughter of Jupiter Necessity. They were supposed to be the ministers of the vengeance of the gods; stern and terrible; always employed in punishing the guilty upon earth, as well as in the infernal regions. They were also called EUMENIDES and ERINNYES. The Athenians killed them *επιφανείας*, very often, and their worship was almost universal, and people dared not to mention their names, nor fix their eyes upon their temples. They were honoured with sacrifices and libations; and at Chaia they had a temple, which, when called by any one guilty of a crime, suddenly rendered him furious and deprived him of the use of reason. In the sacrifices, the votaries used branches of cedar and of alder, hawthorn, saffron, and niper; and the victims were generally turtles and sheep, with libations of wine and honey. They were usually represented with a grim and frightful aspect, with a black and bloody garment, and with serpents wreathing round their heads instead of hair. They held a burning torch in their right hand, to discover the guilty, and iron chains and whips of scorpions in the other to punish the guilty, and were always attended by Terror, Rage, Pain, and Death. In hell they were seated on the throne of Pluto, as the ministers of his vengeance. They were worshipped at Casina, in Arcadia, at Carmia in Pelopponesus. They had a temple at Athens near the Areopagus, and their priests were chosen from amongst the judges of that city. At Telphusæa, a city in Arcadia, a black cow was sacrificed to them.

\* **FURIOUS.** *adj.* [*furieux*, Fr. *furiousus*, L.] 1. Mad; frantick.—No man did ever think himself hurtful actions of furious men and innocents unpunishable. *Hooker.* 2. Raging; violent; transported by passion beyond reason.—

Who can be wile, amaz'd, temperate,  
 furious,  
 Loyal and neutral in a moment? No man.  
*Ainsworth.*

To be *furiosus*,  
: frightened out of fear; and in that mood,  
we will peck the estringe. *Shakeſp.*  
e, other than the sound of dance or song,  
nt, and loud lament, and *furiosus* rage.

*Milton.*

: impetuously agitated.—  
: clamour thence the rapid currents drive,  
is the retreating sea their *furiosus* tide.

*Milton.*

IOUSLY. *adv.* [from *furiosus*.] Madly;  
vehemently.—

h when his brother saw, fraught with  
at grief

th, he to him leapt *furiously*. *Fairy Q.*  
berve countenance to attend the prac-

this carries them on *furiously* to that  
of themselves they are inclined. *South.*—  
eard not half, so *furiously* she flies;  
ve her wings.

*Dryden.*

OUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *furiosus*.] Frenzy;  
transport of passion.

RIUS BIVACULUS, a Latin poet, who  
about A. A. C. 103. He wrote annals  
of which Macrobius recites some frag-  
mentonius also relates some verses of his  
is Cato, in his *Illustrations of Grammaticians*.  
US CAMILLUS. See CAMILLUS, N<sup>o</sup> 1.  
INBERG, a town of Lower Saxony, in  
urg. 36 miles N. of Spandau.

JRL. *v. a.* [*fraser*, Fr.] To draw up;  
t.—

i fortune sends a stormy wind,  
ew a brave and present mind;  
en with too indulgent gales

ke too much, then *furl* thy sails. *Creech.*

.NI. See FRIULI, N. I.

NG, in the sea language, signifies the  
up and binding any sail close to the yard;  
lone by hawling upon the clew lines,  
&c. which wraps the sail close toge-  
being bound fast to the yard the sail is

IRLONG. *n. f.* [*farlang*, Sax.] A mea-  
gth; the eighth part of a mile.—If a  
n the middle of a field and speak aloud,  
heard a *furlong* in round, and that in  
ounds. *Bacon's Natural Hist.*—Coming  
w *furlongs* of the temple, they passed  
ery thick grove. *Addison's Freeholder.*  
LOWG is also used in some law-books  
part of an acre.

OUGH. *n. f.* [*verloef*, Dutch.] A tem-  
ission from military service; a licence  
oldier to be absent.—

and Cato might discharge their souls,  
them *furl's* for another world;  
like sentries, are oblig'd to stand  
: nights, and wait th' appointed hour.

*Dryden.*

ENTY. *n. f.* [More properly *frumenty*,  
of *frumentum*, Latin.] Food made by  
at in milk.—

ber, wife, therefore, tho' I do it not,  
cake, the *passies*, and *furmenty* pot.

*Tusser.*

ON, a town of Maritime Austria, in the  
netian Iliria; 18 m. ESE. of *Unago*.

*PLAT. I.*

(1.) \* FURNACE. *n. f.* [*furnus*, Lat.] An in-  
closed fireplace.—

Heat not a *furnace* for your foe so hot

That it may singe yourself. *Shak. Henry VIII.*

—The fining pot is for silver, and the *furnace* for  
gold. *Prov.*—We have also *furnaces* of great di-  
versities, that keep great diversity of heats. *Bacon.*

—The kings of Spain have erected divers *furnaces*  
and forges, for the trying and fining of their gold.  
*Abbot.*—Whoſo falleth not down and worſhippeth,  
ſhall the ſame hour be caſt into the miſt of a  
burning fiery *furnace*. *Daniel.*—

A dungeon horrible, on all ſides round,

As one great *furnace*, flam'd. *Milt. Par. Loſt.*

(2.) A FURNACE is intended to contain fire, or  
to raise and maintain a vehement fire, whether of  
coals or wood. Of theſe there are great variety,  
according to the different uſes to which they are  
applied.

(3.) A FURNACE, CHIEF OBJECTS TO BE AT-  
TENDED TO, IN ERRECTING. In all furnaces the  
principal things to be attended to are, 1. To con-  
fine the heat as much as poſſible to the matter to  
be operated upon; 2. To prevent its being diſſi-  
pated; 3. To produce as much heat with as little  
fuel as poſſible; and, 4. To have it in our power  
to regulate the degree of heat according to our  
pleaſure. To answer the firſt intention, the fire is

uſually confined in a chamber or cavity built on  
purpose for it, and furnished with a door for put-  
ting in the fuel; a grate for ſupporting it, and al-  
lowing air to paſs through, as well as the aſhes to  
drop down into a cavity provided on purpose, and  
called the *aſh pit*. Thus the heat produced by

the inflamed fuel is confined by the ſides of the  
furnace, and obliged to ſpend great part of its  
force upon the ſubject incloſed. The 2d inten-  
tion, viz. to prevent the diſſipation of the heat, is  
obtained by ſhutting the door of the furnace;  
taking care that the chimney be not too wide, and  
that the matter to be acted upon be placed in ſuch  
a manner, that the fire may have its full effect upon

it as it goes up the chimney. The 3d intention,  
which is the moſt important, is at the ſame time  
the moſt difficult to answer, and depends entirely  
upon the proportion between the ſpaces betwixt  
the furnace bars and the wideſs and height of the  
chimney. This will appear from a conſideration of

the principles on which the degrees of inflamma-  
tion are produced. Theſe depend entirely on the  
current of air which paſſes through the inflamed  
fuel. As ſoon as the fuel is ſet on fire, a certain  
degree of heat is produced; but unleſs a conſtant

influx of air is admitted through the burning fuel,  
the fire is inſtantly extinguished; nor is it poſſible  
by any means to renew the inflammation until we  
admit a ſtream of freſh air among the fuel. When  
this is done, a rarefaction commences in the air of

the fire-place of the furnace; ſo that it is no longer  
a counterpoize to the external air, and is therefore  
driven up the chimney by that which enters at the  
aſh pit. This again paſſing through the fuel, is  
rarefied in its turn; and giving place to freſh

quantities, there is a conſtant flow of air up the  
chimney. In proportion to the rarefaction of the  
air in the fire-place, the greater is the heat. But  
by a certain conſtruction of the furnace, the un-  
der part of the chimney will become almoſt as

Y

Wrongly

strongly heated as the fire-place; by which means, though a very strong current of air is forced thro' the fuel, yet as great part of the heat is spent on the chimney, where it can be of no use, the fuel is wasted in a very considerable degree. To avoid this, we have no other method than to contract the throat of the chimney occasionally by a sliding plate; which when put quite in, shuts up the whole vent; and by being drawn out more or less, leaves a larger or smaller vent at pleasure. This plate ought to be quite drawn out till the fuel is thoroughly kindled, and the furnace well heated, so that a current of air may flow strongly through the fuel. After this the plate is to be put in a certain length, so as just to prevent the smoke from coming out at the door of the furnace. The rarefaction of the air in the fire-place will solicit a very considerable draught of air, which will keep the fuel inflamed to a great degree; at the same time that the heat, being reflected from every part of the furnace excepting that narrow passage where the smoke goes up, becomes very intense. A large quantity of fuel may be put in at once, which will consume slowly, and thus require but little attention in comparison with those furnaces where no such precaution is used. The sliding-plate may be made of cast iron in those furnaces where no great heat is excited; but in others first-*clay* will be more convenient. The contrivance, however, is scarce applicable to those furnaces where great quantities of metal are to be melted; and accordingly the waste of fuel there is immense. It is computed, that the iron works of Carron in Stirlingshire consume annually as many coals as would be sufficient for a city containing 700,000 inhabitants. The 4th intention, viz. that of regulating the heat, is accomplished by allowing only a certain quantity of air to pass through the fuel. For this purpose, says Dr Black, it is necessary to have the command of the furnace below; the parts above being frequently filled with small quantities of soot. The best method of managing this is to shut up the door of the ash-hole perfectly close, and to have a set of round holes bearing a certain proportion to one another; and their areas being as 2, 3, 4, 8, 16, &c. Seven or eight of these ought to be made in the door of the ash-pit, which will give a sufficient command over the fire. When the fire is to be increased to the utmost, all the passages both above and below are to be thrown open, and the height of the vent augmented; which, by increasing the height of the column of rarefied air, increases also the motion of that through the fuel, and of consequence also the heat of the furnace. Macquer recommends another tube applied to the ash-pit, widest at the end farthest from the furnace, and tapering gradually towards it. The intention of this is to augment the current and velocity of the air, by its being made to pass from a wider into a narrower vent; but though this is no doubt true, the air will not ultimately move with greater velocity than if the tube were not there. It can only be useful therefore in cases where the furnace is placed in a small room, and the tube itself has a communication with the external air.

(4.) FURNACE, CUPPELLING, or } is thus described  
 (4.) FURNACE, ESSAYING, } bed in Cra-

*mer's Art of Essaying*: (See *Plate CLII* with iron plates a hollow quadrangular inches broad and 9 inches high, *aa* 6 top in a hollow quadrangular pyramid inches high, terminating in an apert inches square. This prism must be closed with another iron plate, which basis or bottom to it, *aa*. 1. Near make a door, *e*, 3 inches high, and *g* i that leads to the ash-hole. 3. Above and at the height of 6 inches from the another door, *f*, of the figure of a 6 circle, 4 inches broad at its basis, 2 high in the middle. 4. Then fasten on the fore part of this furnace. Let them, *gg*, 11 inches long, and half a be fastened, so that its lower edge shall the bottom of the furnace, with *g* or *4* in such a manner, that there may be upper edge of the said plate and the furnace a groove so wide, as that the lower door, *kk*, may be put into it. move backwards and forwards therein be made of a thicker iron plate. 7 plate, *bb*, 22 inches long, 3 inches high, perfectly parallel to the foregoing plate, tened in the space between the two do manner, that both the upper and the of it may form a hollow groove with the furnace. One of these grooves, welded downwards, serves to receive the of the sliders that shut the lower d The other, that turns upwards, is to inferior edges of the sliders of the small- N° 3. The 3d plate, *ii*, which is li must be rivetted close above the upper such manner that it may form a groove downwards, and contiguous to the upper door, N° 3. 5. To shut the N° 2 & 3, adapt to each of them two of iron plates, that they may move within the above-mentioned grooves, *kk*, *ll*. But the belonging to the upper door, N° 3, each a hole near the top; that is, one one 5th part of an inch broad, and one a half long, *m*; and the other a sem perture, one inch high and two inches. Let, besides, each slider have a handle may be laid hold of when they are to 6. Moreover, let 5 round holes, one be bored in the furnace; two of which made in the fore part of the furnace, others in the back part; all at the height from the bottom, but 3 1/2 inches distant side of the furnace; and, finally, a 5th the height of one inch above the upper the upper door, *f*. 7. In short, let the furnace be armed with iron hooks, half an inch, and about 3 inches distant other, to fasten the lute with which it to be covered over within. 8. Let the moveable, hollow, quadrangular pyramid inches high, be adapted to the upper of the furnace, at the basis 7 inches broad upwards in a hollow tube, *r*, 3 inches ter, 2 inches high, almost cylindrical, the what convergent at top. This prism serves to support a funnel or flue, which



FURNACE.

PL. CLIX

Fig. 2.



Fig. 3.  
Mr. Watt's Steam Engine Furnace



Fig. 5.

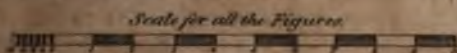


Fig. 6.



Fig. 7.



Fig. 8.  
Mr. Thompson's  
Furnace

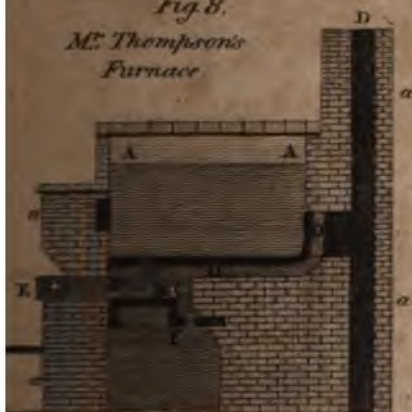


Fig. 9.  
Mr. Thompson's  
Furnace.





cal, hollow, made of iron plates, and a b; and which, when a very strong fire is b, is put perpendicularly upon the shorter such a manner, that it enters close into it, inches deep, and may again be taken off se, when there is no need of so strong a its pyramidal cover, g, must have a hand-adapted to it, that it may be laid hold thus be taken off or put on again: and being put on the aperture, d, of the furnace, not be easily thrown down, let an iron wretted to the right and left upper edge space, ac, and be turned down towards e, so as to make a furrow open before ed, into which the lateral edges of the y enter and be fastened, and at pleasure l backwards and forwards, whenever it put on or moved. 9. Let a square ledge, a thick iron plate, be fastened at the top per edge of the lower door, s, to support and the lute; but it must be made of ca, that it may be easily introduced into y of the furnace. This assay oven must be covered over on the inside with lute, s:—That the fire may be better confined, the iron may not be destroyed by growth, the whole inside of the furnace must ed over with lute, one finger or one fin a half thick. The lute fit for this is de- under CHAMISTAY. But before using this t put within the furnace small iron bars, length to the diameter of the oven, quar, prismatical, half an inch thick, having remities supported by a square iron ledge, an inch distant from each other; and fast so, that their flat sides may be oblique ard to the transverse section of the furd that the two opposite angles may look ards and the other downwards: the bars be laid flat, but edgewise; by which fi- be ashes of the fuel are prevented from tained too long between the interstices so bars, and from making an obstruction aid oppose the free draught of the air. ace being then covered over with lute, d up by a gentle heat, is at last fit for d- operations, and especially for such as performed in the assay oven. When an a is to be made in this furnace, let through ver holes above described, ee, before and and directly opposite to each other, two s one inch thick, and long enough that remities on every side may jut a little out holes. These serve to support the muffle bottom. Then introduce the muffle the upper aperture of the furnace, d, and upon the above described iron bars, in nanner that the open fore side of it may iguous to the inward border of the upper . The fuel is introduced through the top urnace, d; the cover of which, g, on this t, must be moveable, and not very heavy. ct fuel is charcoal made of the hardest especially of beech, broken into small pieces ignets of an inch, wherewith the muffle e covered over some inches high. Large would not answer, because they could not rough the narrow interstices, between the

sides of the muffle and those of the furnace, and of course could not sufficiently surround the circumference of the muffle; so that there would be on every side places void of fuel, and the fire would be either not strong enough or unequal. But if, on the contrary, coals too small were used, then a great part would fall immediately through the interstices of the grate into the ash hole; the smallest parts of them would turn too soon into ashes, and by increasing the heap of ashes, obstruct the free draught of the air, which is here very requisite. A perfect management of the fire is necessary in performing operations in this furnace; therefore the chemical reader must give attention to what follows. If the door of the ash hole, e, is quite open; and the sliders of the upper door, f, drawn towards each other, so as to touch one another in the middle of the door; and if, besides, the cover, g, and the funnel adapted to its tube, r, are upon the top, d, of the furnace; the fire will be then in the highest degree possible; though, in the mean time, it is hardly ever necessary to put the funnel on, except in a very cold season: but if, after having disposed the furnace in the manner just described, red burning coals are put into the open upper door, f, of it, the fire is still more increased thereby: however, this is very seldom or never necessary. When the upper door is shut with only that slider that has a narrow oblong hole in it, m, then the heat becomes a little less; but it diminishes still more when shut with the other slider, that has in it the semicircular hole, n, which is larger than that of the first slider: nay, the heat again is less when the funnel put at the top of the cover is taken away: Finally, the door of the ash-hole being either in part or totally shut, the heat is still diminished; because the draught of air so necessary to excite the fire is thereby hindered: but if, besides all these, the upper door be opened wide, then the cold air rushing into the muffle, cools the bodies put under it, that are to be changed, to a degree incompatible with any operation, as it will entirely hinder the boiling of the lead. If, during the operation, the fire begins to decay, or to grow unequal, it is a sign that there are places void of coals between the sides of the furnace and those of the muffle: therefore, in this case, the coals must be stirred on every side with an iron rod, introduced through the upper hole, p, of the furnace, that they may fall together, and thus act equally and in a proper manner. However, the effect does not always uniformly answer, even when the apparatus has been made with all the exactness mentioned. The cause of this difference has most commonly its origin in the various dispositions of the air: for as every fire is more excited, in proportion as the air, more condensed, and more quickly agitated, strikes the fuel more violently (which the effect of the bellows plainly shows); it thence appears, that in warm and wet weather, when the atmosphere is light, the fire must be less efficacious in furnaces; that likewise, when several furnaces, situated near each other, are burning at the same time, the fire is in part suffocated, because the circum-ambient air is thereby rendered more rare and lighter. The same effect is produced by the sun, especially in summer, when it shines upon the place where the

furnace is situated. The atmosphere, on the contrary, being heavier in cold dry weather, excites a very great fire. The heat of the fire acts the stronger upon the bodies to be changed, as the muffle put in the furnace is less; as it has more and larger segments cut out of it; as its sides are thinner; in short, as there are more vessels placed in the hinder part of it; or the contrary. In this case, when many of the conditions requisite for the exciting of fire are wanting, the artificer, with all his skill, will hardly be able to excite the fire to a sufficient degree, to perform operations well, in common assay-ovens, even though he uses bellows, and puts coals into the upper door of the furnace. For this reason, the grate ought to be put almost 3 inches below the muffle, lest the air, rushing through the ash-hole, should cool the bottom of the muffle, which happens in common assay-ovens; and again, that the smaller coals, almost already consumed, and the ashes, may more easily fall through the interstices of the grate, and the larger coals still fit to keep up the fire be retained. Lastly, the above-mentioned funnel is added, that the blowing of the fire being, by means of it, increased as much as possible, this may at last be carried to the requisite degree; for the fire may always be diminished at pleasure, but cannot always be increased, without the assistance of a proper apparatus.

(5-9.) FURNACE, EVAPORATING, FORGE, IMPROVED BLAST, LAMP, and MELTING. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(10.) FURNACE, Mr WATT'S STEAM-ENGINE. The steam-engine furnace is described in the specification of the patent obtained for the invention by Mr Watt of Birmingham. His "improved methods of constructing furnaces, or fire-places, consist in causing the smoke or flame of the fresh fuel, in its way to the flues or chimney, to pass, together with a current of fresh air, through, over, or among, fuel which has already ceased to smoke, or which is converted into coaks, charcoal, or cinders, and which is intensely hot; by which means the smoke and grosser parts of the flame, by coming into close contact with, or by being brought near unto, the said intensely hot fuel, and being mixed with the current of fresh or unburnt air, are consumed, or converted into heat, or into pure flame free from smoke." This is done, "first, by stopping up every avenue or passage to the chimney or flues, except such as are left in the interstices of the fuel, by placing the fresh fuel above, or nearer to the external air, than that which is already converted into coaks or charcoal; and by constructing the fire-places in such a manner that the flame, and the air which animates the fire, must pass downwards, or laterally, or horizontally, through the burning fuel, and pass from the lower part, or internal end or side, of the fire-place, to the flues or chimney. In some cases, after the flame has passed thro' the burning fuel, it is made to pass through a very hot funnel, flue, or oven, before it comes to the bottom of the boiler, or to the part of the furnace where it is proposed to melt metal, or perform other office, by which means the smoke is still more effectually consumed. In other cases, the flame is carried immediately from the fire-place into the space un-

der a boiler, or into the bed of a melting furnace. *Fig. 2, Plate CLIX,* shews a fire-engine boiler, and its furnace, which has been chosen for an example of the application of this new method to the heating and evaporation of water. A A is the boiler, which may be of any form suitable to its use. B B is a rounding the boiler as usual. C is the opening for the passage from the space under the boiler to the flues. D D is a funnel or flue for the smoke to come from the fire-place to the boiler. E E is a place to contain the ashes; and F is a door to take them out at, which must be kept closely shut during the time of working. G is the fire-place: the fresh fuel is put in at G, and gradually comes down as the fuel below it is consumed. The part at H is very hot, being filled with coaks or coals which have ceased to smoke, and an opening or openings, to admit fresh air, regulate the fire. K is a door into the space under the boiler; and which being opened, admits fresh air to stop the draught of the chimney when a draught is wanted to cease. *Fig. 3* is a plan of the same fire-place in the other direction, shewing which M M is the back of the fire-place, which is a brick arch on which the fuel lies; and E E is the ash-hole. *Fig. 4* is an outside view of the fire-place, shewing the air-holes I I, and the door E; and *fig. 5* is a plan of the front part of the boiler seated; taken in the line A A in *fig. 2*. The dotted lines represent the flues, and the darts point out the direction of the flues. The fire is first kindled upon the brick arch at E; and when well lighted, more fuel is gradually added until it is filled up to G. Care is to be taken to leave proper interstices for the air to pass either among the fuel, or between the fuel and the front wall N; and as much air is admitted at I I, as can be done without causing the smoke to ascend perpendicularly, which will always do if too much air is admitted. The dimensions of this fire-place are given by the scale, and are properly adjusted for burning about 84 lb. of coals in an hour; whether more or less quantities are required to be burnt, the furnace must be enlarged or diminished accordingly. The more the quantity of fuel is much greater, more furnaces than one may be employed. *Fig. 6* represents this new furnace as applied to a furnace for melting iron and other metals, and constructed without the usual perpendicular flue D in *fig. 2*. The same letters refer to the same parts in all these figures. Mr Watt also constructs these new fire-places in various other ways; the part G H lies sloping, or horizontal, or otherwise varies the figure or form, and the opening E is in various positions; but in all cases the principle is the same, the fresh or raw fuel being placed next to the external air, and so that the smoke or flame may pass downwards, or laterally, or horizontally, over or through the coaked or charred fuel. He also occasionally covers the opening E with a grate, and causes the air to enter only, or principally, through the grate H. In particular cases, he places the grate on a grate as usual, as at A A in *fig. 7*, and that grate, or near at the place where the smoke passes into the flues or chimneys, he places another smaller grate B, on which he makes the fire of charcoal, coaks, or coals, which he burns previously burnt until they have ceased to



FURNACE



Fig. 6.



Sea Gordius

Fig. 7.



Machine for blowing Air into Furnaces

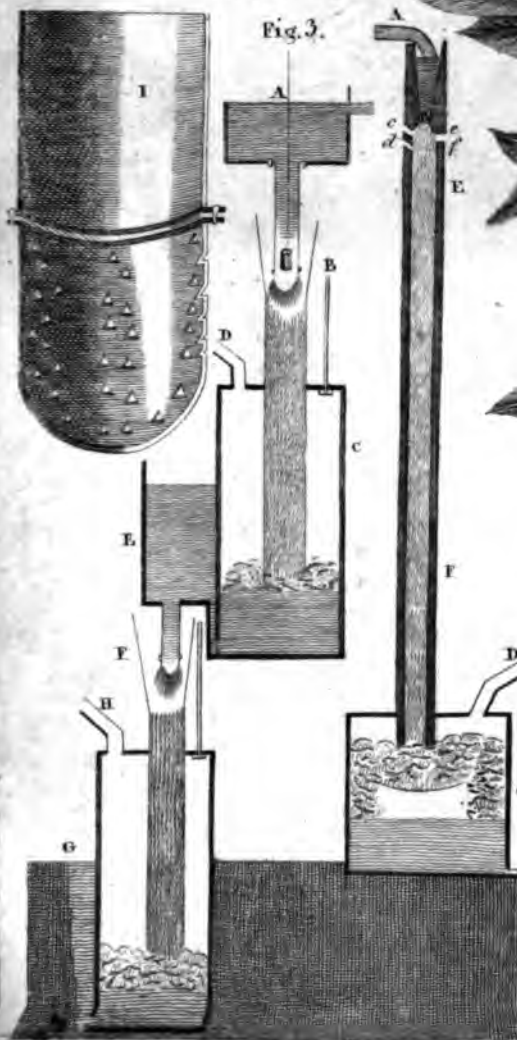


Fig. 3.



Fig. 4. Garcinia

Geoffra  
Fig. 3.



giving intense heat and admitting some, consumes the smoke of the first fire. He states his new invention to consist only of consuming the smoke, and in the heat, by causing the smoke and flame with fuel to pass through very hot funnels, or among, through or near, fuel, which is very hot, and which has ceased to smoke; mixing it with fresh air when in these circles; and in the form and nature of the circles above mentioned: the boilers and openings of the furnaces being such as are in use. These new invented fire places are applicable to furnaces for almost every other

**FURNACE, Mr W. THOMPSON'S STEAM-FURNACE.** In vol. iv. of the *Repository* is given the account of a furnace of this sort by Mr Thompson, who describes his invention to be a furnace which will effectually consume the steam arising from it, without requiring more fuel than usual, as has been the case with former furnaces for that purpose. It may be adapted to any boiler or copper already set up, and at small expence. *Fig. 8*, is a section of an oiler and fire-place. *aaaa*, The brick which boilers are usually set. *AA*, The two iron flues run through this boiler, go round it. *BB*, The fire-place; which is about  $\frac{1}{2}$  longer than they are generally. *C*, An arch, which runs across the fire-place, lower than the bottom of the flue under it, and about the middle of the fire-place. *D*, Flues through which the hot air ascends and spends its heat upon the boiler. *E*, A shutter of the fire-place; which must have a hole in it. Thro' this shutter the coals are gently stirred up, by the slice or poker, we are not to injure the arch, nor to raise too great a quantity of coals at once. *F* is a small hole behind the fire for a current of air to pass through, as in the patent lamp. *G*, A plate fixed with its whole length across the fire-place, behind the coals from falling down the flues and choking it. *Fig. 9*, is a front view of the boiler and fire-place, in which the letters represent the same parts. *HH* are a pair of slides shifting backwards, the other forms a door to make the space *F*, for the current of air to pass through, or smaller, as by practice may be found to be most convenient in which this furnace operates. The arch *C* hinders the smoke from going down the chimney, and obliges it to pass through the flues behind it; which has a very strong effect, and burns the smoke as it passes through the flues, which comes up through the space *F* behind it with vigour to the flame, which consumes the smoke that may be left. Too much air will have a very bad effect, as it will cool the flame; the slides *HH* must be regulated in such a manner as the operator may find most advantageous. The shutter in the door *E* must also be of a size; as its being too large or too small is prejudicial.

**FURNACE, PORTABLE.** See CHEMISTRY,

**FURNACE, REFINING,** a furnace for refining iron. See METALLURGY, and REFIN-

ING. *Fig. 1. Plate CLX.* represents a longitudinal section of this furnace. 1, 1, The masonry of the pillars and walls surrounding the furnace. 2. The channels for carrying off the moisture. 3. Other small channels which join in the middle of the basin. 4. The basin made of bricks. 5. A bed of ashes. 6. The hollow or basin in which the metal is melted and refined. 7. The great flame hole. 8, 8. The two openings for the entry of the tuyeres of the bellows. 9. The vault or dome of the furnace. 10. The fire-place. 11. The grate. 12. The draught-hole. 13. A hole in the vault, which, being opened, serves to cool the furnace.

(14.) FURNACE, REVERBERATORY, FOR DISTILLING. See CHEMISTRY, 2 228, 341.

(15.) FURNACE, REVERBERATORY, FOR SMELTING IRON. See METALLURGY.—*Fig. 2. Plate CLX.* represents a longitudinal section of this furnace. 1. The masonry. 2. The ash-hole. 3. A channel for the evaporation of the moisture. 4. The grate. 5. The fire-place. 6. The inner part of the furnace. 7. A basin formed of sand. 8. The cavity where the melted metal is. 9. A hole through which the scoria is to be removed. 10. The passage of the flame and smoke, or the lower part of the chimney; which is to be carried up to a height of about 30 feet. 11. A hole in the roof, through which the ore is thrown into the furnace. This furnace is 18 feet long, 12 feet broad, and 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  high.

(16.) FURNACES, MACHINES FOR BLOWING AIR INTO. The most ancient method of animating large fires in the furnaces where ores were melted, seems to have been by exposing them to the wind. Such was the practice of the Peruvians before the arrival of the Spaniards. Alonzo Barba relates, that their furnaces, called *gasinas*, were built on eminences where the air was free; that they were perforated on all sides with holes, thro' which the air was driven in when the wind blew, which was the only time when the work could be carried on; that under each hole was made a projection of the stone-work, on which were laid burning coals, to heat the air before it entered the furnace. Some authors speak of several thousands of these guais burning at once on the sides and tops of the hills of Potosi; and several remains of this practice are to be found in different parts of Great Britain. This method of supplying air being found excessively ineffectual and precarious, the instruments called BELLOWS succeeded. These were at first worked by the strength of men; but as this was found to be very laborious and expensive, the force of running water was employed to give motion to these machines. Thus a much greater quantity of metal could be procured than formerly, and the separation was likewise more complete; inasmuch that in many places the slags or cinders, from which the iron had formerly been extracted, were again used as fresh ore, and yielded plenty of metal. But though this method was found preferable to the others, yet great improvements were still wanted. To melt very large quantities of ore at a time, it was necessary to use bellows of an immense size; and in proportion to their size, they stood in need of the more frequent and expensive repairs. The oil, also, which the bellows required in large quantity, becoming rancid, was found

found to generate a kind of inflammable vapour, which sometimes burst the bellows with explosion, and thus rendered them totally useless. A new method, therefore, of blowing up fires altogether free from the above mentioned inconveniences was fallen upon by means of water. It depends on the following principle, viz. That a stream of water, running through a pipe, if by any means it is mixed with air at its entrance into the pipe, will carry that air along with it, and part with it again as soon as it comes out of the pipe; and if the air is then collected by a proper apparatus, it may with success be used for exciting the most violent degrees of heat. Machines of this kind are called WATER BELLOWS, and are represented on Plate CLX, fig. 3. In the right-hand machine, AB represents a stream of water falling into the funnel, whose throat is contracted at B; after which the stream runs through the perpendicular pipe EF, in the upper part of which there are some small holes represented by *cdef*. Through these holes the air has access to mix itself with the descending water, which, being dashed against the sides of the pipe, is reduced to froth, and thus fills the whole cavity of the pipe EF, which is considerably larger than the throat of the funnel B. When this frothy stream enters the vessel C, the air extracts itself from the water; and as it cannot return through the pipe EF, because it is continually filled with a stream of liquid water, it flies off with considerable force through the smaller pipe D, by which it is conveyed to the furnace. The principal thing, to be kept in view in the construction of these machines, is, to mix the descending stream of water, with as great a quantity of air as possible. For this purpose the contrivance represented in the left-hand machine answers much better than the former. By this the water descending from the reservoir A falls into a kind of cullender B, perforated with a great number of holes in its sides. Thus the water, being forced out in a number of small streams, is very effectually dashed against the sides of the wide descending pipe, when it enters the descending vessel C, and is sent off by the pipe D, as in the former. In some machines of this kind the constructors seem to have been of opinion, that a great height was required in the water-fall; but Dr Lewis who has made a great number of experiments upon the subject, shows, that an excess in height can never make up for a deficiency in the quantity of the water. Four or five feet, he thinks, is a sufficient height for the water-fall; where there is a greater height, however, it may be rendered useful, by joining two or more machines together in the manner represented in the plate; where the water, after having once emitted its air in the condensing vessel C, flows out into a new reservoir E. From thence it descends through another cullender F, and descending from it into a condensing vessel G, the air is extricated, and carried off through the pipe H. The upper figure, I, represents the cullender with the shapes of the holes and their proportional distances according to Dr Lewis. Thus, with very little expence, where there is a sufficient quantity of water, as through a blast of air as can be desired may be readily obtained; for several machines may be con-

structed, and joined together in a manner what similar to that above mentioned, where a quantity of water is employed. But, in this method the air is loaded with moisture, in order to make the condensing vessel as conveniently may be, that the air may arrive at the furnace in as dry a state as possible. In the left hand machines a gage filled with mercury or water, the strength of the blast may be determined. In the large iron founderies another method for blowing up the fires by means of pumps. These consist of cast iron cylinders about 3 feet diameter, exactly fitted within a moved up and down by means of a piston. In the bottom of the cylinder is a large valve that of bellows, which rises as the piston goes up, and thus admits the air into the cylinder from below. Immediately above the bottom is a tube which goes to the furnace as it proceeds from the cylinder is furnished with a valve opening outward. Thus, when the piston is drawn up, the valve in the bottom opens and admits the air that way into the cylinder while the lateral valve shuts, and prevents the air from getting into it through the pipe. When the piston is thrust down, the valve in the bottom shuts, while the air being compressed in the cylinder is violently forced out through the lateral tube into the furnace. In the foundery at Carron, four of these large pumps were a few years ago employed at their furnace, and so contrived that the four pistons, being made alternately, produced a most uninterrupted blast. Some little might indeed be perceived by the ear, but too trifling to produce any sensible effect of heat of the furnace. Even this could be prevented by means of a large reservoir in which all the four cylinders might discharge. This should be furnished with an heavy weight, being supported by the cylinder alone, would force it out through the lateral tube in a manner perfectly equal to any of that puffing or interruption in which is perceptible though but in a small degree in the other.

(17.) FURNACE, WIND. See CHEMISTRY. \* To FURNACE. *v. a.* [from the French] To throw out as sparks from a furnace. A *He furnaces*

The thick sighs from him. *Sbak.*

FURNEAUX, an inhabited island in the Pacific Ocean, first discovered by Bougainville afterwards by captain Cook. See COOK § 9. It is surrounded by a coral bank and duces cocoa-nut trees. Lon. 143. 7. W. 11. S.

FURNES, or VURENES, a town of the republic, in the dept. of Lys, and circle of Austrian Flanders; seated on a canal from Bruges to Dunkirk. It was taken by the French under Lewis XIV. It was evacuated by the French republicans in May 1799. It was again taken by the French in May 1794, and annexed to the republic. It lies 12 miles E. of Dunkirk, and 11. Qstend. Lon. 2. 45. E. Lat. 51. 4. N.



**FURNISH.** *v. a.* [*fournir*, French.] 1. To furnish with what is necessary to a certain purpose.

She hath directed  
shall take her from her father's house;  
old and jewels she is furnish'd with. *Sb.*

His training such,  
may furnish and instruct great teachers,  
er seek for aid out of himself. *Sbak.*  
alt furnish him liberally out of thy flock.  
—Come, thou stranger, and furnish a tale  
ed me of that thou hast ready. *Eccluf.*  
—Auria, having driven the Turks from  
oth by sea and land, furnished the city  
; wine, victual, and powder. *Kneller's*  
all not need to heap up instances; eve-  
ading and conversation will sufficiently  
e, if he wants to be better stored. *Locke.*  
; to supply.—These simple ideas, the  
f all our knowledge, are suggested and  
e mind only by these two ways, sen-  
reflection. *Locke.*—It is not the state,  
pack among private persons that hath  
ut these several remittances. *Addison.*  
ip; to fit with appendages.—

Something deeper,  
f perchance these are but furnishings. *Sb.*  
ntertained some of his friends at dinner,  
the chamber a bed or couch, neatly  
furnish'd. Diogenes came in, and got  
e bed, and trampled on it, saying, I tram-  
be pride of Plato. Plato mildly answer-  
th greater pride, Diogenes. *Bacon's A-*  
*We* were led into another great room,  
with old inscriptions. *Addison on Italy.*  
ip; to fit out for any undertaking.—  
lordship lend me a thousand pounds to  
? *Shakespeare's Henry IV.*—

ideas, forms, and intellects,  
furnish'd out three different sects. *Prior.*  
:sa the man Jesus Christ is furnish'd with  
owers to all the angels in heaven, be-  
s employed in superior work. *Watts.* 3.  
ite; to supply with ornamental house-  
—

ounded arm would furnish all their rooms,  
ed for ever scarlet in the looms. *Halifax.*  
**NISHER.** *n. f.* [*fournisseur*, Fr. from  
One who supplies or fits out.

**NITURE.** *n. f.* [*fourniture*, Fr. from *fur-*  
*Moveables*; goods put in a house for  
ament.—No man can transport his large  
is sumptuous fare, and his rich furniture  
er world. *South.*—There are many wo-  
s in Venice; their furniture is not very  
e except the pictures. *Addison.* 2. Ap-  
.—By a general conflagration mankind  
estroyed, with the form and all the fur-  
the earth. *Tillotson.* 3. Equipage; em-  
ents; decorations.—

ig Clarion, with vauntful lustyhed,  
is guise did cast abroad to fare,  
ereto 'gan his furnitures prepare. *Spenser.*  
duke is coming: see the barge be ready,  
it with such furniture as suits  
etate's of his person. *Sbak. Henry VIII.*  
und must be of a mixt brown, and large

enough, or the horse's furniture must be of very  
sensible colours. *Dryd.*

**FUROR UTERINUS.** See *MEDICINE, Index.*  
**FUROT LA VALETTE,** a town of France, in  
the dep. of Rhone and Loire, 12 miles from St Et-  
tienne.

**FURR.** See *FUR*, § 1, 3, 4.  
**FURREN, LOUGH,** a lake of Ireland, in the  
county of Mayo, 12 miles NW. of Castlebar.

\* **FURRIER.** *n. f.* [from *fur*.] A dealer in furs.  
\* **FURROW.** *n. f.* [*farb*, Saxon.] 1. A small  
trench made by the plow for the reception of seed.  
—Wheat must be sowed above furrow before Mi-  
chaelmas. *Mortimer.*—

Then ploughs for seed the fruitful furrows  
broke,  
And oxen labour'd first beneath the yoke.  
*Dryden's Ovid.*

1. Any long trench or hollow; as a wrinkle.—  
My lord it is, though time has plow'd that face  
With many furrows since I saw it first;  
Yet I'm too well acquainted with the ground  
quite to forget it. *Dryd. and Lee's Oedipus.*

\* **To FURROW.** *v. a.* [from the noun; *fyran*,  
Saxon.] 1. To cut in furrows.—  
While the ploughman near at hand  
Whistles o'er the furrow'd land. *Milton.*

2. To divide in long hollows.—  
No briny tear has furrow'd her smooth cheek.  
*Suckling.*  
The billows fall, while Neptune lays his mace  
On the rough sea, and smooths its furrow'd face.  
*Dryden.*

3. To make by cutting.—  
There go the ships that furrow out their way;  
Yea, there of whales enormous fights we see.  
*Wotton.*

\* **FURROW-WEED.** *n. f.* [*furrow* and *weed*.] A  
weed that grows in furrowed land.—  
Crown'd with rank fumiter, and furrow-weeds.  
*Shakespeare.*

(1.) **FURRUCKABAD,** a district of Indostan  
Proper, in the circle of Rohilcund, about 30 miles  
long, on the W. bank of the Ganges; belonging  
to a prince of the Patan Rohilla tribe, and sur-  
rounded by the country of Oude.

(2.) **FURRUCKABAD,** the capital of the above  
district, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) is seated on the Ganges, 75 miles  
E. of Agra, and 76 NW. of Lucknow. Lon. 79.  
30. W. Lat. 27. 28. N.

(3.) **FURRUCKABAD,** a town of Indostan, in  
Bengal, 42 miles NNW. of Moolshedabad.

\* **FURRY.** *adj.* [from *fur*.] 1. Covered with  
fur; dressed in fur.—  
From Volga's banks th' imperious Czar  
Leads forth his furry troops to war. *Felton.*

2. Consisting of fur.—  
Stretch out thy lazy limbs, awake, awake,  
And Winter from thy furry mantle shake. *Dryd.*  
Not arm'd with horns of arbitrary might,  
Or claws to seize their furry spoils in fight. *Dryd.*  
**FURRY'S-TOWN,** a town of Jamaica, in St James  
county, 20 miles NE. of Savannah La Mar.

(1.) **FURSEY,** an island of England in Pool  
harbour, Dorsetshire, containing about 30 acres.  
(2.) **FURSEY,** a town on the above island.  
**FURST,** Walter, one of the founders of the  
liberal

ties of the Swifs. In 1307, at the head of the  
other patriots he took and razed the Austrian  
forts, and thus founded the Swifs republic.

FURSTENAU, the name of 2 towns in Ger-  
many; 1. in the bishopric of Osnaburg, 15 miles  
NNW. of Osnaburg; 2. in Upper Saxony, 3 miles  
S. of Lauenstein.

(1.) FURSTENBERG, or FURSTENBURG, a  
county of Germany in Suabia, erected in the 13th  
century, bounded by the duchy of Wirtemberg,  
the county of Hohenburg, Brisgaw, the Black Fo-  
rest, and the lake and bishopric of Constance.

(2.) FURSTENBERG, or FURSTENBURG, the ca-  
pital of the above county, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) with an ancient  
castle, seated on a mountain, near the Danube,  
30 miles NW. of Constance. Lon. 8. 30. E. Lat.  
47. 50. N.

(3.—6.) FURSTENBERG, or } four other towns  
FURSTENBURGH, } of Germany; viz.  
1. in Lusatia, on the Oder, taken by the Prussians  
in 1745, 13 miles S. of Francfort; 2. in the bi-  
shopric of Paderborn, 2 miles NE. of Wunnen-  
burg; 3. in the duchy of Mecklenburg, on the  
Havel, 10 miles SE. of Strelitz; 4. in the county  
of Waldeck, 10 miles W. of Waldeck.

FURSTENECK, a town and castle of Germa-  
ny, in the bishopric of Fulda, 13 m. N. of Fulda.

FURSTENFELD, two towns of Germany; 1.  
in Brandenburg, at the conflux of the Aulnitz  
and the Feistritz, 10 miles N. of Custrins; 2. in  
Stiria, near Hungary, 30 miles E. of Gratz, and  
68 S. of Vienna. Lon. 16. 5. E. Lat. 47. 23. N.

FURSTENWALDE, 2 towns of Upper Sax-  
ony; 1. in the margraviate of Meissen, 2 miles S.  
of Lauenstein; 2. in the middle Mark of Bran-  
denburg, 26 miles E. of Berlin, and 20 W. of  
Francfort on the Oder. It was taken by the  
Swedes in 1631, and is seated on the Spree. Lon.  
14. 8. E. Lat. 52. 23. N.

FURSTENWERDER, a town of Branden-  
burg, 10 miles WNW. of Prenzlow.

FURT, a town of Bavaria, 56 m. NW. of Passau.

FURTH, a large and populous town of Fran-  
conia, in Anspach, on the Rednitz, 4 miles W of  
Nuremberg.

FURTHCOMING, in law, the name of an ac-  
tion competent to any person who has used ar-  
restment in the hands of his debtor's creditor, for  
having the subject arrested declared his property.

(1.) \* FURTHER. *adj.* [from *fortis*, not from  
*far*, as is commonly imagined; *fortis*, *further*,  
*furtherest*, corrupted from *forter*, *fortbest*; *forter*,  
Saxon. *Forter* is used by Sir Thomas More. See  
FORTH and FARTHER, of which the examples  
are to be referred to this word.] 1. At a greater  
distance. 2. Beyond this.—What *further* need have  
we of witnesses? *Matth.* xxvi. 65.—

Satan had journey'd on, penive and slow;  
But *further* way found none, so thick intwin'd,  
As one continued brake, the undergrowth  
Of shrubs and tangling bushes had perplex'd  
All path of man or beast that pass'd that way,  
*Milton.*

Their earnest eyes they fix'd, imagining  
For one forbidden tree a multitude  
was'n, to work them *further* woe or shame.  
*Milton.*

*I may meet*

Some waid'ring spirit, from him to  
What *further* would be learn'd.

3. *Further* has in some fort the force of  
itive in the phrase *no further*, for *nothing*.  
Let this appease

Thy doubt, since human reach no *furt*

(2.) \* FURTHER. *adv.* [from *fortis*.] T  
er distance.—And the angel of Lord we  
and stood in a narrow place. *Numb.* xx

\* To FURTHER. *v. a.* [from the adver  
Saxon.] To put onward; to forward; to  
to countenance; to assist; to help.—

Things thus set in order, in quiet  
Shall *further* thy harvest, and pleasur

—Could their fond superstition have fa  
great attempts, without the mixture of  
lusion concerning the irresistible force  
power. *Hooker.*—Grant not, O Lord,  
of the wicked; *further* not his wicked  
cxl. 8.—

This binds thee then to *further* my  
As I am bound by vow to *further* thi

\* FURTHERANCE. *n. f.* [from *furi*  
motion; advancement; help.—The G  
ed them first, and used them only for th  
ance of their trade and private business.

Our diligence must search out all help  
*therances* of direction, which scripture,  
fathers, histories, the laws and practi  
churches afford. *Hooker.*—For gain and  
success in his affairs, he seeketh *furthera*  
that hath no manner of power. *Hooker.*

Cannot my body, nor blood sacrific  
Intreat you to your wonted *furthera*  
*Sbak.*

—If men were minded to live righteou  
lieve a God would be no hindrance or  
to any such design, but very much fo  
vancement and *furtherance* of it. *Tillot*

\* FURTHERER. *n. f.* [from *further*  
ter; advancer.—That earnest tavourer  
*therer* of God's true religion, that faithf  
to his prince and country. *Afcbam.*

\* FURTHERMORE. *adv.* [*further*  
Moreover; besides.—

This ring I do accept most thankfu  
And so, I pray you, tell him: *further*  
I pray you, shew my youth old Shyloc

\* FURTIVE. *adj.* [*furtive*, Fr. *furti*  
Stolen; gotten by theft.—

Or do they, as your schemes, I th  
shown,

Dart *furtive* beams and glory not the  
All servants to that source of light, the  
FURUM, an island in the Baltic, on  
of Sweden.

(1.) \* FURUNCLE. *n. f.* [*furuncle*,  
*culis*, Lat.] A bile; an angry pustule.—  
is in its beginning round, hard, and infla  
as it increaseth, it riseth up with an ac  
and sometimes a pustule; and then it is  
flamed and painful, when it arrives at  
which is about the eighth or ninth day.

(2.) FURUNCLE, } or BOIL, is other  
FURUNCLE, } ned, a small red skin

inflammation, redness, and great pain, arising from the adipose membrane, under the skin.

SUND, an island of Sweden, in the Baltic. 18. 45. E. Lat. 59. 46. N.

WROUGHT. *adj.* [*fur* and *wrought*.] *ur.*—

along the mazy margin stray,  
th the *fur-wrought* fly delude the prey.

*Gay's Psorals.*

URY. *n. f.* [*furo*, Latin. *fureur*, Fr.] *s.* 2. Rage; passion of anger; tumult approaching to madness.—

oppose my patience to his *fury*; and am  
d

r with a quietness of spirit  
r tyranny and rage of his. *Shak.*

given me to know the natures of living  
and the *furies* of wild beasts. *Wisdom,*

. Enthusiasm; exaltation of fancy.—  
the lute, her wit began to be with a  
inspired; and her voice would, in so

occasion, second her wit. *Sidney.*—  
l, that had number'd in the world  
to course two hundred compasses,

ophetick *fury* few'd the work.

*Shak. Othello.*

r than human kind she seem'd to look,  
an accent more than mortal spoke;

ag eyes with sparkling *fury* roll,  
the god came rushing on her soul.

*Dryden's Æneid.*

*ria*, Lat.] One of the deities of ven-  
thence a stormy, turbulent, violent,  
ian.—

ght of any of the house of York,  
ry to torment my soul. *Shak. H. VI.*

e most proper place for a *fury* to make  
d I believe every reader's imagination

when he sees the angry goddess linking  
l, and plunging herself into hell, amidst

of horror and confusion. *Addison.*

*Y*, § 1. *def.* 4. See *FURIA*.

IRZE. *n. f.* [*firs*, Saxon; *genista spi-*  
Goite's goss.—The whole plant is ve-

the flowers, which are of the pea-  
are disposed in short thick spikes,

succeeded by short compressed pods, in  
ch are contained three or four kidney-

*Müller.*—  
out gravel to fill up a hole,  
ber and *furzin*, the turf and the cole.

*Tusser.*

, there groweth great store of *furze*,  
e shrubby sort is called tame, and the  
n French. *Carew's Survey.*—

We may know,

n to reap the grain, and when to sow,  
e fell the *furzes*. *Dryden's Virgil.*

ZE, in botany. See *ULEX*

*Y*. *adj.* from *furze*.] Overgrown with  
of gorse.—

rough the *furzy* field their rout they  
edling bosoms force the thorny brake.

*Gay.*

US, in botany: A genus of the monœ-  
belonging to the polygamia class of  
e hermaphrodite calyx is *quinquefid*;

*P. s. r. l.*

there is no corolla; there are 4 stamina; the ger-  
men beneath; there are 4 stigmata; the fruit is a  
plum.

FUSAROLE, in architecture, a moulding or  
ornament placed immediately under the echinus,  
in the Doric, Ionic, and Composite capitals.

\* FUSCATION. *n. f.* [*fuscus*, Lat.] The act  
of darkening or obscuring. *DiB.*

FUSE, or FUZE, in artillery. See *FUSEE*, § 1. §.

(1.) \* To FUSE. *v. a.* [*fundo*, *fusum*, Lat.] To  
melt; to put into fusion; to liquify by heat.

(2.) \* To FUSE. *v. n.* To be melted; to be  
capable of being liquefied by heat.

(1.) \* FUSEE. *n. f.* [*fuséau*, French.] 1. The  
cone round which is wound the cord or chain of  
a clock or watch.—The reason of the motion of  
the balance is by the motion of the next wheel,  
and that by the motion of the next, and that by  
the motion of the *fusée*, and that by the motion  
of the spring: the whole frame of the watch car-  
ries a reasonableness in it, the passive impression  
of the intellectual idea that was in the artist.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.* 2. A firelock [from *fu-*  
*sil*, Fr.]; a small neat mu'quet. This is more  
properly written *fusil*.

(2.) FUSEE, § 1. *def.* 1. See *CLOCK*, § 3, and  
WATCH.

(3.) FUSER, § 1. *def.* 2. See *MUSKET*.

(4.) \* FUSEE. Track of a buck. *Ainsl.*

(5.) \* FUSSE OF A BOMB OR GRENADE SHELL,  
is that which makes the whole powder or compo-  
sition in the shell take fire, to do the designed ex-  
ecution. 'Tis usually a wooden pipe or tap, fill-  
ed with wildfire, or some such matter; and is in-  
tended to burn no longer than is the time of the  
motion of the bomb from the mouth of the mor-  
tar to the place where it is to fall, which time An-  
dersson makes 27 seconds. *Harris.*

(6.) FUSEES OF BOMBS OR GRENADES, are  
chiefly made of very dry beech-wood, and some-  
times of hornbeam, taken near the root. They  
are turned rough, and bored, and then kept for  
several years in a dry place; the diameter of the  
hole is about  $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch; the hole does not  
come quite through, leaving about  $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch  
at the bottom; and the head is made hollow, in  
the form of a bowl. The composition for fusees  
is saltpetre 3 parts, sulphur 1, and mealed pow-  
der 3, 4, and sometimes 5. This composition is  
driven in with an iron driver (whose ends are  
capped with copper to prevent the composition  
from taking fire), and pressed as hard as possible;  
the last shovel-full being all mealed powder, and  
two stands of quickmatch laid across each other  
being driven in with it, the ends of which are fold-  
ed up into the hollow top, and a cap of parch-  
ment tied over it till it be used. When these fu-  
zes are driven into the loaded shell, the lower end  
is cut off in a slope, so that the composition may  
inflame the powder in the shell. The fuse must  
have such a length as to continue burning all the  
time the shell is in its range, and to set fire to the  
powder as soon as it touches the ground, which  
instantly bursts into many pieces. When the dis-  
tance of the battery from the object is known, the  
time of the shell's flight may be computed to a  
second or two; which being known, the fuse  
may be cut accordingly, by burning two or three

and making use of a watch, or string by way of pendulum, to vibrate seconds.

(1.) \* FUSIBILITY. *n. f.* [from *fusible*.] Capacity of being melted; quality of growing liquid by heat.—The ancients observing in that material a kind of metallical nature, or at least a *fusibility*, seem to have resolved it into a nobler use. *Wotton's Architecture*.—The bodies of most use, that are sought for out of the depths of the earth, are the metals, which are distinguished from other bodies by their weight, *fusibility*, and malleableness. *Locke*.

(2.) The FUSIBILITY of gold is greater than that of iron or copper; but less than that of silver, tin, and lead. Borax is frequently mixed with metals, to render them more fusible.

\* FUSIBLE. *adj.* [from *fuse*.] Capable of being melted; capable of being made liquid by heat.—Colours afforded by metalline bodies, either colliquate with, or otherwise penetrate into other bodies, especially *fusible* ones. *Boyle*.

FUSIGNANO, a market town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of the Lower Po, and ci-devant duchy of Ferrara.

(1.) \* FUSIL. *adj.* [*fusile*, Fr. *fusilis*, Latin.] 1. Capable of being melted; liquifiable by heat.—Some, less skilful, fancy these scapi that occur in most of the large Gothick buildings of England are artificial; and will have it, that they are a kind of *fusil* marble. *Woodward*. 2. Running by the force of heat.—

The liquid ore he drain'd  
Into fit moulds prepar'd; from which he form'd  
First his own tools: then, what might else be  
wrought

*Fusile* or grav'n in metal. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.  
Perpetual flames,

O'er sand and ashes, and the stubborn flint,  
Prevailing, turn into a *fusil* sea. *Philips*.

(2.) \* FUSIL. *n. f.* [*fusil*, French.] 1. A fire-lock; a small neat musquet. 2. [In heraldry; from *fusus*, Latin.] Something like a spindle.—*Fusils* must be made long, and small in the middle, in the ancient coat of Montague, argent three *fusils* in fesse gules. *Peacock*.

(3.) FUSIL, in heraldry, a bearing of a rhomboid figure, longer than the lozenge, and having its upper and lower angles more acute and sharp than the other two in the middle. It is called in Latin *fusus*, “a spindle,” from its shape.

(1.) \* FUSILIER. *n. f.* [from *fusil*.] A soldier armed with a fusil; a musketeer.

(2.) FUSILIERS, FUSILEERS, or FUZILEERS, are armed as the rest of the infantry, but wear caps like the grenadiers, though somewhat shorter. There are 3 royal regiments of fusiliers in the British service: viz. those of the Scotch fusiliers raised in 1678; of English fusiliers, in 1685; and of Welsh fusiliers, in 1688-9.

FUSINE, a village of Maritime Austria, in the late Dogado of Venice, and district of Chioggia, on the Canal of Brenta.

(1.) \* FUSION. *n. f.* [*fusio*, Lat. *fusio*, Fr.] 1. The act of melting. 2. The state of being melted, or of running with heat.—Metals in fusion do not flame for want of a copious fume, ex-spelter, which fumes copiously, and thereby *ca.* *Newton's Optics*.

(2.) FUSION. See CHEMISTRY, 1 FLUIDITY.

\* FUSS. *n. f.* [A low cant word.]  
a bustle.—

End as it befits your station;  
Come to use and application;  
Nor with senates keep a *fuss*:  
I submit, and answer thus.

(1.) FUST, or FAUSTUS, a goldsmith and one of the 3 earliest printers, to invention of this most useful art has been. Some say, he only assisted Guttenberg, in his attempts to make moveable type. Be that as it may, he had the conceal his art; and to this we are in the tradition of *The Devil and Dr Faust*, led down to the present times. Fust, in alliance with Peter Schoeffer, having, in 1469, printed off a considerable number of copies, to imitate those which were sold in France, undertook the sale of them at Paris, where the art of printing was then unknown. He sold his copies for so high a sum as 5 crowns, the prices usually demanded by scribes. He afterwards lowered his price to 3 crowns, which created universal discontent; but when he produced copies as fast as wanted, and lowered the price to 30 c. Paris was agitated. The uniformity of increased the wonder; informations were sent to the police against him as a magician; he was searched; and a great number of copies found, they were seized: the red ink which they were embellished, was said to be his; and he was seriously adjudged that he was in league with the devil; and if he had not fled, most probably would have shared the fate of those rant and superstitious judges condemn days for witchcraft. See PRINTING.

kins, in his *Biographical and Historical* lately published, says “this story is assigned no authority for discrediting it. to have died of the plague at Paris, about 1469.”

(2.) \* FUST. *n. f.* [*fuste*, Fr.] 1. The body of a column. 2. [From *fus*.] A strong smell, as that of a mouldy body. \* To FUST. *v. n.* [from the noun.] to mouldy; to smell ill.

(1.) \* FUSTIAN. *adj.* [from the noun.] Made of fustian. 2. Swelling; unbecomingly; ridiculously tumid. Used of style.

When men argue, th' greatest  
O' th' contest falls on terms of art,  
Until the *fustian* stuff be spent,  
And then they fall to th' argument.  
—Virgil, if he could have seen the first the Sylva, would have thought Statius his *fustian* description of the statue on horse. *Dryden's Dufresnoy*.

(2.) \* FUSTIAN. *n. f.* [*futaine*, Fr.] *fyste*, a tree, because cotton grows on it. A kind of cloth made of linen and cotton, perhaps now of cotton only.—Is the house trimm'd, the serving men in *fustian* and their white stockings? Such a high swelling kind of writing made up of geneous parts, or of words and ideas; and; bombast.—

will you raise me in combustion,  
 t of high heroick *fustian*. *Hudibras*.  
*fustian* have I heard these gentlemen find  
 Mr Cowley's odes! In general, I will  
 nothing can appear more beautiful to  
 the strength of those images they con-  
 vey'd.—*Fustian* is thoughts and words ill  
 without the least relation to each other.

ice thoughts, when govern'd by the close,  
 e to *fustian*, or descend to prose. *Smith*.  
 'STIAN, in commerce, (§ 1, *def.* 1.) is a  
 cotton stuff, which seems as if it were  
 on one side. *Fustians* should be altogether  
 cotton yarn, both woof and warp; but  
 ces are made, the warp of which is flax,  
 mp. *Fustians* are made of various kinds,  
 row, fine, coarse; with shag or nap,  
 out it.

FUSTIC. *n. f.* A sort of wood brought  
 West Indies, used in dyeing of cloth. *Dist*.  
 'STIC, or FUSTOCK, is a yellow wood,  
 is in all the Caribbee islands. It pays no  
 exportation. It is a species of MORUS.  
 USTIGATE. *v. s.* [*fustigo*, Latin.] To  
 a stick; to cane. *Dist*.

GATIG, in the Roman customs, a pu-  
 nished by beating with a cudgel. This  
 was peculiar to freemen; the slaves  
 rged with whips.

FILARIAN. *n. f.* [from *fussy*.] A low  
 stinkard; a scoundrel. A word used  
*Spenser* only.—Away, you scullion, you  
 : I'll tickle your catastrophe. *Shak*.

TINESS. *n. f.* [from *fussy*.] Mouldiness;

OCK. See FUSTIC, and MORUS.  
 ITY. *adj.* [from *fustil*.] Ill-smelling; mou-  
 stor shall have a great catch, if he knock  
 r of your brains: he were as good crack  
 it with no kernel. *Shak*.

*fussy* plebeians hate thine honours. *Shak*.  
 large Achilles, at this *fussy* stuff,  
 his deep chest laughs out a loud applause.  
*Shak*.

.K, a town of Hungary, on the Danube,  
 Peter-Waradin; 16 miles SSE. of Bacs.  
 FILE. *adj.* [*futile*, Fr. *futiles*, Latin.]  
 tive; loquacious.—One *futile* person, that  
 t his glory to tell, will do more hurt than  
 t know it their duty to conceal. *Bacon*.  
 g; worthless; of no weight.

FILITY. *n. f.* [*futilité*, Fr. from *futik*.]  
 tiveness; loquacity.—This fable does not  
 much at the *futility* of women, as at the  
 nt levity of a prying humour. *L'Esfrange*.  
 igness; want of weight; want of solidity.  
 g *futility* appears in their signs of the zo-  
 d their mutual relations and aspects. *Bent*.

FLOCKS. *n. f.* [corrupted from *foot books*.]

The lower timbers that hold the ship  
 FYPOUR SICRI, a considerable town of  
 Proper, in the province of Agra, seated  
 range of hills; the southern boundary of  
 the plain, in which hardly a shrub is to  
 and the soil is almost as fine as hair-pow-  
 circumstance productive of the most disa-

greeable effects, when the hot winds blow from  
 the W. Its situation too is unhealthy from the  
 badness of its water. Yet the country near it is  
 in tolerable cultivation. It is 42 miles W. of A-  
 gra. Lon. 77. 45. E. Lat. 27. 0. N.

(1.) \* FUTURE. *adj.* [*futurus*, Latin; *future*,  
 Fr.] That which will be hereafter; to come:  
 as, the *future* state.—

Glory they sung to the most High! good will  
 To *future* men, and in their dwellings peace.

*Milton*.  
 He sows the teeth at Pallas's command,  
 And slings the *future* people from his hand.

*Addison's Oriid*.  
 (2.) \* FUTURE. *n. f.* [from the adjective.]  
 Time to come; somewhat to happen hereafter.—

Thy letters have transported me beyond  
 This ign'rant present time; and I feel now  
 The *future* in the instant. *Shak. Macbeth*.

—The mind, once jaded by an attempt above its  
 power, either is disabled for the *future*, or else  
 checks at any vigorous undertaking ever after.  
*Locke*.

(3.) FUTURE, or FUTURE TENSE, in grammar,  
 denotes an inflexion of verbs, whereby they de-  
 note, that a thing will be in some time yet to  
 come. See GRAMMAR.

\* FUTURELY. *adv.* [from *future*.] In time  
 to come.—This prescience of God, as it is presci-  
 ence, is not the cause of any thing *futurely* suc-  
 ceeding; neither doth God's foreknowledge im-  
 pose any necessity, or bind. *Raleigh*.

\* FUTURITION. *n. f.* [from *future*.] The  
 state of being to be; the condition of being to come  
 to pass hereafter.—Is it imaginable, that the great  
 means of the world's redemption should rest only  
 in the number of possibilities, and hang so loose  
 in respect to its *futurition*, as to leave the event in  
 an equal poise, whether ever there should be such  
 a thing or no? *South*.

\* FUTURITY. *n. f.* [from *future*.] 1. Time  
 to come; events to come.—

Not my service past, nor present sorrows,  
 Nor purpos'd merit in *futurity*,  
 Can ransom me. *Shak. Othello*.

—I will contrive some way to make it known to  
*futurity*, that I had your lordship for my patron.  
*Swift*. 2. Event to come.—All *futurities* are na-  
 ked before that All seeing Eye, the sight of which is  
 no more hindered by distance of time, than the sight  
 of an angel can be determined by distance of place.  
*South*.—

This, great Amphiarus, lay hid from thee,  
 Though skill'd in fate and dark *futurity*. *Pope*.  
 3. The state of being to be; futurition.—It may  
 be well reckoned among the bare possibilities, which  
 never commence into a *futurity*, it requiring such  
 a free, sedate and intent mind, as it may be, is  
 no where found but among the platonical ideas.  
*Glanville's Scaphs*.

FUTWALL, a town of Bengal, 9 miles SE. of  
 Patna.

FUZE, FUSE, or FUSEE. See FUSEE.  
 FUZELIER, Lewis, a French dramatic author,  
 and one of the editors of a periodical work, en-  
 titled *The Mercury*. His works are written with  
 spirit. He died in 1752, aged 80.

FUZILEER. See FUSILIER.

**FUZIR**, a town of Hungary, 12 miles SSE. of Caschau.

\* To **FUZZ**. *v. n.* [without etymology.] To fly out in small particles.

\* **FUZZBALL**. *n. f.* [*fuzz* and *ball*.] A kind of fungus, which, when pressed, bursts and scatters dust in the eyes.

\* **FY**. *interj.* [*fy*, French and Flemish; *φύ*, Greek; *vab*, Latin.] A word of blame and disapprobation.

And *fy* on fortune, mine avowed foe,  
Whose wrathful wrecks themselves do now away.

*Spenser.*

—*Fy*, my lord, *fy*! a soldier, and afraid? What need we fear who knows it, when none can call our power to account? *Macbeth*.—A bawd, sir, *fy* upon him. *Shak.*—

But *fy*, my wand'ring muse, how thou do'st stray!

Expectance calls thee now another way. *Milton.*

Nay, *fy*, what mean you in this open place? Unhand me, or, I swear, I'll scratch your face: Let go, for shame! you make me mad for spite: My mouth's my own; and if you kiss, I'll bite.

*Dryden.*

—*Fy*, madam, he cried, we must be past all these gaieties. *Tatler.*

**FYAL**, one of the AZORES. It is well cultivated, and yields corn, garden stuffs, and various fruits. It has several kinds of domesticated European animals: the people are cleanly, diligent, and fairer than those of Madeira. The chief town is Villa de Horta. Lon. 28. 36. W. Lat. 38. 32. N.

**FYAN'S TOWN**, a town of Ireland, in Meath county, 30 miles from Dublin.

**FYEN**. See **FUNEN**.

**FYERS**, or **FYRES**, a river of Invernesshire,

which descending from the S. flows into the Nefs, 10 miles NE. of Fort Augustus. On it is built a stupendous bridge, on two opposite rocks; the top of the arch being above 100 feet from the level of the water. A little below the bridge is the celebrated *Fall of Fyers*, where a great body of water shoots through a narrow cleft between two rocks, and then falls over a vast cleft into the bottom of the chasm, where foam rises and fills the air like a cloud of smoke.

**FYFIELD**, 3 English villages: 1. in Berks; W. of Abingdon: 2. in Essex, near Ongar; Wilts, W. of Marlborough.

**FYNE LOCH**, a great inlet of the sea in Gyleshire, near 40 miles long. It receives a tide on each side of the Isle of Arran, and is directly opposite to its entrance.

**FYNONVAER**, a town in Salop, near Olympton.

**FYIT**, John, a celebrated painter, born at Antwerp, about 1625, one of the best artists of his time. He often painted in conjunction with Rubens and Jordaens; and finished the hair of animals and the plumage of fowls with wonderful spirit and exactness.

**FYVIE**, a parish in Aberdeenshire, 13 miles long and 8 broad, containing about 22,000 acres, of which 8000 are under culture, and 12,000 in wood. The Ythan, and the road from Aberdeen to Banff run thro' it. The air is pure, and the soil kindly, yielding good crops of oats and barley. The population in 1793, stated by the rev. Mr. Mackenzie to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2,194: the decrease in 1755, 334.

**FYZABAD**, a large and populous city in the doostan Proper, in the territory of Oude; on the Gogra, 80 m. E. of Lucknow, and 500 m. by W. of Calcutta. Lon. 82. 30. E. Lat. 26.

## G

(1.) \* **G** Has two sounds, one from the Greek  $\Gamma$ , and the Latin, which is called that of the hard **G**, because it is formed by a pressure somewhat hard of the fore part of the tongue against the upper gum. This sound **G** retains before *a, o, u, l, r*; as, *gate, go, gull*. The other sound, called that of the soft **G**, resembles that of **J**, and is commonly, though not always, found before *e, i*; as, *gem, gibbet*. Before *n*, at the end of a word, *g* is commonly melted away; as in the French, from which these words are commonly derived: thus, for *benign, malign, condign*, we pronounce *benine, maline, condine*. It is often silent in the middle of words before *b*; as, *might*. The Saxon **G**, *g*, seems to have had generally the sound of *y* consonant; whence *gate* is by rusticks still pronounced *gaze*.

(2.) **G** is used, 1. as a letter; 2. as an abbreviation; 3. as a musical character; and 4. as a numeral. I. AS A LETTER, **G** is the 7th of our alphabet, and the 5th consonant. In the alphabets of all the oriental languages, the Phœnician, Chaldee, Syriac, Samaritan, and even the Greek, it is the 3d letter. The Romans call it *gimel* or *gimel*, i. e. camel,

because it resembles the neck of that animal; it bears the same appellation in the Samaritan, Phœnician, Chaldee: in the Syriac it is called *mel*, in Arabic *gim*, and in Greek *gamma*. The Greek  $\gamma$  (r) of the Greeks is evidently the same as the gimel of the Hebrews or Samaritans. The difference between the gamma and gimel consists in this, that the one is turned to the right, the other to the left, according to the different manners of writing and reading which obtained among those nations: though Salmasius and Solinus, vainly attempted to prove that the **G** derived from the Greek kappa. It is clear that the Latins borrowed their form of this letter from the Greeks; the Latin **G** being only a variation of the Greek gamma,  $\gamma$ ; as might easily be shown had our printers all the forms of this letter, which we meet with in the Greek and Latin manuscripts, through which it has passed from  $\gamma$  to **G**. In the *med. lib. ii. cap. De Litera*, calls **G** a *novum* letter. His reason is, that the Romans had not introduced it before the first Punic war; as appears from the rostral column erected by C. Duilius, on which we everywhere find a **C** instead of **G**. It was Carvilius who first distinguished between these

and invented the figure of the G; as we find by Terentius Scaurus. The C served for G; it being the third letter of the alphabet, as the F or γ was of the Greek; found instead of C on several medals: *Num. Imperat.* tom. i. p. 39. M. Beyer has a medal of the *Familia Ogulnia*, where read instead of CAR, which is on those of

But the C is more frequently seen on medals of G; as, AUGUSTALIS CALLAE-FACINEROSIS, &c. for AUGUSTALIS, &c. the pronunciation of those words was not only that the G was ignorantly or neglected by the workmen; as is the case in inscriptions of the eastern empire; where CC, AUCC, are often found for AUG, and northern nations frequently changed C into V or W; as in *Gallus, Wallus; Gallia, Wallia*, &c. For in this instance it cannot be the French changed the W into G; but they wrote *Gallus* long before *Wallus* or *Wall* is known, as appears from all the ancient and Greek writers. And yet it is true, that the French change the W of northern nations, and the V consonant, into *Willielmus*, William, into *Guillaume*; into *Gulphilas; Vaso* into *Gaston*; modern G takes its form from that of C.

It is a mute, and cannot be sounded without the help of a vowel. Its hard sound, not as Dr Johnson says above, (§ 1.) effluve of the fore part of the tongue against the upper gum," but by the reflection of wind at the palate, made by the tongue as it flies out of the throat; which Martianus thus, *G spiritus cum palato*; so that G is a hard letter. G often sounds hard before i, &c. and sometimes before e, as *get*, &c. hard in derivatives from words ending in *ing, stronger*, &c. and generally before the end of words, as *finger*. G is mute before *gn, gnish, sign*. Gb has the sound of hard beginning of a word, as *ghostly*; sometimes it is quite silent, as *though*. But Gb of many other words Gb has the sound *rough, rough, tough*, &c. and in the word the *f*, by ignorance or inadvertency in spelling, has actually usurped the place

As an ABBREVIATION, G, stands for *genius, gens, genius*, &c. G. G. for *genit, gesserunt*, &c. G. C. for *genio ci-Cesaris*. G. L. for *Gaius libertus*, or *genio*. G. V. S. for *genio urbis sacrum*. G. B. *bono*. And G. T. for *genio tutelari*. III.

G is the character or mark of the treachery and from its being placed at the head, being the first found in Guido's scale, the letter took the name GAMUT. IV. As a numeral, G was anciently used to denote 400; a dash over it, thus, Ḡ, for 40,000.

[ג, Hebrew, i. e. an abomination,] Ebed, the leader of the conspiracy of enemies against the usurper ABIMELECH, in *Guidon*. See *Judges*, ix. 26—41.

AL, Barent, an eminent Dutch painter, died in 1650. He was a disciple of Ph. Woude and acquired his manner. His land-  
scape much esteemed.

GAARDE, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus, 56 miles NW. of Christiania.

GABALA, a town of Arabia Felix, 64 miles NNE. of Aden.

GABALE, in mythology, a deity worshipped at Heliopolis under the figure of a lion, with a radiant head; and it is thus represented on many medals of Caracalla.

GABARA, or GABBARA, in antiquity, the dead bodies which the Egyptians embalmed, and kept in their houses, especially those of such of their friends as died with the reputation of great piety and holiness, or as martyrs. See EMBALMING, and MUMMY.

\* GABARDINE. *n. f.* [*gavardina*, Italian.] A coarse frock; any mean dress.—My best way is to creep under his *gabardine*; there is no other shelter hereabouts. *Shakespeare. Tempest.*—

You call me misbeliever, cut-throat dog,  
And spit upon my Jewish *gabardine*. *Shakespeare.*

The knight did straight submit,  
And laid his weapons at her feet:  
Next he disrob'd his *gabardine*,  
And with it did himself resign. *Hudibras.*

GABARET, a town of France, in the dept. of Landes, on the Gélise, 15 miles W. of Condom, and 24 E. of Mont Marlan. Dr Brookes and J. Walker place it in the dept. of Gers, and also err in the lat. by a whole degree. Lon. o. 6. E. Lat. 43. 39. N.

GABAROUS BAY, a bay on the E. coast of Cape Breton. Lon. 60. o. W. Lat. 45. 50. N.

GABASELSKI, a town of Russia, in the government of Viborg; 36 miles N. of Serdopol.

\* GABBLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Inarticulate noise like that of brute animals.—Not to know what we speak one to another, so we seem to know, is to know straight our purpose: though's language, *gabble* enough, and good enough. *Shakespeare.*

2. Loud talk without meaning.—  
Forthwith a hideous *gabble* rises loud  
Among the builders; each to other calls,  
Not understood. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

\* To GABBLE. *v. n.* [*gabbare*, Ital. *gabberen*, Dut.] 1. To make an inarticulate noise.—

When thou could'st not, savage,  
Shew thine own meaning, but would'st *gabble*  
like

A thing most brutish, I endow'd thy purposes  
With words that made them known.

*Shakespeare. Temp.*  
Flocks of fowl, that when the tempests roar,  
With their hoarse *gabbling* seek the silent shore.

*Dryden's Æn.*  
2. To prate loudly without meaning.—Have you no wit, manners, nor honesty, but to *gabble* like tinkers at this time of night? Do you make an alehouse of my lady's house? *Shakespeare.*—

Which made some think, when he did *gabble*,  
Th' had heard three labourers of Babel. *Hudibras.*

Such a rout, and such a rabble,  
Run to hear Jack Pudding *gabble*. *Swift.*

\* GABBLER. *n. f.* [from *gabble*.] A prater; a chattering fellow.

(1.) \* GABEL. *n. f.* [*gabelle*, Fr. *gabello*, Ital. *gafel*, Sax. a tribute.] An excise; a tax.—The *gabels* of Naples are very high on oil, wine, and tobacco. *Addison on Italy.*

(2.) **GABEL**, [Lat. *Gabella*, *Gabium*, *Gablagium*, *g. e. Feßigal*,] has the same signification among the ancient English writers, that **GABELLE** had in France, before the revolution. It has been variously used, for a rent, custom, service, &c. Where it was a payment for rent, those who paid it were termed **GABLATORS**. Formerly when mentioned without any addition, *gabel* signified the tax on salt, though afterwards it was applied to all other taxes. In the ci-devant French customs, the *gabelle*, or tax on salt, is said to have had its rise in 1286, under Philip IV. Philip V. took a double per livre on salt, by an edict in 1318, which he promised to remit when he was delivered from his enemies; which was renewed by Philip VI. in 1345; and the duty was raised to 4 deniers per livre; king John returned it in 1355; and it was granted to the dauphin in 1358, to ransom king John. It was continued by Charles V. in 1366; after his decease, it was suppressed, but revived again by Charles VI. in 1382. Louis XI. raised it to 12 deniers per livre; and Francis I. in 1542, to 24 livres per muid. It was afterwards so greatly augmented that it was estimated to constitute  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the whole revenue of the kingdom; so that a minot of salt at last paid a duty of 52 livres, 8 sols, and 6 deniers. Philip VI. first established granaries and officers of the gabelles, and prohibited all others from selling salt. From that period, the commerce of salt for inland consumption continued wholly in the king's hands, every grain of it being sold by his farmers. This very odious and oppressive tax was early abolished by the National Assembly.

(3.) **GABEL**, in geography, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleslaw, 45 miles N. of Prague.

**GABELLE**. See **GABEL**, § 1, 2.

**GABERSTORE**, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 10 miles WSW. of Gnaa.

**GABIAN**, a village of France in the dept. of Herault, 7 miles NW. of Pezenas. It has a mineral spring, near which petroleum issues from a rock.

**GABIANO**, a village of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Mela, and ci-devant province of Brescia.

**GABII**, in ancient geography, a town of Latium, midway almost between Rome and Preneste to the E. often mentioned in the history of Tarquin I. It is now extinct.

**GABIN**, a town of Poland, in the Palatinate of Rawa, 40 miles W. of Warsaw.

**GABINIAN LAWS**, in Roman antiquity, laws instituted upon several occasions by persons of the name of *Gabinus*: 1. *Gabinia-lex de Comitibus*, by A. *Gabinus* the tribune, A. U. C. 614; requiring that in the public assemblies for electing magistrates, the votes should be given by tables, and not *viva voce*: 2. *De Comitibus*, which made it a capital punishment to convene any clandestine assembly, agreeable to the old law of the 12 tables: 3. *De Militia*, by A. *Gabinus* the tribune, A. U. C. 685. It granted Pompey the power of carrying on the war against the pirates, during 3 years, and of obliging all kings, governors, and states, to supply with all the necessaries he wanted, over as far as 400 *Stadia* from the sea: 4. *De*

*Usura* by Aul. *Gabinus* the tribune, A. U. C. ordaining that no action should be granted for recovery of any money borrowed upon interest to be lent upon larger. This was an ancient practice at Rome, which obtained the name *usuram facere*: 5. Against fornication.

**GABINUS CINCTUS**, in Roman antiquity, a particular way of tucking the gown, by which it forwards on the breast, and tying it into a knot as the people of **GABII** did at a solemn festival on the sudden attack of an enemy, in order to be fitter for action. In this manner the Romans used to declare war, to sacrifice, and to divide the spoils of the enemy; and then he was called *præcinctus*.

(1.) \* **GABION**. *n. f.* [French.] A wide basket which is filled with earth to make a fortification or intrenchment.—His battery was all along with *gabions*, and cafts filled with *Knolles*.

(2.) **GABIONS**, in fortifications, are made of osier twigs, of a cylindrical form, 4 feet high and 4 wide; which, being filled with earth, serve as a shelter from the enemy's fire.

**GABISE**, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the circle of 28 miles SE. of Constantinople.

**GABLAGIUM**. } See **GABEL**, § 2.  
**GABLATORS**. }

(1.) \* **GABLE**. *n. f.* [*gaval*, Welsh; *gabl*, French.] The sloping roof of a building, care that all your brick-work be covered with tiles, according to the new way of building out *gable ends*, which are very heavy, and apt to let the water into the brick-work. *See the Husbandry*.

(2.) **GABLE**, or **GABLE-END**, of a house, is the triangular end from the cornice or eaves to the top of the house.

**GABLENZ**, a town of Upper Saxony, in the circle of Erzgebürg, 6 miles NNW. of Zwickau.

**GABOU**, or **JABOU**, a country of Africa, between Benin and Dahomy, 150 miles from the coast.

(1.) **GABRES**, or **GAURES**, a religious sect in Persia and India; called also **GAURES**, **GAURES**, **GAURES**, **GAURES**, &c. See **MAGI**. Those sect are dispersed through the country, and to be the remains of the ancient Persians, followers of Zoroaster, being worshippers of fire. They have a suburb at Isfahan, called **GABAD**, or *the town of the Gaurs*, where they are employed in the meanest drudgery: some of them are dispersed through other parts of Persia, they principally abound in Kerman, the most barren province in the whole country, where the hometans allowed them liberty and the exercise of their religion. Several of them fled many years ago into India, and settled about Surat, and their posterity still remain. There is also a great number of them at Bombay. They are ignorant, offensive people, extremely superstitious, and very rigorous in their morals, and very earnest in their dealings. They believe a reward and a future judgment, and worship only one God. Although they perform their worship with fire, and direct their devotion toward the sun, for which they have an extraordinary veneration, yet they strenuously maintain, they worship neither; but that, as these are



reflive symbols of the Deity, they turn them in their devotional services. Some ofed, that these are Perfians formerly con-Christianity, who, being afterwards left lves, mingled their ancient superstitious truths and practices of Christianity, and l for themselves a religion apart: and ge, that throughout the whole of their doctrine and practice, we may discern Christianity, though much defaced; ciation, the magi, the massacre of the r Saviour's miracles, his persecutions, &c.

**GABRES** is also a name given by the Turks ristians, signifying *infidels*, or people of a on; or rather, as Leunclavius observes, r gentiles; the word *Gabre* among them, e same signification as *pagan* or *infidel* r Christians, and denoting any thing not an.

**GAC**, a town of France, in the dept. of 12 miles NE. of Rhodéz.

**GABRIEL**, (גבריאל, Heb. *i. e.* the strength one of the principal angels in heaven: a few events, in which this exalted being rned, recorded in scripture. He was e prophet Daniel, to explain to him the ram and goat, and the mystery of rks. He was sent to Zecharias, to de- cium the future birth of John the Baptist; onths after, to the Virgin Mary, at Na- o warn her of the birth of Jesus Christ. ometans call him the *faithful spirit*; and as, by way of metaphor, the *peacock of* In the 2d chapter of the Koran, it is t *subsoever is an enemy to Gabriel shall ned.* It was Gabriel, Mahomet pretend- brought the revelations which he publish- who conducted him to heaven mounted : animal Borak.

**GABRIEL**, in geography, a mountain of ia Cork, 12 miles S. of Bantry.

**GABRIEL ST**, an island of S. America, in 1, discovered by S. Cabot, in 1526.

**GALILITES**, in ecclesiastical history, a sect aptists that appeared in Pomerania, ia ) named from Gabriel Scherlinz; who, ing been for some time tolerated in that was obliged to remove, and died in Po-

**GALL**, a town of France, in the dept. of Orne, W. of Aigle, and 13½ E. of Argentan.

**GALL**, a town of France, in the dept. of n, 9 miles NE. of Rocheford.

**GAD**, (גד, Heb. *i. e.* a troop,) one of the rchs, the son of Jacob by Zilpah, and or of the tribe of the Gadites.

**GAD**, in ancient geography, a district of dan Palestine, situated between Gilead kingdom of Bashan on the N. and that morites to the S. having the Jordan to the bounded by various nations on the E. so om the tribe of that name.

**GAD**, the tribe of the GADITES.

**GAD**, a prophet who attended David during cution by Saul, and gave him various ad- is afterwards. He wrote a history of Da- , which is lost.

(5.) **GAD**, in ancient geography, a river in the country of the Gadites, called also Arnon. See **ANNON**.

(6.) \* **GAD**. *n. f.* [*gad*, Sax. *gaddur*, Islandick, a club.] 1. A wedge or ingot of steel.—Flemish steel is brought down the Rhine to Dort, and other parts, some in bars, and some in *gads*; and therefore called Flemish steel, and sometimes *gad* steel. *Moxon's Mech. Exer.* 2. It seems to be used by *Shakespeare* for a stile or graver, [from *gad*, Saxon, a goad.]—

I will go get a leaf of brass,  
And with a *gad* of steel will write these words.  
*Shakespeare.*

(7.) **GAD**, among miners, a small punch of iron, with a long wooden handle, used to break up the ore. One of the miners holds this in his hand, directing the point to a proper place, while the other drives it into the vein, by striking it with a sledge-hammer.

\* **To GAD**. *v. n.* [Derived by *Skinner* from *gadfly*; by *Junius* from *gadau*, Welsh, to forsake; thought by others only the preterite of the old word *agaan*, to go.] To ramble about without any settled purpose; to rove loosely and idly.

How now, my headstrong, where have you been *gadding*?

—Where I have learnt me to repent. *Shakespeare.*

—Give the water no passage, neither a wicked woman liberty to *gad* abroad. *Ecclef. xxv. 25.*—

The lesser devils rose with ghastly rore,  
And thronged forth about the world to *gad*;  
Each land they filled, river, stream, and shore.  
*Fairfax.*

—Envy is a *gadding* passion, and walketh the streets, and doth not keep at home. *Bacon.*—

*Gad* not abroad at ev'ry quest and call  
Of an untrained hope or passion;  
To court each place or fortune that doth fall,  
Is wantonness in contemplation. *Herbert.*

Thee, shepherd, thee the woods and desert  
caves,  
With wild thyme and the *gadding* vine o'er-  
grown,  
And all their echos moan. *Milton.*

A fierce loud buzzing breeze; their stings draw  
blood,  
And drive the cattle *gadding* thro' the wood.  
*Dryden.*

She wreaks her anger on her rival's head;  
With furies frights her from her native home,  
And drives her *gadding*, round the world to  
roam. *Dryden.*

—There's an ox lost, and this cockcomb runs a *gadding* after wild fowl. *L'Esfrange.*—No wonder their thoughts should be perpetually shifting from what disgusts them, and seeking better entertainment in more pleasing objects, after which they will unavoidably be *gadding*. *Locke.*

**GADARA**, in ancient geography, a strong town of the Peræa, in Decapolis, restored by Pompey after its demolition by the Jews. (*Josephus*.) After Herod's death, it was joined to Syria, by Augustus.

**GADARENES**, the inhabitants of **GADARA**, and the adjacent country. See next article.

**GADARENORUM AGES**, in ancient geography, the country of the Gadarenes, called by

Matthew the country of the GERGENSES, a district that lay between Gadara and Gergefa, otherwise called *Gerafa*, both which lay within the Decapolis on the other side Jordan.

GAD-BEE. See GAD-FLY, and OESTRUS, N° 1.

\* GADDER. *n. f.* [from *gad*.] A rambler: one that runs much abroad without business.—A drunken woman, and a *gadder* abroad, causeth great anger, and she will not cover her own shame. *Becluf. xxvi. 8.*

\* GADDINGLY. *adv.* [from *gad*.] In a rambling, roving manner.

GAEBÜSCH, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Mecklenburg, near which, the Swedes defeated the Danes in 1712. It is 16 miles W. NW. of Schwerin.

GADEMIR, or ? a country of Africa, W. of (1.) GADEMIS, } Fezzan, containing 92 towns and villages.

(2.) GADEMIS, or GADEMIR, the capital of the above country, lies 300 miles from the sea coast. Lon. 11. o. E. Lat. 31. 30. N.

GADEN, a town of Austria, 10 miles W. of Vienna.

GADERSLEBEN, a town of Saxony, 20 miles E. of Halberstadt

GADES, or GADIRA, in ancient geography, a small island in the Atlantic, on the Spanish coast, 25 miles from the Pillars of Hercules. It was sometimes called TARTESSUS, and *Brythia* according to Piny. Geryon, whom Hercules killed, is said to have resided in it. *Hercules Gaditanus* had there a celebrated temple, in which all his labours were engraved with excellent workmanship.

(1.) \* GADFLY. *n. f.* [*gad* and *fly*; but by *Skinner*, who makes it the original of *gad*, it is called *gadfly*. Supposed to be originally from *goad*, in Saxon, *gad* and *fly*.] A fly that when he stings the cattle makes them gad or run madly about; the breed.—The fly called the *gadfly* breedeth of somewhat that swimmeth upon the top of the water, and is most about ponds. *Bacon*. Light fly his slumbers, if perchance a flight

Of angry *gadflies* fasten on the herd. *Töomsf.*

(2.) GAD-FLY. See OESTRUS.

GADIAG, a town of Russia, in the prov. of Tchernigow, 12 miles SE. of Tchernigow.

GADIRA. See GADÉS.

GADI FANI, the people of GADES.

GADITANUS, a surname of Hercules.

GADITES, one of the 12 tribes of Israel, who inhabited the country on the E. side of Jordan. See GAD, N° 2. They amounted to 45,650, when they came out of Egypt, but decreased in the wilderness to 5150. They were carried captives by Tiglath pileser.

GADONA, or } a country of Africa, S. of the  
GADUA, } Senegal, containing mines of gold, iron, and nitre. Lon. 8. o. W. Lat. 13. 30. N.

GADUS, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of jugulares. The head is **th**; there are seven cylindrical rays in the **nostril** membrane; the body is oblong, **ciduous scales**; the whole fins are covered **the common skin** of fish: the rays of the

back fins are blunt, and those of the sharp. There are 17 species, distinguished by their cirri, and the number of fins. The most remarkable are the

1. GADUS BARBATUS, the **FOUR** to a large size, seldom exceeding a f It is distinguished from all others depth; one of the size above mentioned near 4 inches deep in the broadest back is very much arched, and castin- lour of the fins and tail are black; 2 of the pectoral fins is a black spot. line is white, broad, and crooked. even at the end, and of a dusky colour of the body is white; but more the back than the belly, and tinged It is called at Scarborough a *kieg*, delicate fish.

2. GADUS CARBONARIUS, the **C** of a more elegant form than the **cc** generally grow to the length of 2½ fe about 28 or 30 lb. at most. The **h** the under jaw a little longer than the tail is broad and forked. They vary Some have their back, nose, dorsal of a deep black; the gill-covers silver the ventral and anal fins, and the **l** Others are dusky, others brown; **h** lateral line is straight and white, **a** parts, or the ventral and anal fins which takes its name from the black **c** sometimes assumes. **Belon** calls it imagining that it was so named by from its producing the Ichthyocolla: gives the true cyonology. Their **f** men on most of our rocky and deep particularly those of the north of Scotland swarm about the Orkneys, where the greatest support of the poor. The to appear on the Yorkshire coast in the of July, in vast shoals, and are then a and an half long. In August they are inches, and are taken in great number angling rod; they are esteemed very grow so coarse when a year old, that eat them. Fish of that age are from 8 long, and begin to have a little black gills and on the back; this blackness they grow older. The fry is known names in different places: they are **c** borough *parrs*; and when a year About 20 years ago such a quantity fished that part, that for several weeks possible to dip a pale into the sea without some. Though this fish is so little esteemed, it is salted and dried for sale.

3. GADUS BULLIUS, the **HAD** long body; the upper part of a dusky lour, and the belly and lower part of very: On the back are three fins etc of the common cod fish; the lateral; and the tail is forked: The head slopes nose; on the chin is a short beard; side beyond the gills is a large black **f** stition assigns this mark to the imperial left with his finger and thumb when a piece of silver out of the mouth of a **l** species, which has been continued t

haddock ever since that miracle. Large haddock is to be in roe in the middle of November and continues so till the end of January; time till May they are very thin-tailed; season. In May they begin to recover; old sized fish are then very good, and improving till the time of their perfection small ones are extremely good from May to July, and some even in February, March, and April. Those which are not old enough to be taken by the fishermen assert; that in rough weather haddock sink down into the sand and ooze on the bottom of the sea, where they shelter themselves from storm is over; for in stormy weather haddock are taken, and those that are taken immediately after a storm have mud on their backs. They live on young herrings and other small fish in winter on the stone-coated worms, *SERPULA*, which the fishermen call *serpula*. The grand shoal of haddock comes on the Yorkshire coast. It is remarkable that it appeared in 1766, on the 10th of October and exactly on the same day in 1767: it extended from the shore near 3 miles and in length from Flamborough head to the castle, and perhaps much farther. An idea may be given of their number by the following fact: Three fishermen, with a crew of a mile from Scarborough hastily loaded their boat with them, taking each time about a ton of fish; put down their lines beyond the distance of five miles from the shore, they caught a great quantity of haddock, which shows how exactly they keep their limits. The best haddock is from 8d. to 1s. per score, the smaller haddock and even a halfpenny per score. Haddock quit the coast as soon as they are in season, and leave behind great quantities of fish. It is said that they visit the coast of Denmark and Jutland in summer. It is remarkable that providentially, that all kinds of fish (such as mackerel) which frequent the Yorkshire coast, approach the shore, and as they return they are in high season, and retire from the coast to become unfit for use. It is the same in the London markets. They do not come in a great bulk, one of 14 lb. being an average, but these are extremely coarse; weighing only from 2 to 3 lbs.

*GADUS LOTA*, the BURBOT, in its body resembles an eel, only shorter and different in its motions also resemble those of an eel. They are besides very smooth, slippery, and the head is very ugly, being flat, and that of a toad; the teeth are very numerous. On the end of the nose are small beards; on the chin another. The scales are some are dusky, others are of a yellowish spotted with black, and sometimes white; and the belly in some is white; but these are frequently concealed by the species abounds in the lake of Geneva, and is met with in the lakes Maggiore and in Britain it is found in the Trent; but plenty in the Witham, and the great Lincolnshire. It is a very delicate

ART I.

fish for the table, though of a disgusting appearance when alive. It is very voracious, and preys on the fry and lesser fish. It does not often take bait, but is generally caught in weels. The largest taken in our waters weigh between 2 and 3 lb. but abroad they are sometimes found of double that weight.

(5.) *GADUS MERLANGUS*, the WHITING, is a fish of an elegant make; the upper jaw is the longest; the eyes are large, the nose is sharp; the teeth of the upper jaw are long, and appear above the lower when closed. The colour of the head and back is a pale brown; the lateral line white, and crooked; the belly and sides are silvery, the last streaked lengthwise with yellow. These fish appear in vast shoals in spring, keeping at the distance of about half a mile to that of three from the shore. They are caught in vast numbers by the line, and afford excellent diversion. They are the most delicate, as well as the most wholesome, of any of the genus: but they do not grow to a large size, the biggest not exceeding 20 inches; and even that is very uncommon, the usual length being 10 or 12; though, it is said, that whittings from 4 to 8 lb. in weight have been taken in the deep water at the edge of the Dogger Bank.

(6.) *GADUS MERLUCCIUS*, the HAKE, is found in vast abundance on many of our coasts, and those of Ireland. There was formerly a vast stationary fishery of hake on the Nymph Bank off Waterford; immense quantities appearing there twice a-year; the first shoal coming in June, during the mackerel season; the other in Sept. at the beginning of the herring season, probably in pursuit of those fish; it was usual for six men with hooks and lines to take a 1000 hakes in one night, besides a considerable quantity of other fish. These were salted and sent to Spain, particularly to Bilboa. We know not the present state of this fishery; but Mr Smith, who wrote the history of the county of Waterford in 1746, complains of its decline. Many of the gregarious fish are subject to change their situations, and desert their haunts for numbers of years, and then return. Mr Smith instances the loss of the haddock on the Waterford shores, where they used to swarm; and the capriciousness of the herrings, which so frequently quit their stations, is well known. Sometimes the irregular migration of fish is owing to their being followed and harassed by an unusual number of fish of prey, such as the sharks; sometimes to deficiency of the smaller fish, which served them as food; and lastly, in many places to the custom of trawling, which not only destroys their spawn deposited in the sand, but also destroys or drives into deeper waters numberless worms and insects, the repast of many fish. The hake is in England esteemed a very coarse fish, and is seldom admitted to table either fresh or salted. When cured, it is known by the name of *Poor John*. These fish are from 1½ to near 3 feet long; they are of a slender make, of a pale ash colour on their backs, and of a dirty white on their bellies.

(7.) *GADUS MINUTUS*, the POOR, is the smallest species yet discovered, being little more than 6 inches long. On the chin is a small beard; the eyes are covered with a loose membrane; on each side of the gill-covers and jaws there are 9 pairs

tures. The colour on the back is a light brown; on the belly a dirty white. It is taken near Marfeilles, and sometimes in such quantities as to become a nuisance; for no other kinds of fish are taken during their season. It is esteemed good, but incapable of being salted or dried. Beion says; that when it is dried in the sun, it grows as hard as horn. We owe the discovery of this kind in our seas to the Rev. Mr Jago.

(8.) *GADUS MOLVA*, the *LING*, is usually from 3 to 4 feet long, but have been caught 7 feet long. The body is very slender; the head flat: the upper jaw is longest; the teeth in that jaw are small and very numerous; in the lower, few, slender, and sharp: on the chin is a small beard. They vary in colour, some being of an olive hue on the sides and back, others cinereous; the belly white. The ventral fins are white: the dorsal and anal edged with white. The tail is marked near the end with a transverse black bar, and tipped with white. Its English name *ling* is derived from its length, being a corruption of *long*. It abounds about the Scilly Isles, on the coasts of Scarborough, Scotland and Ireland, and forms a great branch of trade. It was considerable so long ago as the reign of Edward III. an act for regulating the price of lob, *ling*, and cod, being made in his 31st year. In the Yorkshire seas they are in perfection from the beginning of Feb. to that of May, and some to the end of it. In June they spawn, depositing their eggs in the soft oozy ground of the mouth of the Tees. At that time the males separate from the females, and resort to some rocky ground near Flamborough Head, where the fishermen take great numbers without ever finding any of the female fish among them. While a ling is in season its liver is very white, and abounds with a fine flavoured oil; but as soon as it goes out of season, the liver becomes as red as that of a bullock, and affords no oil. The same happens to the cod and other fish in a certain degree, but not so remarkably as in the ling. When in perfection, a very large quantity of oil may be melted out of the liver by a slow fire; but if a violent sudden heat be used for that purpose, they yield very little. The oil, which nature hoards up in the cellular membranes of the fishes, returns into their blood, and supports them in the engendering season, when they generate with so much eagerness as to neglect their food. Vast quantities of ling are salted for exportation as well as for home consumption. To be cut or split for curing, it must measure 26 inches or upwards from the shoulder to the tail. if less than that, it is not reckoned a sizeable fish, and consequently not entitled to the bounty on exportation; such are called *drizzles*, and are in season all summer.

(9.) *GADUS MORHUA*, the common cod, is *cicereous* on the back and sides, and commonly spotted with yellow: the belly is white; but they vary much, both in colour and shape, particularly that of the head. The side line is white, broad, & straight, till opposite the vent, when it bends in the tail. Codlings are often taken of a orange, and even red colour, while they are on the rocks; but on changing their colour to the colour of other codfish. The body is of equal length, and at the end of the

lower is a small beard; the teeth are in the palate as well as in the jaws. It is found only in the northern seas; being called *deletius* calls it, an *ocean fish*, and never in the Mediterranean Sea. It affects cold and secans confined between the latitude 50°; those caught N. and S. of that being either bad, or in small numbers. Greenland cod are small, and emaciated; very voracious, and suffering in those situations of provision. Most other species of fish inhabit the cold seas, or such as lie within that can just claim the title of *temperate*. *Islands*, called *cherny*, which, according to some, are better tasted than the land kind. The great rendezvous of cod fish is on the banks of Newfoundland and other sand-banks off the coasts of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New England. In those situations, on account of the woody and sandy bottoms; and their vicinity to the seas, where they span in full security of food forces them, as soon as the seas are open, to repair thither for subsistence taken N. of Iceland, but on the S. and they abound: they are again found by the coasts of Norway, in the Baltick, Orkney and Western Isles; after which numbers decrease, in proportion as they farther S. and they are never found in the straits of Gibraltar. Before the discovery of Newfoundland, the greater fisheries of the seas of Iceland, and off our Western Isles, which were the grand resort of ships of commercial nations; but the greatest met with near Iceland. The English thither before 1415: Henry V. was obliged to give the king of Denmark satisfaction for irregularities committed on those subjects. In the reign of Edward IV. the English were excluded from the fishery by treaty forbidden to resort there, under forfeitures and goods. Notwithstanding this, they afterwards allowed a ship of Hull to land, and there to relade fish and other goods, out regard to any former restrictions. The prohibition of the English in latter times was far confirmed: for Q. Elizabeth asked permission for fish in these seas from Christian IV. of Denmark; but afterwards she instructed her ambassador that court to insist on the right of a fishery. In the reign of James I. however, there were fewer than 150 ships employed in the fishery; which indulgence might arise from the king's marriage with princess Anne of Denmark; but the Spanish, the French, and the Dutch had greatly the advantage of the English fisheries at the beginning, as appears from that in the seas of Newfoundland in the number of ships belonging to each thus:—Spaniards, 120, besides 2000 came from Biscay to take whale for about 5, or 6,000 tons; Portuguese 150 tons; French and Bretons 150, or 200 tons; English, from 50 to 50. The increase of that now resort to those fertile banks of Britain enjoys the greatest share; which

treasures, as it brings wealth to individual strength to the state. See FISHERY, All this immense fishery is carried on by and line only. They fish from the depth 60 fathoms, according to the inequality of the bottom, which is represented as a vast mountain of water, above 500 miles long, and near the coast; and that seamen know when they approach by the great swell of the seas and the noise that impend over it. The bait is hermit fish called a *capelin*, a shell-fish called *bits* of sea fowl; and with these are sufficient to find employment for near 100,000 Irish seamen, and to afford subsistence to a more numerous body of people at home who are engaged in the various manufactures so vast a fishery demands. The food of the cod is either small fish, worms, testaceous animals, such as crabs, large whelks, &c. their digestion is so powerful as to digest the greatest part of the shells they swallow. They are very voracious, and catch at any small object they perceive moved by the water, even pebbles, which are often found in their stomachs.

The fishermen are well acquainted with the air bladder, or sound of the cod; and they are very dexterous in perforating this part of the fish with a needle, in order to disengage the air; for without this operation it could not rise under water in the well boats, and be brought to market. The sound of the cod is a delicacy often brought from New-England.

Ifinglass is also made of this part by the fishermen: a process which deserves the notice of the natives of the north of Scotland, where these fish are plentiful. See ICING. Providence has kindly ordained, that the cod fish, so useful to mankind, should be so prolific as to supply more than the deficiencies of multitudes annually taken. Leeuwenhoek estimated 9,384,000 eggs in a cod-fish of a size; a number, sure, that will baffles the efforts of man, or the voracity of the insects of the ocean, to exterminate, and which affords to all ages an inexhaustible supply of fish. In our seas they begin to spawn in the month of April, and deposit their eggs in rough and stony rocks. Some continue in roe till the month of April. They in general recover after spawning than any other fish; therefore common to take some good ones all the year. When out of season, they are thin and flabby; and the lice chiefly fix on the sides of their mouths. The fish of a middling size are esteemed, and are chosen by their customers for their size and roundness, especially near the tail; and the absence of the fucus or pit behind the head; and the regular undulated appearance of the sides, as if they were ribbed. The glutinous parts of the head lose their delicate flavour, after 24 hours out of the water, even when these and other fish of this genus are fresh. One mentioned by Mr Pennant as the largest that he ever heard of taken in Scotland, weighed 78 lb. the length was 5 feet, and the girth round the shoulders was taken at Scarborough in 1755, and was 12 inches. But the general weight of these

fish in the Yorkshire seas, he says, from 14 to 40 lib. This species is short in proportion to its bulk, the belly being very large and prominent.

(10.) *GADUS MUSTELA*, the FIVE-BEARDED COD, very much resembles the LOTA. (See N. 4.) The beards on the upper jaw are 4, viz. two at the very end of the nose, and two a little above them: on the end of the lower jaw is a single one. The fish are of a deep olive brown, their belly whitish. They grow to the same size as the lota. The Cornish fishermen are said to whistle, and cry *bod, bod, vean*, when taking this fish, as if by that they facilitated the capture. In the same manner the Sicilian fishermen repeat their *massu di pajanu*, &c. when they are in pursuit of the sword fish.

(11.) *GADUS POLLACHIUS*, the POLLACK, has the under jaw longer than the upper; the head and body rises pretty high, as far as the first dorsal fin. The side line is incurvated, rising towards the middle of the back, then sinking and running straight to the tail; it is broad and of a brown colour. The colour of the back is dusky, sometimes inclining to green: the sides beneath the lateral line are marked with lines of yellow; and the belly is white. This species is common on many of our rocky coasts: during summer they are seen in great shoals frolicking on the surface of the water, and flinging themselves into a thousand forms. They will then bite at any thing that appears on the top of the waves, and are often taken with a goose feather fixed to the hook. They are very strong, being observed to keep their station at the feet of the rocks in the most turbulent and rapid sea. They are good eating. They do not grow to a very large size; the biggest seldom exceed 6 or 7 lb. but some have been taken near Scarborough, during winter, that weighed near 28 pounds. They are there called *leets*.

(12.) *GADUS TORICUS*, the TORSK, *tuik*, or *brismack*, is a northern fish; and as yet not discovered lower than about the Orkneys, and even there it is rather scarce. In the seas about Shetland, it swarms, and forms (barrelled or dried) a considerable article of commerce. The length is about 20 inches, the greatest depth 4½, the head is small; the upper jaw a little longer than the lower; both jaws furnished with many small teeth; on the chin is a small single beard: from the head to the dorsal fin is a deep furrow. The colour of the head is dusky: the back and sides yellow; belly white; edges of the dorsal, anal, and caudal fins, white; the other parts dusky; the pectoral fins brown.

**GAEL**, a town of France in the dep. of Ille and Vilaine, 1 mile S. of St Maen, and 10 W. of Montfort.

(1.) **GÆLIC**, *adj.* belonging to the *Gaels*, *Celts*, or ancient Scots Highlanders.

(2.) **GÆLICK LANGUAGE**, the language of the ancient and modern Highlanders of Scotland. See HIGHLANDERS. It is esteemed the most ancient as well as the purest dialect of the Celtic, now spoken. It has all the marks of an original language. Most of its words are expressive of some property or quality in the objects which they denote. This, with the variety of its sounds, (many of which, especially those that express the soft and

affinity, are peculiar to it,) renders it highly adapted for poetry. It was the language of the Scottish Court, till the reign of Malcolm Canmore, and was even spoken so late as that of Robert Bruce, particularly in a parliament held by him at Ardchattan. Its alphabet consists of 18 letters, of which 5 are vowels. "Those who understand it, (says the rev. Dr James Robertson, of Callander,) know its energy and power; the ease with which it is compounded; the boldness of its figures; its majesty in addressing the Deity, and its tenderness in expressing the finest feelings of the human heart. But its genius and constitution, the structure of its nouns and verbs, and the affinity it has to some other languages are not so much attended to. These point at a very remote era, and seem to deduce its origin from a very high antiquity. The verbs have only 3 tenses, which is the simplest and most natural division of time. The persons of each tense are distinguished, by adding pronominal particles to each person. The 3d person singular of each verb has genders, or admits of a masculine and feminine particle affixed. The moods are the indicative, imperative and infinitive. The subjunctive differs from the indicative only by the addition of one syllable to the verb, and a conjunction before it. The imperative has only the second person in both numbers. The infinitive is often used as a substantive noun, expressive of the abstract signification of the verb. There is only one conjugation, and one declension. The cases of the nouns are marked by different particles, or by a change of the last vowel. The degrees of comparison are formed by placing certain syllables before the adjective; and the superlative frequently by a repetition of the positive." These and many other peculiarities of the Gaelic language are mentioned by Dr Robertson, and illustrated by numerous examples, in *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Account*, Vol. XI, p. 611—619: to which we must refer the reader who wishes for farther information respecting this ancient language; which, the Dr says, has "a very striking affinity to the Eastern languages."

**GAELS.** See **CELTES** and **HIGHLANDERS**.

**GAESBECK**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Brabant, 7 miles SW. of Brussels.

**GAETA**, an ancient, and strong town of Naples, in Lavoro, with a citadel, harbour, and bishop's see. It was taken by the Austrians in 1707, and by the Spaniards in 1734. It is seated at the foot of a mountain, on a peninsula, 30 miles NW. of Capua, and 40 of Naples. Lon. 13. 49. E. Lat. 41. 16. N.

**GATULI**, the people of **GATULIA**, were among the earliest inhabitants of Africa. They were distinguished by different epithets; as *Nigri*, *Autolotes*, *Dare*, and *Banture*. (*Pliny*.) They were a rough, unpolished roving people, living on venison and the spontaneous productions of the earth, and resting in the first places in which night overtook them. *Sallust*.

**GAZIA**, in ancient geography, a country lying S. of Mauritania, divided into *Wia*, and *Gatulia Veter*.

**GAZIAN**, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Carab. of Cogni.

(1.) \* **GAFF**, *n. f.* A harpoon *Ainsworth*.

(2.) **GAFF**, a sort of boom or bo used in small ships, to extend the mizen; and always employed purpose on those sails, whose foreen joined to the mast by hoops or lacin are usually extended by a boom bet the main-sails of all sloops, brigs, a

**GAFFAREL**, James, a learned born at Mantes in Provence, about quired great skill in the oriental lan the cabbalistic and occult sciences, posed and refuted. Card. Richeli his librarian, and sent him into Italy best books and MSS. He public called *Curiositez Inouies*, i. e. Unh fities. He died in 1681, aged 80. finished a history of the subterranean taining an account of the caves, gr catacombs, and mines, he had m years travels.

\* **GAFFER**, *n. f.* [*gefere*, compa word of respect now obsolete, or as contempt to a mean person.—

For *gaffer* Treadwell told us by Excessive sorrow is exceeding dry.

**GAFFENTZ**, a town of Germat city of Austria, 16 miles SSE. of St

\* **GAFFLES**, *n. f.* [*gafelucar*, sp Artificial spurs put upon cocks whe to fight. 2. A steel contrivance fo bows. *Ainsworth*.

\* **GAG**, *n. f.* [from the verb.] St into the mouth to hinder speech or

Some, when the kids their dan drain,

With *gags* and muzzles their fo strain.

—Your woman would have run up me; but I have secured her below w her chaps. *Dryden*.

\* **To GAG**, *v. n.* [from *gaghel*. D late, *Minbew*.] To stop the mouth thing that may allow to breathe, b speak.—He's out of his guard already; laugh and minister occasion to him, *Shak*.—

There foam'd rebellious logick, bound.

**GAGARAWAN BAY**, a bay on of St Vincents.

**GAGATES**, or **JET**. See **JET**.

(1.) \* **GAGE**, *n. f.* [*gage*, Fr.] 1. pawn; a caution; any thing given i

He, when the shamed shield of I He spy'd, with that same fairy chan He to him leapt; and that same er Of victor's glory from him snatch

There I throw my *gag* Disclaiming here the kindred of a I And lay aside my high bloods roya There is my *gage*, the manual I That marks thee out for hell.

They from their mothers breasts; I rend, Not without *gages* to the needy la





G A G E S.

Fig. 1  
Aqueo Mercurial Gage.



Fig. 3. Sea Gage.

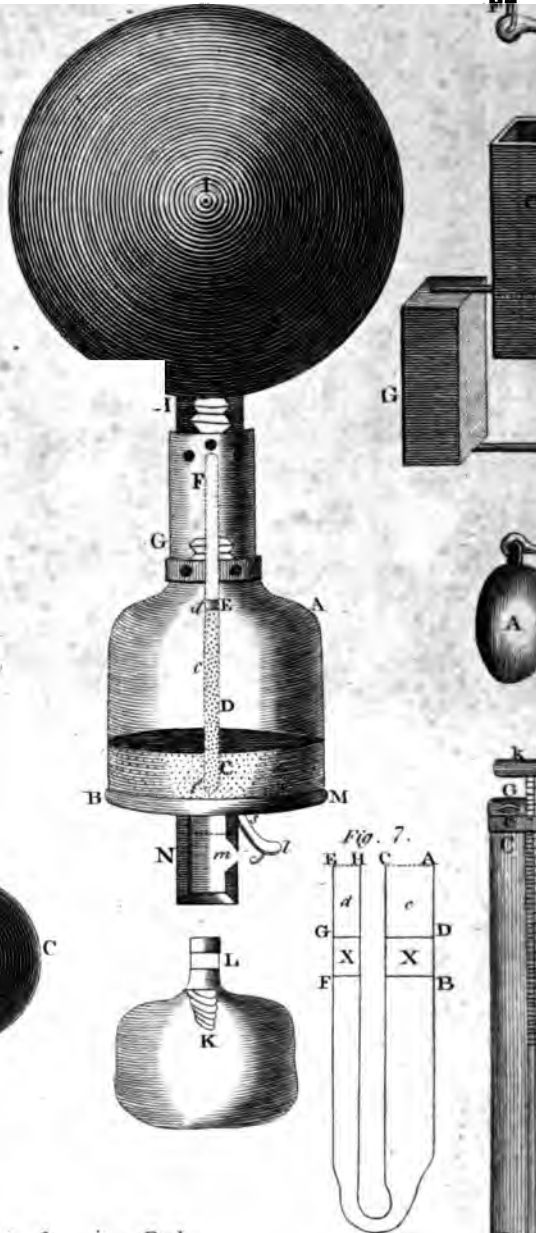


Fig. 2.  
Bucket



Fig. 4.



Fig. 6



Fig. 7.

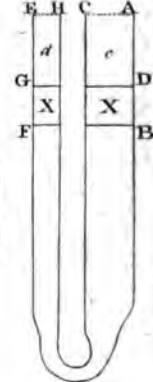
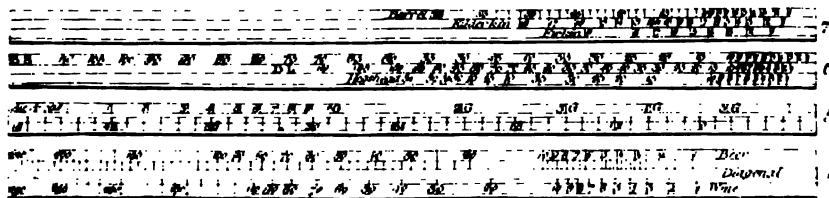


Fig. 8. Four-foot Gauging Rod.



And to be inserted in an Encyclop. Dictionnaire.



made the cautionary pledge,  
and hostage of your keeping it.  
See *Sauthern's Oration*.  
It was decreed, auspicious king,  
it's right that thou should'st wed the  
g, as a gage, would cast some previous  
before doom'd that Lawson should be  
Dyden.

truth, that gets not  
evidence or demon-  
at gain it assent are  
probability. *Locke*.  
A measure, a  
measuring.—

edges, as the weather dictates, right  
is at noon, and wrong at night,  
judges by a surer gage.

of's principles, or percentage. *Young*.  
is, in our ancient customs, (§ 1. *def. 1.*)  
perly used in speaking of moveables; for  
it, HYPOTHECA is used. If the gage  
person who received it is not to answer  
only for extreme negligence, &c.

is also used for a challenge to com-  
BATTEL, § 2. It was a pledge, which  
or challenger cast on the ground, and  
took up as accepting the challenge;  
by a glove, gauntlet, chaperon, or  
See BATTLE, § 2-4: and DUEL, §

or, among letter-founders, a piece of  
hard wood, variously notched: un-  
der the dimensions, slopes, &c. of the  
parts of letters. See FOUNDRY, § 3.

is, in joinery, an instrument made to  
be truly parallel to the straight side of  
a piece of stuff. Its chief use is for  
tenons true, to fit into mortises; and  
stuff of an equal thickness. It is made  
of a piece of wood, fitted upon a square  
to slide up and down stiffly thereon, and  
to, at the end of a staff, to score, to  
be upon the stuff at any distance, accord-  
ing to the distance of the oval from it.

is, in the sea language. When one  
is windward of another, she is said to  
gather gage of her. They likewise call  
it of feet that a vessel sinks in the wa-  
ter's gage; this they find by driving a  
pike near the end, and putting it down  
colder till the nail catch hold under it;  
the feet as the pike is under water is  
the gage.

is, AQUIS-MERCURIAL, an apparatus  
invented by Dr Hales, and applied in various  
branches of trees, to determine the  
quantity which they imbibe moisture. In *Plate*  
3. *Fig. 1.* is a cylindric glass, e. g. of an  
inch within, and 8 inches long. Into this  
is introduced the branch of a young thriving  
tree, about 3 feet long, with lateral bran-  
ches, the diameter of the transverse cut being  
about an inch. Having fitted the joint *r*  
at *r*, by folding a piece of sheep's skin  
over it, it is cemented with a mixture of  
red turpentine melted together, in such  
a manner as to make a very stiff clammy paste

when cold, and over the cement folds of wet blad-  
ders are bound firmly with pack-thread. To the  
lower end *e* of the large tube, a smaller tube *e e*  
is cemented, being about  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch diameter,  
and 18 inches long, and in substance full  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an  
inch thick. These tubes are cemented together at  
*e*, with common hard brick-dust, or powdered  
chalk cement, and the joint is farther secured with  
the cement of bees wax and turpentine, over which  
a wet bladder is bound. The apparatus being  
thus prepared, the branch is turned downwards,  
and the glass tube upwards, and then both tubes  
are filled with water; with the finger applied to  
the open end of the small tube, it is inverted and  
immersed in the glass cistern *x*, full of mercury  
and water. In this situation the lower end of the  
branch was immersed 6 inches in water, viz. from  
*r* to *i*; the water was imbibed by the branch at  
its transverse cut *s*; and during its ascent into the  
sap-vessels of the branch, the mercury rose in the  
tube *e e* from the cistern *x*, so that in half an  
hour it was risen  $5\frac{1}{2}$  inches high, as far as *z*.  
The height of the mercury indicated, in some  
measure, the force with which the sap was im-  
bibed, though not the whole force; because, while  
the water was imbibed by the branch, its trans-  
verse cut was covered with innumerable little he-  
mispheres of air, and many air-bubbles issued out  
of the sap vessels, which partly filled the tube *e e*,  
as the water was drawn out of it: and therefore  
the height of the mercury could only be propor-  
tionable to the excess of the quantity of water  
drawn off, above the quantity of the air which  
issued out of the wood. If the quantity of air is-  
suing from the wood had been equal to the quan-  
tity of water imbibed, it is plain that the mercury  
could not rise at all, because there would be no  
room for it in the tube: but if 9 parts in 12 of the  
water be imbibed by the branch, and only 3 such  
parts of air issue into the tube in the same time,  
the mercury must rise near 6 inches, and so pro-  
portionably in other cases. Dr Hales observed,  
that the mercury rose highest, in most cases, when  
the sun was clear and warm, and that it subsided  
3 or 4 inches towards evening, but rose again the  
next day as it grew warm, though seldom so high  
as at first. He adapted the size and shape of the  
glass apparatus to a great variety of branches of  
several sizes and of different kinds of trees, and re-  
peated the experiment above described, *mutatis*  
*mutandis*, in a variety of instances. See his *Vege-*  
*table Statics*, vol. i. chap. ii. p. 84, &c.

(3.) GAGE, BUCKET SEA, an instrument contri-  
ved by Dr Hales to find the different degrees of  
coolness and saltness of the sea, at different depths.  
It consists of a common household pale or bucket,  
with two heads; which have each a round hole in  
the middle, about 4 inches in diameter; covered  
with square valves opening upward; and that they  
may both open and shut together, there is a small  
iron rod fixed to the upper part of the lower valve,  
and the other end to the lower side of the upper  
valve. So that as the bucket descends with its  
sinking weight into the sea, both the valves may  
open by the force of the water, which thus has a  
free passage through the bucket. But when the  
bucket is drawn up, then both the valves shut by  
the force of the water at the upper part of the  
bucket

bucket; so that the bucket is drawn up full of the lowest sea water to which it has descended. When the bucket is drawn up, the mercurial thermometer fixed in it is examined; but great care must be taken to observe the degree at which the mercury stands, before the lower part of the thermometer is taken out of the water in the bucket, lest it be affected by the different temperature of the air. To keep the bucket in a right position, there are 4 cords fixed to it, reaching about 3 feet below it; to which the sinking weight is fixed. The result of several trials with this gage was, that when it was let down to different depths, from 360 feet to 5,346 feet, in lat. 25. 13. N. and lon. 25. 12. W. it was discovered by the thermometer, that the cold increased gradually in proportion to the depths, till it descended to 3,900 feet, viz. near three-fourths of a mile, whence the mercury in the thermometer came up at 53°; and though it afterwards sunk to 5,346 feet, i. e. a mile and 66 feet, it came up no lower; the warmth of the water upon the surface, and that of the air, was all that time 84°. When the water in the bucket was become of the same temperature with that on the surface of the sea, equal quantities of both were weighed and tried by the hydrometer; that from below was found to be the heaviest, and consequently the saltest. Dr Hales was probably led to the construction of this sea-gage from an instrument invented by Dr Hook, and designed for the same purpose. See *Plate CLX, fig. 2.* This consists of a square wooden bucket C, whose bottoms are so contrived, that as the weight A sinks the iron B, to which the bucket C is fastened by two handles D, D, on the end of which are the moveable bottoms or valves E E, and thereby draws down the bucket, the resistance of the water keeps up the bucket in the posture C, whereby the water, whilst the bucket is descending, hath a free passage through it; whereas, as soon as the bucket is pulled upwards by the line F, the resistance of the water to that motion beats the bucket downwards, and keeps it in the posture G, whereby the included water is kept from getting out, and the ambient water kept from getting in. *Phil. Transf. N° 9, p. 149. and N° 24, p. 447. or abr. vol. ii. p. 260*

(9.) GAGE, SEA, an instrument invented by Dr Hales and Dr Desaguliers for finding the depth of the sea; the description whereof is this: AB, *Plate CLXI, fig. 3,* is the gage-bottle, in which is cemented the gage-tube Ff in the brass cape at G. The upper end of the tube F is hermetically sealed, and the open lower end f is immersed in mercury, marked C, on which swims a small thickness or surface of treacle. On the top of the bottle is screwed a tube of brass HG, pierced with several holes to admit the water into the bottle AB. The body K is a weight hanging by its shank L, in a socket N, with a notch on one side at m, in which is fixed the catch / of the spring S, and, passing through the hole L, in the shank of the weight K, prevents its falling out when once hung on. On the top, in the upper part of the brass tube at H, is fixed a large empty ball, or full blown bladder J, which must not be so large, but that the weight K may be able to sink the whole under water. *The instrument thus constructed is used in the fol-*

lowing manner. The weight K being the gage is let fall into deep water, at the bottom: the socket N is somewhat than the shank L; and therefore, after K comes to the bottom, the gage will descend till the lower part of the socket gainst the weight; this gives liberty to fly out of the hole L, and let go the when this is done, the ball or bladder buoys up the gage to the top of the water the gage is under water, the water vacates the treacle and mercury in the by its pressure force it up into the tube the height to which it has been for greatest pressure, viz. that at the bottom shown by the mark in the tube which leaves behind it, and which is the only treacle. This shows into what space air in the tube Ff is compressed; and by the height or depth of the water weight produced that compression, nothing required. If the gage-tube Ff a scale might be drawn on it with the diamond, showing, by inspection, what water stands above the bottom. But of 10 inches is not sufficient for fathom at sea, since that, when all the air in the tube is compressed into half an inch of water is no more than 634 feet, which is half a quarter of a mile. If, to come make use of a tube 50 inches long, strength may be a musket-barrel, and air compressed into 100th part of h. then by saying, as 1 : 99 :: 400 : 39600 3300 feet; even this is but little more than a mile, or 2640 feet. But since it is supposed the cavities of the sea bear relation to the mountainous parts of the globe which are more than 3 miles above the surface; therefore, to explore such great depths, Doctor contrived a new form for his gage rather for the gage tube in it, as follows: *fig. 4.* is a hollow metalline globe covered on the top with a long tube AB, which is a 9th part of that globe. On the lower end D, it has also a short tube DE, to which mercury and treacle. The air contained in the compound gage-tube is compressed as before; but the degree of compression to which the treacle has been forced, can be seen through the tube; therefore, at that end, a slender rod of metal or wood with a knob on the top of the tube AB, will mark the treacle, and show it when it is forced up. If the tube AB be 50 inches long, and bore that every inch in length should contain an inch of air, and the contents of the globe together 500 cubic inches; then when compressed within 100th part of its original extent, the treacle will not approach more than 5 inches of the top of the tube, which is to the depth of 3300 feet of water as above; at this depth will compress the air into a space nearly, viz. 2½ inches, which contains 6600. which is a mile and a quarter. A tube of that space, or 1½ inch, will show the same depth, viz. 13200 feet, or 2½ miles probably very nearly the greatest depth

**GE, SLIDING**, a tool used by mathematic-makers for measuring and set-ances.

**GS, TIDE**, is the name of an instrument terming the height of the tides by M. course of a voyage towards the south in the Resolution and Adventure, in 1774, and 1775. This instrument consists tube, whose internal diameter was  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch, lashed fast to a ten-foot d into feet, inches, and quarters: this tied to a strong post fixed upright and water. At the lower end of the tube ceding small aperture, through which was admitted. In consequence of this n, the surface of the water in the tube affected by the agitation of the sea, ht was not altered one roth of an inch, well of the sea was 2 feet; and M. Bailly, that with this instrument he could difference of one roth of an inch in the he tide.

**GE, WIND**, an instrument for measuring f the wind upon any given surface. It ed by Dr Lind, who gives the follow- tion of it. *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxxv. See il, fig. 5. This instrument consists of tubes AB, CD, of 5 or 6 inches in length, s, which are so much the better for be- are about four roths of an inch in dia- etry are connected together like a siphon, bent glass tube *ab*, the bore of which e roth of an inch in diameter. On the e of the leg A B there is a tube of latten is is kneed, or bent perpendicularly and has its mouth open towards F. er leg CD, is a cover with a round hole pper part of it, two roths of an inch in

This cover and the kneed tube are together by a slip of brass *e d*, which ives strength to the whole instrument, rves to hold the scale III. The kneed cover are fixed on with hard cement, wax. To the same tube is sodered a rafs *e*, with a round hole in it to receive spindle KL; and at *f* there is just ano- of brass sodered to the brass hoop *gb*, rounds both legs of the instrument. small shoulder on the spindle at *f*, upon : instrument rests, and a small nut at *i*, it from being blown off the spindle by

The whole instrument is easily turned n the spindle by the wind, so as always nd of the spindle has a screw on it; by ay be screwed into the top of a post or ide on purpose. It has also a hole at L. small lever for screwing it into wood : readiness and facility. A thin plate of odered to the kneed tube, about half an e round hole G, so as to prevent fall- ing into it. There is likewise a crook- B, (fig. 6.) to be put occasionally upon of the kneed tube F, to prevent rain g blown into the mouth of the wind t it is left out all night, or exposed in f rain. The force or momentum of the be ascertained by this instrument, by

filling the tubes half full of water, and pushing the scale a little up or down, till the o of the scale, when the instrument is held up perpendicularly, be on a line with the surface of the water in both legs of the wind gage. The instrument being thus adjusted, hold it up perpendicularly, and turning the mouth of the kneed tube towards the wind, observe how much the water is depressed by it in the one leg, and raised in the other. The sum of the two is the height of a column of water which the wind is capable of sustaining at that time; and every body that is opposed to that wind will be pressed upon by a force equal to the weight of a column of water, having its base equal to the altitude of the column of water sustained by the wind in the wind gage. Hence the force of the wind upon any body, where the surface opposed to it is known, may be easily found; and a ready comparison may be made betwixt the strength of one gale of wind and that of another. The force of the wind may be likewise measured with this instrument, by filling it until the water runs out at the hole G. For if we then hold it up to the wind as before, a quantity of water will be blown out; and if both legs of the instrument are of the same bore, the height of the column sustained will be equal to double the column of water in either leg, or the sum of what is wanting in both legs. But if the legs are of unequal bores, neither of these will give the true height of the column of water which the wind sustained. But the true height may be obtained by the following formulae. Suppose that after a gale of wind which had blown the water from A to B, fig. 7, forcing it at the same time through the other tube out at L, the surface of the water should be found standing at some level DG, and it were required to know what was the height of the column EF or AB, which the wind sustained. In order to obtain this, it is only necessary to find the height of the columns DB or GF, which are constantly equal to one another; for either of these added to one of the equal columns AD, EG, will give the true height of the column of water which the wind sustained. I. Let the diameters AC, EH, of the tubes, be respectively represented by  $cd$ ; and let  $a=AD$ , or EG, and  $x=DB$ , or GF: Then it is evident, that the column DB is to the column EG, as  $c^2x$  to  $d^2a$ . But these columns are equal.

Therefore  $c^2x=d^2a$ ; and consequently  $x=\frac{d^2a}{c^2}$ .

II. But if at any instant of time whilst the wind was blowing, it was observed, that, when the water stood at E, the top of the tube out of which it is forced, it was depressed in the other to some given level BF, the altitude at which it would have stood in each, had it immediately subsided, may be found in the following manner: Let  $l=AB$  or EF.—Then it is evident that the column DB is equal to the difference of columns EF, GF. But the difference of these columns is as  $d^2b-a^2x$ ;

and consequently  $x=\frac{d^2b}{c^2+d^2}$ . For the cases when

the wind blows in at the narrow leg of the instrument: Let  $ab=EF=l$ ,  $ED$  or  $AD=a$ ,  $GF=$   
 $DB=x$ , and the diameters  $EH, GA$ , respectively

$\equiv d, c$ , as before. Then it is evident, that the column AD is to the column GF as  $ac^2$  to  $d^2x$ . But these columns are equal; therefore  $d^2x \equiv ac^2$ ; and

consequently  $x \equiv \frac{ac^2}{d^2}$ . It is also evident that the

column AD is equal to the difference of the columns AB, DB; but the difference of these columns is as  $bc^2 - c^2x$ . Therefore  $d^2x \equiv bc^2 - c^2x$ .

Whence we get  $x \equiv \frac{bc^2}{d^2 + c^2}$ . The use of the small

tube of communication  $a b$ , fig. 5, is to check the undulation of the water, so that the height of it may be read off from the scale with ease and certainty. But it is particularly designed to prevent the water from being thrown up to a much greater or less altitude, than the true height of the column which the wind is able at that time to sustain, from its receiving a sudden impulse whilst it is vibrating either in its ascent or descent. As in some cases the water in this instrument might be liable to freeze, and thus break the tubes, Dr Lind recommends a saturated solution of sea salt to be used instead of it, which does not freeze till Fahrenheit's thermometer falls to 0.

(1.) \* To GAGE. *v. a.* [*gager*, French.] 1. To wager; to depon as a wager; to impawn; to give as a caution, pledge, or security.—

A moiety competent

Was gaged by our king, *Shak Hamlet*.—He found the Turkish merchants making merr'y: unto these merchants he gave due salutations, gaging his faith for their safety, and they likewise to him. *Knolles's History*. 2. To bind by some caution or surety; to engage.—

My chief care

Is to come fairly off from the great debts  
Wherein my time, something too prodigal,  
Hath left me gaged. *Shakespeare*.

3. To measure; to take the contents of any vessel of liquids particularly. More properly *gauge*. See GAUGE.—

We shall see your bearing.

—Nay, but I bar to-night: you shall not gage me  
By what we do to night. *Shak. Merch. of Venice*.

(2.) To GAGE, in law. See to WAGE.

GAGE BOTTLE. See GAGE, N<sup>o</sup> 9.

GAGES, a town of France in the dept. of Aveyron, 6 miles NE. of Rhodéz.

GAGE TOWN, a town of New Brunswick, 30 miles SE. of Fredericktown.

GAGE-TUBE. See GAGE, N<sup>o</sup> 9.

\* To GAGGLE. *v. n.* [*gagen, gagelen*, Dutch.] To make a noise like a goose.—Birds prune their feathers, geese gaggle, and crows seem to call upon rain; which is but the comfort they receive in the relenting of the air. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

May fat geese gaggle with melodious voice,  
And ne'er want gooseberries or apple-sauce. *King*.  
GAGNANO, a town of Naples in the prov. of Capitanata, 17 miles E. of Lefina.

GAGNER, a town of Sweden, in Dalecarlia.

GAGNIER, John, M. A. a learned Orientalist, born at Paris, in the 17th century. He was bred a Roman catholic, but joined the church of England, and received the degree of M. A. from *unbridge and Oxford*. In 1706, he published

Joseph Ben Gorion's History of the brew; 4to. and, in 1723, Abulfeda's homet, in Arabic; folio: Ox. both with Latin translations and notes. He f Wallis, as professor of Arabic; and esteemed; as a judicious critic, and a erudition. He died in 1725.

(1.) GAGO, a fertile kingdom of Negroland, abounding in corn and g

(2.) GAGO, the capital of the abc Lon. 19. 40. E. of Ferro. Lat. 10. 0.

GAGUEDI. See ETHIOPIA, § 1

GAGUIN, Robert, L. L. D. a Fran an, born at Colines, near Amiens, 2 at Paris. Charles VIII, and Lewis 1 ed him in embassies to England, Germ ly. His chief work is *De Gestis Fran Pharamond* to A. D. 1500; fol. L He died in 1501.

GAGUL, a river of Turkey, whi the Danube, 8 miles E. of Reni, in l

GAHNIA, in botany: a genus of nia order, belonging to the hexan plants. The calyx is an involucre of flowers; the corolla is two-valved; t capillary and very short filaments; linear, sharp-pointed at the apex, an the corolla; there is no pericarpium single and oblong.

GAIA, or } a town of the Cisalpi

GAJA, } in the dept. of Panar

vant Modenese; 20 miles S. of Modi

GAIDRONISA, an island near th

Candia. Lon. 43. 31. E. of Ferro. L

GAIETA. See GARTA.

\* GAIIETY. See GAIETY.

GAILDORF, or } a town of Gert

GAILENDORF, } bia; 5 miles S.

38 WSW. of Anspach.

(1.) GAILLAC, a town of France of Aveyron, 7 miles NW. of Severac

(2.) GAILLAC, a town of France of Tarn, seated on the Tarn. It has: and its wine is much esteemed. It NNW. of Castres, and 27 NE. of To

2. 5. E. Lat. 43. 54. N.

(3.) GAILLAC TOULZA, a town c the dep. of Up. Garonne, 21 miles S.

GAILLEFONTAINE, a town c the dep. of Lower Seine, 9 m. SE. of

GAILLON, a town of France, in Eure, and ci devant prov. of Norm SE. of Louviers, 9 NW. of Vernon, : en, and 1½ from the Seine.

GAILOVSKOI, a fort of Russia, c

\* GAILY. *adv.* [from *gay*.] 1. A fully. 2. Splendidly. See GAILY.

GAIMERSHEIM, a town of Bav NW. of Ingolstadt, and 9 ENE. of

(1.) \* GAIN. *n. f.* [*gain*, French advantage: contrary to *loss*.—But were *gain* to me, those I counted lo

*Phil.* iii. 7.—Besides the purpose it teach how victory should be used, thereof communicated to the general

*leighb's Essays*—

Haveock and spoil, and ruin are n —It is in praise of men as in getting

ains make heavy purses; for light gains  
:k, whereas great come but now and  
ron's *Essays*.—This must be made by  
error upon his own private account,  
great stock that he is content to turn  
and is invited by the gains. *Temple*.—  
ute the gains of his ungovern'd zeal,  
his cloth the praise of railing well. *Dryd.*  
ights for kings or dives for gain. *Pope*.  
; lacrative views.—

fir, which serves for gain;  
lows but for form,  
pack, when it begins to rains  
ve thee in the storm. *Shak. King Lear*.  
at advantage.—Did I make a gain of you  
them whom I sent unto you? *2 Cor. xii.*

de, if envy, if the lust of gain,  
ambition in thy bosom reign,  
boast'st, alas! thy sober sense in vain:

*Fitzgerald.*  
as is a comparative computation; any  
used to lose.

IN, (*g* 1. *def.* 1.) is derived by some from  
in *gewin*. There are legal and reputable  
reil as sordid and infamous ones. What  
eyond a certain sum, by gaming, is all  
e restored again, if the loser will take  
of the law.

IN, in architecture, is the workmen's  
the bevelling shoulder of a joist or other  
t is used also for the lapping of the end  
&c. upon a trimmer or girder; and  
hickness of the shoulder is cut into the  
also bevelling upwards, that it may just  
: gain; and so the joist and trimmer lie  
level with the surface. This way of  
used in floors and hearths.

GAIN. *adj.* [An old word now out of  
y; ready; dexterous. *Presface to the*

o GAIN. 1. *a.* [*gagner*, French.] 1. To  
profit or advantage.—Egypt became a  
u d by the muddy and lincous matter  
own by the Niuus, which settled by de-  
a firm land. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—

te gains, to live as Man,  
degree of life,  
reinforcement we may gain from hope.

; not to lose.—  
er once he lost, and gain'd a king. *Milt.*  
e the overplus in comparative computa-  
rou have two vessels to fill, and you  
to fill the other, you gain nothing by  
*rt's Theory*. 4. To obtain; to procure;

—  
acceptance found, which gain'd  
ver from the gracious voice divine. *Milt.*  
t fi le some small reflection gains  
r'ring air, less vex'd with tempest loud.

*Milton.*  
tradition were endeavoured to be set  
s not easy to imagine how it should at  
tainment; but much more difficult  
how ever it should come to be uni-  
pagated. *Tillotson's Sermons*.—

ne with toil we gain, but lose with ease,  
*PART I.*

Sure some to vex, but never all to please. *Pope*.  
5. To obtain increale of any thing allotted—I know  
that ye would gain the time, because ye see the  
thing is gone from me. *Dan. ii. 8.* 6. To obtain  
whatever, good or bad.—Yeshou! I not have loosed  
from Crete, and to have gain'd this harm and loss.  
*Acts, xxvii. 21.* 7. To win against opposition.—  
They who were sent to the other part, after a  
short resistance gain'd it. *Clarendon*.—

Pat fees from the defended Unbrian draws,  
And only gains the wealthy client's caule.  
*Dryden's Persius*.

O love! for Sylvia let me gain the prize,  
And make my tongue victorious as her eyes. *Pope*.  
8. To draw into any interest or party.—

Come, with presents, laden from the port,  
To gratify the queen and gain the court. *Virg.*  
If Pyrrhus must be wrought to pity,  
No woman does it better than yourself:

If you gain him, I shall comply of course. *Phil.*  
9. To obtain as a wooer.—

He never shall find out fit mate, but such  
As some misfortune brings him, or mistake,  
Or whom he wishes most shall seldom gain  
Through her perverse, but shall see her gain'd  
By a far worse. *Milton.*

to To reach; to attain.—  
The West still glimmers with some streaks of  
day:

Now spurs the lated traveller apace,  
To gain the timely inn. *Shak. Macbeth*.

Death was the post, which I almost did gain:  
Shall I once more be tost into the main? *Waller*.  
Sun! sound his praise

In thy eternal course, both when thou climb'st,  
And when high noon hast gain'd, and when thou  
fall'st. *Milton*.

—We came to the roots of the mountain, and  
had a very troublesome march to gain the top of  
it. *Addison on Italy*.—

Thus sav'd from death, they gain the Phestan  
shores,

With shatter'd vessels and disabled oars. *Odyss.*

11. To GAIN over. To draw to another party or  
interest.—The court of Hanover should have en-  
deavoured to gain over those who were represent-  
ed as their enemies. *Swift*.

(2.) \* To GAIN. *v. n.* 1. To grow rich; to have  
advantage; to be advanced in interest or happi-  
ness.—Thou hast taken usury and increase, and  
thou hast greedily gained of thy neighbours by ex-  
tortions. *Isak. xxii. 12.* 2. To encroach; to come  
forward by degrees: with *on*.—

When watchful herons leave their watry stand,  
And mounting upward with erected flight,  
Gain on the skies, and soar above the fight.

*Dryden's Virgil.*  
So on the land, while here the ocean gains,  
In other parts it leaves wide sandy plains. *Pope*.

3. To get ground; to prevail against: with *on*.—  
The English have not only gained upon the Vene-  
tians in the Levant, but have their cloth in Venice  
itself. *Addison*. 4. To obtain influence with: with  
*on*.—My good behaviour had gained so far on the  
emperor, that I began to conceive hopes of liber-  
ty. *Swift*.

(4.) To GAIN THE WIND, in sea language, is  
to arrive on the weather side or to windward of  
some

some other vessel in sight, when both are plying to windward, or sailing as near the wind as possible.

(1.) GAINAGE, GAINAGIUM, in ancient writers, signifies the draught oxen, horses, wain, plough, and furniture, for carrying on the work of tillage by the yokemen and villains. Gainage is the same with WAINAGE. Bracton, lib. 1. cap. 9. speaking of lords and servants, says, *Ut si eos destruant, quod solum non possit eis esse wainagium suum.* And again, lib. iii. tract. 2. cap. 1. *Filii non amerciantur, nisi salvo wainagio suo.* For anciently, as it appears both by Magna Charta and other books, the villain, when amerced, had his gainage free, that his plough might not stand still: and the law, for the same reason, still allows a like privilege to the husbandman, that is, his draught horses are not in many cases distrainable.

(2.) GAINAGE is also used for the land itself, or the profit raised by cultivating it.

GAINBATESA, a town of Naples, in the county of Molise, 18 miles ESE. of Molise.

\* GAINER. *n. f.* [from *gain.*] One who receives profit or advantage.—The client, besides retaining a clear conscience, is always a *gainer*, and by no means can be at any loss, as seeing, if the composition be overhard, he may relieve himself by recourse to his oath. *Bacon's Off. of Alienation.*—

If what I get in empire

I lose in fame, I think myself no *gainer.* *Denb.*—He that loses any thing, and gets wisdom by it, is a *gainer* by the loss. *L'Esrange.*—By trade, we are as great *gainers* by the commodities of other countries as of our own nation. *Addison's Freeholder.*

GAINFARHN, a town of Austria, one mile SSW. of Baden.]

\* GAINFUL. *adj.* [*gain* and *ful*.] 1. Advantageous; profitable.—He will dazzle his eyes, and bait him in with the luscious proposal of some *gainful* purchase, some rich match, or advantageous project. *Soub.* 2. Lucrative; productive of money.—

Nor knows he merchants *gainful* care. *Dryd.*  
 Maro's muse commodious precepts gives,  
 Instructive to the swains, nor wholly bent  
 On what is *gainful*: sometimes she diverts  
 From solid counsels. *Philips.*

\* GAINFULLY. *adv.* [from *gainful.*] Profitably; advantageously.

\* GAINFULNESS. *n. f.* [from *gainful.*] Profit; advantage.

\* GAINGIVING. *n. f.* [*gainst* and *give.*] The same as *misgiving*; a giving against: as *gainfaying*, which is still in use, is saying against, or contradicting. *Hanmer.*—It is but foolery; but it is such a kind of *gaingiving*, as would perhaps trouble a woman. *Shak. Ham.*

\* GAINLESS. *adj.* [from *gain.*] Unprofitable; producing no advantage

\* GAINLESSNESS. *n. f.* [from *gainless.*] Unprofitableness; want of advantage.—The parallel holds too in the *gainlessness* as well as laboriousness of the work: miners, buried in earth and darkness, were never the richer for all the ore they *digged*; no more is the insatiable miser. *Decay of Piety.*

\* GAINLY. *adv.* [from *gain.*] dily; dexterously. Out of use.

\* To GAINSAY. *v. a.* [*gainst*] To contradict; to oppose; to con- to dispute against.—Speeches, which another, must of necessity be applied one and the same subject. *Hooker.*—  
 Too facile then, thou didst not  
 Nay, didst permit, approve, and

z. To deny any thing.—

I never heard yet

That any of those bolder vices w  
 Less impudence to *gain/say* what  
 Than to perform it first. *Shak.*

\* GAINSAYER. *n. f.* [from *gain* ment; adversary.—Such as may sati when suddenly, and besides expects quire the same at our hands. *Hook* for this cause, challenged as manifest Scripture, even in that which we r ture unto the people. *Hooker.*—It v of conviction to all *gain/sayers.* *Hann* fought themselves a name by being but failed of their purpose. *Fell.*

(1.) GAINSBOROUGH, a town shire, 150 miles from London, seated near the sea. It is a large well built has a pretty good trade. The north neighbourhood is noted for horse Danes, when they invaded the king their ships to this place; and their king was murdered. See EN 18. It lies 12 miles NW. of Lincoln W. Lat. 53. 27. W.

(2.) GAINSBOROUGH, Thomas English painter of landscapes and p at Sudbury, in Suffolk, in 1727. self taught, he united the brilliant with the simplicity of Rydrael. T was equally distinguished for his virt impoverished himself by his genero the needy. He died in 1788.

\* 'GAINST. *prep.* [for *against.*] ! Tremble, ye nations! who, se Laugh'd at those arms, that 'gain bore.

\* To GAINSTAND. *v. a.* [*ga* To withstand; to oppose; to resist word, but not in use.—Love prove ant, that durst with the sword of i *gainstand* the force of so many en *Sidney.*

OAJO, a village of Maritime A Dogado of Venice.

\* GAIRISH. *adj.* [*gerrian*, to d 1. Gaudy; showy; splendid; fr four will outrage in apparel, hug strous hats, and *gairish* colours. *A*

I call'd thee then poor shadow |  
 The presentation of but what I w  
 A mother, only mock'd of two f  
 A dream of what thou was't, a g  
 To be the aim of every dangerou  
 There in close covert by some |  
 Where no profaner eye may look  
 Hide me from day's *gairish* eye.

magantly gay; flighty.—Fame and glory a man out of himself: it makes the mind gairish, scatters the spirits, and leaves a dissolution upon all the faculties. *Soub.*  
**RISHNESS.** *n. f.* [from *gairish*.] 1. Fine-tling gaudiness. 2. Flighty or extravagant. —Let your hope be without vanity, or of spirit, but sober, grave, and silent.

**ARLOCH.** [Gael. *i. e.* a short lake.] a Scotland, in Ross-shire, 32 miles long, and, consisting chiefly of hills and moorlands, afford good pasture, but the arable part of small extent, and consequently the corn and potatoes do not supply the necessaries 8 months in the year. The coast affords safe harbours, and is famous for its cod fisheries. Sir Hector M'Kenzie the 2d, sends to market annually from 30, to 40, exclusive of the quantity consumed at home. The population in 1792, stated by Sir Dan. M'Intosh, in his report to Sir J. was 2100, and had increased 150, in 1800. Two persons died lately aged 100 each.

**ARLOCH,** a small lake in the above parish, to which it gives name, so close by the sea that the sea covers it at high tides.

**ARLOCH BAY,** a bay on the W. coast of Ross-shire, famous for its fishery of cod, &c. It is one of the Orkney Islands.

**ERN,** a town of Germany, in Stiria. *G. n. f.* [*gat*, Dutch.] 1. A way; as, *gait*.—

God youth, address thy *gait* unto her; her loved knees; stand at her door. *Sbak.*  
 ; walk.—

Thought regarding, they kept on their *gait*, her vain allurements did forsake. *F. 2.*  
 art so lean and meagre waxen late,  
 hence thy legs uphold thy feeble *gait*.

*Hubberd's Tale.*  
 inner and air of walking.—  
 Juno comes; I know her by her *gait*.

*Sbak.*  
 in his person, in his aspect, the appearance of a great man, which he preserved in his old age. *Clare.*—

A third, who, by his *gait* and demeanour, seems the prince of hell.

*Milton.*  
 Leviathans  
 wing, unwieldy, enormous in their *gait*.

*Milton.*  
 I describ'd his way,  
 on speed, and mark'd his airy *gait*.

**OR GALA WATER,** a river of Scotland, in the county of Dumfries, which runs into the Tweed, about 2 miles above Melrose.

**TITES,** in natural history, a substance resembling FRENCH CHALK, in many respects different from it in colour. The ancient Egyptians used it in medicine as an astringent, and for the cure of ulcers of the eyes. At present it is little regarded, being esteemed inferior to MOROCHTHUS.

**GALACTOPHAGI,** and } [from *γαλακτοφάγοι*, *galactophagoi*, milk; *φαγω*, I eat; and *πρω*, I drink.] in antiquity, persons who lived wholly on milk, without corn or any other food. Certain nations in Scythia Asiatica, as the Getz, Nomades, &c. are famous in ancient history, as *galactophagi*. Homer makes their eulogy, *Iliad*, lib. iii. Ptolemy, in his geography, places the Galactophagi between the Rhiphæan mountains on one side, and the Hircanian sea on the other.

**GALACZ,** GALASI, or GALATZ, a town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, near the Danube, 54 miles W. of Ismael, and 20 SSW. of Bender; between the Pruth and the Seret.

\* **GALAGE.** *n. f.* A shepherd's clog. Not in use.—  
 My heart's blood is nigh frome, I feel;  
 And my *galage* grown fast to my heel. *Spenser.*

**GALAM,** a fort of Africa, on the Senegal, built by the French, but ceded to Britain in 1763, it was taken by the French during the American war, and again ceded to Britain in 1783.

**GALAN,** a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Pyrennees, 15 miles E. of Tarbes.

(1.) \* **GALANGAL.** *n. f.* [*galange*, French.] A medicinal root. The lesser *galangal* is in pieces, about an inch or two long, about the thickness of a man's little finger; of a brownish red colour, hot and pungent. The larger *galangal* is in pieces, about two inches or more in length; and an inch in thickness; its colour is brown, with a faint cast of red in it: it has a disagreeable but much less acrid and pungent taste. *Hill.*

(2.) **GALANGAL.** See KEMPFERIA, N° 1.

**GALANTHUS,** the SNOW-DROP, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the hexandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 19th order, *Spatheaceæ*. There are 3 concave petals; and the nectarium consists of 3 emarginated petals; the stigma is simple. There is but one species, viz. the

**GALANTHUS NIVALIS,** a bulbous rooted flowery perennial, rising but a few inches in height, and adorned at top with small tripetalous flowers of a white colour. There are 3 varieties, viz. the common single-flowered snow-drop, the semi-double snow-drop, and the double snow-drop. They are beautiful little plants; and are much valued on account of their early appearance, often adorning the gardens in January or February, when scarce any other flower is to be seen. They frequently burst forth when the ground is covered with snow, and continue very often till the beginning of March, making a very ornamental appearance, especially when disposed in clusters towards the fronts of the borders, &c. The single kind comes first into bloom, then the semi-double, and after that the double. They succeed in any soil, and multiply exceedingly by offsets from the roots.

**GALARED,** a town of Sweden, in Blekingen.  
**GALARGUES,** or } a town of France, in the  
**GALARQUES,** } dep. of Gard, 6 miles SE. of Sommieres.

**GALARS,** a town of Transylvania, 16 miles SE. of Hunyad.

(1.) **GALASHIELS,** a parish of Scotland, in the

the counties of Roxburgh and Selkirk, of an irregular triangular form, about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  miles broad, seated on the Tweed, which divides it into two parts, and separates the counties. The surface is hilly and affords good pasturage. The climate is dry and healthy. The soil, S. of the Tweed, is deep, heavy, cold and wet; but on the N. dry, shallow, and remarkably full of small stones; which, nevertheless, it has been found dangerous to remove, as they reflect heat, retain moisture, and thus contribute to the production of most luxuriant crops. The parish contains 3000 acres, of which 1500 are arable, 6000 in pasture, 200 under wood, and 200 in moor, lakes, banks of rivers, &c. Oats, barley, wheat, peas, clover, and potatoes, are raised. The population in 1791, stated by the rev. Mr Douglas, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 914, and had decreased 84, since 1755. The number of sheep was about 5000.

(2.) GALASHIELS, a small town in the above parish, containing 581 inhabitants in 1791. It has a considerable manufacture of coarse woollen cloth; 43 looms being employed, and 52,000 yards made annually. Tanning, carpentry, and other branches are also carried on. It has 5 fairs, in March, July, Sept. Oct. and Nov. It is seated at the conflux of the Gala and Tweed, 25 m. S. by E. of Edinburgh, and 5 N. of Selkirk.

GALASI. See GALACZ.

GALASO, a town of Naples in Otranto.

(1.) GALATA, a great suburb of Constantinople, opposite to the seraglio, on the other side of the harbour, where the Greeks, Armenians, Franks, Christians, and Jews inhabit, and are allowed the exercise of their respective worships.

(2.) GALATA, an island near the coast of Tunis. Lon. 9. 30. E. Lat. 38. 15. N.

GALATÆ, the inhabitants of GALATIA.

GALATÆA, or Γ in mythology, a sea nymph, GALATHÆA, } daughter of Nereus and Doris. She was beloved by the Cyclops Polyphemus, whom she treated with disdain; while Acis, a shepherd of Sicily, enjoyed her affection. The Cyclops killed his rival with a piece of a rock while he reposed on the bosom of Galatæa. The nymph, inconsolable for the loss of Acis, as she could not restore him to life, changed him into a fountain.

GALATEO, a town of Naples in Calabria Ultra, 8 miles ESE. of Nicotera.

GALATI, a town of Sicily, in the valley of Demona, 12 miles SW. of Pati.

GALATIA, the ancient name of a province of Asia Minor, now called AMASIA: It was bounded on the E. by Cappadocia, on the S. by Pamphilia, on the N. by the Euxine sea, and on the W. by Bithynia. It was the N. part of Phrygia Magna; but upon being occupied by the Gauls, was called *Galatia*; and because situated amidst Greek colonies, and its natives mixed with Greeks, GALLOGRÆCIA. Strabo calls it *Galatia*, and *Gallogræcia*; hence a twofold name of the people, GALATIÆ and GALLOGRÆCI. The Greeks called it GALLIA PARVA, to distinguish it from GALLIA TRANSALPINA, both which they called *Galatia*: It was reduced by the Romans under Augustus, and now belongs to the Turks. Here St Paul founded a church. See GALATIANS, § 2.

(1.) GALATIANS, the people of GALATIA.

(2.) GALATIANS, EPISTLE TO THE, a cal book of the New Testament, written by the apostle Paul to the primitive Christians in Asia, to reclaim them from the observations and ordinances, into which they had been seduced by the Judaizing teachers.

GALATOLA, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto, 4 miles ESE. of Nardo.

GALATON, a village of Fifeshire, in the parish of Dyfart, containing 431 inhabitants in 1791. Its population had increased 227 since 1756. Lining and nail making are the chief trades.

GALATZ. See GALACZ.

GALAX, in botany: A genus of the pentandria order, belonging to the pentandria plants; and in the natural method rank those of which the order is doubtful. The leaf is salver-shaped; the calyx decapetalous, capsular, unilocular, bivalved, and elastic.

GALAXIA, in botany: a genus of the pentandria order, belonging to the Monadelphic plants.

(1.) \* GALAXY. n. f. [γαλαξίς; galaxias] The milky way; a stream of light in the sky.

A broad and ample road, whose dust  
And pavement stars, as stars to thee;  
Seen in the galaxy. Milton's Paradise Lost.

A brown, for which heaven would  
The galaxy, and stars be tann'd. Cowley's Essay on Criticism.

Several lights will not be seen,  
If there be nothing else between;  
Men doubt, because they stand so thick  
If those be stars that paint the galaxy.

—We dare not undertake to shew what  
is brought to us by those innumerable  
ft galaxy. Bentley.

(2.) The GALAXY, is that long white track, which seems to encompass the heavens, and is easily perceivable in a clear sky, especially when the moon does not shine. It is called in Greek γαλαξίας, of γάλα, γαλαξίς, Milk, and in Latin *via lactea*, the milky way, on account of its colour and appearance. And there are many fables about the spilling of Juno's milk as the cause of its whiteness. It passes between Sagittarius and Gemini, and divides the sky into two parts; it is unequally broad; in some places single, in others double. The ancient philosophers, speak of the Galaxy as a stream of vapours, drawn into that part by certain stars disposed in the region of the heavens; and that it is the same fixed stars, and that it is the height of the highest planets, set Aristotle's opinion; placed the Galaxy in the region of the fixed stars, and concluded nothing but an assemblage of an infinity of minute stars. Since the invention of the telescope, this opinion has been abundantly confirmed. By directing a good telescope to any part of the milky way, where before we only saw a whitened stream, we now discern an innumerable multitude of little stars, so remote, that they confound them. (See ASTRONOMY, B)



Monnier still disputes this opinion, and the whiteness to be occasioned by some kind of matter. See his *Inst. Astr.* p. 60.

**GA.** Serrius Sulpicius, emperor of Rome, 7th of the Cæsars, born the 24th Dec. 5. He was gradually raised to the highest of the state, and exercised his power in the most with the greatest equity. He dedicated his time to solitary pursuits, to avoid the example of Nero. Expressing his disapprobation of the emperor's oppression in the provinces, he caused him to be put to death; but he himself was the executioner, and was publicly sacrificed. When seated on the throne, he allowed himself to be governed by favourites, who oppressed the citizens. Exemptions were sold at a price; and impunity even for murder was granted with money. Such irregularities grieved the people; and Galba refusing to supply the money he had promised them, banished him in the 73d year of his age, the 6th month of his reign. The virtues which made Galba so bright in Galba, when a private man, disappeared when he ascended the throne; who had showed himself the most impartial, forgot his duty when emperor.

**GALLY,** a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

**GALBANUM.** *n. f.* We meet with it sometimes in loose granules, called drops of Galbanum, which is the purest, and sometimes in pieces. It is soft, like wax, and ductile between the fingers; of a yellowish or reddish colour; its smell is strong and disagreeable. It is of a nature between a gum and a resin, being as hard as a resin, and soluble in water as a gum, but not dissolve in oil as pure resins do. It is the produce of an umbelliferous plant. *Hill's Medic.*—I yielded indeed a pleasant odour, best myrrh; as *galbanum. Ecclef. xxiv. 15.*

**GALBANUM** issues from the stem of an erous plant, growing in Persia and many parts of Africa. See **BUBON**, § 1, 2. The juice is thick, viscid, soft, tenacious; of a strong smell, and a warm taste; the better sort is in small masses, composed of clear white particles. Geoffroy relates, that a dark greenish oil obtained from this by distillation, which, after repeated rectifications, becomes of an elegant blue colour. The purer sorts of galbanum, said by some to dissolve entirely in wine, or water; but these liquors are only parastrua with regard to this drug; nor do wine or oils prove more effectual in this respect. The best solvent is a mixture of two parts of wine and one of water. Galbanum a virtue with gum ammoniac, but is gene- rally counted less efficacious in asthma, and in hysterical complaints. It is an ingredi- ent in gum pills, the gum plaster, and some medicinal compositions.

**BIATE,** a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Montagna, and late county of Coteda on the W. bank of lake Como, opposite to Brugg.

**BRUNN,** a town of Germany, in Austria, in the NW. of Brugg.

**DER,** a town in the Isle of Canary.

**GALE,** Dr John, an eminent minister a-

mong the Baptists, born at London in 1686. He studied at Leyden, and afterwards at Amsterdam, under Dr Limborch. He was chosen minister of the Baptist congregation at Barbican; where his preaching, being chiefly practical, was greatly re- spected by people of all persuasions. He died in 1721. Four volumes of his sermons were published after his death. His *Reflections on Dr Wall's History of Infant Baptism* is the best defence of the Baptists ever published, and the reading of that performance induced the learned Mr William Whiston and Dr Foster to become Baptists.

(2.) **GALE,** Theophilus, an eminent noncon- formist minister, born in 1628. He was invited to Winchester in 1657, and continued a stated preacher there until the re-establishment of the church by Charles II; when he rather chose to suffer the penalties of the act of conformity, than to submit to it contrary to his conscience. He was afterwards engaged by Philip lord Wharton as tu- tor to his sons, whom he attended to an academy at Caen, in Normandy; and afterwards became pastor to a congregation of Dissenters in Holborn. He died in 1678; and is principally known by an elaborate work, intitled, the *Court of the Gentiles*, calculated to show, that the Pagan philosophers derived their most sublime sentiments from the Scriptures.

(3.) **GALE,** Thomas, D. D. and F. R. S. a learned divine, born at Scruton, in Yorkshire, in 1636. He was educated at Cambridge, and became pro- fessor of Greek in that university. He was after- wards chosen head master of St Paul's school, Lon- don; and wrote those elegant inscriptions on the monument erected in memory of the conflagra- tion in 1666. In 1676, he was made a prebendary in St Paul's; and being elected a F. R. S. present- ed a Roman urn to the society. About 1697, he gave to the new library of Trinity college, in Cambridge, a great number of Arabic MSS.; and in 1697 was admitted dean of York. He died in that city in 1702; and was interred in the cathed- ral, where a monument was erected to his mem- ory. He was a great historian, one of the best Greek scholars of his age, and corresponded with the most learned men at home and abroad. He published, 1. *Historiæ Poetiæ Antiquæ Scriptores*, 8vo. 2. *Opuscula Mythologica, Ethica, & Physica*, in Gr. and Lat. 8vo. 3. *Herodoti Historia*, fol. 4. *Historiæ Anglicanæ Scriptores quinque*, in fol. 5. *Historiæ Britannicæ, Saxonicæ, Anglo-Danicæ, Scrip- tores quindecim*, fol. 6. *Rhetores Selecti, &c.*

(4.) **GALE,** Roger, F. R. & A. S. S. eldest son of the preceding (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) was educated at Trinity college, Cambridge, of which he was chosen fellow in 1697. He was M. P. for N. Allerton, in the 3 first British Parliaments. He was first Vice-pre- sident of the Society of Antiquaries, and Treas- urer to the Royal Society. He died in 1744, and was esteemed one of the most learned men of his age. He published several valuable books, par- ticularly an edition of Antoninus's Commentary.

(5.) **GALE,** Samuel, younger brother to Roger (N<sup>o</sup> 4.) was also eminent for his learning and knowledge of antiquities. He died in 1754, aged 72.

(6.) \* **GALE.** *n. f.* [*gbaling*, hasty, sudden, Ger- man.] A wind not tempestuous, yet stronger than a breeze.—

What happy gale  
Blows you to Padua here, from old Verona!

*Shakefp.*

Winds

Of gentlest gale Arabian odours fann'd  
From their soft wings, and Flora's earliest smells.

*Milton.*

Fresh gales and gentle air.

*Milton.*

Umbria's green retreats

Where western gales eternally reside. *Addison.*

(7.) GALE, in sea language, a term of various import. When the wind blows not so hard but that a ship may carry her top sails a-trip, (that is, hoisted up to the highest,) they say it is a loom gale. When it blows very strong, it is a stiff, strong, or fresh gale. See next article.

To GALE, *v. n.* When two ships are near one another at sea, and, there being but little wind blowing, one of them finds more of it than the other, they say that the one ship gales away from the other.

GALEA, in antiquity, a light casque, head-piece, or morrion, which came down to the shoulders, commonly of brass. Camillus, according to Plutarch, ordered those of his army to be of iron, as being the stronger metal. The lower part of it was called *buccula*, and on the top was a crest. The Velites wore a light galea, made of the skin of some wild beast, to make it more terrible.

GALEANO, Joseph, a learned physician of Palermo, born in 1605. He was author of several medical works, and published a Collection of the Sicilian Poets, in 5 vols. He died in 1675.

GALEASSE. See GALEASS.

\* GALEATED, *adj.* [*galeatus*, Lat.] 1. Covered as with a helmet.—A galeated echinus copped, and in shape somewhat more corick than any of the foregoing. *Woodw. on Foss.* 2. [In botany.] Such plants as bear a flower resembling an helmet, as the monkhood.

GALEGA, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphica class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 3rd order, *Papilionacee*. The calyx is composed of subulated nearly equal dents or segments; the legumen has oblique striæ, and seeds lying between them.

GALEGOS, a town of Portugal, in Entre-duero-e-minho, 4 miles NE. of Barcelos.

(1.) GALEN, Claudius, prince of the Greek physicians after Hippocrates, was born at Pergamus, in Asia Minor, A. D. 131. His father being possessed of a fortune, and well versed in philosophy, astronomy, geometry, and architecture, instructed his son in the first rudiments of learning, and afterwards procured him the greatest masters of the age. Galen, having finished his studies, chose physic for his profession, studied the works of Hippocrates, and at length resolved to travel, to converse with the most able physicians in all parts, and to take every opportunity of inspecting on the spot the plants and drugs of the countries thro' which he passed. With this view he went to Alexandria, where he staid some years; thence he travelled through Cilicia, Palestine, Crete, Cyprus, Lemnos, and the Lower Tyria; in which last places he obtained a thorough insight into the nature of the Lemnian earth, and the opobalsamum;

after which he returned home by sea. Galen had been 4 years at Pergamus, practice was attended with extraordinary success when some commotions induced him to Rome, where he resolved to settle: but he gave of his superior skill, added to shown him by several persons of very high rank, created him so many enemies among the faculty, that he was obliged to depart after having resided there 4 or 5 years, not long returned to Pergamus, when called by the emperors Aurelius and Verus to their death, he retired to his native country where he died, about A. D. 200. He was a Greek; and is said to have composed 2000 works which were unhappily burnt in the temple of the Vestal Virgins. The best editions of those that remain, printed at Basil in 1538, in 5 vols. and in 1625, in 7. Galen was of a weak constitution, as he himself asserts; but he overcame this, by his temperance and skill in exercise, and lived to a great age. One of his rules was to rise from table with some degree of appetite. He is justly considered as the greatest physician of antiquity, next to Hippocrates; he performed such surprising cures, that he was accused of magic.

(2.) GALEN, in geography, a military island of New York, 12 miles NW. of the city.

(1.) GALENA, in mineralogy, a species of lead ore.

(2.) GALENA, in ancient pharmacy given by Andromachus to the theriac effect in bringing on a pleasing calm blood and spirits.

GALENBULON, a town of Madagascar, 71. 50. E. of Ferro. Lat. 17. 20. S.

GALENIA, in botany, a genus of the order, belonging to the octandria class and in the natural method ranking under the order, *Succulente*. The calyx is trisid; corolla; the capsule is roundish and didymous.

(1.) GALENIC, or } *adj.* in medicine  
(1.) GALENICAL, } plied to that considering and treating diseases, from the principles of Galen, or introduced by him. This author, collecting and digesting the principles of physicians before him had done, and every thing according to the strictest of the Peripatetics, set physic on a new foundation, introduced the doctrine of the 4 elemental qualities and their degrees; and of humours, or temperaments.

(2.) GALENICAL is more frequently contradistinguished from *chemical*. The of *galenical* and *chemical* was occasioned by the division of the practitioners of medicine into GALENISTS and CHEMISTS, on the introduction of chemistry into medicine. The chemists, by attributing to themselves every kind of merit, stirred up an opposition to their party founded on the invariable adherence of the faculty to the ancient practice. And this division has long ceased, yet the distinctions which resulted from it is still to be seen.

(3.) GALENICAL MEDICINES are those which are formed by the easier preparations

ic. by infusion, decoction, &c. and by multiplying ingredients; while chemists draw their more intimate and virtues by means of fire and elaborate ions, as calcination, digestion, fermenta-

**ALENISTS**, a denomination given to sicians as practise, prescribe, or write on ical principles. They stand opposed to *ists*. See **GALENICAL**, § 2. The galechemists are now accommodated; and our physicians use the preparations and of both.

**ALENISTS**, or } in church history, a branch  
**ALENISTS**, } of Mennonites or Anabap-  
take in several of the opinions of the  
or rather Arians, touching the divinity  
aviour. In 1664, the Waterlandians di-  
two parties, of which the one were  
*ists*, from their leader Abraham Gale-  
the other *Apostolians*.

**ALENUS**, Abraham, a learned and elo-  
of Amsterdam, who considered  
as a system that laid much less  
in this practice; and who was for ta-  
the communion of the Mennonites all  
to acknowledge the divine origin of the  
the Old and New Testament, and led  
virtuous lives.

**ALENUS**, Claudius. See **GALEN**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.  
**ION**. See **GALLEON**.

**ALOPHIS**, in botany, a genus of the angio-  
order, belonging to the didynamia class  
1; and in the natural method ranking un-  
4d order, *Ferticillate*. The upper lip  
rolla is a little crenated or arched; the  
more than bicentate.

**ALOTTI**, Martio, secretary to Matthias,  
Hungary, tutor to his son John, and li-  
Buda, was born at Narni, in Italy. He  
d a work entitled, *De homine interiore et*  
*ejus*, in 4to. and a collection of bon mots  
Matthias. Being invited by Lewis XI. of  
to his court, he went to Lyons, but meet-  
ing unexpectedly, he, in descending hap-  
ly his respects to the monarch, fell, and be-  
corpulent, was so much hurt, that he  
after.

**ALERA**, a town of Italy, in the prov. of  
nio, between Rome and Bracciano.

**ALERA**, two towns of Spain; 1. in  
2, 5 miles SSW. of Tortosa; 2. in Gra-  
miles SSE. of Huefca.

**ALERIA**, a gulf on the NW. of Corfica.

**ALERICULATE**. *adj.* [from *galerus*, Lat.]  
as with a hat.

**ALERICULUM**, in Roman antiquity, a cap  
th by men and women, consisting of skin,  
dressed with human hair, that the arti-  
ering could scarcely be distinguished from  
real. They were used by those whose  
s thin; and by wrestlers, to keep their  
r from receiving any injury from the nasty  
h which they were rubbed all over before  
excised. They seem to have resembled  
s.

**ALIRON**, a town of Celebes, 15 miles from  
r, famous for its fishery.

**GALETTA**, an island in the Mediterranean,  
anciently called **ZGIMURUS**.

**GALEY**, a river of Ireland, which rises in Li-  
merick, runs through Kerry, and falls into the  
Feal.

**GALFALLY**, a town of Ireland, in Tipperary,  
32 miles SE. of Limerick. Lon. 8. 20. W. Lat.  
52. 15. N.

**GALGACUS**, the name given by Tacitus and  
other Roman historians, to the King of Scots,  
who opposed Agricola, called by Buchanan, and  
our other Scots historians, *Corbræus Galdus*. See  
**AGRICOLA**, and **SCOTLAND**.

**GALGON**, a town of France, in the dept. of  
Gironde, 5 miles N. of Libourne.

**GALHARA**, a town of Portugal, in Beira;  
22 miles NE. of Coimbra.

**GALIC**. See **GÆLIC**, § 1, 2.

**GALICANA**, a town of Italy, in Lucca.

(1.) **GALICIA**, a province of Spain, bounded  
on the N. and W. by the ocean, on the S. by  
Portugal, and on the E. by Asturias and Leon.  
The air is temperate along the coast, but in other  
places, cold and moist. Galicia affords good pas-  
ture, but is not populous. It produces wine, flax,  
citrons and other fruits: and the mountains af-  
ford gold, copper, lead, iron, and vermilion,  
wood, &c. It contains 64 towns and cities, and  
about 242,264 families. It was anciently a king-  
dom under the Suevi. St Jago di Compostella is  
the capital.

(2.) **GALICIA**, or **GUADALAXARA**, a country  
of Mexico, containing 7 provinces. It has mines  
of silver and copper, and abounds with corn.  
The climate is temperate. Guadalaxara is the  
capital.

(3.) **GALICIA**, the modern name given to a  
large country in the S. of Poland, which was  
seized on by the late emp. Joseph II, and annex-  
ed to the Austrian dominions. It comprehends  
a part of Red Russia and the palatinate of Lem-  
berg; and is separated from Hungary by the Car-  
pathian mountains. It is 280 miles long, and from  
60 to 100 broad. Lemberg, or Leopold, is the  
capital. Its chief articles of commerce are corn,  
wood, cattle, hides, wax, honey, salt, copper,  
lead and iron.

**GALIGNANA**, a town of Maritime Austria,  
in the ci-devant Venetian Istria, 14 miles NE. of  
Rovigno.

**GALILEE**, in ancient geography, a province  
of Judea, bounded by mount Lebanon on the N.  
by the Jordan and the sea of Galilee on the E. by  
the Chifon on the S. and by the Mediterranean on  
the W. It was the scene of many of our Saviour's  
miracles; but the bounds of the country are not  
now well known, nor the places where many of  
the towns stood. It belongs to the Turks.

**GALILEANS**, a sect of the Jews. Their found-  
er was one Judas, a native of Galilee, who, esteem-  
ing it an indignity for the Jews to pay tribute to  
strangers, raised up his countrymen against the  
edict of Augustus, which had ordered a taxation  
of all the subjects of the Roman empire. They  
insisted that God alone should be owned as Lord.  
In other respects they were of the opinion of the  
Pharisees; but, as they judged it unlawful to pray  
for infidel princes, they separated from the rest  
of

of the Jews, and performed their sacrifices apart. As our Saviour was supposed to be a native of Galilee, and his apostles were mostly Galileans they were suspected to be of this sect; and it was on this principle, as St Jerome observes, that the Pharisees laid a snare for him; by asking, Whether it was lawful to give tribute to Cæsar; that in case he denied it, they might have an occasion of accusing him.

(1.) GALILEO, Galilei, the famous mathematician and astronomer, was the son of a Florentine nobleman, and born in 1564. He had from his infancy a strong inclination to philosophy and mathematics; and made prodigious progress in these sciences. In 1592, he was chosen professor of mathematics at Padua; and during his abode there invented the telescope; or, according to others, improved that instrument, so as to make it fit for astronomical observations: See *ASTRONOMY, Index*. In 1611, Cosmo II, grand duke of Tuscany, lent for him to Pisa, where he made him professor of mathematics, with a handsome salary; and soon after inviting him to Florence, gave him the office and title of *principal philosopher and mathematician to his highness*. He had been but a few years at Florence, before he was convinced, that Aristotle's doctrine, however ill-grounded, was held too sacred to be called in question. Having observed some solar spots in 1612, he printed that discovery in 1613, at Rome; in which, and in some other pieces, he ventured to assert the truth of the Copernican system, and brought several new arguments to confirm it. For these he was cited before the inquisition; and, after some months imprisonment, was released upon a simple promise, that he would renounce his heretical opinions, and not defend them by word or writing. But having afterwards, in 1632, published at Florence his "Dialogues of the two greatest systems of the world, the Ptolemaic and Copernican," he was again cited before the inquisition, and committed to the prison of that dreadful court at Rome. On June 22d N. S. 1632, the congregation convened; and in his presence pronounced sentence against him and his books, obliging him to abjure his errors in the most solemn manner; committed him to the prison of their office during pleasure; and enjoined him, as a saving penance, for three years, to repeat once a-week the 7 penitential psalms: reserving to themselves, however, the power of moderating, changing, or taking away altogether or in part, the above-mentioned punishment and penance. On this sentence, he was detained a prisoner till 1634: and his *Dialogues of the system of the World* were burnt at Rome. He lived ten years after this, 7 of which were employed in making still further discoveries with his telescope. But by the continual application to that instrument, added to the damage he received in his sight from the nocturnal air, his eyes grew gradually weaker, till he became totally blind in 1639. He bore this calamity with patience and resignation, worthy of a great philosopher. The loss neither broke his spirit, nor hindered the course of his studies. He supplied the defect by constant meditation: whereby he prepared a large quantity of materials, and began to dictate his *own conceptions*; when, walking away by de-

grees, he expired at Arcetti near Florence Jan. 1642, N. S. aged 78. Among various inventions of which Galileo was the author that of the simple pendulum, which he had in use of in his astronomical experiments. He wrote a great number of treatises, several of which published in a collection by Signor Mendel under the title of *L'opera di Galilei Galileo*. Some of these, with others of his pieces, translated into English and published by T. Salisbry, Esq; in his mathematical collection &c. in two volumes folio. A volume also of letters to several learned men, and solutions of several problems, were printed at Bologna. Besides these, he wrote many others, which unfortunately lost through his wife's superstition, who, solicited by her confessor, gave him to peruse her husband's MSS. of which he took away as many as he thought not fit to be published.

(2.) GALILEO, Vincenzio, the son of the preceding, was also an eminent mathematician; is famous for improving his father's discovery of the pendulum, by applying it to clocks. He made the experiment at Venice in 1649; and M. H. afterwards carried the invention to perfection.

GALINACEUS LAPIS. See GALLIUM.

GALINGEN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Natagen; 4 miles S. of Bartenstein.

GALINHAS, a river of Africa, which rises in Hondo, and runs into the Atlantic 33 miles S. of Scherbro.

\* GALIOT. *n. f.* [*galiotte*, French.] A small galley or sort of brigantine, built very light, and fit for chase. It carries but one mast, and has three patereroes. It can both sail and row, and has 16 or 20 seats for the rowers, with a man to each oar. *Dist.*—Barbarossa sent a number of notable pyrates with thirty galiots, who, in the year 1571, were valiantly encountered, and defeated, again to their galiots. *Knolles's Hist.*

GALIPAGO ISLES, several uninhabited islands in the South Sea, on both sides of the equator, near Terra Firma, belonging to Spain. Lat. between 83. 40. and 89. 30. W. Lat. from 3° to 10° N.

GALISTEO, a town of Spain, in the province of Extremadura, 10 miles E. of Coria.

(1.) GALITSCH, a town of Russia, in the province of Kholm, 56 miles ENE. of Kholm. Lon. 60° 15' E. of Ferro. Lat. 57. 56. N.

(2.) GALITSCH, a large lake of Russia, 50 miles S. of Kholm, and 50 miles in circumference.

GALIUM, in botany, a genus of the tetragynia order, belonging to the tetrandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking in the 47th order, *Stelutæ*. The corolla is tubular, 5-petalous and plain; and there are two rows of seeds. There are many species; of which the most remarkable are the following:

1. GALIUM APERINE, CLIVERS, or GRASS, has a square, very rough, jointed, weak stem, 2, 3, or 4 feet long, and several upright branches are opposite; the joints hairy at the top; the leaves, consisting of 8 or 10 at each joint, narrow, pointed, above rough, beneath smooth and carinate: the seeds are rough; flowers small, few, on slender foot-stalks on the top of the branches. It is common in fields by the

&c. The expressed juice of this plant  
 usually, and the bruised leaves applied  
 poultice, are said to have been used  
 as a cure for the cancer. The effects  
 though sure, the course, it is said,  
 is to be continued for 9 or 10 months.  
**LIUM VERUM**, the **YELLOW LADY'S**  
**W.** has a firm, erect, brown, square,  
 leaves generally 8 in each whirl, linear,  
 brittle, and often reflex; branches short,  
 two from each joint, terminating in  
 small yellow flowers. It grows com-  
 dry ground, and on road sides. The  
 agulate boiling milk; and the best  
 beefe is said to be prepared with them.  
 prescribe them in hysteric and epilep-  
 Boiled in alum water, they tinge wool  
 The roots dye a red not inferior to mad-  
 which purpose they are used in the island  
 in the *Edinburgh Medical Commentaries*  
 accounts of some violent scorbutic com-  
 ing cured by the juice of this plant.  
 goats eat the plant; horses and swine  
 cows are not fond of it.

**GALL.** *n. f.* [*gala*, Saxon; *galle*,  
 1. The bile, an animal juice remarkable  
 posed bitterness.—

like my milk for gall, you murdering  
 sister! *Sbak.*

my tongue, a heart of gall,  
 f's spring, but sorrow's fall. *Sbak.*

sition informs us of a vulgar error, ter-  
 gall bitter, as their proverb implies  
 bitter as gall; whereas there's nothing  
 sweeter; and what is most unctuous must  
 take of a sweet favour. *Harvey.*—Gall is  
 a resolvent of curdled milk: *Boerhaave*

at a time one drop of the gall of an eel  
 cels. *Arbut.* 2. The part which con-  
 sists.—The married couple, as a testimony  
 concord, did cast the gall of the sacri-  
 the altar. *Brown.* 3. Any thing ex-  
 bitter.—

either write, my queen,  
 with mine eyes I'll drink the words you  
 said,

the ink be made of gall. *Sbak. Cymb.*  
 Poison be their drink.

more than gall, the daintiest meat they  
 eat! *Sbak.*

kill insults, and you must still adore;  
 that the honey's much, the gall is more.

*Dryd. Juv.*  
 or; malignity.—They did great hurt  
 title, and have left a perpetual gall in the  
 the people. *Spenser on Ireland.* 5. Anger;  
 or mind.—

lose your hero were a lover,  
 he before had gall and rage;  
 was dispirited and low,

as the fight, and shuns the blow. *Prior.*  
 it hurt by fretting off the skin. [From

—This is the fatalest wound; as much  
 as the former, as a gangrene is to a gall

*Gov. of the Tongue.* 7. [From *galla.*]  
 gallnuts are preternatural and accident-  
 ally, produced on trees; but those of the

**PART. I.**

oak only are used in medicine. We have *Orien-  
 tal* and *European galls*: the *Oriental* are brought  
 from *Aleppo*, of the bigness of a large nutmeg,  
 with tubercles on their surface, of a very firm tex-  
 ture, and a disagreeable, acerb, and astringent  
 taste. The *European galls* are of the same size,  
 with perfectly smooth surfaces: they are light,  
 often spongy, and cavernous within, and always  
 of a lax texture. They have a less austere taste,  
 and are of much less value than the first sort.  
 The general history of galls is this: An insect of  
 the fly kind wounds the branches of the trees, and  
 in the hole deposits her egg: the lacerated vessels  
 of the tree, discharging their contents, form a  
 tumour or woody case about the hole, where the  
 egg is thus defended from all injuries. This tu-  
 mour also serves for the food of the tender mag-  
 got, produced from the egg, which, as soon as  
 it is in its winged state, gnaws its ways out, as  
 appears from the hole found in the gall; and  
 where no hole is seen, the maggot, or its remains,  
 are sure to be found within. It has been observed,  
 that the oak does not produce galls in cold coun-  
 tries: but this observation should be confined to  
 the medicinal galls; for all those excrescences  
 which we call oak-apples, oak-grapes, and oak-  
 cones, are true galls, though less firm in their  
 texture. *Hill.*—Besides the acorns, the oak bear-  
 eth galls, oak-apples, and oak-nuts. *Bacon's*  
*Nat. Hist.*—*Malpighi*, in his treatise of galls, un-  
 der which name he comprehends all preternatural  
 and morbose excrescences, demonstrates that all  
 such excrescences, where any insects are found,  
 are excited by some venenose liquor, which, to-  
 gether with their eggs, such insects shed. *Ray on*  
*Creation.*—The *Aleppo galls*, wherewith we make  
 ink, are no other than cases of insects, which are  
 bred in them. *Derham.*

(2.) **GALL**, in the animal economy, (§ 1. *def.*  
 1.) See **BILE**, § 1, and **ANATOMY**, § 300. Gall  
 was generally given amongst the Jews to persons  
 suffering death under the execution of the law, to  
 make them less sensible of their pain; but gall  
 and myrrh are supposed to have been the same  
 thing; because at our Saviour's crucifixion, St  
 Matthew says, they gave him vinegar to drink  
 mingled with gall; whereas St Mark calls it wine  
 mingled with myrrh. Perhaps they distinguished  
 every thing bitter by the name of gall. The  
 Greeks and Romans also gave such a mixture to  
 persons suffering a death of torture. Many ex-  
 periments have been made upon the gall of differ-  
 ent animals, but few conclusions can be drawn  
 from them with any certainty; as there must al-  
 ways be a considerable difference between the  
 effects of acids, or other menstria, upon dead  
 matter, and in the living system. Dr *Perclval*,  
 however, hath shown, that putrid bile may be  
 perfectly corrected and sweetened by an admixture  
 of the vegetable acids, vinegar, and juice of le-  
 mons. These, he observes, have this effect much  
 more completely than the mineral ones; and  
 hence, he thinks, arises the great usefulness of the  
 vegetable acids in autumnal diseases; which are  
 always attended with a putrescent disposition of  
 the bile, owing to the heat of the preceding sum-  
 mer. He takes notice of a common mistake  
 among physicians, who frequently prescribe elixir

of vitriol in those  
juice would be m  
effect of acids on  
see why the imme  
ous to digestion  
gall should be it  
but as acids have  
fectly mild and sw  
ably pernicious to the  
of the food - which  
cannot be accot  
d. Hence the body is  
deprived of its p  
nourishment and support,  
the blood becomes  
rapid and watery, and a fatal  
cachexy unavoidably ensues. This has been the  
case with many unfortunate persons, who, in  
order to reduce their excessive corpulency, have  
indulged themselves in the too free use of vinegar.  
From the mild state of the gall in young children,  
Dr Percival also thinks it is, that they are so much  
troubled with acidities.

(3.) GALL, in natural history, (§ 1. def. 7.)  
denotes any protuberance, or tumour, produced  
by the puncture of insects on plants and trees of  
different kinds. These galls are of various forms  
and sizes, and no less different with regard to  
their internal structure. Some have only one  
cavity, and others a number of small cells com-  
municating with each other. Some of them are  
as hard as the wood of the tree they grow on,  
whilst others are soft and spongy; the first being  
termed *gall-nuts*, and the latter *berry-galls*, or  
*apple-galls*. See CYNIPS. The external coat of  
the excrescence described above (§ 1. def. 7.) is  
dried by the air; and grows into a figure which  
bears some resemblance to the bow of an arch,  
or the roundness of a kernel. This little ball re-  
ceives its nutriment, growth, and vegetation, as  
the other parts of the tree, by slow degrees, and  
is called the *gall-nut*. The worm, that is hatched  
under this spacious vault, finds in the substance  
of the ball, which is as yet very tender, a nourish-  
ment suitable to its nature; gnaws and digests it  
till the time of its transformation to a nymph,  
and from that state soon changes into a fly. After  
this, the insect disengages itself from its confine-  
ment, and takes its flight into the open air. The  
case, however, is different with respect to the  
*gall-nut* that grows in autumn. The cold weather  
frequently comes on before the worm is transfor-  
med into a fly, or before the fly can pierce through  
its inclosure. The nut falls with the leaves; but  
although it might now be supposed that the fly  
within is lost, yet in fact its being covered up so  
close is the means of its preservation. Thus it  
spends the winter in a warm house, where every  
crack and cranny of the nut is well stopped up;  
and lies buried under a heap of leaves, which  
preserve it from the injuries of the weather. This  
apartment, however, though so commodious a  
retreat in winter, is a prison in spring. The fly,  
rouled out of its lethargy by the vernal heat,  
breaks its way through, and ranges where it  
pleases. A very small aperture is sufficient, as at  
this time the fly is but a diminutive creature.  
Besides, the ringlets whereof its body is composed  
and become pliant in the passage. A very  
tiny of oak galls, put into a solution of  
water, though but very weak, gives it

a purple or violet colour: which,  
stronger, becomes black; and on t  
depends the art of making our writin  
the arts of dying and dressing leathe  
manufactures. See INK. The best  
from Aleppo: these are not quite  
smooth like the other sorts, but  
tubercles on the surface. Galls have a  
styptic taste, without any smell: th  
strong astringents, and as such have  
times made use of both internally and  
but are not much taken notice of in  
practice. Some recommend an ointn  
dered galls and hog's lard as very effe  
tain painful states of hæmorrhoids; and  
that the internal use of galls has cu  
tents after the Peruvian bark has failed  
of galls with a bitter and aromatic ha  
poised as a substitute for the bark.

(4.) GALL, ST, or ST GALLEN, a  
town in Swisserland, in the Upper Th  
a rich and celebrated abbey, whose ab  
lar prince of the German empire, and  
the 72 Benedictines who compose  
He formerly possessed the sovereignty  
but the inhabitants shook off his au  
became independent; and the vari  
which since that period have arisen  
two rival parties have been compromis  
terposition of their allies, the Swiss ca  
town is entirely Protestant, and  
ment aristo-democratical. The sub  
abbot, whose territory is distinct, ar  
tholics. The abbey, in which this p  
is situated close to the town, and in  
its territory; as the latter is also entir  
ed by the possessions of the prince.  
owes its flourishing state to the ur  
dustry of the inhabitants, and to a v  
commerce, arising chiefly from its ma  
lien, muslin, and embroidery. To t  
longing to the abbey, which is very n  
well-arranged, and which contains  
of the classic writers, we are indebt  
nius Arbiter, Silius Italicus, Valerius  
Quintilian, copies of which were f  
1413. St Gallen is seated in a nar  
valley, between two mountains, i  
small streams, 37 miles NE. of Zi  
9. 22. E. Lat. 47. 26. N.

(1.) \* To GALL. v. a. [*galer*, -Frer  
hurt by fretting the skin.—

I'N touch my point

With this contagion, that, if I *gall* h  
It may be death.

His yoke is easy, when by us en  
But loads and *galls*, if on our neck

—A carrier, when he would think  
for his *galled* horie, begins with c  
upon all things. *Locke*.—

On the monarch's speech Achill  
And furious thus, and interruptin  
Tyrant, I well deserv'd thy *galling*  
2. To impair; to wear away.—

He doth object, I am too great  
And that my state being *gall'd* with  
I seek to heal it only by his wealth

ould fall down in a continual stream like it would *gall* the ground, wash away the roots, and overthrow houses. *Ray.* *aze*; to fret; to vex.—In honour of that and to *gall* their minds who did not so amend it, he wrote his book. *Hooker.*—They seem contented with, even for that we reject; and there is nothing but it is the better, if we espy that it *galleth* later.—

When I shew justice,  
hoic I do not know;  
a dismiss'd offence would after *gall*.

*Shakspeare.*

udies here I solemnly defy,  
ow to *gall* and pinch this Holingbroke.

*Shak. Henry IV.*

an commits any sin but his conscience  
im, and his guilty mind is frequently  
ith the remembrance of it. *Tillotson.*  
rafs; to mischief; to keep in a state of  
i.—The Helots had gotten new heart,  
divers sorts of shot from corners of  
d house-windows *galled* them. *Sidney.*—  
d demilances from afar they throw,  
'd with leathern thongs, to *gall* the foe. *En.*  
wars against the French of old, we used  
hem with our long bows, at a greater  
han they could shoot their arrows. *Addif.*  
\* GALL. v. n. To fret.—I have seen  
king and *galling* at this gentleman twice  
*Shak.*

ALLA, a nation of Ethiopia, originally  
as Mr Bruce supposes, under the line,  
sing the profession of shepherds, which  
continue to do. For many years, they  
have been constantly migrating north-  
ough the cause of this migration is not  
At first they had no horses; the reason  
was, that the country they came from  
low these animals to breed; but as they  
d northward and conquered some of the  
a provinces, they soon furnished them-  
th such numbers, that they are now  
irely cavalry, and make little account  
y in their armies. On advancing to the  
of Abyssinia, the multitude divided, and  
sted their course towards the Indian  
ster which, having made a settlement in  
n part of the continent, they turned  
l into the countries of Bali and Dawaw,  
y entirely conquered, and settled there  
Another division having taken a wester-  
spread themselves in a semicircle along  
of the Nile; surrounding the country  
, and passing eastward behind the country  
ows, extended their possessions as far as  
ries of the Gongas and Gafats. Since  
the Nile has been the boundary of their  
; though they have frequently plunder-  
ometimes conquered, the Abyssinian  
on the other side of the river, but have  
de any permanent settlement in these  
third division has settled to the S. of the  
ry of Shoa, which the governor of that  
has permitted, in order to form a bar-  
st him and the territories of the empe-  
rom he scarcely acknowledges any de-

pendence. The Galla are of a brown complexion,  
and have long black hair; but some of them who  
live in the valleys are intirely black. At first their  
common food was milk and butter; but since  
their intercourse with the Abyssinians, they have  
learned to plough and sow their land, and to  
make bread. They seem to have a predilection  
for the number 7, as each of the three divisions  
already mentioned are subdivided into seven tribes.  
In their behaviour they are extremely barbarous;  
and live in continual war with the Abyssinians,  
whom they murder without mercy as often as  
they fall into their hands. They cut off the pri-  
vities of the men, and hang them up in their  
houses by way of trophies; and are so cruel as to  
rip up women with child, in hopes of thus de-  
stroying a male. Yet notwithstanding their ex-  
cessive cruelty abroad, they live under the strictest  
discipline at home; and every broil or quarrel is  
instantly punished according to the nature of the  
offence. Each of the three divisions of the Galla  
has a king of its own; and they have also a kind  
of nobility, from among whom the sovereign can  
only be chosen: however, the commonalty are  
not excluded from rising to the rank of nobles, if  
they distinguish themselves very much in battle.  
None of the nobility can be elected till upwards  
of 40 years of age, unless he has with his own  
hand killed such a number of enemies, as added  
to his own age makes 40. There is a council of  
each of the 7 tribes, which meets separately in its  
own district, to settle how many are to be left  
behind for governing and cultivating the territory,  
and other matters of importance. These nations  
have all a great veneration for a tree which grows  
plentifully in their country, called *wansey*, and  
which these superstitious people are even said to  
adore as a god. Their assemblies for the choice  
of a king are held under one of these trees; and  
when the sovereign is chosen, they put a bludgeon  
of this wood in his hand by way of sceptre, and  
a garland of the flowers upon his head. The  
Galla are reported to be very good soldiers, es-  
pecially in cases of surprise; but, like most other  
barbarians, have no constancy nor perseverance  
after the first attack. They will, however, per-  
form extraordinary marches, swimming rivers  
holding by the horse's tail, and are thus enabled  
to do very great mischief by the rapidity of their  
movements. They are excellent light horse for a  
regular army in an hostile country; but are very  
indifferently armed on account of the scarcity of  
iron among them. Their principal arms are lances  
made of wood sharpened at the end and hardened  
in the fire; and their shields are composed only  
of one single fold of bull's hide; so that they are  
extremely apt to warp by heat, or become too  
soft in wet weather. They are exceedingly cruel;  
and make a shrill horrid noise at the beginning of  
every engagement, which greatly terrifies the  
horses, and very often the barbarous riders which  
oppose them. The Galla are somewhat below  
the middle size, but extremely light and nimble.  
The women are fruitful; and suffer so little in  
child-bearing, that they do not even confine them-  
selves for a single day after delivery. They  
plough, sow, and reap the corn, which is trod-  
den out by the cattle; but the men have all the



the cattle in the fields. In their customs, filthy to the last degree; plaiting their round the guts of oxen, which they likewise round their middle, and which by the quick satisfaction occasion an abominable stench. They anoint their heads and whole bodies with grease; in which, as well as in other respects, they greatly resemble the Hottentots. It has been supposed that they have no religion whatever; but Mr Bruce is of opinion that this is a mistake. The wanzey, he says, is undoubtedly worshipped by all the three nations as a god; and they have likewise certain stones which are worshipped as gods. They also worship the moon, and some stars, when in certain positions, and at some particular seasons of the year. They all believe in a resurrection; and have some faint notions of a state of happiness, but no idea of future punishment. Some of them to the S. profess the Mahometan religion, but those to the E. and W. are generally pagans. They all intermarry with each other; but will not allow strangers to live among them, though the Moors have found out a method of trading safely with them. The commodities they deal in are blue Surat cloths, myrrh, and salt; the last being the most valuable article. The marriages among the Galla are celebrated with some of the disgusting customs of the Hottentots; and after these ceremonies the bridegroom promises to give the bride meat and drink while she lives, and to bury her when dead. Polygamy is allowed among them; the women solicit their husbands to take others to their embraces, that they may have numerous families of children, who may be capable of defending them against their enemies; as the Galla; according to Mr Bruce always fight in families, whether against foreign enemies or with one another.

(2.) GALLA, a town of Arabia, 24 miles SE. of Taza.

(3.) GALLA, a town in Ceylon. See GALLE.

(1.) GALLAM, a kingdom of Africa.

(2.) GALLAM, the capital of the above kingdom, is seated on the Senegal. Lon. 9. 55. W. Lat. 14. 25. N.

GALLAN, or ST GALLAN, an island of Peru.

GALLAND, Anthony, a learned antiquarian, member of the Academy of inscriptions, and professor of Arabic in the Royal College of Paris, was born of poor parents at Rollo, in Picardy. Having studied at the Sorbonne and other universities, he travelled into the east; where he acquired great skill in the Arabic tongue, and in the manners of the Mahometans. He wrote several works; the principal of which are, 1. An Account of the Death of the Sultan Osman, and the Coronation of the Sultan Mustapha. 2. A Collection of Maxims, drawn from the works of the Orientals. 3. A Treatise on the Origin of Coffee: and 4. he translated The Arabian Nights Entertainments.

(1.) \* GALLANT. *adj.* [*galant*, French, *gala*, fine dress, Spanish.] 1. Gay; well dressed; showy; splendid; magnificent.—A place of broad rivers, wherein shall go no gally with oars, neither shall *gallant* ships pass thereby. *Jf.* xxxiii. 21.

The gay, the wife, the *gallant*, and the grave, Subdu'd alike, all but one passion have. *Walker.*  
2. Brave; high spirited; daring; magnanimous.

—Scorn, that any should kill his uncle, seek his revenge in manner *gallant* enough.  
But, fare thee well, thou art a *gallant*.

—A *gallant* man, whose thoughts fly at the best game, requires no further insight. *D.*  
Fine; noble; spacious.—

There are no tricks in plain and simple;  
But hollow men, like horses hot at hand,  
Make *gallant* shew and promise of the

4. Courty with respect to ladies.—He did show *gallant* and how brave a thing it was for his highness to make a journey into Spain to fetch home his mistress. *Clarendon.*—

When first the soul of love is sent abroad,  
The gay troops begin  
In *gallant* thought to plume their paint

(2.) \* GALLANT. *n. f.* [from the *a.* 1. A gay, sprightly, airy, splendid man.  
The new proclamation.

—What is't for?  
—The reformation of travell'd *gallants*  
That fill the court with quarrels, talk  
lors.

—The *gallants* and lusty youths of Naples  
and offered themselves unto Vastius. *Kn.*  
The *gallants*, to protect the lady's  
Their fauchions brandish'd at the grill

*Gallants*, look to't, you say they're  
sprights.  
But I'll come dance about your beds:

2. A whoremaster, who caresses women and bauch them.—One, worn to pieces, shews himself a young *gallant*. *Shak.*—left the good-man at home, and brought her *gallant*. *Spektator.* 3. A wooer; courts a woman for marriage. In the text senses it has commonly the accent on the syllable.

(3.) GALLANT, in geography, a town of Gary, 3 miles SSW. of Serat.

\* GALLANTLY. *adv.* [from *gallant* Gayly; splendidly. 2. Bravely; nobly; proudly.—You have not dealt so *gallantly* as we did with you in a parallel case: *li* paper was brought here from England, ordered to be burnt by the common *Swiss*.

\* GALLANTRY. *n. f.* [*galanterie*, 1. Splendour of appearance; show; magnificent glittering grandeur; ostentatious finery.

Make the sea shine with *gallantry*,  
The English youth flock to their admirers.  
2. Bravery; nobleness; generosity.—  
nence of your condition, and the *gallant*  
principles, will invite gentlemen to the  
canonizing study of nature. *Glanville's S.*  
A number of gallants.—Hector, Deiphobus,  
all the *gallantry* of Troy, I would have  
day. *Shak.* 4. Courtship; refined address  
men.—

The martial Moors in *gallantry* refined  
Invent new arts to make their charms



low; lewdness; debauchery.—It looks of compounding between virtue and a woman were allowed to be vicious, he be not a profligate; as if there were joint where gallantry ends, and infamy *vist*.

ARATO, a town of the Cisalpine republic department of Olone, and late duchy 20 miles WNW. of Milan.

ARDON, a town of France, in the dg- of Eure and Loire, 12 miles W. of and 4 NE. of Chartres.

LADDER. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

LLE, the name of several engravers, of principal was Cornelius, who flourish- :600. He learned the art of engraving utber, and imitated his stiff style, till he ome, where he resided a considerable there acquired that freedom, taste, and s of drawing which are found in his best le settled at Antwerp upon his return /, where he carried on a considerable in prints. His best prints are those done cae.

LLS, or PORT GALLE, a sea-port town n the SW. coast of Ceylon. It was taken ch from the Portuguese in 1640; and by 1 in Feb. 1796. See CEYLON. It is 98 f Candy. Lon. 80. 20. E. Lat. 6. 0. N. LEAS. *n. f.* [*galeas*, French.] A heavy vessel, with both sails and oars. It car- masts, but they cannot be lowered, as y. It has thirty-two seats for rowers, r seven slaves to each. To carry three ms at the head, and at the stern there are of guns. *Dist.*—The Venetians pretend d set out, in case of great necessity, thir- f war, a hundred galleys, and ten ga- *ddison on Italy*.—

My father hath no less hree great argosies, besides two *galeasses*, reive tight gallees. *Sbak.*

ALLEGO, a river of Spain, which rises reneces, and runs into the Ebro oppo- offa.

ALLEGO, a town of Spain, in the prov. 18 miles SSE. of Salamanca.

EMBERG, a town of Germany, in Car- miles E. of Laubach.

ENEK, a town of Germany, in Carnio- les SE. of Stein.

ENSTAIN, a town of Germany in Sti- les W. of Reiffing.

GALLEON. *n. f.* [*galion*, Fr.] A large 14 or sometimes 5 decks, now in use on- the Spaniards.—I assured them that I y for them at Trinidad, and that no uld drive me thence, except I were sunk fire by the Spanish *galleons*. *Raleigh*.— iber of vessels were 130, whereof *galeas- alleons* 72, goodly ships, like floating tow- rles. *Bacon's War with Spain*.

ALLEONS are employed in the Spanish lia trade. The Spaniards send annually s; the one for Mexico, which they call us. See FLOTA, N° 1. By a general n made in Spain, it has been established,

that there should be 12 men of war and 5 tenders annually fitted out for the armada or galleons; 8 ships of 600 tons burden each, and 3 tenders, one of 100 tons, for the island Margarita, and two of 80 each, to follow the armada; for the New Spain fleet, two ships of 600 tons each, and two tenders of 80 each; and for the Honduras fleet, two ships of 500 tons each: and in case no fleet happened to sail any year, 3 galleons and a tender should be sent to New Spain for the plate. They sail from Cadiz in January, that they may arrive at Porto Bello in April; where, the fair being over, they may take aboard the plate, and be at Havannah with it about the middle of June; where they are joined by the flota that they may return to Spain with the greater safety.

GALLEOT. See GALIOT. All the seamen on board a galleot are soldiers, and each has a musket by him.

(1.) \* GALLERY. *n. f.* [*galerie*, French; derived by *Du Cange* from *galeria*, low Latin, a fine room.] 1. A kind of walk along the floor of a house, into which the doors of the apartments open; in general, any building of which the length much exceeds the breadth.—In most part there had been framed by art such pleasant arbors, that, one with another, they became a gallery aloft from tree to tree, almost round about, which below gave a perfect shadow. *Sidney*.—

High lifted up were many lofty towers,  
And goodly galleries fair overlaid. *Spenser*  
Your gallery

Have we pass'd through, not without much content. *Sbak.*

—The row of return on the banquet side, let it be all stately galleries, in which galleries let there be three cupolas. *Bacon*.

A private gallery 'twixt th' apartments led,  
Not to the foe yet known. *Denham*.

—Nor is the shape of our cathedrals proper for our preaching auditories, but rather the figure of an amphitheatre, with galleries gradually overlooking each other; for into this condition the parish churches of London are driving apace, as appears by the many galleries every day built in them. *Graunt*.

—There are covered galleries that lead from the palace to five different churches. *Addison on Italy*.  
2. The seats in the playhouse above the pit, in which the meaner people sit.—

While all its throats the gallery extends,  
And all the thunder of the pit ascends. *Pope*.

(2.) GALLERY, in gardening, an ornament made with trees of different kinds. Galleries are very common in the French gardens, but are seldom introduced into the British ones, especially since the taste for clipped trees has been exploded. For those, however, who may still choose to have them, Mr Miller gives the following directions. In order to make a gallery in a garden with porticoes and arches, a line must first be drawn of the length you design the gallery to be; which being done, it is to be planted with hornbeam; as the foundation of the gallery. The management of galleries is not difficult. They require only to be digged round about; and sheared a little when there is occasion. The chief curiosity is in the ordering the fore part of the gallery, and in forming the ar- ches.

ches. Each pillar of the porticoes or arches ought to be 4 feet distant from one another, and the gallery 12 feet high and 10 feet wide, that there may be room for 2 or 3 persons to walk abreast. When the hornbeams are grown to the height of 3 feet, the distance of the pillars well regulated, and the ground-work of the gallery finished, the next thing to be done is to form the frontispiece; to perform which, you must stop the hornbeam between two pillars for that purpose, which forms the arch. As it grows, cut off those boughs which outshoot the others. In time they will grow strong, and may be kept in form by the sheers. Portico galleries may be covered with lime trees.

(3.) GALLERY, in a ship, that beautiful frame, which is made in the form of a balcony, at the stern of a ship without board; into which there is a passage out of the admiral's or captain's cabin, and is designed for the ornament of the ship.

(4.) GALLERY, in fortification, a covered walk across the ditch of a town, made of strong beams covered with planks, and loaded with earth: sometimes it is covered with raw hides, to defend it from the artificial fires of the besieged.

(5.) GALLERY OF A MINE is a narrow passage or branch of a mine carried on under ground to a work designed to be blown up. See MINE.

GALLESE, a town of Italy in the province of Patrimonio, 25 miles N. of Rome.

\* GALLETYLE. *n. f.* I suppose this word has the same import with *gallipot*.—Make a compound body of glass and *galletyle*; that is, to have the colour milky like a chalcedon, being a stuff between a porcelane and a glass. *Bacon*.

(1.) \* GALLEY. *n. f.* [*galea*, Ital. *galere*, Fr. derived, as some think, from *galea*, a helmet, pictured anciently on the prow; as others from *γαλιππος*, the swordfish; as others from *galleon*, expressing in Syriac men exposed to the sea. From *galley* come *galleas*, *galleon*, *galliot*.] 1. A vessel driven with oars, much in use in the Mediterranean, but found unable to endure the agitation of the main ocean.—

Great Neptune grieved underneath the load  
Of ships, hulks, *gallies*, barks, and brigandines.

*Fairfax*.

—In the ages following, navigation did every where greatly decay, by the use of *gallies*, and such vessels as could hardly brook the ocean. *Bacon's New Atlantis*.—Jason ranged the coasts of Asia the Less in an open boat, or kind of *galley*. *Raleigh's History*.—

On oozy ground his *gallies* moor;

Their heads are turn'd to sea, their sterns to shore.

*Dryden*.

2. It is proverbially considered as a place of toil-some misery, because criminals are condemned to row in them.—The most voluptuous person, were he tied to follow his hawks and his hounds, his dice and his courtships every day, would find it the greatest torment that could befall him: he would fly to the mines and the *gallies* for his recreation, and to the spade and the mattock for a diversion from the misery of a continual uninterrupted pleasure. *South*.

(2.) GALLEYS are low flat-built vessels, furnished with one deck, and navigated with sails and oars. The largest sort are employed only by

the Venetians. They are commonly 162 feet above, and 133 feet by the keel: 32 feet with 23 feet length of stern-post. They are furnished with three masts, and 32 banks of oars, every bank containing two oars and every oar managed by 6 or 7 seven slaves, who are all chained thereto. In the fore part they have 3 little batteries of cannon, of which the lowest of two 36 pounders, the 2d of two 24 pounders and the uppermost of 2 two-pounders: three more are also planted on each quarter. The complement of men for one of these galleys is 1000 or 1200. They are esteemed very convenient for bombarding or making a descent upon an enemy's coast, as drawing but little water; having by their oars frequently the advantage over a ship of war, in light winds or calms, by commanding the latter near the surface of the water, and by scouring her whole length with their shot, at the same time keeping on her quarter or so as to be out of the direction of her cannon. The galleys next in size to these, which are called *half galleys*, are from 120 to 130 feet long, 18 feet broad, and 9 or 10 feet deep. They have two masts, which may be struck at pleasure: they are furnished with two large lateen sails, and several pieces of cannon. They have commonly 25 banks of oars. A size still less than these are called *inter galleys*, carrying from 12 to 16 banks of oars. There are very few galleys now besides these in the Mediterranean, which are found by experience to be of little utility except in fine weather; a circumstance which renders their service extremely precarious. They generally keep close under the shore, but sometimes venture out to sea to form a summer cruise.

GALLEY-HEAD, a promontory of Ireland on the coast of Cork, on the extremity of which stands Dundede Castle. This is sometimes fatally shaken by sailors, for the Old Head of Kinfales, the light of the latter is not seen. It lies 18 miles SSW. of Bandon bridge. Lon. 8. 54. W. 51. 31. N.

\* GALLEY-SLAVE. *n. f.* [*galley* and *slave*]. A man condemned for some crime to row in a galley.—As if one chain were not sufficient to keep a poor man, he must be clogged with innumerable chains: this is just such another freedom as the Turkish *galley-slaves* do enjoy. *Bramb*.—Hardened *galley-slaves* despise manumission. *Dec. of B.*

The surges gently dash against the shore,  
Flocks quit the plains, and *galley-slaves* their  
Gale

GALLEY-WORM, in zoology. See LULUS.  
GALL-FLY, in entomology. See CYNIPS.

(1.) GALLI, in antiquity, a name given to the priests of Cybele, from the river Gallus in Phrygia; but of the etymology of the name we have no certain account. All that we learn about them is, that they were eunuchs and Phrygians, and in their solemn processions they danced, bowed, drummed, cut and slashed themselves, playing on timbrels, pipes, cymbals, &c. and driving asses loaded with the sacred trumpets of the deity. When a young man was to be initiated, he was to throw off his clothes, run crying to the midst of their troop, and there cut off his sword and castrate himself; after this he was

the street with the parts cut off, in his row them into some boufe, and in the fe put on a woman's drefs. Thefe priefts names alfo of *Carates*, *Corybantes*, and The chief prieft was called *Archi-Gallus*. ler of priefthood is found both amongft and Romans. See *Lucret.* lib. ii. and *Juv.*

GALLI, the Gauls. See GALLIA and

GALLI, five fmall defolate iflands on the the Principato Citra of Naples. They ofed to be the *Syrænuſæ*, or iflands once l by the Sirens; which Ulyſſes paſſed with caution and hazard. Great revolutions, , have been occaſioned in their ſhape, ſize, ber, by the effects of ſubterranean fire; e learned perſons go ſo far as to aſſert, e rocks have riſen from the bottom of the Homer's time; conſequently, that thoſe dwelt on ſome other ſpot, probably *Sicapri*. The tradition of Sirens reſiding ts is very ancient and univerſally admit- t what they really were, diveſted of their and poetical diſguiſe is not eaſy to diſco- re *SIREN*. The *Syrænuſæ* were only three er; and therefore if theſe and the *Galli* ame, two more muſt have ſince riſen, or re have been ſplit into five by a ſubter- convolution. On the largeſt is a watch- id the next has a deſerted hermitage. The ifland is only a narrow ſemicircular ridge with a ſhallow coat of ſoil; two other lit- ble, and ſome jagged rocks juſt peeping a- le waves, correſpond with this one ſo as to he outline of a volcanic crater. The com- of them all is at top a calcareous rock ex- ſhaken, tumbled, and confuſed, mixed ſſes of breccia, diſpoſed in a moſt irregu- mer; below theſe is lava, and the deeper follows it the ſtronger are the marks of dow the ſurface of the water, and in ſome above it, the layers are complete blocks of . Hence we may preſume, that central re heaved up to light the torriſied ſubſtan- originally lay near their focus, with all the diate ſtrata that covered them from the he layers incline downwards from E. to e air ſeems to have forced its way into the maſs while in fuſion, and by checking ings cauſed many large caverns to be left eſe iflands are uncultivated and uninhabit- the old hermit of *St Antonio* died. Myr- rs moſt of the ſurface.

GALLIA, in ancient geography, a large coun- Europe, called *GALATIA* by the Greeks. habitants were called *GALLI*, *CELTÆ*, *ERI*, and *Celtoſythe*. Ancient Gaul was into 4 different parts by the Romans, cal- *lia* [*Belgica*, *Narbonenſis*, *Aquitania*, and though *Julius Cæſar* divides it only into *Belgicæ* theſe grand diviſions there is often made of *Gallia Cifalpina* or *Citerior*, and *ſina* or *Uterior*, which laſt comprehend- whole of Gaul, properly ſo called, as poſ- y the ancient Gauls. The inhabitants at warriors, and overcame the Roman ark the city of Rome, and invaded Greece

in different ages. They ſpread themſelves over the greateſt part of the world. They were very ſuperſtitious in their religious ceremonies, and re- vered their priefts as if they had been gods. They long maintained bloody wars againſt the Romans, and *Cæſar* reſided 10 years in their country before he could entirely ſubdue them. See *GAUL*.

1. GALLIA AQUITANICA contained the late provinces of *Poitou*, *Saintonge*, *Guienne*, *Berry*, *Limoſin*, *Gaſcogny*, *Auvergne*, &c. and was ſituated between the *Garumna*, the *Pyrenean mountains*, and the ocean.

2. GALLIA BELGICA was the largeſt province, bounded by Germany, *Gallia Narbonenſis*, and the German ocean; and contained the modern countries of *Alſace*, *Lorraine*, *Picardy*, with part of the *Low Countries*, of *Champagne*, and of the iſle of France.

3. GALLIA CÆLTICA, or *LUGDUNENſIS*, was bounded by Belgium, *Gallia Narbonenſis*, the Alps, and the ocean. It contained the countries heretofore known by the names of *Lyonnois*, *Tou- raine*, *Franche Comté*, *Senenois*, *Suwiſerland*, and part of *Normandy*. It was alſo called *Comata*, be- cauſe the people ſuffered their hair to grow to an uncommon length.

4. GALLIA CISPALPINA, or *CITERIOR*. By theſe names the Romans underſtood that part of Gaul which lies in Italy, on *this ſide of the Alps*, in regard to the inhabitants of Rome. They alſo ſtiled it *Gallia Togata*, becauſe the Roman gowns called *togæ* were worn by the people. It is now chiefly comprehended in the *CISPALPINE REPUB- LIC*.

5. GALLIA CISPADANA was applied to a part of Italy conquered by ſome of the Gauls; and meant the country on *this ſide of the Po*, with reſpect to Rome. See *CISPADANA*.

6. GALLIA NARBONENſIS, which contained the provinces lately called *Languedoc*, *Provence*, *Dauphiné*, and *Savoij*, was bounded by the Alps and *Pyrenean mountains*, by *Aquitania*, Belgium, and the *Mediterranean*. *Gallia Narbonenſis* was called *Braccata*, on account of the peculiar covering of the inhabitants for their thighs.

7. GALLIA TRANSALPINA, or *ULTERIOR*, was the name given by the Romans to that part of Gaul, which lay *beyond the Alps*, in regard to Rome.

8. GALLIA TRANSPADANA, was the name given to that part of Italy, conquered by the Gauls, which lay *beyond the Po*, in reſpect of Rome.

GALLIANO, a town of the *Ciſalpine republic*, in the dept. of *Montagna*, and *ci-devant* duchy of *Milan*, 6 miles SSE. of *Como*.

(1.) \* GALLIARD. *n. ſ.* [*gaillard*, French; imagined to be derived from the Gauliſh *ard*, genius; and *gay*.] 1. A gay, briſk, lively man; a fine fellow.—

Selden is a *galliard* by himſelf. *Cleaveland*.  
2. An active, nimble, ſpritely dance. It is in both ſenſes now obſolete.—I did think, by the excellent conſtitution of thy leg, it was form'd under the ſtar of a *galliard*. *Shakeſpeare's Twelfth Night*.—  
There's nought in France

That can be with a nimble *galliard* won:  
You cannot revel into dukedoms there. *Sb. H. V.*  
—If there be any that would take up all the time,  
let him find means to take them off, and bring o-

use to do with those that  
*Bacon*.—The triplas and  
 re an agreement with the  
 as when *galliard* time and  
 in the medley of one dance. *Bacon*.  
 GALLIARDA, ( *y* 1, *def.* 2.)  
 iently in great request, con-  
 motions and actions, some-  
 times along the room,  
 and sometimes a. It was also called *Roman-  
 esque*, because brought from Rome. Thomot Ar-  
 beau, in his Orchestography, describes it as con-  
 sisting of 5 steps and 5 positions of the feet, which  
 the dancers performed before each other, and  
 whereof he gives us the score or tablature, which  
 is of six minims and two triple times.

GALLIARDA, in the Italian music, a tune  
 that belongs to the dance, called GALLIARD. The  
 air of it is lively in triple time.

\* GALLIARDESE. *n. f.* [French.] Merriment;  
 exuberant gaiety. Not in use.—At my nativity  
 my ascendant was the watery sign of Scorpius; I  
 was born in the planetary hour of Saturn, and I  
 think I have a piece of that leaden planet in me:  
 I am no way facetious, nor disposed for the mirth  
 and *galliardise* of company. *Brown's Rel. Med.*

GALLIC, or } *adj.* belonging to, or origina-  
 GALLICAN, } ting from France.

\* GALLICISM. *n. f.* [*gallicisme*, French; from  
*gallicus*, Latin.] A mode of speech peculiar to the  
 French language: such as, he *figured* in contro-  
 versy; he *held* this conduct; he *held* the same lan-  
 guage that another had *held* before: with many  
 other expressions to be found in the pages of *Bo-  
 lingbroke*.—In English I would have *Gallicisms* a-  
 voided, that we may keep to our own language,  
 and not follow the French mode in our speech.  
*Felton on the Classics.*

GALLICO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ul-  
 tra, 5 miles N. of Reggio.

\* GALLIGASKINS. *n. f.* [*Galige Gallo-Vas-  
 conum*. *Skinner*.] Large open hose. Not used but  
 in ludicrous language.—

*My galligaskins, that have long withstood  
 The Winter's fury, and encroaching frosts,  
 By time subdued, what will not time subdued,  
 An horrid chasm disclose.* *Philips.*

\* GALLIMATIA. *n. f.* [*galimatias*, French.]  
 Nonsense; talk without meaning.

\* GALLIMAUFREY. *n. f.* [*galimaufreé*, Fr.]  
 1. A hoch-poch, or hash of several sorts of broken  
 meat; a medley. *Hanmer*.—They have made of  
 our English tongue a *gallimaufrey*, or hodge podge  
 of all other speeches. *Spenser*. 2. Any inconsis-  
 tent or ridiculous medley.—They have a dance,  
 which the wenches say is a *gallimaufrey* of gam-  
 bols, because they are not in't. *Spak. Wint. Tale*.  
 —The painter who, under pretence of diverting  
 the eyes, would fill his picture with such varieties  
 as alter the truth of history, would make a ridi-  
 culous piece of painting, and a mere *gallimaufrey*  
 of his work. *Dryd. Duf.* 3. It is used by *Shake-  
 speare* ludicrously of a woman.—

Sir John affects thy wife.  
 —Why, sir, my wife is not young.  
 —He woos both high and low, both rich and poor;  
 loves thy *gallimaufrey*, friend. *Shak.*

GALLINACEOUS, *adj.* an appella-  
 to the birds of the order of the gallinæ.

GALLINACEUS LAPIS, a glossy sub-  
 duced by volcanic fires; the same with  
*obsidianus* of the ancients. A species of it  
 from Paris, of a beautiful black, refer  
 colour of a large crow, in that coun-  
*gallinago*.

GALLINÆ, in ornithology, an order.  
 See ORNITHOLOGY.

GALLINARA, an island of the Li-  
 public, on the coast of Genoa, 10 mile  
 nale. Lon 25. 50. E. of Ferro. Lat 44

(1.) GALLING, or EXCORIATION  
 cine. See EXCORIATION.

(2.) GALLING OF A HORSE'S BACK,  
 occasioned by heat, and the chafing of  
 the saddle. To prevent it, some take a  
 well garnished with hair, and fit it ne  
 the pannel of the saddle, so that the  
 may be next the horse. When a hors  
 galled upon a journey, take out a li  
 stuffing of the pannel over the swelling  
 a piece of soft white leather on the in  
 pannel; anoint the part with salt butte  
 ry evening wipe it clean, rubbing it t  
 soft, anointing it again with butter, or  
 of that, with grease; wash the swellin  
 every evening with cold water and  
 strew it with salt, which should be left  
 horse be saddled in the morning.

GALLINULE. See FULICA, N° 3

GALLIO, a district of Maritime Aul  
 the SETTE COMMUNI, or seven commu-  
 cenza. In 1762, the church and above  
 were burnt.

GALLIOPOLIS, or GALLIPOLIS, 2  
 of the United States, in the North W  
 ritory, seated on the Ohio, 140 miles  
 lumbia, 300 SW. of Pittsburgh, and 5  
 Philadelphia. The inhabitants are chic  
 Lon. 83. 9. W. Lat. 39. 2. N.

\* GALLIOT. *n. f.* [*galliotte*, Fren  
 swift galley.—Barbarossa departing out  
 pontus with eighty gallees, and certa  
 shaped his courie towards Italy. *Knolk*

GALLIPAGO ISLES. See GALIP.

(1.) GALLIPOLI, a sea port town  
 in the province of Otranto, with a b  
 It stands on a rocky island, joined to  
 nent by a bridge. From the remotest  
 this was a station so favourable to com  
 every maritime power wished to secu  
 nothing has been done to improve its  
 vantages. Mr Swinburn informs us,  
 ther harbour nor shelter for shipping.  
 demolished Gallipoli for its adherence  
 rick of Arragon. The Venetians treat  
 great cruelty in the 15th century; and  
 was pillage by the turks. To preserve  
 ture calamities, Charles V. repaired an  
 ened its fortifications; and from that  
 the present war, it has enjoyed the  
 peace and trade, which have rendered  
 opulent and gayest town upon the coa  
 its inhabitants do not exceed 6000 i  
 Contumptions and spitting of blood ar  
 occasioned by the great subtilty of the

d from every quarter. The buildings are, and some of the churches have good

The cotton trade brings in about cats a year. Silk and saffron were formerly of traffic; but heavy duties and oppressive caused them to be abandoned. The soil, but from dryness of climate, and want of soil, the vintage frequently fails. great support of the place: two thirds of its olive plantations are exported to the north of Italy. Neapolitans also buy up the oils, from year to year, and an olive appears upon the tree; and is afterwards settled by public authority 11 miles W. of Otranto. Lon. 18. 10. N. 18. N.

**LIPOLI**, a sea port town of European in the province of Romania, seated at the sea of Marmora; with a good harbor and a bishop's see. It contains about 20,000 Greeks, and a great number of Jews. It is a handsome structure, with domes and a lead. The town is an open place, with other defense than a paltry square of houses of the Greeks and Jews have above 3½ feet high, to prevent the enemy riding into their houses. Lon. 26. 1. 40. 24. N.

**LIPOLIS**. See GALLIOPOLIS.

**LIPOT**. *n. f.* [*gleye*, Dutch, shining livery. *Gala*, or gallypot, is a fine paint-

A pot painted and glazed, commonly used for medicines.—Plato said his master Socrates the apothecary's *gallypots*, that had heads, apes, owls, and satyrs; but without drugs. *Bacon's Apophth.*—

*gallypots* in nice discipline are set; *gallypots* are rang'd in alphabet. *Garth*. *trinus* thought it unsafe to trust the real *gallypots* to any man. *Spect.*— that dost *Aesculapius* deride, or his *gallypots* in triumph ride. *Fenton*. **UM**, in botany. See GALIUM.

**ULLO**, an island of the South Sea, near of Peru, which was the first place where the Spaniards when they attempted the conquest of Peru; it is also the place where the Spaniards used to come for wood and water, and in their vessels. Lon. 88. 0. W. Lat. 2. 30. N.

**ULLO**, an island of S. America, in the Gulf of Popayan. Lat. 2. 40. N.

**ULORÆCIA**, a country of Asia Minor, in Cappadocia. It was inhabited by Gauls; who assumed the name of *ULORÆCIA*, because a number of Greeks had fled to them in their emigration. See GA-

**ULLIS**, John; born at Paris in 1632, was a scholar; but chiefly noted for having a conjunction with M. de Sallo who formed the first publisher of the *Journal des Sçavans* first journal was published Jan. 5, 1665; but entirely criticized new works so rigorously, that the whole tribe of authors united and were. De Sallo declined entirely after the publication of the 3d number: but Gallois sent out a 4th on January 4th, 1666; **PART; L**

though not without a most humble advertisement at the beginning, wherein he declared, that the author "would not presume to criticize, but simply give an account of the books." This, with the protection of M. Colbert, reconciled the public to it; and thus began literary journals, which have been continued from that time to this, under various titles, and by various writers. Gallois continued his journal to 1674, when more important occupations obliged him to turn it over to other hands. M. Colbert had taken him into his house to teach him Latin; and when he lost his patron in 1683, he was first made librarian to the king, and then Greek professor in the royal college. He died in 1707.

**GALLO-MANIA**, *n. f.* [from *Gallia*, France; and *mania*, madness.] a new word, which owes its origin to the present political ferment in public opinion: used in contempt respecting the opinions of those who are supposed to be infected with the principles now generally prevailing in France, as to religion or government. It might have been long ago applied to the general taste among the higher ranks, for French fashions, French cookery, the affectation of French words and phrases, &c. in preference to English.

(1.) **GALLON**. *n. f.* [*gelo*, low Latin.] A liquid measure of four quarts.—Beat them into powder, and boil them in a gallon of wine, in a vessel close stopped. *Wispman's Surg.*

(2.) **GALLON** is a measure of capacity both for dry and liquid things, but differs according to the quality of the thing measured: For instance, the wine gallon contains 231 cubic inches, and holds 8 lb. avoirdupois of pure water; the beer and ale gallon contains 281 solid inches, and holds 10 lb. 3¼ oz. avoirdupois of water; and the gallon for corn, meal, &c. 272½ cubic inches, and holds 9 lb. 13 oz. of pure water.

**GALLOON**. *n. f.* [*galon*, French.] A kind of close lace, made of gold or silver, or of silk alone.

**GALLOP**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] The motion of a horse when he runs at full speed; in which, making a kind of a leap forwards, he lifts both his forelegs very near at the same time: and while these are in the air, and just upon the point of touching the ground, he lifts both his hind legs almost at once. *Farrier's Dict.*

**To GALLOP**. *v. n.* [*galoper*, French. Derived by all the etymologists, after *Budæus*, from *καλωζω*; but perhaps it comes from *gant*, all; and *loopen*, to run, Dutch; that is, to go on full speed.] 1. To move forward by leaps, so that all the feet are off the ground at once.—

I did hear

The galloping of horse: who was't came by?

*Shak Spens*

His steeds will be restrain'd,

But gallop lively down the western hill. *Donne.*

In such a shape grim Saturn did restrain  
His heav'nly limbs; and slow'd with such a mane  
When half surpriz'd, and fearing to be seen,  
The leacher gallop'd from his jealous queen.

*Dryden's Virgil;*

2. To ride at the pace which is performed by leaps.—Seeing such streams of blood as threatened a drowning life, we galloped toward them to part them. *Sidney.*—

D d

The

They 'gan espy  
An armed knight towards them gallop fast,  
That seemed from some feared foe to fly. *F. 2.*  
—He who fair and softly goes steadily forward, in  
a course that points right, will sooner be at his  
journey's end, than he that runs after every one  
he meets, though he gallop all day full speed.  
*Locke.* 3. To move very fast.—

The golden sun  
Gallops the zodiack in his glitt'ring coach. *Sh.*  
—Whom doth time gallop withal?  
—With a thief to the gallows. *Sbak.*  
—He that rides post through a country may, from  
the transient view, tell how in general the parts lie:  
such superficial ideas he may collect in galloping  
over it. *Locke.*

(1.) \* GALLOPER. *n. f.* [from *gallop.*] 1. A  
horse that gallops.—Mules bred in cold countries  
are much better to ride than horses for their walk  
and trot; but they are commonly rough gallopers,  
though some of them are very fleet. *Mort. Husb.*  
2. A man that rides fast, or makes great haste.

(2.) GALLOPER, in artillery, is the name of a  
carriage, which serves for a pound and a half gun.  
This carriage has shafts so as to be drawn without  
a limber, and is thought by some to be more con-  
venient and preferable to other field carriages;  
and it may likewise serve for our light three and  
six pounders.

GALLOTS, ISLE AUX, an island of Canada,  
in the St Lawrence. Lat. 43. 33. N.

GALLOW, *n. f.* See GALLOWES.

\* To GALLOW. *v. a.* [*agalwan*, to fright, Sax.]  
To terrify; to fright.—

The wrathful skies  
Gallow the very wand'ers of the dark,  
And make them keep their caves. *Sbak. K. L.*  
(I.) GALLOWAY, in geography, a county of  
Scotland, which is divided into two districts; the  
western, called *Upper*, and the eastern, *Lower*.

1. GALLOWAY, LOWER, or the Stewartry of  
Kirkcudbright. See KIRKCUDBRIGHT.

2. GALLOWAY, UPPER, or the county of Wig-  
ton. See WIGTON.

(II.) GALLOWAY, a township of New Jersey,  
in Gloucester county.

(III. i.) \* GALLOWAY. *n. f.* A horse not more  
than fourteen hands high, much used in the North;  
probably as coming originally from Galloway, a  
shire in Scotland.

(ii.) GALLOWAY, in zoology. Tradition re-  
ports that this kind of horses sprung from some  
Spanish stallions, which swam on shore from some  
of the ships of the famous Spanish armada,  
wrecked on the coast; and coupling with the  
mares of the country, furnished the kingdom  
with their posterity. They are much esteemed,  
and of a middling size, strong, active, nervous,  
and hardy.

(IV.) GALLOWAY. See GALWAY, N° 1.

(V.) GALLOWAY, MULL OF, the south cape or  
promontory of all Scotland, in the county of Gal-  
loway, on the Irish sea. Lon. 1. 43. W. of Edin-  
burgh. Lat. 54. 44. N.

(VI.) GALLOWAY, NEW, a town of Scotland,  
in Kirkcudbrightsh. near the Ken, 15 miles N. of  
Kirkcudbright.

\* GALLOWGLASSES. *n. f.* 1. It is worn like-

wife of footmen under their shirts  
which footmen the Irish call *gallo*  
which name doth discover them also  
English; for *gallogla* signifies an Er  
or yeoman. And he being so arm  
shirt of mail, down to the calf of h  
long broad ax in his hand, was the  
*armature*; and was instead of the  
now weareth a corset, before the co  
or almost invented. *Spenser on Ir.*  
otherwise than *Spenser*.] Soldiers an  
Irish, who serve on horseback.—

A puissant and mighty pow'  
Of *galloglasses* and stout kernes,  
Is marching hitherward in proud

(1.) \* GALLOWES. GALLOWES. *n.*  
by some in the singular; but by mo  
plural, or sometimes has another pl  
*Galgo*, Gothic; *gealga*, Saxon; *galg*  
some derive from *gag*, high, other  
Welsh, power: but it is probably  
*galloas*, to fright, from *agalwan*, th  
ing the great object of legal terrour  
had over two posts, on which malefa  
ed.—This monster sat like a hangm  
of *galloas*; in his right hand he was  
ing a crown of laurel, in his left h  
money. *Sidney*.—I would we were al  
and one mind good; O, there w  
of gaolers and *galloas*. *Shakesp. C*

† prophesied, if a *galloas* were  
This fellow could not drown.  
—He took the mayor aside, and w  
that execution must that day be do  
fore required him that a pair of *gal*  
erected. *Hayward*.—A poor fellow,  
*galloas*, may be allowed to feel the f  
while he is upon Tyburn road. *Swin*  
that deserves the gallows.—

Cupid hath been five thousand  
—Ay, and a shrewd unhappy *gallo*

(2.) GALLOWES, among our ances  
ed *furca*, fork; a name by which i  
minated abroad, particularly in Fra  
In this latter country, the reason of  
subsists; the gallows being a real f  
the ground, across the legs whereof  
to which the rope is tied. See FU

\* GALLOWESFREE. *adj.* [*galloas*  
empt by desist from being charged

Let him be *galloasfree* by my  
And nothing suffer, since he totl

\* GALLOWTREE. *n. f.* [*galloas*  
tree of terrour; the tree of executi

He hung their conquer'd arma  
fame,

On *galloasrees*, in honour of his

A Scot, when from the *gallo*  
Drops into Styx, and turns a fol

GALLS IADI, a town of Sw  
Gothland, 50 miles E. of Gothenb

(1.) GALLUS, Cornelius, an a  
poet, born at Forum Julium, in C  
a particular favourite with August  
made him governor of Egypt: bu



in there occasioned his banishment and the  
 is estate; for grief of which he put an end  
 wa life. He wrote 4 books of love elegies;  
 gil has complimented him in many places.  
 GALLUS, the Cock, in ornithology. See  
 IVUS.

GALLUS, a river of Phrygia.  
 LY, in printing, a frame into which the  
 itor empties the lines out of his composing  
 id in which he ties up the page when it is  
 ed. The galley is formed of an oblong  
 board, with a ledge on three sides, and a  
 o admit a false bottom called a *galley lice*.

Y-HEAD. See GALLEY-HEAD.

NEIKIRCHEN, a town of Austria.

OMBATZ, a town of Servia, 20 miles  
 of Orsova.

OPINA, in botany, a genus of the digynia

closering to the tetrandria class of plants.

OVSKOI, a fort of Russian Siberia.

DWAH, or GHALVAH, a town of Africa,  
 4 on the Nile.

ALSTON, a parish of Scotland, in Ayr-  
 miles long, and from 4 to 5 broad. The  
 ntly light and gravelly, partly rich clay  
 l. The climate is moist but healthy. The  
 of arable acres is 7,200. Oats are the  
 duce; peas, beans, potatoes, wheat, and  
 also cultivated. There are many fine old  
 rticularly very large firs in the parish.

elm measures 24 feet round, 12 feet of  
 the top, and spreads into 24 branches,  
 which is itself a large tree. Great quan-  
 tities of excellent cheese are made, and about 1000  
 of flax are annually manufactured in the  
 parish. The population, in 1790, stated by the  
 author, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was  
 and had increased 564 since 1755. The  
 of sheep was above 2,600. There are se-  
 veral retreats of Sir William Wallace, in  
 it, some of which still bear the name of  
 patriot. See BIG, N° 1; WALLACE-  
 : There are 3 lint mills, 1 paper, and  
 12 in the parish. One of these last, seat-  
 ed at Irvine, is called *Patie's Mill*, and claims  
 the honor of having given birth to Ramsay's ce-  
 lebrated, *The Last of Patie's Mill*.

ALSTON, a flourishing village in the above  
 parish, seated on the great roads from E-  
 dinburgh to Ayr, and from Glasgow to Dumfries,  
 it through it. The population, in 1790,  
 was 1,200. It has two great fairs, in July and  
 in the evening before St Peter's fair fires  
 on all the adjacent hills.

ALLA, a town of Sardinia, 14 miles S.

YS, } or GAULTIES, mountains of Ire-  
 ES, } land, in the counties of Limerick,  
 and Cork.

NISM. See ELECTRICITY, *Index*.

AS, a town of Portugal, in Alentejo;  
 NW. of Estremoz.

WAY, or GALLOWAY, a county of  
 the province of Connaught, 76 miles  
 E. to W. and 40 broad; bounded by  
 the N. of Clare, Tipperary, King's County,  
 and the sea. The Shannon washes  
 on the E. and SE. and forms a lake

several miles long. The county contains 27 ba-  
 ronies, 13 boroughs; 28 churches, 116 parishes,  
 about 28,200 houses, and 142,000 soul. The  
 climate is warm and the soil fertile. The chief  
 towns are Gaiway, (N° 2.) Tuain; Ballinalloe,  
 and Loughrea. Before the Union with Great Bri-  
 tain, this county sent 2 representatives to parlia-  
 ment, for itself, and 6 from the boroughs.

(2.) GALWAY, the capital of the above county,  
 (N° 1.) is surrounded with strong walls, has large  
 straight streets, and the houses are built of stone.  
 It has a good trade into foreign parts, on account  
 of its harbour, which is defended by a fort. It is  
 governed by a mayor, sheriffs, and recorder; and,  
 before the Union, returned two members to parlia-  
 ment. It has but one parish church, which is  
 a large and beautiful Gothic structure; an ex-  
 change; barracks for 20 companies of foot, a  
 charter school, and an hospital. It was one of the  
 strongest towns in the kingdom: it held out some  
 time against general Ginckle, who invested and took  
 it after the battle of Aughrim. Its fortifications  
 were then repaired; the walls are flanked by bas-  
 tions, but are mostly decayed. The salmon and  
 herring fisheries are carried on here with great  
 spirit, and employ 700 boats; the quantity of  
 kelp manufactured and exported is considerable;  
 and the linen manufacture, is important. In 1296,  
 Sir William de Burgh founded a monastery here  
 for Franciscan friars, on St Stephen's island, situ-  
 ated without the N. gate of the town. His tomb  
 was discovered in June 1779, 4 feet under ground,  
 with his family arms, and a very long broad sword,  
 elegantly carved thereon. Near the W. gate of  
 the town, without the walls, was the monastery of St  
 Mary of the hill. There are no remains of it ex-  
 cept the cemetery; the building having been de-  
 molished by the townsmen, in 1652, to prevent  
 Cromwell from turning it into a fortification.  
 This town is seated on the bay of Galway, 49  
 miles WSW. of Athlone, and 96 W. of Dublin.  
 Lon. 8. 58. W. Lat. 53. 15. N.

(3.) GALWAY, a township of New York, in the  
 county of Saratoga.

(4.) GALWAY BAY, a large bay of the Atlantic,  
 on the W. coast of Ireland; 20 miles long and 7  
 broad. The N. side of it is dangerous for ships.

GAMA, Vasco DE, a Portuguese admiral, ce-  
 lebrated for his discovery of the East Indies by the  
 Cape of Good Hope, was born at Synes; and, in  
 1497, was sent to the Indies by king Emanuel:  
 he returned in 1502, and sailed thither again with  
 13 vessels richly laden. He was made viceroy of  
 the Indies by king John III; and died at Cochín  
 on the 24th Dec. 1525. Stephen and Christo-  
 pher De Gama, his sons, were also viceroys of  
 the Indies, and celebrated in history.

GAMACHES, a town of France, in the dep. of  
 Somme, 12 miles SW. of Abbeville.

GAMBACH, a town of Germany, in the princi-  
 pality of Solms Braunfels, 2 m. W. of Munzenberg.

\* GAMBADA. } *n. f.* [*gamba*, Italian, a leg.]

\* GAMBADO. } Spatterdashes; boots worn  
 upon the legs above the shoe.—The pettifogger  
 ambles to her in his *gambadoes* once a week. *Den-  
 nis's Letters*.

GAMBAIS, a town of France, in the d-part.  
 of Seine and Oise; 3 miles E. of Houdan.

**GAMBOLO**, a town of the dep. of Tessino, and cit. 2 miles from Vigevano. It is one of the Cisalpine republic, on the river Po, and is ci devant Cremona.

**GAMBARE**, a town of the Cisalpine republic, situated on the Naviglio, 18 miles from Milan. It had 2000 citizens, in 1797. It is in the district of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of the Mela, on the confines of Mantua; containing 3 parishes, and 4000 citizens.

(1.) **GAMBARE**, a district of Maritime Austria, in the Dogado, W. of Venice, extending from the banks of the lakes to the Paduan. The soil is fertile, but the climate is not healthy.

(2.) **GAMBARE**, a village in the above district, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) on the Brenta. It has a chapel on the ruins of the abbey of St Ilario.

**GAMBARO**, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Placentia, 24 miles S. of Placentia.

**GAMBASCA**, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, and in the marquisate of Saluzzo, on a rivulet which runs into the Po, 6 miles W. of Saluzzo.

(1.) **GAMBIA**, a country of Africa, ceded to Britain by the peace, in 1783.

(2.) **GAMBIA**, a large river of Negroland in Africa, generally supposed to be a branch of the Niger. See **NIGER**, **NILE**, and **SENEGAL**.

**GAMBINA**, a river of Italy, in the Cisalpine republic, and department of Upper Po.

\* **GAMBLER**. *n. f.* [A cant word, I suppose, for *game* or *gamester*.] A knave whose practice is to invite the unwary to game and cheat them.

**GAMBLE'S STATION**, a fort of the United States, in Tennessee, 12 miles from Knoxville.

(1.) \* **GAMBOGE**. *n. f.* *Gamboge* is a concreted vegetable juice, partly of a gummy, partly of a resinous nature, heavy, of a bright yellow colour, and scarce any smell. It is brought from America and the East Indies, particularly from Cambaja, or Cambogia. *lill.*

(2.) **GAMBOGE** is partly of a gummy, and partly of a resinous nature. See **CAMBOGIA**. It is chiefly brought to us in large cakes or rolls from Cambaja in the East Indies. The best sort is of a deep yellow or orange colour, breaks shining and free from dross; it has no smell, and very little taste, unless kept in the mouth for some time, when it impresses a slight sense of acrimony. It immediately communicates to spirit of wine a bright golden colour, and almost entirely dissolves in it; Geoffroy says, except the sixth part. Alkaline salts enable water to act upon this substance powerfully as a menstruum; the solution is somewhat transparent, of a deep blood-red colour, and passes the filtre; the dulcified spirit of sal ammoniac readily and entirely dissolves it, and takes up a considerable quantity; and this solution mixes either with water or spirit, without growing turbid. As a pigment, it makes a beautiful yellow, which is much used by the painters. Dr Lewis says, that it makes a beautiful and durable citron yellow stain upon marble, whether rubbed in substance on the hot stone, or applied in form of a spiritous tincture. When it is rubbed on cold marble, the stone must after-

wards be heated, to make the colour. As a medicine, gamboge evacuates both ways; some condemn it as acting with great violence, and occasioning dangerous cathartes. Geoffroy seems fond of it, and says, that he has frequently given from 4 to 8 grains, without its proving at all emetic; and if given in a liquid form, and sufficient quantity, it stands not in need of any corrector. In the form of a bolus or pill, it is most apt to operate, but very rarely has this effect if it be mixed with *mercurius dulcis*. He nevertheless cautions against its use where the patient cannot easily bear it. It has been used in dropsy with tartar or jalap, or both, to quicken the operation. It is also recommended by some for the cure of the tape-worm, in a dose of 15 grains, with an equal quantity of tartar emetic, in cases of the tape-worm, is ordered in the morning; and if the patient is expelled in 2 or 3 hours, it is repeated the 3d time with safety and efficacy.

It is also recommended by some, that it has been given to this extent in the cure of the tape-worm, that it has been given to this extent in the cure of the tape-worm, that it has been given to this extent in the cure of the tape-worm, that it has been given to this extent in the cure of the tape-worm.

\* **GAMBOL**. *n. f.* [from the verb *gambol*, a hop; a leap for joy.—A gentleman once showed me a spaniel, that would be still toying upon him, and playing a thousand tricks.]

Bacchus through the conquer'd  
And boasts in gambols frisk'd before  
god.

2. A frolick; a wild prank.—

For who did ever play his gambol  
With such unsufferable rambles?

\* **To GAMBOL**. *v. n.* [*gamboller*, to dance; to skip; to frisk; to jump for joy.]

Bears, tigers, ounces, par  
Gambol'd before them. *Mit.*  
The king of elfs, and little fair  
Gambol'd on heaths, and danc'd o

The monsters of the flood  
Gambol around him in the wat'ry  
And heavy whales in aukward me

2. To leap; to start.—

'Tis not madnes  
That I have utter'd; bring me to  
And I the matter will record, wt  
Would gambol from.

**GAMBON**, a river of France, w  
the Seine, near Andely.

\* **GAMBREL**. *n. f.* [from *gambrel*, Ital.] The leg of a horse.—What an admirable, than for the principles of tendon to be so mixed as to make it and yet to have the strength of iron by the weight which the tendon, ly, *gambrel*, doth then command, when with a man upon his back. *Creag.*

**GAMBRON**, **GOMBRON**, or **BE**  
a city of Persia. See **GOMBRON**.



**VISSA**, a town of Maritime Austria, miles E. of Cabo of Istria.

**ME. s. f.** (*gamas*, a jest, Islandick.) any kind.—

we had pastimes here, and pleasing  
*Shakefp.*

posed to earnest or seriousness.—

in her head they set a garland green,  
and her 'twixt earnest and 'twixt *game.*  
*Spenser.*

merriment; sportive insult.—

do not seek occasion of new quarrels,  
social, to distress me more;  
a *game* of my calamities? *Milt.*

match at play. 5. Advantage in play.

I vouchers for our fame we stand,  
the *game* into each other's hand. *Dryd.*

purued; measures planned.—This  
the present *game* of that crown, and  
ill begin no other 'till they see an end  
*mpl.* 7. Field sports: as, the chace,

out this hour he make his way,  
the colour of his usual *game,*

where find his friends with horse and men,  
him free from his captivity. *Shak.*

arms to use, or nets to frame  
fits to combat, or to tame,  
the myst'ries of that *game.* *Waller.*

craftsmen, that were abroad upon *game,*  
company of bustards and cranes. *L'Alar.*

purued in the field; animals appro-  
priate to sportsmen.—

eg, and men, not beasts, shall be his  
game.

u, and hostile snare, such as refuse  
to his empire tyrannous. *Milton.*

such a variety of *game* springing up be-  
fore I know not which to follow. *Dryd.*

hound will follow the person he pur-  
sues, the particular *game* they have  
in view. *Shak.*

with thy Cynthia hurl the pointed spear  
to chase the flying deer;

Chloe take a nobler aim,  
in hearts we sling, nor ever miss the  
aim. *Prior.*

Nimrod first the bloody chace began,  
his hunter, and his prey was man:

mighty Norman boasts that barb'rous  
chace,

sees his trembling slaves the royal *game.*  
*Pope.*

in my labour, if its length you blame,  
I know but wife, you rob me of my *game.*  
*Young.*

contests, exhibited as spectacles to the  
people.

*games* are done, and Cæsar is returning.  
*Shakepeare.*

when ent'ring the Olympick *game,*  
a huge ox upon his shoulders came. *Denb.*

**ME**, in law, (*s. 1. def. 8.*) signifies birds, or  
fish or killed by fowling or hunting. The  
name of such animals *feræ naturæ* as are known  
denomination of *game*, with the right of  
taking, and destroying them, is vested  
in the crown, and from him derived to such of

his subjects as have received the grant of a chace, a  
park, or free warren. By the law of nature, indeed,  
every man, from the prince to the peasant, has an  
equal right of pursuing, and taking to his own use,  
all such creatures as are *feræ naturæ*, and there-  
fore the property of nobody, but liable to be seized  
by the first occupant. But it follows, (says Black-  
stone,) from the very end and constitution of so-  
ciety, that this natural right, as well as many others  
belonging to man as an individual, may be restrain-  
ed by positive laws enacted for reasons of state, or  
for the supposed benefit of the community. This  
restriction may be either with respect to the *place*  
in which this right may, or may not, be exercised;  
with respect to the *animals* that are the subjects  
of this right; or with respect to the *persons* allowed  
or forbidden to exercise it. And, in consequence  
of this authority, we find, that the municipal  
laws of many nations have exerted such power of  
restraint; have in general forbidden the entering  
on another man's grounds, for any cause, without  
the owner's leave; have extended their protection  
to such particular animals as are usually the ob-  
jects of pursuit; and have invested the preroga-  
tive of hunting and taking such animals in the so-  
vereign of the state only, and such as he shall au-  
thorize. Many reasons have concurred for making  
these constitutions: as, 1. For the encouragement  
of agriculture and improvement of lands, by gi-  
ving every man an exclusive dominion over his  
own soil. 2. For the preservation of the several  
species of these animals, which would soon be  
extirpated by a general liberty. 3. For prevention  
of idleness and dissipation in husbandmen, artificers,  
and others of lower rank; which would be the  
unavoidable consequence of universal licence. 4.  
For prevention of popular insurrections and re-  
sistance to the government, by disarming the bulk  
of the people: which last is a reason oftener meant  
than avowed, by the makers of forest or game  
laws. Nor, certainly, in these prohibitions is  
there any *natural* injustice, as some have weakly  
enough supposed: since, as Puffendorf observes,  
the law does not hereby take from any man his  
present property, or what was already his own;  
but barely abridges him of one means of acquiring  
a future property, that of occupancy; which in-  
deed the law of nature would allow him, but of  
which the laws of society have in most instances  
very justly and reasonably deprived him. Yet, how-  
ever defensible these provisions in general may be,  
on the footing of reason, or justice, or civil policy,  
we must, notwithstanding, acknowledge, that, in  
their present shape, they owe their immediate ori-  
gin to slavery. It is not till after the irruption  
of the northern nations into the Roman empire,  
that we read of any other prohibitions, than that  
natural one of not sporting on any private grounds  
without the owner's leave. With regard to the  
rise and original of our present civil prohibitions,  
it will be found, that all forest and game laws were  
introduced into Europe at the same time, and by  
the same policy, that gave birth to the feudal  
system; when those swarms of barbarians issued  
from their northern hive, and laid the foundation  
of most of the present kingdoms of Europe on the  
ruins of the western empire. For when a con-  
quering general came to settle the economy of a

conquished country, and to part it out among his soldiers or feudatories, who were to render him military service for such donations; it behoved him, in order to secure his new acquisitions, to keep the *ruffici* or natives of the country, and all who were not his military tenants, in as low a condition as possible, and especially to prohibit them the use of arms. Nothing could do this more effectually than a prohibition of hunting and sporting: and therefore it was the policy of the conqueror to reserve this right to himself, and such on whom he should bestow it; which were only his capital feudatories or greater barons. And, accordingly, we find, in the feudal constitutions, one and the same law prohibiting the *ruffici* in general from carrying arms, and also proscribing the use of nets, snares, or other engines for destroying the game. This exclusive privilege well suited the martial genius of the troops, who delighted in a sport, which in its pursuit and slaughter bore some resemblance to war. *Vita omnis (says Cæsar, speaking of the ancient Germans) in venationibus atque in studiis rei militaris consistit.* And Tacitus in like manner observes, that *quoties bella non incunt, multum venatibus, plus per otium transgunt.* And indeed, like some of their modern successors, they had no other amusement to entertain their vacant hours; they despising all arts as effeminate, and having no other learning than was couched in such rude ditties as were sung at the solemn carousals, which succeeded these ancient huntings. And it is remarkable, that in those nations where the feudal policy remains the most unaltered, the forest or game laws continue in their highest rigour. In France, before the revolution, all game was properly the king's; and in some parts of Germany it is death for a peasant to be found hunting in the woods of the nobility. With us in Britain, also, hunting has ever been esteemed a most princely diversion and exercise. The whole island was replenished with all sorts of game in the times of the Britons; who lived in a wild and pastoral manner, without inclosing or improving their grounds; and derived much of their subsistence from the chase, which they all enjoyed in common. But when husbandry took place under the Saxon government, and lands began to be cultivated, improved, and inclosed, the beasts naturally fled into the woody and desert tracts, which were called the *forrests*; and, having never been disposed of in the first distribution of lands, were therefore held to belong to the crown. These were filled with great plenty of game, which our royal sportsmen reserved for their own diversion, on pain of pecuniary forfeiture for such as interfered with their sovereign. But every freeholder had the full liberty of sporting upon his own territories, provided he abstained from the king's forests. However, upon the Norman conquest, a new doctrine took place; and the right of pursuing and taking all beasts of chase or *venary*, and such other animals as were accounted *game*, was then held to belong to the king, or to such only as were authorized under him. And this, as well upon the principles of the feudal law, that the king is the ultimate proprietor of all the lands in the kingdom, they being all held of him as the chief lord, or lord *paramount of the see*; and that therefore he has

the right of the universal soil, to enter it and to chase and take such creatures at his pleasure: as also upon another maxim of the common law, that these animals are *bona vacantia* having no other owner, belong to the king as prerogative. As therefore the former real right held to vest in the king a right to pursue them any where, the latter was supposed to vest in the king, and such as he should authorize, an exclusive right. This right, thus vested in the crown, was exerted with the utmost rigour, and after the time of the Norman establishment, not only in the ancient forests, but in the new ones which the Conqueror made, by laying out vast tracts of country, depopulated for the purpose, and reserved solely for the king's diversion; in which were exercised the most tyrannical and oppressive, under colour of forest laws for the sake of preserving the beasts of chase, to kill any of which, within the limits of the forest, was as penal as the death of a man. And in consequence of the same principle, king John issued a royal interdict upon the *swinged* as well as the *footed* creation: *capturam quivum per totam Angliam interdixit.* The cruel and unparliamentary hardships, which these forest laws create to the subject, occasioned our ancestors to be anxious for their reformation, as for the relaxation of the feudal rigours and the other exactions imposed by the Norman family; and accordingly the immunities of *charta de foresta* as well as the *charter of the forest* were intended for, and extorted from the king, with much difficulty, as those of *magna charta*. By this charter, confirmed in parliament (chap. III.) many forests were disafforested, or the king's forests were regulated, and the rigour of their oppressive privileges, and regulations made in the regimen of such as remained, particularly killing the king's deer was made no longer a capital offence, but only punished by imprisonment, or abjuration of the realm; and by a variety of subsequent statutes, together with the long acquiescence of the crown without asserting the forest laws, this prerogative is now no longer a grievance to the subject. But the king reserved to himself the *forest* for his own private diversion, so he granted out from time to time other tracts of land to his subjects under the name of *chases* or *parks*; or gave them licence to hunt in their own grounds; which included smaller forests in the hands of a subject, but governed by the forest laws; and by the common law no person is at liberty to take or kill any beast of chase, but such as hath an ancient chase or *warren*, unless they be also beasts of prey. As to a superior species of game, called *beasts and free warren*; the liberty of taking or killing them is another franchise, or royalty, derived likewise to the crown, and called *free warren*; a word which signifies preservation or custody: as the liberty of taking and killing fish in a stream or river is called a *free fishery*; of which however, no new franchise can at present be granted by the express provision of *magna charta* cap. 16. The principal intention of granting these franchises, or liberties, was in order to protect the game, by giving him a sole and exclusive power of killing it himself, provided he pursued it by other persons. And no man but he who

the warren, by grant from the crown, which supposes one, can justify sporting upon another man's soil; nor thorough strictness of common law, either of sporting at all. However new this may seem, it is a regular consequence as been before delivered, that the sole hunting and destroying game belongs to the king. This appears, as well from the deduction here made, as because he has his subjects an exclusive right of taking which he could not do, unless such a right inherent in himself. And hence it follows that no person whatever, but he who derives his right from the crown, is by law intitled to take or kill any beast of his own game whatsoever. It is true, that, in consequence of the crown, the frequent close warren in ancient times, and the multitude of new penalties of late by certain laws preserving the game, this exclusive right of the king is little known or considered, so that many are exempted from these motions looking upon himself as at liberty to be pleased with the game: whereas it is strictly true, and that no man, unless he is qualified he may vulgarly be esteemed, to encroach on the royal prerogative of game, unless he can show a particular grant; or some authority under the sanction of parliament. As to the latter, there are instances wherein an express permission was ever given by statute; the one in 127. altered by 9 Jac. I. c. 11. and repealed by 22 and 23 Car. II. c. 25. authority, so long as they remained in the hands of the owners of free warren, to lords of manors to appoint game-keepers, for the use of such lord or lady; and some alteration still subsists, and plainly shews power not to have been in them in the truth of the matter is, that these game-keepers are not qualified to kill game: but only to receive a fine and formal process of an action against an injured, who perhaps too might receive, these statutes inflict additional penalties covered either in a regular or summary way of the king's subjects, from certain inferior rank who may be found offender-articular. But it does not follow that they are liable from these additional penalties as forfeited to kill game. The circumstance is, that the penalties, are not prohibitions but exemptions. And these are not only liable to the penalties of the game, but also, if they kill game within the limits of any royal franchise, they are liable to the penalties of such who may have the sole or free warren therein. Upon the

whole, it appears, that the king, by his prerogative, and such persons as have, under his authority, the ROYAL FRANCHISE OF CHASE, PARK, OR FREE WARREN, (See these articles,) are the only persons who may acquire any property, however fugitive and transitory, in these animals *ferre nature*, while living; which is said to be vested in them *propter privilegium*. And such persons as may thus lawfully hunt, fish, or fowl, *ratione privilegii*, have only a qualified property in these animals: it not being absolute or permanent, but lasting only so long as the creatures remain within the limits of such respective franchise or liberty, and ceasing the instant they voluntarily pass out of it. It is held indeed, that if a man starts any game within his own grounds, and follows it into another's, and kills it there, the property remains in himself. And this is grounded on reason and natural justice; for the property consists in the possession; which possession commences by the finding it in his own liberty, and is continued by the immediate pursuit. And so, if a stranger starts game in one man's chase or free warren, and hunts it into another's liberty, the property continues in the owner of the chase or warren; this property arising from privilege, and not being changed by the act of a mere stranger. Or if a man starts game on another's private grounds, and kills it there, the property belongs to him on whose grounds it was killed, because it was also started there; this property arising *ratione soli*. Whereas if, after being started there, it is killed in the grounds of a third person, the property belongs not to the owner of the first ground, because the property is local; nor yet to the owner of the second, because it was not started in his soil; but it vests in the person who started and killed it, though guilty of a trespass against both the owners. See LAWS, RESPECTING GAME.

(3.) GAMES, in antiquity, (§ 1. *def.* 9.) were public diversions, exhibited on solemn occasions. Such among the Greeks were the Olympic, Pythian, Isthmian, Nemean, &c. games; and, among the Romans, the Apollinarian, Circensian, Capitoline, &c. games. See APOLLINARIAN, FUNERAL, § 3, OLYMPIC, PYTHIAN, &c.

(4.) GAMES, MODERN, are usually distinguished into those of exercise and address, and those of hazard. To the first belong chess, tennis, billiards, &c. and to the latter those performed with cards, or dice, as back-gammon, ombre, picquet, whist, &c. See BACK-GAMMON, CARDS, DICE, GAMING, &c.

\* To GAME. *v. n.* [*gaman*, Saxon.] 1. To play at any sport. 2. To play wantonly and extravagantly for money. *Gaming* leaves no satisfaction behind it: it no way profits either body or mind. *Locke*.

(1.) \* GAMECOCK. *n. s.* [*game* and *cock*.] Cocks bred to fight. They manage the dispute as fiercely as two gamecocks in the pit. *Locke*.

(2.) GAME-COCK. See COCK-FIGHTING.

\* GAME-EGG. *n. s.* [*game* and *egg*.] Eggs from which fighting cocks are bred.—

Thus boys hatch *game-eggs* under birds of prey,

To make the fowl more furious for the fray.

Gartb.  
(1.) GAME.

*n. f.* [game and keep.] A  
er game, and sees it is not

**AMELIA**, in Grecian antiquity, a nuptial  
her sacrifice, held in the ancient Greek  
y before a marriage; so called,  
had of shaving themselves on  
esenting their hair to some  
ad particular obligations.

**AMELION**, in the ancient chronology, was  
the 8th month of the Athenian year, containing 29  
days, and answering to the end of January and  
beginning of February. It was thus called, as be-  
ing, in the opinion of the Athenians, the most  
proper season of the year for marriage.

**GAMELORA**, an island in the Mediterranean,  
near the NE. coast of Tunis, 3 miles E. of Cape  
Zibeeb.

\* **GAMESOME**. *adj.* [from *game*.] Frolick-  
some; gay; sportive; playful; sportful.—Geron,  
though old, yet *gamesome* kept one end with Cos-  
ma. *Sidney*.—

I am not *gamesome*; I do lack some part  
Of that quick spirit that is in Antony.

*Shakefp. Jul. Cesar.*

The *gamesome* wind among her tresses plays,  
And curlteth up those growing riches short.

*Evilfax.*

Belial, in like *gamesome* mood.

*Milton.*

—This *gamesome* humour of children should  
rather be encouraged, to keep up their spirits and  
improve their strength and health, than curbed or  
restrained. *Locke*.

\* **GAMESOMELY**. *adv.* [from *gamesome*.]  
Merrily.

\* **GAMESOMENESS**. *n. f.* [from *gamesome*.]  
Sportiveness; merriment.

\* **GAMESTER**. *n. f.* [from *game*.] 1. One  
who is vitiously addicted to play.—Keep a *game-  
ster* from the dice, and a good student from his  
book, and it is wonderful. *Shakefp.*—A *gamester*,  
the greater master he is in his art, the worse man  
he is. *Bacon*.—

*Gamesters* for whole patrimonies play;

The steward brings the deeds, which must con-  
vey

The whole estate.

*Dryd. Juv.*

—Could we look into the mind of a common  
*gamester*, we should see it full of nothing but  
trumps and mattadores: her slumbers are haunt-  
ed with kings, queens, and knaves.—*Addis.*—

All the superfluous whims relate,

That fill a female *gamester's* pate,

What agony of soul she feels

To see a knave's inverted heels.

*Swift.*

—Her youngest daughter is run away with a *game-  
ster*, a man of great beauty, who in dressing and  
dancing has no superiour. *Law*. 2. One who is  
engaged at play.—

When lenity and cruelty play for kingdoms,

The gentler *gamester* is the soonest winner. *Sbak.*

—A man may think, if he will, that too eyes see  
no more than one; or that a *gamester* seeth always  
more than a looker on: but, when all is done,  
the help of good counsel is that which setteth busi-  
ness frait. *Bacon*. 3. A merry frolicksome per-  
son.—

You're a merry *gameste*

My lord Sands.

*Shakefp*

4. A prostitute. Not in use.—

She's impudent, my lord

And was a common *gamester* to the

**GAMET**, an island of Denmark, 3  
the continent, and 8 WSW. of Ripen

(1.) **GAMING**, the art of playing  
any game, particularly those of hazard  
dice, tables, &c. Gaming has at all  
considered as of pernicious consequ  
commonwealth: and is therefore sev  
bited by law. It is esteemed a practi  
to supply, or retrieve, the expences of

LUXURY; it being a kind of tacit cot  
the company therein engaged do, in-  
ceed the bounds of their respective fo  
therefore they cast lots to determine  
the ruin shall at present fall, that the  
saved a little longer. But, taken in  
is an offence of the most alarming natu  
by necessary consequence, to promote  
ness, theft, and debauchery, among  
lower class; and, among persons o  
rank, it has frequently been attend  
sudden ruin and desolation of ancient  
families, an abandoned prostitution of  
ciple of honour and virtue, and too oft  
in suicide. To restrain this pernicious

the inferior sort of people, the stat  
VIII. c. 9. was made; which prohibi  
gentlemen, the games of tennis, t  
dice, bowls, and other unlawful div  
specified, unless in the time of Chris  
pecuniary pains and imprisonment. A  
law, and also the statute 23 Geo. II.

pecuniary penalties, upon the master  
lic house, wherein servants are permit  
as well as upon servants themselves w  
gaming there. But this is not the prin  
of complaint; it is the gaming in high  
mands the attention of the magistrat  
to which every valuable consideration  
and which we seem to have inherit  
ancestors, the ancient Germans; wh  
describes to have been bewitched w  
of play to a most exorbitant degree.

dict themselves (says he) to dice (whic  
ful) when sober, and as a serious c  
with such a mad desire of winning or  
when stript of every thing else, they  
lost their liberty, and their very selves  
goes into a voluntary slavery; and, t  
and stronger than his antagonist, suffi  
be bound and sold. And this peric  
bad a cause they call the point of he  
in re prava perricacia, ipsi judem 22

would almost be tempted to think  
describing a modern Englishman. W  
thus intoxicated with so frantic a spi  
be of little avail: because the same fal  
nour that prompts a man to sacrifice  
deter him from appealing to the magi  
is proper that laws should be, and be  
licely, that gentlemen may consider w  
they wilfully incur, and what a con

sharpers; who, if successful in play, are paid with honour, or, if unsuccessful in their power to be still greater gainers ing. See § 3.

**CHANCE IN.** Hazard, or chance, of mathematical consideration, because of more and less. Gamesters either set an equality of chance, or are supposed

This equality may be altered in the game, by the greater good fortune of one of the gamesters, whereby he has a better chance, so that his share in is proportionably better than at first. and less runs through all the ratios of equality and infinite difference, or from an little difference till it come to an infiniteness, whereby the game is determined. game, therefore, with regard to the is a chance of the proportion the two to each other. The probability of an eater or less, according to the number of which it may happen, compared with ices by which it may either happen or fail. ivre, in a treatise de Mensura Sortis, has the variety of chances in several cases in gaming, the laws of which may be l by what follows. Suppose  $p$  the num- s in which an event may happen, and ber of cases wherein it may not happen, have the degree of probability, which is her as  $p$  to  $q$ . If two gamesters, A and on this footing, that, if the cases  $p$  hap- all win; but if  $q$  happen, B shall win,

ke be  $a$ ; the chance of A will be  $\frac{p a}{p+q}$ , f B  $\frac{q a}{p+q}$ ; consequently, if they sell the

es, they should have that for them re- on. that, if A throw two or more ces rows, he shall win; otherwise B shall it is the ratio of their chances? Since : one case wherein an ace may turn up, herein it may not, let  $a=1$ , and  $b=5$ . since there are eight throws of the die,

nd you will have  $a+b^n-b^n-nab^{n-1}$ ,  $-1$ : that is, the chance of A will be B as 663991 to 10156525, or nearly as and B are engaged at single quoits; playing some time, A wants 4 of being 6; but B is so much the better game- is chance against A upon a single throw as 3 to 2; What is the ratio of their Since A wants 4, and B 6, the game ed at nine throws; therefore, raise  $a+b$  h power, and it will be  $a^9+9 a^8 b+36 b^2+126 a^7 b^2+126 a^6 b^3$ , to  $84 a^5 b^4+36 b^5+6^9$ : call  $a$  3, and  $b$  2, and you will tio of chances in numbers, viz. 1759077

A and B play at single quoits, and A gamester, so that he can give B 2 in 3: ratio of their chances at a single throw? e chances as  $x$  to 1, and raise  $x+1$  to hich will be  $x^3+1 x^2+3 x+1$ . Now ld give B 2 out of 3, A might under- three throws running; and consequent-

PART I.

ly the chances in this case will be as  $x^3$  to  $3x^2+3x+1$ . Hence  $x^3=3x^2+3x+1$ ; or  $2x^3=3x^2+3x-3x+1$ . And therefore  $x\sqrt{2}=x+1$ ; and, con- sequently,  $x=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}-1}$ . The chances, therefore, are

$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}-1}$ , and 1, respectively. Again, suppose I have two wagers depending, in the first of which I have 3 to 2 the best of the lay, and in the second. 7 to 4; What is the probability I win both wagers? I. The probability of winning the first is  $\frac{3}{5}$ , that is the number of chances I have to win, divided by the number of all the chances: the probability of winning the second is  $\frac{7}{11}$ ; therefore, multiply- ing these two fractions together, the product will be  $\frac{21}{55}$ , which is the probability of winning both wagers. Now, this fraction being subtracted from 1, the remainder is  $\frac{34}{55}$ , which is the probability I do not win both wagers: therefore the odds against me are 34 to 21. II. If I would know what the probability is of winning the first, and losing the second, I argue thus; the probability of winning the first is  $\frac{3}{5}$ , the probability of losing the second is  $\frac{4}{11}$ : therefore multiplying  $\frac{3}{5}$  by  $\frac{4}{11}$ , the pro- duct  $\frac{12}{55}$  will be the probability of my winning the first, and losing the second; which being subtrac- ted from 1, there will remain  $\frac{43}{55}$ , which is the probability I do not win the first, and at the same time lose the second. III. If I would know what the probability is of winning the second, and at the same time losing the first, I say thus: The probability of winning the second is  $\frac{7}{11}$ ; the probability of losing the first is  $\frac{2}{5}$ : therefore, multi- plying these two fractions together, the product  $\frac{14}{55}$  is the probability I win the second, and also lose the first. IV. If I would know what the probability is of losing both wagers, I say, the probability of losing the first is  $\frac{2}{5}$ , and the probability of losing the second  $\frac{4}{11}$ : therefore the probability of losing them both is  $\frac{8}{55}$ : which, being subtrac- ted from 1, there remains  $\frac{47}{55}$ : therefore, the odds of losing both wagers is 47 to 8. This reasoning is applicable to the happening or failing of any e- vents that may fall under consideration. Thus if I would know what the probability is of missing an ace four times together with a die, this I con- sider as the failing of four different events. Now the probability of missing the first is  $\frac{1}{6}$ , the second is also  $\frac{1}{6}$ , the third  $\frac{1}{6}$ , and the fourth  $\frac{1}{6}$ ; therefore the probability of missing it four times together is  $\frac{1}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{1296}$ ; which being subtracted from 1, there will remain  $\frac{1295}{1296}$  for the probabili- ty of throwing it once or oftener in four times; therefore the odds of throwing an ace in four times, is 671 to 625. But if the flinging of an ace was undertaken in three times, the probability of mis- sing it three times would be  $\frac{1}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} \times \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{216}$ ; which being subtracted from 1, there will remain  $\frac{215}{216}$  for the probability of throwing it once or oftener in three times: therefore the odds against throwing it in three times are 125 to 91. Again, suppose we would know the probability of throwing an ace once in four times, and no more: since the probability of throwing it the first time is  $\frac{1}{6}$ , and of missing it the other three times, is  $\frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6}$ , it follows, that the probability of throwing it the first time, and missing it the other three successive

§ 6

www.

times, is  $\frac{1}{5} \times \frac{1}{5} \times \frac{1}{5}$ ; because it is possible to hit every throw as well as the first, it follows, that the probability of throwing it once in four throws, and missing it the other three, is  $\frac{1}{5} \times \frac{4}{5} \times \frac{4}{5} \times \frac{4}{5}$ ; which being subtracted from 1, there will remain  $\frac{80}{125}$  for the probability of throwing it once, and no more, in four times. Therefore, if one undertake to throw an ace once, and no more, in four times, he has 100 to 796 the worst of the lay, or 5 to 8 very near. Suppose two events are such, that one of them has twice as many chances to come up as the other; what is the probability that the event, which has the greater number of chances to come up, does not happen twice before the other happens once, which is the case of flinging 7 with two dice before 4 once? Since the number of chances is as 2 to 1, the probability of the first happening before the second is  $\frac{2}{3}$ , but the probability of its happening twice before it is but  $\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{2}{3}$  or  $\frac{4}{9}$ : therefore if 5 to 4, seven does not come up twice before four once. But, if it were demanded, what must be the proportion of the facilities of the coming up of two events, to make that which has the most chances come up twice, before the other comes up once? The answer is, 12 to 5 very nearly: whence it follows, that the probability of throwing the first before the second is  $\frac{12}{17}$ , and the probability of throwing it twice is  $\frac{12}{17} \times \frac{12}{17}$ , or  $\frac{144}{289}$ : therefore the probability of not doing it is  $\frac{145}{289}$ : therefore the odds against it are as 145 to 144, which comes very near an equality. Suppose there is a heap of 13 red cards, and another heap of 13 black cards. What is the probability, that, taking one card at a venture out of each heap, I shall take out the two aces? The probability of taking the ace out of the first heap is  $\frac{1}{13}$ , the probability of taking the ace out of the second heap is  $\frac{1}{13}$ ; therefore the probability of taking out both aces is  $\frac{1}{13} \times \frac{1}{13} = \frac{1}{169}$ , which being subtracted from 1, there will remain  $\frac{168}{169}$ : therefore the odds against me are 168 to 1. In cases where the events depend on one another, the manner of arguing is somewhat altered. Thus, suppose that out of one single heap of 13 cards of one colour I should undertake to take out first the ace; and, secondly, the two: though the probability of taking out the ace be  $\frac{1}{13}$ , and the probability of taking out the two be likewise  $\frac{1}{13}$ : yet, the ace being supposed as taken out already, there will remain only 12 cards in the heap, which will make the probability of taking out the two to be  $\frac{1}{12}$ ; therefore the probability of taking out the ace, and then the two, will be  $\frac{1}{13} \times \frac{1}{12}$ . In this last question the two events have a dependence on each other; which consists in this, that one of the events being supposed as having happened, the probability of the other's happening is thereby altered. But the case is not so in the two heaps of cards. If the events in question be  $n$  in number, and be such as have the same number  $a$  of chances by which they may happen, and likewise the same number  $b$  of chances by which they may fail, raise  $a+b$  to the power  $n$ . And if A and B play together, on condition that if either one or more of the events in question happen, A shall win, and B lose, the probability of A's winning will be

$$\frac{a^n + b^n - 1}{a+b}; \text{ and that of B's winning will be } \frac{b^n}{a+b};$$

for when  $a+b$  is actually raised to the only term in which  $a$  does not occur is  $b^n$ : therefore all the terms but the last are able to A. Thus if  $n=3$ , raising  $a+b$  to the power 3, all the terms but the last are favourable to A; and therefore the probability of winning will be  $\frac{a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2}{a+b}$ , or

and the probability of B's winning will be  $\frac{b^3}{a+b}$ .

But if A and B play on condition, that two or more of the events in question shall win; but in case one only happens, B shall win; the probability of A's winning will be  $\frac{a^n + b^n - nab^{n-1} - \dots - b^n}{a+b}$ ; for the only

term which  $aa$  does not occur are the terms  $nab^{n-1}$  and  $b^n$ .

(3.) GAMING, LAWS AGAINST. Car. II. c. 7. if any person by playing shall lose more than 100l. at one time, he shall not be compellable to pay the debt; but the winner shall forfeit treble the value, and the loser to the informer. 9 Ann. c. 14. enacts, that all bonds, mortgages, and securities, given for money won at play, shall be void: that all mortgages and incumbrances made upon the same consideration, shall be void: that the heir of the mortgager, if the person at one time loses 200l. at play, shall not be compellable to pay the debt; but the winner, and recover it back by law; and, in case the loser does not pay, the person may sue the winner for treble the debt; and the plaintiff in either case shall be bound to swear upon oath: and in all these suits no privilege of parliament shall be allowed. The statute farther enacts, that if any person cheats at play, and at one time loses more than 100l. or any valuable thing, he shall be liable to be imprisoned, and shall forfeit five times the value, shall be deemed infamous, and shall be liable to corporal punishment as in case of witchcraft. By several statutes of the reign of king Charles II. all private lotteries by tickets, cards, or otherwise, particularly the games of faro, basset, hazard, passage, rolly-polly, and all other games with dice, except backgammon, are prohibited, under a penalty of 200l. for him that first introduces such lotteries, and 50l. a-time for every subsequent person. Public lotteries, unless by authority of parliament, and all manner of ingenious devices, such as the denomination of sales or otherwise, which in the end are equivalent to lotteries, are prohibited by a great variety of statutes, and heavy pecuniary penalties. But particularly the laws will be ever lame and deficient, if the games of mere chance are at once prevented, without the invention of sharper's being swifter than the law, which only hunt for one device to another. The statute 11 Geo. II. c. 19. to prevent the multiplicity of heinous matches, directs that no person shall be allowed to play for a sum of money, or any other valuable thing, the value of 200l. to be paid by the

ing, and 200l. by such as advertise the  
y statute 21 Geo. II. c. 34. the statute 9  
urther enforced, and some deficiencies  
the forfeitures of that act may now be  
in a court of equity; and, moreover,  
n be convicted, upon information or in-  
of winning or losing at any sitting 10l.  
ithin 24 hours, he shall forfeit five times

Thus careful has the legislature been  
t this destructive vice: which may show  
aws against gaming are not so deficient,  
as and our magistrates in putting those  
ecution.

ITZ, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 12  
W. of Marburg.

LACANOR, or } a town of the isle of  
LADOUR, } Bechian, one of the

EMER. *n. f.* [Of uncertain etymology;  
rom *grand mere*, and therefore used com-  
old women.] The compellation of a  
rresponding to gaffer: as, *Gammer* Gus-  
dle, an old play.

ING, and } Two towns of Austria,  
ING MARKET, } 20 m. E. of Waidhofen.

LAMMON. *n. f.* [*gambone*, Ital.] 1. The  
f an hog salted and dried; the lower  
: stich.—

or what price thy venal tongue was sold;  
*gammone* of some sev'n years old. *Juv.*  
*manus*, that give a relish to the taste,  
cted fowl, and fish, come in so fast,  
e the first is out, the second sinks.

*Dryden's Pers.*

of play with dice.—

The quick dice,  
der leaping from the box, awake  
inding *gammone*. *Thomson's Autumn.*  
MMON, § 1. *def. 2.* See BACK-GAMMON.  
IONING, among seamen, denotes sec-  
s of a rope taken round the bowsprit,  
d through holes in knees of the head,  
ater security of the bowsprit.

UT. See GAMUT.

U, a town of the Helvetic republic, part-  
anton of Schweitz, and partly in that  
5 miles S. of Appenzel.

U, a parish of Scotland, on the coast  
ire, 9½ miles long, and 3½ broad. The  
y barren, but in many places very fertile,  
is almost one continued chain of stupen-  
s, 200 yards high, and abounds with  
haddock, turbot, &c. The salmon  
the Dover is let by the E. of Fife, for  
year. The church was built in 1004,  
likely to last for many ages more. The  
in 1790, stated by the rev. Mr Wilson,  
et to Sir J. Sinclair was 3000, and was  
bled since 1732. Longevity is common.  
er, Mr Wilson, was in his 97th year,  
ransmitted his Statistical Account; se-  
r persons were then living above 90;  
rman died a few years before aged 109.  
has been much improved by the exer-  
se earl of Fife, the late Mr Garden of  
d Lord Gardenston.

LAMUT. *n. f.* [*gama*, Ital.] The scale  
notcs.—

Madam, before you touch the instrument,  
To learn the order of my fingering,  
I must begin with rudiments of art,  
To teach you *gamut* in a briefer sort. *Shak.*

When by the *gamut* some musicians make  
A perfect song, others will undertake,  
By the same *gamut* chang'd to equal it:  
Things simply good can never be unfit. *Donne.*

Long has a race of heroes fill'd the stage,  
That rant by rote, and through the *gamut* rage;  
In songs and airs express their martial fire,  
Combat in trills, and in a fugue expire. *Addis.*

(2) GAMUT, GAMMUT, or GAM-ut. See  
MUSIC. The invention of this scale is owing to  
Guido Aretin, monk of Arezzo, in Tuscany, a-  
bout A. D. 1009; though it is not so properly an  
invention, as an improvement on the diagram or  
scale of the ancients. See ARETIN, N° 2. Several  
alterations have been made in the *gamut*; M. le  
Maire, particularly, has added a 7th note; viz. *fi*  
and the English usually throw out both *ut* and *fa*  
and make the other five serve for all.

(1.) GAN, a city of China, of the first rank;  
capital of the province of Se-tchuen. Lon. 13. 28.  
W. of Peking. Lat. 31. 16. N.

(2.) GAN, a town of France, in the department  
of the Lower Pyrenees, 4½ miles S. of Pau, and  
10 E. of Oleron.

(3.) \* GAN, for *began*, from *'gis* for *begin*.—  
The noble knight *'gan* feel  
His vital force to faint. *Spenser.*

GANA, a town of Arabia Felix.

(1.) GANARA, a populous and fertile country  
of Africa, on the banks of the Niger.

(2.) GANARA, the capital of the above country.  
The natives trade in gold, senna, and slaves. Lon.  
16. 0. E. Lat. 12. 20. N.

GANAT, a town of France, in the department  
of Allier, on the Loire; 25 miles NE. of Moulins.

\* To GANCH. *v. a.* [*ganciare*, from *gancio*, a  
hook, Italian; *ganche*, French.] To drop from  
a high place upon hooks by way of punishment;  
a practice in Turkey, to which *Smith* alludes in  
his *Pocockius*.—

Cohors catenis qua pia stridulis  
Gemunt onusti, vel sude trans sinum  
Luctantur aëta, pendulive  
Sanguineis trepidant in uncis. *Muse Angl.*

GANDANOOKS, or EGYPTIAN HERRINGS,  
in ichthyology, a species of fish, belonging either  
to the genus of CLUPEA or SCOMBER, of which  
vast shoals are caught in the Forth, about the  
end of Sept. J. F. Erskine, Esq. of Marr, thus  
describes them in his Statistical Account of Alloa.  
“ They have a faint resemblance of the mackerel,  
but with a long sharp bill like a snipe. This be-  
comes fatal to them on our muddy banks, as the  
bill is fixed in the mud; and in this way they are  
entangled, and caught in great quantities, on the  
ebbing of the tide. They are not unpleasant, but  
rather dry. They are, however, a great relief to  
many poor people. *Stat. Acc.* Vol. VIII. p. 598.

GANDE, a river of Germany, which runs in-  
to the Leine, 4 miles WSW. of Ganderheim.

GANDELU, a town of France, in the depart-  
ment of Aisne, 8 miles WNW. of Chateau Thier-  
ry, and 9 N. of Ferte.

(1.) \* GANDER. *n. f.* [*gandra*, Saxon.] The  
male



mate  
as the  
five g

deep drinketh the goose  
—One *gander* will serve  
*lib.*

fein  
of  
is

mithology See ANAS, N° 4.  
town of Saxony, in Wol-  
It has a famous abbey  
ose abbeys is a princess. It  
of G r.

GANDIA, a fe  
part of Spain in Valencia,  
with an university. It was taken by the French  
in 1706. It is 28 miles S. of Valencia, and 40  
NNE. of Alicant. Lon. o. 25. W. Lat. 39. 21. N.

GANDJA, or GANGEA, a town of Asia, in  
Georgia, 13 miles NW. of Baku, and 100 SE. of  
Teffis. Lon. 47. 10. E. Lat. 41. 12. N.

GANDICOT, or ) a town and fort of Indof-  
GANDICOTTA, } tan, in the circar of Cud-  
dapa, on a mountain near the Penner. The  
road to it is narrow, and cut in the rock, along  
the side of a dreadful precipice. Near it is a dia-  
mond mine. It is seated in the dominions of the  
late Sultan Tippoo, now belonging to Britain. It  
lies 87 miles NW. of Nellore, and 33 WNW. of  
Cuddapa.

GANDINA, or ) a populous town of the Ci-  
(1.) GANDINO, } saline republic, in the de-  
partment of Serio, and ci-devant Venetian prov.  
of Bergamasco; 10 miles NW. of Bergamo. It  
is well built, and has a good trade in cloth and silk.

(2.) GANDINO. See SERIANA. N° 2.

GANEAM, a town in the island of Ceylon,  
60 miles SSE. of Columba.

GANESBOROUGH. See GAINSBOROUGH.

GANET ISLANDS, a cluster of small isles, near  
the E. coast of Labrador. Lon. 56. 10. W. Lat.  
54. o. N.

GANFORD, a town in Durham, near Barnard.

\* GANG. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A number  
herding together; a troop; a company; a tribe;  
a herd: It is seldom used but in contempt or ab-  
horrence.—Oh, you pauperly rascals! there's a  
knot, a gang, a pack, a conspiracy against me:  
*Shak: Merry Wives.*—As a gang of thieves were  
robbing a house, a mastiff fell a barking. *L'Espr.*

Admitted in among the gang,  
He a3, and talks as they befriend him. *Prior.*

\* To GANG. *v. n.* [*gangen*, Dut. *gangan*, Sax.  
*gang*, Scottish.] To go; to walk; an old word  
not now used, except ludicrously.—  
But let them gang alone,  
As they have brew'd, so let them bear blame.

—Your flaunting beaux gang with their breasts o-  
pen. *Arbutnot.*

GANGANELLI. See CLEMENT XIV.

GANGEA. See GANDJA.

GANGELT, a town of Germany, in the cir-  
cle of Westphalia, and ci-devant duchy of Juliers;  
now annexed to the French republic, and  
included in the dept. of the Roer: 12 miles SSE:  
of Ruremond.

(1.) GANGES, a large and celebrated river of  
India. It rises in the mountains which border on  
Little Thibet, in 96° lon. E. and 31° 45' lat. N. It  
crosses several kingdoms, running from N. to S.  
and falls into the bay of Bengal by several mouths.  
The waters are lowest in April and May, and  
highest before the end of September. It over-

flows yearly like the Nile; and renders it  
fruitful as the Delta in Egypt. The  
these parts hold the water of this river in  
neration; and it is visited annually by a  
ous number of pilgrims from all parts.  
The British have several settlements on it.  
The greatest happiness that many of the  
wish for, is to die in this river. See I  
FOOTER.

(2.) GANGES, a town of France, in  
of Herault, 20 miles NE. of Lodeve, a  
of Montpellier.

(3, 4.) GANGES ISLANDS, two small i-  
tween Borneo and the Gulf of Siam.  
45. E. Lat. 4. 55. N.

\* GANGHON. *n. f.* [French.] A kin-  
er. *Ainsworth.*

(1.) \* GANGLION. *n. f.* [*ganlion*].  
in the tendinous and nervous parts.—B  
usually represent every bone dislocated  
possibly it be but a ganglion, or other  
mour, or preternatural protuberance of  
of a joint. *Wifeman.*

(2.) A GANGLION, in anatomy, is a  
quently found in the course of the ne  
which is not morbid; for wherever any n  
out a branch, or receives one from an  
where two nerves join together, there is  
a ganglion or plexus, as may be seen at  
ning of all the nerves of the medulla spi  
in many other places of the body.

(3.) A GANGLION, in surgery, (*§ 1.*)  
tubercle, generally moveable, in the e  
internal part of the carpus, upon the t  
ligaments in that part; usually without  
to the patient.

\* To GANGRENATE. *v. a.* [from g  
To produce a gangrene; to mortify.—  
terized, *gangrenated*, *fulcrated*, and mo-  
come black, the radical moisture or vit  
suffering an extinction. *Brown's Vulgar*

(1.) \* GANGRENE. *n. f.* [*gangren*  
*grana*, Lat.] A mortification; a stopp-  
ulation followed by putrefaction.—T  
ment may be transferred unto the cure of  
either coming of themselves, or introdu-  
much applying of opiates. *Bacon's Nat*  
She saves the lover, as we gangren.

By cutting hope, like a lopt limb, aw:  
—A discolouring in the part was suppe-  
proach of a gangrene. *Wifem. Surg.*—I  
stance of the soul is festered with thes  
the gangrene is gone too far to be e-  
these inflammations will rage to all eteri

(2.) A GANGRENE, is a very great a-  
ous degree of inflammation, wherein th  
fected begin to corrupt. See MEDI-  
SURGERY.

(1.) \* To GANGRENE. *v. a.* [*gangren*  
from the noun.] To corrupt to mortifi-  
cold countries, when men's noses are  
mortified, and, as it were, *gangrened*  
if they come to a fire they rot off pre-  
that the few spirits that remain in thro  
suddenly drawn forth, and so putrefact  
complete. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

*Gangrened* members must be lop'd  
Before the nobler parts are tainted to d



**GANGRENE.** *v. n.* To become mor-

sead *immedicable*  
d *fever*, and *gangrene*  
mortification.

*Milton's Agonistes.*  
ions are subject to mortification, so  
dies they are apt to *gangrene* after o-  
at fat be not speedily digested out.  
*urgery.*

**RENOUS.** *adj.* [from *gangrene.*] Mor-  
icing or betokening inortification.—  
turning acrimonious, corrodes the  
lucing hæmorrhages, pustulæ red,  
l, black and *gangrenous.* *Arbutnot.*

**WAY.** *n. f.* In a ship, the several  
ages from one part of it to the other.  
**WEEK.** *n. f.* [*gang* and *week.*] Ro-  
when processions are made to lus-  
inds of parishes. *Diæ.*

**COULOR,** a town of India, belong-  
reat Mogul, 131 miles E. of Bagna-  
a very rich diamond mine. Lon. 82.  
15. 46. N.

**I,** a town of Indostan, on the bay of  
nging to Britain. Lon. 85. 20. E.  
N.

**CHIE BRIDGE,** a remarkable bridge  
rth Esk, in the Mearns, consisting of  
52 feet wide, standing on two trek-  
ks. at a great height above the river:  
J. Black, in 1732. See **BLACK**, N° 5.  
**T,** a town of France, in the dept. of  
ci-devant prov. of Bourbonnois; 27  
Moulins.

**LOR,** an island in the Gulf of St Law-  
Bird Island. Lat. 48. 0. N.

**NET,** or **SOLAND GOOSE.** See **RA-**  
N° 2.

**SET ISLAND,** an island in the South  
e N. coast of New Zealand.

a town of European Turkey in Ro-  
iles NE. of Gallipoli.

**IZ,** a town of Germany, in Stiria.

**CH,** a town of Germany in Austria,  
V. of Maulterg.

**T,** a town of France, in the dept. of  
nees, 4 miles S. of Pau.

**R,** a town of Germany, in the Tirol-  
WNW. of Landeck.

**ANTELOPE.** **GANTLET.** *n. f.* [*gant-*  
corrupted from *gantelope*, *gant*, all,  
to run, Dutch.] A military punish-  
rich the criminal running between the  
es a lash from each man.—

ould'st thou, friend, who hast two legs

thou to run the *gantlet* these expose,  
le company of hob-nail'd shoes? *Juv.*  
ntlemen are driven with a whip, to  
let through the several classes. *Locke.*

**TELOPE,** IN SHIPS OF WAR, is exe-  
following manner: The whole ship's  
posed in two rows, standing face to  
sides of the deck, so as to form a lane  
go forward on one side, and return  
other; each person being furnished  
twisted cord, called a *knittle*, having  
ts upon it. The delinquent is then

stripped naked above the waist, and ordered to  
pass forward between the two rows of men, and  
aft on the other side, a certain number of times,  
rarely exceeding three, during which every per-  
son gives him a stripe as he runs along. In his  
passage through this painful ordeal, he is some-  
times tripped up, and very severely handled while  
incapable of proceeding. This punishment, which  
is called *running the gantlet*, is seldom inflicted,  
except for such crimes as will naturally excite a  
general antipathy among the seamen; as, on some  
occasions, the culprit would pass without recei-  
ving a single blow.

(3.) **GANTELOPE, IN THE LAND SERVICE.**  
When a soldier is sentenced to run the gantelope,  
the regiment is drawn out in two ranks facing  
each other; each soldier, having a switch in his  
hand, lashes the criminal as he runs along naked  
from the waist upwards. While he runs, the  
drums beat at each end of the ranks. Sometimes  
he runs 3, 5, or 7, times, according to the nature  
of the offence. The major is on horseback, and  
takes care that each soldier does his duty.

**GANTLET.** See **GANTELOPE** and **GAUNT-**  
**LET.**

**GANTON,** a town near Scarborough, Yorksh.  
**GAN-YE,** a town of China, of the 3d rank, in  
the prov. of Se-Tchuen, 52 miles W. of Hoa.

**GANYMEDES,** in mythology, a beautiful  
youth of Phrygia, son of Tros and brother to Ilius,  
kings of Troy; or, according to Lucian, the son  
of Dardanus. Jupiter was charmed with him;  
and carrying him away, made him his cup-bearer  
in the room of Hebe. Some say that he caused  
him to be carried away by an eagle, and others  
affirm he was himself the ravisher under the form  
of that bird. He deified this youth; and to com-  
fort his father made a present to him of some of  
those swift horses that the gods rode upon.

**GANZA.** *n. f.* [*ganza*, Spanish, a goose.] A  
kind of wild goose, by a flock of which a virtuous  
was fabled to be carried to the lunar world.—

They are but idle dreams and fancies,  
And favour strongly of the *ganza's.* *Hudib.*  
(1.) **GAOGA,** a country of Africa, W. of Nubia.

(2.) **GAOGA,** a town in the above territory, feat-  
ed on a large lake. Lon. 26. 0. E. Lat. 16. 0. N.

(1.) \* **GAOL.** *n. f.* [*geol*, Welsh; *geole*, Fr.]  
A prison; a place of confinement. It is always  
pronounced and too often written *jail*, and some-  
times *goal*.—

Then am I the prisoner, and his bed my *gaol.* *Sb.*  
Have I been ever free, and must my house

Be my retentive enemy, my *gaol*? *Sb. Timon.*  
—If we mean to thrive and do good, break open  
the *gaols*, and let out the prisoners. *Shak. H. VI.*

(2.) **GAOL.** Every county has two *gaols*, one  
for debtors, which may be any house where the  
sheriff pleases; the other for the peace and mat-  
ters of the crown, which is the county *gaol*. If  
a *gaol* be out of repair, or insufficient, &c. jus-  
tices of peace, in their quarter-sessions, may con-  
tract with workmen for the rebuilding or repair-  
it; and by their warrant order the sum agreed on  
for that purpose to be levied on the several hun-  
dreds, and other divisions in the county by a just  
rate, 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 19. See **PRISON.**

\* **To GAOL.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To im-  
prison;

prison; to commit to gaol.—*Gaoling* vagabonds, was chargeable, pesterous, and of no open example. *Bacon*.

(1.) \* **GAOLDELIVERY.** *n. f.* [*gaol* and *deliver*.] The judicial process, which, by condemnation or acquittal of persons confined, evacuates the prison.

Then doth th' aspiring soul the body leave,  
Which we call death; but were it known to all,  
What life our souls do by this death receive,

Men would it birth or *gaoldelivery* call. *Davies*.  
—These make a general *gaoldelivery* of souls, not for punishment. *South*.

(2.) **GAOL-DELIVERY.** The administration of justice being originally in the crown, in former times our kings in person rode through the realm once in 7 years, to judge of and determine crimes and offences; afterwards justices in eyre were appointed; and since, justices of assize and gaol-delivery, &c. A commission of gaol-delivery is a patent, in nature of a letter from the king to certain persons, appointing them his justices, or two or three of them, and authorising them to deliver his gaol, at such a place, of the prisoners in it: for which purpose it commands them to meet at such a place, at the time they themselves shall appoint; and informs them, that, for the same purpose, the king hath appointed his sheriff of the same county to bring all the prisoners of the gaol, and their attachments, before them at the day appointed. The justices of gaol delivery are empowered by the common law to proceed upon indictments of felony, trespass, &c. and to order to execution or reprieve: they may likewise discharge such prisoners, as on their trials are acquitted, and those against whom, on proclamation being made, no evidence has appeared: they have authority to try offenders for treason, and to punish many particular offences, by statute 2 *Hawk.* 24. 2. *Hale's Hist. Placit. Cor.* 35.

(1.) \* **GAOLER.** *n. f.* [from *gaol*.] Keeper of a prison; he to whose care the prisoners are committed.—

This is a gentle provost; seldom, when  
The steeld *gaoler* is the friend of men. *Sbak*.  
I know not how or why my surly *gaoler*,  
Hard as his irons, and insolent as pow'r  
When put in vulgar hands, Cleanthes,  
Put off the brute. *Dryden's Cleomenes*.

—From the polite part of mankind she had been banished and immured, 'till the death of her *gaoler*. *Tatler*.

(2.) **GAOLERS.** Sheriffs are to make such gaolers for whom they will be answerable: but if there be any default in the gaoler, an action lies against him for an escape, &c. yet the sheriff is most usually charged; 2 *Inst.* 592. Where a gaoler kills a prisoner by hard usage, it is felony; 3 *Inst.* 52. No fee shall be taken by gaolers, but what is allowed by law, and settled by the judges, who may determine petitions against their extortions, &c. 2 *Geo. II. c.* 22.

**GAONS**, a certain order of Jewish doctors, who appeared in the East, after the closing of the *d.* The word *Gaons* signifies *excellents*, or as in the divinity schools we formerly *ble, Sublime, Resolute, Angelic*, and The Gaons succeeded the *Schub* about the beginning of the 6th

century. Chanan Meischtia was the first of the Gaons. He restored the Pandebita, which had been shut up for

(1.) **GAP**, in geography, a town of 1 capital of the dept. of the Upper Alps merly of the late county of Gapençois. ed on the Rhone, at the foot of a mount mineral spring. In 1692, it was bui D. of Savoy. It lies 15 miles S. of Gre 24 N. of Sisteron. Lon. 6. 10. E. Lat

(2.) \* **GAP.** *n. f.* [from *gape*.] 1. A in a broken fence.—

Behold the despair,  
By custom and covetous pates,  
By *gaps* and openings of gates. *T*  
With terrors and with furies to f  
And crystal wall of heav'n; whic  
wide,

Roll'd inward, and a spacious *gap* di  
Into the wasteful deep. *Milt*

—Bushes are most lasting of any for de or to mend *gaps*. *Mort. Husb.*—I sought says God, that should make up the l stand in the *gap* before me, for the l should not destroy it. *Rogers.* 2. A The loss of that city concerned the Ch monweal: manifold miseries afterwards the opening of that *gap* to all that side c dom. *Knolles.* 3. Any passage.—

So stands the Thracian herdsman  
Spear

Full in the *gap*, and hopes the hunte  
And hears him rustling in the wood.

4. An avenue; an open way.—The fo of England passed into them a great p prerogatives; which though then it w tended, and perhaps well deserved, yet a *gap* of mischief lies open thereby, t with it were well flopt. *Spenser.* 5. deficiency.—If you violently proceed a mistaking his purpose, it would make in your honour. *Sbak. K. Lear.*—No botch or *gap* in the works of nature.

Any interstice; a vacuity —  
Each one demand, and answer to  
Perform'd in this wide *gap* of time,  
We were differ'd. *Sbak. Win*

—That I might sleep out this great *g*  
My Anthony is away. *Sbak. Ant. Cleo*

To make 'twixt words and lines b  
Wide as meridians in maps.

—One can revive a languishing conver sudden surprising sentence; another is tertous in seconding; a third can fill with laughing. *Swift.* 7. An opening of in speech during the pronunciation of five vowels.—The hiatus, or *gap* bet words, is caused by two vowels openi other. *Pope.* 8. To stop a **GAP**, is to some mean shift: alluding to hedges in dead bushes, 'till the quicksets will gr

His policy consists in setting traps  
In finding ways and means, and stop

9. To stand in the **GAP**. To make d expose himself for the protection of fo danger.—What would become of the

is none more concerned for her rights?  
Who would stand in the Gap? *Leffey*.  
GAP. *v. n.* [*gapan*, Saxon.] 1. To  
mouth wide; to yawn.—  
: men there are love not a gaping pig;  
that are mad, if they behold a cat.

*Shakeſp.*  
or yawning, and stretching, do pass from  
in; for that that causeth gaping and  
is when the spirits are a little heavy  
pour. *Arbutnot.*—

retches, gapes, unglues her eyes,  
s if it be time to rise. *Swift*.  
n the mouth for food, as a young bird.

As callow birds,  
mother's kill'd in seeking of the prey,  
heir nest, and think her long away;  
each leaf that stirs, each blast of wind,  
: the food which they must never find.

*Dryden*.  
a drought the thirsty creatures cry,  
ke upon the gather'd clouds for rain,  
first the mariflet meets it in the sky,  
th wet wings joys all the feather'd train,

*Dryden*.  
re earnestly; to crave: with for.—  
: grim death appears in all her shapes;  
agry grave for her due tribute gapes.

*Denham*.  
y fortune be not thou a slave;  
it hath thou to fear beyond the grave?  
u who gap'st for my estate, draw near;  
ould whisper somewhat in thy ear.

*Dryden*.  
Ber.—What shall we say of those who  
r days in gaping after court favour and  
ts? *L'Eſt*. 5. With at.—Many have  
he church revenues; but, before they  
low them, have had their mouths stop-  
e church-yard. *South*. 6. To open in  
holes.—

ffume my noble father's person,  
k to it, altho' itself should gape  
me hold my peace. *Shak. Hamlet*.  
that ground gape, and swallow me alive,  
I shall kneel to him that slew my father.

*Shak. Hen. VI*.  
at horse-muffel, with the fine shell, doth  
rut as the oysters do. *Bacon's Nat. Hist*.  
eption of one is as different from the  
of the other, as when the earth falls  
r the incisions of the plough, and when  
d greedily opens itself to drink in the  
aven, or the refreshments of a shower.  
be mouth of a little artery and nerve  
the cavity of these vessels. *Cheyne's*  
7. To open with a breach.—

lanks, their pitchy coverings wash'd a-  
f,  
ld, and now a yawning breach display:  
ring waters, with a hostile tide,  
ro' the ruins of her gaping side. *Dryd*.

these actions can be performed by ali-  
rell as medicines, is plain; by observing  
of different substances upon the fluids  
when the vessels are open and gape by a  
rburst. 8. To open; to have an hiatus.  
not, to the best of my remembrance,

one vowel gaping on another for want of a caesura  
in this poem. *Dryden*. 9. To make a noise with  
open throat.—

And, if my muse can thro' past ages see,  
That noisy, nauseous, gaping fool is he. *Reſt*.  
10. To stare with hope or expectation.—

Others with gape t' anticipate  
The cabinet designs of fate;  
Apply to wizards, to foresee  
What shall, and what shall never be. *Hud*.

11. To stare with wonder.—Parts of different spe-  
cies jumbled together, according to the mad ima-  
gination of the dawber; and the end of all this to  
cause laughter: a very monster in a Bartholomew  
fair, for the mob to gape at. *Dryd. Duſt*.—

Where elevated o'er the gaping crowd,  
Clasp'd in the board the perjurd head is bow'd,  
Betimes retreat. *Gay's Trivia*.

12. To stare irreverently.—They have gaped upon  
me with their mouth. *Job. xvi. 30*.

GAPENCOIS, a ci-devant county of France,  
in the prov. of Upper Dauphiny, 27 miles long  
and 18 broad. Gap was the capital. It is now  
included in the dept. of Upper Alps.

GAPENNES, a town of France in the dept.  
of Somme, 7 miles NE. of Abbeville.

\* GAPER. *n. f.* [from *gape*.] 1. One who  
opens his mouth. 2. One who stares foolishly.  
3. One who longs or craves.—The golden shower  
of the dissolved abbey lands rained well near into  
every gaper's mouth. *Carter's Survey*.

GAPSAL, a town of Russia, 36 miles SW. of  
Revel.

\* GAP TOOTHED. *adj.* [*gap* and *toothed*.]  
Having interstices between the teeth.—The reeve,  
miller, and cook, are distinguished from each o-  
ther, as much as the mincing lady prioress and  
the broad speaking gap-toothed wife of Bath. *Dryd*.  
*Fab. Pref*.

(1.) \* GAR, in Saxon, signifies a weapon;  
so *Eadgar* is a happy weapon; *Ethelgar*, a noble  
weapon. *Gibson's Camden*.

(2.) GAR, or HORN-FISH. See ESOX.  
\* To GAR. *v. a.* [from *giera*, Icelandic.] To  
cause; to make. Obsolete. It is still used in  
Scotland.—

Tell me, good Hobbino!, what gars thee greet?  
What! hath some wolf thy tender lambs yorn?  
Or is thy bagpipe broke, that sounds so sweet?

Or art thou of thy loved lass forlorne. *Spens*.  
GARA, or LOUGH GARA, a lake of Ireland,  
in Sligo county, 20 miles S. of Sligo.

GARABUSA, an island in the Mediterranean,  
near the W. coast of Candia, taken by the Turks  
in 1692. Lon. 41. 8. E. Lat. 35. 36. N.

GARAC, a town of France, in the dept. of Cha-  
rente, 4 miles ESE. of Angouleme.

GARACHIA, or } a town on the W. coast of  
GARACHICO, } the isle of Teneriffe.

GARACK, or BAHREIN, an island in the gulf  
of Persia, near the mouth of the Euphrates.

GARAMA, in ancient geography, the capital of  
the Garamantes in Lybia Interior; near the spring  
of the Cinyphus, now in ruins. It lay S. of Gætulia,  
extending from the springs of the Cinyphus, and  
the Gir, to the mountains which form at the *Fal-  
lus Garamantica*, (Pliny): or from the springs of  
the Bagrades to the lake Nuba, (Ptolemy)

See GARAMA.

side, a very ingenious letter-founder, and his printing types, free of the Gothic, or (as it is called) black letter, and brought it before him, and of being scarcely ever excelled by his successors in that useful art. His types were prodigiously multiplied: both by the great number of matrices he struck, and the types founded in resemblance of his in all parts of Europe. Thus in Italy, Germany, England, and Holland, the book-sellers by way of recommending their books, distinguished the types by his name; and in particular, the small Roman was by way of excellence known among the printers of these nations by the name of *Garamond's small Roman*. By the special command of K. Francis I. he founded three sizes of Greek types for the use of Robert Stephens, who with them printed all his beautiful editions of the New Testament, and other Greek authors. He died at Paris in 1561.

GARAN, an island of Scotland, on the coast of Sutherland, 3 miles ESE. of Cape Wrath.

GARASSE, Francis, a remarkable jesuitical writer, the first author of that irreconcilable enmity which so long subsisted between the Jesuits and Janseuists, in the church of Rome, was born at Angoulesme, in 1585, and entered the Jesuits college in 1600. As he had a quick imagination, a strong voice, and a peculiar turn to wit, he became a popular preacher in the chief cities of France; but distinguished himself still more by his writings, which were bold, licentious, and produced much controversy. The most considerable in its consequence was intitled *La somme theologique des veritez capitales de la religion Chretienne*; which was first attacked by the abbot of St Cyran, who observing in it a prodigious number of falsifications of the scriptures and of the fathers, besides many heretical and impious opinions, conceived the honour of the church required him to undertake a refutation. Accordingly he published a full answer to it; while Garasse's book was also under examination of the doctors of the Sorbonne, by whom it was afterwards condemned. Garasse replied to St Cyran; but the Jesuits were forced to remove their brother to a distance from Paris; where, probably weary of his inactive obscurity, when the plague raged at Poitiers, in 1631, he begged leave of his superior to attend the sick, in which charitable office he was infected and died.

GARAUP, a Cape of France, in the dept. of Var, and ci-devant prov. of Provence, near Antibes. It runs far into the sea and forms the bay of Cannes.

GARAZU, a town of Brazil, 25 miles N. of Olinda.

\* GARB. *n. f.* [*garbe*, French.] 1. Dress; cloaths; habit.—

Thus Belial, with words of reason's garb,

Counsel'd ignoble ease and peaceful sloth.

*Milton.*

himself into the garb, and habit of a

professor of physic, and sets up. *L'Es.* of dress.—

Horace's wit, and Virgil's state,  
He did not steal, but emulate;  
And when he would like them appear  
Their garb, but not their cloaths; d

3. Exterior appearance.—

This is some fellow,  
Who, having been prais'd for blunt  
affect

A fauce roughness, and constrains th'  
Quite from his nature. *Sb*

\* GARBAGE. *n. f.* [*garbear*, Sp. etymology is very doubtful.] 1. The offal; that part of the inwards which and thrown away.—

The cloyed will  
That satiate, yet unsatisfied desire,  
Both fill'd and running, ravening fir  
Longs after for the garbage.

Lust, though to a radiant angel li  
Will fate itself in a celestial bed,  
And prey on garbage. *Sb*

A flum more sensible than the ro  
Of old Aruspicy and aug'ry,  
That out of garbages of cattle  
Presag'd th' events of truce or battl

Who, without aversion, ever  
On holy garbage, though by Homer

—When you receive condign punishment  
to your confessor, that parcel of guts a  
*Dryden.*

GARBE, in heraldry, a sheaf of grain, born in several coats of arms, represent summer.

\* GARBEL. *n. f.* A plank next th'  
ship. *Bailey.*

\* GARBIDGE. *n. f.* Corrupted fr  
—All shavings of horns, hoofs of ca  
and garbage, is good manure for land.

\* GARBISH. *n. f.* Corrupted fr  
—In Newfoundland they improve th  
with garbish of fish. *Mort. Hujb.*

\* To GARBLE. *v. a.* [*garbellare*, I  
sift; to part; to separate the good fr  
But you who fathers and tradition  
And garble some, and some you qui

—Had our author set down this com  
out garbling, as God gave it, and joi  
to father, it had made directly against

—The understanding works to collate  
and garble the images and ideas, the i  
and memory present to it. *Cheyne's P.*

\* GARBLER. *n. f.* [from *garble*.] p  
parates one part from another.—A fa  
in this clause may best be discovered  
jectors, or at least the garblers of it.  
*aminer.*

GARBO, a town of Tuscany, 6  
of Leghorn.

\* GARBOIL. *n. f.* [*garbouille*, Frer  
*glio*, Ital.] Disorder; tumult; uproar.

Look here, and at thy sovereign i  
What garboils she awak'd. *Skak. A*

**HANSKOL**; a town of Russia in Siberia, 80 miles S. of Tobolsk.

**LA**, a town of Spain, in the province of 18 miles N. of Tortosa.

**ILASSO DE LA VEGA**, or **GARCIA LA VEGA**. See **VEGA**.

**LNIA**, in botany; a genus of the order, belonging to the dodecandria class and in the natural method ranking with order, *Sisyrinchia*. The calyx is tetramerous; there are 4 petals; the berry is one, and crowned with a shield-like there is but one species; viz.

**11A MANGOSTANA**, a tree of great elegance producing the most pleasant fruit of known. See *Plat. CLX, fig. 4.* This has been very accurately described by Dr. in honour of whom, Linnæus gave it the 35th vol. of the *Philos. Transf.* It informs us, to about 17 or 18 feet high, straight taper stem like a fir, having a stem in form of an oblong cone, composed of branches and twigs, spreading out equal-sided without leaving any hollow. Its

oblong, pointed at both ends, entire, of a shining green on the upper side, and on the back. Its flower is composed almost round, or a little pointed; their resembles that of a rose, only deeper and

The calyx of this flower is of one rounded, and cut into 4 lobes. The two lobes are something larger than the lower

are greenish on the outside, and of a red within; the red of the upper ones is more than that of the lower ones. This loses all the parts of the flower; it is by a pedicle, which is green, and comes out of the end of a twig above the

of leaves. The fruit is round, of the small orange, from an inch and an half diameter. The body of this fruit is of one cavity, composed of a thick rind, like that of a pomegranate, but softer, and fuller of juice. Its thickness is com-

a quarter of an inch. Its outer colour brown purple, mixed with a little grey green. The inside of the peel is a rose

and its juice is purple. This skin is of an astringent taste, like that of a pomegranate does it stick to the fruit it contains. The surface of this fruit is a furrowed globe, divided into segments, like those of an orange, but un-

size, and not adhering to each other. The number of these segments is always equal to the rays of the top which covers the fruit. There are often in these segments, the bigger

There are often in the same fruit leg- big again as any of those that are on the stem. These segments are white, a little fleshy, membranous, full of juice like raspberries, of a taste of strawberries

put together. Each of the segments in- each of the figure and size of an almond if its shell, having a protuberance on one side. These seeds are covered with two

is, the outermost of which serves for a protective filaments and membranes of which is composed. The substance of these  
**PART I.**

seeds comes very near to that of chestnuts, as to their consistency, colour, and astringent quality:

"This tree (says Dr. Garcin,) originally grows in the Molucca islands, where it is called *mangostan*; but has been transplanted from thence to the islands of Java and Malacca, at which last place it thrives very well. Its tuft is so fine, so regular,

so equal, and the appearance of its leaves so beautiful, that it is at present looked upon at Batavia as the most proper for adorning a garden and affording an agreeable shade. There are few

seeds, however, to be met with in this fruit that are good for planting, most part of them being abortive." He adds, that one may eat a great deal of this fruit without any inconvenience; and that it is the only one which sick people may be

allowed to eat without any scruple. Other writers concur in their praises of this fruit. Rumphius observes, that the mangostan is universally acknowledged to be the best and wholesomest fruit that grows in India; that its flesh is juicy, white; almost transparent, and of as delicate and agreeable a flavour as the richest grapes; the taste and smell

being so grateful, that it is scarce possible to be cloyed with eating it. He adds, that when sick people have no relish for any other food, they generally eat this with great delight; but, should they refuse it, their recovery is no longer expected.

"It is remarkable (says he) that the mangostan is given with safety in almost every disorder. The dried bark is used with success in the dysentery and tenesmus; and an infusion of it is esteemed a good

gargle for a sore mouth or ulcers in the throat. The Chinese dyers use this bark for the basis of a black colour, to fix it the firmer." Captain Cook, in his *Voyage round the World*, vol. iii. p.

737, says this tree is peculiar to the East Indies. The fruit is about the size of the crab-apple, and of a deep red wine colour. On the top of it is the figure of 5 or 6 small triangles joined in a circle; and at the bottom several hollow green leaves,

which are remains of the blossom. When they are to be eaten, the skin or rather flesh must be taken off; under which are found 6 or 7 white kernels, placed in a circular order; and the pulp with which these are enveloped is the fruit, than which nothing can be more delicious: It is a

happy mixture of the tart and the sweet, which is no less wholesome than pleasant; and, like the sweet orange, is allowed in any quantity to those who are afflicted with putrid or inflammatory

fevers.

**GARCON**, or **GARSOON**, a French term, literally signifying a boy, or young man unmarried, applied to certain inferior officers, among us called *grooms*, *garçones*. Thus all the servants in the late French king's chambers, wardrobe, &c. who held the lesser offices thereof under the proper officers, were called *garçons de la chambre, de la garderobe, &c.*

(1.) **GARD**. *n. f.* [*garde*, French.] Wardship; care; custody.

(2.) **GARD**, in geography, a department of France, comprehending part of the ci devant province of Languedoc. It is bounded on the N. by the departments of Lozere and Ardeche; on the E. by the Rhone; on the S. by the Mediterranean, and

and on the W. by those of Nîmes is the Capital. An ancient Roman aqueduct in the time of Augustus Caesar, is the water of the spring of Uzès. It is 160 feet in length, and is supported by three bridges, reared one above the other, the uppermost of these bridges is a great bridge of stone, without any arches, on which this aqueduct runs. Lewis XIV. when he visited it, the damages which this structure had sustained by time, caused a new one to be built, which now passes over the lower range of arches. The lake of the Cisalpine republic, near the city of Padua, in the province of Austria, the line of the canal of Campo Formio runs through it. It is formed by the union of the Saraca and the Tusciano; and is 30 miles long, from 2 to 10 broad, and 100 feet deep. The whirlwinds from the mountains of Trent and Verona give it a stormy motion resembling the waves of the sea. It was anciently named *Benacus*, and is described by Virgil in his *Georgics*, lib. 2. as peculiarly subject to these tempestuous motions:

"*Benacus with tempestuous billows veit.*"

From this its ancient name is derived the modern name of the department, *Benaco*, which is seated on its banks. Its fish are famous for their delicious flavour: and the fishery was formerly farmed at 8000 silver ducats. It belonged entirely to Verona before the treaty of Campo Formio.

(2.) **GARDA**, an open town of Maritime Austria, in the Veronese, N. of Lacize; anciently a fortress, with a citadel now in ruins, where the empress Adelheit widow of Lothair, and wife of Otho I, was confined by Berenger II. It is seated at the end of the lake, (N. 1.) 17 miles NW. of Verona. Lon. 11. 4. E. Lat. 45. 36. N.

(3.) **GARDA**, a district of Maritime Austria, in the Veronese, containing 8 parishes.

**GARDANNE**, a town of France, in the department of the mouths of the Rhone, 9 miles NNE. of Marseilles.

**GARDANT**, or **GUARDANT**, in heraldry, denotes any beast full-faced and looking right forward.

**GARDE**, a town of France, in the department of Vaucluse, and district of Toulon; 6 miles W. of Hieres.

**GARDEIAH**, a town of Africa, the capital of Beni-Mezzab. Lon. 2. 30. E. Lat. 32. 15. N.

**GARDELEN**, or **GARDELIN**, a town of Brandenburg, famous for its beer, and cloth manufacture; 44 miles WNW. of Brandenburg.

(1.) **GARDEN**, Francis, Lord Gardenstone, the 2d. son of Alexander Garden of Troup, Esq, by Jean, daughter of Sir Francis Grant, Lord Cullen, was born at Edinburgh, 24th June, 1721. After passing through the usual course of liberal education, at that university, he studied the law at Edinburgh, and was admitted a member of the faculty of

Advocates in 1744. He soon began to distinguish himself in his practice as an advocate, by his native rectitude of understanding, and his imagination, as well as by a manly and independent argument, which is often more than counterpoised by a sophistical artifice. Although his life seemed to throw obstructions in the way of his rising to eminence in his profession, by his being too often to indulge in the pursuit of pleasure, yet the native vigour of his mind raised him so high in the public estimation, that he was distinguished with little or no political interest, and rose to the high legal functions of Advocate Depute, and Solicitor General. He held several different offices, particularly the office of Advocate Depute, in which he distinguished himself no less by his liberal views, independent and uninterested conduct. His professional success as a lawyer derived the highest lustre from his conduct in the Douglas cause, in which he was assisted by Mr Wedderburn, (the present Lord Advocate,) before the parliament of 1762. His knowledge in the law, and fluent command of the French language, procured him distinction. In 1764, he was promoted to the office of a Judge in the courts of Justice. The former of these offices he held till his death, but resigned the latter in 1770. His talents and conduct in both were equalled by integrity and discernment, and candour. He was remarkable for his decisions in civil causes; and his moderation in criminal trials did equal honour to his head and his heart. In 1762, he purchased the estate of Johnstone, in Kincardineshire, after he had set on foot a plan of the most judicious improvement of its value by an extension of the town of Laurencekirk; which, from being only a burgh of 7 houses, containing only 54 persons, was raised to the rank of a burgh of barony, given him by the King, and filled with its own magistrates, and filled with industrious inhabitants, who carry on important manufactures, and have a weekly market, &c. See LAURENCEKIRK. In Dec. 1785, upon the death of his father, he succeeded to the estate of Troup, which was valued at a year, and a fortune of 40,000l. The income of the late Lord Gardenstone's income had never been adequate to the liberal expenses of his rank and the generosity of his nature, but the addition of this estate naturally led him. But this additional income enabled him to pursue his generous propensities to the full extent, and the instance of his liberality to a man of no fortune is a striking instance of the liberality we have mentioned in our notice of the late Dr Brown. (See BROWN, N. 7.) Similar instances of his private benevolence, which he was never disposed to be condescended on, did our room permit, we could not entirely pass over, but his lordship's zeal for the principles of the Constitution having led him not to take an active part himself, in promoting the improvement of the Royal Boroughs, but also to influence a merchant in Aberdeen with whom he was intimate, to show equal zeal in the cause, his business had been considerably advanced, and Lord Gardenstone no sooner got possession

he made his mercantile friend a present  
 The same liberal principles of public  
 philanthropy led him to give 100l. to the  
 Society for the Borough reform, as well  
 as to the association for the Aboli-  
 tion of the African Slave Trade: in which last  
 he took a zealous and active part, by  
 attending at several of the Society's first public  
 meetings in Edinburgh, and signing their adver-  
 sive resolutions in the Newspapers. On  
 the 17th of 1786, he set out for Dover, on his  
 way to France. After visiting Paris, he  
 went to Provence, and spent the winter at  
 Aix; in spring 1787, he returned northwards;  
 he visited Geneva, Switzerland, the Netherlands,  
 and the Provinces; passed through Germany  
 and having surveyed all its great cities,  
 numerous monuments of its ancient  
 grandeur as well as its many natural curiosities,  
 returned to his native country, in 1789,  
 after an absence of 3 years, in much better health  
 than he left it. He died at his seat at Mor-  
 ar Edinb'gh, on the 21st July 1793;  
 he was 57 years of his age. With regard to his  
 person he was above the middle size, robust and  
 handsome; he dressed in the dress of a  
 philosopher; he was without garden, though in all other particu-  
 lars he was like Adonis' gardens,  
 which one day bloom'd and fruitful were the  
 next.  
 My lord of Ely, when I was last in Holbourn,  
 I saw good Strawberries in your garden there.  
 —In the royal ordering of gardens, there ought to  
 be gardens for all the months in the year. Bacon.  
 —In every garden should be provided flowers,  
 fruit, shade and water. Temple.  
 My garden takes up half my daily care,  
 And my field asks the minutes I can spare.  
 2. A place particularly fruitful or delightful.—  
 I am arriv'd from fruitful Lombardy,  
 The pleasant garden of great Italy.  
 3. GARDEN is often used in composition for bor-  
 oughs, or belonging to a garden. 4. Garden-  
 mould. Mould fit for a garden.—They delight  
 most in rich black garden-mould, that is deep  
 and light, and mixed rather with sand than clay.  
 5. Garden-tillage. Tillage used in  
 cultivating gardens.—Peas and beans are what  
 belong to garden-tillage as well as that of the field.  
 6. Garden-ware. The produce of  
 gardens.—A clay bottom is a much more pernicious  
 soil for trees and garden-ware than gravel.  
 His lordship wrote many anony-  
 mous poems in prose and verse, which were pub-  
 lished in his younger years in different periodical  
 papers, and which, it is to be regretted, have  
 been collected and reprinted. Being a great  
 admirer of Spenser, he began a series of Critical  
 essays on the Fairy Queen, displaying the beauties  
 and faults of the poet, in the Gentleman and  
 the Critic, published at Edinburgh in 1774,  
 after the stopping of that work at the end of  
 which he put an end to his lordship's criticisms  
 in a long and elegant poem, and he never resumed them  
 in any form. As a public speaker his  
 manner was natural and energetic. There  
 was a simplicity and modulation in the tone of his  
 speech which attracted attention and delighted the

hearers. We cannot close this brief memoir,  
 which want of room only obliges us to shorten,  
 without mentioning, that the erection of St Ber-  
 nard's well near Edinburgh, upon the model of  
 the Temple at Tivoli in Italy, for the benefit  
 of the health of the citizens of that metropolis, will  
 afford a lasting monument of lord Gardenstone's  
 taste, as well as of his public spirit. See BER-  
 NARD'S WELL, ST.

(2.) GARDEN. n. f. [*gardd*, Welsh; *jardin*,  
 French; *giardino*, Italian.] 1. A piece of ground  
 inclosed, and cultivated with extraordinary care,  
 planted with herbs or fruits for food, or laid out  
 for pleasure.—

They promises are like Adonis' gardens,  
 Which one day bloom'd and fruitful were the  
 next.

My lord of Ely, when I was last in Holbourn,  
 I saw good Strawberries in your garden there.

—In the royal ordering of gardens, there ought to  
 be gardens for all the months in the year. Bacon.  
 —In every garden should be provided flowers,  
 fruit, shade and water. Temple.

My garden takes up half my daily care,  
 And my field asks the minutes I can spare.

2. A place particularly fruitful or delightful.—  
 I am arriv'd from fruitful Lombardy,  
 The pleasant garden of great Italy.

3. GARDEN is often used in composition for bor-  
 oughs, or belonging to a garden. 4. Garden-  
 mould. Mould fit for a garden.—They delight  
 most in rich black garden-mould, that is deep  
 and light, and mixed rather with sand than clay.  
 5. Garden-tillage. Tillage used in  
 cultivating gardens.—Peas and beans are what  
 belong to garden-tillage as well as that of the field.  
 6. Garden-ware. The produce of  
 gardens.—A clay bottom is a much more pernicious  
 soil for trees and garden-ware than gravel.

(3.) GARDEN. See GARDENING.  
 (4.) GARDEN BAY, a bay on the E. coast of  
 Newfoundland. Lon. 54. 50. W. Lat. 49. 42. N.

(5.) GARDENS, FLOATING. Abbé Clavigero,  
 in his History of Mexico, says, that when the Mex-  
 icans were brought under subjection to the Col-  
 huacan and Teapanecan nations, and confined to the  
 miserable little islands on the lake of Mexico, they  
 had no land to cultivate, until necessity compelled  
 them to form moveable fields and gardens, which  
 floated on the waters of the lake. The method  
 which they adopted, to make these, and which  
 they still practise, is extremely simple. They  
 plait and twist together willows and roots of marsh  
 plants or other materials, which are light, but  
 capable of supporting the earth firmly united.  
 Upon this foundation they lay the light bushes  
 which float on the lake; and over all, the mud  
 and dirt which they draw up from the bottom.  
 Their regular figure is quadrangular; their length  
 and breadth various; but generally they are about  
 8 perches long, and not more than 3 in breadth,  
 and have less than a foot of elevation above the  
 surface of the water. These were the first fields  
 which the Mexicans had after the foundation of



the other  
became  
they cultivated  
plants, which  
their gods, at  
At present th  
of garden h  
rise, innume  
of flowers an  
arrive by the  
that capital.

plants thrive in them surpris-  
ly; the mud of the lake affords a very fertile soil,  
and requires no water from the clouds. In the  
large gardens there is commonly a little tree, and  
even a little hut to shelter the cultivator and de-  
fend him from rain or the sun. When the *Chi-  
nampa*, or owner of a garden, wishes to change  
his situation, to remove from a disagreeable neigh-  
bour, or to come nearer to his own family, he  
gets into his little vessel, and by his own strength  
alone if the garden is small, he tows it after him,  
and conducts it wherever he pleases. That part  
of the lake, where these floating gardens are, is a  
place of high recreation, where the senses receive  
all possible gratification.

(6.) GARDENS, HANGING, in antiquity, gardens  
raised on arches by Nebuchadnezzar king of Ba-  
bylon, to gratify his wife Amyctis, daughter of  
Astyages king of Media. Q. Curtius makes them  
equal in height to the walls of the city, viz. 50  
feet. They contained a square of 400 feet on  
every side, and were carried up into the air in  
several terraces laid above one another, and the  
ascent from terrace to terrace was by stairs 10 feet  
wide. The arches sustaining the whole pile were  
raised above one another, and it was strengthened  
by a wall, surrounding it on every side, of 22 feet

first cultivated maize, pep-  
In time, as these fields  
in the industry of the people,  
of flowers and odoriferous  
employed in the worship of  
the recreation of their nobles,  
rate flowers and every sort  
in them. Every day at sun-  
sets loaded with various kinds  
cultivated in those gardens,  
at the great market-place of  
plants thrive in them surpris-  
ly; the mud of the lake affords a very fertile soil,  
and requires no water from the clouds. In the  
large gardens there is commonly a little tree, and  
even a little hut to shelter the cultivator and de-  
fend him from rain or the sun. When the *Chi-  
nampa*, or owner of a garden, wishes to change  
his situation, to remove from a disagreeable neigh-  
bour, or to come nearer to his own family, he  
gets into his little vessel, and by his own strength  
alone if the garden is small, he tows it after him,  
and conducts it wherever he pleases. That part  
of the lake, where these floating gardens are, is a  
place of high recreation, where the senses receive  
all possible gratification.

in thickness. The floors of each of  
were laid in the following manner; on  
the arches were first laid large flat  
long and 4 broad. Over them was a  
mixed with a great quantity of bit  
which were two rows of bricks close  
together by plaster, and over all wa  
sheets of lead; and upon the lead  
mould of the garden. The mould  
of such a depth as to admit the la  
take root and grow; and it was  
various kinds of trees, plants, and  
the upper terrace there was an engi  
water was drawn up out of the river  
the whole garden.

\* To GARDEN. *v. n.* [from the  
cultivate a garden; to lay out garden

At first, in Rome's poor ag  
When both her kings and consuls hel  
Or garden'd well. *Ben Jon*

—When ages grow to civility and el  
come to build stately, sooner than to  
ly; as if gardening were the grea  
*Bacon*.

\* GARDENER. *n. s.* [from *garden*  
attends or cultivates gardens.—Our  
gardens, to the which our wills are  
that, if we plant nettles, or low  
power lies in our will. *Shak Spel*  
tread down any loose ground, aft  
sown onions or turnips. *Bacon's Na*  
*gardener* may lop religion as he pleas  
The life and felicity of an excellen  
preferable to all other diversions. *E*

Then let the learned *gard'ner* tr  
The kinds of stocks, and what th  
bear.

GARDENIA. See GARDINIA.

## G A R D E N I N G.

### INTRODUCTION.

#### SECT. I. DEFINITIONS.

GARDENING is thus defined by Dr John-  
son:

\* GARDENING. *n. s.* [from *garden*.] The act  
of cultivating or planning gardens.—My composi-  
tions in *gardening* are after the Pindarick man-  
ner, and run into the beautiful wildness of nature,  
without affecting the nicer elegancies of art. *Spett*.

In the preceding definition, Dr Johnson is ma-  
nifestly deficient. GARDENING is an ART, which  
comprehends a great variety of *arts*, both of the  
planting and cultivation of gardens. Considered  
in its utmost extent, whatever contributes to ren-  
der the scenes of vegetable nature delightful, forms  
a part of gardening; but in its more limited sense,  
it denotes the cultivation of gardens for the sake  
of their produce. In this last sense, as the most  
important, we mean chiefly to treat of it.

#### SECT. II. HISTORY of GARDENING.

GARDENING, says Mr Walpole, in his *History*

of *Modern Gardening*, was probabl  
first arts that succeeded to that of bu  
and naturally attended property an  
possession. Culinary, and afterwa  
herbs, were the objects of every hea  
it became convenient to have them  
without seeking them at random i  
meadows, and on mountains, as  
were wanted. When the earth cea  
spontaneously all those primitive lux  
ture became requisite, separate incl  
ing herbs grew expedient. Fruits  
same predicament; and those most i  
demanded attention, must have ent  
extended the domestic inclosure.

NOAH planted a vineyard, and  
wine, and every body knows the  
Thus we acquired vineyards, as w  
gardens, and orchards. No doub  
of all these sorts was the garden of E  
radite was a great deal larger than a  
read of afterwards, being inclosed  
Pison, Gihon, Hiddekel, and Euph  
ry tree that was pleasant to the sigh



ew in it; and as two other trees were like-  
und there, of which not a slip or sucker  
s; it does not belong to the present dis-  
After the Fall, nobody was suffered  
r into the garden; and the poverty and  
ies of our first ancestors hardly allow-  
time to make improvements in imita-  
it, supposing any plan had been prefer-  
A cottage and a slip of ground for a cab-  
a gooseberry-bush, such as we see by the  
a common, were in all probability the ear-  
sts and gardens: a well and bucket succeed-  
the Pison and Euphrates. As settlements in-  
d, the orchard and the vineyard followed;  
e earliest princes of tribes possessed just the  
ries of a modern farmer.  
ters, we may well believe, remained long in  
tuation; and we have reason to think, that  
any centuries the term *garden* implied no  
than a kitchen garden or orchard. The  
s of ALCINOUS, in the *Odyssey*, is the most  
med in the heroic times. No admirer of  
it can read his description without rapture.  
continues our author, what was that boast-  
trading with which

the gods ordain'd  
e grace Alcinous and his bappy land?  
e diverted of harmonious Greek and bewitch-  
etry, it was a small orchard and vineyard,  
ome beds of herbs and two fountains that  
ed them, inclosed within a quick-set hedge.  
hole compass of this pompous garden in-  
four acres:  
e acres was th' allotted space of ground,  
d with a green inclosure all around.  
aces were apples, figs, pomegranates,  
alives, and vines. Alcinous's garden was  
ed by the poet, enriched by him with the  
gift of eternal summer, and no doubt an  
e of imagination surpassing any thing he  
ever seen. As he has bestowed on the same  
y prince a palace with brazen walls and co-  
ms of silver, he certainly intended that the gar-  
d should be proportionably magnificent. We  
are, therefore, that, as late as Homer's age,  
nclosure of 4 acres, comprehending orchard,  
ard, and kitchen garden, was a stretch of  
y the world at that time had never beheld."  
ase this era, however, we have in the sacred  
ags hints of a garden still more luxuriously  
ned. We allude to the Song of Solomon,  
p. ii. v. 1.) part of the scene of which is un-  
dly laid in a garden. Flowers and fruits  
particularly spoken of as the ornaments and  
produce of it; and besides these, aromatic ve-  
ables formed a considerable part of the gratifi-  
ions it afforded. The camphor and the cinna-  
m tree, with all trees of frankincense, and  
the chief spices flourished there, (*Cant. iv. 12.*)  
LONDON tells us, (*Ecc. ii. 4, 5.*) That he made  
great works:—gardens and orchards, and  
led in them trees of every kind. Indeed we  
suppose his gardens to have been both amp-  
and uniformly furnished, seeing the kinds, na-  
e, and properties of the vegetable tribes, were  
ourite study with the royal philosopher, and  
e deemed a subject worthy of his pen: for we  
told, that he wrote of plants, from the great

cedar of Lebanon down to the hyssop of the wall.  
(*2 Kings iv, 33.*) Fountains, and streams of water  
appear also to have had a share in the composition;  
probably for ornament as well as use.

The HANGING GARDENS of Babylon were a  
still greater prodigy. But as they are supposed to  
have been formed on terraces and the walls of the  
palace, whither soil was conveyed on purpose, Mr  
Walpole concludes, "they were what sumptuous  
gardens have been in all ages till the present, un-  
natural, enriched by art, possibly with fountains,  
statues, balustrades, and summer-houses, and  
were any thing but verdant and rural." Others,  
however, have allowed them greater praise.  
They seem, in many respects, to have been laid  
out with good taste. Their elevation not only  
produced a variety and extent of view, but was  
also useful in moderating the heat. Such a si-  
tuation would likewise suit a greater variety of  
trees and plants than a plain surface, and would  
contain a larger as well as a more diversified ex-  
tent.

The suiting of the situation to the nature of the  
trees seems, from the account given by Josephus,  
(*Contra Apion, lib. i. § 19.*) to have been one view  
in the erecting the building in such a manner.  
And the success seems to have been answerable,  
as the trees (says Quintus Curtius, lib. 5.) flourish-  
ed extremely well, and grew as tall as in their na-  
tive situations. On the whole, they seem to have  
been formed with judgment and taste, and well  
adapted to the situation and circumstances.

The eastern gardens appear to have been plant-  
ed adjoining to the house or palace to which they  
belonged. Thus, king Ahasuerus went immedi-  
ately from the banquet of wine to walk in  
the garden of the palace. *Esther, vii. 7.* The  
garden of CYRUS, at Sardis, mentioned by Xeno-  
phon, seems to have been contiguous to the pa-  
lace; as was that of ATTALUS, mentioned by  
Justin. l. 36. c. 4. The hanging gardens at Ba-  
bylon, were not so much adjacent to the palace,  
as a part of the palace itself, since several of the  
royal apartments were beneath them. *Diod. lib. 2.*

We are not certain what the taste for gardening  
was among the Greeks. The ACADEMUS was a  
wooded shady place; and the trees appear to  
have been of the olive species. It was situated be-  
yond the limits of the walls, and adjacent to the  
tombs of the heroes; and tho' we are not inform-  
ed of the particular manner in which this grove  
was laid out, it may be gathered from Pausanias's  
*Attica*, that it was elegantly ornamented. At the  
entrance was an altar dedicated to Love. Within  
the Academus, were the altars of Prometheus, the  
Muses, Mercury, Minerva, and Hercules; and  
at a small distance was the tomb of Plato. So  
that, in all probability, it was highly adapted by  
art, as well as nature, to philosophic reflection  
and contemplation.

PLUTARCH tells us, that before the time of Ci-  
mon, the Academus was a rude and uncultivated  
spot: but that it was planted by that general, and  
had water conveyed to it. It was divided into gym-  
nasia, or places of exercise, and philosophic walks,  
shaded with trees. These are said to have flourish-  
ed very well, until they were destroyed by Sylla,  
along with those in the Lyceum. Near the acade-  
my

were the gardens of the philosophers, of which Epicurus; which, however, were but small. The scene of Plato's *Dialo-* concerning Beauty is elegantly described as on the banks of the river Ilissus, and under shade of the plantane; but as no artificial arrangement of objects is mentioned, the prospect is to have been merely natural.

The art of gardening does not appear to have been among the Romans, otherwise than as a matter of utility, till a very late period; at least the writers on husbandry, Cato, Varro, Columella, and Palladius, make no mention of a garden as an object of pleasure, but solely with respect to its productions of herbs and fruits. The gardens of Lucullus are the first we find mentioned of remarkable magnificence; though indeed from the extravagance to which these were arrived, it is evident, they could not be the first. Plutarch speaks of them as incredibly expensive, and equal to the magnificence of kings. They contained artificial elevations of ground to a surprising height, of buildings projected into the sea, and vast pieces of water upon land. In short, his extravagance was so great, that he acquired the appellation of the *Roman Xerxes*. It is not improbable, from the consideration of Lucullus having spent much time in Asia, in a situation wherein he had an opportunity of observing the most splendid constructions of this kind, that these gardens might be laid out in the Asiatic style. The vast masses of building said to have been erected, might have borne some resemblance, in the arrangement and style, to the Babylonian gardens.

The *TUSCULAN VILLA* of Cicero, though often mentioned, is no where described in his works, so as to give an adequate idea of the style in which his gardens were disposed.

Little is to be traced in Virgil relative to this subject. Pines, it seems probable, were a favourite ornament in gardens; (*Ecl.* vii. 65.) and flowers, roses especially, were much esteemed, (*Georg.* IV. 118.) perfumes indeed having been always highly valued in warm climates. Virgil places Anchises in Elysium, in a grove of bays, of the sweet-scented kind. The Pæstan roses were chiefly valued for their excellent odour; and the same quality appears to be the cause why they were placed by Tibullus as ornaments to the Elysian fields. There appears also to have prevailed among the Romans a piece of luxury relative to gardens, which is equally prevalent at present among us, namely, the forcing of flowers at seasons of the year not suited to their natural blowing: and roses were then, as at present, the principal flowers upon which these experiments were tried; as appears from Martial, Lampridius, and others. See *Epig.* l. vi. ep. 80, &c.

When Roman authors, (Mr Walpole remarks,) whose climate infused a wish for cool retreats, speak of their enjoyments in that kind, they sigh for grottoes, caves, and the refreshing hollows of mountains, near irriuous and shady founts; or boast of their porticoes, walks of plants, canals, baths, and breezes from the sea. Their gardens are never mentioned as affording shade and shelter from the rage of the dog-star. PLINY

gives us descriptions of two of his villas. As he

used his Laurentine villa for his winter retreat, it is not surprising that the garden makes no considerable part of the account. All he says of that the *gestatio* or place of exercise, which surrounded the garden (the latter consequently being very large), was bounded by a hedge of box, and where that was perished, with roses, that there was a walk of vines; and that most of the trees were fig and mulberry, the soil not being proper for any other sorts. On his Tusculan villa he is more diffuse; the garden makes a considerable part of the description:—and what he says of the principal beauty of that pleasure-ground is exactly what was the admiration of this country about 60 years ago; box trees cut into most various animals, letters, and the names of the master and the artificer. In an age when architecture displayed all its grandeur, all its purity, and all its taste, when arose Vespasian's amphitheatre, the temple of Peace, Trajan's forum, Domitian's baths, Adrian's villa, the ruins and vestiges of which excite our astonishment; a Roman consul, a popular emperor's friend, and a man of elegant literature and taste, delighted in what the moderns scarcely admire in a college garden. All the gradations of Pliny's corresponded exactly to those laid out by London and Wile on the same principles. He talks of slopes, terraces, a wilderness, shrubs methodically trimmed, a marble basin, pipes spouting water, a cascade falling into the basin, bay trees alternately planted with pines, and a straight walk, from whence issued paths, others parted off by hedges of box and yew trees, with obelisks placed between every two paths. There wants nothing but the embroidery of flowers, to make a garden in the reign of Trajan serve for the description of one in that of King William III. In one passage, however, Pliny seems to have conceived that natural irregularity might be a beauty: *in opere urbanissimo*, says he, *velut illati ruris imitatio*. Something like a natural view was contrived amidst so much polished art and position. But the idea soon vanished, lines were immediately enveloped the slight scene, and natural beauties and inscriptions in box again succeeded to compensate for the daring intrusion of nature.

In the paintings found at Herculaneum are a few traces of gardens, as may be seen in the volume of the prints. They are small square enclosures, formed by trellis-work and espaliers, and regularly ornamented with vases, fountains, and careatides, elegantly symmetrical, and proper for the narrow spaces allotted to the garden of a house in a capital city.

From these remarks, it appears how natural and insensibly the idea of a kitchen garden grew into that which has for so many ages been peculiarly termed a *garden*, and by our ancestors in the country distinguished by the name of a *pleasure garden*. A square piece of ground was originally parted off in early ages for the use of the family—to exclude cattle, and ascertain the produce—it was separated from the fields by a hedge, the pride and design of privacy increased, the garden was dignified by walls; and in climates where the sun were not lavished by the ripening glow of natural soil, fruit trees were assisted and sheltered from rounding winds by the like expedient; for

of luxury, which have swelled into geometrics, have almost all taken their source in simple fountains of reason.

Nature and prospect were thus excluded, the art of making square gardens inclosed, pomp and solitude combined to calling that might enrich and enliven the unanimated partition. Fountains, first in use, which grandeur loves to disguise out of sight, received embellishments of marbles, and at last, to contradict nature, tossed their waste of waters into rising columns. Art, in the hands of had at first been made a succedaneum in the hands of ostentatious wealth, it means of opposing nature; and the reversed the march of the latter, the more sought its power was demonstrated. assured by the line were introduced in ascending streams, and terraces were hoisted opposition to the facile slopes that unite the valley to the hill. Balustrades beset precipitate and dangerous elevations, of steps rejoined them to the subjacent flat in the terrace had been dug. Vases and were added to the unnecessary balconies, a furnished the lifeless spot with mimictions of the excluded sons of men. Thus and expence were the constituent parts impetuous and selfish solitudes; and evement that was made, was but a step in nature. The tricks of water-works are unwary, not to refresh the panting and parterres embroidered in patterns of coat, were but the childish endeavours and novelty to reconcile greatness to ascended on.

As these impotent displays of false taste, were applied to the lovely wildness of which nature has distinguished each variety of tree and shrub. The venerable romantic beech, the useful elm, even the circuit of the lime, the regular round yew, and the almost moulded orange were corrected by such fantastic admirers of art. The compass and square were of more stations than the nursery-man. The meek, the quincunx, and the etoile, unsatisfying sameness on every royal and den. Trees were headed, and their sides ray; many French groves seem green upon poles. Seats of marble, arbours, near-houses, terminated every vista; and even where the space was too large to being remarked at one view, was so exact, as Pope observed,

—each alley has a brother,  
if the garden just reflects the other,  
flowers were more defensibly subjected to regularity. As Milton expressed it,  
Leisure

gardens took his pleasure.  
The garden of Marshal de Biron at Paris, contains acres, every walk was buttoned on by lines of flower-pots, which succeed in rows.

It does not precisely appear what our ancestors called a bower: it was probably an arbour;

sometimes it meant the whole fenced inclosure, and in one instance it certainly included a labyrinth. Rosamond's bower was indisputably of that kind; though whether composed of walls or hedges, we cannot determine. A square and a round labyrinth were so capital ingredients of a garden formerly, that in Du Cerceau's architecture, who lived in the time of Charles IX. and Henry III. there is scarce a ground plot without one of each.

In Kip's Views of the Seats of our Nobility and Gentry, we see the same tiresome and returning uniformity. Every house is approached by two or three gardens, consisting perhaps of a gravel walk and two grass plats or borders of flowers. Each rises above the other by two or three steps, and as many walls and terraces, and so many iron gates, that we recollect those ancient romances in which every entrance was guarded by giants or dragons. Yet though these and such preposterous inconveniences prevailed from age to age, good sense in this country had perceived the want of something at once more grand and more natural.

These reflections, and the bounds set to the waste made by royal spoilers, gave origin to PARKS. They were contracted forests, and extended gardens. Hentzer says, that, according to Rous of Warwick, the first park was that at Woodstock. If so, it might be the foundation of a legend that Henry II. secured his mistress in a labyrinth: it was no doubt more difficult to find her in a park than in a palace, where the intricacy of the woods and various lodgings buried in covert might conceal her actual habitation. It is more extraordinary that, having so long ago stumbled on the principle of modern gardening, we should have persisted in retaining its reverse, symmetrical and unnatural gardens. That parks were rare in other countries, Hentzer, who travelled over great part of Europe, leads us to suppose, by observing that they were common in England. In France they retain the name, but nothing is more different both in compass and disposition. Their parks are usually square or oblong inclosures, regularly planted with walks of chestnuts or limes, and generally every large town has one for its public recreation.

“One man, one great man we had (continues Mr Walpole), on whom nor education nor custom could impose their prejudices; who, ‘on evil days though fallen, and with darkness and solitude compassed round’ judged that the mistaken and fantastic ornaments he had seen in gardens were unworthy of the Almighty hand that planted the delights of Paradise. He seems with the prophetic eye of taste to have conceived, to have foreseen modern gardening; as Lord Bacon announced the discoveries since made by experimental philosophy. The description of Eden is a warmer and more just picture of the present style than Claud Lorraine could have painted from Hagley or Stourhead. The first lines we shall quote exhibit Stourhead on a more magnificent scale:

Thro’ Eden went a river large,  
Nor chang’d his course, but thro’ the shaggy hill  
Pass’d underneath ingulph’d: for God had  
thrown

That mountain as his garden mould, high rais’d  
Upon the rapid current——

Hagley

## G A R D E N I N G

d in what follows :  
 ro' veins  
 ith kindly thirst updrawn,  
 in, and with many a rill  
 n—  
 at freedom of pencil, what  
 es !  
 sapphire fount the crisped

F  
 V

“ pearl and sands of gold,  
 nder pendent shades,  
 g each plant, and fed  
 Paradise, which not *nice art*  
 s knots, but *nature* boon  
 fe on hill and dale and plain,  
 re the morning sun first warmly smote  
 l, and where the unpierc'd shade  
 he noon-tide bow'rs :—*Thus was*

*various view.*

I  
 r  
 t  
 POW g

POW g

description, paint to your  
 llow, contrast them with  
 le terror with which the  
 of his paradise, fenced  
 h the champaign head

(  
 n wilder... whose hairy sides  
 ket overgrown, grotesque and wild,  
 nted ; and over head up grew  
 Insupportable height of loftiest shade,  
 Cedar and pine, and fir, and branching palm,  
 A Sylvan scene, and, as the ranks ascend,  
 Shade above shade, a woody theatre,  
 Of stateliest view—

and then recollect, that the author of this sublime vision had never seen a glimpse of any thing like what he has imagined ; that his favourite ancients had dropped not a hint of such divine scenery ; and that the conceits in Italian gardens, and Theobalds and Nonfuch, were the brightest originals that his memory could furnish. His intellectual eye saw a nobler plan, so little did he suffer by the loss of sight. It sufficed him to have seen the materials with which he could work. The vigour of a boundless imagination told him how a plan might be disposed, that would embellish nature, and restore art to its proper office, the just improvement or imitation of it.

“ Now let us turn to an admired writer, posterior to MILTON, and see how cold, how insipid, how tasteless is his account of what he pronounced a perfect garden. We speak not of his style, which it was not necessary for him to animate with the colouring and glow of poetry. It is his want of ideas, of imagination, of taste, that deserve censure, when he dictated on a subject which is capable of all the graces that a knowledge of beautiful nature can bestow. Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE was an excellent man ; MILTON, a genius of the first order.

“ We cannot wonder that Sir William declares in favour of parterres, fountains, and statues, as necessary to break the sameness of large grass plats, which he thinks have an ill effect upon the eye, when he acknowledges that he discovers fancy in the gardens of Alcinous. Milton studied the ancients with equal enthusiasm, but not bigotry ; and had judgment to distinguish between the want of invention and the beauties of poetry. Com-

pare his paradise with Homer's garden, ascribed to a celestial design. For Sir just to observe, that his ideas center in a garden. He had the honour of his country many delicate fruits, and he took care to dispose them to the best advantage.

“ The best figure of a garden (say the ancients) is a square or an oblong, and either upon a descent : they have all their beauties in the air, the view, make amends for the want of space, which is very great in situating the terrace-walks, in levelling the grounds, and the stone stairs that are one to the other. The perfectest garden I ever saw, either at home or abroad, was that of Moor-park in Hertfordshire, it about 30 years ago. It was made by the late Duchess of Bedford, esteemed among the best of her time, and celebrated by Dr Johnson with very great care, excellent composition, but much cost ; but greater sums may be expended in a way without effect or honour, if the garden is not in proportion to money, or ‘ if nature is not improved ;’ which I take to be the great rule in every thing else, as far as it respects the improvement of our lives but of our [We shall see how natural that ad-

was.] Because I take the garden to have been in all kinds the most perfect, at least in the figure and disposition, I will ascribe it to those that meet with such a situation above the regard of common expense the side of a hill, upon which the descent is not very steep. The length of the terrace walk, where the best rooms and those of the greatest use are, lies upon the breadth of the garden. The great parlour opens into the middle of the gravel-walk that lies even with it, as I remember, about 300 paces broad in proportion ; the border set with laurels and at large distances, with the beauty of orange trees out of flower. From this walk are three descents by steps, in the middle, and at each end a large parterre. This is divided by gravel walks, and adorned with eight statues in the several quadrants of the terrace walk, are two fountains, and the sides of the parterre are rare large cloisters open to the garden, and the sides of stone, and terminating in other summer-houses even with the terrace, which are paved with stone, and the walks of shade, there being none in the whole parterre. Over these two cloisters are two terraces covered with lead and fountains ; and the passage into these airy of the two summer-houses at the end of the terrace walk. The cloister facing the terrace is covered with vines, and would have been for an orange-house, and the other with other more common greens, and I do not think been cast for that purpose, if gardening had been then in as much vogue now. From the middle of this parterre are three steps flying on each side

between them, covered with lead, and the lower garden, which is all fruit-trees about the several quarters of a wilderness, very shady; the walks here are all green, and embellished with figures of shell rock-mountains, and water-works. If the hill ended with the lower garden, and the park, they might have added a terrace of all greens; but this want is supplied in garden on the other side the house, all of that sort, very wild, shady, and a little rough rock-work and fountains. This park when I was acquainted with it, and in that place, I think, that I have seen in my time before or since, at home or abroad. It is unnecessary to add any remarks on this.

Any man might design and build a garden, who had been born in and never of Holborn. It was not, however, peculiar to William Temple to think in that way. How many Frenchmen are there who love their gardens, and still prefer unnatural steps and shady cloisters covered with Nautre, the architect of the groves and Versailles, came hither on a mission to our taste. He planted St James's and the Parks—no great monuments of his in-

ter, to do farther justice to Sir William Temple, or omit what he adds: "What I have seen of the best forms of gardens is meant only of a garden in some sort regular; for there may be a garden wholly irregular, that may, for ought, be more beautiful than any of the others: it may owe it to some extraordinary disposition of the soil, or some great race of vegetation in the contrivance, which may be divided by disagreeing parts into some figure, but yet, upon the whole, be very agreeable. I have seen in some places a garden more of it from others, who have seen among the Chinese, a people whose gardening seems to lie as wide of ours in Europe as our country does. Their greatest reach in gardening is employed in contriving figures, the beauty shall be great and strike the eye, but in any order or disposition of parts, that is commonly or easily observed. And though I have not any notion of this sort of beauty, but I find a particular word to express it: and I find it hit their eye at first sight, they award it is fine or is admirable, or any other word of esteem; but I should hardly advise these attempts in the figure of gardens, they are adventures of too hard attempt for any common hands; and though they may have more honour if they succeed well, and more dishonour if they fail, and it is not in their power they will; whereas in regular figures it is easy to make any great and remarkable

figure. Mr KENT and a few others were not content with a garden, or we might still be going up and down the open air. It is true, we have lately, as Sir William Temple did, and imitations of nature in the gardens of the Chinese. The former is certainly

ART. I.

tainly true: they are as whimsically irregular, as European gardens are formally uniform and unvaried:—but with regard to nature, it seems as much avoided, as in the squares and oblongs and straight lines of our ancestors. An artificial perpendicular rock starting out of a flat plain, and connected with nothing, often pierced through in various places with oval hollows, has no more pretension to be deemed natural than a lineal terrace or a parterre. The late Mr Joseph Spence, who had both taste and zeal for the present style, was so persuaded of the Chinese Emperor's pleasure-ground being laid out on principles resembling ours, that he translated and published, under the name of Sir Harry Beaumont, a particular account of that inclosure from the Collection of the Letters of the Jesuits. But except a determined irregularity, one can find nothing in it that gives any idea of attention being paid to nature. It is of vast circumference, and contains 200 palaces, besides as many contiguous for the eunuchs, all gilt, painted, and varnished. There are raised hills from 20 to 60 feet high, streams and lakes, and one of the latter five miles round. These waters are passed by bridges:—but even their bridges must not be straight—they serpentine as much as the rivulets, and are sometimes so long as to be furnished with resting-places, and begin and end with triumphal arches. The colonades undulate in the same manner. In short, this pretty gaudy scene is the work of caprice and whim, and, when we reflect on their buildings, presents no image but that of unsubstantial tawdriness. Nor is this all. Within this fantastic Paradise is a square town, each side a mile long. Here the emperor of the court, to entertain his imperial majesty with the bustle and business of the capital in which he resides, but which it is not of his dignity ever to see, act merchants, and all sorts of trades; and even delightedly exercise for his royal amusement every act of knavery that is practised under his auspicious government. Methinks this is the childish sojourn and repose of grandeur, not a retirement from public affairs to the delights of rural life. Here too his majesty *plays at agriculture*: there is a quarter set apart for that purpose; the eunuchs sow, reap, and carry in their harvest, in the imperial presence; and his majesty returns to Peking, persuaded that he has been in the country.

Having thus cleared our way by ascertaining what have been the ideas of gardening in all ages, as far as we have materials to judge by, it remains to show to what degree Mr Kent invented the new style, and what hints he had received to suggest and conduct his undertaking.

We have seen what Moor-park was, when pronounced a standard. But as no succeeding generation in an opulent and luxurious country contents itself with the perfection established by its ancestors, more perfect perfection was still sought; and improvements had gone on, till Loadon and Wise had stocked all our gardens with grants, animals, monsters, coats of arms, and mottoes, in yew, box, and holly. Absurdity could go no farther, and the tide turned. Bridgman, the next fashionable designer of gardens, was far more chaste; and whether from good sense, or that the nation had been struck by the admirable paper in the

G g

Guardian.

N<sup>o</sup> 173, he banished verdant sculpture, and even revert to the square precision of the old age. He enlarged his plans, did not make every division tally to its opposite, though he still adhered much to straight lines: the rest he diversified by wilder-ness with loose groves of oak, though still surrounded by hedges. As his reformation proceeded, he ventured, in the royal garden and park, to introduce cultivated fields, and the appearance of a forest, by the sides of the endless and tiresome walks that stretched from one into another without intermission. It was not till other innovators had broken through from rigid symmetry.

The capital stroke, the leading step to all that followed, was the destruction of walls and boundaries, and the invention of fosses—an idea then deemed so astonishing, that the common people called them Ha! Ha's! to express surprise at finding a sudden and unperceived change to their walk.

A sunk fence may be called the *leading step*, for these reasons. No sooner was this simple element made, than levelling, mowing, and the contiguous ground of the garden without the sunk fence was to be harmonized with the lawn within; and the garden in its turn was to be set free from its prim regularity, that it might assort with the milder country without. The sunk fence ascertained the specific garden; but that it might not draw too obvious a line of distinction between the neat and the rude, the contiguous out-lying parts came to be included in a kind of general design; and when nature was taken into the plan, under improvements, every step that was made pointed out new beauties, and inspired new ideas. At that moment appeared Kent, painter enough to taste the charms of landscape, bold, and opinionative enough to dare and to dictate, and born with a genius to strike out a great system from the twilight of imperfect essays. He leaped the fence, and saw that all nature was a garden. He felt the delicious contrast of hill and valley changing imperceptibly into each other, tasted the beauty of the gentle swell or concave scoop, and remarked how loose groves crowned an easy eminence with happy ornaments; and while they called in the distant view between their graceful stems, removed and extended the perspective by delusive comparison.

“ Thus the pencil of his imagination bestowed all the arts of landscape on the scenes he handled. The great principles on which he worked were perspective, light, and shade. Groups of trees broke too uniform or too extensive a lawn; evergreens and woods were opposed to the glare of the champaign; and where the view was less fortunate, or so much exposed as to be beheld at once, he blotted out some parts by thick shades, to divide it into variety, or to make the richest scene more enchanting by reserving it to a farther advance of the spectator's step. Thus, selecting favourite objects, and veiling deformities by screens of plantations; sometimes allowing the rudest waste to add its soil to the richest theatre: he realized the compositions of the greatest masters

in painting. Where objects were wanting to animate his horizon, his taste as an architect bestowed immediate termination. His buildings, seats, his temples, were more the works of pencil than of his compasses. We owe the restoration of Greece and the diffusion of a taste to his skill in landscape.

“ But of all the beauties he added to the face of this beautiful country, none surpassed his management of water. Adieu to canals, circular fountains, and cascades tumbling down marble fronts; that last absurd magnificence of Italian and French villas. The forced elevation of cataracts was more. The gentle stream was taught to serpentine seemingly at its pleasure; and where distinguished by different levels, its course appeared to be concealed by thickets properly interspersed and glittered again at a distance, where it might be supposed naturally to arrive. Its borders were smoothed, but preserved their waving irregularity. A few trees scattered here and there on its banks sprinkled the tame bank that accompanied its meanders; and when it disappeared among the hills, shades descending from the heights towards its progress, and framed the distant prospect of light under which it was lost, as it turned to either hand of the blue horizon.

“ Thus, dealing in none but the colours of nature, and catching its most favourable features, men saw a new creation opening before their eyes. The living landscape was chastened or polished and transformed. Freedom was given to the forest trees: they extended their branches unretained and where any eminent oak, or master beech, escaped maiming and survived the forest, and bramble was removed, and all its horrors were restored to distinguish and shade the scene. Where the united plumage of an ancient forest extended wide its undulating canopy, and venerable in its darkness, Kent thinned the most ranks, and left but so many detached scattered trees, as softened the approach of glare and blended a chequered light with the lengthened shadows of the remaining columns.

“ Succeeding artists have added new strokes to these touches; perhaps, improvements brought to perfection some that have been tried. The introduction of foreign trees and plants, we owe principally to Archibald D. Argyle, who contributed essentially to the richness of colour peculiar to our modern landscape. The use of various greens, the contrast of forms between our forest trees and the northern and West India firs and pines, are improvements more recent to Kent, or but little known to him. The willow, and every florid shrub, each tree of a pale or bold leaf, are new tints in the composition of our gardens.

“ But just as the encomiums are that have been bestowed on Kent's discoveries, he was without assistance nor faults. Mr Pope undoubtedly contributed to form his taste. The design of the Prince of Wales's garden at Carlton was evidently borrowed from the Poet's Temple at Ham. There was a little of affected modesty in the latter, when he said, of all his works, he was most proud of his garden. And yet it was a vast effort of art and taste to impress so



very on a spot of five acres. The  
gh the gloom from the grotto to the  
the retiring and again assembling  
lucky groves, the larger lawn, and  
of the termination at the cypresses  
to his mother's tomb, are managed  
judgment; and though Lord Peter  
ed him

is quincunx, and to rank his vines,  
not the most pleasing ingredients of  
peelive.

outed professed art (for the modern  
rts his talents, to conceal his art,)  
ther reformers, knew not how to  
st limits. He had followed Nature,  
her so happily, that he began to  
works were equally proper for imi-  
lenfington garden, he planted dead  
a greater air of truth to the scene—  
son laughed out of this excess. His

His was, that nature abhors a straight  
mics, for every genius has his apes,  
ink that she could love nothing but  
oked. Yet so many men of taste of  
oted themselves to the new improve-  
t is surprising how much beauty has  
out, with how few absurdities. Still  
s the reformation seems to have been  
far. Though an avenue crossing a  
ating a lawn, and intercepting views  
to which it leads, are capital faults;  
venue cut through woods, perhaps  
ng a park, has a noble air, and

trmen running before coaches,  
the inn what lord approaches,

ie habitation of some man of distinc-  
er places the total banishment of all  
atness immediately about a house,  
quently left gazing by itself in the  
ark, is a defect. Sheltered, and e-  
ks, in so very uncertain a climate as  
mforts ill exchanged for the few pic-  
s we enjoy; and whenever a family  
warm and even something of an old  
den, from the landscape designed for  
undertaker in fashion, without inter-  
he picture, they will find satisfactions  
s which do not invite strangers to  
their improvements."

ave brought down the history of this  
the present period. And from what  
it must be evident, that GARDEN-  
erfection to which it is now brought  
entitled to a place of considerable  
the liberal arts. "It is, says Mr  
s superior to landscape-painting as a  
representation: It is an exertion of  
ject for taste; and being realised now  
raint of regularity, and enlarged be-  
ropes of domestic convenience, the  
al, the most simple, the most noble  
ure, are all within its province. For  
r confined to the spots from which it  
ie; but regulates also the disposition  
ments, of a park, a farm, a forest,

&c. and the business of a gardener is to select and  
apply whatever is great, elegant, or characteristic,  
in any of them to discover, or to show all the ad-  
vantages of the place upon which he is employed;  
to supply its defects, to correct its faults, and to  
improve its beauties."

But though all these encomiums are justly due  
to gardening, upon the large scale of an ornamen-  
tal garden, including a park, farm, forest, &c. yet  
we apprehend that enough has been said upon  
this subject here, and under the article FARM, §  
IV, 1—4. And therefore we shall restrict the re-  
maining part of this treatise, to the description of  
such a plan of gardening, as will be found to an-  
swer best for those, who wish to prefer the *utile*  
to the *decorum*, and to regard usefulness and conve-  
nience more than ornament.

### SECT. III. Of the CHOICE of GROUND for a GARDEN.

IN the choice of a place proper for a garden,  
the most essential points to be considered are, the  
situation, the soil, the exposure, water, and prof-  
pect.

I. The situation ought to be such as is whole-  
some, and in a place neither too high nor too  
low; for if a garden be too high, it will be ex-  
posed to the winds, which are very prejudicial to  
trees; and if it be too low, the dampness, the  
vermin, and the venomous creatures that breed in  
ponds and marshy places, will add much to its  
insalubrity. The best situation is on the side of  
a hill, especially if the slope be easy, and almost  
imperceptible; if a good deal of level ground be  
near the house; and if it abounds with springs of  
water: for, being sheltered from the fury of the  
winds and the violent heat of the sun, a temperate  
air will be enjoyed; and the water that descends  
from the top of the hill, either from springs or  
rain, will not only supply fountains, canals, and  
cascades for ornament, but, when it has performed  
its office, will water the adjacent valleys, and, if  
it be not allowed to stagnate, will render them  
fertile and wholesome.

II. A good soil is next to be considered; for it is  
scarce possible to make a fine garden in a bad soil.  
There are indeed methods of meliorating ground,  
but they are very expensive; and sometimes, when  
the expence has been bestowed of laying good earth  
three feet deep over the whole surface, a whole  
garden has been ruined, when the roots of the  
trees have reached the natural bottom. To judge  
of the quality of the soil, observe whether there  
be any heath, thistles or such like weeds, growing  
spontaneously in it; for they are certain signs that  
the ground is poor. Or if there be large trees  
growing thereabouts, observe whether they grow  
crooked, ill shaped, and grubby; and if they be  
of a faded green, and full of moss, or infested with  
vermin: in all such cases, the place is to be re-  
jected. But if it be covered with grass fit for  
pasture, the depth of the soil may be tried. To  
know this, dig holes in several places, six feet  
wide and four deep; and if there be three feet of  
good earth it will do very well, but less than two  
will not be sufficient. The quality of good ground  
is neither to be stony nor too hard to work; nei-  
ther

**G A R D E N I N G.      S E C T.**

, too moist, nor too sandy and light; and clayey, which is the worst of gardens.

The next requisite is water; the want of one of the greatest inconveniencies that attend a garden, and will bring a certain mortification whatever is planted in it, especially in drier droughts that often happen in a hot situation in summer; besides its usefulness in gardens for making fountains, canals, &c. which are the greatest ornaments of

the last thing to be considered, is the propriety of a fine country; and though this is not absolutely necessary, yet it is one of the most agreeabilities of a fine garden: Besides, if a garden is planted in a low place that has no kind of prospect, it will not only be disagreeable but unprofitable.

**PART. IV. Of LAYING OUT and PLANTING GARDENS.**

GARDENS are usually distinguished into FLOWER GARDENS, FRUIT GARDENS, and KITCHEN GARDENS. The first being designed for pleasure and ornament, should be placed in the most conspicuous part, that is, next to the back front of the house; and the two latter, being designed for use, should be placed less in sight. But though the fruit and kitchen gardens are here mentioned as distinct, yet they are now usually united; as they equally require a good soil and exposure, and should both be placed out of the view of the house.

In the laying out and planting of gardens, the beauties of nature should always be studied; for the nearer a garden approaches to nature, the longer it will please. According to Mr Miller, the area of a handsome garden may take up 30 or 40 acres, but no more; and the following rules should be observed in the disposition of it. There ought always to be a descent of at least three steps from the house to the garden; this will render the house more dry and wholesome, and the prospect on entering the garden more extensive. The first thing that ought to present itself to view should be an open lawn of grass; which ought to be considerably broader than the front of the building; and if the depth be one half more than the width, it will have a better effect: If on the sides of the lawn there are trees planted irregularly, by way of open groves, the regularity of the lawn will be broken, and the whole rendered more like nature.

For the convenience of walking in damp weather, this lawn should be surrounded with a gravel walk, on the outside of which should be borders 3 or 4 feet wide for flowers; and from the back of these the prospect will be agreeably terminated by a slope of ever-green shrubs; which, however, should never be suffered to exclude agreeable prospects, or the view of handsome buildings. These walks may lead through the different plantations, gently winding about in an easy natural manner; which will be more agreeable than either those long straight walks, too frequently seen in gardens, or those serpentine windings that are twisted about into so many short turns as to render it difficult to walk in them; and as no

garden can be pleasing where there is a want of shade or shelter, these walks should lead as far as possible into plantations, where persons may walk in private, and be sheltered from the wind.

Narrow rivulets, which have a constant stream if they are judiciously led about the garden, have a better effect than large stagnating ponds or pools so frequently made in large gardens. If wilderesses are intended, they should not be made into stars and other ridiculous figures, nor into mazes or labyrinths, which in a great degree appear trifling.

In a word, the several parts of a garden should be diversified; but in places where the eye is directed in the whole at once, the two sides should always be the same. In designs, the aim should always be at what is natural. The general disposition of a garden and of its parts ought to be accommodated to the different situations of ground, to humour its inequalities, to propose the number of sorts of trees and shrubs to be planted in each part, and to shut out from the view of the garden no objects that may become ornamental; these extended views of the subject are not to be present purpose.

A practical attention to a garden, is by some esteemed a degrading employment. It is true indeed, that pastoral and agricultural manners we may form a judgment from the dignified descriptions of Virgil, are greatly degenerated. The employments of the shepherds and husbandmen are now become mean and sordid. The work of the garden is usually left to a peasant. Not unreasonable to assign the labour, which we esteem without amusement, to those who are sufficiently amused by the prospect of their wages. The operations of grafting, of inoculating, of pruning, of transplanting, are curious experiments of natural philosophy; and that they are pleasing to well as curious, those can testify who read what they felt on seeing their attempts in the different branches of practical gardening attended with success. Among the employments suitable to the age, Cicero has enumerated the superintending of a garden. It requires no great exertion of mind or body; and its satisfactions are of a kind which please without violent agitation. Its beneficial influence on health is an additional reason for an attention to it at an age when inactivity abounds.

In almost every description of the seats of the blessed, ideas of a garden seem to have presented themselves. The word PARADISE is synonymous with garden. The fields of Elysiun, that sweetest of poetical scenes, were adorned with all that imagination can conceive to be delightful. Some of the most pleasing passages of Milton, are those in which he represents the happy pair engaged in cultivating their blissful abode. Poets have always been delighted with the beauties of a garden. Lucretius is represented by Juvenal as reposing in his garden. Virgil's Georgics prove him to have been conversed with rural scenes; though, to the surprise of his readers, he has not assigned a book to the subject of a garden. Shenstone made it his subject (See FARM, § IV, 1.) but, with all his taste and fondness for it, he was not happy in it. The most delightful scenes which he created at the LEAS



him, it is said, little pleasure in the spectators. The truth is, he made the most of his grounds, which should have amusement of his life, the business of it; and ved himself in such troubles, by the ex- occasioned, as necessarily excluded tran- yment.

Indeed, in comparison, possess territories extensive, and sufficiently well adapted to an ornamented farm. Still fewer are supporting the expence of preserving it condition. But let not the rich suppose monopolized the pleasures of a garden. For of an acre, or a small portion, may real pleasure, from observing the pro- vegetation, even in a plantation of cul- ture. A very limited tract, properly at- tended, will furnish ample employment for an hand. Nor let it be thought a mean care; the hand that raised the cedar, formed the garden on the wall. Even the orchard, culti- vated for advantage, exhibits beauties un- in the shrubbery; nor can the green-house an appearance to excel the bloom of the almond.

The kitchen garden ought to be situated on one side of the house, near the stables, from whence it may be easily conveyed into it; and a fence built the wall, borders should be made of stone, which, according to Mr Miller, ought to be 10 feet broad. Upon these borders, ex- tended to the south, many sorts of early plants may be sown; and upon those exposed to the sun may be sown some late crops, taking care to plant any deep-rooting plants, especially peas, too near the fruit-trees.

It is best to divide the ground into quar- ters of equal figures for these are a square or an oblong if the ground will admit of it; otherwise it may be of that shape which will be most ad- vantageous. The size of these quarters should be proportioned to that of the garden; if too small, they will be lost in walks, and the quarters enclosed by espaliers of fruit trees, the plants will grow up slender, for want of a more open situation. The walks should also be proportioned to the size of the ground: these in a small garden should be 6 feet broad, but in a large one on each side of the walk there should be a border 3 or 4 feet wide between it and the wall. In these borders may be sown small or any other herbs that do not take deep roots. They should continue long; but they should not be planted with the same plants two years

in the same quarter nearest to the stables, and best defended from the cold winds, should be the hot- beds for early cucumbers, melons, &c. and to the north there should be a passage from the stables, the through which a small cart may enter. The most important points of general culture consist in digging and manuring the soil, and giving proper distance to each plant, according to their different growths: as also in keeping them free from weeds; for which purpose, always ob- serve to keep the dunghills free from them, so that their seeds will be constantly brought in along with the dung.

#### SECT. V. *The GARDINER'S KALENDAR.*

Under this head we proceed to point out what is proper to be done in the different months of the year, in the Kitchen-Garden, Flower-Garden, Orchard, &c. It is necessary, however, to mention here, that the arrangement in the following Kalendar, was originally drawn up for the climate of England; but will suit those parts of Scotland where the climate is mild, equally well, upon allowing a difference of 10 or 12 days later for sowing or planting. Where the seasons are still more backward, a proportional allowance will be made by the judicious gardiner, or practitioner in this pleasant art.

#### JANUARY.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Asparagus, in this season, being one of the greatest rarities which the art of gardening affords, ought to be planted every month, to have a regular succession of it till April, as it is above 3 weeks before it will be fit to cut, and the 4th hotbed should now be made. Beans of the early Mazagan sort must be planted for the second crop. Beets and cabbages of every sort, intended to procure seed from, should now be planted, if it was omitted in October. Carrots, to draw young, for the first crop, should now be sown; and those intended for seed should be planted. Cauliflower plants under glasses and frames should be covered with pea-straw, or mats, to defend them from the frost. Celery should be dug up as soon as the frost begins, for daily use, and the other covered with straw. Cress, mustard, radish, and rape, should be sown every week on a hotbed. Cucumbers for the first crop, to come in early in March, should now be sown. As soon as they are three or four days old put each into a small pot, and every week sow more to have plenty of plants. Dung should be wheeled into the kitchen garden in frosty weather, when other work cannot be done. Endive should be dug up, like the celery, as soon as the frost begins, and the rest covered with straw. Ground lying vacant should be dug up, if omitted in October, and thrown up into ridges. Hotbeds and loam should be prepared for asparagus, cucumbers and melons. Lettuces under glasses should be examined, and, if they be killed, sow more on a hotbed. Mint should be planted in pots, and if there be no hotbed, it will grow in a warm room. Mushroom beds will require regular attendance, and frost and rain must be kept out by dry straw and mats. Onions, to draw young, should be sown on a warm border. Peas under the south wall, for the first crop, should have the earth drawn up to them in a dry day, and sticks placed to them to defend them from the violence of the winds; and sow the second crop. Plant asparagus for the 4th crop. Beans for the 2d crop of mazagans. Beets, Cabbages, carrots, parsneps for seed. Mint and potatoes on a hotbed. Onions for eschalions and seed. Radishes for the 2d crop, sow in a warm situation, and the first crop on a hotbed. Small fallading, as cress, mustard, rape, radishes, sow every week on a hotbed. Sow carrots for the first crop, and the second of peas. Sow on hotbeds, carrots and cucumbers for the first crop. Cress, mustard, radish,

radish, and rape for fallads: Sow likewise turneps.

**FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** Anemones which were planted in the autumn will require to be covered with pea-straw, rotten tan, or mats. Auricula and polyanthus seeds may now be sown in boxes or pots in mild weather. Auriculas should be sheltered from violent rains and frost by mats; and at the end of the month fresh earthed. Beds for bulbous roots should be digged and thrown up into ridges, that they may be planted the first fine weather, if any roots remain unplanted; but it is bad policy not to plant them in October or the beginning of November. Bulbous-rooted flowers in boxes or glasses should be removed in frosty weather, before eight, from the windows; nor should they be set on chimney-pieces until they are in flower, for shade draws all flowers up very weak. Boxes made 5 inches deep, 3 wide, and 16 long, filled with light sandy earth, without any dung, are better than glasses, and will not require so much trouble. Stir up the earth often with a table fork. Carnations must be sheltered from violent rains and frost by mats. Plant at the end of the month, or sooner if the weather be mild, all sorts of bulbous roots, crocuses, as jonquils, narcissuses, polyanthus-narcissuses, snowdrops, tulips, &c. Plant flowering shrubs which are hardy, and flower early, as almonds, double-flowering cherries, honeysuckles, lilacs, mezerions, roses, &c. Shrubs and trees of all sorts may be planted at the end of this month. Sow auricula and polyanthus seeds in pots or boxes. Trenches should be cut to carry off the water, if it stands any where, after heavy rains.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Apple trees should be pruned as soon as the violent frosts are over. Espaliers ought always to be repaired before the buds of the trees begin to open. The fruit room should be often examined, to pick out all fruit which begins to decay; and nail mats before the windows to keep out the frost. Ground for planting should be prepared by digging the holes ready; and if wet, a cart-load of good loam should be brought for each standard tree, and formed into a little hill before the tree be planted. Scrape off the moss from all fruit trees. Orchards in general are much neglected, by not cutting out the dead wood and branches that cross each other. Pear trees require pruning, both standards, espaliers, and against walls, as soon as the weather becomes mild. Prune currants, gooseberries, and raspberries. Strawberries in pots may be placed on hotbeds for forcing. Vines should not be pruned till towards the end of the month.

**GREENHOUSE.** Air may be given to the plants, if the weather be mild. Fire must be made if it freezes, and particularly when it begins to thaw, or if it is foggy weather, to dry the house; for dampness is as prejudicial as cold; and if there be no fire, light a few candles in frosty weather. To know for a certainty when it begins to freeze, set a pan of water near the windows. Leaves, which are any way decayed, should be constantly bed off, particularly from the geraniums. Succulent plants, such as aloes, ficoides, &c. should have any water this month. Water for all other plants should be the softest that can be had; and the chillness should

be taken off by letting it stand in the shade 12 days before it is used; and this month should be given very sparingly. Windows in the greenhouse should be kept very close, by paper or mats of paper where the wind blows in, for tributes to the frost; and if the windows are covered with mats, take them down in time to admit the light; for if plants stand in the dark, their leaves will soon fall. The outward door should be opened as possible; but, to have it proper, there should be another door leading through a shed.

#### FEBRUARY.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Asparagus should have the mats taken off the glasses, except in the coldest snows; for without light it will not grow, and the 5th and last crop should be sown in a hotbed. Beans of the early sorts may now be planted for the 3d crop, and at the end of the month the first crop of the large sorts, for, long-podded, &c. Sow Beets, in boxes or ground be digged very deep. Broccoli and broccoli will want earthing up, and the dead leaves be first picked off. Sow for the 2d crop of sugarloaf, and the first crop of the large sorts, and plant out those sown in August. Sow at the end of the month for the general crop in a deep sandy soil. Cauliflowers under glass should be examined, all the dead leaves picked off, and the earth stirred up. In mild weather plant out some out, leaving only the strongest under each glass. Sow the 2d crop of the gentle hotbed. Sow cellery, for the first crop in a gentle hotbed, and draw earth up to the level of what remains in the ground, in dry weather sow coleworts, for the first crop: cress and radish every week on hotbeds. Cucumber beds should be constantly attended to, to keep them up to the proper heat, and another made for the plants sown the last month: when they have 3 or 4 rows plant them out, 3 or 4 to each light, and sow more seed. Tye up endive for blanching, and plant out some for seed. Escalots, and shallots, should not be deferred till the roots will be very small. Ground for the cant should be digged and thrown up in time to prepare it ready for sowing. Hotbeds should now be planted. Hotbeds for cucumbers, and small sallading, prepare plenty of dung. Sow leeks, and mark them for seed. Plant out lettuces from under glass, if the weather be mild, and sow the 2d crop of the gentle hotbed, and sow plenty of air to the forced ones. Sow at the beginning of the month for the first crop, when about 3 days old, plant each in a pot, and plant mint in pots on a hotbed. Delight in room beds from wet. Sow Onions at the end of the month or beginning of the next for the first crop: weed those sown in autumn, and sow some for seed. Sow parsley for edgings curled, very thin on a bed, to grow for lining of dishes, and the large root for parsneps on ground digged very deep. The ground should have the earth drawn off them, as they advance, in dry weather require sticking. Sow marrowfats and marrowleaves, and the 3d crop of hotfurs. P

ring, for the last crop. Beans for a 3d indiffer, for the first: Cauliflowers from glasses: Endives for blanching and feed. garlic, and rocambole: Horse-radish, from under glasses: Leeks, onions, and r feed: Potatoes on hotbeds, for the Uncover radishes in mild weather, and sow on again at night. Sow beets, cab- rots, cauliflowers, coleworts, fennel, uces, mustard, onions, parsley, par- s, radishes, spinach. Sow on hotbeds, s, celery, cress, cucumbers, melons, adith, rape for sallads. Sow Spinach, pp, and hoe the winter crop if it be too ater should be carried away, if it stands rains, by cutting trenches.

GARDEN and SHRUBBERY. Anemones culuses should not be deferred planting id weather, or they will flower weak; ds should be prepared some time before rdy annual flowers, such as sweet peas, candy-tuft, alysson, corn-bottles, per- ced some few others, may be now sown, ill flower very early. Auriculas must d by mats from wet, the decayed leaves pulled off, and fresh earthed. Box for ay be planted in mild weather. Bul- of every kind unplanted should not be e first opportunity which offers of mild and let the beds be thrown up into rid- hand. Bulbous roots in boxes, pots, require a regular attention to water d the earth should be stirred up once a unations must be fresh potted, and from heavy rains by mats. Flowering d forest trees of all sorts, except ever- ay be planted at the end of the month. ks, if intended to be made next month, ve the ground prepared by levelling it. or sowing amaranths, balsams, and other uals, should be prepared, and the seed e end of the month. Hyacinths, which ground, should be covered with mats by hoops. Mignonette must be sown ed, or it will do in a pot placed in a n where the sunshine comes; but let the n very thin. Perennial-rooted flowers, d of the month, may be removed from eds, and the old roots transplanted. ones and ranunculuses: Box for edg- end of the month: Bulbous and tube- of all sorts: Flowering shrubs and or- trees: Forest trees of all sorts, except . Shrubbery should be digged over l smooth, to destroy the young weeds to shoot; but the trees should first be Strubs of all sorts should have the ken off, and, if small, be planted in beds nder until they are stronger; and any now be planted. Sow at the end of the dy annuals and mignonette.

GARDEN and ORCHARD. Apple and should be finished pruning the first her. Piant Cuttings of currants and es. Prepare Grafts of apples and pears. dies, against peaches, nectarines, and in the beginning of the month; they about two feet higher than the walls,

that they may be set sloping; and must be fasten- ed with stakes, and remain there till the fruit is set. Sow kernels of apples and pears, for stocks. Planting all sorts of fruit trees should be finished early in the month, and the roots covered with mulch. Pruning wail trees should be finished. Straw- berries may be planted at the end of the month, and the old beds dressed; those on hotbeds must be frequently watered. Vines, finish pruning be- fore they bleed. Wall-trees, as apricots, necta- rines, peaches, plums, pears, should be finish- ed pruning in the month, and those done in Octo- ber must be examined, and the dead ends cut off.

GREENHOUSE. Admit air, very freely in mild weather. Earth the top of the pots, but first take out the old an inch deep. Fire must be made in this foggy weather to dry the house. Leaves this month decay very fast; therefore they will require picking off almost every day, but especially from the geraniums. Myrtles, oranges, winter cherries, and some others, water frequently, but not too much at a time. Succulent plants, as aloes, scoides, &c. must not have any water given them in this month, for it will cause them to rot. Water the plants which require it frequently, but very sparing- ly; for too much moisture in the house will injure the plants. Windows may be opened for a few hours in the middle of the day, but should be shut again about two o'clock, or whenever it begins to be foggy.

M A R C H.

KITCHEN GARDEN. Alifanders sown in au- tumn, should be hoed to a foot asunder, and more seed sown. Aromatic shrubs and herbs on beds, weed and fresh earth, early in the month; and sow and plant more of all sorts. Dress artichokes, and take the suckers off for a fresh plantation. Asparagus seed must now be sown to raise roots for forcing, and for fresh beds; at the end of a- bout 12 years, destroy the old beds, but take up the roots and force them: By now and then making one new bed, a constant succession may be kept up in full vigour. Plant out that which was sown last year. Fork up the beds, and rake them smooth, but do not leave the alleys above six inches lower than the top of the bed. Water the beds in a morning, in dry weather, early in the month, with the drainings from a dunghill, to forward them. Make fresh plantations in moist weather. Plant beans, for the 4th early crop, and the 2d of Windfors. Cut off the tops of thoe in flower. Finish sowing beets. Sow boorcole of various sorts, for the first crop. Sow broccoli, of the early sort for the first crop. Cabbages, sow the 3d crop of sugarloaf, the 2d of red, and the first of favoys. Sow carrots now for the principal crop. Sow capsicums, for pickling, on a hot- bed. Cauliflowers must be planted out, leaving two only of the strongest to each glass: draw earth up to the stems, and prop up the glasses. Prick out thoe sown last month, and sow the 3d crop. Prick out the first crop of celery from the seedbed, and sow the 2d. Chardons must be sown, and cives planted. Prick out the first crop of colewort. Cress, mustard, radish, and rape, may now be sown in the open ground for sallading; and cover the seed for a few days with a mat, or place

place hand-glasses over it. Sow cress and mustard, very thin for seed. Cucumber beds must be kept to a good heat, by cutting off some around the sides, and adding fresh hot dung instead of it. Plant out the 2d crop on a fresh bed. About the 20th sow seeds of the turkey, and some for bell-glasses. Prepare hotbeds for planting cucumbers, and melons. Plant Jerusalem artichokes. Sow leeks. Sow kidney beans at the end of the month, on a warm border. Plant out lettuces, from under the glasses. Sow the third crop of coss or other sorts. Plant out melons, from the first hotbed. Sow cantaloupes for the 2d crop, and some on a tan-bed, and for bell-glasses. Mint-beds, weed and earth, and plant more. Mushroom beds, make for summer use. Nasturtiums for pickling, sow at the end of the month. Carefully weed onion beds before the weeds are high; and finish sowing the principal crop. Sow parsley, both curled and large-rooted. Finish sowing parsneps. Earth up peas in dry weather and stick. Sow the 2d crop of marrowfats. Plant artichokes, asparagus, beans, cives, cucumbers, Jerusalem artichokes, lettuces, melons, mushrooms, potatoes, and tarragon. Plant aromatic herbs and shrubs; as balm, camomile, lavender, mint, pennyroyal, rosemary, rue, sage, savory, thyme, &c. Pot and sweet-herbs should now be sown. Slip pot-marjoram, savory, and thyme. Weed potatoes, and plant the principal crop. Sow radishes, the 4th crop, and rampions. Sow alfanders, angelica, asparagus, basil, beets, borage, boorecole, broccoli, burnet, cabbages, capicums, carrots, cauliflowers, celery, celeriac, chardons, chervil, clary, corianders, cress, cucumbers, dill, fennel, hyssop, kidney beans, leeks, lettuces, marjoram, marygolds, melons, mustard, nasturtiums, onions, parsley, parsneps, peas, purslane, radishes, rampions, falfasy, savory, scorzonera, sea-kale, skirrets, sorrel, spinach, tarragon, thyme, tomatoes, turneps, water-creffes. Weed spinach, and sow the 2d crop. Plant tarragon, and sow tomatoes. Turneps, sow the first crop. Sow water-creffes, in a moist place, or where it may be constantly supplied with waste water from the pump. Destroy weeds, while small, which will save future trouble.

**FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** Anemones and ranunculuses, if any remain unplanted, must not be deferred longer than the first mild day. Anemones in flower should be covered with mats in windy or rainy weather. Annual flowers which are tender, (See Catalogue, SACR. VII.) if sown early in the month, will require a 2d hotbed to be transplanted into; and if not sown, should not be deferred any longer, to have them early and strong. Sow those also mentioned in § II. of the general Catalogue, on a moderate hotbed. Annual flowers of all the hardy sorts in the Catalogue may be sown about the middle of the month in small patches where they are to remain; hollow the earth out in the form of a basin, fifteen inches over, and an inch deep, and sow the seeds very thin all over it, and not a small patch in the middle, as is too frequently the custom. Auriculas should be removed into the stand, and if some flat *gyfter-stells* be laid on the earth, they will keep moist, and save trouble in watering them. Bor-

ders of the flower-garden will require over or weeded, to destroy weeds when they begin to shoot, and then raked, that they may be neat. Box for edgings, in mild weather, should be covered with mats, and the roots in beds should be covered in rainy or stormy weather, and the plants gently up with one's fingers to destroy those also in the house must be covered to. Carnations, if not potted, should be done the beginning of this month. Shrubs, and trees of all sorts, may be sown in mild weather; then cover the roots turned downwards, with moss, fern, or some such things, to keep the ground moist, which is better, and gives less trouble in watering. Plant flowering shrubs and forest trees, early in the month, and cover them. Grass walks must be swept and rolled, and walks will need turning and rolling, and weeded, and cleaned from moss with a broom. Hyacinths must be covered with canvass, to prevent their flowers from blowing, but not kept too close. Larkspurs or patches, must be thinned and not more than 8 or 10 inches. Mignonette, should be transplanted, and sown. Myrtles, winter cherries, and greenhouse plants, planted against walls, have the mats rolled up in fine weather, and dust washed off from their leaves, and again at night. Perennial and biennial flowers must be sown on beds, very thin, that they may be strong; those sown last year should be planted, and the old roots of the perennials and annuals from the seedbeds should be edgings: Evergreens of all sorts: Perennials, dividing their roots, and seedlings of forest trees: Shrubs and trees early in the month. Strawberries and thistle for edging. Strawberries should be pruned early in the month, the runners taken off, and planted a foot at least, and the rows two feet apart: the ground should be dug, and then raked over, that it may be neat and clean. Sow tender annuals in hotbeds: Annuals that are hardy in the ground: Biennials and perennials on beds, and trees of almost every sort. Strawberries for an edging to the shrubbery, at six feet apart; the flowers make a pleasing appearance, afterwards you will have very large fruit being in a single row. Plant straw against a south wall, which will produce flowers, and ripen the fruit. Constantly weeds by hoeing while small, with a mat made to cut both ways, by which you may always keep your shrubbery in a very little trouble.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Apples, pines, and peach trees, should be planted before them, to defend the blossoms; or else stick branches of yew, or amongst them, but hurdles are the best, which have mats nailed over them, and then taken away by degrees, by first taking them at the bottom, towards the end of the month. Graft trees, and cut down the buds. Place hurdles, before the wall trees.

ought to be finished pruning at the end of the month, if omitted till then; the late planted should be cut off. Pruning trees of all sorts should be begun at the beginning of the month. Straw should now be attended to; hoe them, pull the weeds, and stir up the earth; then spread some very rotten dung over them. Those on hotbeds want watering, and the dead leaves should be taken off, to let the sun come to the plantations may now be made. Vines should be layered; draw some strong bearing into the bottom of the pot, and set it into the ground; and then they may be planted the next season, and produce the next year; plant cuttings. Finish pruning, and mulch those lately planted.

**USE.** Give air freely in the middle of the month, except the wind be very cold. Earth the pots, but take the old earth out.

Place geraniums near the windows, air being drawn up weak. Myrtles, roses, and other hardy plants, will want watering, and, if the weather be mild, may be taken to make more room, but let them stand in place at first. Orange trees, if their leaves are yellowed, will want washing with a weak water. Those with ill shaped leaves should be cut down, and placed on a strong hotbed. Kidneys in pots, good strong seed, and set an inch asunder, they will grow about plants may now have a little of mulch at a time. Water the plants twice a day, and only when the sun is out the water should be set in the house to get it to take off the chillness, and so on. Windows may be opened for a little in the middle of all fine days.

#### APRIL.

**GRASSES.** April being the latest time for sowing principal crops of the kitchen garden directed to be performed last month, if omitted, or the weather would not be done early in this. Aromatic herbs of all the following sorts should be sown, as balm, camomile, penny royal,

spearmint, tansy, lavender, rosemary, southernwood, wormwood, &c. sowing and planting asparagus early in the month.

Let the beds be forked and raked, and watered twice a week with drainings.

Cut off every bud, however small; if not, they weaken the stems;

weeding in general only practiced by the best gardeners. Never suffer any weeds to grow, if they are an inch high, for they bring up very much. Beans in flower bear tops cut off; and draw the stalks up close to the wall by strings, and so on.

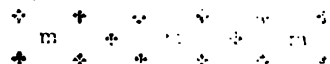
Plant the third crop of Watercress, which should have the first crop pricked the 2d sown. Cabbages of the early sort have their leaves tied up to prevent rotting. Prick out from the seedbed the 1st crop, the 2d of red, and the 3d of white. Prick out cauliflowers, from the seed-

bed, to prevent their growing weak, upon another hotbed. Weed carrots, thin the first crop, and sow the 2d to draw young. Search for caterpillars upon cabbages and apple-trees particularly. Cauliflowers should have the earth drawn up very high to raise the glasses, and a piece of brick put under each corner, and at the end of the month taken quite away. Break down the leaves when the flowers of any begin to appear; earth the 2d crop and prick out the third. Celery, prick out the 2d crop, and sow the third. Sow cress and mustard, every weak. Cucumber beds must be attended to, and plenty of air given them, when mild; and, if the heat declines, fresh dung must be added to the sides. Make a gentle hotbed within the ground for those that are to be under bell or hand glasses, and plant them on it at the end of the month. Sow more seed, that you may have plenty of plants. Endive planted out for seed should be earthed up, and the first crop sown. Sow snocchio, in drills a foot asunder, for the first crop. Hotbeds for sowing of melons for bell glasses must be prepared, and loam and rotten dung procured, to be ready. Sow kidney beans, the 2d crop, and the first of the scarlet flowering. Tie up lettuces, to assist their cabbaging; those in beds should be thinned to a foot distance; others planted out, and the 4th crop sown very thin in an airy place. Melon beds will require to be kept up to a good heat, and the 2d and 3d crop planted out. Finish making mushroom beds, early in the month, which will last till September. Onion beds must be attended to, to keep clear from weeds as soon as any appear, and sow the second crop to draw young. Thin Parsley for garnishing dishes, and leave those plants which have the best curled leaves. Sow the lace-rooted. Earth up peas frequently, and stick them as soon as any tendrils appear. Sow the 3d crop of marrowfat. Plant beans, and mushrooms. Plant cucumbers and melons on fresh hotbeds. Potatoes should now be finished planting. Pot and sweet herbs may still be sown and planted; and weed and earth the beds. Sow purslane, on a warm border in rich earth. Sow radishes, for a 3th crop in a cool place. Ship and plant out last year's rosemary, rue, sage, savory, and thyme. Search often for insects and flies. Sow aromatic herbs and shrubs; mint, lavender, peas, purslane, and dracifera. Sow garden radish, in a cool place. Turnips, hoe the first crop and sow cucumbers and melons. Sow spinach, the 2d crop, the 2d. Weed all the beds of seedlings, when the weeds are small, and any other crop sown.

**FLOWER-GARDEN AND BARKENETRY.** Anemones in stormy weather will still require covering with mats. Annual flowers on hotbeds will require thinning, and those of the strongest must be planted two together, &c. Hardy annuals, if not sown early, should be sown as directed in March, should be decanted into pots, and sown very thin. Annuals in bloom must be constantly attended to, and defended from violent winds, but not have plenty of air in mild weather; the seedbeds will want frequent and gentle waterings. Fruit of plants may be sown or shipped, but the strongest plants will be raised from seed. Biennial and perennial flowers, finish sowing early in the month. Needs of the borders of the nursery and kitchen-garden.

turn, cut off every flower-bud which now appears, from 2 or 3 trees, and water them well for about ten days afterwards. Seeds of every sort of flowers which are ripe should be gathered. Shrubberies should be often hoed with a Dutch hoe, to destroy the young weeds; and shrubs and flowers in pots should be set in pans, and often watered. Sow annuals to flower late in autumn; as alyssons, candy tufts, carnations, yellow sun-tories, larkspurs, lavateras, yellow lupins, mignonne, poppies, dwarf stocks, pansies, and sweet-scented peas. Still plant tuberoses, to flower late in autumn. Tulips, if out of bloom, should have their seed-vessels broken off, and the early ones taken up. Water annuals, seedlings newly planted, and shrubs and trees, very often in dry weather. Weeds should particularly be prevented from going to seed: the most expeditious method is to cut them up with a Dutch hoe, made to cut both ways; and if neatly done, the borders will not require raking afterwards, if cut while very small.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Apricots should be thinned for the 2d time, and all fore-night shoots pulled off. Blighted trees should have hog's dung spread over the border; then fork up the ground and water it well. Pull off curled leaves, water the trees all over, and strew tobacco dust on the leaves; or fumigate them with tobacco smoke, which will greatly help to destroy the insects. Examine budded trees often, and pull off improper shoots. Caterpillars must be searched for upon apple trees, and destroyed. Disbud all the wall trees, by pulling off buds which come out in improper places. Espalier trees should be examined to disbud them and train in the shoots. Grafted trees should have the clay taken off, if properly united. Nectarines and peaches will require thinning for the first time, and the trees to be disbudded. Forced strawberries should have the dead leaves pulled off, and be frequently watered. Those which are beginning to flower, or have lately been planted, must be often watered in dry weather. It is not generally known that hantboys and chilli strawberries do not, like all the other species, produce hermaphrodite flowers, but male and female flowers on separate plants; and persons ignorant of this fact, allege their hantboys are blind; whereas those flowers which turn black in the middle are male plants, and never will produce fruit. To make a plantation properly, let a person skilled in botany examine them when in flower; he will then easily distinguish the male from the female, and give a quarter of an inch of soil. Most of the annuals are published with the male ones marked with a cross; but there can be no mistake in distinguishing the sexes. The female is indeed the most fertile, but neither will flower without the assistance of the male; and the male will not bear fruit unless propagated by the male. The male plants in a new plantation, do not in the first year.



The male plants may be distinguished by a cross above the flower, if covered with a flower pot for a few days after; 3 male will do for every 24 female. None

will require a constant attendance to pull shoots, especially where two come together to nail the branches. Water trees late in autumn or any infected with insects.

**GREENHOUSE.** Air must be given free on cold nights. American aloes must be watered, and placed near the window out geraniums towards the end of the month except those with variegated leaves-myrtles which are small, out of the month plant them in a bed of light rich earth. Trees must be fresh potted, if not done in autumn and as soon as the leaves of mulberry the size of a half crown, it shows that the tree is settled, and they may safely be potted. Water constantly the young trees down or any on the hotbeds. Seedling plants attended to, and shaded with mats, when it is hot in the middle of the day, and be watered. Succulent plants should be earthed up, but not shifted; and may still remain towards the windows, and be sparingly watered. Water plants frequently a little at a time, rather than too much. Windows may be kept open all day, and at the end of the month, all night, to acclimate plants by degrees to the open air.

JUNE.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Aromatic herbs and shrubs, for drying and distilling, gather; they are in the greatest perfection; flowers begin to open. Beans will stand earthing, and the tops of those which are sown should be cut off. Beets should be set at their proper distance of 12 or 14 inches. Plant the first crop of kale, and sow the 2d crop; plant the first, pick out the 2d, or 4th crop. Cabbages, plant the 2d crop, the 4th and sow the 5th. Red cabbages, 2d crop, and sow the 3d. Savoys, plant the 2d, and sow the 3d. Turneps, &c. for cattle, as described in the 1st month, sow for the 2d crop. Carrots, finish hoeing, and leave them 6 or 8 inches distant at least. Capsicums, finish out, and hoe and water them often; for in late seasons they will not be brought very forward early. Search for caterpillars on cabbages and apple trees. Carrots, plant the 3d crop, and pick out the 2d; the 3d crop of cabbages, pick out, and sow the 4th. Colcled and long cabbages, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Cucumbers, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Lettuce, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Onions, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Peas, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Potatoes, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Radishes, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Spinach, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Swiss chard, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Turneps, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Watercress, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Parsnips, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Carrots, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Cabbages, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Lettuce, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Onions, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Peas, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Potatoes, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Radishes, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Spinach, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Swiss chard, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Turneps, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Watercress, finish out, and hoe and water them often. Parsnips, finish out, and hoe and water them often.

ishes distant, to be ready for transplanting. Sow the 6th crop of lettuces in a row, and thin those for seed to a foot distance, and melons in frames with mats in the day, and lay pieces of broken earth or dishes under the fruit. Plant out the oiled papers. Examine often the beds, that they do not want water. Onions to 6 or 8 inches distant. Thin beds for garnish, and the large rooted to beds. Parsneps must be thinned to 10 rows. Sow the last marrowfat pease in a row. Plant lettuces and melons. Weed and sweet herbs often, and gather for use before they begin to flower; then tie in small bunches, and hang them across shady room to dry. Prick out broccoli, cauliflower, and celery. Sow turneps par-radishes. Sow radishes, the 7th crop, and bored, and black Spanish, in a cool place. Coleseed may now be sown. Seeds of all to be gathered as they ripen, and defended. Sow spinach, the 5th crop, thin in a cool place. Sow the following crops, and leave them at proper distances, as, beets, at 10 or 12 inches at roots, at 2 or 10 inches. Leeks may be left in beds at 8 or 10 inches. Parsneps, at 6 inches. Turneps at 6 or 8 inches. Sow rows of turneps, and hoe the others. Water the seedlings and cuttings frequently. The young crops is of the utmost consequence this month, especially if it be a rainy season; not on any account be omitted; nor weeds run to seed.

**FRUIT GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** Take notice before their leaves are quite withered they will be more readily found. Annuals in the hotbeds will require fresh potting, but will want frequent watering. Annuals in the borders should have the earth stirred a hoe, and be often watered, and more so in autumn, as described under last month. Biennials and perennials, transplant from the hotbeds and shrubbery frequently. Box may be cut always do it in moist weather. Budded flowers of every sort, whose leaves are withered, should be taken up before they are entirely disappear, and put into shallow boxes, as directed for hyacinths, as they are. Carnations require to be examined often, and tied up to the sticks. Search for insects. Evergreens may be clipped in moist weather.

Grass and gravel walks will often require to be mowed, but it should be done after rain, and the roots may be drawn out without injury; they will often want mowing and rolling. Hyacinths, as soon as dried, should be taken up of the ground, then rubbed with a woolen cloth to clear them entirely from earth, and put in wooden drawers; but they should be put into flower-pots, earthen pans, or brick floors, for they will contract a mildewiness, which will make them rot.

Insects of all sorts should be fought for and destroyed. Kidney beans will want earthing, sticking, and the runners to be trained to the sticks. Mignonette, from the seedbeds, should be transplanted into small pots, and only 3 put into each; it will then be ready to put into larger pots, or upon the borders. Myrtles, and other greenhouse plants against walls, should be often watered, all fore-right shoots pulled off while small, and the others nailed to the walls with long narrow shreds of fine cloth. Plant out perennials and biennials from the seedbeds in showery weather; and, if the sun should be very hot soon after, cover each plant with a flower-pot, until they have taken root. Pinks may now be increased by making pipings or cuttings, but a glass must be placed over them. Plant out all annuals from the seedbeds and hotbeds: biennials and perennials from the seedbeds: mignonette both in pots and on borders: pipings of carnations and pinks. Attend to ranunculuses, and take them up as soon as the leaves are quite withered. Rose trees may now be layered and budded, and some very rotten dung spread on the ground, and dugged in, and often watered; the flies and grubs must also be attended to. Seedlings of trees, shrubs, or flowers, should be covered with mats in the daytime, and often watered; but, if in pots, remove them into the shade. Seeds of all sorts which are ripening should be attended to, and gathered before they drop out of the pods. By a little attention to them, in most seasons, enough may be got for the next year, and the expence of buying saved. Shrubberies ought frequently to be looked over; all straggling branches should be cut off or tied up; and the grounds stirred with a Dutch hoe. Shrubs in pots may be set in pins, and watered often. Sow annuals, as described under last month, to flower in autumn, in any vacancies that may be on the borders of the shrubbery or flower garden. Tulips should be taken up before their leaves are quite decayed, that they may be found more readily; and if any of the offsets be very small, plant them again directly, and lay the roots to dry in shallow boxes. Tulips produce new bulbs every year, and the old ones decay entirely; therefore they should never be taken up until the new bulbs are quite formed. Water annuals in pots constantly; seedbeds of all sorts; and shrubs and trees lately planted. Weeds, in this month, it is of the utmost consequence to destroy before they flower. When cut down they should be raked up and carried away, for many sorts will otherwise ripen their seeds lying on the ground.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Apple trees in espaliers must be often examined; all fore-right shoots should be taken off while small, and the others regularly trained to their proper distances. Search for caterpillars. If the standard apple trees be infested with caterpillars, light some damp straw, and with a fork direct the smoke through the tree, and they will soon be suffocated, and instantly drop down. Apricots must be thinned for the 3d and last time, and the shoots frequently nailed up. Blighted trees must be constantly attended to, as directed last month. Bud apricots, cherries, and peach trees. Search for caterpillars upon

upon apple trees. Cherry trees against walls should be covered with nets, to defend the fruit from birds. Look over the espalier trees often, and train the shoots in regular order. Nail up fig trees with very strong shreds. Nail up every week shoots of wall trees. Nectarines and peaches will require thinning the 2d time, nailing up the shoots and pinching off the ends where vacancies want filling up. Nail up pears and plums as they shoot, and pull off all fore-right shoots. Keep stocks, intended to be budded, free from weeds. Strawberries in flower will need frequent watering in dry weather. Lay tiles or wheat straw under the fruit of the scarlets, and pull off all decayed leaves; this will keep the fruit clean, and cause it to ripen sooner by several days. Cut off all runners as fast as they shoot. To make some fresh beds, reserve the first runners, as they are the strongest. Attend to the flowering of the hautboys, as directed under last month. Vines require constant attendance, in rubbing off improper buds, and nailing up the shoots. Water those trees frequently which are blighted: all newly planted trees in dry weather; and strawberries in flower.

**GREENHOUSE.** Air may now be given very freely in the greenhouse, and the windows may be kept open all night. Fresh earth alone, and place near the windows, but take out the Americans. Plant cuttings of various sorts, under bell or hand glasses, at the end of the month. Earth all the plants every month at top, if not suited. It makes them look neater, and grow better. Geranium seedlings sown in March will now require pricking out, and cuttings planted under glasses. March jessamines, lemons, and oranges. Layer jessamines, oleanders, &c. Plant myrtle cuttings at the end of the month under glass, but never take them off till they have grown two inches. Orange trees, if not taken out at the end of last month, will require it at the beginning of this. Clean well the leaves which are matted, or have insects on them, with a sponge and warm water. Inarching may now be performed. Those on hot-beds, and the young seedlings, must be attended to, and the stems of the old trees should be frequently washed. Often water seedling plants of all sorts; shade them in the middle of the day, and prick out the strongest to make room for others. Succulent plants may now be shifted, the offsets taken off, placed near the windows, and be often watered. Watering some of the plants will be necessary almost every day.

### JULY.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Aromatic herbs, flowers, and shrubs, gathered last month, if hung on lines will soon be dried. It is then better to strip off the leaves and flowers from the stalks, and put them into paper bags, which will preserve their flavour better, and keep them free from dust. Continuing to gather them before their flowers are too much opened. Asparagus if wished for in autumn, must be attended to at the beginning of this month; the stalks must be cut down, and, if it be dry weather, the beds must be very well watered with the draining from a dunghill. Next day fork them up lightly, and take them smooth; if the weather continues dry, water them every night

for a week, and in about 8 or 10 days they will be fit to cut. If this be done every year, leave or 3 beds uncultivated at spring, and make some more to allow for this double crop. Beans, plant the 5th crop of mazagan, and the 4th of Windsor, late crops. Finish thinning of beets to their proper distance. Plant the 2d crop of kale, prick out the 3d, and the first of Arjou. Plant out the 3d crop of broccoli, and prick out the 4th. Prick out the 4th crop of cabbages, and prick out the 3d crop of red cabbages. Plant the 2d crop of Savoys, and prick out the 3d. Cabbage turneps, &c. for cattle, prick out the 3d crop. Sow carrots to draw young, the 3d crop. Earth up and often water capsicums. Plant the 4th crop of cauliflowers. Plant the 2d of cress, and prick out the 5th. Finish sowing coleworts, and rape. Prick out the 2d crop of coleworts. Stick cucumbers on the open ground with branches of elm or other sticks. Lay tiles under endive, or tie up the first crop; plant the 2d, the 3d, and sow the 4th very thin. Take up the first crop of eschalots and garlic for present use. Sow finocchia the 4th crop. Sow kidney beans, on a south wall, the 5th and last crop. Still plant lavender and rosemary cuttings. Plant out leeks in double rows, at six inches distance, and a foot between the rows. Sow the 7th crop of lettuces in a cool place; and hoe those intended for feed. Melons must be frequently attended to. Water melons in dry weather. Pull onions, when the leaves begin to wither, out of the ground. Prick out the first crop of Welsh onions, and the last crop to draw young. Sow the 3d crop of parsley on a south wall. Peas sown last month will now require sowing. Sow the 4th crop of hotspurs. Prick out the first crop of red cabbages, rosemary, and Savoys. Gather the herbs and sweet herbs for drying; and, as fast as they are dried, strip off the leaves, and put them into paper bags. Prick out broccoli, cabbages, coleworts, and boarcole. Sow radishes, the 1st crop; also turnep-rooted, and black Spanish; and hoe the first. Seeds of all sorts must be attended to, and gathered as they ripen. Sow rape and turnep-radishes. Sow spinach the 6th crop, in a cool place, very thin. Sow turneps, the 5th and principal crop for winter use, and hoe the other crops. Water the first of seedlings, and all young crops. Weeds must be constantly attended to, and raked off the ground, or else many sorts will ripen as they are on the ground.

**FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** Annuals in pots require a constant attention, lest they should want water; and those on the borders require sowing and tying. Seeds nearly ripe must be watched and gathered, else many sorts will be lost. Annuals, to flower late in autumn, may still be sown. Auriculas and polyanthes from the seed bed should be transplanted upon a shady border, and, if possible, in rainy weather. Finish cutting of box and evergreen shrubs. Bud the curious sorts of jessamines, roses, &c. Bulbous roots must still be attended to, to take up dry and clean, and then put in shallow wooden boxes. Saffron crocus, and many other sorts, which flower in autumn, may now be planted. Carnations must be constantly watered, earwigs sarked for, and



pipings made. Evergreens, if requi-  
now be transplanted, but it should be  
in weather; and let the clipping be fi-  
brats and gravel walks must be frequent-  
mowed, and rolled. Hyacinths should  
need to see that there is no mould-  
ing them; and if any be decayed, they  
them away. Kidney beans must be exa-  
they are trained to the sticks, and watered  
ather. Lilies of many sorts, if they have  
ering, may be taken up; but the roots  
of moisture, that the small offsets must  
d again directly. Mignonette should  
wn to flower in winter, and more put

Myrtles, and other greenhouse plants  
alls, will require frequent nailing and

Finish planting perennials and bienni-  
seed beds. Pinks, finish making pipe  
ettings. Plant auricula and polyanthus  
; biennial and perennial seedlings: cut-  
carnet lychnis and pinks: evergreens, if  
er be rainy; mignonette into pots: off-  
sets: offsets of autumnal flowering bulbs:  
of carnations and pinks: saffron-crocus.  
sets must be taken up, and laid in the  
dry; then well cleaned from earth, and  
show boxes, or put into paper boxes. Fi-  
ing and budding of rose trees. Seedling  
ons, and flowers, must be properly wa-  
watered. Seeds now begin to ripen very  
efore must be constantly attended to,  
red. Shrubberies will require frequent  
in pruning or hoeing. Sow the last crop  
annuals and mignonette. Tulips should  
taking up, and as soon as dry, the earth  
be rubbed off, and then laid in shallow  
Water annuals in pots often, seedbeds,  
trees, and shrubs planted this spring,  
if it be rainy this month, grow very fast;  
the ground should be frequently hoed,  
seeds suffered to run to seed.

**GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Destroy ants,  
wasps, as soon as they appear, by hang-  
es half filled with sugar, or honey and  
Often look over apricot trees; pull off  
ght shoots, and nail those which are to

Attend to blighted trees, and water the  
often. Budding of apricots, cherries, and  
finish. Currants intended to be prefer-  
autumn, should now be covered with  
often examine espalier trees, and train in  
s. Fig trees require nailing up as they  
ith strong nails and long shreds. Fruit  
gathered in the morning, as soon as the  
ried the dew from it, and before it is  
nd then laid in a cool room. The fruit  
ould now be prepared; it should be situ-  
be south, the shelves neat and clean, the  
ered with ties, or else white washed or  
white. Destroy insects of all sorts. Nail  
week the shoots of wall trees. Thin necla-  
peaches for the 3d and last time, and nail  
shoots. Water strawberries in flower  
y in dry weather, and pull off decayed  
Tie up the fruit of the hantboys and o-  
e forts to sticks. Cut off all runners af-  
rst, and these should be planted out as  
ome rain falls. Vines must be very often

attended to, to nail up the shoots, and pull off all  
in proper buds. Wall trees require constant at-  
tention, to nail up and water in very dry weather.  
Water the blighted and new planted trees: straw-  
berries in flower, or runners lately planted.

**GREENHOUSE.** African aloes, and other suc-  
culent green-house plants, may now be set out in  
the open air. Cuttings of asters, geraniums,  
grewias, myrtles, &c. should now be planted un-  
der bell or hand glasses, which should not be taken  
off until they have grown an inch. Earth the  
tops of all the pots, first taking a little out. Plant  
geranium cuttings, and prick out the seedlings be-  
fore they are too thick. Those with variegated  
leaves do best in alcoves or under a little shelter.  
Paint and white-wash the greenhouse. Inarching  
and layering various sorts may still be performed.  
Plant myrtle cuttings under glasses, and water  
frequently near the glass, without taking them off.  
The small ones may be planted in beds. Orange  
trees must be examined: if there be insects under  
the leaves, wash them off. Shade and water those  
on hotbeds often. Plant stocks when four inches  
high, in separate pots. Pans should be placed un-  
der all the pots, as it is better for the plants, and  
saves much trouble in watering. Shade, water,  
and prick out seedling plants. Succulent plants,  
as a oes, cereufes, ficoides, and Indian figs, torch-  
thistles, &c. may now be set abroad. Watering  
the plants must be attended to every day.

#### AUGUST.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Sow alfanders, angelica,  
and chervil. Asparagus cut down last month will  
require constant watering. Beans planted last  
month will also want watering. Broccoli, broc-  
coli, cabbages, cauliflowers, and colewort, lately  
planted, will require hoeing around them, and  
earth must be drawn up to their stems. Plant out  
the 3d crop of broccoli. Cabbages, for the first  
crop at spring, should be sown about the 10th or  
12th day of the month. Prick out the 2d crop of  
cabbage turneps. Weed carrots sown last month  
as soon as they appear. Sow cauliflowers, for the  
first spring crop, about the 20th in rich earth,  
but shade them in the middle of the day by mats.  
Earth the first crop of celery for blanching, and  
plant out the third. Plant out some of the 2d  
crop of coleworts. Sow corn salad on beds. Ca-  
cumbers for pickling, either large or small, to  
have them fine, should now be gathered; and  
they will be free from spots, and save much trou-  
ble in greening. Train them regularly into the  
sticks. Often tie up endive for blanching; plant  
out the 3d crop, and thin the 4th. Take up et-  
chalots, garlic, and romamboe, if the stalks be  
quite withered: clean them from earth, and keep  
them in a dry place. Kidney beans, sown for  
the last crop, must be watered in dry weather.  
Finish planting out leeks. Lettuces, for standing  
through the winter, and for forcing, must now be  
sown very thin at 3 different times in the month:  
and plant out these last sown, on a south border.  
Melons, in rainy weather, must be defended from  
wet by putting hand glasses over them; and sticks  
placed for the picking melons to run up. Pre-  
pare mushroom beds, by having dung and spawu  
ready for the next month. Onions must be fre-  
quently

quently turned, that they may be well dried. Sow the 2d crop of Welsh onions. Gather pepper-mint for distilling, as soon as it begins to flower. Sow some hotspur peas, on a fourth border for the 5th and last crop. Plant celery, endive, leeks, and lettuces. Prick out Anjou, Brussels boorecole, cabbage-turneps, and turnep-rooted cabbages. Sow radishes, the 9th and last crop. Seeds, nearly ripe must be guarded from birds, particularly radish seeds. Sow cress, fennel, mustard, and furel. Sow the 2d crop of prickly broadcast spinach, and then, at spring, hoe it into beds 4 feet wide, with paths of 18 inches between the beds. Hoe, and sow the 6th crop of turneps. Water seedling beds in the morning. Weeds grow very fast in moist weather, and therefore must be hoed frequently, raked together and carried away.

**FLOWER GARDEN and STRAWBERRY.** Annuals in pots will want frequent watering, those on borders sticking and tying, and the seeds gathering of those nearly ripe. Anemone and auricula seeds are sown this month by many, but they do better in Jan. or Feb. Slip and fresh-pot the auriculas. Balsams, in pots, intended to raise seed from, must be removed into shelter. Plant bulbous roots, that flower in autumn, early in the month. Bulbous roots of all sorts should have their offsets planted at the end of the month. Take off carnations layers, and plant out the pipings from under the glasses. Finish clipping of evergreen trees and shrubs. Grass walks and lawns require frequent mowing. Gravel walks must be weeded and rolled. Take up lilies, if their leaves be decayed; but the offsets must be planted again directly. Plant mignonette in pots to flower in winter, and place them under a south wall. Myrtles and greenhouse plants against walls must be pruned and nailed, and constantly watered. Plant out the pipings of pinks if they have struck roots. Plant Guernsey lilies in pots. Attend to seeds of all sorts of flowers and shrubs, and gather them as they ripen. Remove seedlings in pots, to places where they will have the morning sun. Shrubberies will want frequent hoeing to keep down the weeds. Strawberry runners will require to be constantly taken off as they shoot out, to keep the borders and walks neat. Water plants in the morning, at the end of the month. Weeds must be frequently destroyed to prevent their running to seed.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Destroy ants, flies, and wasps, by supplying fresh bottles of sugar, or honey and water. Apple trees on espaliers will require frequent examining. Budding of all trees, finish, and pull off buds and shoots from the stocks. Currants intended to be preserved, finish covering with mats. Examine espalier trees, constantly to train in the shoots. Nail up fig trees, with strong nails. Gather fruit early in the morning, and lay it in a cool room. Finish the fruit room, by white washing or painting, and putting the shelves in order. Destroy insects of all sorts. Nail up every week the fruit trees. Nail up nectarines and peaches frequently. Attend to pear and plum trees, both on walls and against espaliers, constantly. Transplant strawberry runners if rooted, in rainy weather, and *cut off all the others* as they shoot. Vines must

be constantly nailed up, as they shoot and the bunches of grapes begin to be all weak shoots must be constantly nailed up. Water strawberry runners lately planted on blighted fruit trees.

**GREENHOUSE.** Take off the offsets both African and American, and plant in separate pots. Often water the cuttings of raniums, &c. Earth the tops of a Water geraniums and myrtles, and pour on the water gently. Oranges, the middle of the month. Prune an quire it, as this is the season of the Water the young stocks and those Finish the painting and white-washing of house. Finish pricking out seedling water and shade them. Shift the p require it into large pots, and earth Succulent plants should be shifted, an of the month be rainy, take them in freely, if the weather be dry, but morning.

## SEPTEMBER.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Aromatic herb should have their decayed stalks cut strength them; and transplant them. ed in July must be earthed up, and the ed off as soon as they begin to flower. the third crop of kale and the first of the other crops and earth them up. part of the 4th crop of broccoli, and other crops. Plant out the 5th crop prick out the first crop, on a south earth up any that want it. Plant out of favoys and red cabbages; and the cabbage-turneps. Hoe carrots sown i leave them at six inches distance. Caulif last month must be pricked out, water ed until they are rooted. Earth up th and break down the leaves if they beg Plant out the 4th crop of celery, and first and 2d to blanch. Chardons will blanching. Plant out more of the coleworts, a few at a time, to thin the cress and mustard, every week, and a the month under glasses. Cucumbers should be finished gathering; which the advantage of sticking them, and pick Plant out a little of the 4th crop of er it, and give the rest more room. to blanch. Echalots, garlic, and should have the offsets and small ro Lettuces must be thinned early in the sown thick, and pricked out on a sou about 4 or 5 inches asunder. Melons will now be fit to gather. Make mus at the beginning of the month. Gather for pickling. Finish sowing onions, i month, the 2d crop of Welsh. Wee last month before the weeds are l water-cresses. Prick out cabbages, c lettuces. Gather seeds constantly as Sow cress, mustard, turneps, and w Finish sowing spinach for spring use, s sown last month. Plant tarragon root: thin turneps, turnep-radishes, and bl radishes. Water in dry weather any

**W.** Weeds must be particularly attended to the onions, carrots, and lettuces, are small.

**GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** Plant single flowered, at the end of the flower early. Annuals in pots must be watered to ripen the seeds. Remove that they may have the morning sun, slipping them. Balsams, cockscombs, or other curious annuals in pots, which to raise seeds from, must be placed in an alcove, greenhouse, or room to the south, and then the seeds will ripen.

Plant box for edgings, at the beginning of the month, or as soon as any rain falls. Plants of all sorts, early in the month; sets and lilies, and crown-imperials first. Greens, at the end of the month, if it be moist. Grass walks may now be made. Weed and roll paths often. Plant hyacinths, jonquils, muscades, polyanthus narcissuses, &c. at the month. Plant laurel cuttings, in

Layer laurustinutes and other shrubs, which flower late, as soon as their decayed, but plant the offsets again and all other sorts of lilies. Place Mignonette pots, under shelter. Myrtles and plants against walls must be constantly watered in dry weather. Plant out perennial feeders divide the old roots. Plant box for evergreens; crown-imperials and lilies in the month; cuttings of laurel, honey-suckles, shrubs and trees of all sorts, and after there has been some rain. Straw-thrift for edgings. Gather seeds, in the end of the day. Weed and earth seedling beds, hoe, and rake, shrubberies. Sow wall, as cornbottles, larkspurs, pansies, poppies, sweet peas, &c. to flower in spring. Constantly take off strawberry and replace any of the edgings which are up entirely the old plants; then take up the earth, and bring in fresh loam. Plants, and all sorts of bulbous roots, the month. Lay down turf for grass walks.

Hoe and rake weeds off the ground; either the seeds will ripen, and in wet weather roots will strike again.

**GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Destroy ants, and insects of all sorts constantly. Sow seeds on beds. Plant currant and gooseberries and trees. Nail up fig-trees fresh strong shreds. Attend to the fruit and pick out the rotten pears, or any which begin to decay. Put grapes for grape, gauze, or paper. Plant currants, raspberries, strawberries. Strawberries planted early in the month, and then they will be rooted before the frost begins. Dredges and plant some strong roots in pots to plant some alpine in pots, and put them in the shade, in cold wet weather, of foot, is proper to be spread on the borders. Vines will require frequent nailing;

**PART I.**

take off all the weak shoots, that the grapes may not be too much shaded.

**GREENHOUSE.** Remove aloe into the greenhouse in the beginning of the month, but leave out the American ones till the end. Plant cuttings and seedlings, in separate pots, and earth the tops of all the pots. Set in geraniums with variegated leaves, early in the month, and leave off watering the leaves. Take myrtles out of the ground and pot them. Fresh earth orange trees, thin the fruit, or most of it will fall off, and take them into the house at the end of the month. Take in succulent plants of all sorts, early in the month, and give them very little water. Take in aloe, variegated geraniums, and succulent plants, at the beginning of the month; orange trees and tender plants at the end; but myrtles and hardy plants may remain out till the beginning of the next month, unless there is an appearance of frosty nights. Water in the morning, and keep the windows open all night; leave off watering the geraniums over the leaves.

**OCTOBER.**

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** As October is the only time to crop a kitchen garden before winter, omit not any thing ordered now, till next month, and if it can be done at the beginning, instead of the end of the month, it will be much better, lest the rains should come on. Weed aromatic herbs and shrubs in beds, and spread some earth over them. Cut down asparagus stalks, hoe the weeds, and spread earth from the paths on them, but first a little rotten dung. Prepare hotbeds, for forcing, and plant three-year old plants for the first crop. Beans, the early mazagan, must be planted on a south border, for the first crop. Plant out anjou boorcole, the second crop, early in the month, and hoe the ground around the others. Plant out broccoli, the rest of the 4th crop. Plant out half the cabbages, sown in August, of the early sorts, in a warm situation. Plant cabbage-turneps, early in the month, and earth up the others. Finish hoeing carrots, sown in July. Attend to cabbages, beginning to flower, by breaking down the leaves. Those intended for glasses will want planting out; let there be six to each glass, and the rest in a frame, or under a south wall. Plant out celery, the 5th and last crop, and earth up the 2d to blanch. Finish planting coleworts. Sow cress, mustard, and radish, under glasses, and on a hotbed at the end of the month. Tie up endive, to blanch, or lay tiles on it, and plant more Plant eschalots, garlic, and rocambole. Throw up vacant ground into ridges. Hoe boorcole, broccoli, cabbages, and cabbage-turneps; and draw up earth to their items. Hoe carrots and spinach. Prepare hotbeds, for forcing asparagus and lettuce. Plant out lettuces, cabbage and brown Dutch, on asparagus beds, some under glasses, and others on hotbeds for forcing. Finish gathering melons for pickling. Plant mint, in pots, on a hotbed. Cover mushroom beds well with straw and mats, to defend them from rain. Onions will require to be very well weeded, and should be examined 2 or 3 times in the month. Sow peas, the early hotspurs, on a south border near the wall, for a

first crop. Plant on hotbeds asparagus for the first crop, and lettuces and mint. Plant out, to stand for seed, beets, cabbages, carrots, parsley, parsneps, turneps. Weed pot herbs and sweet herbs on beds; stir up the earth, and spread some over them. Seeds of all sorts should be threshed out, dried, and put into bags. Sow cress and mustard on hotbeds: Peas on a south border. Hoe spinach for the last time before winter. Destroy weeds in every part of the garden.

**FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** Any thing ordered last month, if omitted, finish early in this, as the beginning of this month is the proper time when the flower garden and shrubbery should be put into order before the winter. Finish planting anemones, to flower early, the first week in the month. Remove auriculas and carnations, into shelter, and in wet weather cover them with mats. Balsams, cockscombs, egg-plants, &c. intended to raise seed from, must be constantly attended to, to hasten the ripening of the seed. Turn over beds and composts for bulbous roots, frequently. Finish planting box for edgings, early in the month. Plant bulbous roots for forcing, in pots or boxes, and finish planting all others before the rain sets in. Plant crocuses, aconites, snowdrops, and any bulbous roots which flower early in the spring, at the beginning of the month. Plant evergreens of all sorts, early in the month. Finish laying grass walks, and repair any deficient places. Weed gravel walks, and roll them in dry weather. Plant hyacinths, jonquils, lilies, narcissus, and polyanthus narcissus, early in the month. Finish layering of shrubs. Take off layers and suckers, if rooted. Mignonette should be removed under glasses, or else into a greenhouse or warm closet. Finish planting perennials. Plant bulbous roots early in the month; as aconites, amaryllises, coral flags, crown-imperials, daffodils, garlic chives, irises, martagons, paneratiums, ranunculuses, snowdrops, star of Bethlehem, tulip, &c. Plant also perennials at the beginning of the month: shrubs and trees of all sorts: strawberries and thurst for edgings: place seedlings in pots, under a south wall in the ground; and weed and earth seedlings in beds. Gather seeds in the middle of the day. Finish pruning and hoeing shrub-beries; to lie neat for the winter. Finish planting shrubs and trees. Take off suckers and layers; and, if small, plant them in beds two feet asunder, to be ready against the next season. Finish planting tulips, early in the month, and all sorts of bulbous roots. Finish laying turf early in the month. Hoe and rake off weeds, or they will root again. If possible leave nothing ordered this month unfinished, on account of the uncertainty of the weather in the succeeding month.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Gather apples and pears in the middle of fine dry days. Plant apple trees at the end of the month. Plant currants, gooseberries, and raspberries. Examine grapes in bags, to see that they are not mouldy or decayed. Gather nectarines and peaches, in the middle of the day. Orchards or fruit trees intended to be planted, should have the ground prepared, and the holes digged some weeks before-hand; if the soil be very good, some loam and rotten dung should be mixed together, and

the trees planted in it. If the soil be poor, bring a cart load of earth at least, to form the earth into a little hill, above and plant the tree upon it, but first a foot deep in a circle of 4 feet. Gather peaches in the middle of the month, if not ripe, lay them in the sun for a week, or in a window; they are much improved, and eat gently like apples, and eating, the wine. Plant peach trees, at the end of the month. Plant fruit trees of all sorts of wall trees, but sweep off all with a birch broom. Finish dressing beds, and water the alpiacs frequently. Vines in pots should be made the holes ready, pour water in them gently turn them out of the pot in the hole and break it, and cannot be disturbed, and you will next year. Finish pruning and plant early in the month.

**GREENHOUSE.** Give air very day time, and leave some of the windows open until the end of the month. Take in the pots. Take in geraniums in the month, if not done the last; water them, or they will begin to shoot afresh constantly all decayed leaves. Clean before the plants are set in order; dead ones. Take in myrtles towards the month. Orange trees should be examined in this month; examine the leaves beneath them, for insects, which fasten themselves, and pick them off; if mildewed, wash them with warm water. Water succulent plants sparingly, myrtles, orange trees, winter chrysanths, and woody plants often. Open the windows in a fine day, but keep them shut in fog.

#### NOVEMBER.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Any thing ordered before the rain prevents. Cut do stalks, and earth them up. Asparagus beds must have air given to it; a plant the 2d bed; cut down the stalks, and dress the beds. Finish planting first crop. Plant beets, cabbages, a first crop. Take up carrots and lay them in a trench, or in a frame, in the middle of fine days. Give some air to cauliflowers under frames, in the middle of fine days. Cauliflowers, when dry, to blanch. Sow cress and radishes on hotbeds. Take up plant edout, and plant on the south side raised up two feet high. Throw up v into ridges. Prepare hotbeds for fungus and lettuces. Attend to lettuce and give them air in the middle of the month. Take up cauliflower and large rooted parsley. Draw ear and beans above ground, and place them in a trench, or in a frame, in the middle of fine days. Plant asparagus on a hotbed crop: endive on the south side of: beets, cabbages, and carrots, for seed potatoes, sort them, pick out the best, and reserve the best for use in winter. Short-topped radishes about the 15th

## DECEMBER.

beaten straw over the beds. Dig up tulips, and scorzonerias. Sow cress, mustardishes on hotbeds for small saladings, sowing again, if it be too thick. Drain off water; weed all the crops; and take seeds to prevent their rooting again.

**FRUIT GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** November generally a very rainy month, if any opened to be omitted last month, let it be early in this. Bulbous roots, intended for forcing, may now be placed on shelves, and let all others be finished planting during the month. Those in pots or tubs be frequently watered, and placed as near the sun and light as possible; for in the winter they will draw up weak. Composts wanted for forcing, should now be collected; viz. manure, sand, willow earth, rotten tan, dung, &c. them be laid in dry sunny places, and frequently turned over, but by no means in the open air. Gravel walks near the house should be rolled a little when the weather will permit; their being kept hard prevents weeds growing; but never throw them up into the air. Leaves should be constantly swept up as they fall, or they will spoil the walks. Myrtles against walls should have two boards six inches wide fixed, one at each side, with a mat on top, on which a mat should be nailed up and down occasionally. Plant carnation and bulbous roots; particularly those intended for forcing. Shrubberies should be pruned, and hoed. All sorts of shrubs and trees should be finished planting early in the month; viz. sowing, straw, or turf, turned downwards, and laid over the roots to keep out the frost. Drains should be dug, and drains made to carry off the water wherever it stands; a large quantity, placed downwards in the earth, will do a great quantity of water.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Finish any plants sown last month, that has been omitted, if possible. Finish gathering apples and pears as they appear; and if they are not yet ripe, let them remain in together and sweated; the most sorts, which keep long, should be wiped with a cloth. Prune and plant apple and pear trees, and pull off the green figs. Attend to the fruit room; pick out every leaf, and all decayed apples or pears. Finish plantings at the beginning of this month, and trees. Finish planting and pruning of standard and wall trees, early in the month. Prune strawberries in pots for forcing, and attend to the alpine. Finish planting and pruning of wall trees.

**GREENHOUSE.** Give air in the middle of the day when very foggy. Earth the tops of any plants, when any mould appears on them. Pick off geranium leaves as they decay, rather than any others, and give them water frequently; also, all decayed leaves, as they decay, give air of the house very much. Succulents, as aloes, ficoides, &c. will require but little water; large aloes the most. Water plants often, but give them only little at a time; dampness is more prejudicial in a greenhouse than cold.

**KITCHEN GARDEN.** Asparagus must be planted for the 3d crop, and give it both light and air to colour it. If the beds be not warm enough, line them with fresh dung. Broccoli, cauliflower, and cabbages must be well earthed up, to keep them upright, and all decayed leaves picked off. Cauliflower plants must have air while the weather is mild, and pick off dead leaves. Earth up celery when dry, for blanching. Sow cress, mustard, and radishes, on hotbeds every week. Weed and turn over dunghills in frosty weather. Tie up endive for blanching. Hotbeds must be attended to, and plenty of hot dung and manure provided for cucumbers and melons. Lettuces under glasses must have air given them in the middle of mild days. Mushroom beds must have dry straw. Earth up peas and beans above ground. Roots preserved in sand, as carrots, potatoes, &c. should be finished before the frost sets in. Search for snails in the holes of the walls. Sow cress, mustard, and radishes, on hotbeds every week. Repair, grind, and put in order tools. Set traps to catch mice in; and make trenches to drain off the water.

**FLOWER GARDEN and SHRUBBERY.** Examine auriculae frequently, and pick off all decayed leaves. Bulbous roots for forcing must be constantly attended to, to give them water, which should always be soft; and change that in the glasses when foul. Carnations in pots should be plunged into the ground; but, if ashes or sand be put between the pots, it will keep them dryer than earth. Flowers and shrubs in pots should be plunged into the ground, to keep the frost from the roots. Forest trees may still be planted, if there be not much frost; otherwise it is better to defer it till spring. Shrubs and trees may still be pruned; and long litter, &c. laid over the roots of those lately planted. Trenches and drains should be made wherever the water stands.

**FRUIT GARDEN and ORCHARD.** Examine apples and pears in the fruit room; pick out such as appear the soundest of the best sorts, and wrap each in a piece of paper. This will cause them to keep several weeks longer. Repair espaliers; prune the trees; spread some rotten dung on the border, and fork it in. Finish pruning fig trees. Guard the fruit room from frost, but give it some air, when the weather is not very damp nor frosty. Examine the orchard, and take care that the newly planted trees are well flaked and mulched; and cut out the dead wood from the standard trees. Finish pruning and planting wall trees early in the month.

**GREENHOUSE.** Air must be given whenever the weather is mild and will permit it. Earth the tops of the pots, but first take out a little of the old. Frost must be guarded against, by keeping the doors and windows close, when it begins to freeze. Constantly pick off decayed leaves. Myrtles and other greenhouse plants against walls will require to have mats placed before them, and, in the middle of fine days, before the frost is set in, rolled up, but let down again at night. Long litter, or rotten tan, should also be laid over the roots

# G A R D E N I N G.

SECT

the frost. Myrtles may al-  
pits made against a south  
by frosty weather with mats  
near a foot thick. Many are preserved  
near London, with only hurdles  
er the pit, without any glass, and covered  
in frost with straw and mats. Succu-  
s will require but very little water. Wa-  
dants which require it very sparingly.  
windows for 3 or 4 hours in the middle  
day.

*A TABLE shewing the NUMBER of  
required of EACH SORT of VEGETABLES,  
a REGULAR SUCCESSION through the  
with the TIME of SOWING and PLANT.*

## GARDEN PLANTS, SEEDS, and ROOTS.

	<i>No. of Crops.</i>	<i>Time of Sowing, &amp;c.</i>
Asparagus	1	Mar. or Apr.
— forced	5	Oct. Nov. Dec. Jan. Feb.
— in autumn	1	July, if cut down
Balm	1	Mar. or Apr.
Basil	1	Mar. or Apr.
Beans, early	5	Oct. Jan. Feb. Mar. July
— late	4	Feb. Mar. Apr. July
Beets	1	Feb. or Mar.
Broccoli or kale	3	Mar. Apr. June
— Anjou	2	May, June
Borage	1	Feb. or Mar.
Broccoli	4	Mar. Apr. May, June
Burnet	1	Mar. or Apr.
Cabbages, early	1	Aug.
— late	4	Feb. Mar. May, June
— red	3	Feb. Mar. June
— Savoy	3	Mar. May, June
— for cattle	2	May, June
— for seed	1	Oct. or Nov.
Cabbage turneps	2	May, June
Camomile	1	Mar. or Apr.
Capsicums	1	Mar. or Apr.
Carrots to draw	3	Jan. Apr. July
— young	1	Feb. or Mar.
— principal crop	1	Feb.
— for seed	4	Aug. Feb. Mar. May
Caul flowers	5	Feb. Mar. Apr. May, June
Celery	1	Mar. or Apr.
Chardons	2	Mar. Aug.
Chervil	1	Mar. or Apr.
Cives	1	Mar. or Apr.
Clary	1	Mar. or Apr.
Coleseed	1	June or July
Coleworts	2	Feb. June or July
Corn fallad	2	Mar. Aug.
Cress for seed	1	Mar. or Apr.
— for fallad	1	Mar. to Sept.
— on hotbeds	1	Oct. to Mar.
Cucumbers	5	Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May
— on hotbeds	3	Jan. Feb. Mar.
— for bell glasses	1	Apr.
— on open ground	1	May or June
Dill	1	Mar. or Apr.
Endives	4	Apr. May, June, July
Escholas	1	Jan. or Feb.
Eschalot	2	Feb. Sept.
Fennel	2	Feb. Aug.
Finochio	4	Apr. May, June, July
Garlic	2	Feb. Sept.
Horseradish	1	Feb. or Mar.
Hyssop	1	Mar. or Apr.
Jerusalem arti- chokes	1	Feb. or Mar.
Kidney beans	5	Mar. Apr. May, June
— Runners	2	Apr. May
Lavender	1	May or June
Leeks	1	Feb. or Mar.
Lettuces	7	Feb. to Aug.
Marjoram	2	Mar. Apr.
Marygolds	1	Feb. to Apr.
Melons	3	Feb. Mar. Apr.
— for autumn	1	May
Mint	1	Mar. or Apr.
Mushrooms	2	Mar. Sept.
Mustard, for seed	1	Mar. or Apr.
— for fallad	1	Mar. to Sept.
— on hotbeds	1	Oct. to Mar.
Nasturtiums	1	Mar. or Apr.
Onions to draw	4	Jan. Apr. May, June
— young	1	Feb. or Mar.
— principal crop	1	Feb. or Mar.
— for seed	1	Feb. or Mar.
— Welsh	2	July, Aug.
Parsley	3	Feb. Mar. July
— large rooted	2	Feb. Apr.
Parsneps	3	Feb. Mar. or Apr.
Peas, hotspurs	5	Oct. Jan. Feb. July
— Marrowfats	5	Feb. Mar. Apr. May
Pennyroyal	1	Mar. or Apr.
Potatoes	3	Feb. Mar. Apr.
— on hotbeds	1	Jan. or Feb.
Purslane	3	Mar. Apr. May
Radishes	9	Jan. to Aug. and
— on hotbeds	2	Jan. Feb.
— for fallad	1	Mar. to Sept.
— for seed	1	May
Rampion	1	Mar. or Apr.
Rape	1	June or July
— for fallad	1	Mar. to Sept.
Rocamboles	2	Feb. Sept.
Rosemary	1	May, or June
Rue	1	Mar. or Apr.
Sage	1	Mar. or Apr.
Salsafy	1	Mar. or Apr.
Savory	1	Mar. or Apr.
Savoy cabbage	3	Mar. May, June
Scorzoneria	1	Mar. or Apr.
Scotch kale	3	Mar. Apr. June
Sea kale	1	Mar. or Apr.
Skirrets	1	Mar. or Apr.
Sorrel	2	Mar. Aug.
Spinach	6	Feb. to July
— Winter	2	July, Aug. or Sept.
Tansey	1	Mar. or Sept.
Tarragon	1	Mar. or Sept.
Thyme	1	Mar. or Apr.
Tomatoes	1	Mar. or Apr.
Turneps	6	Mar. or Aug.
— for seed	1	Feb.
Turnep-cabbage	2	May, June
Turnep-radish	2	June, July
Water-cress	2	Mar. Sept.

# GARDENING

## CATALOGUE OF FLOWERS, SHRUBS, TREES USUALLY CULTIVATED.

### FENDER ANNUAL FLOWERS.

on a strong hotbed the last week in March, first in March, transplanted afterwards in another at 4 inches distance; then in small pots in May; afterwards in larger, and of June placed in the open air.

- |              |                    |
|--------------|--------------------|
| 1. Ice plant | 6. Humble plant    |
| 2. Tombs     | 7. Sensitive plant |
| 3. Ants      | 8. Stramoniums     |
| 4. amaranths |                    |

### II. ANNUAL FLOWERS.

on a moderate hotbed in March or planted afterwards before they are too high light earth, and covered with mats; in month or six weeks into pots, or border-flower-garden.

- |  |                      |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. French marygold   | 8. French marygold   |
| 2. lilia, blue   | 9. Marvel of Peru    |
| 3. rom   | 10. Mignonette       |
| 4. marygold  | 11. Nolana           |
| 5. ic after  | 12. Palma Christi    |
| 6. or Indian   | 13. Stock Julyflower |
| 7. mthemum.  | 14. Sultan, yellow   |
| 8. them, six numbers to them, correct these, to distinguish each sort when | 15. Zinnia           |

### III. HARDY ANNUAL FLOWERS.

in March or April on the borders of a garden. Those marked thus †, barely, may be sown in the beginning of the flower early. Hollow the earth out a little basin, about a foot over, and deep; draw a circle near the edge half an inch, and drop a few seeds in it; thin after they appear, and leave them at 6 inches, but the large sorts wider. In May, they will want frequent watering. As the seeds as they ripen, and you may save some of buying any in another season.

- |                  |                                   |
|------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. flower †      | 23. Mallow                        |
| 2. igit          | 24. Mignonette                    |
| 3. th            | 25. Nasturtium †                  |
| 4. stea          | 26. Nigella, or devil in a bush † |
| 5. Moldavian     | 27. Parsley, or hearts-ease       |
| 6. e             | 28. Peas, sweet scented †         |
| 7. ust †         | 29. Petricaria †                  |
| 8. Lobel's †     | 30. Poppy †                       |
| 9. lar trefoil   | 31. Safflower, or bastard saffron |
| 10. d and white  | 32. Snail trefoil                 |
| 11. ulus         | 33. Snap-dragon                   |
| 12. tle †        | 34. Stock July-flower †           |
| 13. er, spurting | 35. Sun flower                    |
| 14. y, yellow    | 36. Sweet sultan                  |
| 15. g trefoil    | 37. Tobacco                       |
| 16. ort          | 38. Venus's, looking-glass †      |
| 17. orn          | 39. Venus's navelwort             |
| 18. r †          | 40. Xeranthemum                   |

In July, sow again annual stock, candy tuft, convolvulus minor, cornbottles, Lobel's catchfly, and yellow lupines, and they will flower until the frost kills them.

### IV. BIENNIAL FLOWERS.

To be sown in March or April in beds very thin; as soon as the plants touch one another, thin them, and leave them at 4 or 6 inches asunder; those drawn out, plant at the same distance. In July transplant them all upon beds, at eight inches asunder; there to remain till the end of September, when they must be planted upon the borders of the flower garden, and they will produce their flowers the next summer, after which they will perfect their seeds and die.

- |                          |                        |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Canterbury bell       | 7. Poppy, yellow horn- |
| 2. Colutea, Æthiopian    | 8. Rocket              |
| 3. French honeysuckle    | 9. Scabious            |
| 4. Globe thistle         | 10. Stock Julyflower   |
| 5. Honesty, or moon-wort | 11. Sweet-William      |
| 6. Mallow tree           | 12. Tree Primrose      |
|                          | 13. Wall flower        |

### V. PERENNIAL FLOWERS.

Which, if sown in the same manner as the biennials, and transplanted into the borders of the flower garden, will continue for several years.

- |                 |                      |
|-----------------|----------------------|
| 1. Alysson      | 11. Ox-eye daisy     |
| 2. Auricula     | 12. Pea, everlasting |
| 3. Bee larkspur | 13. Pinks            |
| 4. Campanula    | 14. Polyanthus       |
| 5. Carnation    | 15. Rhubarb          |
| 6. Columbine    | 16. Rose campion     |
| 7. Flax         | 17. Snap dragon      |
| 8. Fox glove    | 18. Valerian         |
| 9. Hawkweed     | 19. Greek valerian   |
| 10. Hollyhock   |                      |

### VI. PERENNIAL FLOWERS.

Which are propagated by dividing their roots in spring, in March or April; or in the autumn, in September.

- |                      |                        |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Adonis flower     | 26. Fraxinella         |
| 2. Anemone           | 27. Fumatory           |
| 3. Asphodel          | 28. Garlic             |
| 4. Asters            | 29. Gentianella        |
| 5. Bachelors button  | 30. Golden-locks       |
| 6. Bean-caper        | 31. Golden rod         |
| 7. Bears-breech      | 32. Greek valerian     |
| 8. Borage            | 33. Hellebore          |
| 9. Bugloss           | 34. Hepatica           |
| 10. Campanula        | 35. Herb bennet        |
| 11. Campion          | 36. Houseleek          |
| 12. Cardinal flower  | 37. Ladies mantle      |
| 13. Christmas rose   | 38. Ladies slipper     |
| 14. Cowslip          | 39. Ladies smoke       |
| 15. Cranesbill       | 40. Lily of the valley |
| 16. Crowfoot         | 41. Lion's tail        |
| 17. Daisies          | 42. London pride       |
| 18. Dog-tooth violet | 43. Loose strife       |
| 19. Dragons          | 44. Lupine             |
| 20. Dropwort         | 45. Lychnis            |
| 21. Eternal flower   | 46. Lychnidea          |
| 22. Fennel-giant     | 47. Madwort            |
| 23. Feverfew         | 48. Marsh Marygold     |
| 24. Flag             | 49. Meadow sweet       |
| 25. Fox-glove        | 50. Milfoil            |

# G A R D E N I N G.

SECT

71. Stonecrop  
 72. Sunflower  
 73. Swallow-wort  
 74. Thrift  
 75. Throatwort  
 76. Toadflax  
 77. True love  
 78. Valerian  
 79. Vervain  
 80. Veronica  
 81. Violet  
 82. Vipers bugloss  
 83. Wake-robin  
 84. Willow herb  
 85. Wolfsbane  
 86. Wormwood and some others; but with very little beauty to recommend them

16. Ceanothus  
 17. Cephalanthus  
 18. Cherry tree  
 19. Cinquefoil, shrubby  
 20. Clethra  
 21. Cornel  
 22. Crab-tree  
 23. Cytifus  
 24. Diervilla  
 25. Dogwood  
 26. Fothergilla  
 27. Gingo, or maiden-hair tree  
 28. Gueldres rose  
 29. Halefia  
 30. Hamamelis  
 31. Hawthorn  
 32. Hickery nut  
 33. Honeyfuckle  
 34. Honeyfuckle, upright  
 35. Hypericum  
 36. Jafmin  
 37. Jefuits - bark tree, false  
 38. Indigo, bastard  
 39. Ironwood tree  
 40. Judas tree  
 41. Kidney-bean tree  
 42. Laburnum  
 43. Lac, or varnish tree  
 44. Leatherwood
45. Lilacs  
 46. Mezereon  
 47. Nightshade  
 48. Olive-tree, v  
 49. Passion flow  
 50. Peach trees  
 51. Periploca, o  
 nian filk  
 52. Plum trees  
 53. Poison trees  
 54. Pomegranat  
 55. Privet  
 56. Raspberry  
 57. Redharrow  
 58. Rose tree, rieties  
 59. St Peter's w  
 60. Saffiras  
 61. Service tree  
 62. Snowdrop, c  
 tree  
 63. Spindle tree  
 64. Spiraea  
 65. Sumach  
 66. Syringa  
 67. Tamarisk  
 68. Tea tree  
 69. Toothach t  
 70. Traveller's j  
 71. Tupelo tree  
 72. Viburnum  
 73. Weeping w

## VII. BULBOUS and TUBEROUS-ROOTED FLOWERS.

- |                   |                         |
|-------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Aconites       | 14. Lily                |
| 2. Amaryllis      | 15. Martagon            |
| 3. Anemone        | 16. Narcifus            |
| 4. Bulbocodium    | 17. Pancratiums         |
| 5. Cornflags      | 18. Polyanthus Narcifus |
| 6. Crocuses       | 19. Ranunculus          |
| 7. Crown imperial | 20. Silyrinchium        |
| 8. Cyclamen       | 21. Snowdrop            |
| 9. Daffodil       | 22. Star of Bethlehem   |
| 10. Garlic Moly   | 23. Tuberoses           |
| 11. Hyacinth      | 24. Tulips              |
| 12. Jonquil       |                         |
| 13. Iris          |                         |

To be taken up in April, May, and June, as soon as their leaves are withered, and planted again in September or October, but their offsets in August. The ranunculuses and anemones not to be planted till February. The feed to be sown in February, in boxes.

## VIII. BULBOUS-ROOTED FLOWERS.

- |              |                     |
|--------------|---------------------|
| 1. Amaryllis | 5. Daffodil, sea    |
| 2. Colchicum | 6. Lily, Belladonna |
| 3. Crocus    | 7. — Guernsey       |
| 4. Cyclamen  | 8. Saffron          |

These flower in autumn. They require to be planted in August, and to be taken up in April or May, as soon as their leaves are decayed; but their offsets in July.

## IX. DECIDUOUS FLOWERING SHRUBS and ORNAMENTAL TREES.

To be planted in March, April, September, and October.

- |                           |                                |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Acacia, rose-flowering | 9. Bigonia or Trumpet flower   |
| 2. Almond tree            | 10. Bladder fena               |
| Allspice                  | 11. Bramble                    |
| thæa                      | 12. Buckthorn                  |
| h, mountain               | 13. Caragana                   |
| ona, or papaw             | 14. Cassioberry bush           |
| ry tree                   | 15. Catalpa, or Trumpet flower |

## X. DECIDUOUS FOREST TREES.

To be planted from the middle of February the beginning of April, and from September to December.

- |              |                 |          |
|--------------|-----------------|----------|
| 1. Acacia    | 9. Elder        | 17. Ma   |
| 2. Alder     | 10. Elm         | 18. Nel  |
| 3. Ash       | 11. Hickery     | 19. Oak  |
| 4. Beech     | 12. Hornbeam    | 20. Plat |
| 5. Birch     | 13. Horse-chef- | 21. Pop  |
| 6. Chestnut  | 14. Larch [nut  | 22. Tul  |
| 7. Crab-tree | 15. Lime        | 23. Wa   |
| 8. Cypress   | 16. Magnolia    | 24. WI   |

## XI. EVERGREEN FLOWERING SHRUBS and ORNAMENTAL TREES.

To be planted in March, April, September, and October.

- |                                   |                   |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Alaternus                      | 16. Juniper       |
| 2. Andromeda                      | 17. Ivy           |
| 3. Arbor vitæ                     | 18. Kalmia        |
| 4. Arbutus                        | 19. Lavender      |
| 5. Bay                            | 20. Laurel        |
| 6. Bignonia                       | 21. Laurustinus   |
| 7. Box                            | 22. Magnolia      |
| 8. Brooms                         | 23. Phillyrea     |
| 9. Cassine, or South sea tea tree | 24. Privet        |
| 10. Ciftus or rock rose           | 25. Purslane tree |
| 11. Crab-tree                     | 26. Pyracantha    |
| 12. Cytifus, hairy evergreen      | 27. Rhododendr    |
| 13. Groundfel tree                | 28. Rose tree     |
| 14. Holly                         | 29. Rosemary      |
| 15. Honeyfuckle                   | 30. Rue           |
|                                   | 31. Savin         |
|                                   | 32. Spindle tree  |



brier  
tree

35. Widow-wail

### I. EVERGREEN FOREST TREES.

planted from the middle of February till  
the end of April, and from September till Decem-

- |            |         |        |
|------------|---------|--------|
| 3. Cypress | 5. Oak  | 7. Yew |
| 4. Fir     | 6. Pine |        |

### XIII. FRUIT TREES.

planted in February, March, October,  
and November.

- |                |               |
|----------------|---------------|
| 8. Fig         | 15. Pear      |
| 9. Filbert     | 16. Plum      |
| 10. Gooseberry | 17. Quince    |
| 11. Medlar     | 18. Raspberry |
| 12. Nectarine  | 19. Service   |
| 13. Nut-tree   | 20. Vine      |
| 14. Peach      | 21. Walnut    |

The following method may be taken for *preserving*  
the blossoms of fruit-trees in spring. Procure  
rep-hurdles made of hazel or willow  
about 2 or 3 feet higher than the walls,  
just before the blossoms of the fruit-  
trees are to open, place these before the trees,  
and when in windy weather with stakes,  
the air being taller than the walls are high,  
the hurdles be set sloping about two feet from the  
end of the walls, which will keep them steady.  
When the fruit is set, and entirely out of danger,  
the hurdles may be taken quite away, and by keeping in a dry  
place they will last many years, and will be al-  
most as good as new for lighting  
the trees unfit for any other use.

An experiment that was made, the hurdles  
were laid before the trees in December; they  
yielded a crop of peas, and both seemed to  
be benefited, particularly the peas. Poi-  
sons might also thus be defended in spring,  
the hurdles being forwarder; at least it is worth trying  
if the walls are not too high.

### XIV. HARDY GREENHOUSE PLANTS.

To be planted against a south wall, in the open  
ground, the roots covered with tan or long litter.  
These will not be killed except in very severe frosts,  
and then they generally shoot up afresh from their  
roots. By this method, many curious plants,  
formerly only kept in greenhouses, will now orna-  
ment the walls, where they will appear in great-  
er vigour and beauty, and many may produce  
both flowers and fruit, which they will not do  
when confined in pots in a greenhouse.

- |                        |                         |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Bay tree            | Myrtle                  |
| — Blue-berried Ca-     | — Portugal              |
| rolinian               | — Upright Italian       |
| 2. Boxthorn            | 20. Magnolia, evergreen |
| — African              | 21. Oleander            |
| 3. Broom               | — Red                   |
| — Starry               | — White                 |
| — Montpellier          | 22. Olive-tree          |
| 4. Cedar tree          | — Box-leaved            |
| — Bermudian            | — Provence              |
| — Goa                  | 23. Pistachia nut tree  |
| 5. Fig, Indian         | 24. Pomegranate, dwarf  |
| 6. Heath               | 25. Ragwort, sea        |
| — Many-flowered        | 26. Rose tree, Chinese, |
| — Mediterranean        | 27. Rosemary, silver-   |
| — Three-flowered       | leaved                  |
| 7. Jasmin, Catalonian  | 28. Sophora             |
| 8. Laurel, Alexandrian | — Small leaved O-       |
| 9. Myrtle              | taheite                 |
| — Broad-leaved Ro-     | 29. Strawberry tree     |
| man                    | 30. Tea tree, green     |
| — Double-flowered      | 31. Winter cherry.      |

For the particular operations in gardening, see  
ESPALIER, FRUIT-TREES, GRAFTING, GREEN-  
HOUSE, HOTBED, INARCHING, INOCULATING,  
ORCHARD, PLANTING, PRUNING, TREES, &c.  
&c. and the culture of the different plants under  
their respective generic names.

## G A R

ENSTONE, Lord. See GARDEN, No 1.  
ENSTONE, or } a small town of Scotland,  
ENSTOWN, } on the N. coast of Banff,  
about 6 miles E. of Banff; containing 10  
fishing boats, and 300 souls, in 1790.

INIA, or GARDENIA, a genus of the  
2d order, belonging to the pentandria  
plants and in the natural method ranking  
30th order; *Contort.* The lobes of the  
corolla bent obliquely to the right.

RDINER, Col. James, a brave and pi-  
ous officer in the army, the son of Capt. Patrick  
of the family of Torwood-Head, by  
his second wife Hodge of Gladmuir. His father had  
been in the army under K. William III and Q.  
Anne, and died in Germany, after the battle of  
Blenheim.

His maternal uncle, Col. Hodge, was  
killed in the battle of Steenkirk, in 1692; and  
his brother, Robert Gardiner, at the siege  
of Namur, in 1695. Our hero was born at Cur-

## G A R

riden, Jan. 10th, 1688. He was educated at Lin-  
lithgow, and made a very considerable progress  
in the languages; but having a kind of hereditary  
attachment to the military life, he served very ear-  
ly as a cadet; and at 14 years of age, bore an en-  
sign's commission in a Scots regiment in the Dutch  
service, wherein he continued till 1702; when he  
received a similar commission in a British regiment  
from Q. Anne, which he bore in the famous bat-  
tle of Ramillies. In this memorable action, being  
sent on a desperate service, with a party of what  
is called the FORLORN HOPE, he very narrowly  
escaped with his life. While calling to his men,  
a musket ball entered his mouth, and without  
touching his tongue or his teeth, went through  
his neck, and came out about 1½ inch on the left  
side of the vertebræ. Not feeling the pain at first,  
he began to suspect he had swallowed the ball, till  
he fell with loss of blood. After this he passed  
two nights and all next day in the open air, in ex-  
treme

could we and had his wound dressed by an ignorant barber-surgeon; in spite of which he recovered. In 1706, he was raised to a lieutenantcy, and soon after was made a cornet in Lord Stair's reg. of Scots Greys; and in 1715, a capt. lieut. of dragoons. When the E. of Stair went ambassador to France, he appointed him his master of horse. In 1715, he was promoted to a captaincy, and in 1717 to a majority. In 1724, he was made major of an older regiment; in 1730, he was advanced to the rank of lieut. colonel, and in 1743, to that of colonel of a regiment of dragoons; at the head of which he fell, fighting bravely for his country, at the battle of Preston-pans, on the 21st Sept. 1745; in the 58th year of his age. In his person he was tall, graceful, strong built, and well proportioned. And being endowed with a strong constitution, he in his younger years plunged so deep in every fashionable vice, that his companions stiled him the *happy rake*. But in this vortex of vice and dissipation, he was suddenly arrested in a manner almost, if not entirely *miraculous*. Our limits permit us not to quote the full account of this *phenomenon* given by Dr Doddridge, in his work entitled *Remarkable passages in the Life of Col. Gardiner*; but the substance of it is as follows: In July 1719, Major Gardiner, having spent the sabbath evening with some gay company till 11, and having an assignation with a married woman at 12, in order "to kill the tedious hour," took up a book, left by his mother or aunt in his chamber, entitled the *Christian Soldier*; wherein he expected to find some amusement from the author's spiritualizing the terms of his profession. But while reading it carelessly, he was surpris'd by a sudden and extraordinary blaze of light; and upon looking up, beheld to his astonishment a visible representation of our Saviour on the cross, suspended in the air, and surrounded with glory; while at the same time he thought he heard a voice, saying, "Oh sinner, did I suffer this for thee, and are these thy returns?" Struck with this amazing phenomenon, he sunk down in his arm chair, and continued for some time insensible; from which circumstance Dr Doddridge often suggested to him, that he was perhaps all the time asleep, and dreaming; but he himself considered it as not a dream, but a real waking vision. Be that as it may, the consequences were as salutary, as if an angel had been sent express from heaven to convert him; and from that time to his death he became as eminently distinguished for piety as he had formerly been for profanity. In July 1726, he married Lady Frances Erskine, daughter of the E. of Buchan, by whom he had 13 children. From the numerous anecdotes recorded of this great and good man by Dr Doddridge, we shall only add one more, which may afford an useful example to others in an age wherein duelling is so frequent. He had been so much addicted to this fashionable folly in his younger years, that he had fought 3 duels, before he was quite a man; but being challenged to fight a 4th after his conversion, he made this calm reply;—"I fear *sinning*, though you know I do not fear *fighting*." Dr Doddridge has summed up his character in few words, in the

quotation from Virgil prefixed as a motto to his work:

— *Justior alter*

*Nec pietate fuit, nec bello major &*

(2.) GARDINER, Mrs Richmond, d. Col. Gardiner, and wife of Mr Laurence, a writer in Edinburgh, was authoress of several entitled *Anna and Edgar*; and of many other satirical pieces, inserted in the Magazine and other periodical works. She died at Edinburgh.

(3) GARDINER, Stephen, Bp. of Worcester and chancellor of England was born at Edmonds, in 1483. He was natural son of Richard Woodville, the brother of Q. Elizabeth I. and was educated at Cambridge. He signed the divorce of Henry VIII. from the queen of Spain; and abjured the pope's supremacy. He wrote *De vera et falsa obedientia*, in which he speaks of the king: yet in Edward VI's reign he opposed the reformation, and was imprisoned; but was released by Q. Mary. He drew up the articles of impeachment between her and Philip II. of Spain. He was silent against the reformers, but on his death he often repeated these words, *Erravi cum Petro, non flevi cum Petro*; "I have sinned, but I have not repented like Peter."

1555.

GARDINGEN, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of Sleswick; 28 miles WSW. of Flensburgh.

GARDIOLE, a town of France, in the dept. of Tarn, 18 miles SE. of Lavaur.

GARDNER, a town of Massachusetts, in Worcester county, 60 miles NW. of Boston.

(1.) GARDON, a river of France, in the dept. of the Lozere, crosses that of the Rhone 4 miles N. of Nimes.

(2.) GARDON OF ALAIS, a river of France, which rises in the dept. of the Gard, and runs into the above river N<sup>o</sup> 1.

GARDONNE, a town of the Cisalpine Republic, in the dept. of Benaco, and ci-devant of Verona, containing 1300 citizens, and on an extensive trade, in guns, &c.

GARDOUCH, a town of France, in the dept. of the Upper Garonne, 15 miles SE. of Toulouse.

GARDSBY, a town of Sweden in the island of Smaland, 28 miles N. of Wexio.

\* GARE. *n. f.* Coarse wool grown in the legs of sheep. *Dist.*

GARED, a town of Africa, in Morocco.

GARENCIERES, a town of France, in the dept. of Seine and Oise, 4 m. NW. of Paris.

GARENNE, a town of France, in the dept. of Paris, 6 miles ENE. of Paris.

GAREOULT, a town of France, in the dept. of Var, 5 miles S. of Brignol.

GARET, a town of Barbary, in Fez.

GARFETE, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira.

GARGANO, a town of Naples, in the province of Terra di Lavoro, 7 miles N. of Mount St Angelo.

GARGANVILLARD, a town of France, in the dept. of Landes, 7 miles NW. of Riviers.

GARGARA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the prov. of Natolia; 20 miles W. of Adria.

(1.) \* GARGARISM. *n. f.* [*γάργαρα*, *garijme*, French.] A liquid form of uric acid, which washes the mouth with. *Quincy*.—*Apoph.*

draw the rheum down by the patient's Nat. Eff.

**GARGARISMS** are used when the mouth is inflamed, or ulcerated. A small quantity is taken into the mouth, and moved about, and then spit out; or if the patient cannot do this, the liquor may be injected into the throat. When gargles are required, they should be more frequently repeated than is common practice.

**GARGARISE**. *v. a.* [*γάργαρα*; *gargara*.] To wash the mouth with medicinal liquor. —Vinegar, put to the nostrils, or gargarism, eases the hiccough; for that it is said to inhibit the motion of the spirit. *12. Hist.*—This being relaxed, may make the larynx; as when we *gargarise*. *Elements of Speech.*

**GARGET**. *n. f.* A distemper in cattle.—It appears in the head, maw, or in the teats. *Mort. Husb.*

**GARGET**, consists in a swelling of the throat, and the neighbouring parts; to prevent the return of this in the spring is recommended.

**GARLIC**, a distemper in geese, which by stoppage of the head frequently proves mortal. Three cloves of garlic, beaten in a mortar with butter, made into little balls, and given fast, are the ordinary means of cure.

**GARLESSE**, a town of France, in the department of Argenton, 5 miles SE. of Argenton.

**GARGLE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A liquor with which the throat is washed.—His throat was washed with one of the gargles set down in the article of cure. *Wifeman.*

**GARGLE**. *v. a.* [*gargouiller*, French; *gurgeln*, Germ. the throat.] 1. To gargle the throat with some liquor not suffered to descend.—Gargle twice or thrice with decoction of peroxycrate. *Harvey*.—The excision made, the patient will soon be stopt by gargling with decoction of peroxycrate. *Wifeman's Surgery*.

2. To comb, and then they order every hair to be washed with the gargle well their throats. *Dryd. Pers.* 3. To play in the throat. An improvement of the former.

4. To sing. —The which only warble long, and sing in their throats a song. *Waller*. —I am arm'd you were, you ceas'd a while to doat sense gargl'd in an eunuch's throat. *Fenton*.

**GARGLE**. *n. f.* An exudation of nervous matter, or the like, which indurates and immoveable tumour. *Quincy*.

**GARGOL**, or } a quadra, or district, of the region of Benaco, } the Cisalpine republic, in the ci-devant Brescian, comprising 1 town, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) 5 parishes and several villages.

**GARGOL**, a town in the above district, situated on lake Garda, containing 3,400 inhabitants in 1797. It is 21 miles NE of Brescia.

**GARGOL**. *n. f.* A distemper in hogs.—The disease is called *gargol* in hogs, hanging down of the eyes, staggering, and loss of appetite. *Portiner*.

**GARGUNNOCK**, or } a parish of Scotland, } land, in Stirlingshire, } bank of the Forth, 6 miles long from N. to S. and 3½ broad.

**PART I.**

The surface is partly hilly and 3000 acres are moor lands. The soil of the rest is partly light and sandy, partly rich loam and clay. Husbandry is much improved by liming, inclosing, &c. but the roads are still bad, and miltures are not entirely abolished. Grounds formerly over-run with thistles and furze, now produce 10 bolls per acre, of wheat, barley, or oats. Peas, beans, hay, and potatoes, are also cultivated. The population in 1793, stated by the rev. Mr James Robertson, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 830, and had decreased 126, since 1755.

(2.) **GARGUNNOCK**, a village in the above parish, containing about 90 houses and 400 souls, in 1793. Each house has a small garden.

(3.) **GARGUNNOCK**, **PEEL OF**, an ancient fort in the above parish, which was taken by Sir W. Wallace by stratagem from the English; but of which few relics now remain, though its site is still pointed out.

**GARIA**, a bay on the S. coast of Newfoundland, 22 miles E. of Cape Ray.

**GARIDELLA**, in botany, *Fennel flower of Crete*, a genus of the trigynia order, belonging to the dodecandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 26th order, *Labialis-filique*. The calyx is pentaphyllous, with leaves resembling flower-petals; there are five bilabiate and bifid nectaria; the capsules are polyispermous, and adhering together.

**GARIEVITZA**, or Mount Claudius, a mountain of Sclavonia, 16 miles N. of Krailiovelika.

(1.) **GARIGLIANO**, a river of Naples, which runs into the Mediterranean, 8 miles E. of Gaeta.

(2.) **GARIGLIANO**, one of the 11 departments, into which the ci-devant Neapolitan republic was divided in 1798-9.

**GARIOCH**, **CHAPEL OF**, a parish of Aberdeenshire, anciently called **LOGIE-DURNO**, seated on the N. side of the Don; about 8 miles long from N. to S. and 7 broad. The climate is dry and healthy, the surface hilly; and the soil various. Oats and bear are the chief produce. There are considerable plantations of trees, which thrive well. The population in 1793, stated by the rev. Mr Shand in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 986, and had decreased 365, since 1755. The number of sheep was 1550, horses 209, and black cattle 859.

**GARITENA**, a town of European Turkey in the Morea, 32 miles W. of Argos.

**GARIVAN**, a town of Turkey in Bulgaria, near the Danube, 22 miles SW. of Driftra.

**GARIZIM**. See **GERIZIM**.

(1.) \* **GARLAND**. *n. f.* [*garlande*, *guirland*, Fr.] 1. A wreath of branches or flowers.—

Strephon, with leavy twigs of laurel-woo,  
A garland made, on temples for to wear;]

For he then chosen was the dignity  
Of village-lord that Whitsuntide to bear. *Sidu.*

A reeling world will never stand upright,  
'Till Richard wear the garland of the realm.

—How! wear the garland! do'st thou mean  
the crown?

—Ay, my good lord. *Shak. Richard III.*

Then party-colour'd flow'rs of white and red  
She wove, to make a garland for her head. *n.*

*Dryden's Fables.*  
Vanquish

Vanquish again; though she be gone,  
Whose *garland* crown'd the victor's hair,  
And reign; though she has left the throne,  
Who made thy glory worthy thy care. *Prior*.  
Her gods and godlike heroes rise to view.

And all her faded *garlands* bloom anew. *Pope*.  
2. The top; the principal; the thing most prized.  
With every minute you do change a mind,  
And call him noble, that was now your hate,  
Him vile, that was your *garland*. *Shak*.

(2.) GARLAND is derived by Hicks from *gardel banda*, which in the northern languages signify a *nosegay artfully wrought with the hand*. The word (*9* *1. def. 1.*) denotes ornaments of flowers, fruits, and leaves, intermixed; anciently much used at the gates of temples, where feasts and solemn rejoicings were held; or at any other place where marks of public joy or gaiety were required, as at triumphal arches, tournaments, &c.

(3.) GARLAND is also used for a chaplet made of feathers, or sometimes of precious stones, worn on the head in the manner of a crown.

(1.) GARLIC, in botany. See ALLIUM.

(2.) \* GARLICK, *n. f.* [*gar*, Saxon, a lance; and *lick*, the leek that shoots up in blades. *Skinner*. *Allium*, Latin.] It has a bulbous root, consisting of many small tubercles included in its coats: the leaves are plain: the flowers consist of six leaves, formed into a corymbus on the top of the stalk; and are succeeded by subrotund fruit, divided into three cells, which contain roundish seeds. *Miller*.—*Garlick* is of an extremely strong smell, and of an acrid and pungent taste. It is extremely active, as may be proved by applying plasters of *garlick* to the feet, which will give a strong smell to the breath. *Hill*.—*Garlick* has, of all our plants, the greatest strength, affords most nourishment, and supplies most spirits to those who eat little flesh. *Temple*.—

'Tis mortal sin an onion to devour;  
Each clove of *garlick* is a sacred pow'r;  
Religious nations sure, and blest abodes,  
Where ev'ry orchard is o'er-run with gods. *Tate*.

(3.) \* GARLICK PEAR-TREE, *n. f.* This tree is pretty common in Jamaica, and several other places of America, where it usually rises to the height of 30 or 40 feet, and spreads into many branches. When the flowers fall off the pointal, it becomes a round fruit, which, when ripe, has a rough brownish rind, and a mealy sweet pulp, but a strong scent of *garlick*. *Miller*.

(4.) GARLICK PEAR TREE. See CRATEVA.

(5.) \* GARLICK WILD, *n. f.* A plant.

\* GARLICKEATER, *n. f.* [*garlick* and *eat*.]  
A mean fellow.—

You've made good work,  
You and your apron men, that stood so much  
Upon the voice of occupation, and  
The breath of *garlickeaters*. *Shak. Coriolanus*.  
GARLIESTOWN, a village of Scotland, in  
Wigtonshire, in the form of a crescent; contain-  
ing 450 inhabitants in 1790.

GARLIN, a town of France, in the dept. of  
Pyrenees, 16 miles N. of Pau.

NE, a village in Cornwall.

MENT, *n. f.* [*guariment*, old Fr.]  
which the body is covered; cloaths;

Hence, rotten thing, or I shall shake  
Out of thy *garments*. *Shak*.

—Our leaf, once fallen, springeth no  
ther doth the sun or summer adorn us:  
the *garments* of new leaves and flowers

Fairest thing that shines below,  
Why in this robe dost thou appear?  
Would'st thou a while more perfect  
Thou must at all no *garment* wear.

Three worthy persons from his bed  
And dy'd his *garment* with their feat

—The peacock, in all his pride, does  
half the colours that appear in the *gar*  
Brittish lady, when she is dressed. *Speck*  
him that sues for the coat, i. e. the *shir*  
*garment*, take the cloak also, is a proverb  
too; for in the truth of the letter, a  
likely matter of a law-suit, and signifies  
testing sufferance of such small losses. *A*

(2.) GARMENT. See DRESS and HA  
GARN, a town of Sweden, 12 m. N  
GARNACHE, a town of France, in  
of the Vendee, 3 miles NNE. of Chall  
GARNARD, a town in the Isle of V

(1.) \* GARNER, *n. f.* [*grenier*, Fr  
place in which threshed grain is stored]

Earth's increase, and foison plenty  
Barns and *garriers* never empty. *Sh*

For sundry foes the rural realm fur  
The fieldmouse builds her *garner* und  
For gather'd grain the blind laboriou  
In winding mazes, works her hidden

*Dryde*  
(2.) GARNER, in geography, a river of  
which joins the Garran, and runs into  
4 miles SW. of Ross in Herefordshire.

\* To GARNER, *v. a.* [from the *n*  
store as in *garriers*.—

There, where I have *garner'd* up  
Where either I must live, or bear no

GARNERANS, a town of France, i  
of Saone and Loire; 6 miles S. of Maç

(1.) \* GARNET, *n. f.* [*garnato*, Ital,  
low Latin; from its resemblance in col  
grain of the pomegranate.] The *garn*  
of a middle degree of hardness, betwe  
phire and the common crystal. It is fo  
rious sizes. Its surfaces are not so smo  
lite as those of a ruby, and its colour is  
strong red, with a plain admixture of b  
degree of colour is very different, and  
wants much of the brightness of the ru  
The *garnet* seems to be a species of the  
of the ancients: the Bohemian is red, w  
cast of a flame colour; and the Syrian is  
a slight cast of purple. *Woodward's Me*

(2.) GARNET, in natural history.  
NATE. When pure and free from blem  
little inferior in appearance to the orie  
Among lapidaries and jewellers, genui  
are known by different names accordi  
different degrees of colour. 1. The gar  
ly so called, is the finest and most valu  
being of a very deep blood-red with a  
mixture of blue. 2. The rock ruby; a  
improperly given to the garnet when it  
ry strong but not deep red, and has a

blue: this is a very beautiful gem. 3. The or scira garnet; that of a yet brighter proaching to the colour of native cinnabar, faint blue tinge. 4. The almadine, a garnet a little paler than the rock ruby.

**GARNET COLOUR.** See GLASS.  
**GARNETS, COUNTERFEIT,** are made as follows:—Take prepared crystal, 2 oz. red lead, 6 grains manganese, 16 gr. zaffre, 3 gr.: Mix all well, and into a crucible. cover it well with lute, and in a potter's kiln for 24 hours. Or take 2 oz. minium, 5½ oz. manganese, 15 gr. red, 4 gr. Mix and bake them as above.  
**GARNISH.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Ornament; decoration; embellishment.—

So are you, sweet,  
 in the lovely garnish of a boy. *Sbat.*  
 Matter and figure they produce;  
 garnish this, and that for use;  
 seek to feed and please their guests. *Prior.*  
 garnishes strewed round a dish. 3. [In gaols.]

A cant term. 4. *Penitencula carceraria;* acknowledgment in money when first a prisoner is taken into a gaol. *Ains.*  
**GARNISH.** *v. a.* [garnir, Fr.] 1. To deck with ornamental appendages.—There were rich garnished their proud heights with robes. *Sidney*—

With within with flowers was garnished,  
 when mild Zephyrus amongst them blew,  
 breathe out bounteous smells, and painted  
 colours shew. *Spenser.*

With taper light  
 the beautiful eye of heaven to garnish,  
 useful and ridiculous excess. *King John.*  
 He was a terrestrial garden, garnished with  
 lighting both the eye and taste. *Kaleigb.*  
 The streets were garnished with the citizens,  
 in their liveries. *Bacon's Henry VII.* 2.  
 garnish a dish with something laid round it.  
 What expence and art, how richly drest!  
 'd with 'sparagus, himself a feast!

*Dryden's Juvenal.*  
 To man lards salt pork with orange-peel,  
 garnishes his lamb with spitcock'd eel.

*King's Cookery.*  
 garnish with fetters. A cant term.

**GARNISHMENT.** *n. f.* [from garnish.] Ornament; embellishment.—The church of Sancta Maria in Padoua is a sound piece of good art, the materials being ordinary stone, without ornament of sculpture, ravish the beholders.

**GARNITURE.** *n. f.* [from garnish.] Furniture; ornament.—They conclude, if they fall garniture of their knees, that they are in furniture of their heads. *Gov. of T.*—  
 sense, which pleas'd your fires an age  
 o,

without the garniture of show. *Granv.*  
 she has poured out her charms upon the  
 part of our species, so they are very assiduous  
 following upon themselves the finest garniture.  
*Speator.*

GAR, a river of the Cisalpine republic, in the  
 of Lower Po. It is one of the  
 of the Po, and falls into the Adriatic  
 Port of Garo.

(1.) **GARONNE,** a fine river in the S. of France, which rises in the Pyrenees, and taking a NW. direction, waters Toulouse and Bourdeaux, below which it is joined by the Dordogne, and thence to its entrance into the bay of Biscay is called the GIRONDE. It has a navigable communication with the Mediterranean by its junction with the cidevant Royal Canal. See CANAL, § 6.

(2.) **GARONNE, UPPER,** a department of France, bounded on the N. by that of Lot; on the NE. by that of Tarn; on the SE. by those of Aude and Arriege; on the S. by Spain, and on the W. by the dept. of the Upper Pyrenees and Gers. It contains part of the cidevant province of LANGUEDOC. The Garonne runs through it. Toulouse is the capital.

\* **GAROUS.** *adj.* [from *garum.*] Resembling pickle made of fish.—In a civet cat an offensive odour proceeds, partly from its food, that being especially fish; whereof this humour may be a garous excretion, and olidous separation. *Brown.*

**GARRACHICA,** a sea port town of the isle of Teneriffe. It was destroyed by an earthquake, and overwhelmed by an eruption of the volcano on the Peak, in 1704; so that houses are now built where ships then lay at anchor.

**GARRAF,** a town of Spain in Catalonia, on the coast, 10 miles SW. of Barcelona.

(1.) \* **GARRAN.** *n. f.* [Erse.] It imports the same as gelding. The word is still retained in Scotland.] A small horse; a hobby. A Highland horse, which, when brought into the North of England, takes the name of *galloway*.—When he comes forth, he will make their cows and garrans to walk, if he doth no other harm to their persons. *Spenser.*—Every man would be forced to provide winter-fodder for his team, whereas common garrans shift upon grass the year round; and this would force men to the enclosing of grounds, so that the race of garrans would decrease. *Temple.*

(2.) **GARRAN,** in geography, a river of England, which runs into the Wye. See GARNER, N° 2.

**GARRESSIO,** a town of Italy, in Piedmont; 9 miles SW. of Ceva.

(1.) \* **GARRET.** *n. f.* [garite, the tower of a citadel, Fr.] 1. A room on the highest floor of the house.—

The mob, commission'd by the government,  
 Are seldom to an empty garret sent. *Dryden.*  
 —John Bull skipped from room to room; ran up stairs and down stairs, from the kitchen to the garret. *Arbutnot.*

On earth the god of wealth was made  
 Sole patron of the building trade;  
 Leaving the arts the spacious air,  
 With licence to build castles there:  
 And 'tis conceiv'd their old pretence,  
 To lodge in garrets, comes from thence. *Swift,*

2. Rotten wood. Not in use.—The colour of the shining part of rotten wood, by day-light, is in some pieces white, and in some pieces inclining to red, which they call the white and red garret. *Bacon.*

(2.) **GARRET,** or } an island in the Pacific ocean,  
**GARRET DENNIS.** } about 42 miles in  
 circumference, N. of New Ireland. The natives

armed with lances, bows and  
 L 5. E. Lat. 2. 30. S.  
 ARRIVE n. f. [from *garret*.] An in-  
 of a garret.  
 TETSTOWN, a town of Meath, Ireland.  
 LOCK, David, Esq; the great Roscius of  
 country, who for near 40 years shone  
 luminary in the dramatic hemisphere,  
 at the Angel Inn at Hereford, in 1716.  
 His father, Capt. Peter Garrick, was a French refuge-  
 gee, and had a troop of horse which were then  
 quartered in that city. This rank he maintained  
 in the army for several years, and was a major at  
 his death. Mr Garrick received the first rudiments  
 of his education at Litchfield; which he  
 afterwards completed at Rochester, under the cele-  
 brated Mr Colson, since professor at Cambridge.  
 Dr Johnson and he were fellow students at the  
 same school; and went up to London to push  
 themselves into active life, in the same coach. On  
 the 9th March 1736, he was entered at Lincoln's  
 Inn. He soon quitted the law and followed for  
 some time the business of a wine merchant; but  
 at last he gave way to the irresistible bias of his  
 mind, and joined a travelling company of comedians  
 at Ipswich, where he went by the name of  
*Lyddle*. Having in this poor school of Apollo got  
 some acquaintance with the theatric art, he burst  
 at once upon the world, in 1740-1, in all the lustre  
 of perfection, at the little theatre in Goodman's  
 Fields, then under the direction of Henry Giffard.  
 The character he first performed was Richard III.  
 in which, like the sun bursting from behind a  
 cloud, he displayed in the earliest dawn a some-  
 what more than meridian brightness. His unpa-  
 ralleled excellence quite astonished the public. To  
 see a young man, in his 24th year, and a mere  
 novice to the stage, reaching at one step to that  
 height of perfection, which the then capital perform-  
 ers of the English stage, had not been able to ap-  
 proach half way, after an experience of many  
 years, was a phenomenon that could not but  
 become the object of universal speculation and ad-  
 miration. The theatres at the west end of the  
 town were deserted; Goodman's Fields, from  
 being the rendezvous of citizens and their wives,  
 became the resort of all ranks of men; and Mr  
 Garrick continued to act till the close of the sea-  
 son. Being offered very advantageous terms for  
 performing in Dublin during part of the summer  
 1741, he went over, and found the same just ho-  
 mage paid to his merit, which he had received  
 from his own countrymen. In the following win-  
 ter he engaged with Fleetwood then manager of  
 Drury Lane: in which he continued till the year  
 1745, when he again went over to Ireland, and  
 continued there the whole season, joint manager  
 with Mr Sheridan of the theatre royal in Smock  
 Alley. Thence he returned to England, and en-  
 gaged for the season of 1746 with Mr Rich at Co-  
 vent Garden. This was his last performance as  
 an hired actor; for in the close of that season Mr  
 Fleetwood's patent for the management of the  
 theatre in Drury Lane being expired, Mr Gar-  
 rick and Mr Laey purchased the property of it,  
 and in winter  
 and it with the greatest part of Mr Fleet-  
 y, and with the addition of Mr

Barry, Mrs Pitchard, and Mrs Cibber, in  
 vent Garden. To trace Mr Garrick thro  
 various occurrences of his life, would sw  
 count to many pages. Suffice it to say,  
 nued in the full enjoyment of fame to t  
 of his retirement. His universality of e  
 never once admitted of a competitor.  
 comedy, and farce, the lover and the  
 jealous husband who suspects his wife  
 cause, and the thoughtless lively rake w  
 it without design, were all alike his ow  
 and ridicule, doubt and despair, trau  
 tenderness, compassion and contempt;  
 lousy, fear, fury, and simplicity; all to  
 possession of his features, while each of  
 peared to be the sole possessor of his  
 the several characters of Lear and Ham  
 ard, Dorilas, Romeo, and Lufignam  
 Ranger, Bayes, Druggier, Kitely, Brut  
 nedict; we saw the muscular conforma  
 our ideas attached to them all. In his  
 ture, from whom alone this great perf  
 rowed all his lessons, is inexhaustible,  
 darling son, and truest representative,  
 limited scope for the diversity of his g  
 manner of imitating her various pr  
 There is one part of his theatrical con  
 will ever be recorded to Mr Garrick  
 while virtue, morality, and purity of p  
 ners, are held in esteem: and that is  
 which he showed to banish from the sta  
 plays that carry with them an immora  
 and to prune from those which do n  
 whole, tend to promote the interests o  
 scenes of licentiousness, as a redundan  
 and liveliness of imagination had induc  
 our comic writers to indulge in, and  
 too prevalent spirit of gallantry and ir  
 given sanction to. The purity of t  
 stage was beyond a doubt much mor  
 blished during the administration of th  
 minister, that it had ever been during  
 managements. He carried his moral,  
 pious principles with him into the te  
 ment of the theatre itself, and rescued  
 from that obloquy which had hither  
 the profession. Of a class of men  
 accounted blackguards, unworthy the  
 of the virtuous, he made gentlemen, t  
 with society, and introduced them to t  
 of social life. The theatre was no lon  
 ed the nursery of vice; and the mor  
 ous, and even the religious part of n  
 not hesitate to partake of the ration  
 ment of a play, when they could pas  
 evening undisgusted with the licenti  
 uncorrupted by the immorality, of th  
 Notwithstanding the numberless and  
 vocations attendant on his profession  
 and his station as a manager; yet hi  
 genius frequently burst forth in variou  
 ductions in the dramatic and poetic  
 merit of which leads us to regret his  
 to compose more extensive and impo  
 Though his merit as an author is not  
 magnitude, yet his great knowledge  
 manners, of stage effect, and his ha  
 lively and striking satire, made him;

d his prologues and epilogues in parti-  
 ch are almost innumerable, possess such  
 perfection, both in the conception and  
 as to stand unequalled. His Ode on  
 of Mr Pelham run through 4 editions  
 in six weeks. His Ode on Shakespeare  
 by piece; and when delivered by him-  
 self most capital exhibition. His altera-  
 tions of Shakespeare and other authors have  
 been successful, and at times exploded. The  
 scene of the grave-digger's scene from Hamlet  
 to be forgiven by the frequenters of the  
 Drury Lane. Though necessary to the  
 of the scene, they are unwilling to lose  
 ering wit and humour; and it must be  
 at exuberances of that kind, though  
 the uniformity, yet increase the luxuri-  
 e piece. Among the plays he altered  
 following: Every man in his Humour,  
 Jonson; Romeo and Juliet, Winter's  
 crime and Petruchio, Cymbeline, Ham-  
 om Shakespeare; Gamesters, a come-  
 Shirley; and Isabella, from Southerne.  
 original productions, The Farmer's  
 and Linco's Travels, interludes; The  
 Lettice, Lying Valet, Misa in her Teens,  
 set, Irish Widow, and other comedies  
 ; The Enchanter, a musical entertain-  
 liput, the Christmas Tale, and many o-  
 have thus traced him to the period of  
 neot in spring 1776; when, full of  
 a splendid fortune, and advancing in  
 ought to enjoy in the vale of life that  
 nd honourable ease, which he had so  
 id by the activity and merits of his dra-  
 ma. But short was the period allotted to  
 enjoyment: for he died on the 20th  
 leaving not a single rival in excellence  
 to compensate for his loss.

NISH POINT, a cape of Ireland, on  
 east of Cork, 1½ m. N. of Codd's Head.  
 S, a town of France, in the dep. of  
 Gennes, 20 miles SE. of Bayonne.

GARRISON. *n. f.* [*garrison*, Fr.] 1.  
 aced in a fortified town or castle to de-

low oft he said to me,  
 t no souldier fit for Cupid's *garrison*.

*Sidney*,  
 1 place stored with soldiers.—  
 n the old Roman wall so ill confin'd,  
 ew chain of *garrisons* you bind. *Waller*.  
 e of being placed in a fortification for

Some of them that are laid in *garrisons*  
 no great hurt to the enemies. *Spenser*.  
 RRISON, (§ 1. def. 2.) and WINTER  
 are sometimes used indifferently for  
 ing; when the troops are placed in it  
 subsistence during the winter, and  
 eeping the regular guard. Du Cange  
 word from the corrupt Latin *garniso*,  
 latter writers use to signify all manner  
 s, arms, victuals, &c. necessary for the  
 a place, and sustaining of a siege.

ARRISON, a town of Ireland, in Fermans  
 iles SE. of Ballyshannon. Lon. 7. 43.  
 4. 25. N.

\* To GARRISON. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To  
 secure by fortresses.—

Others these forces join,  
 Which *garrison* the conquests near the Rhine.  
*Dryden's Juv.*

GARRISTOWN, a town of Ireland; in the  
 county of Dublin, and province of Leinster.

GARROWS, a county of Asia in India, E. of  
 Bengal, S. of the Burrampooter, and W. of Af-  
 sam.

\* GARRULITY. *n. f.* [*garrulitas*, Latin.] 1.  
 Loquacity; incontinence of tongue; inability to  
 keep a secret.—

Let me here  
 Expiate, if possible, my crime,  
 Shameful *garrulity*. *Milton*.

2. The quality of talking too much; talkativeness.  
 —Some vices of speech must carefully be avoid-  
 ed: first of all, loquacity or *garrulity*. *Ray on the*  
*Creation*.

\* GARRULOUS. *adj.* [*garrulus*, Lat.] Prate-  
 tling; talkative.—

Old age look out,  
 And *garrulous* recounts the feats of youth.  
*Thomson*.

GARSCH, a town of Austria, 4 miles SSE. of  
 Horn.

GARSTANG, a populous town of Lancash.  
 22½ miles from London, in the post road between  
 Preston and Lancaster. It is near a mile in length,  
 but built very irregularly. The church is a state-  
 ly Gothic structure. It is seated on the Wyre,  
 which, by the late inland navigation, communi-  
 cates with the Mersey, Dee, Ribble, Ouse, Trent,  
 Darwent, Severn, Humber, Thames, Avon, &c.  
 which navigation, including its windings, extends  
 above 500 miles, in the counties of Lincoln, Not-  
 tingham, York, Westmoreland, Chester, Stafford,  
 Warwick, Leicester, Oxford, Worcester, &c.  
 Garstang is 10 miles S. of Lancaster, and 22½  
 NNW. of London: Lon. 2. 53. W. Lat. 55. 56. N.

GARSTON, the name of 4 English villages:  
 1. in Berks, near Hungerford: 2. in Hertfordsh.  
 3. in Lancashire: and 4. in Staffordshire, NE. of  
 Cheattle.

GARTACH, a town of Suabia, in the duchy  
 Wirttemberg, 4½ miles NNW. of Heilbronn.

GARTAU, a town of Lunenburg Zell, 12 m.  
 E. of Lucknow, and 48 ESE. of Lunenburg.

GARTEMPE, a river of France, which runs  
 into the Creuse, near Roche-Pofay, in the dep. of  
 Indre and Loire.

(1.) \* GARTER. *n. f.* [*gardus*, Welsh; *gar-  
 tier*, French; from *gar*, Welsh, the binding of  
 the knee.] 1. A string or ribband by which the  
 stocking is held upon the leg. Let their heads be  
 sleekly comb'd, their blue coats brush'd, and their  
*garters* of an indifferent knit. *Shak.*—When we  
 rest in our cloaths we loosen our *garters*, and o-  
 ther ligatures, to give the spirits free passage.  
*Ray.*—

Handsome *garters* at your knees. *Swift*.  
 There lay three *garters*, half a pair of gloves,  
 And all the trophies of his former loves. *Pope*.

2. The mark of the order of the garter, the high-  
 est order of English knighthood.—

Now by my george, my *garter*.  
 —The



—The george, profan'd, hath lost his only honour;

The garter, blemish'd, pawn'd his knightly virtue.

You owe your Ormond nothing but a son,  
To fill in future times his father's place,  
And wear the garter of his mother's race.

*Dryden.*

3. The principal king at arms.

(2.) GARTER, in heraldry, a moiety, or the half of a BEND.

(3.) GARTER, ORDER OF THE, a military order of knighthood, the most noble and ancient of any lay order in the world, instituted by Edward III. The knights companions are generally princes and peers; and the king of England is the sovereign of the order. The number of knights was originally 26; but six were added in 1786, on account of the increase of the royal family. They are a corporation, having a great and little seal, &c. Their officers are a prelate, chancellor, register, king at arms, and usher of the black rod. They have also a dean, with 12 canons, and petty canons, vergers, and 26 pensioners or poor knights. The prelate is the head. This office has always been vested in the bishop of Winchester. Next to the prelate is the chancellor; which office is vested in the bishop of Salisbury, who keeps the seals, &c. The next is the register, who by his oath is to enter upon the registry, the scrutinies, elections, penalties, and other acts of the order with all fidelity: The dean of Windsor is always register *ex officio*. The 4th officer is Garter and King at arms, being two distinct offices united in one person. (See § 5.) He is the principal officer within the college of arms, and chief of the heralds. See KING AT ARMS. All these officers, except the prelate, have fees and pensions. The college of the order is seated in the castle of Windsor, within the chapel of St George, and the charter-house, erected by the founder for that purpose. The habit and ensign of the order are a garter, mantle, cape, george, and collar. The three first were assigned the knights companions by the founder; and the george and collar by Henry VIII. The garter challenges pre-eminence over all the other parts of the dress, as from it the order is denominated. It is the first part of the habit presented to foreign princes and absent knights, who, as well as all other knights elect, are therewith first adorned; and it is of so great honour and grandeur, that by the bare investiture with this noble ensign, the knights are esteemed companions of the greatest military order in the world. It is worn on the left leg between the knee and calf, and is enamelled with this motto, HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE. (See § 4.) The mantle is the chief of these vestments made use of upon all solemn occasions. The colour of the mantle is by the statutes appointed to be blue. The length of its train only distinguishes the sovereign from the knights companions. To the collar of the mantle is fixed a pair of long strings, anciently woven with blue silk only, but now round, and made of Venice gold and silk, surmounted with blue silk only, but now of the robe; with knobs or buttons at the end. The left shoulder has from been adorned with a large garter,

with the device, HONI SOIT, &c.

is the cross of the order, which was be worn at all times by king Charles I. the star was introduced, being a sort of diadem with beams of silver. The collar is composed of pieces of gold in the form of garters, the ground enamelled blue, and set with gold. In 1551, Edward VI. made alterations in the ritual of this order: that it should be in Latin, the original whereof was in his own hand-writing. He thought that the order should no longer be called *of St George*, but the *order of the garter* instead of the *George*, hung at the collar substituted a cavalier, bearing a book or tablet of his sword, with the word, *protegi* the sword, and *verbum Dei* on the book buckle in the left hand, and the word *on*. When the knights do not wear it they are to have a silver star on the left they commonly bear the picture of the cross enamelled on gold, and beset with diamonds the end of a blue ribbon, crossing the left shoulder. They are not to appear without the garter, on penalty of 6s. the register. The manner of electing a companion into this most noble order ceremonies of investiture, are these: the sovereign designs to elect a companion the chancellor of the order draws the garter, which, passing both under the sign manual and signet of the order, the person by Garter principal king at arms, which is of blue velvet bordered with gold wire, having the letters of the motto the time of election, buckled upon it by two of the senior companions, who come from the sovereign, to whom it was presented upon a velvet cushion, by the king at arms, with the usual reverence, the chancellor reads the following admonition by the statutes: "To the honour and pre-eminence, and in memorial of the blessed St George, tie about thy leg, for thy part of this noble garter; wear it as the symbol of this most illustrious order, never to be so laid aside; that thereby thou mayest be ed to be courageous; and having undertaken just war, in which thou shalt be engaged, mayest stand firm, valiantly fight, and conquer." The princely garter being put on, and the word of its significance pronounced, the knight elect is brought before the sovereign, who puts about his neck, kneeling, a blue ribbon, whereunto is appendant a gold cross within the garter, the image of St George on horseback, with his sword drawn, and a dragon. In the mean time the chancellor reads the following admonition: "this ribbon about thy neck, adorned with the image of the blessed martyr and soldier of St George, by whose imitation thou mayest so overpass both prosperous and adverse adventures, that having stoutly vanquished thy enemies both of body and soul, thou mayest only receive the praise of this transfer but be crowned with the palm of eternity." Then the knight elected kisses the



banks his majesty for the great honour; rises up, and salutes all the company, who return their congratulations. In the institution of this order, there have been kings and all kings, besides numerous sovereigns, enrolled as companions.

**ARTER, ORIGIN OF THE ORDER OF THE GARTER,** is variously related by historians. The most probable account is, that the king of Salisbury happening at a ball to drop the ring, the king took it up and presented it to him with these words, "*Mais soit qui mal y pense!*" to him that evil thinks. This accident led to the order and the motto; it being the first time that love and war together. The original statutes however there is not the least allusion to such a circumstance, farther conveyed in the motto. Camden, Fern, and others, the order to have been instituted on the occasion of the victory obtained by Edward over the king at the battle of CRESSY. That prince, according to historians, ordered his garter to be displayed as a signal of battle; in commemoration of which he made a garter the principal ornament of his armor, erected in memory of this signal vic- toria a symbol of the indissoluble union of the king and his people.

And they account for the motto, that the king having laid claim to the kingdom of France, denounced shame and defiance upon him who should dare to think amiss of the just enterprise undertaken for recovering his lawful crown; and that the bravery of those knights whom he had elected into this order was such as would enable him to maintain the quarrel, and that *thought ill* of it. This interpretation, however, appears to be rather forced. A more ancient origin of this order is given in *Becket's*, lib. vi. quoted by Granger, in the 1st to his *Biographical History*: viz. that it was instituted by Richard I. at the siege of Acres, and that 26 knights, who firmly stood by their sovereign, were clothed in blue leather about their waists, and that it was revived and perfected in the reign of Edward III.

**ARTER PRINCIPAL KING AT ARMS.** The principal king at arms, are two distinct offices in one person: Garter's employment is to attend the service of the order of the garter; for which he is allowed a mantle and badge, a house or castle, and pensions both from the king and knights, besides fees. He also carries the sword and sceptre at every feast of St George, when the sovereign is present, and notifies the names of such as are new chosen; attends the marriages of their installations, and funerals; and is employed in placing their arms over their seats; and in presenting the garter to foreign kings and princes, and in the service it has been usual to join him in the coronation of a king with some peer, or other person of rank. Garter's oath relates only to services performed within the order, and is taken before the sovereign and knights. As king at arms, is taken before the earl

**ARTER. v. a.** [from the noun.] To bind or fetter.—He, being in love, could not see his horse. *Shak.*—A person was wound-

ed in the leg, below the gartering place. *Wife-man's Surgery.*

(1.) **GARTH**, Sir Samuel, an excellent English poet and physician, descended from a good family in Yorkshire. He studied at Cambridge where he took the degree of M. D. in 1691, and was admitted into the college of physicians at London in 1693. He zealously promoted the erecting of the dispensary for the relief of the sick poor. This work of charity having exposed him and many other philanthropic physicians to the resentment of others of the same faculty, he ridiculed them, with peculiar spirit and vivacity, in a poem called the *Dispensary*, in six cantos, highly esteemed. He was one of the most eminent members of the Kit-Kat Club. See **KIT-KAT**. Upon the accession of George I. he was knighted, and made physician to his majesty, and the army. Nor were these more than just rewards of his physical as well as political merits. He had gone through the office of censor of the college in 1702; and practised always with a strict regard to the honour of the faculty, never prostituting the dignity of his profession, from interested motives, to any even the most popular and wealthy apothecaries. He had a very extensive practice, but was very moderate in advancing his own fortune; his humanity inclining him more to use the great interest he had, for the encouragement of other men of letters. He lived with the great in that degree of independence which became a man possessed of superior genius. One of his last performances was his translation of the 14th book, and the story of Cippus in the 15th of Ovid's *Metamorphoses*. These, with an English version of the rest, were published in 1717; and he prefixed an excellent preface to the whole, wherein he not only points out the principal beauties of the poem, but shows its uses, and how it may be read to most advantage. He died in Jan. 1718—19; and his death caused a general concern; which was particularly testified by lord Lansdown, a brother poet, though of a different party, in some admirable verses written on the occasion.

(2.) **GARTH**, *n. s.* [as if *girtb*, from *gird*.] The bulk of the body measured by the girdle.

(3.) **GARTH** is used in some parts of England for a little back-yard or close. It is an ancient British word. *Gardd*, in that language, signifies *garden*, and is pronounced *gartb*. It is also used for a dam or wear, &c.

**GARTH-MAN**, in the old English statutes, one who catches fish by means of fish garths, or wears. See **GARTH**, N° 3. By statute 17. Ric. II. c. 9. no fisher, nor garth-man, shall use any nets or engines to destroy the fry of fish, &c. The word is supposed to be derived from the Scotch word *gart*, the preterite of the verb, *To GAR*, *i. e.* to force or compel; because fish are forced by the wear to pass into a lopp, where they are taken.

**GARTLY**, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, 12 miles long from E. to W. 6 broad, and of an irregular oval form. It is divided nearly in the centre, by the Bogie, and bounded on the E. and W. by heath-covered hills. The soil is fertile, and produces luxuriant crops of oats, bear, peas, potatoes, turnips and cabbages; husbandry being much improved. The population in 1793, stated

by

by the rev. Mr James Scott, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1800, and had increased 472, since 1755. The number of horses was 340; of sheep, 4,500, and of black cattle, 1,500. A man died in it, in 1788, aged 102.

**GARTMORN DAM**, an artificial lake in Clackmannanshire, formed about the beginning of the 18th century, for the use of the Alloa coal-works. Mr J. F. Erskine of Marr thus describes it: When full it covers 162 English acres. The head is faced with rough hewn stone, and measures 320 yards. It has a sluice, which regulates the quantity of water to be conveyed into a lade, which first drives a mill for chipping wood and dye stuffs; next a lint mill; then it is conveyed into pipes forcing it up to 2 engines, that draw up the water and the coals from the pits; after which it is collected into a smaller dam, and conveyed thence in a lade, to a set of mills in Alloa for grinding wheat, oats, malt, and barley; which are capable of grinding 400 bolls, or 250 quarters in a day. There are 2 large wheels, 19 feet diameter in the centre of the house, which drive the whole machinery, in both ends of the mills. From these mills, the water falls into a rivulet, that runs through Alloa, drives a snuff and fulling mill, and passing through Mr Erskine's pleasure grounds, comes near the harbour, where it is again confined by a strong dam of earth, a large sluice, and a long trough, both of stone; which gives it a prodigious velocity for clearing the harbour; so that this little water, originally a branch of the Black Devon, is made to serve the most important purposes, by driving 7 mills besides cleaning the harbour. *Stat. Acc. Vol. VIII.*

(1.) **GARTZ**, a town of Germany, in Prussian Pomerania, near the marche of Brandenburg. Lon. 14. 18. E. Lat. 53. 13. N.

(2.) **GARTZ**, a town of Pomerania, in the isle of Rugen, on the site of the ancient Carenz.

**GARUAGH**, a town of Ireland, in Derry.

**GARVAGHY**, a town of Ireland, in Down.

(1.) **GARV.ALD**, [Gael. from *gar*, rugged, and *vald*, a burn.] a parish of Scotland, in Haddingtonshire, united with that of **BARO**, in 1702. Agreeably to its Gaelic name, it is watered by a very rugged rivulet, which, when swelled by the rains, overflows its banks. The two parishes extend from E. to W. 8½ miles, and from N. to S. about 4½. The air is pure and healthy. The soil is partly light gravel, and partly deep rich clay. Wheat, barley, oats, pease, turnips, potatoes and clover, are the produce. Husbandry is highly improved. The farmers are uncommonly intelligent. The population of both parishes in 1793, stated by the rev. Mr Andrew Nisbet, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 730, and had decreased 44, since 1755. The number of horses was 314; of sheep 6080; and of black cattle, 575. There are several antiquities in the parishes, particularly the ruins of White-castle, the ancient castle of Yester, and a large fortification on a rising of a circular form, 1500 feet in circum-

**VALD**, a village in the above parish, situated on the rivulet above described, which, swelled to such a pitch, that it

had almost swept the village totally away, and left 214 inhabitants in 1793.

**GARVAO**, two towns of Portugal. 1. on the S. side of the Tajo, 12 miles from Oporto. 2. six miles W. of Ourique.

**GARVELACH**, an island on the N. side of Argyllshire, 8 miles SE. of the isle of Mull.

**GARVILANS**, an island on the N. side of Ireland, in Donegal, 2 miles ESE. of the town of Dungannon.

**GARUMNA**, a navigable river of Gaul, rising from the Pyrenees, anciently called Aquitain on the N.; but, by a law of Augustus, divided in the middle: the N. of Burdegala, into the Aquitain. It is now called GARONNE. Mela observes, unless it is swelled by winter rains, or by the snow, it is for a great part shoaly and scarce navigable; but when by the meeting tide, whereby its water is pelled, it is somewhat fuller, and the river advances, it is broader, till at length it forms an extensive frith; not only in vessels, but swelling like a raging sea, extremely, especially if the direction of the wind be one way and that of the current another.

(1.) **GARVOCK**, [Gael. *i. e.* the top of] a hill of Scotland, in Kincardineshire, 10 miles S. of the Grampians, one mile high, and steep on the N. side, but having a gradual ascent of 4 miles on the S.

(2.) **GARVOCK**, a parish in Kincardineshire, partly seated on the above hill, (N. 30. E. 10. S.) long and 4 broad, containing 8006 E. of which above one 3d is arable. The soil is moist; the soil is deep and wet, on a level. The high grounds are covered with heath and furze. Oats, barley, turnips, potatoes, wheat, are the produce. The population in 1793, stated by the rev. Mr Alexander Thrope, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 460, and had decreased 295, since 1755. A large fair for horses, &c. is held in August.

**GARWOLIN**, a town of Poland, in the province of Pomerania, 36 miles N. of Custrin, and 53 N. of Danzig.

**GARZ**, a town of Pomerania, 36 miles N. of Custrin, and 53 N. of Danzig. It was surrounded with walls in 1258.

**GARZA**, a small river of the Cisalpine Gauls, in the dep. of Mela, and late province of Calabria.

**GARZIS**, a town of Africa, in the province of Melilla. The houses are built of mud.

(1.) \* **GAS**. *n. f.* [A word invented by Van Helmont.] It is used by Van Helmont, to signify, in general, a spirit which has been coagulated: but he uses it loosely for all kinds of spirits.

(2.) **GAS** is a general name for all kinds of aerial kind, except common air. It is derived from the German *gascht* or *gasst*, signification of wind, or the ebullition or expulsion of elastic fluids from substances by fermentation or effervescence. It was first given by Van Helmont to the vapour which he obtained from the vapour of coal, the same with the fluid after it has been fixed air, now carbonic acid, and other facitious airs. From him it has been employed by modern philosophers as a general one for all the elastic fluids above

inverfant. Under the article **AEROL-  
TURE** and properties of these fluids are  
according to the tenets and language  
they, and others, at the time when that  
celebrated work *On different kinds of Air*  
occupied the attention of the philosophi-  
Many additional discoveries, however,  
since made, and a new language in-  
indicative of the component parts of  
gases undergoing any chemical change,  
will find the subject treated in a still  
improved way under the article **CHEMISTRY**.  
**ARN**, a town of Sweden, in the prov. of  
1, 43 miles NNE. of Carlstadt.

**IGN**. See **GASCOIN**.  
**SCOIGNE**, George, an English poet  
lived in the reign of Q. Elizabeth. He  
was of Essex, of an ancient family, and edu-  
cated at Oxford and Cambridge. From thence  
he went to Gray's Inn, but, having a genius  
for the law, he travelled and for some  
years in the army in the Low Countries.  
He then went to France, where he became  
acquainted with a Scottish lady, and married her.  
He returned to England, and settled once  
more at Gray's Inn, where he wrote most of his  
poems. In the latter part of his life he spent in his  
estate of Walthamstow, where he died in  
1600. He was the character of a polite gentleman, a  
good companion, *et vir inter poetas sui seculi pre-  
santissimus*. His plays, first printed separately,  
were afterwards re-printed with other poems, in  
1616; in 1577 and 1587.

**SCOIGNE**, Sir William, chief justice of  
the bench under Henry IV.; a most learned  
judge, who, being insulted on the  
bench by the then prince of Wales, afterwards  
with great coolness and intrepidity com-  
mitted him to prison; and by this seasonable firm-  
ness laid the foundation of the future glory of  
that monarch, who from this event dated  
his reign from licentiousness. It is not  
surprising that the prince struck Sir Wil-  
liam, as recorded by Shakespeare; but all authors  
agree that he interrupted the course of justice to  
be served. Sir William died in 1413.  
**THIGH**, or **GASCOIGN**, is the hinder thigh  
of a ham, which begins at the stifle, and reaches  
to the hending of the ham.

**GAZONADE**. *n. f.* [French; from *Gascogne*,  
a province for boasting.] A boast; a brag;  
as it is a *gaizonade* to please me, that your  
good fortune was increased to one hundred  
times; I left you? *Swift*.

**GAZONADE**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To  
brag; to bluster.

**GASCONES**, or **VASCONES**, the ancient in-  
habitants of Gascony, called by the moderns, *Bas-  
ques*, or *GASCOONS*. See next articles.

**GAU**, a ci devant province of France,  
situated between the N. by Languedoc  
and the Pyrenees on the S. and by the  
ocean on the W. It had its name from  
the Gauls, its ancient inhabitants. After  
being subdued by the Franks, they had for  
kings of their own, who were subject  
to the kings of Aquitaine; but both were at last  
conquered by the kings of France. It produces  
**PART. I.**

corn, wine, fruit, tobacco, hemp, brandy, prunes,  
&c. It now forms along with **ARMAGNAC** the  
department of **GERS**.

**GASCOONS**, the people of the ci-devant pro-  
vince of Gascony. They are noted for a corrupt  
pronunciation of the French tongue, as well as  
for boasting and rhodomontade.

**GASCUENA**, a town of Spain, in New Castile,  
30 miles NNW. of Cuenca.

**GASEOUS**, *adj.* Belonging to Gas. See **GAS**.

\* **GASH**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. A deep and  
wide wound.—

He glancing on his helmet, made a large  
And open *gash* therein; were not his target,  
That broke the violence of his intent,  
The weary soul from thence it would discharge.

*Spenser.*

A perilous *gash*, a very limb lopt off.

*Shakspeare. Hen. IV.*

—Hamilton drove Newton almost to the end of  
the lists; but Newton on a sudden gave him such  
a *gash* on the leg, that therewith he fell to the  
ground. *Hayward*.—

But th' ethereal substance clos'd,

Not long divisible; and from the *gash*

A stream of nectarous humour issuing flow'd.

*Milton.*

2. The mark of a wound. I know not if this be  
proper.—I was fond of back-sword and cudgel  
play, and I now bear in my body many a black  
and blue *gash* and scar. *Arbutnot*.

\* **To GASH**. *v. a.* [from *hacher*, to cut, French.  
*Skinner*.] To cut deep so as to make a gaping  
wound; to cut with a blunt instrument so as to  
make the wound wide.—Where the Englishmen  
at arms had been defeated, many of their horses  
were found grievously *gashed* or gored to death.  
*Hayward*.—Wit is a keen instrument, and every  
one can cut and *gash* with it; but to carve a beau-  
tiful image requires art. *Tillotson*.—

See me *gash'd* with knives,

Or fear'd with burning steel. *Rowe's R. Conu.*

Streaming with blood, all over *gash'd* with  
wounds,

He reel'd, he groan'd, and at the altar fell.

*A. Phillips.*

**GASK**, [Gael. *i. e.* a slope,] a parish of Perth-  
shire, bounded on the S. by the Earn, and in form  
nearly a square, each side of which is above two  
miles. An ancient Roman causeway runs through  
it, and the ground *slopes* gradually down from it  
on each side. This causeway is 20 feet broad,  
and is in high preservation; being composed of  
rough stones laid close together; leading W. to  
one camp still visible in the parish of Muthil, and  
E. to another in that of Scone. Vestiges of other  
two camps on the N. and S. surrounded by ditches,  
are also visible. The air is dry and healthy; the  
soil is fertile, and produces wheat, barley, oats,  
pease, potatoes, turnips, and clover. The po-  
pulation, stated by the rev. Mr David Kemp, in  
his report to Sir John Sinclair, was 485, in 1790;  
when there were 50 sheep, 131 horses, and 648  
black cattle in the parish.

\* **GASKINS**. *n. f.* [from *Gascogne*. See **GAL-  
LIGASKINS**.] Wide hose; wide breeches. An  
old ludicrous word.—

If one point break, the other will hold;  
Or, if both break, your *gaskins* fall. *Shakefp.*  
\* **GASP.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of opening the mouth to catch breath. 2. The short catch of breath in the last agonies.—

His fortunes all lie speechless, and his name  
Is at last *gasp*. *Shakefp. Cymbeline.*  
Ah, Warwick, Montague hath breath'd his  
last;  
And to the latest *gasp* cry'd out for Warwick.

*Shakefp. Hen. VI.*  
If in the dreadful hour of death,  
If at the latest *gasp* of breath,  
When the cold damp bedews your brow,  
You hope for mercy, shew it now. *Addis. Ros.*

\* **To GASP.** *v. n.* [from *gaber* Skinner; from *gisse*, Danish, to sob, *Junius*.] 1. To open the mouth wide; to catch breath with labour.—

The sick for air before the portal *gasp*. *Virg.*  
They rais'd a feeble cry with trembling notes;  
But the weak voice deceiv'd their *gasp*ing throats.

*Dryden.*  
The *gasp*ing head flies off; a purple flood  
Flows from the trunk. *Dryden's En.*  
The ladies *gasp'd*, and scarcely could respire;  
The breath they drew no longer air, but fire.

*Dryden.*  
—A scantling of wit lay *gasp*ing for life, and groaning  
beneath a heap of rubbish. *Dryden's Spanish  
Friar.*—The rich countrymen in Austria were faint  
and *gasp*ing for breath. *Brown's Trav.*—

Pale and faint,  
He *gasp*s for breath; and, as his life flows from him,  
Demands to see his friends. *Addison's Cata.*

2. To emit breath by opening the mouth convul-  
sively.—

I lay me down to *gasp* my latest breath;  
The wolves will get a breakfast by my death.

*Dryden.*  
He staggers round, his eyeballs roll in death,  
And with short sobs he *gasp*s away his breath.

*Dryden's An.*  
3. To long for. This sense is, I think, not proper,  
as nature never expresses desire by *gasp*ing.—  
The Castilian and his wife had the comfort to be  
under the same master, who, seeing how dearly  
they loved one another, and *gasp*ed after their li-  
berty, demanded a most exorbitant price for their  
ransom. *Spektator.*

**GASPAR ISLAND,** an island and channel in  
**GASPAR STRAITS,** the Eastern Seas, between  
the isles of Banca and Billiton. Lon. 107.00. E.  
Lat. 1.45. S.

**GASPARINI,** a celebrated grammarian, born  
at Barzizia, about 1370, who contributed much  
to the revival of learning in Europe. He read  
Cicero, Cæsar, Virgil, &c. entered into their spi-  
rit, and communicated it to his pupils. He was  
invited to be professor of belles lettres at Padua,  
but the duke of Milan retained him and loaded  
him with favours. He wrote commentaries on  
Cicero, and Letters and Orations, reprinted in  
1723, with a curious and useful preface. He died  
in 1431.

**GASPE,** or **GACHEPE,** a bay and head land  
America, S. of Florell isle, E. of Lower Ca-  
1 W. of the Gulf of St Lawrence.

**GASPEE,** or **NAMQUIT POINT,** in  
America, projecting from the W. in  
Providence. Here a British armed schu-  
ed *the Gaspee*, was burnt the 10th Jun  
about 60 men from Providence, paint-  
dians.

**GASPESIA,** a tract of country,  
Canada, S. of the Lawrence, and N. of  
Bay.

**GASSE,** a town of Piedmont, on  
miles S. of Chivasso.

**GASSENDI,** one of the most cele-  
brious philosophers France has produced, was bo-  
rner, about 3 miles from Digne in P  
1592. When a child, he took delight  
at the moon and stars in clear uncloud  
This frequently drew him into bye-pla  
his eyes undisturbed; by which means  
had him often to seek, with many an  
They therefore put him to school  
where he soon made such extraordina  
in learning, that some persons, who  
cimens of his genius, resolved to ha  
moved to Aix, to study philosophy in  
a learned minor friar. He was afterw  
to be professor of rhetoric at Digne  
was quite sixteen years of age; and h  
engaged in that office but three years;  
dying, he was made professor in his re  
There he composed his *Paradoxical Ex*  
which, coming to the hands of Nich  
that great patron of learning joined  
Walter prior of Valette in promoting  
he having entered into holy orders, wa  
canon of the church of Digne and D. I  
obtained the rectorship of that church.  
fondness for astronomy grew up with  
and his reputation daily increasing,  
1645, appointed royal professor of mat  
Paris. This institution being chiefly c  
astronomy, he read lectures on that  
crowded audiences. However, he did n  
place long; for a dangerous cough an  
tion of the lungs, obliged him, in 164;  
to Digne for the benefit of his native air  
wrote against the metaphysics of Desc  
divided with that great man the phil  
his time, almost all of whom were C  
Gassendians. He joined to his knowle  
sophy and the mathematics, an ac  
with the languages and a profound  
He wrote, 1. Three volumes on Ep  
sophy; and six others, which contain  
philosophy. 2. Astronomical Work  
Lives of Nicholas de Peiresc, Epicu  
nicus, Tycho Brahe, Puerbachius,  
montanus. 4. Epistles, and other tre  
his works were collected together, :  
at Lyons, in 1658, in 6 vols folio.

Paris, in 1655, aged 63.

**GASSENHOVEN,** a town of the  
public, in the dept. of the Dyle, and in  
Netherlands, 3 miles NE. of Tirlemor  
13. E. Lat. 50. 50. N.

\* **GAST.** *v. a.* [from *gast*, Sax. See  
To make aghast; to fright; to shock  
to fear; to affray.—

he saw my best alarmed spirits  
the quarrel's right, rous'd to th' en-  
counter,

then *galled* by the noise I made,  
leicely he fled. *Shak. K. Lear.*

**EIN**, a town of Bavaria, in the arch-  
of Salzburg, 16 miles SW. of Rad-  
36 S. of Salzburg; famous for its warm  
mines of gold, lead, and iron.

**EL**, a river of Wales, which runs into  
17, in Caernarvonshire.

**STER**, a ci-devant bailiwick of Switzer-  
canton of Schwitz and Glaris.

**STER**, a fort of Africa, in the country  
fa.

**ROSTEUS**, the STICKLE BACK, in  
7, a genus of fishes belonging to the  
toracici. There are 3 rays in the men-  
the gills; the body is carinated; and  
some distinct prickles before the back  
are 11 species distinguished by the  
prickles on the back. One of these,

**ROSTEUS ACULEATUS**, stickle-back,  
or sharpling, is common in many of the  
rs. In the fens of Lincolnshire and some  
proceed from them, they are found in  
quantities. At Spalding, once in 7 or  
razing shoals appear in the Welland,  
up the river in form of a vast column,  
supposed to be the multitudes that have  
d out of the fens by the floods of seve-  
and collected in some deep hole, till e-  
with numbers, they are periodically  
attempt a change of place. The quan-  
vat, that they are used to manure the  
trials have been made to get oil from  
idea may be conceived of this vast shoal,  
ld, that a man being employed by the  
take them, has got for a considerable  
lay by selling them for a halfpenny per  
his species is seldom two inches long;  
rp spines on the back, that can be raised  
d at pleasure. The colour of the back  
an olive green; the belly white; but  
lower jaws and belly are of a bright

**OUND**. See GAZE HOUND.

**IOIS**. See GATINOIS.

**RF**, a town of Bohemia, in the circle  
tz, 8 miles SE. of Leitmeritz.

**UNI**, a town of Turkey, in the Morea,  
of Chiarenza.

**ELL**, Francis, Bp. of Chester, was  
2, appointed preacher to the society  
Inn, in 1694, and made Bp. of Chel-  
s. He preached a course of sermons  
lectures; engaged in the Trinitarian  
with Mr Collins and Dr Clarke; and  
two excellent pieces, intitled, *Christian*  
*and A Moral Proof of a Future State*. He  
the rights of the university of Oxford  
Abp. of Canterbury, in the appoint-  
warden of Manchester college; and  
violent proceedings against Bp. Atter-  
house of lords, though he disliked the  
itary principles. He died in 1725.

**STRICK**, *adj.* [from *γαστήρ*.] Belong-  
chly.

(2.) **GASTRICK JUICE**, a thin pellucid liquor,  
which distils from certain glands in the stomach,  
for the dilution, &c. of the food. See **ANATOMY**,  
*Index*.

**GASTROCNEMIUS**. See **ANATOMY**, § 217.

**GASTROMANCY**, γ [from *γαστήρ*, the belly,  
**GASTROMANTIA**, { and *μαντήρ*, divination,}

a kind of divination practised among the ancients,  
by means of words coming or seeming to come  
out of the belly. There is another kind of *gastro-*  
*mancy*, which is performed by means of glasses, or  
other round transparent vessels, within which cer-  
tain figures appear by magic art. It is thus call-  
ed, because the figure appears as in the belly of  
the vessels.

(1.) \* **GASTRORAPHY**. *n. f.* [from *γαστήρ* and *ραφή*.]  
In strictness of etymology signifies no more than  
sewing up any wound of the belly; yet in com-  
mon acceptation it implies, that the wound of  
the belly is complicated with another of the in-  
testine. *Sharp's Surg.*

(2.) **GASTRORAPHY**. See **SURGERY**, *Index*.

(1.) \* **GASTROTOMY**. *n. f.* [from *γαστήρ* and *τομή*.]  
The act of cutting open the belly.

(2.) **GASTROTOMY** is also called the **CÆSARIAN**  
**OPERATION**. See **MIDWIFERY**.

\* **GAT**. The preterite of *gēt*.—Moses *gat* him  
up into the mount. *Ex. xxiv. 18.*

(1.) **GATA**, a town of Spain, in Estremadura,  
55 miles NNW. of Conza.

(2.) **GATA**, a river of Spain, which rises near  
the town (N<sup>o</sup> 5.) and runs into the Alagon, 15  
miles NNW. of Conza.

**GATAKER**, Thomas, a learned critic and di-  
vine, born at London, in 1574. He studied at St  
John's college, Cambridge, and was afterwards  
chosen preacher at Lincoln's Inn; which he quit-  
ted in 1612, for the rectory of Rotherhithe. In  
1620, he made a tour through the low countries;  
and in 1624, published at London a book, entitled,  
"Transubstantiation declared by the confession of  
the Popish Writers to have no necessary founda-  
tion in God's Word." He wrote also a defence of  
this discourse. In 1642, he was appointed one of  
the assembly of divines, and was engaged with  
them in writing annotations upon the Bible. He  
died in July 1654, in the 80th year of his age. He  
published also, 1. A Dissertation upon the Style of  
the New Testament. 2. *De nomine tetragramma-*  
*ta*. 3. *De diphthongis, sive bivocalibus*. 4. An Edi-  
tion and Translation of Marcus Antoninus's Me-  
ditations. 5. A Collection of Sermons, in folio;  
and many other works. His piety and charity  
were very exemplary; and his modesty was so  
great, that he declined all ecclesiastical dignity.  
His extensive learning was much admired; his  
house was a private seminary, and many foreigners  
resorted to him to receive advice in their studies.

(1, i.) \* **GATE**. *n. f.* [from *gat*, Saxon.] 1. The  
door of a city, castle, palace, or large building.—  
Open the *gate* of mercy, gracious God!

My soul flies thro' these wounds to seek thee.  
*Shakesp.*

*Gates of monarchs*  
Are arch'd so high, that giants may jet through,  
And keep their impious turbans on, without  
Good-morrow to the sun. *Shak. Cymbeline.*

L 1 3 2. A

2. A frame of timber upon hinges to give a passage into inclosed grounds.—

Know'st thou the way to Dover?

—Both stile and gate, horseway and footpath.

*Shakesp.*

3. An avenue; an opening.—Auria had done nothing but wisely and politickly, in setting the Venetians together by the ears with the Turks, and opening a gate for a long war. *Knolles's History of the Turks.*

(ii.) GATE, (§ I, i. def. 1.) See ARCHITECTURE. Thebes, in Egypt, was anciently stiled the city with a hundred gates. In ancient Rome there was a triumphal gate, *porta triumphalis*. In modern Rome there is the *jubilee gate*, which is only opened in the year of a grand jubilee. The gates of London were many of them converted into gaols or prisons, as Ludgate, Newgate, &c. but they are now removed. The lesser or bye-gates are called *posterns*. Gates through which coaches &c. are to pass, should not be less than 7 feet broad, nor more than 12; the height,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  the breadth.

(II.) GATE, or GAIT, in the manege, called in French *train*, is used for the going or pace of a horse.

(III.) GATES, in a military sense, are made of strong planks, with iron bars, to oppose an enemy. They are generally made in the middle of the curtain, from whence they are seen, and defended by the two flanks of the bastions. They should be covered with a good ravelin, that they may not be seen or enfiladed by the enemy. These gates, belonging to a fortified place, are passages through the rampart, which may be shut and opened by means of doors and a portcullis. They are either private or public:

1. GATES, PRIVATE, are those passages by which the troops can go out of the town unseen by the enemy, when they pass to and from the relief of the duty in the outworks, or on any other occasion which is to be concealed from the besiegers.

2. GATES, PUBLIC, are those passages through the middle of such curtains, to which the great roads of public ways lead. The dimensions of these are usually about 13 or 14 feet high, and 9 or 10 feet wide, continued through the rampart, with proper recesses for foot passengers to stand in, out of the way of wheel carriages.

(IV.) GATES OF HELL, an expression used in scripture figuratively to denote either the *grave* or the *powers of darkness*, i. e. the devil and his angels. The Mahometans use it literally, and suppose that hell has 7 gates. The first, they pretend, is that where Mussulmans, who incur the guilt of sin, will be tormented; the 2d is for the Christians; the 3d for the Jews; the 4th for the Sabins; the 5th for the Magians or worshippers of fire; the 6th for Pagans and idolaters; and, the 7th for hypocrites, who make an outward show of religion, but have none.

GATEHOUSE, a town of Scotland, in Kirkcudbrightshire, on the mouth of the river Fleet, 13 miles W. of Kirkcudbright. It has 3 regular streets, and carries on a cotton manufacture.

GATES, a county of North Carolina, in Eden-1. bounded on the N. by Virginia, and was a county. It contained 3173 citizens,

and 2119 slaves, in 1795. Hertford town.

GATESHEAD, a village of Durham kind of suburb of Newcastle, though in other county, being divided by the *gate* in the middle, having the arms on one side, and those of Newcastle on which is the boundary between the bishopric of Northumberland. The church is a fine one with a very high tower, seen at a great distance, and in the church yard are several monuments. There are few traces left of a monastery, except a stone gateway, modern erection. The house covers a great deal of land. Here live the coal pit men.

\* GATEVEIN. *n. f.* The *vena porta* a king that loved wealth, he could not have trade sick, nor any obstruction in the *gatevein* which disperseth that *con's* Henry VIII.

\* GATEWAY. *n. f.* [gate and way] through gates of inclosed grounds, between inclosures are so many, that cart between one field and another.

(1.) GATH, or GETH, in ancient times a city of the Philistines, and one of the most famous for having given birth to David made a conquest of it, and made it subject to his successors, till the death of the kingdom of Judah. Rehoboam rebuilt it; king Uzziah retook it, and Hezekiah more reduced it under his subjection, about 5 or 6 miles from Jamnia, about 31 W. of Jerusalem.

Some authors, among whom is F. Calmet, have committed an egregious mistake in making it the most southern, and Ekron the most northern of the Philistine cities; as if these had been the boundaries of their dominions, when they were not above 5 miles asunder; and Gath was one of the five satrapies S. Josephus explains himself plainly enough, when he says, that he took all the Philistine cities from Gath, there being many more cities of that name; signifies in the Hebrew a *wine press*. Some of the name of Geth or Gath are mentioned by Eusebius and St Jerome, whose situation of them, plainly shows them to be different places from this, and from each other. This city recovered its liberty in the time of the prophets Amos and Hosea, and was afterwards demolished by Hazael; since which it became of but little notice till the time of the holy war, when Saladin of Jerusalem built a castle on its ruins.

(2.) GATH, GATH-EPHER, or GATH OPPER, a town of the tribe of Dan, in Galilee, a place of the tribe of Dan. Joshua makes this city to be part of the tribe of Dan; and St Jerome, in his commentary on the prophet, says, that it was two miles from another place otherwise called *Diocesarea*.

(3.) GATH RIMMON, a city belonging to the tribe of Dan. St Jerome places it in the tribe of Dan, on the way from Eleuthero to Diospolis, given to the Levites of Kohath's family.



THE RIMMON, a city in the tribe of  
likewise given to the Kohathites.

THE RIMMON, a city in the half tribe of  
on this side Jordan, also given to the

2. **GATHER.** *v. a.* [*gatheran*, Saxon.]  
left; to bring into one place.—*Gather*  
ed they took stones and made an heap.  
to get in harvest.—The seventh year we  
sow, nor *gather* in our increase. *Lev.*  
3. To pick up; to glean.—

His opinions

tified the king for his divorce,  
d from all the famous colleges. *Shak.*  
the highway, *gather* out the stones. *If*  
I will spend this preface upon those from  
aye *gathered* my knowledge; for I am  
herer. *Wotton.*—To pay the creditor,  
him his rent, he must *gather* up money  
a. *Locke.* 4. To crop; to pluck.—

What have I done?

my youth, my beauty, and my love  
ner gain'd, but slighted and betray'd;  
e a rose just *gather'd* from the stalk,  
y smelt, and cheaply thrown aside,  
her on the ground! *Dryd. Span. Fryar.*  
semble.—They have *gathered* themselves  
gainst me. *Job.*—All the way we went  
e *gathered* some people on both sides,  
n a row. *Bacon's New Atlantis.* 6. To

to accumulate.—He that by usury and  
n increaseth his substance, shall gather it  
at will pity the poor. *Prov.* 7. To se-  
ake.—Save us, O Lord, and *gather* us  
ng the heathen, to give thanks unto thy  
e. *Pf. cvi. 47.* 8. To sweep together.—  
dom of heaven is like unto a net that was  
be sea, and *gathered* of every kind. *Mat.*  
To collect charitable contributions. 10.  
into one body or interest.—I will *gather*  
him, besides those that are *gathered* un-  
f. *lvi. 8.* 11. To draw together from a  
diffusion; to compress; to contract.—

Immortal Tully shone,  
oman rostra deck'd the consul's throne;  
ing his flowing robe he seem'd to stand,  
to speak, and graceful stretch'd his hand.

*Pope.*

gain.—

*gather*s round upon her in the chace;  
breathes upon her hair with nearer pace.

*Dryden.*

sucker needlework. 14. To collect lo-  
o know by inference.—That which, out  
of reason or of God, men probably *ga-*  
s be expedient, they make it law. *Hooker.*  
reason that I *gather* he is mad,  
ad tale he told to day at dinner,  
own door being shut against his entrance.

*Shak.*

we had seen the vision, we endeavour'd  
to Macedonia, assuredly *gathering* that  
had called us. *Acts.*—From this doctrine  
creasing and lessening of sin in this re-  
ason *gather*, that all sins are not alike  
d, as the stoicks of ancient times, and  
powers, have falsely imagined. *Perkins.*—

Return'd

By night, and listening where the hapless pair  
Sat in their sad discourse, and various plaint.

Thence *gather'd* his own doom. *Milt. Par. Lqß.*  
—Madamoiselle de Scudery, who is as old as a Si-  
byl, is translating Chaucer into French; from which  
*gather* that he has formerly been translated into  
the old Provençal. *Dryden.* 15. To draw toge-  
ther in needlework. 16. To **GATHER Breatb.** [A  
proverbial expression.] To have respite from any  
calamity.—

The luckless lucky maid

A long time with that savage people staid,  
To *gather breath*, in many miseries. *Spenser.*  
(2.) \* To **GATHER.** *v. n.* 1. To be condensed;  
to thicken.—

If ere night the *gath'ring* clouds we fear,  
A song will help the beating storm to bear.

*Dryden's Pastorals.*

When *gath'ring* clouds o'ershadow all the  
skies,

And shoot quick lightnings, weigh, my boys!  
he cries. *Dryden.*

When the rival winds their quarrel try,  
South, East and West, on airy courses born,  
The whirlwind *gathers*, and the woods are torn.

*Dryden.*

Think on the storm that *gathers* o'er your  
head,

And threatens every hour to burst upon it.

*Addison's Cato.*

2. To grow larger by the accretion of similar mat-  
ter.—Their snow-ball did not *gather* as it went;  
for the people came in to them. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*  
3. To assemble.—There be three things that mine  
heart feareth; the slander of a city, the *gathering*  
together of an unruly multitude, and a fallie ac-  
cusation. *Eccelus. xxvi. 5.* 5. To generate pus or  
matter.—Ask one, who by repeated restraints hath  
subdued his natural rage, how he likes the change,  
and he will tell you 'tis no less happy than the  
ease of a broken imposthume after the painful *ga-*  
*thering* and filling of it. *Decay of Piety.*

\* **GATHER.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] Pucker; cloth  
drawn together in wrinkles.—

Give laws for pantaloons,

The length of breeches, and the *gathers*,  
Part cannons, periwigs and feathers. *Hudib.*

\* **GATHERER.** *n. f.* [from *gather*.] 1. One  
that gathers; one that collects; a collector.—I  
will spend this preface upon those from whom I  
have gathered my knowledge; for I am but a *ga-*  
*therer* and disposer of other men's stuff. *Wotton's*  
*Preface to Elements of Architecture.* 2. One that  
gets in a crop of any kind.—I was a herdman and  
a *gatherer* of sycamore fruit. *Amos.*—

Nor in that land

Do poisonous herbs deceive the *gatherer's* hand,  
*May's Virgil.*

\* **GATHERING.** *n. f.* [from *gather*.] Collec-  
tion of charitable contributions.—Let every one  
lay by him in store, that there be no *gatherings*  
when I come. 1 *Cor. xvi. 2.*

GATINOIS, or GASTINOIS, a ci-devant pro-  
vince of France, 45 miles long and 30 broad. In  
the 11th century, it had counts of its own, but  
was afterwards joined to Anjou. It was next di-  
vided

vided into *Gatinois*, *Orleanois*, and *François*; and now forms part of the departments of the Seine and Marne, Seine and Oise, and Loiret.

GATON, a village NW. of Cambridge.

GATRE, a town of Yorksh. SW. of Wheatley.

GATSCH, a town and castle of Hungary, 12 miles E. of Korpona.

GATTA, a level district of Maritime Austria, in Dalmatia, in the province of Poglizza.

(1.) \* GATTEN-TREE. *n. f.* A species of Corsican cherry.

(2.) GATTEN-TREE. See CORNUS, N° I.

GATTEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of the Channel, N. of Barfleur.

GATTINARI, a town of Italy, in the lordship of Vercelli, on the Sesia; 15 miles N. of Vercelli.

GATTON, a borough of Surry, 19 miles from London, on the side of a hill on the road to Ryegate. It is supposed to have been known to the Romans, from their coins and other antiquities being found there. It is a borough by prescription; and has sent members to parliament ever since the 29th of Henry VI. It was formerly a large town; but is now a mean village, with a small church, and without either fair or market. The members are returned by its constable, who is annually chosen at the lord of the manor's court.

GAVALS, a town of Russia, 28 m. S. of Viborg.

(1.) GAVARDO, GOVARDO, or GUARDO, a district of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Mela, and ci-devant province of Bresciano, containing 10 parishes, and 8000 souls, in 1797.

(2.) GAVARDO, GOVARDO, or GUARDO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the above district, (N° 1.) containing 2000 citizens in 1797. Near it, the French, under Gen. Buonaparte, defeated the Austrians, in 1796, and took 1,800 prisoners. It is seated on the Chiese, 7 miles W. of Lake Garda, and 10 NE. of Brescia. Lon. 10. 9. E. Lat. 45. 40. N.

GAVAREEA, CAPE. See COOK, N° III. § 7.

GAUBIL, Anthony, a French author, born at Caillac in 1708. He was sent a missionary to China, and acted as interpreter at the Court of Peking. He published a History of Gengis khan, and a translation of the *Chou King*. He died in 1709.

GAUBIUS, Hieronymus David, a celebrated physician of Holland. He studied under the illustrious Boerhaave; and became so much his favourite, that he resigned the chemical chair in his favour. He taught at Leyden with great applause for 40 years. His reputation was extended all over Europe by several valuable publications, particularly by his *Institutiones Pathologiae Medicinalis*, and his *Adversaria*, which have contributed not a little to the improvement of medicine. He died at Leyden 29th Nov. aged 76.

\* GAUDE. *n. f.* [The etymology of this word is uncertain: *Skinner* imagines it may come from *gaude*, French, a yellow flower, yellow being the colour. *Junius*, according to his custom; and Mr *Lye* finds *gaude*, in signify deceit or fraud, from *gawaw-cheat*. It seems to me most easily *gaudium*, Latin, joy; the cause of joy: thence aptly applied to

any thing that gives or expresses pleasure. In Scotland this word is still retained, shewy bawble, and the person fooled [Scotland denotes a yellow flower.] At a fine thing; any thing worn as a sign is not now much used.—

He stole th' impression of her fan  
With bracelets of thy hair, rings, & ceits,

Knacks, trifles, nosegays, sweetmeats  
The sun is in the heav'n, and the  
Attended with the pleasure of the v  
Is all too wanton, and too fall of g  
To give me audience. *Shak.*

My love to Hermia

Is melted as the snow; seems to me  
As the remembrance of an idle game  
Which in my childhood I did doat

Some bound for Guinea, golden f  
Bore all the *gaudes* the simple natives  
Some for the pride of Turkish cour  
For folded turbans finest holland be

\* To GAUDE. *v. a.* [*gaudeo*, Latin] to rejoice at any thing.—

Go to a gossip's feast, and *gaude*  
After so long grief such nativity.

GAUDEN, Dr Joseph, son of John earl of Mayfield in Essex, was born at 1605. At the commencement of the 17th century he followed, on his taking part with the king. Upon the establishment of the Presbyterian church government he followed the ruling powers, and was one of the assembly of divines who met at Westminster in 1643, and took the covenant. He offered some objections to it, his afterwards struck out of the list. Nor did he espouse the cause of the parliament because they adhered to their first avowed principle of forming only, instead of destroying, an episcopacy. In this spirit he signed the declaration to the army against the violent party that affected the life of the king; and after his execution published the famous *Portraiture of his Sacred Majesty's Life and Sufferings*; which ran through in the course of a year. Upon the death of Charles II. he was promoted to the see of Worcester, and in 1662 removed to Worcester, where he died, the same year. He wrote many controversial pieces suited to the times, and to the views. The *Eikon Basilike* he published in 1649, king's private meditations; though on this there has been a long controversy. After the king's death, his widow, in a letter to her sons, calls it *The Jewel*; and said, he had hoped to make a fortune by it; she had a letter of a very great man would clear up that he writ it. This as the earl of Clarendon had predicted, was eagerly espoused by the anti-royalists, in order to disparage Charles I. But it has been proved that Gauden had too luxuriant an imagination, which betrayed him into a rankness of style in an Asiatic way; and thence, as Bp. Burnet argues, it may be concluded, that but the king himself, was the true auth



in which there is a nobleness and thought, with a greatness of style, that is looked on as the best written book in language at the time.

ENS, ST., a town of France, in the department of Upper Garonne, and late province of Guyenne, seated on the Garonne; 8 miles N.E. of Bordeaux. Lon. 6. 56. E. Lat. 43. 2. N.

ERY. *n. f.* [from *gaude.*] Finery; of luxury of dress.—The triumph was not only a gaudery, but one of the wisest and most salutary institutions that ever was. *Bacon's Essays.*—It is but one remove from death, and is nothing about us but what looks like a reparation for it, scarce ever appears in the high mode, the flaunting garb, the gaudery of youth; with cloaths as rich and as much in the fashion, as the persons themselves is usually grown out of it.

in suit, since we can make but one, than to be by tarnish'd gaud'ry known.

ANO, a town of Naples, in the province of Terra di Lavoro, 10 miles N.E. of Venosa.

DILY. *adv.* [from *gaudy.*] Showily.

DINESS. *n. f.* [from *gaudy.*] Showiness; extravagance.

SCHKEHN, a town of Prussian Lithuania, 5 m. E.S.E. of Gumbinnen.

AUDY. *adj.* [from *gaude.*] Showy; pompous; ostentatiously fine.—thy habit as thy purse can buy, express in fancy; rich, not gaudy; apparel oft proclaims the man. *Shak.*—is fond with gaudy shapes possess, and numberless

ay notes that people the sunbeams.

finch there I saw, with gaudy pride  
ed plumes that hopp'd from side to side.

Bavarian duke his brigades leads,  
in arms, and gaudy to behold.

who walks directly to his journey's end,  
thither much sooner than him who wanders  
o gaze at every thing, or to gather every  
er. *Watts.*—It is much to be lamented,  
is so naturally qualified to be great ex-  
piety, should, by an erroneous educa-  
ade poor and gaudy spectacles of the  
nity. *Law.*

AUDY. *n. f.* [*gaudium*, Lat.] A feast; a day of plenty. A word used in the—He may surely be content with a fast if it is sure of a gaudy to-morrow. *Cbeyne.*

AVE. The preterite of *give*.—can't not every day give me thy heart; can't give it, then thou never gav'st it; riddles are, that tho' thy heart depart, it home, and thou with losing sav'st it.

AVE, in geography 2 rivers of France. 1, N° 1.

AVEL. *n. f.* A provincial word for Let it lie upon the ground or *gavel* eight

EL, among builders. See GABLE.

(3.) GAVEL, in law, tribute, toll, custom, or yearly revenue; of which we had in old time several kinds. See GABBE, N° 1, 2.

(1.) GAVELET, in law, an ancient and special cessavit used in Kent, where the custom of gavel-kind continues, by which the tenant, if he with-draws his rent and services due to the lord, forfeits his land and tenements. The process is thus. The lord is first to seek by the steward of his court, from 3 weeks to 3 weeks, to find some distress upon the tenement, till the 4th court; and if at that time he find none, at this 4th court it is awarded, that he take the tenement in his hand in name of a distress, and keep it a year and a day without manuring; within which time, if the tenant pays his arrears, and make reasonable amends for the with-holding, he shall have and enjoy his tenement as before: if he come not before the year and day be past, the lord is to go to the next county court with witnesses of what had passed at his own court, and pronounce there his process, to have further witnesses; and then by the award of his own court, he shall enter and manure the tenement as his own: so that if the tenant desired afterwards to have and hold it as before, he must agree with the lord; according to this old saying: "Has he got since any thing given, or any thing paid, then let him pay five pound for his were, e'er he become heald again." Other copies have the first part with some variation; "Let him nine times pay, and nine times repay."

(2.) GAVELET is also a writ used in the hutt-ings, given to lords of rents in London. Here the parties, tenant and demandant, appear by *faire facias*, to show cause why the one should not have his tenement again on payment of his rent, or the other recover the lands on default thereof.

(1.) \* GAVELKIND. *n. f.* [In-law.] A custom whereby the lands of the father are equally divided at his death amongst all his sons, or the land of the brother equally divided among the brothers, if he have no issue of his own. This custom is of force in divers places of England, but especially in Kent. *Cowel.*—Among other Welsh customs he abolished that of *gavelkind*, whereby the heirs female were utterly excluded, and the bastards did inherit as well as the legitimate, which is the very Irish *gavelkind*. *Davies on Ireland.*

(2.) GAVELKIND is a tenure belonging to lands in the county of Kent, and formerly universal in Ireland. (See ENGLAND, § 42.) The word is said by Lambard to be compounded of three Saxon words, *gaf, eal, kyn*, "omnibus cognatione proximis data." Veritegan calls it *gavelkind*, quasi "give all kind," that is, to each child his part: and Taylor, in his history of *gavelkind*, derives it from the British *gavel*, i. e. a hold or tenure, and *cenned*, "generatio aut familia;" and so *gavel-cenned* might signify *tenura generationis*.—It is well known what struggles the Kentish men made to preserve their ancient liberties, and with how much success those struggles were attended. And as it is principally here that we meet with the custom of gavel-kind (though it was and is to be found in some other parts of the kingdom), we may conclude, that this was a part of those liberties; agreeable to Mr Selden's opinion, that *gavel-kind*

velkind, before the Norman conquest, was the general custom of the realm. The distinguishing properties of this tenure are principally these: 1. The tenant is of age sufficient to alienate his estate by feoffment; at the age of 15. 2. The estate does not escheat in case of an attainder and execution for felony; their maxim being, "the father to the bough, the son to the plough." 3. In most places he had a power of devising lands by will, before the statute for that purpose was made. 4. The lands descend, not to the eldest, youngest, or any one son only, but to all the sons together; which was indeed anciently the most usual course of descent all over England, though in particular places particular customs prevailed; and it must be allowed, that it is founded on strict justice, however contrary to the present general practice.

GAVELKOVON, a town of Lower Bavaria, 20 miles SE. of Landshut.

GAVELLO, a populous town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Benaco, and ci-devant Veronese; on the road to Ferrara.

GAVEREN, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of the Scheldt, and late prov. of Flanders; seated on the Scheldt, 7 miles from Ghent.

GAUERS, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Neisse, 5 miles NNW. of Patzschau.

GAVETA, a town of Naples, in the Capitana-ta, 16 miles SSW. of Manfredonia.

GAUGAMELA, in ancient geography, a village of Aturia, lying between the rivers Lycus and Tigris; famous for Alexander's victory over Darius. It is said to have been allowed to Darius Hytaspes for the maintenance of a camel; and hence the name. It was near a more considerable place called *Arbela*; whence the latter gave the name to the victory. See *ARBELA*, § 2.

(1.) \* GAUGE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A measure.—This plate must be a *gage* to file your worm and groove to equal breadth by. *Moxon*.—If money were to be hired, as land is, or to be had from the owner himself, it might then be had at the market rate, which would be a constant *gage* of your trade and wealth. *Locke*.—Timothy proposed to his mistress, that she should entertain no servant that was above four foot seven inches high; and for that purpose had prepared a *gage*, by which they were to be measured. *Arbutnot's John Bull*.

(2.) GAUGE. See GAGE.

(3.) GAUGE LINE. See GAUGING, § 4.

(4.) GAUGE POINT of a solid measure, the diameter of a circle whose area is equal to the solid content of the same measure.

(1.) \* To GAUGE. *v. a.* [*gauge, jauge*, a measuring rod, French. It is pronounced, and often written, *gage*.] 1. To measure with respect to the contents of a vessel. 2. To measure with regard to any proportion.—The vanes nicely *gauged* on each side, broad on one side, and narrow on the other, both which minister to the progressive motion of the bird. *Derham's Physic. Theol.*—

is nothing more perfectly admirable in it, than that artful manner in Homer, of taking *r gaging* his heroes by each other, and evaluating the character of one person by comparison of it to some other he is made to

(2.) To GAUGE. See To GAGE.

(1.) \* GAUGER. *n. f.* [from *gaug* whose business is to measure vessels or —Those earls and dukes have been with royal jurisdiction; and appointed civil officers, as sheriff, admiral, *gaug* cheator. *Carew*.

(2.) A GAUGER, is a king's officer, pointed to examine all tuns, pipes, and barrels, of wine, beer, ale, oil, &c. and give them a mark of allowance, &c. are sold in any place within the extent of the

(1.) GAUGING. See GEOMETRY

(2.) GAUGING ROD, an instrument gauging or measuring the contents of That usually employed is the four foot rod. It is commonly made of box, &c. of 4 rules, each a foot long and about of an inch square, joined together by 3 l by which means the rod is rendered when the 4 rules are quite opened, a foot when they are all folded together. The first face of this rod, marked 4, are diagonal lines; one for beer and the wine; by means of which the contents of a common vessel in beer or wine gallons is readily found by putting the rod in at the hole of the vessel till it meets the top of the head of the vessel with the flange to the bung-hole. For distinction of the there is written thereon, *beer* and *wine*. On the second face, 5, are a line of the gauge line; which is a line expressed in areas of circles, whose diameters are in round inches in ale gallons. At the end of this face is written *ale area*. On the third face, 6, are scales of lines; the first, at the end of which is written *hog-head*, is for finding how many there are in a hog-head when it is not with its axis parallel to the horizon. The second, at the end of which is written *B. L.* is for a *butt lying*, is for the same use as that first. The 3d line is to find how many wanting to fill up a butt when it is full to the end of it is written *B. S.* signifying *butt standing*. In the half of the 4th face of the rod, 7, there are 3 scales of lines, for finding the number of gallons in a firkin, kilderkin, and butt; with their areas parallel to the horizon. These are distinguished by the letters, *F. K. L.* for a *firkin, kilder-kin, and barrel*.

(3.) GAUGING ROD, USE OF THE LINES ON THE. To find the content in beer or wine gallons, put the brazed gauging rod into the bung-hole of the vessel, and thrust the diagonal lines upwards, and thrust the end to the meeting of the head and flange with chalk make a mark at the bung-hole of the vessel, and also on the lines of the rod, right against, over or under when the brazed end is thrust home to the end of the vessel: then turn the gauging rod to the other end of the vessel, and thrust the end home to the end as before. Lastly, the mark made on the gauging rod come to the mark made on the bung-hole with the rod thrust to the other end; which is

le on the diagonal lines will, on the show the whole content of the cask in ne gallons. If the mark made on the be not right against that made on the you put it the other way, then right mark made on the bung-hole m be a the diagonal lines; and the division on at line between the two chalks will effect's whole contents in beer or wine Thus, e. gr. if the diagonal line of a 8 inches four tenths, its contents in s will be near 51, and in wine gallons will be open, as a half-barrel, ten, of d the measure from the middle on the head and staves be 38 inches, the dia gives 122 beer gallons; half of which, the content of the open hal. tub. If large vessel, as a tun or copper, and sl line taken by a long rule proves 70 in- content of that vessel may be found y inch at the beginning end of the dia- call ten inches. Thus ten inches be inches; and every tenth of a gallon ions; and every whole call 1000 gal- mple. At 44.8 inches on the diagonal s 200 gallons; so that 4 inches 48 parts, 44 inches 8 tenths, is just two tenths now called 200 gallons; so also if the be 76 inches and 7 tenths, a close cask gonal will hold 1000 beer gallons; but an but half so much, viz. 500 beer gallons.

**USING ROD, USE OF THE GAUGE THE.** To find the content of any cylin- in ale gallons; seek the diameter of 1 m inches, and just against it on the is the quantity of ale gallons contained ch deep: this multiplied by the length nder will give its content in ale gall ns. Suppose the length of the vessel 32.06, diameter of its base 25 inches; to find e content in ale-gallons? Right against on the gauge-line is one gallon and 745 n; which multiplied by 32.06, the length, 447 gallons for the content of the ves- diameter of a hoghead being 25 he head diameter 22 inches, and the 06 inches; to find the quantity of ale tained in it?—Seek 25. the bung dia- the line of inches; and right against it uge-line you will find 1.745; take one 3d ch is .580, and set it down twice: seek 22 the head diameter, and against it you will :gauge-line 1.356; one third of which add- ce .580. gives 1.6096; which multiplied th 32.06, the product will be 51.603776, nt in ale gallons. Note, this operation that the aforesaid hoghead is in the si- middle frustum of a spheroid. The lines on the two other faces of the rod ly; you need only put it downright in- ag-hole (if the vessel you desire to know tity of ale-gallons contained therein be the opposite staves; and then where the the liquor cuts any one of the lines ap- l to that vessel, will be the number of ntained in that vessel.

a town of the Ligurian republic, 25 of Genoa.  
 . PART. I.

**GAVIA**, a town of Spain, 4 m. SW. of Granada.  
**GAUJAC**, a town of France, in the dep. of Landes, 12 miles SE. of Dax.

(1.) **GAUL**, the English translation of **GAL-LIA**, the ancient name given by the Romans to the country that now forms the republic of France.—The original inhabitants were descend- ed from the Celtes or Gomerians, by whom the greatest part of Europe was peopled; the name of **GALLI**, or **GAULS**, being probably given them long after their settlement in that country. See **GALLIA**.

(2.) **GAUL, HISTORY OF, TO ITS FIRST INVA- SION BY THE ROMANS**—The ancient history of the Gauls is entirely wrapped up in obscurity and darkness; all we know concerning them for a long time is, that they multiplied so fast, that their country being unable to contain them, they pour- ed forth in vast multitudes into other countries, which they generally subdued, and settled in. It often happened, however, that these colonies were so molested by their neighbours, that they were obliged to send for assistance to the mother country. This was always very easily obtained. The Gauls were always ready to send forth great numbers of new adventurers; and as these spread desolation wherever they came, the very name of *Gauls* proved terrible to most of the neighbouring nations.—The earliest excursion of these people, of which we have any distinct account, was into Italy, under a famed leader, named *Bellovesus*, a- bout A. A. C. 622. He crossed the Rhone and the Alps, till then unattempted; defeated the He- trurians; and seized upon that part of the coun- try, since known by the names of *Lombardy* and *Piedmont*.—The 2d grand expedition was made by the *Cœnomani*, a people dwelling between the Seine and the Loire, under a general, named *Etiolis*. They settled in those parts of Italy since known by the names of *Breisciano*, *Cremonese*, *Maniuan*, *Car- niola*, and *Venetia*; now included in the Cisalpine republic and Maritime Austria. In a 3d excur- sion, 2 other Gaulish nations settled on both sides of the Po; and in a 4th the Boii and Lingones set- tled in the country between Ravenna and Bologna. The time of these 3 last expeditions is uncertain. The 5th expedition of the Gauls was more re- markable than any of the former, and happened about 200 years after that of Bellovesus. The *Se- nones*, settled between Paris and Meaux, were in- vited into Italy by an Etrurian lord, and settled themselves in Umbria. Brennus their king laid siege to Clusium, a city in alliance with Rome; and this produced a war with the Romans, in which the latter were at first defeated, and their city taken and burnt; but at length the whole ar- my of the Gauls was cut off by **CAMILLUS**, inso- much that not a single person escaped. The Gauls after this undertook some other expeditions against the Romans: in which, though they al- ways proved unsuccessful, by reason of their want of military discipline; yet their fierceness and courage made them so formidable to the re- public, that, on the first news of their march, ex- traordinary levies of troops were made, sacrifices and public supplications offered to the gods, and the law which granted an immunity from military service to priests and old men, was, for a time, abo- lished. Against the Greeks, the expedition of the

is was very little more successful than against the Romans. The first of these we hear of was about A. A. C. 279, the year after Pyrrhus had invaded Italy. At this time, the Gauls, finding themselves greatly overstocked with inhabitants at home, sent out 3 great colonies to conquer new countries. One of these armies was commanded by Brennus another by Cerethrius, and the 3d by Belgius. The first entered Panonia or Hungary; the second Thrace; and the 3d marched into Illyricum and Macedonia. Here Belgius at first met with great success; and enriched himself by plunder to such a degree, that Brennus, envying him, resolved to enter the same countries, in order to share the spoil. In a short time, however, Belgius met with such a total defeat, that his army was almost entirely destroyed; upon which Brennus hastened to the same place. His army at first consisted of 150,000 foot and 15,000 horse: but two of his principal officers revolted, and carried off 20,000 men, with whom they marched into Thrace; where, having joined Cerethrius, they seized on Byzantium and the western coast of Propontis, making the adjacent parts tributary to them.—To retrieve this loss, Brennus sent for fresh supplies from Gaul; and having increased his army to 150,000 foot, and upwards of 60,000 horse, he entered Macedonia, defeated the general who opposed him, and ravaged the whole country. He next marched towards the straits of Thermopylae, to invade Greece; but was stopped by the forces sent to defend that pass against him. He passed the mountains, however, as Xerxes had formerly done; upon which the guards retired, to avoid being surrounded. Brennus then having ordered Acichorius, the next to him in command, to follow at a distance with part of his army, marched with the bulk of the forces to Delphi, in order to plunder the rich temple there. This enterprise proved very unfortunate: a great number of his men were destroyed by a dreadful storm of hail, thunder, and lightning; another part of his army was destroyed by an earthquake; and the remainder, imagining themselves attacked by the enemy, fought against each other the whole night, so that in the morning scarce one half of them remained. The Greek forces then poured in upon them from all parts; and that in such numbers, that though Acichorius came up in due time with his forces, Brennus found himself unable to make head against the Greeks, and was defeated with great slaughter. He himself was desperately wounded; and so disheartened by his misfortunes, that, having assembled all his chiefs, he advised them to kill all the wounded and disabled, and to make the best retreat they could; after which he put an end to his own life. On this occasion it is said, that 20,000 of these unhappy people were executed by their own countrymen. Acichorius then set out with the remainder for Gaul; but, being obliged to march through the country of their enemies, the calamities they met with by the way were so grievous, that not one of them reached their own country. A just

story say the Greek and Roman authors, for various intentions against Delphi. The Gauls often felt the effects of the Gauls' outrage, thought proper at last,

in order to humble them, to invade them. Their first successful attempt was about 118, under Quintus Marcius Rex. He way betwixt the Alps and the Pyrene laid the foundation for conquering that country. This was a work of immense itself, and rendered still more difficult by the position of the Gauls, especially those of the Stæni, who lived at the foot of the Alps, the people finding themselves overpowered by the Romans, set fire to their houses, killed the men and children, and then threw themselves into flames. After this Marcius built Narbonne, which became the capital of a province.

(3.) GAUL, HISTORY OF, TO ITS SUBJUGATION BY CÆSAR. Scaurus, the first of the Marcius, also conquered some Gaulish nations, and to facilitate the sending troops from Rome to that country, he made several excursions between them, which before were almost impossible. These successes gave rise to the Cimbri and Teutones. See CIMBRI and TEUTONES, &c. From this time, the Gauls ceased to be formidable to the Romans, and seem to have been for some time on good terms with them. At last, however, the Helvetii led a war with the republic, which broke far over the Alps, and ended in the total conquest of the country. Orgetorix was the first of them; who had engaged a vast number of countrymen to burn their towns and villages, and to go in search of new conquests. Julius Cæsar, to whose lot the whole country of Gaul fell, made such haste to come and suppress them, that he got to the Rhone in 8 days; bridged the bridge of Geneva, and, in a few days, finished the famed wall between that mountain and mount Jura, now St Claude, which extends 16 miles in length, with towers and castles at proper distances, and that ran the whole length of it. According to his own account, he did not set out till the 1st of April; and yet this huge work was finished in the 8th day of the month: so that, in the 8 days he was a-coming, it must all be done in about 5 days; a prodigious consideration, he had but one legion there, though the whole country had given aid. Whilst this was doing, and the Helvetii he wanted were coming, he sent for the Helvetii, who had sent to demand a passage through the country of the Allobroges, till he had received reinforcements; and then flatly refused it, whereupon a dreadful battle ensued; they lost 130,000 men, in spite of all the reinforcements, besides a number of prisoners, among which was the wife and daughter of Orgetorix, the chief of this unfortunate expedition. The rest fled, and begged they might be permitted to settle among the Aedui, from whom they were naturally sprung; and, at the request of the Aedui, they were permitted to go. The Gauls were constantly in a state of variance with one another, and Cæsar, who knew how to make the most of these intestine broils, soon became the umpire of all their contentions. Any one who applied to him for help, were his

against whom Ariovistus, king of the Ger-  
 joined with the Averni, who inhabited the  
 of the Loire, had taken the country of the  
 from them, and obliged them to send  
 to him. Cæsar forthwith sent to demand  
 titution of both, and, in an interview which  
 after obtained with that haughty and  
 rous prince, had almost fallen a sacrifice to  
 sity; upon which he bent his whole pow-  
 er upon him, forced him out of his strong in-  
 nens, and gave him a total overthrow. A-  
 s escaped, with difficulty, over the Rhine;  
 two wives, and a daughter, with a great  
 of Germans of distinction, fell into the  
 ror's hand: Cæsar, after this signal victo-  
 his army into winter quarters, whilst he  
 ver the Alps to make the necessary prepara-  
 for the next campaign. By this time all  
 in general were so terrified at his suc-  
 cess as they entered into a confederacy against  
 nans as their common enemy. Of this  
 s, who had been left in Gaul, sent Cæsar  
 upon which he immediately left Rome,  
 le such dispatch, that he arrived upon their  
 in about 15 days. On his arrival, the  
 submitted to him; but the rest, appoint-  
 ha king of the Sueffones, general of all  
 ces, which amounted to 150,000 men,  
 directly against him. Cæsar, who had  
 n the bridge of the Axona, (now AIXNA,)  
 ight horse and infantry over it; and whilst  
 rs were encumbered in crossing that river,  
 ish terrible slaughter of them, that the ri-  
 filled with their dead, insomuch that their  
 served for a bridge to those who escaped.  
 victory struck such terror into the rest,  
 y dispersed themselves; immediately after  
 the Sueffones, Bellovaci, Ambionens, and  
 hers, submitted to him. The Nervii, in-  
 imed with the Atrebatens and Veromandui  
 them; and having first secured their wives  
 éren, made a vigorous resistance for some  
 ut were at length defeated, and the great-  
 of them slain. The rest, with their wives  
 men, surrendered, and were allowed to  
 their own cities and towns as formerly.  
 uaticus were next subdued; and, for their  
 y, were sold for slaves, to the number of  
 Young Crassus, the son of the triumvir,  
 also 7 other nations, and took possession of  
 ies; which not only completed the con-  
 of the Belgæ, but brought several nations  
 yond the Rhine to submit. The Veneti,  
 nt inhabitants of Vannes in Brittany, who  
 a likewise obliged to send hostages to the  
 or, in the mean time, made great prepara-  
 by sea and land to recover their liberty.  
 then in Illyricum, equipped a fleet on the  
 and having given the command of it to  
 went and defeated them by land, as Bru-  
 ny sea; and having put their chief men to  
 old the rest for slaves. The Unelli, with  
 x their chief, together with the Lexovii  
 ercii, were about the same time subdued  
 nus, and the Aquitani by Crassus, with  
 of 30,000 men. There remained nothing  
 countries of the Morini and Menapii to be

conquered of all Gaul. Cæsar marched against  
 them, but found them so well intrenched in their  
 inaccessible fortresses, that he contented himself  
 with burning and ravaging their country; and ha-  
 ving put his troops in winter quarters, he again  
 passed over the Alps, to have a more watchful  
 eye on some of his rivals there. He was, howe-  
 ver, soon after obliged to defend his Gaulish con-  
 quests against a body of Germans, who were at-  
 tempting to settle there, to the number of 400,000.  
 These he totally defeated, and then resolved to  
 carry his conquering arms into Germany. See  
 GERMANY.

(4.) GAUL, HISTORY OF, TO ITS TOTAL CON-  
 QUEST BY CÆSAR. Cæsar, upon his return into  
 Gaul, found it labouring under a great famine,  
 which had caused a kind of universal revolt. Cot-  
 ta and Sabinus, who were left in the country of  
 the Eburones, (now LIÈGE,) were betrayed into  
 an ambush by Ambiorix, one of the Gaulish chiefs,  
 and had most of their men cut off. The Adu-  
 atici had fallen upon Q. Cicero, who was left  
 there with one legion, and had reduced him to  
 great straits: while Labienus, with his legion, was  
 attacked by Indutiomarus, at the head of the  
 Rhemi and Senones; but by one bold sally, he put  
 them to flight, and killed their general. Cæsar  
 acquired no small credit by quelling all these re-  
 volts; but each victory cost so many of his troops,  
 that he was forced to have recourse to Pompey  
 for a fresh supply, who readily granted him two  
 of his own legions to secure his Gaulish conquests.  
 But the Gauls, ever restless under a foreign yoke,  
 raised up a new revolt, and obliged him to return.  
 His fear lest Pompey should gain the affections of  
 the Roman people, had obliged him to strip the  
 Gauls of their gold and silver, to bribe them over  
 to his interest; and this was no small cause of  
 those frequent revolts which happened during his  
 absence. He quickly, however, reduced the Nervii,  
 Aduatici, Menapii, and Treviri; the last of whom  
 had raised the revolt under the command of Ambio-  
 rix: but he found the flame spread much farther, e-  
 ven to the greatest part of the Gauls, who had cho-  
 sen Vercingetorix their generalissimo. Cæsar was  
 forced to leave Insurbria, whither he had retired to  
 watch the motions of Pompey, and, in the next  
 of winter, to repass the Alps into the province of  
 Narbonne. Here he gathered his scattered troops  
 with all possible speed; and, in spite of the bad  
 weather, besieged and took Noviodunum, (now  
 NOYONS;) and defeated Vercingetorix, who was  
 come to its relief. He next took the city of Avar-  
 ricum, (now BOURGES,) one of the strongest in  
 Gaul, and which had a garrison of 40,000 men:  
 of whom he made such a dreadful slaughter, that  
 hardly 200 escaped. Whilst he was besieging  
 Gergovia, the capital of the Arverni, he was in-  
 formed that the Nitiobriges, (or Agenois,) were in  
 arms; and that the Ædui were sending to Vercin-  
 getorix 10,000 men, whom they were to have sent  
 to reinforce Cæsar. Upon this news, he left Fabius  
 to carry on the siege, and marched against the Ædui.  
 These, upon his approach, submitted, in appear-  
 ance, and were pardoned; but soon after that  
 whole nation rose, and murdered all the Italian  
 troops in their capital. Cæsar, on this, resolve t

to raise the siege of Gergovia, and at once attack the enemy's camp, which he did with some success; but when he thought to have gone to Noviodunum, where his baggage, military chest, &c. were left, he heard that the Ædui had carried them off, and burnt the place. Labienus, justly thinking that Cæsar would need his assistance in the condition he now was, went to join him, and in his way defeated a Gaulish general, named *Camulogens*, who came to oppose his march: but this did not hinder the revolt from spreading all over Celtic Gaul, whither Vercingetorix had sent for fresh supplies, and, in the mean time, attacked Cæsar; but was defeated, and forced to retire to Alesia, a strong place, now called ALISE. Hither Cæsar hastened, and besieged him; and, having drawn a double circumvallation, with a view to starve him in it, as he was likely to have done, refused all offers of a surrender from him. At length, the long expected reinforcement came, consisting of 160,000 men, under 4 generals, who made several fruitless attacks on Cæsar's trenches; but were defeated in 3 several battles, which at length obliged Vercingetorix to surrender at discretion. Cæsar used all his prisoners with great severity, except the Ædui and Arverni, by whose means he hoped to gain their nations, which were the most potent of Celtic Gaul; nor was he disappointed; for both of them submitted to him, and the former received him into their capital, where he spent the winter, after putting his army into winter quarters. This campaign being one of the hardest he had ever made, so he gained more glory by it than any Roman general had done before: yet he could not procure from the servile senate, now wholly devoted to his rival, a prolongation of his consulship; upon which he is reported to have laid his hand upon his sword, and said, that *that* should do it. He was as good as his word; and the Gauls, upon their former ill success, resolving to have as many separate armies as provinces, in order to embarrass him the more, Cæsar, and his generals Labienus and Fabius, were forced to fight them one after another; which they did, however, with such success, that, notwithstanding the hardness of the season, they subdued the Biturges, Carnuti, Rhemi, and Bellovaci, with their general Correus; by which he at once quieted all the Belgic provinces bordering on Celtic Gaul. The next who followed were the Treviri, the Eburones, and the Sudes, under their general Dunmarus. The last place which held out against him was Uxellodunum; which was defended by the two last acting generals of the Gauls, Drapes, the Senonian, and Luterius, the Cadurcean. The place being strong and well garrisoned, Cæsar was obliged to march thither from the farthest part of Belgic Gaul; and soon after reduced it, for want of water. Here again he caused the right hands of all that were fit to bear arms to be cut off, to deter the rest from revolting a-fresh. Thus was the conquest of Gaul finished from the Alps and Pyrenees to the Rhine, all which vast tract was now reduced to a Roman province under the government of a prætor. During his several expeditions into Gaul, Cæsar is said to have

taken 800 cities; to have subdued 30 nations; and to have defeated, in several battles, three millions of men, of whom one million was killed, and another taken prisoner.— See the articles FRANCE and ROME.

GAULAN. See GAULON.

GAULANITIS, or GAULONITIS, a part of Bathan to the S. bordering on Gad. It was divided into

1. GAULANITIS INFERIOR, which lay on the lake of Genesareth; and
2. GAULANITIS SUPERIOR, which lay to Arabia.

GAULMIN, Gilbert, a French author, born in 1607. He wrote poems and critical works, which were much admired in his own time, but little esteemed. He died in 1665.

GAULON, or GOLAN, the capital of the Gaulanitis Superior; a Levitical city of refuge.

GAULONITE, the people of Gaul.

(1.) GAULOS, in ancient geography, an island of Sicily, in the African sea, at Melite, with commodious harbours; it was a colony of Phœnicians; now called MILES W. of Malta.

(2.) GAULOS, a town in the above island.

GAULS, the ancient inhabitants of Gaul, § 1—4. The Gauls were divided into a great number of different tribes, who were continually at war with one another, and at variance among themselves.

The Gauls, that not only all their cities, cantons, and districts, but almost all their families, were divided into, and torn by factions; and this undoubtedly facilitated the conquest of the whole. The character of all these people was an extreme of liberty, even to ferocity. This they carried to such an extreme, that either on the approach of servitude, or incapacity of action through wounds, or chronic diseases, they put their own lives, or prevailed upon their enemies to kill them. In cities, when they found themselves so straitly besieged that they could no longer, instead of thinking how to obtain reasonable terms of capitulation, their chief care was to put their wives and children to death, then to kill one another, to avoid themselves slavery. Their excessive love of liberty, and contempt of death, according to Strabo, facilitated their conquest by Cæsar; and their numerous forces upon such an enemy as Cæsar, their want of conduct, and proved the ruin of the whole. Their profession was hunting; and indeed, confined their vast forests with which their country was filled, and the multitude of wild beasts which they hunted and destroyed them, to prevent their being rendered totally uninhabitable. Besides this, however, they had also tilth, dromes, horse and chariot races, tilts and tournaments; at all of which the bards assisted in their poems, songs, and musical instruments. For an account of their religion, see DRUID. The Gauls were excessive

which they were very profuse; as, in northern nations, they were great eaters and drinkers. Their chief diet was beer and wine. Their tables were never set but with little bread, which was hard, and easily broken in pieces: and this they did in a very slovenly manner, cutting the piece in their hands, and holding it with their teeth. What they could not cut with a little knife or dirk, they cut with their girdles. When the company was at the *Corymbes*, or chief of the feast, either one of the richest, noblest, or bravest, with the master of the feast; the rest took their places next to their rank, having their servants hold their backs behind them. These feasts seldom were accompanied with bloodshed; but if the feast proved otherwise, it was generally accompanied not only with songs, but with dances, in which the combatants were armed cap-a-pee, and beat time with their swords upon their shields. On certain occasions, they dressed themselves in the skins of beasts, and that attire accompanied the procession of their deities or heroes. Others dressed themselves in masquerade habits, some of which were of a very indecent and obscene nature, and played several antic and ridiculous tricks. This last custom continued until the conversion to Christianity.

**GAULT**, a town of France, in the department of Cher, 8 miles N. of Montdoubleau.  
**GAURIA**, in botany, a genus of the order, belonging to the decandria class, and in the natural method ranking under the order, *Bicornes*. The exterior calyx is five, the interior quinquefid; the corolla nectarium consists of ten tubulated lobes, the capsule is quinquelocular, covered with the exterior calyx formed in the shape of a

**GAURDORF**, a town of Austria, 9 miles S. of Vienna.  
**GAUR**, a river in Durham, which runs into the sea at Bishop's Auckland.  
**GAUNT**, *adj.* [As if *gewant*, from *gapan*, Sax.] Thin; slender; lean; meagre.

That name befits my composition!  
 I am indeed, and *gaunt* in being old;  
 My grief hath kept a tedious fast;  
 I abstain from meat that is not *gaunt*?  
 How long time have I watch'd;  
 I breed leanness, leanness is all *gaunt*:  
 I am sure that some fathers feed upon  
 A fast; I mean my childrens looks;  
 I am in fasting thou hast made me *gaunt*:  
 I am for the grave, *gaunt* as a grave,  
 My hollow womb inherits nought but bones.  
*Shak. Richard II.*  
 Her stiff, *gaunt* and grim, her slight purf'd,  
 Their fasten'd fangs in blood embred.

*Dryden's Fables.*  
**GAUNT**, in geography. See **GHENT**.  
**GAULLED**, *adj.* in the manege, a term used of a horse whose belly shrinks up towards the back.

**GAUNTLET**, *n. f.* [*gantelet*, French.]

An iron glove used for defence, and thrown down in challenges. It is sometimes in poetry used for the *cellus*, or boxing glove.—

A scaly *gauntlet* now, with joints of steel,  
 Must glove this hand. *Shak. Henry IV.*  
 Feel but the difference, soft and rough;  
 This a *gauntlet*, that a muff. *Cleveland.*  
 Some shall in swiftness for the goal contend,  
 And others try the twanging bow to bend;  
 The strong with iron *gauntlets* arm'd shall stand,  
 Oppos'd in combat, on the yellow sand. *Dryden.*  
 Who naked wrestled best, besmear'd with oil;  
 Or who with *gauntlets* gave or took the foil.

*Dryden's Fables.*  
 The funeral of some valiant knight  
 May give this thing its proper light:  
 View his two *gauntlets*; these declare  
 That both his hands were us'd to war. *Prior.*  
 So to repel the Vandals off the stage,  
 Our vet'ran bard resumes his tragick rage;  
 He throws the *gauntlet* Otway us'd to wield,  
 And calls for Englishmen to judge the field.

*Southern.*  
 (2.) **THE GAUNTLET**, [from *gant* or *gant*, Fr. a glove] in chivalry, was worn by cavaliers when armed at all points. The fingers were covered with small plates. The calque and gauntlets were always born in the ancient marches. They were introduced about the 12th or 13th century.

(3.) **GAUNTLET**. } See **GANTELOPE**.  
**GAUNTLOPE**. }

\* **GAUNTLY**, *adv.* [from *gaunt*,] Leanly; slenderly; meagerly.

(1.) \* **GAVOT**, *n. f.* [*gavotte*, French.] A kind of dance.—The disposition in a fiddle to play tunes in preludes, sarabands, jigs and *gavots*, are real qualities in the instrument. *Mart. Scriblerus.*

(2.) **GAVOT**, } or **GAVOTTE**, is a kind of  
**GAVOTTA**, } dance, the air of which has two  
 brisk and lively strains in common time, each of which is twice played over. The first has usually 4 or 8 bars; and the 2d contains 8, 12, or more. The first begins with a minim, or two crotchets, or notes of equal value, and the hand rising; and ends with the fall of the hand upon the dominant or mediant of the mode, but never upon the final, unless it be a rondeau: and the last begins with the rise of the hand, and ends with the fall upon the final of the mode.

(3.) **GAVOTTA**, **TEMPI DI**, is when only the time or movement of a *gavotte* is imitated, without any regard to the measure or number of bars or strains.—Little airs are often found in sonatas, which have this phrase to regulate their motions.

(1.) **GAUR**, a country of Asia, between Balk and Candahar.

(2.) **GAUR**, the capital of the above country, 152 miles NNW. of Candahar, and 150 E. of Herat.

(1.) **GAURA**, in botany, *Virginian Loose-Strife*, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the octandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Calycantemæ*. The calyx is quadrifid and tubular; the corolla pentapetalous, with the petals rising upwards. The nut is inferior, monoispermous, and quadrangular.

(2.) **GAURA**, in geography, a town of Peru, in the prov. of Chançay, containing 200 houses and 2 churches. Its chief trade is in beef and salt.

(3.) **GAURA**,



(3.) GAURÁ, a river of Perú, in Chançay.  
 GAURABAD. See GABRES, N<sup>o</sup> 1.  
 GAVRAY, a town of France, in the dep of the Channel, 13 miles N. of Avranches, and 3 S. of Coutances.  
 GAVRES, } or GABRES. See GABRES, N<sup>o</sup> 1.  
 GAURS, }  
 GAUSE. See GAÜZE.

The GAUTS or INDIAN APENNINES, a stupendous wall of mountains, extending from Cape Comorin, the S. extremity of the peninsula of Indostan, to the Tapti, or Surat river, at unequal distances from the coast; seldom more than 60 miles, commonly about 40, and in one part it approaches within 6 miles. They rise abruptly from the country of Concan, supporting, in the nature of a terrace, a vast extent of fertile and populous plains, which are so elevated as to render the air cool and pleasant. The height is supposed to be from 3000 to 4000 feet. This celebrated ridge does not terminate in a point, when it approaches the Tapti; but, departing from its meridional course, it bends eastward, in a wavy line, parallel to the river; and is afterwards lost among the hills, in the neighbourhood of Burrhanpou. In its course along the Tapti, it forms several passes or descents, whence the name *Gauts*, (which means a landing place) towards that river. The alternate NE. and SW. winds, called MONSOONS, occasion a rainy season only on one side, viz. on the windward side of these mountains. See BALAGATE, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

(1.) GAUZE. *n. f.* A kind of thin transparent silk.—Silken cloaths were used by the ladies; and it seems they were thin, like gauze. *Arb. on Coins.*

Brocades and damasks, and tabbies and gauzes, are lately brought over. *Sawist.*

(2.) GAUZE, GAUSE, or GAWSE, in commerce, is woven sometimes of silk, and sometimes only of thread. To warp the silk for making gauze, they use a peculiar kind of mill, upon which the silk is wound: this mill is a wooden machine about 6 feet high, having an axis perpendicularly placed in the middle thereof, with 6 large wings, on which the silk is wound from off the bobbins by the axis turning round. When all the silk is on the mill, they use another instrument to wind it off again on two beams: this done, the silk is passed through as many little beads as there are threads of silk; and thus rolled on another beam to supply the loom. There are figured gauzes; some with flowers of gold and silver, on a silk ground: these last are chiefly brought from China.

(3.) The GAUZE LOOM resembles the common loom, but has several appendages peculiar to it. See LOOM.

GAWILE. See GVALGUR.

\* GAWK. *n. f.* [*geac. Saxon.*] 1. A cuckow.  
 2. A foolish fellow. In both senses it is retained in Scotland.

\* GAWN. *n. f.* [corrupted for *gallon.*] A small tub, or lading vessel. A provincial word.

GAWNAGH, LOUGH, a lake of Ireland in Longford, 15 miles NE. of Longford.

\* GAWN-TREE. *n. f.* [*Scottish.*] A wooden frame on which beer calks are set when turned.

GAWRAH, a river of Indostan.

GAY, John, a celebrated English poet,

descended from an ancient family in Devonshire. He was born at Exeter, and educated at the school of Barnstaple, under Mr Ray, who bred a mercer, but having a small fortune, and considering the attendance on a shop would be an injury to the education of his talents, he resolved to go to the university. In 1713, when he was secretary to the duchess of Monmouth, he accompanied the earl of Clarendon to France. On Q. Anne's death, he returned to England, where he lived in the highest esteem and friendship with many persons of the highest rank. He was particularly taken with the Duchess of Devonshire, then princess of Wales, read in MS. his tragedy of the *Cop*, which in 1726 dedicated his *Fables*, by permission of the duke of Cumberland. From this time he was shown to him, and numberless professions of friendship, it was supposed, that he would have been provided for in some office of distinction and abilities. But in 1727, he was offered the place of gentleman of the bed-chamber to one of the youngest princesses, which he thought rather an indignity to a man of his rank; and warm remonstrances were made on his behalf by his sincere friends and patrons, the duchess of Queensberry, who withdrew in disgust. Mr Gay's dependence on the favours of the great, he has himself and humorously described in his *Hare with many friends*. The profits of his poetry he lost in 1720, in the S. Sea scheme; but his very extraordinary encouragement from the public soon made ample amends for his private disappointments. For, in 1726, he published his *Beggar's Opera*; the success of which was not only unprecedented, but incredible. It had an uninterrupted run for 63 nights in the first season, and in the ensuing one with equal success. It spread into all the great towns of England, acted in many places 30 and 40 times; at Bath and Bristol 50; made its progress into Scotland, and Ireland, in which last it acted for 24 successive nights; and was performed at Minorca. Not contented with the reading and representing the card-table and drawing-room, the theatre and closet; the ladies in their favourite songs engraven upon the screens and other pieces of furniture rated with them. It short, the success was so striking, and so perfectly adequate to the taste of all ranks that it overthrew the long idolized, and which Denham and other writers had in vain, by the force alone, endeavoured to drive from the public taste. The profits were so great to the author and Mr Rich the manager, that they gave rise to a popular pun, viz. *Tba Rich gay, and GAY rich*. In consequence of this success, Mr Gay was induced to write to it, which he entitled *Polly*. But the rivalry between him and the court, and the report of his having wrote seditious verses, occasioned a prohibition of it to be



ertain, at the time when every thing shines for the rehearsal. A very common, however, accrued to him from the of it afterwards in 4to. He wrote several dramatic pieces, and many valuable &c. Among the latter, his *Trivia*, or *walking the streets of London*, though critical attempt, recommended him to and friendship of Mr Pope; but as dramatic works, his *Beggar's Opera* ever stand as an unrivalled masterpiece, his poetical works, his *Fables* hold the of estimation. Mr Gay's disposition and affable, his temper generous, and tion agreeable. But he had one foible, icident to men of great literary ability excess of indolence, without any So that, though his emoluments were, riods of his life, very considerable, he ers greatly straitened in his circum- r could he prevail on himself to follow f his friend Dean Swift, who endea- ersuade him to purchase an annuity, e for the exigencies of old age. Mr ure, after having undergone many vic- fortune, and being for some time orted by the duke and duchess of y, died at their house in Burlington Dec. 1732. He was interred in West- bey, and a monument erected to his t their expence; with an inscription of his merits, and an epitaph in verse e.

**AY. adj.** [*gay*, French.] 1. Airy; cheer-; frolick.—

h flow the waves, the zephyrs gently

's  
smil'd, and all the world was *gay*. *Pope*.

ival wits did Voiture's fate deplore,

*gay* mourn'd, who never mourn'd be-

*Pope*.

howy.—

in that loves to go *gay*. *Bar. vi. 9.*

**AY. n. f.** [from the adjective.] An orn- embellishment.—Morose and untrac- s look upon precepts in emblem, as on *gays* and pictures, the fooleries of d wives tales. *L'Esrange*.

a town of Moravia, in Hardisch.

'A, a town of Spain in Valencia, 30 Valencia.

**TY. n. f.** [*gayeté*, French; from *gay*.]

liness; airiness; merriment. 2. Acts pleasure.—

om those *gayeties* our youth requires

ise their minds, our age retires. *Deub*.

show.—

*gayety* and our guilt are all besmirch'd,  
*ay* marching in the painful field.

*Shak. Henry V.*

**AD**, a peninsula of Massachusetts, on Martha's Vineyard, 3½ miles long and It has evident marks of 4 or 5 old vol- me of them called the *Devil's Den*, is with grass, and is 20 rods over at top, et high at the sides. Lon. 70. 50. W. N.

**X. adv.** 1. Merrily; cheerfully; airily;

2. Splendidly; pompously; with great show,

The ladies, *gayly* dress'd, the Mall adorn.

With curious dyes, and paint the sunny morn,

*Gay*,

Like some fair flow'r, that early Spring supplies,

That *gayly* blooms, but ev'n in blooming dyes,

*Pope*.

† **GAYNESS. n. f.** [from *gay*.] Gayety; fiery. Not much in use.

**GAYOT DE PETAVAL**, Francis, a French writer of the 18th century, born in 1673. He published an interesting work, entitled *Causés Celebres*, in 20 vols. 12mo. and died in 1743, aged 70.

(1.) **GAZA**, Theodore, a famous Greek in the 15th century, born in Thessalonica, in 1398. His country being invaded by the Turks, he retired into Italy; where he at first supported himself by transcribing ancient authors. His uncommon parts and learning soon recommended him to public notice. In 1450, he was invited to Rome by Pope Nicholas V; and on his death, in 1456, to Naples, by king Alphonso: who dying in 1458, he returned to Rome, where cardinal Bessarion procured him a benefice in Calabria. He was one of those to whom the revival of learning in Italy was principally owing. He translated from the Greek into Latin, Aristotle's History of Animals, Theophrastus on plants, and Hippocrates's Aphorisms; and put into Greek, Scipio's Dream, and Cicero's Treatise on Old Age. He wrote a Grammar and several other works in Greek and Latin; and died at Rome in 1478, aged 80.

(2.) **GAZA**, in ancient geography, a principal city and one of the five satrapies of the Philistines. It was situated about 100 stadia from the Mediterranean, on an artificial mount, and strongly wall- ed round. It was destroyed by Alexander the Great, and afterwards by Antiochus. In the time of the Maccabees it was a strong and flourishing city; but was destroyed a 3d time by Alexander Jannæus. At present it contains only about 2000 inhabitants. The buildings are mean, both as to the form and matter. Some remains of its ancient grandeur appear in the handsome pillars of Pavian marble which support some of the roofs; while others are disposed of here and there, in different parts of almost every beggarly cottage. On the top of the hill, at the NE. corner of the town, are the ruins of large arches sunk low into the earth, and other foundations of a stately building, whence some of the bathaws have carried off marble pillars of an incredible size. Soap and cotton cloths are the chief manufactures. The latter employs 500 looms. Gaza is the resi- dence of a Turkish bathaw. It was taken by the French under Gen. Kleber in Feb. 1799. It lies 50 miles SW. of Jerusalem. Lon. 34. 45. E. Lat. 31. 28. N.

(3.) **GAZA, NEW**, a sea port of GAZA, N° 2.

\* **GAZE. n. f.** [from the verb.] 1. Intent re- gard; look of eagerness or wonder; fixed look.—

Being lighten'd with her beauty's beam,

And thereby fill'd with happy influence,

And lifted up above the world's gaze,

To sing with angels her immortal praise. *Spens*;

Do but note a wild and wanton herd,

If any air of musick touch their ears,

You shall perceive them make a mutual stand,

Their

Then savage eyes turn'd to a modest gaze,  
By the sweet power of musick. *Shak.*

Not a month  
Fore your queen dy'd, she was more worth  
such gazes

Than what you look on now. *Shak. Wint. Tale.*  
With secret gaze,

Or open admiration, him behold,  
On whom the great Creator hath bestow'd  
Worlds. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

—Pindar is a dark writer, wants connexion, as to  
our understanding, soars out of sight, and leaves  
his readers at a gaze. *Dryd.*—After having stood  
at gaze before this gate, he discovered an in-  
scription. *Addison's Freeholder.* 2. The object  
gazed on.—

I must die  
Betray'd, captiv'd, and both my eyes put out;  
Made of my enemies the scorn and gaze;  
To grind in brazen fetters, under task,

With my heav'n-gifted strength. *Milton's Agon.*  
(1.) \* To GAZE [*αγαλλίζω*, or rather *γεσσαν*, to  
see, Sax.] To look intently and earnestly; to  
look with eagerness.—

What see'st thou there? King Henry's diadem,  
Inchas'd with all the honours of the world:  
If so, gaze on. *Shak. Henry IV.*

From some she cast her modest eyes below;  
At some her gazing glances roving flew. *Fairf.*  
—Gaze not on a maid, that thou fall not by those  
things that are precious in her. *Ecclesi. ix. 5.*—

A lover's eyes will gaze an eagle blind. *Shak.*  
High stations tumults, but not bliss create;  
None think the great unhappy, but the great.  
Fools gaze and envy; Envy darts a sting,  
Which makes a swain as wretched as a king.

*Young.*  
(2.) \* To GAZE. *v. a.* To view steadfastly.—

Strait toward heav'n my wond'ring eyes I  
turn'd,

And gaz'd a while the ample sky. *Milton.*  
\* GAZEFUL. *adj.* [*gaze* and *full*.] Looking  
intently.—

The brightness of her beauty clear,  
The ravish'd hearts of gazeful men might rear  
To admiration of that heavenly light.

*Spenser on Beauty.*  
(1.) \* GAZEHOOND. *n. f.* [*gaze* and *hound*;  
*canis acasus*, *Skinner*.] A hound that pursues  
not by the scent, but by the eye.—

See'st thou the gazehound! how with glance  
severe

From the close herd he marks the destin'd deer!  
*Tickel.*

(2.) GAZE-HOUNDS, or GAST-HOUNDS, are  
much used in the north of England: they are  
fitter in an open champaign country than in bushy  
and woody places. If a well-taught gaze-hound  
takes a wrong way, he will return upon a signal  
and begin the chase afresh. He is also excellent  
at spying out the fattest of a herd; and having se-  
parated it from the rest, will never give over the  
pursuit till he has worried it to death.

(1.) \* GAZEL. *n. f.* An Arabian deer.

(2.) GAZEL, or } in zoology. See CAPRA, §  
GAZELLA, } VII, N° 4; and § VIII.

\* GAZER. *n. f.* [*from gaze*.] He that gazes;

one that looks intently with eagerness  
tion.—

In her cheeks the vermil red did  
Like roses in a bed of lilies shed;  
The which ambrosial odours from  
And gazers sense with double pleasur

I'll Ray more gazers than the best  
Bright as the sun, her eyes the gaz  
And, like the sun, they shine on all  
—His learned ideas give him a tran-  
sient light; and yet, at the same time, discer-  
nment which the common gazer never  
*Wait's Logick.*

(1.) \* GAZETTE. *n. f.* [*gazetta* is  
halfpenny, the price of a news paper  
the first was published at Venice.]  
publick intelligence. It is accented di-  
the first or last syllable.—

And sometimes when the loss is  
And danger great, they challenge a  
Print new additions to their seats,  
And emendations in gazettes.

—An English gentleman, without geog-  
not well understand a gazette. *Locke*  
not hear a name mentioned in it that  
bring to mind a piece of the gazette.  
All, all but truth, falls dead-bor-  
press;

Like the last gazette, or the last ad-  
(2.) GAZETTE is with us confined

per of news published by authority.  
English gazette was published at C  
court being there, in a folio half she-  
1665. On the removal of the court  
the title was changed to the *London G*  
Oxford gazette was published on Tu-  
London on Saturdays: and these have  
to be the days of publication ever since

(1.) \* GAZETTEER. *n. f.* [*from*  
A writer of news. 2. An officer appoin-  
lish news by authority, whom *Steele* c-  
ell minister of state.—

Satire is no more: I feel it die  
No gazetteer more innocent than I.

(2.) GAZETTEER, in literature, is  
nerally used as a title for Geographic  
ries, giving a brief account of the va-  
tries, kingdoms, cities, towns, reput  
the world, in alphabetical order.

\* GAZINGSTOCK. *n. f.* [*gaze*  
A person gazed at with scorn or ab-  
These things are offences to us, by m-  
zing stocks to others, and objects of the  
derision. *Ray.*

GAZNA, a city of Asia, once im-  
ted, and the capital of a very extens-  
but which is now either entirely ruin-  
come of so little consideration, that it  
ken notice of by geographers. This  
ciently an emporium and fortress of Za-  
the confines of India. During the va-  
conquests of the Arabs, all this count-  
reduced under their subjection. On-  
of the power of the khalifs, however,  
pire established by Mahomet and his su-  
divided into a number of independent

which were but of short duration. of the Hegira 384, answering to A. D. of Gazna, with some part of the ady, was governed by Mahmud Gazni; a great conqueror, and reduced un- tion a considerable part of India and a. This empire continued in the fa- nud Gazni for upwards of 200 years. uccessors, however, possessed his a- therefore the extent of the empire, reasing, was very considerably dimi- after his death. The Seljuks took the greatest part of the Persian domi- ; and in the 347th year of the He- : of the Gazni sultans were entirely one of the Gauri, who conquered the reigning prince, and bestowed s on his own nephew, Gayathoddin

These new sultans proved greater than the former, and extended their rther than even Mahmud Gazni had did not however, long enjoy the so- Gazna; for in 1218, Jenghiz Khan ured the greatest part of China and rary, began to turn his arms west- et out against Gazna at the head of . To oppose this formidable army,

the reigning sultan, could muster men; and, in the first battle, 160,000 perished. After this defeat, Moham- ring to risk a 2d battle, distributed oug the strongest fortified towns in s; all of which Jenghiz Khan took ther. The rapid progress of his con- d, almost exceeds belief. In 1219 : had reduced Zarnuck, Nur Bokha- ganak, Uzkant, Alshath, Jund, Ton- l, and Samarcand. Mohammed, in ic, fled first to Bokhara; but on the Jenghiz Khan's army, quitted that id to Samarcand. Even here he did o trust himself, though it was garri- ,000 of his bravest troops; but fled rays into Ghilan in Persia, where he n a strong fortress, called *Eshabad*. o found out in this retreat, he fled to ic Caspian sea, called *Abikhun*; where days, leaving his empire, such as it is Jaloloddin. The new sultan was at bravery and experience in war; ould stop the progress of the Moguls. :221, they made themselves masters ddoms of Korazim and Khorasan, very where such massacres as were f before or since. In the mean time embled his forces with the utmost l defeated two detachments of the

This happened while Jenghiz was ryan; but answered little other pur- bring upon that city the terrible ca- dy related under BAMIYAN. Im- the destruction of that city, Jenghiz rds Gazna; which was very strongly where he expected to have found ut he had left-it 15 days before; z Khan's army was much reduced, ps have stood his ground, had it an accident. He had been lately

RT I.

joined by 3 Turkish commanders, each of whom had a body of 10,000 men under his command. After his victories over the Moguls, these officers demanded the greatest share of the spoils; which being refused, they left him. He endeavoured to make them hearken to reason; and sent letters to them, representing the inevitable ruin which must attend their separation, as Jenghiz Khan was ad- vancing against them with his whole army. At last they were persuaded to lay aside their animosi- ties, but it was now too late; for Jenghiz, being informed of what passed, detached 60,000 horie to prevent their joining the sultan's army; who, finding himself deprived of this powerful aid, re- tired towards the Indus. When he was ar- rived there, he stopped in a place where the stream was most rapid and the place confined, with a view both to prevent his own soldiers from flying, and to hinder the whole Mogul army from at- tacking him at once. Ever since his departure from Gazna he had been tormented with a colic; yet, at a time when he suffered most, hearing that the enemy's vanguard was arrived at a place in the neighbourhood called *Herder*, he quitted his litter, and, mounting a horse, marched with some of his chosen soldiers in the night; surpris- ed the Moguls in their camp; and having cut them almost all to pieces, without the loss of a man on his side, returned with a considerable booty. Jeng- hiz Khan, finding by this that he had a vigilant e- nemy to deal with, proceeded with great circum- spection. When he came near the Indus, he drew out his army in battalia: to Jagatay and Oktay, his sons, he gave the command of the right and left wings; and put himself in the centre, with 6000 of his guards. On the other side, Ja- loloddin prepared for battle like one who had no resource but in victory. He first sent the boats on the Indus farther off; reserving only one to carry over his mother, wife, and children: but un- luckily the boat split when they were going to embark, so that they were forced to remain in the camp. He himself took the command of the main body. His left wing, drawn up under shelter of a mountain which hindered the whole right wing of the Moguls from engaging at once, was com- manded by his vizir: and his right by a lord na- med *Amin Malek*. This lord began the fight; and forced the enemy's left wing, notwithstanding the great disparity of numbers, to give ground. The right wing of the Moguls likewise wanting room to extend itself, the sultan made use of his left as a body of reserve, detaching thence some squadrons to the assistance of the troops who stood in need of them. He also took one part of them with him when he went at the head of his main body to charge that of Jenghiz Khan; which he did with so much resolution and vigour, that he not only put it in disorder, but penetrated into the place where Jenghiz Khan had originally taken his sta- tion: but that prince, having had a horse killed under him, was retired from thence, to give orders for all the troops to engage. This disadvantage had almost lost the Moguls the battle; for a report be- ing spread that the enemy had broken through the main body, the troops were so much discouraged that they would have fled, had not Jenghiz Khan encouraged them by riding from place to place to

N n

dicw

show himself. At last, however, Jaloloddin's men, who were in all 30,000, having fought a whole day, with ten times their number, were seized with a panic, and fled. One part of them retired to the rocks on the shore of the Indus, where the enemy's horse could not follow them; others threw themselves into the river and were drowned, though some had the good fortune to cross over in safety; while the rest, surrounding their prince, continued the fight through despair. The sultan, however, considering that he had scarce 7000 men left, began to think of providing for his own safety: therefore, having bidden a final adieu to his mother, wife, and children, he mounted a fresh horse, and spurred him into the river, which he crossed in safety, and even stopped in the middle of it to insult Jenghiz Khan, who was now arrived at the bank. His family fell into the hands of the Moguls; who killed all the males, and carried the women into captivity. Jaloloddin being landed in India, got up into a tree to preserve himself from wild beasts. Next day, as he walked melancholy among the rocks, he perceived a troop of his soldiers, with some officers, three of whom proved to be his particular friends. These, at the beginning of the defeat, had found a boat in which they had sailed all night, with much danger from the rocks, shelves, and rapid current of the river. Soon after, he saw 300 horse coming towards him; who informed him of 4,000 more that had escaped by swimming over the river; and these also soon after joined the rest. In the mean time an officer of his household, named *Jamalarrazad*, knowing that his master and many of his people were escaped, ventured to load a very large boat with arms, provisions, money, and stuff to clothe the soldiers, with which he crossed the river. For some time after, the sultan's affairs seemed to go on prosperously, and he gained some battles in India; but the Indian princes, envying his prosperity, conspired against him, and obliged him to repass the Indus. Here he again attempted to make head against the Moguls; but was at last defeated and killed by them, and a final end put to the once mighty empire of Gazna. The metropolis was reduced by Oktay; who no sooner entered the country in which it was situated, than he committed the most horrid cruelties. The city was well provided with all things necessary for sustaining a siege; had a strong garrison and a brave and resolute governor. The inhabitants, expecting no mercy from Jenghiz Khan, resolved to make a desperate defence. They made frequent sallies on the besiegers, several times overthrew their works, and broke above 1000 of their battering rams. But one night, after an obstinate fight, part of the city walls fell down; and a great number of Moguls having filled up the ditch, entered the city sword in hand. The governor perceiving all was lost, at the head of his bravest soldiers rushed into the thickest of his enemies, where he and his followers were all slain. However, Gazna was not entirely destroyed, nor were the people all killed; for after the massacre had continued 4 or 5 hours, Oktay stopt it, and taxed those who were left alive, to redeem themselves and the city. It does not, however, appear, that after this time Gazna ever made any

considerable figure.—It was taken by A. D. 1222.

GAZNIN, a town of Asia, in the Candahar, 106 miles E. of Candahar.

GAZOLDO, a town of the Cisalpi in the dep. of Mincio, and *ci devau* Mantua, 13 miles WNW. of Mantua.

GAZOLO, a town of the Cisalpi in the department of Mincio, 13 m Mantua, seated on the Seriola Pubeg.

\* GAZON, *n. f.* [French.] In pieces of fresh earth covered with grass in form of a wedge, about a foot long and thick, to line parapets and the traverses. *Harris.*

GAZUL, a kind of Barilla. See *Bz*.  
GDOV, a town of Russia, in the of Petersburg, on the E. coast of lake 90 miles SSW. of Petersburg.

\* GEAR, *n. f.* [*gyrian*], to clothe; *niture*, Saxon.] 1. Furniture; acc dress; habit; ornaments.—

Array thyself in thy most gorgeo

When he found her bound, stri

*gear*,

And vile tormentors ready saw in g  
He broke through.

When once her eye

Hath met the virtue of this magick  
I shall appear some harmless village  
Whom thrift keeps up about his c

—I fancy every body observes me as  
street, and long to be in my old plain  
*Guardian.*—

To see some radiant nymph app  
In all her glittering birthday *gear*,  
You think some goddess from the  
Descended, ready cut and dry.

2. The traces by which horses or ox  
Apollo's spite Pallas discern'd,  
Tydeus' son;

His scourge reacht, and his horse  
then took her angry run

At king Eumelus, brake his *gears*.

The frauds he learn'd in his fan

Made him uneasy in his lawful *gear*.

3. Stuff. *Hammer.*—If Fortune be a  
is a good wench for this *gear*. *Sb. Me*

4. [In *Scotland*.] Goods or riches: a  
enough. 5. The furniture of a drau

GEARON, or JAROON, a town i  
the province of Farsistan, famous fo  
miles SE. of Shiraz.

\* GEASON, *adj.* [A word which  
in *Spenser*.] Wonderful.—

It to Lecches seemed strange and  
*Hu*

\* GEAT, *n. f.* [corrupted from *jet*  
through which the metal runs into the  
*ou's Meab. Exer.*

GEAUNE, a town of France, in  
Landes; 12 miles SE. of St Sever, a  
of Orthez.

GEBA, a town, territory, and riv  
The river falls into the St Domingo,  
30. W. Lat. 12. 10. N.

BAU, a town of Bohemia, in the circle W., 6 miles S. of Benatek.

BAU, NEW, a town and castle of Silesia; 93 miles SE. of Falkenburg.

BAK, a town Turkey in Asia, in the province of Barbekir; 10 miles SE. of Jadida.

BAER, or GIABER, a celebrated philosopher, and mathematician of Arabia, is supposed to have been the inventor of ALGEBRA; he must have flourished before A. D.

BAER, a king or chief of the Arabs, promiscuous with the above philosopher, (N<sup>o</sup>. wrote several tracts on chemistry, or rather, in Latin; printed from a copy in 1711, at Dantzick, in 1682, in 1660. In it is filled not only *rex Arabum*, but *philosophicissimus*; and in two of these tracts, *Investigationis Magisterii*, and *Testamentibus animalium*, &c. he is also filled, though it seems difficult to account for distant titles.

BAER, John, a physician and astronomer who flourished in the 9th century. He commented on Ptolemy's *Syntaxis Mathematica*; he attempted to correct his Astronomer; he is stiled him the Calumniator of Hermetus; he wrote several other works, and Boetius stiled him a learned chemist. But his writings are stuffed with the jargon of the day; that Dr Johnson traces the derivation of *Gibberish* from them. See GIBBERISH.

BAIDORF, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Querfurt, one mile N. of Dahme.

BAIE, a town of Upper Saxony, in Thuringia NNW. of Erfurt.

BAIZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Leitmeritz.

BAK. See GABRES, N<sup>o</sup>. 1.  
BAK, in natural history, a name given by the ancients to their terrible poison, the smallest which kills when mixed with the blood. That it is a venomous froth or humour that issues from the mouths of their most poisonous animals; which they procure in this fatal way hanging up the creatures by the tails, and ing them to enrage them: they collect the froth in small vessels as it falls; and when they have it, they either poison a weapon with it, or mix any part of the flesh introduce the poison into it; which is said to be an immediate death.

BAK. n. s. [*geac*, a cuckoo; *geck*, Germ. *wick*, Scottish.] A bubble easily imposed upon. Obsolete.—Why did you suffer to taint his noble heart and brain with a drowsy, and to become the *geck* and other's villainy? *Sbak. Cymbeline*.—Have you suffer'd me to be imprison'd, to be the most notorious *geck* and gull of the invention play'd on? *Twelfth Night*.  
BAK. v. a. [from the noun.] To cheat;

BAK. See LACERTA.  
BAK, William, goldsmith in Edinburgh, an ingenious unsuccessful artist, deserves to be remembered for his attempt to introduce an improvement of printing. The invention, first

practised by Ged, in 1735, was simply this. From any types of Greek or Roman, or any other character, he formed a plate for every page, or sheet of a book, from which he printed, instead of using a type for every letter, as is done in the common way. This was first practised, but on blocks of wood, by the Chinese and Japanese, and pursued in the first essays of Colster the European inventor of the present art. "This improvement (says James Ged the inventor's son) is principally considerable in 3 most important articles, viz. expence, correctness, beauty and uniformity." But these improvements are contrived. In July, 1749, William Ged entered into partnership with William Fenner, a London Stationer, who was to have half the profits, in consideration of his advancing all the money requisite. To supply this, Mr John James, then an architect at Greenwich (who built Sir Gregory Page's house, Bloomsbury church, &c.) was taken into the scheme, and afterwards his brother Mr Thomas James, a letter-founder, and James Ged the inventor's son. In 1730, these partners applied to the university of Cambridge for printing bibles and common prayer books by blocks instead of single types; and, in consequence, a lease was sealed to them, April 23d. 1731. In their attempt they sunk a large sum of money, and finished only two prayer-books; so that it was relinquished and the lease given up in 1738. Ged imputed his disappointment to the villany of the pressmen, and the ill treatment of his partners (which he specifies at large), particularly Fenner, whom John James and he were advised to prosecute but declined it. He returned to Scotland in 1733, where he gave his friends a specimen of his performance, by an edition of *Salustius*. But being still unsuccessful, and having failed in obtaining redress from Fenner, who died insolvent, he was preparing again to set out for London, to join with his son James as a printer there, when he died Oct. 19. 1749. Thus ended his life, and his project; which, ingenious as it seems, is not likely to be revived, if, as Mr Mores suggests, "it must, had it at first succeeded, have soon sunk under its own burden."

GEDALIA, a Jewish Rabbi, who wrote a Treatise on the Creation; and an account of a Series of Traditions from Adam to A. D. 761. He died in 1448.

GEDDES, James, born in 1710, of a respectable family in Scotland, was educated for the bar, and practised several years; but died of a consumption before he arrived at the age of 40. He published *An essay on the composition and manner of writing of the ancients*; and left behind him several other tracts.

GEDERN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, belonging to the Prince of Stolberg, 24 m. ENE. of Francfort on the Maine.

GEDIDA, a town of Arabia Deserta, 60 miles W. of Ana.

\* GEE. A term used by waggoners to their horses when they would have them go faster.

GEELE, GHEELE or GHELE, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and adjacent prov. of Brabant, 10 miles NW. of Diest.

GEEMSKERSKOI Nos, a cape on the E.

coast of Nova Zembla. Lon. 95° E. of Ferro. Lat. 77. 10. N.

GEENON. See BEN-HINNON and GEHENNA.  
GEEONG, a town in the island of Borneo. Lon. 117. 10. E. Lat. 5. 10. N.

GEERVLIET, a town of the Batavian republic, in the isle of Putten, dep. of Amstel, and late prov. of Holland, 5 miles from the Briel.

GEESCH, a town of Abyssinia, on the Nile.

(1.) \* GEESE. The plural of *goose*.

(2.) GEESE. See ANAS, N° 4, and GOOSE.

GEETE, a river of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and late prov. of Brabant. It runs into the Demer at Dalen.

GEEVACH, mountains of Ireland, between the counties of Leitrim and Roscommon, 9 miles NE. of Boyle.

GEEZ. See ETHIOPIA, § 32.

(1.) GEFE, a river of Sweden, in the prov. of Gestrícia, which runs into the Gulf of Bothnia, 10 miles below the town, N° 2.

(2.) GEFE, or GIAWLE, an ancient and populous town of Sweden, in Gestrícia, divided and surrounded by an arm of the Gulf of Bothnia, which forms it into two islands. The harbour is good, the chief exports are iron, pitch, tar, and planks. It is 60 miles N. of Upsal. Lon. 17. 1. E. Lat. 60. 50. N.

GEFREES, a town of Franconia, in the county of Bayreuth, 12 miles NNE. of Bayreuth.

GEGE, a river of Prussian Lithuania, which runs into the Wilde, 2 miles SE. of Plafchken.

GEGENBACH. See GEGENBACH.

GEGENDE, a town of Turkey, in Bulgaria.

GEGENY, a town of Hungary.

GEGNO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Lario, and ci-devant county of Como, on the E. bank of Lake Como.

GEHENNA, } [ΓΗΕΝΝΑ, Gr. of ΓΗΕΝΝΑ, Heb. the  
GEHINNON, } valley of Hinnom.] a scripture term which has given some trouble to the critics. It occurs in St Matthew, v. 22. 29. 30. x. 28. xviii. 9. xxiii. 15. 33. Mark, ix. 43. 45. 47, Luke, xii. 5. James, iii. 6. The authors of the Louvain and Geneva versions retain the word *gehenna* as it stands in the Greek; the like does M. Simon: the English translators render it by *bell* and *bell-fire*, and so do the translators of Mons and Father Bohours. In the valley of Hinnom, near Jerusalem, there was a place named ΤΟΡΗΕΤ, where the idolatrous Jews sacrificed their children to Moloch, by fire. (See BEN-HINNON, and ΜΟΛΟΧ.) K. Josias, to render this place for ever abominable, made a common sewer of it, where all the filth and carcases of the city were cast; and where a continual fire was kept up, to burn those carcases; for which reason, as the Jews had no proper term in their language to signify *bell*, they made use of *gehenna* or *gehinnon*, to denote a fire unextinguishable.

GEHMEN, a town of Germany in Westphalia, on the Aa, in the bishopric of Munster, 16 miles NE. of Wesel.

GEHOFEN, a town of Saxony, 3 miles S. of Artern, in the county of Mansfeld.

GEHRDEN, a town of Saxony, in the principality of Calenberg, 6 miles WSW. of Hanover.

GEHREN, a town of Saxony, 10 miles S. of Arnstadt.

GEIL, a river of Germany, which joins the Danube, runs through Carinthia, and falls into the Drave near Willach.

GEILBERG, a mountain of Carinthia, in the public, in the dep. of the Roer, and duchy of Juliers, 8 miles NW. of Juliers.

GEILSDORF, a town of Saxony, in the county of Vogtland, 5 miles SSW. of Plauen.

GEISENFELD, a town of Upper Saxony, 10 miles SE. of Ingoldstadt, and 10 N. of Hofen.

GEISENHEIM, a town of Germany, in the electorale of Mentz, now included in the French republic, and dept. of Rhine, 17 miles W. of Mentz.

GEISING, a town of Saxony, in the county of Meissen, one mile S. of Laueritz.

GEISINGEN, a town of Germany, in the principality of Furstenberg, 10 miles N. of Schaffhausen, and 29 NW. of Ulm.

GEISLEDE, a river of Germany, in the county of the Lower Rhine, which runs into the Moselle, 12 miles W. of Ulm.

(1.) GEISMAR, a town of Hesse, 12 miles NNW. of Cassel, and 22 W. of Kassel.

(2.) GEISMAR, a village of Hesse, in the county of Fulda, 3 miles WNW. of Fulda.

GEISPOLTZHEIM, or GEISPOTZHEIM, a town of the Lower Rhine; 2 miles E. of Molsheim, SSW. of Strasburg.

GEISSELBORING, a town of Bavaria, 32 miles S. of Salzburg.

GEISSING SEE, a lake of Carinthia, in the county of Fritzlach, 40 miles N. of Leipzig, and 40 W. of Dresden.

GELA, in ancient geography, a city of Sicily, on the S. of Sicily, so named after GELAS. It was built by colonists from Crete, 45 years after the building of the city, in the 3d year of the 22d Olympiad, 690: and originally called *Lindii*, from the Lindus, a city of Rhodes, there first. This city, after having been destroyed by Phintias, tyrant of Syracuse; and the inhabitants were re-settled in a new city called *Phintias* after his name, called TERRA NUOVA.

\* GELABLE. *adj.* [from *gelu*, Lat. *gelare*, to freeze.] may be congealed, or concreted into ice.

GELANI, GELENSES, or GELOI, inhabitants of GELA.

GELAS, in ancient geography, a city of Sicily, now called *Fiume di Terra Nuova*.

GELATINA, JELLY. See JELLY.

\* GELATINE. *adj.* [from *gelatus*, Lat. *gelatus*, to freeze.] ed into a gelatinous substance.

\* GELATINOUS. *adj.* [from *gelatus*, Lat. *gelatus*, to freeze.] ed into a gelatinous substance.

That pellucid gelatinous substance is an excrement cast off from the fish that inhabit the main. *Wood-worms* always see their eggs laid carefully upon it.

the matter, in which they are reposit-

in the English old customs, a Saxon  
 sive *money, or tribute*. It also denot-  
 ication for some crime committed :  
 gold, in their ancient laws, was used for  
 a man slain; and *orfgeld*, of a beast.  
 ILLD. *n. s.* preter. *gelded* or *gelt*; part.  
 [or *gelt*. [*gelten*, German.] 1. To castr-  
 e of the power of generation.—

ult-calf and ram-lamb as soon as they  
*Tuffer*.  
 hath *gelded* the commonwealth, and  
 cunuch. *Shak. Henry VI.* 2. To de-

essential part.—  
 ears his course, and runs me up  
 advantage on the other side,  
 h' opposed continent as much  
 e other side it takes from you. *Shak.*  
 ive of any thing immodest, or liable to  
 -They were diligent enough to make  
 and to *geld* it so clearly in some pla-  
 cy took away the very manhood of it.

NHARIUS, Gerard Eobanus, an his-  
 NHAUR, } torian and Protestant  
 a at Nimeguen in 1482. He studi-  
 learning at Deventer, and went through  
 of philosophy at Louvaine, where he  
 a very strict friendship with several  
 n, and particularly with Erasmus. He  
 nder and historian to Charles of Austria,  
 ards to Maximilian of Burgundy. At  
 embraced the Protestant religion; taught  
 Marburg; and afterwards divinity till  
 in 1542. He wrote, 1. History of Hol-  
 History of the Low Countries; 3. His-  
 tishops of Utrecht; and other works.  
 DER. *n. s.* [from *geld*.] One who per-  
 act of castration.—

later with *gelders*, as many one do,  
 k of a dozen to geld away two. *Tuffer*.  
 ny-gelder did blow his horn  
 a cat, but cry'd reform. *Hudib.*

IRLAND. See GUELDERLAND.

ELDER-ROSE. *n. s.* [I suppose brought  
 terland.] The leaves are like those of  
 tree: the flowers consist of one leaf, in  
 rose form. *Miller*.—The *gelder-rose* is in-  
 suckers and cuttings. *Mort.*

LPER ROSE. See VIBURNUM, N° 2.

LDER ROSE, VIRGINIAN. See SPIRÆA.

ERS. See GUELDRÈS.

ELDING. *n. s.* [from *geld*.] Any animal  
 particularly an horse.—Though natu-  
 be more males of horses, bulls or rams,  
 les; yet artificially, that is, by making  
 oxen and weathers, there are fewer.  
 The lord lieutenant may chuse out one  
 horses, and two of the best *geldings*;  
 shall be paid 100l. for the horse, and  
 e for the *geldings*. *Temple*.

LDING signifies also the operation of  
 any animal, particularly horses. A colt  
 lded at 9 or 15 days old, if the testicles  
 e down; as the sooner he is gelt, the  
 ill be for his growth, shape, and courage;  
 orse may be gelt at any age, if proper

care is taken in performing the operation. The  
 manner of doing it is usually this: The beast be-  
 ing cast down on some soft place, the operator takes  
 the testicles between his foremost and his great  
 finger, and, sitting the scrotum, presses the stones  
 forth; then taking a pair of nippers made very  
 smooth, either of steel, box, or brasil wood, he  
 claps the chord to the testicle between them, a  
 very little above where the stones are set on, and  
 presses them so hard that the course of the blood  
 through the artery is interrupted; then with a thin,  
 drawing, cauterising iron, he sears away the tes-  
 ticle. This done, he takes a hard plaster, made of  
 rosin, wax, and turpentine, well dissolved toge-  
 ther, and melts it on the seared part, till he has  
 laid a good thickness of it upon the cauterized  
 edge. When this is done to one testicle, the nip-  
 pers are loosened, and the like is done to the other;  
 and the two incised edges of the scrotum are  
 brought close together, and kept in that situation  
 by pieces of sticking plaister. If the part inflames  
 violently, the horse should be bled, and a poultice  
 of rye meal, linseed-meal, and water, should be  
 applied. A considerable improvement, however,  
 on this operation, would be, to perform it exact-  
 ly as in the human subject, either applying a strong  
 ligature round the chord of the testicle, or taking  
 up the blood vessels separately; for the method  
 commonly used is sometimes fatal to the horse, ow-  
 ing to the violent inflammation brought on by the  
 actual cautery. The manner of gelding a hog is  
 as follows:—The operator, after having made two  
 crotchets or slits or incisions on the midst of the stones,  
 presses them out, and takes off the stone. But an-  
 other general method, yet somewhat more diffi-  
 cult, is, first, to cut on the side of one stone, and  
 after having drawn and cut it off, the operator  
 puts in his fingers at the same slit, and with a lan-  
 cet cuts the skin between the two stones, and by  
 that slit presses out the other stone; and thus there  
 is but one incision made in the cod. Boar pigs  
 ought to be gelded about six months old; yet  
 they are commonly gelded about 3 or 4 weeks old.

GELEE, Claude. See CLAUDE, N° 2.

GELENAU, a town of Upper Saxony, 5 miles  
 WNW. of Greiffenstein.

GELENHAUSEN, a small imperial town of  
 Germany, in Wetteravia, with a castle built by  
 the emperor Frederick I. Lon. 8. 13. E. Lat.  
 50. 20. N.

GELENIUS, Sigismund, a learned and excel-  
 lent man, born of a good family at Prague, about  
 1498. Erasmus, conceiving an esteem for him at  
 Basil, recommended him to John Frobenius as a  
 corrector for his printing-house; which laborious  
 charge he accepted, and had a great number of  
 Hebrew, Greek, and Latin books to correct; he  
 also translated many works himself from the Greek  
 into Latin; and published a dictionary in four  
 languages, Greek, Latin, German, and Slavonia-  
 nian. Profitable and honourable employments  
 were offered him in other places, but nothing  
 could tempt him to quit his peaceful situation at  
 Basil. He died in 1555. All his translations are  
 highly esteemed.

GELENSES. See GELANI.

GELHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle  
 of the Upper Rhine, lately in the principality of  
 Nassau



Nassau Weilburg, now annexed to the French republic, and included in the department of Mont Tonnerre, 13 miles W. of Worms, and 23 NW. of Mannheim.

\* GELID. *adj.* [*gelidus*, Lat.] Extremely cold. From the deep ooze and *gelid* cavern rous'd, They flounce. *Thomson's Spring.*

\* GELIDITY. *n. f.* [from *gelid*.] Extreme cold. *DiB.*

\* GELIDNESS. *n. f.* [from *gelid*.] Extreme cold. *DiB.*

GELINOTTE, or GRUS. See TETRAO.

GELISE, a river of France, which runs into the Baïse, at Lavardac.

GELLERT, Christian Furchtegott, one of the finest geniuses Germany has produced, was born at Hayinchen, in Misnia, in 1715, and studied at Leipzig; at which university he was for many years professor of philosophy and the belles lettres, He, early distinguished himself by his talent for poetry; and contracted a strict friendship with the most learned and polite writers in Germany. All his works are filled with sentiment, and bear evidence of the sweetness of his disposition. The most considerable of them are his comedies, spiritual songs, moral poems, sacred odes, fables, and tales. He died in 1769, much lamented.

GELLI, John Baptist, an eminent Italian writer, born at Florence, in 1498. He was bred a tailor, but had such an extraordinary genius, that he acquired several languages, and made an uncommon progress in the belles lettres; and though he continued always to work at his trade, became acquainted with all the wits and learned men at Florence, and his merit was universally known. He was chosen a member of the academy there, and the city made him a burgher. He acquired the highest reputation by his works, which are, 1. *I Capricci del Bottai*, 4to. containing ten dialogues, in the manner of Lucian. 2. *La Circe*, 8vo. This also contains ten dialogues, and treats of human nature. It has been translated into Latin, French, and English. 3. Dissertations in Italian on the poems of Dante and Petrarch. 4. The comedies of *La Sporta* and *La Errore*; and other works. He died in 1563.

GELLIBRAND, Henry, a laborious astronomer of the 17th century, born at London, in 1597. He became so enamoured with mathematical studies, that on the death of his father, he entered a student at Oxford, and devoted himself solely to them. On the death of Mr Gunter, he was recommended by Mr Briggs to the trustees of Gresham college, for the astronomical professorship there; to which he was elected in 1617. His friend Mr Briggs dying in 1630, before he had finished his *Trigonometria Britannica*, it was finished by Gellibrand at his request. He wrote several other works, chiefly tending to the improvement of navigation; and died in 1636.

GELLIUS, Aulus, a celebrated grammarian, who lived in the 2d century under Marcus Aurelius and some succeeding emperors. He wrote a collection of observations on authors, for the use of his children; and called it *Noctes Attice*, because composed in the *nights* of a winter he spent at Athens. The chief value of it is for preserving many facts and monuments of antiquity not to be

found elsewhere. Critics and grammarians bestowed much pains on this writer.

(1.) \* GELLY. *n. f.* [*gelatus*, Latin] coous body; viscosity; glue; gluey f My best blood turn

To an infected *gelly*. *Shak. W*

The tapers of the gods,

The sun and moon become like wa

The shooting stars end all in purple

And chaos is at hand. *Dryd. and L*

—The white of an egg will coagulate rate heat, and the hardest of animal solvable again into *gellier*. *Arbut. on*

(2.) GELLY. See JELLY.

GELLY-CAIRN, a mountain of Perthshire, 8 miles north of Crief.

GELMA, or KALMAH, a town of Algiers, 50 miles N. of Constantina.

GELMUDEN, or } a town of the

GELMUYDEN, } public, in the

of Yssel, and late province of Ove

the Vecht, on the Zuyder Zee, 6 mi

of Campen, and 3 SE. of Vollenhove.

GELNHAUSEN, a town of Ger circle of the Upper Rhine and coun Munzenburg, on the Kintzig, 12 1 Hanau. Lon. 26. 48. E. of Ferro. L.

GELO, or } son of Dinomenes, wh

GELON, } self absolute at Syrac

484. He conquered the Carthaginian

and made his usurpation popular by

quity and moderation. He reigned;

his death was univervally lamented;

He was called the father of his peop

patron of liberty, and honoured as

His brother Hiero succeeded him. See

GELSO, a village of Maritime Au

isle of Lesina, 18 miles from Civita

has a harbour and fine marble quarrie

(1.) \* GELT. *n. f.* [from *geld*.]

animal; gelding. Not used.—The

they esteem the most profitable. *Mori*

(2.) \* GELT. *n. f.* [corrupted for

rhyme from *gilt*.] Tinsel; gilt surfa

I won her with a girdle of *gelt*,

Emboss with bugle about the belt.

(3.) \* GELT. The participle pas

—Let the others be *gelt* for oxen. *Me*

(4.) GELT, in geography, a river

in Cumberland, which runs into the I

SE. of Brampton.

(1.) \* GEM. *n. f.* [*gemma*, Lat.]

a precious stone of whatever kind.—

Love his fancy drew;

And so to take the *gem* Urania fou

I saw his bleeding rings

Their precious *gems* new lost, began

Led him, begg'd for him, sav'd him t

—It will seem a hard matter to shado well pointed diamond, that hath many give the lustre where it ought. *Peacha ing.*—

Stones of small worth may lie unf

But night itself does the rich *gem* be

—The basis of all *gems* is, when p

diaphanous, and either crystal or an

matter; but we find the diaphaneity



by means of a fine metallic matter.  
The first bud.—  
The joints of the prolific stem  
the knot is raised, call'd a gem;  
in short space, itself the cluster shows.  
*Denham.*

Embalden'd out they come,  
the gems, and burst the narrow room.  
*Dryden.*

in botany, (§ 1. def. 2.) See GEMMA.  
s, in natural history, are divided into  
the pellucid and semipellucid.

PELLUCID. The bodies composing  
gems are bright, elegant, and beauti-  
naturally and essentially compound,  
in small detached masses, extremely  
great lustre.

SEMIPELLUCID. The bodies compo-  
s, are stones naturally and essentially  
not inflammable nor soluble in water,  
tached masses, and composed of crys-  
tal, debas'd by earth: however, they  
highly debas'd, and are of great beauty  
less, of a moderate degree of transpa-  
are usually found in small masses.

25. HARDNESS AND COLOURS OF. The  
of gems depends principally on obser-  
hardness and colour. Their hardness  
ly allowed to stand in the following  
diamond the hardest of all; then the  
emerald, jacinth, amethyst, gar-  
chalcedony, onyx, jasper, agate, por-  
marble. This difference, however, is  
constant, but frequently varies.  
Gems may be allowed to succeed the onyx;  
the family of metallic glassy fluors seem  
next. In point of colour, the diamond  
or its transparency, the ruby for its pur-  
ple for its blue, the emerald for its  
jacinth for its orange, the amethyst  
its carnation, the onyx for its tawny,  
agate, and porphyry, for their verme-  
l, and variegated colours, and the gar-  
transparent blood-red. All these gems  
nes found coloured and spotted, and  
quite limpid and colourless. In this case,  
the cutter knows how to distinguish their  
ecies by their different degrees of hard-  
the mill. For the cutting or polishing  
the fine powder of the fragments of  
are next in degree of hardness is always  
to grind away the softer; but as none of  
arder than the diamond, it can only  
be by its own powder. Cronstedt ob-  
serves in general, that the colours of the  
emerald are said to remain in the fire,  
of the topaz flies off: hence it is usual  
to topaz, and thence substitute it for the

“ Their colours (says our author) are  
supposed to depend upon metallic vapo-  
r may they not more justly be supposed  
to be a phlogiston united with a metallic  
ber earth? because we find that metal-  
lic which are perfectly well calcined give  
no any glass; and that the manganese,  
in hand, gives more colour than can be  
in the small quantity of metal which is  
extracted from it.” M. Magellan is of opi-

nion, that their colour is owing chiefly to  
the mixture of iron which enters their composition.  
The sentiment of Cronstedt, that phlogiston was  
a share in their production, is exploded by the new  
doctrines, which deny the existence of phlogiston.  
See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(5.) GEMS, IMITATION OF. See PASTES.  
(6.) GEMS, TEXTURE AND COMPONENT PARTS  
OF. With regard to the texture of gems, M. Ma-  
gellan observes, that all of them are foliated or  
laminated, and of various degrees of hardness.  
Whenever the edges of these laminæ are sensible  
to the eye, they have a fibrous appearance, and  
reflect various shades of colour, which change  
successively according to their angular position  
to the eye. These are called by the French *éba-*  
*torantes*; and what is a blemish in their transpa-  
rency, often enhances their value on account of  
their scarcity. But when the substance of a gem  
is composed of a broken texture, consisting of va-  
rious sets of laminæ differently inclined to each  
other, it emits at the same time various irradia-  
tions of different colours, which succeed one an-  
other according to their angle of position. Gems  
of this kind are called OPALS, and are valued in  
proportion to the brilliancy, beauty, and variety  
of their colours. Their crystallization doubtless  
depends on the same cause which produces that of  
salts, earths, and metals; (See CRYSTALLIZATION)  
but as to the particular configuration of each  
species of gems, we can hardly depend upon  
any individual form as a criterion to ascertain each  
kind; and when we have attended with the ut-  
most care to all that has been written on the sub-  
ject, we are at last obliged to appeal to chemi-  
cal analysis, because they very often assume va-  
rious forms. The following table shows the com-  
ponent parts of gems according to the analysis of  
Bergman and M. Achard; B denoting Bergman's  
analysis, and A that of Achard.

	Argil.	Silic.	Calc.	Ir.
Red oriental ruby, - -	B 40	39	9	10
Ditto, - - - - -	A 37.5	42.5	9	11
Blue oriental sapphire -	B 58	35	5	2
Ditto, - - - - -	A 58	33	6	3
Yellow topaz from Saxony,	B 46	39	8	6
Green oriental emerald,	B 60	24	8	6
Ditto, - - - - -	A 60	23	10	7
Yellow-brown oriental hyacinth, - - - - -	B 40	25	20	13
Ditto, - - - - -	A 42	22	20	16
Tourmalin of Ceylon, -	B 39	37	15	9
Ditto from Brasil, - -	B 50	34	11	5
Ditto from Tyrol, - -	B 42	40	12	6
Garnet from Bohemia, -	A 30	48	11	10

The chrysoptase from Koseinitz in Silesia was  
likewise analysed by M. Achard; who found that  
it contained 456 grains of silicious earth, 13 of  
calcareous, 6 of magnesia, 3 of copper, and 2 of  
iron. “ This (says M. Magellan) seems to be the  
only gem that contains no argillaceous earth.”

(1.) \* To GEM. v. a. [*gemma*, Lat.] To adorn,  
as with jewels or buds.

(2.) \* To GEM. v. n. [*gemma*, Lat.] To put  
forth the first buds.—

fast rose in the stately trees, and spread  
 air branches, hung with copious fruit; or  
*gemm'd*  
 in blossoms.

*Milt. Par. Loff.*

MAAGIDID, or DELGUMUTU, a town of  
 Morocco, 45 miles SW. of Morocco.

(1.) GEMAPPE, or JEMAPPES, a village of  
 the French republic, in the  
 department so named, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) formerly in the province  
 of Austrian Hainault, rendered famous by  
 a bloody battle fought near it, on the 5th Nov.  
 1792, between the French under Dumourier, and  
 the Austrians under Clairfait; wherein, after a  
 most obstinate resistance, the latter who were  
 strongly posted on the heights of Gemappes, were  
 compelled to retreat to Mons. The loss on both  
 sides must have been great, as there has seldom  
 been a more obstinate contest. Perhaps Dumourier  
 underrated his own loss, when he stated it at only  
 900 men, and that of the Austrians at 4000. The  
 carnage was so great, that 3 coal pits near this  
 village were filled up with dead bodies of men and  
 horses. It is seated at the conflux of the Haine  
 and the Trouille, 2½ miles SW. of Mons.

(2.) GEMAPPES, or JEMAPPES, a department  
 of the French republic, comprehending the ci-  
 devant province of Austrian Hainault. See HAIN-  
 NAULT, N<sup>o</sup> 1. Mons is the capital.

GEMARA, or GHEMARA, the 2d part of the  
 TALMUD. The Hebrew word גמרה, *gemara*, is  
 commonly supposed to denote a supplement; but  
 in strictness it rather signifies complement, or per-  
 fection: being formed of the Chaldee גמר, *gemar*  
 or *gheemar*, "to finish, perfect, or complete any  
 thing." The rabbins called the Pentateuch simply  
 the *law*: the first part of the Talmud, which is only  
 an explication of that law, or an application there-  
 of to particular cases, with the decisions of the  
 ancient rabbins thereon, they call the *Mischna*, i.  
 e. "second law;" and the 2d part, which is a  
 more extensive explication of the same law, and a  
 collection of decisions of the rabbins posterior to  
 the *Mischna*, they call *Gemara*, q. d. "perfection,  
 completion, finishing;" because they esteem it  
 the finishing of the law, or an explication beyond  
 which there is nothing farther to be desired. The  
*Gemara* is usually called simply TALMUD, the  
 common name of the whole work. In this sense,  
 there are two *Gemaras* or Talmuds; that of Jeru-  
 salem and that of Babylon: though in strictness  
 the *Gemara* is only an explication of the *Mischna*,  
 given by the Jewish doctors in their schools. See  
 MISCHNA. A commentary. Mons. Tillemont ob-  
 serves, who wrote on the *Mischna*, by one Joha-  
 nan, whom the Jews placed about the end of the  
 2d century; but Fa. Morin proves, from the work  
 itself, wherein mention is made of the Turks, that  
 it was not wrote till the time of Heraclius, about  
 A. D. 620; and this is what is called the *Gemara*,  
 or *Talmud of Jerusalem*, which the Jews do not  
 use or esteem much because of its obscurity. They  
 set a much greater value on the *Gemara*, or Tal-  
 mud of Babylon, begun by one Asa; discontinued  
 for some time, on occasion of the wars with the  
 Sarmatians and Persians; and finished by one Josa,  
 about the year of the 7th century. See TALMUD.  
 The *Gemara* of the Talmud, in its latitude, in-  
 cludes the *Mischna* and the two *Gemaras*,

yet it is properly that of Asa and Josa  
 is meant under that name. This the  
 above all their other writings, and eve  
 level with scripture itself: in effect, th  
 it as the word of God, derived by tra  
 Moses, and preserved without inter  
 their time. R. Jehuda, and afterwar  
 nan, R. Asa, and R. Josa, fearing th  
 should be lost in the dispersion of th  
 lected them into the *Mischna* and t  
 See KARAITES and RABBINISTS.

GEMBICZ, or GEMBOCK, a town  
 in the palatinate of Kalisz, 16 m. ESE

GEMBLING, a town NW. of Horn  
 GEMBLOURS, or GIBLOU, a town  
 French republic, in the dept. of D  
 devant prov. of Austrian Brabant, se  
 Orne. In 1578, a battle was fought  
 between the Dutch and the Spaniards,  
 John of Austria, wherein the former w  
 It was twice burnt down, viz. on the  
 1678, and 17th August 1712. It lies  
 W. of Namur, and 22 SE. of Brussel  
 51. E. Lat. 50. 37. N.

GEMEAUX, a town of France, in  
 Cote d'Or, 2 miles SE. of Is sur Tille  
 GEMELLEENSES. See Acci.

\* GEMELLIPAROUS. *adj.* [*gemel*  
 Lat.] Bearing twins. *Dist.*

\* To GEMINATE. *v. a.* [*gemin*  
 double. *Dist.*

\* GEMINATION. *n. f.* [from *gem*  
 petition; reduplication.—Be not afraid  
 that kill the body: fear him, which,  
 killed, hath power to cast into hell: y  
 to you, with a *geminatio*, which the  
 trovery shews not to have been ca  
 him. *Boyle.*

GEMINGEN, a town of German  
 latinate of the Rhine, 6 m. NW. of Hei  
 30 E. of Philipsburg. Lon. 9. 13. R. L

GEMINI, in astronomy, the TWI  
 stellation or sign of the zodiac, the two  
 representing Castor and Pollux; and n  
 II. See ASTRONOMY, § 548.

GEMINIANI, Francis, a celebrated  
 and composer, born at Lucca in 1680.  
 He received his first instructions in music from  
 Scarlatti; and after that became a pupil  
 Ambrose Lunati, surnamed *Il Gobbo*, a  
 brated performer on the violin; after  
 became a disciple of Corelli. In 1711  
 to England; where he soon recommen-  
 dingly by his exquisite performance:  
 he published and dedicated to Baron K  
 chamberlain to K. George I. as electo-  
 ver, 12 sonatas *a violino violone e cembu*  
 fix with fugues and double stops; the l  
 of various measures, as allemandes, co  
 jiggs. This publication was so well  
 the baron, that he mentioned Gemir  
 king as an excellent performer; in c  
 of which he had the honour to perform  
 majesty, in concert with the celebra  
 But though Geminiani was exceeding  
 yet he had no talent at associating mu-  
 etry, nor do we find that he ever beca  
 performer. He was therefore obliged

abundance on the friendship of his patrons, profits which accrued to him from teaching; was also an enthusiast in painting, and stilly of his temper was such, that, to his passion, he neglected to exercise his talents, and involved himself in debts. In was offered the place of master and conductor of the state music in Ireland; but this could not be conferred on a Catholic, and Geminiani changed his religion. He then set himself to compose parts to the *opera quinta* of Corelli; make concertos of the first six of his solos work he completed, and, with the help of the royal family, published in 1726. In published his *opera seconda*, which celebrated minuet that goes by his name. shed many other pieces, the profits of which do not much mend his circumstances; but his was owing to his rambling disposition: was also an utter stranger to the business of an orchestra, and had no idea of the labours necessary in the instruction of singers. The performance of music to which they were engaged. The consequence of this was, *certo spirituale*, which he had advertised for benefit in 1748, failed in the performance; the audience, however, compassionate; the books were changed, and the performance was continued with compositions of his which he executed in such a manner as was got. The profits arising from this performance enabled him to take a journey to Paris; staid long enough to get plates engraven of his solos, and the parts of two operas. About 1755 he returned to England, advertised them for sale. In 1761, he returned to Ireland; and was kindly entertained by Mr Matthew Dubourg, who had been master of the king's band in London, through life, had ever been disposed to him friendly offices. Soon after Geminiani's arrival at Dublin, he was called upon by the king. Geminiani had spent many years in compiling an elaborate treatise on music, intended for publication; but soon after his arrival, by the treachery of a female servant, it was said, was recommended to him for her end, but that she might steal it, it was eyed away and could not be recovered. Geminiani's loss, and his inability to re-attain his end; at least he survived it a short time, dying on the 17th of Sept. 1762. His wing list comprises the whole of his publications, except 2 or 3 articles of small account. Solos for a violin, *opera prima*; six concertos for a violin, *opera seconda*; six concertos for a violin, *opera terza*; twelve solos for a violin, *opera quarta*; six solos for a violoncello, *opera quinta*; the same made into solos for a violin, *opera sexta*; 6 concertos for a violin, *opera settima*; rules for playing in taste; on good taste; the art of playing the violoncello from his first solos, *opera undecima*; accompaniment, two books; his first set of concertos in score; and the cu-

PART I.

chanted forest.—Of his solos the *opera prima* is esteemed the best. Of his concertos some are excellent, others of them scarce pass the bounds of mediocrity. The 4th of the third opera not only surpasses all the rest, but, in the opinion of the best judges of harmony, is the finest instrumental composition extant.

GEMINIANI, St., a town of Tuscany, on a mountain, in which is a mine of vitriol.

\* GEMINOUS. *adj.* [*geminus*, Lat.] Double.—Christians have baptized these *geminous* births, and double connascencies, with several names, as conceiving in them a distinction of souls. *Brown.*

\* GEMINY. *n. f.* [*geminus*, Latin.] Twins; a pair; a brace; a couple.—I have grated upon my good friends for three reptiles for you, and your couch fellow, Nim; or else you had looked through the grate, like a *gemony* of baboons. *Shakespeare.*—A *gemony* of asses split will make just four of you. *Congreve.*

GEMISTUS, George, surnamed *PIETAS*, a native of Constantinople; from which, upon its capture by the Turks, he retired to Florence. In 1438, he distinguished himself at the council of Florence, by his learning and abilities. He wrote, 1. "Commentaries upon the Magic Oracles of Zoroaster;" a work of profound erudition; 2. A Comparison between Plato and Aristotle; and 3. Historical Treatises; wherein he discovers great knowledge of Grecian history. He died aged above 100.

(I.) GEMMA, Reinier, an eminent Dutch physician, born in Friseland, in 1508. He was well versed in astronomy, and wrote several works on that and other branches of mathematics. He died in 1555, aged 47.

(II.) GEMMA, Cornelius, son of the preceding; was also famous for his knowledge of mathematics. He died in 1579, aged 44.

(III.) GEMMA, or BUD, in botany. See BOTANY, § 107—109. Buds, as well as bulbs, which are a species of buds, constitute that part of the herb called by Linnaeus *HYBERNACULUM*, or the winter quarters of the future vegetable: a very proper appellation, as it is during that severe season that the tender rudiments are protected. Plants, considered in analogy to animals, may be reckoned both viviparous and oviparous. Seeds are the vegetable eggs; buds, living scutules, or infant plants, which renew the species as certainly as the seed. Buds are placed at the extremity of the young shoots, and along the branches, being fixed by a short footstalk upon a kind of brackets, the remainder of the leaves, in the wings or angles of which the buds in question were formed the preceding year. They are sometimes placed single; sometimes two by two, either opposite or alternate; sometimes collected in greater numbers in whorls or rings. With respect to their construction, buds are composed of several parts artificially arranged. Externally, we find a number of scales that are pretty hard, frequently armed with hairs, hollowed like a spoon, and placed over each other like tiles. These scales are fixed into the inner plates of the bark, of which they appear to be a prolongation. Their use is to defend the internal parts of the bud; which, being unfolded, will produce, some, flowers, leaves,

O O

and

and stipulæ; others, footstalks and scales. All these parts, while they remain in the bud, are tender, delicate, folded over each other, and covered with a thick clammy juice, which is sometimes resinous and odoriferous, as in the tacahamac tree. This juice serves not only to defend the more tender parts of the embryo plant from cold, the assaults of insects, and other external injuries; but likewise from excessive perspiration, which, in its young and infant state, would be very destructive. It is conspicuous in the buds of horse-chestnut, poplar, and willow trees. In general, we may distinguish 3 kinds of buds; viz. 1. *Florifera*, that containing the flower; 2. *Folifera*, that containing the leaves; and 3. *Folifero-florifera*.

1. *GEMMA FLORIFERA*, termed by the French *bouton fleur*, or *à fruit*, contains the rudiments of one or several flowers, folded over each other, and surrounded with scales. In several trees, this kind of bud is commonly found at the extremity of certain small branches, which are shorter, rougher, and less garnished with leaves, than the rest. The external scales of this species are harder than the internal; both are furnished with hairs, and in general more swelled than those of the 2d sort. This species too is commonly thicker, shorter, almost square, less uniform, and less pointed; being generally terminated obtusely. It is called by Pliny *oculus gemme*; and is employed in that species of grafting called *inoculation*, or *budding*.

2. *GEMMA FOLIFERA*, termed by the French *bouton à feuilles*, or *à bois*, contains the rudiments of several leaves, which are variously folded over each other, and outwardly surrounded by scales, from which the small stipulæ, seated at the foot of the young branches, are chiefly produced. These buds are commonly more pointed than the former sort. In the hazel nut, however, they are perfectly round; and in horse-chestnut, very thick.

3. *GEMMA FOLIFERA ET FLORIFERA*. }  
4. *GEMMA FOLIFERO-FLORIFERA*. } third

sort of bud is smaller than either of the preceding; and produces both flowers and leaves, though not always in the same manner. Sometimes the flowers and leaves are unfolded at the same time. This mode of the flower and leaf bud is termed by Linnæus *gemma folifera & florifera*. Sometimes the leaves proceed or emerge out of this kind of bud upon a small branch, which afterwards produces flowers. This mode of the flower and leaf bud is termed by Linnæus *gemma folifero-florifera*, and is the most common bud of any. Such buds as produce branches adorned only with leaves, are called *barren*; such as contain both leaves and flowers, *fertile*. From the bulk of the bud we may often with ease foretell whether it contains leaves only, or leaves and flowers together, as in cherry and pear trees. Neither the buds produced on or near the root, called by authors *surianes*; nor those produced on the sides from the angles or wings of the leaves, are of strict propriety, an entire delineation of them; since the roots are wanting; and in such cases, the shoots are contained with leaves on the sides, but without flowers: but as a branch may be produced from a part similar to the whole plant,

and, if planted, would in process of time exhibit or produce roots and flowers, we may generally allow, that the bud contains the principles of the whole plant, or the principles of the whole plant may be unfolded *ad libitum*; and that the seed in containing a delineation of the plant in embryo: for although the bud contains the radicle, or plumula, of which the seed is formed, yet it would undoubtedly form one, if it were not for the earth. But as the medullary part of the bud is too tender, and by the action of the juice flowing into it from the earth would be exposed to putrefaction, the buds are generally inserted into the soil, but generally inserted with the root of another tree; yet placed so that the root of the marrow or pith, adhering to the branch, is inserted into the pith of the branch, and a fissure or cleft is made; by which means a large communication of juice. This process is called *inoculation*, and is generally practised with the first sort of bud described. From the obvious uses of this process, we may collect the reason why the Author has granted this sort of protection to most plants that are natives of cold climates; and that, on the other hand, denied it to such as, enjoying a benign atmosphere, have not their tender embryo-shoots exposed to injuries and predations from the severities of the winter. This latter kind are the plants of the forest, some of them very large trees; other small vegetables, of the shrub and underwood. Citron, orange, lemon, cassava, medicinal bladder-apple, shrubby swallow-wort, alate geraniums, berry-bearing alder, Cyprian Syrian mallow, baobab or Ethiopian fig, *justicia*, mild fena, the acacias and ferocoral tree, stinking bean-trefoil, medick, viburnum, sumach, ivy, tamarind, Barbadoes cherry, lavatera, rue, shrubby shades, Guinea henweed, cypress, liana, and savine, a species of juniper. On any of these whose root as well as stalk perishes a true bud is never produced; in such cases, however, are protruded small branchlets, like the feather, from the wings of the leaf, which wither without any farther expansion, and climb and have no lateral branches; but by their own nature or from abundance of the plants become branched, the ramifications obtain an increase similar to that of the whole plant. The same appearance of trees of warm countries, such as those on the above list, in which a plumula, or fissure sends forth branches without a scaly covering, in such countries, this tender part requires some defence or protection from cold. A scaly covering is peculiar to buds, as it protects the embryo included from all external injuries; we therefore speak of trees having buds naked or without scales, the meaning being they have no buds at all. The buds that are folded the following year, break forth in the evolved buds of the present year, in the manner as to put on the appearance of the buds in the wings or angles of the leaf, from which eminences or knots grow but little in summer; as, in that season, the sap

increase of the parts of the plant: but in  
when the leaves begin to wither and fall off,  
placed on the wings, increase; and the  
plant contained in the bud is so expand-  
the leaves and flowers, the parts to be e-  
be following year, are distinctly visible.  
horse-chestnut the leaves, and in cornel-  
flowers, are each to be observed in their  
buds. As each bud contains the rudimen-  
a plant, and would, if separated from  
vegetable, become quite similar to it;  
to shew the wonderful fertility of na-  
made a calculation, by which it appears,  
trunk scarce exceeding a span in breadth,  
uds (that is, herbs) may be produced.  
infinite number, then, of plants might  
from a very large tree!

**GEMMARY.** *adj.* [from *gem.*] Pertaining to  
jewels.—The principle and *gemmary* af-  
its transfluency: as for irradiancy, which  
in many gems, it is not discoverable in  
*gem's vulgar Errors.*

**GEMATIO,** } [from *gemma*, a bud;] a  
**GEMATION,** } term used by Linnæus, ex-  
of the form of the buds, their origin, and  
tent. See **BOTANY, Index.**

**GEMMEOUS.** *adj.* [*gemmeus*, Lat.] 1. Tend-  
ns.—Sometimes we find them in the *gem-*  
ter itself. *Woodw.* 2. Resembling *gema-*  
**MI**, a mountain of the Helvetic republic,  
great chain, which separates the canton  
from the Valais. It is 10,110 feet high,  
10 miles E. of Sion.

**GEMINGEN.** See **GEMINGEN.**

**GEMMOSITY:** *n. f.* [from *gem.*] The qua-  
ing a jewel. *Dist.*

**GEMONA**, a district of Maritime Austria,  
province of Friuli, containing 1 town, 2  
and 2000 inhabitants.

**GEMONA**, an ancient and opulent borough  
of Austria, in Friuli, 12 miles NNW.  
It was taken by the French in 1797.

**GEMINÆ SCALE,** or }  
**GEMINI GRADUS,** } was much the same  
as the gibbet in Britain. Some say they  
is denominated from the person who rai-  
; others, from the first criminal that suf-  
them; and others, from the verb *gemo*,  
or groan." The *gemonii gradus*, accord-  
ing to Plinius Victor and Sextus Rufus, was a  
ed on several steps, from whence they  
ed their criminals; others represent it as  
whereon offenders were executed, and af-  
exposed to public view. The *gemonie*  
is in the 10th region of the city, near the  
Juno. Camillus first appropriated the  
his use, A. U. C. 358.

**GEMMAYAC**, a town of France, in the dep. of  
Varente, 5 miles W. of Pons, and 10½ S.

**GEMMOTTE.** *n. f.* A meeting; The court of  
ed. Obsolete.

**GEMUND**, the name of 6 towns of Germany:  
**GEMUND**, in Austria, 68 m. NW. of Vienna.  
**GEMUND**, **GEMUNDEN**, or **GEMUYD**, in  
east on the Traun See, 24 m. WSW.  
and 108 WSW. of Vienna; famed for  
wks.

3. **GEMUND**, in Carinthia, 10 miles NE. of  
Saxenburg, and 37 NW. of Clagenfurt.

4. **GEMUND**, or **GEMUNDEN**, in the circle of  
Franconia, and bishopric of Wurzburg, N. of the  
Maine; 27 miles W. of Schweinfurt, and 37 E.  
of Francfort. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 49. 55. N.

5. **GEMUND**, or **GEMUNDE**, in the ci-devant  
duchy of Juliers, now annexed to the French re-  
public, and included in the department of the  
Roer. It is seated on the Roer, 24 miles SW. of  
Cologne, and 41 WNW. of Coblentz. Lon. 6.  
48. E. Lat. 50. 38. N.

6. **GEMUND**, or **GEMUND**, in Suabia, on the  
Reims, 24 miles E. of Stuttgart, and 30 N. by  
W. of Ulm. This town is imperial, and its ma-  
gistrates are chosen by the people. Lon. 9. 48.  
E. Lat. 48. 48. N.

**GEMUNDE.** See **GEMUND, N° 5.**

(1.) **GEMUNDEN**, a town of Hesse Cassel, 16  
miles SW. of Fritzlar, and 28 SW. of Cassel.

(2.) **GEMUNDEN**, a town of Germany, in the  
circle of the Upper Rhine, and late county of Lei-  
ningen; now included in the French republic and  
department of Mont Tonnerre.

(3, 4.) **GEMUNDEN.** See **GEMUND, N° 2 & 4.**

**GEMUYD.** See **GEMUND, N° 2.**

**GENADEL**, a mountain of Africa, in Nubia,  
over which the Nile runs, and forms a cataract;  
45 miles N. of Jalac.

**GENAP**, or **GENEFRE**, a town of the French  
republic, in the department of the Dyle, and late  
province Austrian Brabant, on the Dyle, 5 miles  
E. of Nivelles, and 15 SE. of Brussels. Lon. 4. 40.  
E. Lat. 50. 40. N.

**GENBERABA**, a town of Persia, in the pro-  
vince of Irak, 100 miles E. of Amadan.

**GENCAY**, a town of France, in the depart-  
ment of Vienne, 12 miles NNE. of Civray, and 4  
S. of Poitiers.

(1.) **GENDARMES**, or **GENS D'ARMES**, in the  
French armies, a denomination given to a select  
body of horse, on account of their succeeding the  
ancient gendarmes, who were thus called from  
their being completely clothed in armour. (See  
§ 3.) These troops were commanded by captain-  
lieutenants, the king and the princes of the blood  
being their captains; the king's troop, besides a  
captain-lieutenant, had two sub-lieutenants, 3 en-  
signs, and 3 guidons.

(2.) **GENDARMES, GRAND**, were a troop com-  
posed of 250 gentlemen; the king himself was  
their captain, and one of the first peers their cap-  
tain lieutenant, who has under him 2 lieutenants,  
3 ensigns, 3 guidons, and other officers.

(3.) **GENDARMES, SCOTS**, were originally in-  
stituted by Charles VII. of France, about the mid-  
dle of the 15th century, and formed a part of his  
guard; in which station also they acted under o-  
ther princes. It was their prerogative to take pre-  
cedence of all the companies of the gendarmerie  
of France; and, on particular occasions, they e-  
ven preceded the two companies of the king's  
mouquetaires. The sons of the Scottish monarchs  
were the usual captains of this company; and, af-  
ter Mary's accession to the throne, its command  
belonged to them as a right. Hence James VI.  
made a claim of it for his son prince Henry. This

and its elements were also enjoyed by Charles I. and the Duke of Lennox. George Gordon, Marquis of Huntly, succeeded him in 1624, and was appointed commander in chief when Charles II. ascended the English throne. It is not known whether Charles II. was ever captain of the company, but it was conferred on his brother the duke of York, who was captain of the Scots gendarmes till 1667, when he resigned his commission into the hands of the French king. Since that time no native of Great Britain has enjoyed this command. See GUARDS, SCOTS.

(4.) GENDARMES, SMALL, were the Scots gendarmes, the queen's, the dauphin's, the gendarmes of Anjou, Burgundy, the English and Flemish gendarmes, having each a captain-lieutenant, sub-lieutenant, ensign, guidon, and quarter-master. All these different gendarmeries are now abolished, in consequence of the revolution.

(1.) \* GENDER. *n. f.* [*genus*, Latin; *genre*, French.] 1. A kind; a fort. Not in use.—Our bodies are our gardens, to the which our wills are gardeners; so that if we will supply it with one gender of herbs, or distract it with many, the power and corrigible authority of this lies in our will. *Othello*.

The other motive,

Why to a publick court I might not go,

Is the great love the general gender bare me.

*Shak. Hamlet.*

2. A sex. 3. [In grammar.] A denomination given to nouns from their being joined with an adjective in this or that termination. *Clark*.—Cubitus, sometimes cubitum in the neutral gender, signifies the lower part of the arm on which we lean. *Arbutnot*.—Ulysses speaks of *Nauicaa*, yet immediately changes the words into the masculine gender. *Broome*.

(2.) GENDER, in grammar, (§ 1. *def.* 3.) is a division of nouns, to distinguish the two sexes. This was the original intention of gender: but afterwards other words, which had no proper relation either to the one sex or the other, had genders assigned them, rather out of caprice than reason; which is at length established by custom. Hence genders vary according to the languages, or even according to the words introduced from one language into another. Thus, *arbor*, a tree, in Latin is feminine, but *arbre* in French is masculine; and *dens*, a tooth, in Latin is masculine, but *dent* in French is feminine, though the meaning is the same. The oriental languages frequently neglect the use of genders, and the Persian has none at all. The Latins, Greeks, &c. generally content themselves to express the different genders by different terminations; as *bonus equus*, a good horse; *bona equa*, a good mare, &c. But in English we frequently go further, and express the difference of sex by different words: as boar, sow; boy, girl; buck, doe; bull, cow; dog, bitch, &c.—We have also about 24 feminines, distinguished from the males, by the variation of the termination of the male into *es*; of which number are abbot, abbess; count, countess; actor, actress; prince, princess, &c. which is all that our language knows of any thing like genders. The Greek and Latin, besides the masculine and feminine, have the neuter, common, and the doubtful gender; and like-

wife the epicene, or promiscuous, which single gender and termination include several kinds.

(1.) \* To GENDER. *v. a.* [*engendre*, French.] 1. To beget. 2. To produce; to cause. *Tim. ii. 23.*

(2.) \* To GENDER. *v. n.* To come to breed.—

A cistern for foul toads

To gender in.

—Thou shalt not let thy cattle gender of diverse kind. *Lev. xix. 19.*

GENDRAY, a town of France, in the department of Jura, 10 miles E. of Auxonne.

(1.) GENDRE, Gilbert Charles L. of St Aubin, counsellor in the parliament and master of requests. He wrote several works, but is chiefly distinguished by his *Traité sur la perfection de l'art et de la science*, 9 vols 12mo; a curious performance by historic examples, the empire of the arts and science. He died in 1746, aged 59.

(2.) GENDRE, Lewis LE, an ecclesiastic born at Rouen, in 1659. He became abbot of Notre Dame at Paris, and abbot of N. at Claire Fontaine. He wrote a great number of works; the principal are: 1. The Manners and Customs of the French, in the different monarchies. 2. An History of France, 7 vols folio, and in 7 12mo. 3. The Life of D'Amboise. 4. An Essay on the reign of Louis the Great. He died in 1733, aged 74.

GENEALOGICA ARBOR, or TREE OF SANGUINITY, signifies a genealogy drawn out under the figure of a tree, with its stock, branches, &c. The genealogies are usually represented in circles, rising upwards, and aside each other. This is called *stemma*, a word signifying crown or the like. See CONSANGUINITY and the plate there referred to.

\* GENEALOGICAL. *adj.* [from *genealogy*, French.] Pertaining to descents or families; pertaining to the history of the successions of houses.

\* GENEALOGIST. *n. f.* [*genealogiste*, French.] He who traces descents.

(1.) \* GENEALOGY. *n. f.* [*genealogia*, Greek.] History of the succession of families; or of descent in order of succession; a pedigree. The ancients ranged chaos into seven ages, and in that order successively rising or descending, as if it were a pedigree or genealogy.

(2.) GENEALOGY comprehends a full account of the relations and alliances of a family, both in the direct and collateral line. In the military orders, it is required that the candidates produce their genealogy, to prove they are noble by so many descents.

GENEHOA, a kingdom of Africa, in the west of Senegal.

GENEP, or GENNEP, a strong town of Prussia, in the circle of Westphalia, subject to the king of Prussia, but now annexed to the French republic, and department of the Moselle, near the Maas. SW. of Cleves. Lon. 5. 48. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

**GENERABLE**, *adj.* [from *genero*, Lat.] That be produced or begotten.

**ENERAC**, a town of France, in the department of Gard, 5 miles S. of Nîmes.

**GENERAL**, *adj.* [*general*, French; *generalis*, Latin.] 1. Comprehending many species or individuals; not special; not particular.—To conclude from particulars to *generals* is a false way of *arg.* *Broom*. 2. Lax in signification; not confined to any special or particular import.—

If the author speaks more strictly and particularly on any theme, it will explain the more and *general* expressions. *Watts*. 3. Not restricted by narrow or distinctive limitations.—An abstract idea is an idea in the mind, considered as separated from time and place, and so capable to represent any particular being that is conformable to it. *Locke*. 4. Relating to a whole class or species of men, or a whole kind of any being. *Locke*, because some have been admitted with a *general* fault, make that fault *general* which is particular. *Whitgift*. 5. Publick; comprising the

—*How would we deign him burial of his men,  
He disburied at St Colmeskill isle,  
A thousand dollars to our gen'ral use. Macb.  
The fault they to express how much they  
prais'd,  
For the general safety he despis'd,  
Milton's Paradise Lost.*

directed to any single object.—If the same be peculiarly evil, that *general* aversion will be directed into a particular hatred against it. *Spratt*.  
—*My relation to all—  
The wall of Paradise upspring,  
To our general fire gave prospect large,  
Neither empire neighb'ring round. Mil.  
Common; though not universal. 9. Common;*

I've been bold,  
That I knew it the most *general* way. *Timon*.  
*General* is appended to several offices: as, *Attorney General, Solicitor General, Vicar General*.

**GENERAL**, *n. s.* 1. The whole; the totality; the main, without insisting on particulars. That which makes an action fit to be commanded or forbidden, can be nothing else, in *general*, a tendency to promote or hinder the attainment of some end. *Norris*.—In particulars our judgment begins, and so spreads itself by degrees to *generals*. *Locke*.—I have considered Milton's *Paradise Lost* in the fable, the characters, the sentiments, and the language; and have shewn that *generals*, in *general*, under each of these heads.

—An history painter paints man in *general*; a portrait painter a particular man, and commonly a defective model. *Reynolds*. 2. The whole; the interest of the whole. Not in use. Neither my place, nor aught I heard of business, shraided me from my bed; nor doth the *general* hold on me; for my particular grief

its and swallows other sorrows. *Otbello*.  
*vulgar*; not in use.—The play, I remembered not the million; 'twas caviare to the *l's* but it was, as I received it, and others, judgment in such matters cried in the top *act*, an excellent play. *Shak. Hamlet*. 4. [*General*, Fr.] One that has the command over an

army.—A *general* is one that hath power to command an army. *Locke*.—The *generals* on the enemy's side are inferior to several that once commanded the French armies. *Addison*.—

The war's whole art each private soldier knows,  
And with a *gen'ral's* love of conquest glows.

*Addison*.  
(3.) **GENERAL**, § 1. *def.* 10. See ATTORNEY, SOLICITOR, &c.

(4.) **GENERAL** is also used for the chief of an order of monks; or of all the houses and congregations established under the same rule; as, the general of the Franciscans, Cisterians, &c.

(5.) **GENERAL** is also used for a particular march, or beat of drum; being the first which gives notice, commonly in the morning early, for the infantry to be in readiness to march.

(6.) **GENERAL, ADJUTANT**, in the art of war, one who attends the general, (See § 9.) assists in councils, and carries the general's orders to the army. He distributes the daily orders to the majors of brigade. He is likewise charged with the general detail of the duty of the army. The majors of brigade send every morning to the adjutant-general an exact return, by battalion and company of the men of his brigade. In a day of battle he sees the infantry drawn up; after which, he places himself by the general, to receive any orders which may regard the corps of which he has the detail. In a siege, he orders the number of workmen demanded, and signs the warrant for their payment. He receives the guards of the trenches at their rendezvous, and examines their condition; he gives and signs all orders for parties. He has an orderly serjeant from each brigade of infantry in the line, to carry such orders as he may have occasion to send from the general.

(7.) **GENERAL ASSEMBLY**. See ASSEMBLY, § 1. PRESBYTERIAN, and SCOTLAND.

(8.) **GENERAL CHARGE**, in law. See CHARGE, § 8.

(9.) **GENERAL IN CHIEF OF AN ARMY**, (§ 2, *def.* 4.) in the art of war. See WAR.

(10.) **GENERAL, LIEUTENANT**. See LIEUTENANT-GENERAL.

(11.) **GENERAL, MAJOR**. See MAJOR-GENERAL.

(12.) **GENERAL OF ARTILLERY**. See ORDINANCE.

(13.) **GENERAL OF FOOT**, and } are officers  
(14.) **GENERAL OF HORSE**, } next under  
the general of the army, and have upon all occasions an absolute authority over all the horse and foot.

(15.) **GENERAL TERMS**, among logicians, those which are made the signs of general ideas. See LOGIC and METAPHYSICS.

(16.) **GENERAL WARRANT**. See WARRANT.  
(1.) \* **GENERALISSIMO**, *n. s.* [*generalissimo*, French, from *generalis*.] The supreme commander. It is often rather a title of honour than office.—Commission of *generalissimo* was likewise given to the prince. *Clarendon*.—Pompey had deserved the name of great; and Alexander, of the same cognomination, was *generalissimo* of Greece. *Brown*.

(2.) **GENERALISSIMO** is called also *captain-general*, and simply *general*. He commands all the

—*Commission of generalissimo was likewise given to the prince. Clarendon.—Pompey had deserved the name of great; and Alexander, of the same cognomination, was generalissimo of Greece. Brown.*

(2.) **GENERALISSIMO** is called also *captain-general*, and simply *general*. He commands all the

—*Commission of generalissimo was likewise given to the prince. Clarendon.—Pompey had deserved the name of great; and Alexander, of the same cognomination, was generalissimo of Greece. Brown.*

military



military powers of a nation; gives orders to all the other general officers; and receives no orders himself but from the king. M. Balzac observes, that cardinal Richelieu first coined this word, of his own absolute authority, upon his going to command the French army in Italy.

\* **GENERALITY.** *n. f.* [*generalité*, French; from *general*.] 1. The state of being general; the quality of including species or particulars.—Because the curiosity of man's wit doth with peril wade farther in the search of things than were convenient, the same is thereby restrained unto such generalities as, every where offering themselves, are apparent to men of the weakest conceit. *Hooker*.—These certificates do only in the *generality* mention the parties contumacies and disobedience. *Ayliffe*. 2. The main body; the bulk; the common mass.—Necessity, not extending to the *generality*, but resting upon private heads. *Raleigh's Ess.*—By his own principles he excludes from salvation the *generality* of his own church; that is, all that do not believe upon his grounds. *Tillotson*.—The *generality* of the English have such a favourable opinion of treason, nothing can cure them. *Addison*.—They publish their ill-natured discoveries with a secret pride, and applaud themselves for the singularity of their judgment, which has found a flaw in what the *generality* of mankind admires. *Addison*.—The wisest were distracted with doubts, while the *generality* wandered without any ruler. *Rogers*.

\* **GENERALLY.** *adv.* [from *general*.] 1. In general; without specification or exact limitation.—I am not a woman to be touch'd with so many giddy fancies as he hath *generally* taxed their whole sex withal. *Shak.*—*Generally* we would not have those that read this work of *Sylva Sylvarum*, account it strange that we have set down particulars untried. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 2. Extensively, though not universally. 3. Commonly; frequently. 4. In the main; without minute detail; in the whole taken together.—*Generally* speaking, they live very quietly. *Guardian*.—*Generally* speaking, they have been gaining ever since, though with frequent interruptions. *Swift*.—*Generally* speaking, persons designed for long life, though in their former years they were small eaters, yet find their appetites encrease with their age. *Blackmore*.

\* **GENERALNESS.** *n. f.* [from *general*.] Wide extent; though short of universality; frequency; commonness.—They had, with a general consent, rather springing by the *generalness* of the cause than of any artificial practice, set themselves in arms. *Sidney*.

\* **GENERALTY.** *n. f.* [from *general*.] The whole; the totality.—The municipal laws of this kingdom are of a vast extent, and include in their *generality* all those several laws which are allowed as the rule of justice and judicial proceedings.

\* **GENERANT.** *n. f.* [*generans*, Latin.] The begetting, or productive power.—Some believe the soul made by God, some by angels, and some by the *generant*: whether it be immediately created or traduced hath been the great ball of contention. *Glanville*.—In such pretended generations the *generant* or active principle is supposed to be sun, which, being an inanimate body, cannot otherwise than by his heat. *Ray*.

(1.) \* **TO GENERATE.** *v. a.* [*generare*, Latin.] 1. To beget; to propagate.—Tho' which being wild *generate* seldom, *generate* often. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 2. To life; to procreate.—

God created the great whales, & Soul living, each that crept, which The waters *generated* by their kind Or find some other way to *generate* Mankind. *Milton's I.*

3. To cause; to produce.—Sounds where there is no air at all. *Bacon*. *generates* a quantity of good chyle, & *generate* milk. *Arbutn. on Alim.*

(2.) **TO GENERATE**, in music, is to signify the operation of that mechanical nature, which every sound has in producing more different sounds. Thus any, however simple, produces along with it an octave, and two other sounds extraneous, viz. its twelfth above, that is to say, its fifth; and the other the 7th above the other words, the double octave of it. Whether we suppose this procreation to result from an aptitude in the texture of certain particles in the air, vibrating to our ears vibrations that bear relations one to another, as being divided once by the partial and total oscillations of a musical string; or from whatever texture we choose to trace it; the principle found thus to produce another vibration, is said to *generate*. The same principle, applied, by Signior Tartini and his followers, to any two sounds which, simultaneously, produce a third.

**GENERATED**, or **GENITED**, *part. p.* by some mathematical writers, for that which is produced, either in arithmetic, by addition, division, or extraction of root; or in geometry, by the invention of the conic sections, and sides; or of extreme and mean proportion, without arithmetical addition and subtraction.

**GENERATING LINE**, or **FIGURE**, in geometry, is that which, by its motion, produces any other figure, plane or solid. *GENESIS*, § 3.

(1.) \* **GENERATION.** *n. f.* [from *generare*, French.] 1. The act of producing.—Seals make excellent generation: but then the dilation of time without any new sealing, shews they cease to produce. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

He longer will delay, to hear the  
His *generation*, and the rising birth  
Of nature, from the unapparent de-  
—If we deduce the several races of man  
several parts of the world from *generation*  
must imagine the first numbers of them  
any place agree upon any civil conference  
assemble as so many heads of families  
represent. *Temple*. 2. A family; a race.  
Y'are a dog.

—Thy mother's of my *generation*  
she, if I be a dog? *Shak. Timon*.  
offspring.—



of barb'rous Scythian,  
 t makes his generation messes,  
 his appetite, shall to my bosom  
 neighbour'd. *Shak. King Lear.*  
 inaccession; one gradation in the scale  
 al descent.—This generation shall not  
 these things be fulfilled. *Matt. xxiv.*  
 fourth generation they shall come  
 1. *Gen.*—A marvellous number were  
 be conquest of Palestine, which with  
 ue they performed, and held that  
 ne few generations. *Raleigh's Ess. 5.*  
 y some of the ancients a generation  
 t 100 years; by others at 120; by 0-  
 30, 25, and 20: but it is remarked,  
 untinuanee of generations is so much  
 ey come nearer to the more ancient  
 et.—Every where throughout all gene-  
 iges of the Christian world, no church  
 ed the word of God to be against it.

ERATION is also used, though some-  
 perly, for genealogy, or the series of  
 ced from the same stock. Thus the  
 t Matthew commences with the book  
 ation of Jesus Christ, &c. The latter  
 curate translators, instead of generation  
 l genealogy.

ERATION, in mathematics, is used for  
 on or production of any geometrical  
 f equations, curves, solids, &c.

ERATION, in physiology. (§ 1. *def. 1.*)  
 MY, *Index.*

ERATION, in theology. The Father  
 me divines to have produced his Word  
 a all eternity, by way of generation;  
 occasion the word generation raises a  
 a: that procession, which is really  
 he way of understanding, is called ge-  
 cause in virtue thereof, the Word be-  
 o him from whom he takes this origi-  
 St Paul expresses it, is the figure or  
 substance, *i. e.* of his being and nature.  
 t is, they say, that the second Person  
 ty is called the Son.

ERATION. (§ 1. *def. 5.*) See AGE.  
 makes three generations in an hundred  
 h computation appears from the lat-  
 of political arithmetic to be pretty just.  
 ERATION OF FISHES. See ICHTHYO-  
 ZOOTOLOGY.

ERATION OF INSECTS. See ENTO-  
 MOLA; and ZOOTOLOGY.

ERATION OF PLANTS. See BOTANY.

ERATIVE. *adj.* [*generatif*, French, from  
 n.] 1. Having the power of propa-  
 gation; gave to all, that have life, a power  
 thereby to continue their species and  
*Ray's Hist.*—In grains and kernels the  
 is but the nutriment of that generative  
 disproportionable unto it. *Brown.*  
 ; having the power of production;  
 there hath been such a gradual dimi-  
 nution of the generative faculty upon the earth,  
 ere not the like decay in the produc-  
 tions? *Bentley.*

GENERATOR. *n. s.* [from *genero*, Latin.]  
 which begets, causes, or produces.—

Imagination assimilates the idea of the generator  
 into the reality in the thing engendered. *Brown's*  
*Vulg. Err.*

(2.) GENERATOR, in music, signifies the principal  
 sound or sounds by which others are pro-  
 duced. Thus the lowest C for the treble of the  
 harpsichord, besides its octave, will strike an atten-  
 tive ear with its twelfth above, or G in alt, and  
 with its seventeenth above, or E in alt. The C,  
 therefore, is called their generator, the G and E  
 its products or harmonics. But in the approxi-  
 mation of chords, for G, its octave below is sub-  
 stituted, which constitutes a fifth from the gener-  
 ator, or lowest C; and for E, is likewise sub-  
 stituted its 15th below, which, with the above  
 mentioned C, forms a third major. To the lowest  
 notes, therefore, exchanged for these in alt by  
 substitution, the denominations of products or  
 harmonics are likewise given, whilst the C retains  
 the name of their generator. But still according  
 to the system of Tartini, two notes in concord,  
 which when sounded produce a third, may be  
 termed the concurring generators of that third.  
 See *Generation Harmonique, par M. Rameau*; also  
 that delineation of Tartini's system, called *The*  
*power and principles of harmony.*

(1.) \* GENERICAL, GENERICK. *adj.* [*gene-  
 rique*, French; from *genus*, Latin.] That which  
 comprehends the genus, or distinguishes from an-  
 other genus, but does not distinguish the species.  
 —The word consumption being applicable to a  
 proper and improper, to a true and bastard con-  
 sumption, requires a generical description quadrate  
 to both. *Harvey.*—Though wine differs from other  
 liquids, in that it is the juice of a certain fruit;  
 yet this is but a general or generick difference; for  
 it does not distinguish wine from cyder or perry:  
 the specifick difference of wine, therefore, is its  
 pressure from the grape. *Watts's Logick.*

(2.) GENERICAL NAME, in natural history, the  
 word used to signify all the species of natural bod-  
 ies, which agree in certain essential and peculiar  
 characters, and therefore comprehending all of  
 the same GENUS family or kind; so that the word  
 used as the generical name equally expresses every  
 one of the genus, and other words expressive of  
 the peculiar qualities or figures of each species are  
 added, in order to denote them distinctly, and  
 make up what is called the specific name. See  
 BOTANY and ZOOLOGY.

\* GENERICALLY. *adv.* [from *generick*.]  
 With regard to the genus, though not the species.  
 —These have all the essential characters of sea-  
 shells, and shew that they are of the very same  
 specifick gravity with those to which they are so  
 generically allied. *Woodward.*

\* GENEROSITY. *n. s.* [*generosité*, French; *gene-  
 rofitas*, Latin.] The quality of being generous;  
 magnanimity; liberality.—Can he be better prin-  
 ciple in the grounds of true virtue and generosity  
 than his young tutor is? *Locke on Educ.*—It would  
 not have been your generosity, to have passed by  
 such a fault as this. *Locke.*

\* GENEROUS. *adj.* [*generosus*, Latin; *gene-  
 reux*, French.] 1. Not of mean birth; of good  
 extraction. 2. Noble of mind; magnanimous;  
 open of heart.—

f a vigorous kind,  
of the mind. *Dryden.*  
ness to defend  
t friend. *Swift.*  
k fann'd the poet's fire,  
and with reason to admire.

*Pope.*  
common, not more learn'd than

rous as his noble blood. *Pope.*  
who wit and gold refines,  
he ripens mines. *Pope.*  
Theano, heav'nly fair,  
anger with a mother's care.

*Pope.*  
ch forms, with such length,  
stness, as you use for your-  
all little ill-natured passions  
ow great and *generous*, de-

delight in  
is used of animals. Spritely;

the imperial eagle does not stay  
Till the whole carcase he devour,  
As if his *gen'rous* hunger understood  
That he can never want plenty of food,  
He only sucks the tasteful blood. *Cowley.*

Aetæon spies  
Hisop'ning hounds, and now he hears their cries:  
A *gen'rous* pack. *Addison.*

4. Liberal; munificent.—  
When from his vest the young companion  
bore  
The cup the *gen'rous* landlord own'd before,  
And paid profusely with the precious bowl,  
The stinted kindness of this churlish soul. *Parn.*  
Fatt by the margin of her native flood,  
Whose wealthy waters are well known to fame,  
Fair as the bordering flowers the prince's  
flood,

And rich in bounty as the *gen'rous* stream.  
*Heigh on Pharaoh's Daughter.*

5. Strong; vigorous.—Having in a digestive fur-  
nace drawn off the ardent spirit from some good  
sack, the phlegm, even in this *generous* wine, was  
copious. *Boyle.*—

Those who in southern climes complain,  
From Phœbus' rays they suffer pain,  
Must own that pain is well repaid,  
By *gen'rous* wines beneath a shade. *Swift.*

\* GENEROUSLY. *adv.* [from *generous*.] 1.  
Not meanly with regard to birth. 2. Magnani-  
mously; nobly.—

When all the gods our ruin have foretold,  
Yet *gen'rously* he does his arms withhold.

*Dryd. Ind. Emp.*  
3. Liberally; munificently.

\* GENEROUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *generous*.]  
The quality of being generous.—Is it possible to  
conceive that the overflowing *generousness* of the  
divine Nature would create immortal beings with  
mean or envious principles? *Collier on Kindness.*

GENESAN, a town in Asiatic Turkey, in the  
Arabian Irak, 90 miles from the sea.

(1.) \* GENESIS. *n. f.* [*genèse*, French]  
eration; the first book of *Moses*, which treats  
e production of the world.

(2.) GENESIS, the first book of the O  
ment, contains the history of the creat  
the lives of the first patriarchs. This bo  
at the head of the Pentateuch. Its auth  
to be Moses; it contains the relation  
years, viz. from the beginning of the  
the death of Joseph.—The Hebrews calle  
*sebitb*, because it begins with that wor  
in their language signifies "in the be  
The Greeks gave it the name *genesis*, *g. d*  
tion or generation, because it begins wit  
story of the production or generation of  
This book, besides the history of the  
contains an account of the original innoc  
fall of man; the propagation of mank  
rise of religion; the general defection an  
tion of the world; the deluge; the restora  
world; the division and peopling of th  
and the history of the first patriarchs to  
f Joseph. It was easy for Moses to be  
f the truth of what he relates in this b  
cause it came down to him through sev  
for from Adam to Noah there was one  
Methuselah, who lived so long as to  
both: in like manner Shem conversed w  
and Abraham; Isaac with Abraham an  
from whom the facts recorded in this bo  
asily be conveyed to Moses by Amr  
was contemporary with Joseph.

(3.) GENESIS, in geometry, denotes  
mation of a line, plane, or solid, by th  
or flux of a point, line, or surface. See  
ONS. The genesis or formation, *e. g.*  
globe or sphere, is conceived by sup  
semicircle to revolve upon a right lin  
from one extreme thereof to the other,  
axis, or axis of circumvolution: the r  
revolution of that semicircle is the gene  
sphere, &c. In the genesis of figures,  
line or surface that moves is called the *a*  
and the line round which, or, according  
the revolution or motion is made, the *D*

GENESIUS, Joseph, a Greek histor  
flourished about A. D. 940. He wrote  
of Constantinople from Leo to Basilius  
and Latin. It was printed at Venice in

(1.) GENESSEE, a large tract of lan  
York, bounded on the NW. and N. by  
tatio; E. by Onondago county; S. by  
vania; and W. by lake Erie and the Ni

(2.) GENESSEE, a river of New Yor  
runs into lake Ontario; in Lon. 77. 40.  
44. 10. N.

(3.) GENESSEE, a township of New  
Ontario county. It had 217 electors in

GENEST, Charles Claude, a French  
at Paris in 1636. He wrote a didactic  
the proofs on the existence of God, an  
mortality of the soul; and several trage  
died in 1720 aged 84.

(1.) \* GENET. *n. f.* [French. The  
originally signified a horseman, and perh  
tleman or knight.] A small-sized we  
tioned Spanish horse.—You'll have you  
neigh to you; you'll have *coufers* fo  
and *genets* for germanes. *Sbak. Otbello.*  
more likely that frogs should be enge

, than Spanish *genets* be forgotten by *Ray*.

his statue too, where plac'd on high, & underneath him seems to fly. *Juv.* NET, GENNET, or JENNET, in the To ride *a-la-genette*, is to ride after the vion, so short that the spurs bear upon flank.

EIL, a town of France, in the dep. of Loire,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles N. of Baugé.

HLIA, in antiquity, a solemnity kept of some person deceased.

THLIACAL. *adj.* [*γινθλιανθ*.] Per- nativities as calculated by astronomers; nfigurations of the stars at any birth. t immediately before he was slighting hose foolish astrologers, and *genethliac-* rists, that use to pry into the horoscope *Howel*.

HLIACI, in astrology, [from *γινθλιανθ*, eration, or nativity,] persons who e- ptes, and pretend to foretel what shall

by means of the stars which presided ity. The ancients called them CHAL-

IATHEMATICI. Hence the several ci- bu laws, made against mathematicians,

t the *genethliaci* or astrologers. They ed Rome by a formal decree of the se- yet found so much protection from the

the people, that they remained there- ed. Hence an ancient author speaks *hominum genus, quod in civitate nostra*

*etabitur & retinebitur.* ETHLIACKS. *n. f.* [from *γινθλιανθ*.] : of calculating nativities, or predict- re events of life from the stars pred- he birth.

THLIATICK. *n. f.* [*γινθλιανθ*.] He who nativities.—The truth of astrological is not to be referred to the constella- *genethliaticks* conjecture by the disposi- er, and complexion of the person.

TE, in zoology. See VIVERRA.

ENEVA, a ci-devant republic of En- e confines of France, Savoy, and Swit- 7g in alliance with the Swiss cantons, l to France in 1798, in a manner not rable to the then French government; sly against the declared opinion and of a majority of the citizens. It now epartment of LAC LEMAN. It com- extent of about 7 square leagues, and into 9 parishes before its annexation h republic. The country is extreme- , and has many magnificent views, a- the different positions of the numerous untains with regard to the town and inhabitants were formerly divided in- viz. citizens, burgeses, inhabitants, ; and on the revolution in 1782, a 5th *domicilii*, were added, who annually mission from the magistrates to reside

The citizens and burgeses alone, re admitted to a share in the govern- called *inhabitants* were strangers al- le in the town with certain privile-

PART. I.

ges; and the *natives* were the sons of these inha- bitants, who possess additional advantages.

(2.) GENEVA, a city of Switzerland, on the confines of old France and the ci devant duchy of SAVOY, now annexed to the French republic, and capital of the department of Lac Lemman. It is seated on the banks of the Rhone, just at its efflux from the lake of Geneva; and part of it is built on an island in the river. It is handsome, well fortified, and pretty large; the streets in general are clean and well paved, but the principal one is encumbered with a row of shops on each side between the carriage and foot paths. The latter is very wide, and protected from the weather by great wooden pent-houses projecting from the roofs; which, though very convenient, give the street a dark and dull appearance. The houses are generally constructed of free stone, with base- ments of limestone; the gutters, spouts, ridges, and outward ornaments, being made of tinned iron. Some of them have arched walks or piazzas in front. The place called *Treille* is very agree- able, being planted with Linden trees, and com- manding a fine prospect of the lake, with several ranges of rocks rising behind one another, some covered with vineyards and herbage, and others with snow, having openings between them. Im- mediately below Geneva the Rhone is joined by the Arve, a cold and muddy stream, rising among the Alps, and deriving a considerable part of its waters from the Glaciers. The Rhone is quite clear, and transparent, so that the muddy water of the Arve is distinguishable from it even after they have flowed for several miles together. There are 4 bridges over the Rhone before it joins the Arve; and from it the city is supplied with water by an hydraulic machine which raises it 100 Paris feet above the level. This city lies 45 miles NE. of Chambery, 60 NW. of Lyons, and 135 of Turin. Lon. 5. 55. E. Lat. 46. 11. N.

(3.) GENEVA, ACADEMY AND LEARNED MEN OF. This city is remarkable for the number of l arned men it has produced. The reformed doc- trines of religion were very early received in it, being preached there in 1533 by William Farel and Peter Viret of Orbe, and afterwards finally estab- lished by the celebrated John Calvin. Of this reformer Voltaire observes, that he gave his name to the religious doctrines first broached by others, in the same manner that Americus Vesputius gave name to the continent of America, which had formerly been discovered by Columbus. But Vol- taire in this, as in many other assertions is wrong. It was not Calvin that gave his name to the doc- trines, but the public at large, whereas Vesputi- us expressly *stole* the honour due to Columbus. It was by the assiduity of this celebrated reformer, and the influence that he acquired among the ci- tizens, that a public academy was first established in the city, where he, Theodore Beza, and some of the more eminent first reformers, read lectures with uncommon success. The intolerant spirit that formerly prevailed in Geneva is now total- ly annihilated. The advantages of the academy at Geneva are very conspicuous among the citi- zens, even the lower class of them being exceed- ingly well informed; so that, according to Mr

P P CCLF,

Coxe, there is not a city in Europe where learning is so generally diffused. "I received great satisfaction (says he) in conversing even with several tradesmen upon topics both of literature and politics; and was astonished to find in this class of men so uncommon a share of knowledge; but the wonder ceases when we are told that all of them were educated at the public academy." In this seminary the industry and emulation of the students are excited by the annual distribution of prizes to those who distinguish themselves in each class. The prizes consist of small medals, but are conferred with such solemnity as cannot fail to produce a striking effect upon the minds of youth. There is also a public library to which the citizens have access, and which undoubtedly tends greatly to that universal diffusion of learning so remarkable among the inhabitants. It was founded by Bonniard, remarkable for his sufferings in the cause of the liberties of his country. Having been a great antagonist of the dukes of Savoy, against whom he asserted the independence of Geneva, he had the misfortune at last to be taken prisoner, and was imprisoned for six years in a dungeon below the level of the lake, in the castle of Chillon, which stands on a rock in the lake, and is connected with the land by a draw-bridge. In 1536 this castle was taken from Charles III. of Savoy by the canton of Berne, assisted by the Genevans, who furnished a frigate (their whole naval force) to besiege it by sea. Bonniard was now taken from his dungeon, where by constant walking backward and forward, his only amusement, he had worn a hollow in the floor which consisted of solid rock. Bonniard considered the hardships he had endured as ties which endeared him to the city, and became a principal promoter of the reformation by the mild methods of persuasion and instruction. He closed his benefactions by the gift of his books and MSS. and bequeathed his fortune towards the establishment and support of the seminary. His works, which chiefly relate to the history of Geneva, are preserved with great care. The library contains 25,000 volumes with many MSS. of which an account has been published by the reverend M. Sennebier the librarian, who has likewise distinguished himself by several literary works. Messrs Bonnet, Saussure, Mallet, and De Luc, are the other most distinguished literary geniuses of which Geneva can boast. The last is particularly remarkable for the perfection to which he has brought the barometer, and which is now so great, that very little more seems possible to be done. His cabinet merits the attention of naturalists, as containing many rare and curious specimens of fossils, which serve to illustrate the theory of the globe. It may be divided into 3 parts: 1. Such as enable the naturalist to compare the petrifications of animals and vegetables with the same bodies which are still known to exist in our parts of the globe. 2. To compare these petrifications of animals with the same bodies which are known to exist in different countries. 3. To consider the petrifications of those bodies which are no longer known to exist. The 2d part comprehends the stones under 3 points of view: 1. Those of the primitive mountains, which contain no animal bodies; 2. Those of the secondary mountains, which

contain only marine bodies; 3. The tertiary terrestrial bodies. The 3d part contains lavas and other volcanic productions distinguished into two classes: 1. Those which come from volcanoes now actual. 2. Those from extinguished volcanoes. (4.) GENEVA, CHIEF BUILDINGS. The principal buildings are, 1. The Mayor's town-house, a plain ancient edifice with several rooms, in which the councils assemble, and public entertainments are held; and in which a weekly concert is held by subscription every winter. The ascent to the upper part of the city is by a paved acclivity; which is so gentle, that horses and mules can ascend it. 2. The church of St Peter's cathedral, is an ancient Gothic building with a modern portico, of 7 large Corinthian columns, red and white marble from Rochfort. The most remarkable is the tomb of I. Roban. 3. The arsenal is in good order, and supplied with arms sufficient for 10,000 men. There are many ancient suits of arms, and scaling ladders, lanthorns, hatchets, &c. the Savoyards in their treacherous attack on the city in 1602. (See § 7.) are here preserved. The magazines contain 120 cannon barrels. 4. The hospital is a large building, by which and other charities 1000 people are maintained. 5. The fortifications, which are now in the department of Mont Blanc, and the Helvetic republic; and the lake is guarded by a double jetty. (5.) GENEVA, CI-DEVANT GOVERNMENT. See § 8.

(6.) GENEVA, HISTORY OF, FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC. In the time of Charlemagne and territory of Geneva made part of the empire, and, under his successors, they were subject to the German emperors. By the imbecility of these princes, however, the Genevans acquired such authority, that the emperor had no other way of counterbalancing it than by augmenting the privileges of the people. In those days the bishops and counts had constant wars with the people, which the Genevans siding sometimes with one, and sometimes with the other, they obtained an extensive privilege from both. The house of Savoy purchased the territory, and succeeded with additional power. The bishop therefore united to resist their encroachments, and, during this period, the government was strangely complicated, by the various interests of the 3 parties. The counts of Savoy had at last the address to dissolve the union between the bishops and citizens, by giving them an episcopal see for their brothers, and children; by which means their power gradually so extensive, that towards the commencement of the 16th century, C

gh the government was accounted retained an almost absolute authority over the people, and exercised it in a most unjust manner. Thus violent commotions and the citizens became divided into parties, one of which, viz. the patriots *Eidgenossen* or *confederates*; the party being disgraced by the appellation *us* or *flaves*. The true period of Geneva may therefore be considered as commencing with the treaty concluded with Berne in 1526; in consequence of which the duke was deprived of his authority, the bishop from the city, and the reformed reli- gious form of government intro- duced; war commenced with Savoy on the 15th; but the Genevans proved an overmatch to their enemies by their own bravery and the assistance of the inhabitants of Berne.

LEGAL HISTORY OF, TO THE ABOLITION OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLIES. In 1584, Geneva concluded a treaty with Zurich and Bern, which it is allied to the Swiss cantons. In 1602, Geneva made their last attempt against Savoy, when the city was treacherously taken in the night time during a profound silence; soldiers had scaled the walls, and got into the town before any alarm was given; but repulsed by the desperate valour of a few patriots who perished in the encounter. A breach was effected to one of the gates by the gunners; but the gunner was killed before he could be discharged. The war occasioned by this was next year concluded by a treaty, which has ever since been observed as a day of national fast; though the independence of Geneva was formally acknowledged by the king of France in 1754. The restoration of tranquillity without, in consequence of the above treaty, however soon followed by the flames of discord, so common in popular governments; so that during the whole of the 17th and 18th history of Geneva affords little more than a record of the struggles betwixt the aristocratic and popular parties. About the beginning of the 18th century the power of the Grand Council became almost absolute; but to restore the authority, an edict was procured in 1707 from the Imperial party, enacting that every 5 years a general council of the citizens and burghers should be summoned to deliberate upon the affairs of the republic. In consequence of this law, a general assembly was convened in 1712; and the object of that assembly was to abolish the Grand Council which they had been convened. A pro- ceeding so extraordinary can scarcely be accounted for on the principles of popular fickleness and weakness. Rousseau, in his Miscellaneous Works, has given an account of the artifices of the magistrates, and the terms marked on the billets then in use, the question being put, "Whether the Grand Council should be abolished?" the words *or rejection*, put upon the billets by the magistrates, were given, might be interpreted as a consent.

Thus, if the billet was chosen on which the word *approbation* was written, the opinion of the council which rejected the assemblies

was approved; and by the word *rejection*, the periodical assembly was rejected of course. Hence several of the citizens complained that they had been deceived, and that they never meant to reject the general assembly; but only the opinion of the council.

(8.) GENEVA, HISTORY OF, TO THE INSURRECTION IN 1781. In consequence of the abolition of the general assemblies, the power of the aristocratical party, was greatly augmented, till at length, the inhabitants, exerting themselves with uncommon spirit and perseverance, found means to limit the power of the magistrates, and enlarge their own rights. In 1776, as Mr Coxe informs us, the government might be considered as a mean betwixt that of the aristocratical and popular cantons of Switzerland. The members of the senate, or little council of 25, enjoyed in that capacity several very considerable prerogatives. By them half the members of the great council were named; the principal magistrates were supplied from their own body; they convoked the great and general councils, deliberating previously upon every question which was to be brought before these councils. They were vested also with the chief executive power, the administration of finances, and had in a certain degree the jurisdiction in civil and criminal causes. Most of the smaller posts were likewise filled by them; and they enjoyed the sole privilege of conferring the burghership. These, and other prerogatives, however, were balanced by those of the great council and the privileges of the general council. The former had a right to choose the members of the senate from their own body; receiving appeals in all causes above a certain value, pardoning criminals, &c. besides which they had the important privilege of approving or rejecting whatever was proposed by the senate to be laid before the people. The general council, or assembly of the people, was composed of the citizens and burghers of the town; their number in general amounting to 1500, though usually not more than 1200 were present; the remainder residing in foreign countries, or being otherwise absent. They met twice a-year, chose the principal magistrates, approved or rejected the laws and regulations proposed by the other councils, imposed taxes, contracted alliances, declared war or peace, and nominated half the members of the great council, &c. But the principal check to the power of the senate arose from the right of *re-election*, or the power of annually expelling 4 members from the senate at the nomination of the *syndics* or principal magistrates, and from the right of representation. The *syndics* were 4 in number, chosen annually from the senate by the general council; and 3 years elapsed before the same members could be again appointed. In choosing these magistrates, the senate appointed from its own body 8 candidates, from whom the 4 *syndics* were to be chosen by the general council. The latter, however, had it in their power to reject not only the first 8 candidates, but also the whole body of senators in succession: in which case, 4 members of the senate retired into the great council; and their places were filled by an equal number from that council.

to the power of representation, every citizen had the privilege of applying to the senate to procure a new regulation in this respect or of remonstrating against any act of the magistracy. To these remonstrances the magistrates were obliged to give an explicit answer; for if a satisfactory answer was not given to one, a second was immediately presented. The representation was made by a greater or smaller number of citizens according to the importance of the point in question. Since 1776, however, several changes have taken place. This right of *re-election*, which the aristocratic party were obliged to yield to the people in 1768, soon proved very disagreeable, being considered by the former as a kind of ostracism; for which reason they caught at every opportunity of procuring its abolition. They were now distinguished by the title of *negatives*, while the popular party had that of *representants*; and the point in dispute was the compilation of a new code of laws. This measure the negatives opposed, as supposing that it would tend to reduce their prerogatives; while, on the other hand, the representants used their utmost endeavours to promote it, in hopes of having their privileges augmented by such means. At last in January 1777, the negatives were obliged to comply with the demands of their antagonists; and a committee for forming a new code of laws was appointed by the concurrence of the little, great, and general councils. The committee was to last for two years, and the code to be laid before the three councils for their joint approbation or rejection. A sketch of the first part of the code was presented to the little and great councils on the 1st. Sept. 1779, that they might profit by their observations before it was presented to the general council. Great disputes arose; and at length it was carried by the negatives that the code should be rejected and the committee dissolved. The opposite party complained of this as unconstitutional, and violent disputes ensued; the issue of which was, that the great council offered to compile the code, and submit it to the decision of the public. This did not give satisfaction to the popular party, who considered it as insidious; the contentions revived with more fury than ever, until at length the negatives supposing, or pretending to suppose, that their country was in danger, applied to the guarantees, France, Zurich, and Berne, intreating them to protect the laws and constitution. This was productive of no good effect; so that the negatives found no other method of gaining their point than by sowing dissension among the different classes of inhabitants. The *natives* were discontented and jealous on account of many exclusive privileges enjoyed by that class named *citizens*; they were besides exasperated against them for having, in 1770, banished 8 of the principal natives, who pretended that the right of burghership belonged to the natives as well as to the citizens, and demanded that this right should be gratuitously conferred instead of being purchased. The negatives, in hopes of making such a considerable addition to their party, courted the natives by all the methods they could think of, promising public declaration, that they were ready to **upon** them those privileges of trade and

commerce which had hitherto been confined solely to the citizens. The designs of the natives were likewise openly favoured by the king of France, and dispatches were even sent to the French resident at Geneva, to be communicated to the principal natives who sided with the aristocratic party. The attorney-general, perceiving this mode of interference to be unconstitutional, presented a spirited remonstrance by which the French court were so much affected, that they procured his deposition from office; and thus their party was very considerably increased among the natives. The representants endeavoured to conciliate the favours of the same party, and even promised what hitherto opposed in the strongest manner to facilitate the acquisition of the burghership to bestow it as the recompense of any good behaviour. Thus two parties were formed among the natives themselves; and the becoming every day worse and worse, an insurrection took place on the 5th Feb.

(9.) GENEVA, HISTORY OF, TO THE REVOLUTION IN 1782. A dispute, accompanied with violent reproaches, having commenced between two neighbouring and opposite parties, a battle would have immediately taken place, if it not been for the interposition of the authorities on the one side, and the chiefs of the party on the other. The tumult was beginning to subside, when a discharge of musquetry from the arsenal. Some young men, who sided with the negatives, having taken possession of the arsenal, had fired by mistake upon several of their own party, and had killed one and wounded another. This was considered by the representants as the signal for a general insurrection on which they instantly took up arms, and were divided into 3 columns to the arsenal; but finally only a few young men who had rashly followed the orders, they permitted the rest to retire unmolested. In the opinion of some persons, however, this affair was preconcerted, and the representants are said to have been the first aggressors, having thus taken up arms in haste to lay them down. They took possession of all the avenues to the city; and their being summoned next morning by the authorities to fulfil their engagements with respect to the burghership, they held several meetings with the negatives on that subject, but without success, tho' the latter readily agreed to an augmentation of the commercial privileges of the native burghership. The committee, however, absolutely refused to facilitate the acquisition of burghership. The committee, however, at the number and threats of the natives, issued up an edict, permitting the natives to trade, and to hold the rank of officers in military associations; and conferred the burghership on more than 100 persons, taken from the peasantry and inhabitants, and even from the peasantry of the territory. This was approved by the negatives not daring to make their protest. Thus the popular party imagined, that they had got a complete victory; but they soon found themselves deceived. They were prevailed upon by deputies from Zurich and Berne, who were sent to conciliate the differences, to lay

this was no sooner done, than the edict declared the edict in favour of the be null and illegal. - The senate declares of the same opinion; and main- the assent of the councils had been ly through fear of the representants under arms, and whom none at that oppose. The representants, exasperated by the proceedings, presented an- nounce on the 18th March, 1782, sum- magistrates once more to confirm the month afterwards received the laco- that "The government was neither able to confirm it." The natives, selves disappointed in their favourite; very time they had such strong hopes it, behaved like frantick people, and tumult took place. The most mode- popular party endeavoured in vain to ry, by dispersing themselves in different the city; and the citizens, finding t last obliged either to abandon the natives or to join them openly, hasti- the latter measure; after which, as now oppose them, the officers of the s took possession of the town, and insurrection. Various negotiations l on with the negatives, to prevail up- ratify the edict, but without success: few of the magistrates were confined lar party along with the principal nel as they expected the interference of count of what they had done, they prolong the confinement of the pri- to keep them as hostages for their In the mean time the body of citi- s if their power was already establi- sed several members of both councils, n their stead, an equal number of per- re favourable to the cause of the re- The great council thus new-modell- l the edict for conferring the burgher- number of the natives; and appoint- tee of safety, composed of 11 mem- considerable authority. By this com- public tranquillity was re-established; the fortifications were ordered to be and the people were buoyed up by the ous notions of their own prowess, and that France either durst not attack not incline to do so. In consequence error, they refused every offer of re- made from the other party; until at ere dispatched against them by the king and the canton of Berne; and their nerals, Messrs de la Marmora and ndered to act in concert with the nder M. de Jaucourt, who had ad- e frontiers with a considerable detach- Geneva, however, continued to fortifications with indefatigable la- easants flocked from all quarters to ring to mount guard and work at the without any pay; women of all ded to the walls, encouraging the d assisting them in their labour. The iver, advanced in such force, that of discernment foresaw that all resist-

ance would be in vain. The French general Jau- court, on the 29th June 1782, dispatched a mes- sage to the Syndics; in which he insisted on the following humiliating conditions: 1. That no per- son should appear on the streets under pain of mi- litary punishment. 2. That a certain number of citizens, among whom were all the chiefs of the representants, should quit the place in 24 hours, 3. That all arms should be delivered to the 3 ge- nerals. 4. That the deposed magistrates should be instantly re-established: And lastly, That an answer should be returned in two hours. By this message, the people were thrown into the utmost despair; and all without exception resolved to perish rather than accept of terms so very dis- graceful. They instantly hurried to the ramparts with a view of putting their resolution in force; but in the mean time the Syndics found means to obtain from the generals a delay of 24 hours. During this interval, not only men of all ages prepared for the approaching danger, but even wo- men and children tore the pavement from the streets, carrying the stones up to the tops of the houses, with a view of rolling them down upon the enemy, in case they should force their way into the town. About 30 women and girls, dres- sed in uniforms, offered to form themselves into a company for the defence of their country. The committee of safety accepted their services, and placed them in a barrack secure from the cannon of the besiegers. The negatives were greatly al- armed at this appearance of desperate resistance; and some of the most moderate among them endeavoured, but in vain, to effect a reconciliation. At the hour in which it was expected that the at- tack would begin, the ramparts were filled with defenders; and though the most zealous of the popular party had calculated only on 3000, up- wards of 5000 appeared in the public cause. The French general, however, justly alarmed for the prisoners, who were now in imminent danger, a- gain prolonged the period proposed for the capi- tulation. By these repeated delays, the ardour of the defendants began to abate. The women first began to figure to themselves the horrors of a town taken by an assault, and given up to an enraged and licentious soldiery; many timid per- sons found means not only to disguise their own fears, but to inspire others with them under the pretence of prudence and caution: at last the committee of safety themselves, who had so stren- uously declared for hostilities, entirely changed their mind. Thinking, however, that it would be dangerous to propose surrendering in the pre- sent temper of the people, they assembled the citi- zens in their respective circles, representing that if the city should be attacked in the night, it would be no longer possible to convene them; for which reason they recommended to them that each circle should nominate several deputies with full authority to decide in their stead; adding, that they ought to appoint those, who, from their age and respectability were capable of assisting their country by their advice, while others were de- fending it by their valour. Thus a new council, composed by about 100 citizens, was formed; in which the chiefs, by various manœuvres, first intimidating, and then endeavouring to persuade



of necessity of surrendering, at the thoughts of the presence of the city, and entrance of general emigration. A ship to be delivered to the city, the chiefs summoned from their posts, ordered the cannon and batteries to be rendered unfit for service, and at last took care of themselves by quitting the town. The people were in the utmost despair; and left the town in such multitudes, that when the Sardinians entered it in the morning, they found it almost deserted. This was followed by the restoration of the former magistrates, a complete subjection of the popular party, and the establishment of a military government.

(10.) GENEVA, HISTORY OF, TO THE REVOLUTION IN 1789. The changes which took place on this occasion were as follow: 1. An abolition of the right of re-election. 2. The abolition of that right by which the general council nominated half the vacancies in the great council. 3. The right of remonstrating was taken from the citizens at large, and vested in 36 adjuncts, who might be present in the great council the first Monday of every month. They enjoyed a right of representation, and in consequence of that had a deliberative voice; but on the whole, were so insignificant, that they were nicknamed *Les Images*, or "The shadows." 4. The introduction of the *grabeau*, or annual confirmation of the members of the senate and of the great council, vested entirely in the latter. By this law part of the authority both of the senate and general council was transferred to the great council; and by subjecting the senate to this annual revision, its power was greatly lessened, and it was made in fact dependent upon the general council. 5. The circles or clubs in which it was customary to convene the citizens, and all public assemblies whatever, were prohibited: and so rigorously was this carried into execution, that even the *Society of Arts* were prohibited from meeting. 6. The militia were abolished; firing at marks, even with bows and arrows, was prohibited, and the town, instead of being guarded by its own citizens, was now put under the care of 1000 foreign soldiers, whose colonel and major were both to be foreigners. These troops were to take an oath of fidelity to the republic, and of obedience to the great council and the committee of war; but were under the immediate command and inspection of the latter, and subject to the superior control of the former. 7. No person was permitted to bear arms, whether citizen, native, or inhabitant. 8. Several taxes were imposed without the consent of the general council; but in time to come it was provided, that every change or augmentation of the revenue should be submitted to that body. 9. Several privileges with regard to trade and commerce, formerly possessed by the citizens alone, were now granted to both citizens and inhabitants. It was not to be expected, that this constitution would be agreeable to people who had such a strong sense of liberty, and had been accustomed to put such a value upon it, as the Genevans. From what

has been already related, it might seem reasonable to conclude, that an almost universal emigration would have taken place; but after the excitement had time to subside, most of the emigrants fled at first, returned; and, in the opinion of Coxe, not more than 600 finally left the country on account of the revolution in 1782. The emigrants principally settled at Brussels and Cologne, where they introduced the arts of printing and watch making. Soon after the revolution, indeed, a memorial, signed by above 1000 persons of both sexes, all either possessed of property, or versed in trade or manufactures, was presented to the earl of Temple, then viceroy of Ireland, expressing a desire to be reunited to that kingdom. The proposal met with the approbation of the Irish parliament, and was directed towards defraying the expences of their emigration, and affording them a proper settlement in the island. Lands were purchased for 800000 l. in a convenient situation near Waterford; and the new town of GENEVA was actually completed at the end of 10,000 l.; a charter was granted with considerable privileges; the standard of gold was altered for the accommodation of the watch makers; and the foundation of an academy was proposed upon an useful and liberal plan. Several emigrants landed in Ireland, in July 1783; but the nation had expended nearly 30,000 l. upon the scheme, it was suddenly abandoned. This was principally to have been owing to the delays necessarily occasioned in the execution of the complicated plan; and in some degree to the high demand of the Genevan commissioners, who required many privileges inconsistent with the constitution of Ireland. By these delays the Genevans were induced to abandon the scheme, and to return to their former place of residence. Ever since the revolution, who had already landed, though many of them were discontented at the public expence, were discontented at the new town prepared for their reception, and as those among the proposed emigrants who possessed the greatest share of property were ready withdrawn their names, the remainder did not choose to remain in the country where they had not capital sufficient to carry on any considerable trade or manufacture. A petition was presented by the Genevan commissioners, requesting that 10,000 l. of the 50,000 l. voted for the appropriation to the forming a capital; but which had been voted for other purposes, should be of course rejected: in consequence of which the Genevans relinquished the settlement at Waterford, and soon after quitted the island of Ireland, and returned to their former place of abode, where they were far from inclined to submit to the yoke with patience, and were obliged to pay heavy taxes to maintain a military force to keep themselves in subjection; so intolerable did this appear, that in every thing seemed ready for another revolution. The success of this seemed more probable than that of the former, as France was not in a condition to interfere as formerly. The ferment soon rose to such a height, that the government was obliged to call in the aid of troops to quell a tumult which happened in the



duced only a temporary tranquillity; an-  
 mult took place on the 26th of Jan. 1789,  
 inst. of the publication of an edict raising  
 of bread a farthing per pound. On this  
 de instantly rose; plundered the bakers  
 id next day a carriage loaded with bread  
 ted by soldiers was plundered in its way  
 strribution office. The soldiers fired on  
 e, by which one man was killed and an-  
 anded: but the tumult still increasing,  
 rs were driven away; and the body of  
 sed was carried in a kind of procession  
 : town house, as a proof of the violence  
 :ffusion of the aristocratic party. The ma-  
 in the mean time, spent their time in  
 on, instead of taking any effectual me-  
 suelling the insurrection. The citizens,  
 ther hand, attacked and carried two of  
 , dangerously wounded the commanding  
 he attempted to allay the fury of both  
 At last the magistrates dispatched against  
 nsiderable body of troops, whom they  
 he insurgents would not have the courage  
 but in this they were mistaken. The  
 ad formed a strong barricade, behind  
 ey played off two fire-pumps, filled with  
 ater and soap lyes, against the extremities  
 idges which the military had to cross be-  
 could attack them. The commanding  
 is killed and several of his men wounded  
 scharge of small arms from windows;  
 ones of the pavement were carried up to  
 of houses to be thrown down upon the  
 they should force the barricades and  
 into the streets. The tumult, in the  
 e, continued to increase, and was in dan-  
 -oming universal; when the magistrates,  
 would be impossible to quell the insur-  
 -hout a great effusion of blood, were re-  
 -the necessity of complying with their  
 One of the principal magistrates re-  
 -person to the quarter of St Gervais,  
 and an edict for lowering the price of  
 -anted a general amnesty, and releas-  
 -ed insurgents who had been taken into  
 Thus a momentary calm was produ-  
 -the leaders of the insurrection, sensible  
 -magistrates were either unable or unwill-  
 -ploy a sufficient force against them, re-  
 -take advantage of the present opportu-  
 -procure a full change of government.  
 -urrection, therefore, took place on the  
 -be month, in which the soldiers were  
 -at their posts, disarmed, and the gates  
 -the people. The magistrates then, con-  
 -at all opposition was fruitless, deter-  
 -comply with the demands of their anta-  
 -their full extent: and the aristocratical  
 -denly changing their sentiments, renoun-  
 -ment that system to which they had  
 -obstinately adhered. On the applica-  
 -solicitor-general, therefore, for the re-  
 -the ancient liberties of the people, the  
 -of bearing arms, re-establishment of the  
 -d of their circles or political clubs, the  
 -the garrison from the barracks, and  
 -if the representants who were banished  
 -these moderate demands were received

with complacency, and even satisfaction. The  
 preliminaries were easily settled, and a new edict  
 of pacification was published under the title of  
*Modifications à l'Édition de 1782*, and approved by  
 the senate, great council, and general council.  
 So great was the unanimity on this occasion, that  
 the modifications were received by a majority of  
 1321 against 52. The pacification was instantly  
 followed by marks of friendship betwixt the two  
 parties which had never been experienced before:  
 the sons of the principal negatives frequented the  
 circles of the burghers; and the magistrates ob-  
 tained the confidence of the people, by dismissing  
 the military, evacuating the barracks, and devo-  
 ting them to the use of the university and public  
 library. In a word, the constitution established  
 in 1789, gave general satisfaction, as a just me-  
 dium between the too democratic form established  
 in 1768, and the too aristocratic one established in  
 1782. The history of the republic from this period  
 to its union with France, being necessarily connec-  
 ted with that of the French revolution, will be  
 noticed under that article. See REVOLUTION.

(11.) GENEVA, INHABITANTS OF. The city  
 is by far the most populous in Switzerland, con-  
 taining about 30,000 inhabitants, of whom, how-  
 ever, 5000 are generally supposed to be absent.  
 The district dependent upon it does not contain  
 above 16,000. The people are very active and  
 industrious, and carry on an extensive commerce.

(12. II.) GENEVA, LAKE OF. This lake, which  
 was anciently called LEMANUS, (whence the pre-  
 sent name of the department, LAC LEMAN,) is in  
 the shape of a crescent; along the concave side  
 of which Mr Coxie travelled 54 miles, Switzerland  
 forms the concave, and the department of Mont  
 Blanc, (the ci-devant Savoy,) the convex part;  
 the greatest breadth being about 12 miles. The  
 country on the side of Mont Blanc is full of high  
 and craggy mountains; but from Geneva to the  
 environs of Lausanne it slopes to the margin of  
 the lake, and is very rich and fertile. The banks  
 rise considerably in the neighbourhood of Lausanne,  
 and form a most beautiful terrace, with a rapid  
 descent a few miles beyond the town. A plain  
 begins in the neighbourhood of Vevey, which  
 continues for a great way beyond the end of the  
 lake, but contracts towards the water by the ap-  
 proach of the mountains. The lake itself appears  
 at a distance of a beautiful blue colour, and the  
 water is very clear and transparent. Near Gene-  
 va the coast abounds with pebbles; between that  
 city and Lausanne it is sandy; from thence to  
 Chillon it is bounded by hard calcareous rocks;  
 and the extremity of the shore is a marsh formed  
 by mud collected from the Rhone. The great-  
 est depth of this lake, found by M. de Luc, is  
 160 fathoms. Here the birds called *tippet grebes*  
 appear in December; but retire in February to  
 other places where they breed, and make float-  
 ing nests of reeds, as the lake of Geneva affords  
 none. This lake, like all others situated between  
 mountains, is subject to sudden storms. The  
 Rhone runs through its whole extent from its E.  
 to its SW. extremity; after which it passes through  
 the city and divides it into two unequal parts.

(III.) GENEVA, a lake of Upper Canada, which  
 forms

forms the W. extremity of Lake Ontario, to which it is joined by a short and narrow strait.

(IV.) GENEVA, a post town of New York, in Onondago county, at the NW. corner of Lake Seneca, on the road from Albany to Niagara: 74 miles W. of Oneida castle, and 460 NW. by N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 1. 40. W. of that city. Lat. 42. 49. N.

(V. i.) \* GENEVA. *n. f.* [A corruption of *genevra*, French, a juniper berry.]—We used to keep a distilled spirituous water of juniper in the shops. At present only a better kind is distilled from the juniper-berry: what is commonly sold is made with no better an ingredient than oil of turpentine, put into the still, with a little common salt and the coarsest spirit. *Hill's Mat. Med.*

(ii.) GENEVA, or GIN, is an ordinary malt spirit, distilled a second time, with the addition of some juniper-berries. Originally, the berries were added to the malt in the grinding; so that the spirit thus obtained was flavoured with the berries from the first, and exceeded all that could be made by any other method. At present, they leave out the berries entirely, and give their spirits a flavour by distilling them with a proper quantity of oil of turpentine; which, though it nearly resembles the flavour of juniper-berries, has none of their valuable virtues.

(VI.) GENEVA, DUCHY OF. See GENEVOIS.

(VII.) GENEVA, NEW. See N<sup>o</sup> I. § 10.

GENEVANS, the people of GENEVA.

GENEVESSE, the territory of Geneva. See GENEVA, N<sup>o</sup> I. § 1.

(1.) GENEVIEVE, ST, the patroness of the city of Paris, flourished in the end of the 5th century, and died A. D. 512. Five years after her death, Clovis erected the church of St Genevieve, under the name and invocation of St Peter, where her relics, are, or were till lately, preserved, her shrine visited and her image carried with great processions and ceremonies.

(2.) GENEVIEVE, ST, fathers or religious of, a congregation of regular canons, established in France, in the 17th century. It was a reform of the Augustine canons, begun by St Charles Faure, in the abbey of St Vincent de Senlis, in 1618. In 1634, the abbey was made elective; and a general chapter, composed of the superiors of 15 houses, who had received the reform, chose F. Faure coadjutor of the abbey of St Genevieve, and general of the congregation. It increased very much, and before the abolition of monachism, consisted of above 100 monasteries; in some of which the religious were employed in the administration of the parishes and hospitals; and in others, in the instruction of ecclesiastics. It took its name from the abbey of St Genevieve, which was the chief of the order, and whose abbot was the general. The abbey itself was named from the Saint. See N<sup>o</sup> I.

(3.) GENEVIEVE, ST, or MISSIRE, a village of Louisiana, on the Mississippi, opposite Kaskaskias, 12 miles from Fort Chartres.

GENEVILLIERS, a town of France in the dep. of Paris, 2 miles W. of St Denys.

GENEVOIS, or the DUCHY OF GENEVA, a *ci-devant* province of France, bounded on the N. *itserland*, on the E. by Faucigny, on the

S. by Savoy Proper, and on the W. Anciently Geneva and its territory in it. It is now annexed to France in the department of Mont Blanc.

GENEURO, a mountain betw and the *ci-devant* province of Dauph Briançon and Sufa.

GENGENBACH, an imperial many, in Suabia, on the Kinzig; of Strasburg, and 22 N. of Friburg.

GENGIS KHAN, the renowned the Moguls, a barbarous and bloody See JENGHIZ KHAN, and MOGUL.

GENGOUX, ST, *ci-devant* Le R France in the department of Sac and *ci-devant* prov. of Burgundy, wines; seated on a mountain 17 Chalons. Lon. 4. 43. E. Lat. 46.

(1.) \* GENIAL. *adj.* [*genial*. That which contributes to propaga

Higher of the *genial* bed by far And with mysterious reverence I

Creator Venus, *genial* pow'r o The bliss of men below and gods

2. That gives cheerfulness or suppe Nor will the light of life conti

But yields to double darkness nig So much I feel my *genial* spirits c

3. Natural; native.—It chiefly pr natural incapacity, and *genial* indisp

(2.) GENIAL GODS, in the Paga deities who were supposed to prefi ration. The *genial* gods, says Festu air, fire, and water. The twelve l with the sun and moon, were somet ed in the number.

\* GENIALLY. *adv.* [from *genial*. naturally.—Some men are *genially* di opinions, and naturally averse to oth 2. Gayly; cheerfully.

\* GENICULATED. *adj.* [*geni*. Knotted; jointed.—A piece of so plant seeming to be part of a sugar on *Fossils*.

\* GENICULATION. *n. f.* [*gei*. Knottiness; the quality in plants o or joints.

GENIEZ, ST, a town of Fran of Aveiron, and late prov. of Rou the birthplace of Abbe Raynal, an NE. of Rhodéz. Lon. 3. 6. E. La

GENII, in the Mahometan theo intermediate beings, supposed to men and angels. They are of a gro the latter, but much more active than the former. Some of them ar bad, and they are capable of futu damnation like men. The Orienta these genii inhabited the world n years before the creation of Adam, princes, who all bore the common r mon; that falling at length into an corruption, Eblis was sent to dri remote part of the earth, there u and that some of that generation were by Tahmrath, one of the an Persia, forced to retreat into the l tain of Kaf. Of this king's success

to many fabulous and romantic stories. We suppose several ranks and degrees of species among this kind of beings; peculiarly called *Jin*, or *genii*; some *ies*; some *Divs*, or giants; and others *fates*.

**E**, a town of France in the dep. of oire, 3 miles N. of Loches.

**G. n. f.** [*genio*, Italian; *genius*, Latin.] particular turn of mind.—Some *genius* able of pure affection; and a man is said for it as much as for poetry, or science. *Tatler*.

**GLOSSI**, and } in anatomy. See **ANATOMY**, § 201.

**TOMA**, in botany, a genus of the order, belonging to the pentandria class. The calyx is a turbinated quinquefid; the corolla monopetalous and tubular; short filaments; the anthers seeds very numerous and subangulate in a filiform receptacle.

**A**, in botany, a genus of the monogynous, belonging to the pentandria class of in the natural method ranking under *Contorta*. The corolla is wheel-shaped stigma club-shaped; the berry bilobed nesting in a carnosus heart-shaped.

**ST GENIS**, a town of the French dep. of Mont Blanc, and ci de Savoy, on the Guier; 12 miles W. Lon. 5. 30. E. Lat. 45. 40. N.

**A**, **BROOM**, or **DYERS-WEED**, a genus of the diadelphia order, belonging to the diadelphia plants; and in the natural method to the 3d order, *Papilionaceae*. The biate, the upper lip bidentate, the identate; the vexillum is oblong and turned back from the pifil and stamens several species; of which the following most remarkable:

**CYTISUS**, or **CYTISO GENISTA**, a shrub; which is too well known to mention. Its young flowers are sometimes as pickles; and the plant, when dried, is a tolerably pure alkaline salt. Dr the case of a dropical patient, who taking half a pint of a decoction of tops, with a spoonful of whole white every morning and evening. The decoction has been tapped three times, and tried several remedies before. An infusion of the decoction, has been known to produce effects. Cows, horses, and sheep, eat it.

**TINCTORIA** is also a native of the Alps with shrubby stalks 3 feet high, spear-shaped leaves placed alternate, and by several spikes of yellow flowers, pods. The branches are used by dyers for a yellow colour; from whence it is called *broom*, *green wool*, *wood waxen*.

A dram and a half of the powder operates as a mild purgative. A decoction is diuretic; and, like the decoction, is serviceable in dropical cases. *goats, and sheep, eat it.*

T L

(1.) \* **GENITALS**. *n. f.* [*genitalis*, Lat.] Parts belonging to generation.—Ham is conceived to be of Jupiter, who was the youngest son, who is said to have cut off the *genitals* of his father. *Brown*.

(2.) **GENITALS**. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*. **GENITE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Correz, 18 miles W. of Brive.

**GENITES**, among the Hebrews, those descended from Abraham, without any mixture of foreign blood. The Greeks distinguished by the name of *genites* such of the Jews as were issued from parents, who during the Babylonish captivity, had not allied with any gentile family.

\* **GENETING**. *n. f.* [A corruption of *Janeton*, French, signifying *Jane* or *Janes*, having been so called in honour of some lady of that name; and the Scottish dialect calls them *Janes* apples, which is the same with *Janeton*: otherwise supposed to be corrupted from *Juheting*.] An early apple gathered in June.—In July come early pears and plums in fruit, *genetings* and *codlins*. *Bacon*.

(1.) \* **GENITIVE**. *adj.* [*genitivus*, Latin.] In grammar, the name of a case, which, among other relations, signifies one begotten, as, the father of a son; or one begetting, as son of a father.

(2.) **The GENITIVE**, is the second case of the declension of nouns. The relation of one thing considered as belonging in some manner to another, occasioned in the Greek and Latin, a peculiar termination of nouns called the *genitive case*; but in the modern tongues a particle is prefixed to express the relation of this case. In English we prefix the particle *of*; in French *de* or *du*, &c. though in strictness there are no cases in either of these languages; inasmuch as they do not express the different relations of things by different terminations, but by prepositions.

(1.) \* **GENIUS**. *n. f.* [Latin; *genie*, French.] 1. The protecting or ruling power of men, places, or things.—

There is none but he

Whose being I do fear: and, under him,

My *genius* is rebuk'd; as it is said

Antony's was by Cæsar. *Shak. Macbeth.*

The *genius* and the mortal instruments

Are then in council; and the state of man,

Like to a little kingdom, suffers then. *J. Cas.*

And as I awake, sweet music breathe,

Sent by some spirit to mortals good,

Or th' unseen *genius* of the wood. *Milton.*

And the tame demon that should guard my throne,

Shrinks at a *genius* greater than his own. *Dryd.*

To your glad *genius* sacrifice this day;

Let common meats respectfully give way. *Dryd.*

2. A man endowed with superior faculties.—There is no little writer of Pindaricks who is not mentioned as a prodigious *genius*. *Addison*. 3. Mental power or faculties.—

The state and order does proclaim

The *genius* of that royal dame. *Wallis.*

4. Disposition of nature by which any one is qualified for some peculiar employment.—

A happy *genius* is the gift of nature. *Dryden*.—Your majesty's sagacity, and happy *genius* for natural history, is a better preparation for enquiries of this kind than all the dead learning of the schools. *Burnet's Theory*, Preface.—

One science only will one *genius* fit;  
So vast is art, so narrow human wit.

*Pope on Criticism.*

—The Romans, though they had no great *genius* for trade, yet were not entirely neglectful of it.  
*Arbutnot on Coins.* 5. Nature; disposition.—

Studious to please the *genius* of the times,

With periods, points, and tropes, he flurs his crimes.  
*Dryden.*

—Another *genius* and disposition improper for philosophical contemplations, is not so much from the narrowness of their understanding, as because they will not take time to extend them.

*Burnet's Theory.*—

He tames the *genius* of the stubborn plain. *Pope.*

(2.) *GENIUS*, (§ 1. def. 1.) a good or evil spirit or dæmon, whom the ancients supposed set over each person, to direct his birth, accompany him in life, and to be his guard. See *DÆMON*. Among the Romans, Festus observes, the name *genius* was given to the god who had the power of doing all things, *deum qui vim obtineret rerum omnium gerendarum*; which Vossius, *de Idol.* rather chooses to read *genendarum*, who has the power of producing all things; by reason Censorinus frequently uses *gerere* for *gignere*. Accordingly St Augustin, *de Civitate Dei*, relates, from Varro, that the *genius* was a god who had the power of generating all things; and presided over them when produced. Festus adds, that Ausulius spake of the *genius* as the Son of God, and the Father of men, who gave them life; others represented the *genius* as the tutelary god of each place: and it is certain, the last is the most usual meaning of the word. The ancients had their *genii* of nations, of cities, of provinces, &c. The following was a very common inscription on their medals, *GENIUS POPULI ROM.* “The genius of the Roman people;” or *GENIO POP. ROM.* “to the genius of the Roman people.” In this sense *genius* and *lar* were the same thing; as Censorinus and Apulius affirm they were. See *LARES* and *PENATES*. The Platonists, and other eastern philosophers, supposed the *genii* to inhabit the vast region of air between earth and heaven: That they were a sort of intermediate powers, who acted as mediators between gods and men: That they were the interpreters and agents of the gods; communicated their wills to men; and the prayers and vows of men to the gods. As they thought it below the majesty of the gods to enter into such trifling concerns, they esteemed this the lot of the *genii*, whose nature was a mean between the two; who derived immortality from the one, and passions from the other; and who had a body framed of an aerial matter. Most of the philosophers, however, held, that the *genii* of particular men were born and died with them; and Plutarch attributes the ceasing of oracles partly to the death of the *genii*. See *ORACLE*. Those heathens, who considered the *genii* as the guardians of particular persons, believed that they rejoiced and were afflicted at the good or ill fortune that befel their wards. They never, or very rarely, appeared to them; and then only in favour of some person of extraordinary virtue or dignity. They likewise held a great difference between the *genii* of different

men; and that some were much more than others: On this principle a wizard bids Antony keep at a distance from (Antony's *genius* was inferior to and less of that of Octavius. There were all who took a pleasure in persecuting, bringing them evil tidings: such was *terculus*, &c. which appeared to Brutus before the battle of Philippi. The latter called *larvæ* and *lemures*. See *LARVÆ* and *LEMURES*.

(3.) *GENIUS*, (§ 1. def. 4.) signifies a talent, which a man has received from nature, which a man has received from nature, but indifferently and with a great desire. To know the bent of nature is the most important concern. Men come into the world with a *genius* determined not only to a certain part of that art, in which alone they are capable of success. If they quit their art, they fall even below mediocrity in their art. Art and industry add much to natural talents, but cannot supply them when wanting. Every thing depends on nature. A painter often pleases without observing, whilst another displeases though he observes, because he has not the happiness of a *genius* for painting. A man born with a *genius* for commanding an army, and becoming a great general by the help of fortune, whose whole organical conformation is fitted for valour, is no obstruction to his presence of mind, his presence of mind makes no abatement of his valour. Such a disposition of mind is required by art: it can be possessed only by those who have brought it with him into the world. It has been said of these two arts may be applied to all other professions. The art of great concerns, the art of putting those employments for which they are formed, the study of physic, and even self, all require a *genius*. The Deity fits to allot peculiar talents to different men in order to render all men necessary to each other; the wants of men being the result of society. He has therefore given to particular persons, an aptitude to perform some things which he has rendered impossible to others; and the latter has facility granted them for other things, which facility has been refused to the former. Indeed he has made an unequal distribution of talents among his creatures; yet he has inherited none; and (cases of natural exception) a man divested of all kinds of talents, as great a phenomenon as an univert. From this diversity of *genius* arises that diversity of inclination in men, who are led to employments for which Providence designeth them with more or less impetuosity in proportion to the greater or lesser number of obstacles to surmount, to render themselves answering this vocation. Thus the inclinations of men are so very different, because the same mover, that is, the impulsive *genius*. This, (as with the painter,) is with one poet pleading, even when he is

while others are disagreeable, not their strict regularity. The genius, says Abbe Du Bos, consists in a movement of the organs of the brain; in motion of each of these organs; as quality of the blood, which disposes it, during exercise, so as to furnish spirits to the springs employed in the the imagination. Here he supposes noster's blood is heated; for that poets cannot invent in cool blood; is evident they must be wrought into a passion when they produce their fine one mentions a poet who never wrote ten his poetic fury hurried him into razy. The admirable pictures in nida and Florinda are alleged by some to be drawn at the expence of a disposition to real madness, into which he fell d. "Do you imagine, (says Cicero,) is wrote in cold blood? No, it was He must have been inspired with a to be able to write such admirable

a town of France, in the department of 7 miles N. of Chauny.

**NADIUS**, patriarch of Constantino-ceeded Anatolius in 458, was esteemed author; but all his works are lost pistle against Simony, and part of a St Cyril's Anathemas. He died

**NADIUS**, a bishop or priest of Mar wrote a work *De Dogmatibus Ecclesie* has been ascribed to St Augustin, among his works. He wrote another *Ecclesie Scriptoribus*. Both are extant in 492.

a town of France, in the department of Loire, near the Loire, 9 miles NW.

a town of Germany in the late times, now annexed to the French republic in the dep. of the Roer. It is on the Niers, near the Meuse, and 9 miles.

a town of France in the dep. of Ille and Vilaine, 5 miles NE. of Guerche.

**NESARETH**, in ancient geography, a town in Galilee, called also Cinnereth, *Cbinnereth*, by Moses; 140 stadia in length, and 10 in breadth; abounding in fish. It is on the *Sea of Galilee*, and St John calls it *Berias*.

**NESARETH**, a district on the lake.

**GENOA**, the **GENOESE REPUBLIC**, or the **REPUBLIC**, a small democratic state of Italy, lying along that part of the Mediterranean from it is called the *Gulf of Genoa*, 2 miles, but varying in its breadth from 1 to 9 miles. It is bounded on the N. from Piedmont, Montferrat, the Cisalpine Republic, Parma, a small territory belonging to the republic of Lucca. This part of the ancient **LIGURIA**, whence the name of the **LIGURIAN REPUBLIC**. It is 11. 27. and 9. 25. Lon. E. and between 45. 0. Lat. N.

(2.) **GENOA**, the capital of the **Ligurian republic**, is seated on the coast of the Mediterranean sea, at the bottom of the gulph, (§ 4.) partly on the flat, and partly on the declivity, of a pleasant hill; in consequence of which, it appears to great advantage from the sea. Two of the streets consist entirely of a double straight row of magnificent palaces, at least they did so before the late bombardment. The others, though clean and well paved, are crooked and narrow. The palaces of the ci-devant nobility are almost all of marble, and many of them are painted on the outside. Of these there is a vast number besides churches, convents, and hospitals. The palace where the ci-devant doge resided, and where the great and little council, and the two colleges of the procuratori and governatori assembled, is a large stone building in the centre of the city. It contains some fine paintings in fresco; two statues of Andrew and John Doria in white marble; and an arsenal, in which are said to be arms for 34,000 men, with a shield, containing 120 pistol barrels, and 33 coats of mail, which, it is said, were worn by as many Genoese heroines in a croifade. Of the churches, the finest are those of the Annunciation, St Mary Carignan, St Dominic, and St Martha. In the cathedral is an hexagonal cup made of a single emerald. An academy of painting, sculpture, civil and military architecture, was instituted here in 1751. The streets of Genoa are remarkably steep and narrow, yet one may walk in the night with the greatest safety, which is more than can be said of many cities in Italy. There are two fine stone bridges over the rivers Bonzevera and Bisagno, the first whereof washes the W. and the other the E. side of the city, within which there is also a surprising stone bridge joining two hills. The harbour, though large, is far from being safe; but no expence has been spared to render it safe and commodious. The wind to which it is most exposed, is the SW. called *Labreccio*. The place where the galleys lie, is called the *Darsena*, where before the revolution there were commonly a great number of Turkish slaves. On a rock, on the W. side of the harbour, is the *fanal* or light-house, a high tower, on the top of which is a lantern, containing 36 lamps. Genoa lies 62 miles SE. of Turin, 63 S. of Milan, and 224 NW. of Rome. Lon. 8. 41. E. Lat. 44. 25. N.

(3.) **GENOA**, **CONSTITUTIONS AND GOVERNMENT OF**. The ancient constitution, from the time of its establishment by the brave Andrew Doria, in 1528, was aristocratic, though not so much so as that of Venice. The nobility alone were capable of holding the chief offices in the republic. From this body were elected the Doge, the great council and the senate. The *doge*, or duke, was elected for two years, and was incapacitated from being re-elected for 5 years after; but had a procurator's office assigned him, and a pension of 500 scudi for life. No person could be elected doge till he was 50 years of age, and had left off trade for 15 years before. The great council consisted of 80 counsellors in whom the sovereignty chiefly resided. The senate consisted of 12 senators, who with the doge, had the administration of affairs. In Nov. 1791, this form

of government was overturned, hereditary titles and honours abolished, and a new democratic constitution established, by gen. Bonaparte, with a directory, two councils, &c. similar to the late constitution of France. (See FRANCE, § 61.) At present (Sept. 1800) some farther alterations are making in this constitution, which perhaps will be again new-modelled upon the plan of the present constitution of France, under consuls, &c.

(4.) GENOA, GULF OF, a semicircular gulf of the Mediterranean Sea, which washes the whole S. coast of Genoa, from the coast of the French republic, (ci-devant Nice and Monaco) on the W. to that of Lucca on the E.

(5.) GENOA, HISTORY OF. The ancient history of Genoa, like that of most other places, is wrapt up in fable. Some say, it was built by *Genuus*, a son of Saturn; others by the god *Janus*, agreeably to which origin, the ancient Latin authors often call it *Janua*. Be that as it may, the city of Genoa was a celebrated emporium in the time of the 2d Punic war; and having declared for the Romans, was plundered and burnt by Mago the Carthaginian. It was afterwards rebuilt by the Romans; and with the rest of Italy continued under their dominion till the overthrow of the western empire in 476. In 498, it fell under the power of Theodoric the Ostrogoth; who having defeated the usurper Odoacer, became king of Italy. Not long after, the Goths being almost entirely subdued by Belisarius, Justinian's general, Genoa was re-annexed to the Roman or rather eastern empire. In 670, it was plundered and burnt by the Lombards, whose king Brotharis erected it into a provincial dukedom. The Lombards continued masters of Genoa till 774, when they were conquered by Charlemagne. He reduced Liguria to its ancient bounds settled by Augustus, and erected it into a marquise: appointing his relation *Audemarus* the first count or margrave. In 806 the Genoese reduced Corsica. Genoa at this time being distinguished for its wealth and populousness, began to give its name to the whole coast; and continued under the dominion of these counts for about 100 years, till the Carlovingian race became extinct in Italy, and the empire was transferred to the German princes. In 935, while the Genoese forces were absent on some expedition, the Saracens surprised the city, which they plundered and burnt, putting to death a great number of the inhabitants, and carrying others into captivity. Having embarked their captives, together with an immense booty, they set sail for Africa: but the Genoese immediately returning, pursued the invaders; and having entirely defeated them, recovered all the captives and booty, and took a great number of the enemy's ships. About A. D. 950, the Franks having lost all authority in Italy, the Genoese began to form themselves into a republic, and to be governed by their own magistrates, who were freely elected, and took the name of *Consuls*. To support their independence, they applied themselves to commerce and navigation; and being apprehensive that some of the German emperors, who often invaded Italy, might renew their pretensions to their state, they acknowledged Berengarius III, D.

of Friuli, who had been elected emperor by authority of Italian nobles. Berengarius, who had endeavoured to maintain himself in his new dignity, endeavoured by his concessions to enlarge the number of his adherents: and accordingly confirmed the new republic in all its privileges. After this the Genoese began to extend their commerce from Spain to Syria, and from Egypt to Constantinople; their vessels being fitted for fighting as well as merchandising. Having thus acquired great reputation, they were invited in 1017, by the Pisans, who had likewise formed themselves into a republic, to join with them in an expedition against Sardinia, which had been conquered by the Moors. In this expedition they were successful; the island was reduced; but from this time enmity took place between the two republics, which did not end but with the ruin of that of Pisa. The first war with the Pisans commenced 30 years after the Sardinian expedition, and lasted 18 years; when the contending parties concluded a peace, they sent their united forces against the Moors in Africa, of whom they are said to have killed 100,000. The Genoese were very active in the time of the crusades, and had a principal share in the taking of Jerusalem. They also waged considerable wars with the Moors of Spain, of whom they generally got the better. They also prevailed against the neighboring states; and, in 1220, had enlarged their territories beyond the skirts of the Apennines, so that the rest of Italy looked upon them with a jealous eye: but in 1311, the factions which had reigned in the city, notwithstanding all its wealth and power, induced the inhabitants to submit 20 years to the dominion of the emperor Frederick VII. That emperor, however, died in 1312; and the vicar he had left soon after returned to Pisa, upon which the dissensions in Genoa revived with greater fury than ever. In 1308 a quarrel happened between the families of Spinola and Doria; which came to such a height, that both parties fought in the streets for 24 days without intermission, raised battering engines against each others houses, and filled the city with blood. At last the Spinolæ quitted the city, and retired to their territories in the Apennine mountains. The civil war continued till 1333; when, by the mediation of the king of Naples, it was agreed that all exiles should return to the city; that the republic should be governed by the king's officers, and all the offices of the state be equally divided between the Guelfs and the Ghibellines, the contending parties. By this ruinous war the coast of Genoa, formerly adorned with gardens and vineyards, was now reduced to the appearance of a barren waste. So great was the desolation, that, according to Petrarch, the spectators failed along were struck with astonishment and horror. Villani, a cotemporary author, says that the losses each party had sustained, might have been sufficient to have purchased a kingdom; the Genoese republic being esteemed in his time the richest and most powerful state in Christendom. Stella informs us, that, before the late war, the most extravagant profusion and luxury prevailed among the Genoese: but that, towards



by noble families were reduced to indigence that, for about 100 years after, it became dishonourable for the nobles to live in a plain manner. In 1336, both parties, from their animosities, sent two fleets of 20 each into the German ocean, to assist King Edward III. of France, against Edward III. of France. This naval expedition proved the cause of a remarkable revolution in the Genoese republic. The sailors accused their officers of withholding them of their pay, proceeded to a mutiny, and, having expelled the admiral and other commanders, seized the galleys. Philip of Savoy, chosen arbitrator, decided in favour of the sailors, and imprisoned 16 chiefs of the mutiny. Upon this several of the sailors left the city and returned to Genoa; where they went to the coast, repeating their mutinous complaints, which were eagerly listened to, upon a report that the mutineers were broke upon the coast. The factious spirit increased; and at Genoa insisted on having an abbot chosen for their chief, and 20 of the people, with consent of the captains of the republic, assembled for that purpose. While the multitude patiently expecting their decision, a meadow was cut out of a wooden bench, and called out Simon Bucanigree should be chosen abbot, his being instantly echoed by the people, who were first declared abbot, then lord, and duke, of Genoa. But the dissensions continued as violent as ever, notwithstanding the election of the new magistrate; and by these divisions the republic was at last so much weakened, that in 1390, Charles VI. King of France, declared Lord of Genoa. However, they were exceedingly impatient of the French yoke; and, in 1412, the duke of Milan obtained the sovereignty. With this situation they were equally displeased, and therefore revolted in 1436. In 1458, finding themselves pressed by a powerful fleet and army sent by Alfonso of Naples, they conferred the sovereignty of Genoa upon Charles VII. of France. But in 1478 they revolted, and, 4 years after, put themselves under the protection of the duke of Milan, from whom they revolted in 1478. He declared himself sovereign of the republic in 1490, and in 1499 the city and territories of Genoa were conquered by Lewis XII. of France. The weakness of the Genoese was not corrected by this misfortune. They revolted in 1506; but were again subdued by Lewis. In 1512 they revolted; and in 1516, the city was plundered by the Spaniards. In 1528, the duke of Savoy, then an admiral in the French service, undertook to rescue his country from the dominion of foreign-princes, and restore its liberty. He told his countrymen that the French, who had again obtained the sovereignty, had left them only a shadow of liberty, and pretended to protect them from their oppressors. To the nobility he represented the danger of suffering the government to be vested in the hands of foreigners less worthy of authority than themselves. Thus he soon formed a strong party, and when almost 3000 of the French garrison had been carried off by the plague, he ad-

vanced with 500 men. His friend having opened the gates of the city to him, he seized the principal posts, and thus became master of it without drawing his sword. The garrison retired to the forts, where they soon after capitulated, and being driven out of the city, Doria re-established the ancient form of government. See DORIA. The republic has since continued to preserve her liberty, though greatly fallen from her ancient splendor. In 1684, the Genoese having fallen under the resentment of Lewis XIV, the city was almost destroyed by a formidable bombardment. In 1688, it was bombarded by admiral Byng, and forced to capitulate; but the British government had no view of making a permanent conquest of it. In 1713, the emperor Charles VI. sold the town and marquisate of Finale to the republic, which 30 years after involved it in a bloody war; for in 1743, the Queen of Hungary having by the treaty of Worms ceded to the king of Sardinia her right to Finale, the Genoese formed an alliance with France, Spain and Naples; and, in 1745, declared war against the King of Sardinia, who soon made himself master of great part of the state, while several Genoese ports were bombarded by the British, and the city of Genoa was taken by the Imperialists: but after a terrible slaughter they were driven out by the Genoese; who again defeated them in 1747, when they attempted to recover it. In 1730, the island of Corsica revolted from the Genoese, and could never afterwards be reduced by them: for which reason they at last sold it to the French, who in 1770 totally reduced it. See CORSICA. As the revolution that took place in this state in 1797, and the other events that occurred during the present war, will necessarily be noticed under the article REVOLUTION, we shall only mention here, that the city of Genoa, after sustaining a long and severe siege, from the Austrian forces by land, and the British fleet, which blockaded the port by sea, was at last surrendered on the 7th June 1800, by general Massena, on the most honourable terms, after suffering the greatest hardships, the garrison having eaten all their horses, and being reduced to the last 3 oz. of "a wretched mixture of bran, oat chaff, and cocoa nut;" which they used for bread. Within two or three weeks after, however, the Austrians were obliged to give up the city to the French, a party of whom had been sent to its relief after the victory at Marengo, and were within a day's march of it, when the garrison capitulated.

(6.) GENOA, INHABITANTS OF. The total number of citizens of all ages in this republic is estimated at 150,000. As to their character, the Genoese in general are esteemed crafty, industrious, and inured to labour above the other Italians.

(7.) GENOA, MILITARY FORCE OF. In time of peace the republic usually keep a body of 5000 regular troops; viz. 4000 natives, 200 Germans, 500 Swiss, 300 Italians, and 100 bombardiers; but in war it has about 20,000 troops in all.

(8.) GENOA, PRODUCE OF. This country, though a great part of it is mountainous, and some of that barren, yet produces plenty of excellent fruit, good pasture, wood, garden stuffs, and mulberry trees; with some wine and oil, but

little

little corn. What is wanted of the last, is supplied from Lombardy, Sicily, or Naples.

(9.) GENOA, REVENUE OF. The ordinary revenue of this republic is estimated at two millions per annum.

(10.) GENOA, STRENGTH OF. The city of Genoa is surrounded on the land side with two walls, the outermost of which reaches beyond the mountain, and extends about 10 Italian miles in circumference. It is defended by bastions, and about 500 pieces of cannon are mounted on the outworks. The fortifications towards the sea are also remarkably strong. On the whole it may be pronounced impregnable; for Massena in his letter to Bonaparte said, "had it not been for want of subsistence we would have for ever held out in Genoa."

(11.) GENOA, TRADE OF. The trade of Genoa is chiefly in velvets, damasks, plush, silks, brocades, laces, gloves, sweetmeats, fruits, oil, Parmesan cheese, anchovies, and drugs from the Levant; but the badness of the harbour, and the high price of commodities, greatly check its commerce. In 1751, Genoa was declared a free port for ten years, under certain restrictions: in that called *Porto Franco*, any merchant may have a ware-house, and import or export goods duty-free; but such as are disposed of in the city, or on the continent, are taxed pretty high. The cis-devant nobility were allowed to trade in the whole sale way; to carry on velvet, silk, and cloth manufactures; and to have shares in merchant ships; and some of them, as the Palavicini, were actually the greatest merchants in Genoa. Another very profitable article of trade carried on is banking, and dealing in bills of exchange.

GENOELS, Abraham, an eminent painter of Antwerp, born in 1640. He excelled in portraits and landscapes.

GENOESE, the people of Genoa. See GENOA, § 6.

GENOLHAC, or GENOUILLAC, a town of France, in the dept. of Gard, 15 m. NW. of Alais.

GENOSA, a town of Naples, in the province of Otranto; 10 miles SE. of Otranto.

GENOUILLAT, a town of France, in the dept. of Creuse; 9 miles W. of Bouffac.

(1.) GENOUILLE, a town of France, in the dept. of Charente, 10 miles W. of St Jean.

(2.) GENOUILLE, a town of France, in the department of Vienne, 3 miles S. of Civray.

GENSAC, a town of France, in the dept. of Gironde, 9 miles SE. of Libourne.

GENSERIC, king of the Vandals in Spain, a barbarous conqueror of the 5th century. He succeeded his father Godefrilius, A. D. 428; defeated Hermeric, king of the Suevi; over-ran all Africa, conquered Barbary, took Carthage, ravaged Sicily, and sacked Rome. See BARBARY, § 3; ROME, &c. He died in 477.

GENSING, in botany. See PANAX.

\* GENT. *adj.* [*gent*, old French.] Elegant; soft; gentle; polite. A word now disused.—

Vespasian with great spoil and rage,  
Forewasted all: 'till Genuilla *gent*

Persuaded him to cease. *Fairy Queen.*

She that was noble, wife, as fair and *gent*,

Cast how she might their harmless lives preserve

\* GENTEEL. *adj.* [*gentil*, French.] 1. Polite; elegant in behaviour; civil.—He had a genteel manner of binding the chains of this kingdom than most of his predecessors. *Swift to Gay.*—The poets have no notion of genteel comedy, and fit into the most filthy double meanings, when they have a mind to make their audience merry. *Johnson on Italy.* 2. Graceful in mien.—

So spruce that he can never be genteel. *Tales*  
3. Elegantly dressed.—Several ladies that had twice her fortune, are not able to be always genteel, and so constant at all places of pleasure and expence. *Law.*

\* GENTEELLY. *adv.* [from *genteel*.] Elegantly; politely.—Those that would be genteelly led, need not purchase it at the dear rate of both atheists. *Glanville.*—After a long fatigue of eating and drinking, and babbling, he concludes the great work of dining genteelly. *South.* 2. Gracefully handsomely.

\* GENTEELNESS. *n. f.* [from *genteel*.] 1. Elegance; gracefulness; politeness.—He had a genius full of genteelness and spirit, having nothing that was ungraceful in his postures and dress. *Dryden's Dufresnoy.*—Parmegiano has dignified genteelness of modern effeminacy, by uniting with the simplicity of the ancients, and the grandeur and severity of Michael Angelo. *Reynolds.* Qualities befitting a man of rank.

GENTIAH, a town of Asia, in the country of Affam; 370 miles E. of Patna.

\* GENTIAN. *n. f.* [*gentiane*, French; *gentiana*, Latin.] Felwort or baldmony.—The root *gentian* is large and long, of a tolerably firm texture, and remarkably tough; it has a faintish disagreeable smell, and an extremely bitter taste. *Hill's Mat. Med.*—If it be fistulous, and the surface small, dilate it with *gentian* root. *Wifeman.*

GENTIANA, GENTIAN, in botany: A genus of the digynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranked under the 20th order *Rotacee*. The corolla is monopetalous; the capsule bivalved and unilocular; there are two longitudinal receptacles. The most remarkable species are the following:

1. GENTIANA CENTAUREUM, the lesser CENTAURY of the shops, is a native of many parts of Britain. It grows on dry pastures; and its height is commonly proportioned to the goodness of the soil, as in rich soils it grows to the height of a foot, but in poor ones not above 3 or 4 inches. It is an annual plant with upright branching stalks garnished with small leaves, placed by pairs. The flowers grow in form of an umbel at the top of the stalk, and are of a bright purple colour. They come out in July, and the seed ripens in autumn. The plant cannot be cultivated in gardens. The tops are an useful aperient bitter, in which they are often used in the present practice of medicine.

2. GENTIANA LUTEA, the common GENTIAN of the shops. It is a native of the mountainous parts of Germany; whence the roots, the chief part used in medicine, are brought to this country. These have a yellowish brown colour,



er taste. The lower leaves are of an oval shape, a little pointed at the end, yellowish green, and have 5 large veins of each. The stalk rises 4 or 5 feet, clothed with leaves growing by pairs at almost embracing the stalk at their base, of the same form with the lower, but gradually in their size to the top. The flowers are in whorls at the joints on the upper part of the stalks, standing on short footstalks, in pairs in the wings of the leaves. They are of a yellow colour. The roots of this are often used in medicine as stomachic bitters; but they are less exceptionable than the roots of this class. Infusions of it flavoured with orange peel, are successful. Some years ago a poisonous species was discovered among the gentian brought from the East; the use of which occasioned violent and in some cases death. This root is distinguished from the gentian, by its being of a white colour, and void of bitterness. *GIANTELLA. n. f.* A kind of blue co-

**GENTILE. n. f.** [*gentilis*, Latin] 1. uncovenanted nation; one who knows not the God.—Tribulation and anguish upon that doeth evil, of the Jew first, and almost of all. *Rom. ii. 2.*—*Gentiles* or infidels, heathens, upon both the spiritual and temporal, have been in one pursuit conjoined.

A person of rank. Obsolete.—  
As a gilliflow'rs, trim in her pot;  
As a gilliflow'rs, for whom we do serve,  
As a gilliflow'rs, poor life to preserve.

**GENTILE. (s. i. def. 1.)** means a Pagan, or one of false gods. The Jews called all who were not of their race *goyim*, i. e. heathens in the Greek translations of the Old Testament rendered *gentes*; in which sense it is used in the New Testament; as in *Matth. 23. 15.* All these things do the Gentiles (or nations) do. Whence the Latin church also used the same sense as our *Gentiles*, especially in the New Testament. But the word *gentes* soon lost its original signification, and no longer meant all heathens; but those only who were neither Jews, nor Christians, but followed the superstitions of the heathens, and Romans, &c. In this sense it is used among the Christian writers, till their language, together with their religion, was corrupted, and by authority received in the emperors' edicts, *gentiles*, from *gentes*, came into use; in which words had two significations, viz. heathens, or laws concerning religion, they signify heathens, neither Jews nor Christians; and in the latter sense, they were used for all such as were not Christians.

**GENTILE. n. f.** in the Roman law and history, expresses what the Romans otherwise called *gentes*, whether they were allies of the Romans: but this word was used in a more general sense for all strangers not subject to the Roman law.

**GENTILESCHI, Horatio, an Italian pain-**

ter, born at Pisa in 1563. After painting with great reputation at Florence, Rome, Genoa, and other parts of Italy, he removed to Savoy, thence to France, and at last came over to England, upon the invitation of Charles I.; who appointed him lodgings in his court, with a considerable salary; and employed him in his palace at Greenwich, and other public places. The most remarkable of his performances in England, were the ceilings of Greenwich and York house. He did also a *Madona*, a *Magdalen*, and *Lot* with his two daughters, for king Charles. After the death of the king, when the royal collection was sold, nine of these pictures drew 600 l. His most esteemed work abroad was the portico of cardinal Bentivoglio's palace at Rome. He made several attempts in face-painting, but with little success; his talent lying altogether in histories, with figures as big as the life. After 12 years continuance in England, he died in 1647, aged 84; and was buried in the Queen's chapel at Somerset house. His head was drawn by Vandyke.

(2.) **GENTILESCHI, Artemisia**, daughter of the preceding, was little inferior to her father in painting history, and excelled him in portraits. She drew some of the royal family, and many of the nobility.

\* **GENTILESSA. n. f.** [Fr.] Complaisance; civility. Not used.—

She with her wedding-cloaths undressed  
Her complaisance and gentilefess. *Hudibras.*

(1.) **GENTILIS, Albericus**, professor of civil law at Oxford; an Italian by birth. He quitted Italy with his father, on account of religion. He wrote several works; 3 books in particular, *De jure belli*, which were useful to Grotius. He died at London in 1608.

(2.) **GENTILIS, Scipio**, brother to the former, and as celebrated a civilian, forsook his native country that he might openly profess the Protestant religion. He was counsellor of Nuremberg, and professor of law. In his lectures, as well as books, he mixed the flowers of polite learning with the thorns of the law. He died in 1616.

\* **GENTILISM. n. f.** [*gentilisme*, Fr. from *gentile*.] Heathenism; paganism.—If invocation of saints had been produced in the apostolical times, it would have looked like the introducing of *gentilism* again. *Stillingfleet.*

\* **GENTILITIOUS. adj.** [*gentilitious*, Latin.] 1. Endemial; peculiar to a nation.—That an unfavorable odour is *gentilitious*, or national unto the Jews, reason or sense will not induce. *Brown.* 2. Hereditary; entailed on a family.—The common cause of this distemper is a particular and perhaps a *gentilitious* disposition of body. *Arbutnot.*

\* **GENTILITY. n. f.** [*gentilité*, French; from *gentil*, French; *gentilis*, Latin.] 1. Good extraction; dignity of birth. 2. Elegance of behaviour; gracefulness of mien; nicety of taste. 3. Gentry; the class of persons well born.—Gavelkind must needs, in the end, make a poor *gentility*. *Davies on Ireland.* 4. Paganism; heathenism.—When people began to espy the fallhood of oracles, whereupon all *gentility* was built, their hearts were utterly averted from it. *Hooker.*

**GENTILLY, a town of France, in the dept.**

of Paris; 2 miles S. of Paris. It was the residence of the kings of the Merovingian and Carolingian races.

GENTIOUX, a town of France, in the dept. of Creuse, 9 miles SW. of Felletin.

(1.) \* GENTLE. *adj.* [*gentilis*, Lat.] 1. Well born; well descended; ancient, though not noble.—They entering and killing all of the *gentle* and rich faction, for honesty sake broke open all prisons. *Sidney*.—These are the studies wherein our noble and *gentle* youth ought to bestow their time. *Milton*.

Of *gentle* blood, part shed in honour's cause,  
Each parent sprung. *Pope*.  
2. Soft; bland; mild; tame; meek; peaceable.—I am one of those *gentle* ones that will use the devil himself with curtesy. *Shak*.—

Her voice was ever soft,  
*Gentle* and low; an excellent thing in woman. *Shak*.

As *gentle*, and as jocund, as to jest,  
Go I to fight. *Shak. Richard II*.  
—A virtuous and a good man, reverend in conversation, and *gentle* in condition. 2 *Mac*. xv. 12.  
The *gentlest* heart on earth is prov'd unkind. *Fairfax*.

Your change was wife; for, had she been deny'd,  
A swift revenge had follow'd from her pride:  
You from my *gentle* nature had no fears;  
All my revenge is only in my tears. *Dryden*.

—He had such a *gentle* method of reproving their faults, that they were not so much afraid as ashamed to repeat them. *Atterbury*. 3. Soothing; pacifick—

And though this sense first *gentle* musick found,  
Her proper object is the speech of men. *Davies*.

(2.) \* GENTLE. *n. f.* 1. A gentleman; a man of birth. Now out of use—

*Gentles*, do not reprehend;  
If you pardon, we will mend. *Shak*.  
Where is my lovely bride?  
How does my father? *Gentles*, methinks you frown. *Shak*.

2. A particular kind of worm.—He will in the three hot months bite at a flagworm, or at a green *gentle*. *Walton's Angler*.

\* To GENTLE. *v. a.* To make gentle; to raise from the vulgar. Obsolete.—

He to day that sheds his blood with me,  
Shall be my brother; be he never so vile,  
This day shall *gentle* his condition. *Shak*.

\* GENTLEFOLK. *n. f.* [*gentle* and *folk*.] Persons distinguished by their birth from the vulgar. The queen's kindred are made *gentlefolk*. *Shak. Richard III*.

—*Gentlefolks* will not care for the remainder of a bottle of wine; therefore set a fresh one before them. *Swift*.

(1.) \* GENTLEMAN. *n. f.* [*gentilhomme*, Fr. *gentiluomo*, Italian; that is, *homo gentilis*, a man of ancestry. All other derivations seem to be whimsical.] 1. A man of birth; a man of extraction, though not noble.—A civil war was within the bowels of that state, between the *gentlemen* and the peasants. *Sidney*.—

I freely told you all the wealth I had  
Ran in my veins; I was a gentleman. *Shak*.

He hither came a private *gentle*  
But young and brave, and of a  
Ancient and noble. *O*

You say a long descent  
Makes *gentlemen*, and that your  
Is much disparag'd to be match'

2. A man raised above the vulgar  
or post.—

Inquire me out some mean-born  
Whom I will marry straight to Clar

—He is so far from desiring to be a *man*, that he desires to be used as all. *Law*. 3. A term of complaisant ironical.—The same *gentlemen*, who piece of morality on the three naked hand in hand, would have found a one had there been four of them tance, and covered from head to

4. The servant that waits about the man of rank.—Sir Thomas More, when he gave up his chancellorship wife's pew, and used the usual words *gentleman* usher, Madam, my lord is

Let be call'd be  
That *gentleman* of Buckingham's

5. It is used of any man however high  
The earl of Hereford was reputed  
In England the most valiant *gentle*  
—The king is a noble *gentleman* as *Shak*.

(2.) GENTLEMAN (§ 1. def. 1.) comprehended all above the rank of yeoman; by even noblemen were truly called. See COMMONALTY, § 2. A gentle defined among heralds, to be one, who title, bears a coat of arms, or who have been freemen: and by the gentleman giveth, he is known to be descended from those of his name many hundred years before. The word of the French *gentil*, "fine, fast coming;" and the Saxon *man*. *Tullius homo* was used among the Romans denoted a race of noble persons, born of free or ingenuous whose ancestors had never been stripped of their freedom by law. Thus Cicero in his *tuiles sunt, qui inter se eodem sunt non* wards the declension of the Roman word by Ammianus Marcellinus two companies of brave soldiers, the *gentiles*, and the other *scutarii*. I think, we derive the names *gentlemen* Patquire also supposes the appellations *ceugers* to have been transmitted to Roman soldiery; it being to the *gentarii*, who were the bravest of the the principal benefices and portions assigned. See BENEFICE, § 2. I serving, that during the empire of the *scutarii* and *gentiles* had the best of all the soldiers, became inferior to apply the same names, *gentilhommes* to such as they found their kings provisions or appointments to. (

re confounded together by Sir Edward who observes, that every esquire is a gentleman and a gentleman is defined to be one who wears coat-armour." It is indeed a matter unsettled, what constitutes the distinction who is a real esquire; for it is not an ever-rever large, that confers this rank upon

Camden, who was himself a herald, describes them the most accurately; and he divides them into four sorts of them. See *ESQUIRE*, § 1, where he says, for *gentleman*, says Sir Thomas Smith, "a good cheer in this kingdom: for who lieth the laws of the realm, who studieth the sciences, who professeth liberal sciences, who can live idly and without manual labour, will bear charge and countenance of a gentleman, he shall be called master, and shall be a gentleman."

**GENTLEMAN USHER OF THE BLACK ROD.**

**GENTLEMEN OF THE CHAPEL;** officers of prayer and attendance in the royal chapel, number 32. Twelve of them are priests; 10, commonly called *clerks of the chapel*, perform the service of divine service. One is chosen for confessor of the household, to visit the sick, examine and pronounce the sacrament, and administer the sacrament. 20 clerks, well versed in music, is chosen for the service of the children, to instruct in music, and whatever else is necessary for the service of the chapel; a second is like-ganist; a third a lutanist; and a fourth a yeoman, and groom of the vestry attend the dean and subdean, and attend the other necessities for the chapel; has the whole care of the chapel, keeps the records and seats of the nobility and gentry; the his attendance within the chapel door, after it.

**GENTLEMANLIKE.** } *adj.* [gentleman and  
**GENTLEMANLY.** } *like.* } Becoming a

gentleman. — He holdeth himself a gentleman, but he will not work, which, he saith, is the life of a churl; but enureth himself to his trade of the gentlemanly trade of stealing.

**GENTLEMANLY.** — Pyramus is a sweet-fac'd man; and as one shall see in a summer's day; by gentlemanlike man. *Shakef.* — You will come up like a peasant, hiding from me ungentlemanlike qualities. *Shakef.* — Two clergy-candidates for a free-school, where a schoolmaster procured the place for the better person of the two. *Sawif.*

**GENTLENESS.** *n. f.* [from *gentle.*] 1. Dignity; goodness of extraction. 2. Softness; sweetness of disposition; meekness;

— My lord Sebastian,  
I, you speak, doth lack some gentleness.

*Shakef.*  
rave and haughty scorn of all,  
and monarchical;  
ness with that esteem'd,  
d slavish virtue seem'd. *Cowley.*

**PART. I.**

Still she retains

Her maiden gentleness, and oft at eve  
Visits the herds. *Milton.*

—The perpetual gentleness and inherent goodness of the Ormond family. *Dryd. Fab.* — Changes are brought about silently and insensibly, with all imaginable benignity and gentleness. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.* — Masters must correct their servants with gentleness, prudence, and mercy. *Rogers.* — Women ought not to think gentleness of heart despicable in a man. *Clarissa.* 3. Kindness; benevolence. Obsolete. —

The gentleness of all the gods go with thee.

*Shakef.*  
\* **GENTLESHIP.** *n. f.* [from *gentle.*] Carriage of a gentleman. Obsolete. — Some in France, which will needs be gentlemen, have more gentleness in their hat than in their head. *Afham.*

\* **GENTLEWOMAN.** *n. f.* [gentle and woman. See *GENTLEMAN.*] 1. A woman of birth above the vulgar; a woman well descended. — The gentlewomen of Rome did not suffer their infants to be so long swathed as poorer people. *Abbot's World.* —

Doth this sir Protheus

Often resort unto this gentlewoman? *Shakef.*  
—Gentlewomen may do themselves much good by kneeling upon a cushion, and weeding. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 2. A woman who waits about the person of one of high rank. —

The late queen's gentlewoman, a knight's daughter,

To be her mistress' mistress! *Shak. Hen. VIII.*  
Her gentlewomen, like the Nereids,  
So many mermaids, tended her i' th' eyes,  
And made their bends adorings. *Shakef.*

3. A word of civility or irony. — Now, gentlewoman, you are confessing your enormities; I know it by that hypocritical down-cast look. *Dryden.*

**GENTLIN,** a town of Lower Saxony, in the duchy of Magdeburg, 30 miles E. of Magdeburg.

\* **GENTLY.** *adv.* [from *gentle.*] 1. Softly; meekly; tenderly; inoffensively; kindly. —

My mistress gently chides the fault I made.

*Dryden.*  
—The mischiefs that come by inadvertency, or ignorance, are but very gently to be taken notice of. *Locke.* 2. Softly; without violence. —

Fortune's blows,

When most struck home, being gently warded,  
crave

A noble cunning. *Shakef. Coriolanus.*

—A sort of great bat, as men ly asleep with their legs naked, will suck their blood at a wound so gently made as not to awake them. *Gray's Mus.*

**GENTOOS,** in modern history, according to the common acceptation of the term, denote the professors of the religion of the bramins or brachmans, who inhabit the country called **HINDOOSTAN,** or **INDOSTAN,** in the East Indies, from the word *san,* a region, and *hindoo* or *hindoo*; which Ferishteh, as we learn from colonel Dow's translation of his history, supposes to have been a son of Ham, the son of Noah. Hindoo, however, is not the name by which the inhabitants originally styled themselves; but, according to the idiom of the *Sanscrit* which they use, *jumbodeep*, from

R 1

jumboe,

*Jumboo*, a jackall, an animal common in their country; and *deop*, a large portion of land surrounded by the sea; or *bberetkhyant*, from *khant*, i. e. a continent, and *bherbut*, the name of one of the first Indian rajahs. They have assumed the name of *Hindoos* only since the era of the Tartar government, to distinguish themselves from their conquerors the Mussulmen. The term *Gentoo* or *Gent*, in the Schanscrit dialect, denotes *animal* in general, and in its more confined sense, *man-kind*, and is never appropriated particularly to such as follow the doctrines of Brhima. The *Gentoo*s are divided into 4 great tribes, each of which has its own separate appellation; but they have no common or collective term that comprehends the whole nation, under the idea affixed by the Europeans to the word *Gentoo*. Mr Halhed, in the preface to his translation of the Code of *Gentoo* Laws, conjectures, that the Portuguese, on their first arrival in India, hearing the word frequently in the mouths of the natives, as applied to mankind in general, might adopt it for the domestic appellation of the Indians themselves; or perhaps their bigotry might figure from the word *Gentoo* a fanciful allusion to *Gentile*. The *Hindoos*, or *Gentoo*s, vie with the Chinese as to the antiquity of their nation. They reckon the duration of the world by four *jogues*, or distinct ages: The 1st is the *Suttee jogue*, or age of purity, which is said to have lasted about 3,400,000 years; during which the life of man was 200,000 years, and his stature 21 cubits: The 2d, the *Tirtah jogue*, or the age in which one third of mankind were reprobated; which consisted of 2,400,000 years, when men lived to the age of 10,000 years: The 3d, the *Dwapar jogue*, in which half of the human race became depraved; which endured to 600,000 years, when men's lives were reduced to 1000 years: and 4th, the *Collee jogue*, in which all mankind were corrupted, or rather diminished, which the word *collee* imports. This is the present era, which they suppose will subsist for 400,000, of which near 5000 are already past; and man's life in this period is limited to 100 years. Many authors suppose that most of the *Gentoo shasters*, or scriptures, were composed about the beginning of the *Collee jogue*: but an objection occurs against this supposition, viz. that the shasters take no notice of the deluge; to which the bramins reply, that all their scriptures were written before the time of Noah, and the deluge never extended to Hindostan. Nevertheless, it appears from the shasters themselves, that they claim a much higher antiquity than this; instances of which are recited by Mr Halhed. The doctrine of **TRANSMIGRATION** is one of the distinguishing tenets of the *Gentoo*s. It is their opinion, according to Mr Holwell, that those souls which have attained to a certain degree of purity, either by the innocence of their manners or the severity of their mortifications, are removed to regions of happiness proportioned to their respective merits; but that those who cannot so far surmount the prevalence of bad examples and the powerful degeneracy of the times, as to deserve such a promotion are condemned to undergo continual punishment in the animation of successive animal forms, until, at the stated period, another renovation of the four

*jogues* shall commence, upon the death of the present. They imagine six disks above this earth; the highest of which is the residence of **BRHIMA** or **BRAMA**, particular favourites. This sphere is a station of those men who never uttered and of those women who have voluted themselves with their husbands; which expressly enjoined in the code of the *Gentoo*s. This code, printed by the East India Company in 1776, is a very curious collection of laws and prudences, which was selected from originals in the Schanscrit language, by the learned **PUNDITS**, or lawyers; who were for this purpose from May 1773 to Feb afterwards translated into the Persian into English by Mr Halhed. The contained in this collection are interwoven the religion of the *Gentoo*s, and several of the highest authority. The curious reader will discover an astonishing similarity between the statutes of this code and many of the laws of the Jewish law; between the *chaturvarnis* or priests, and the Levites; the ceremony of the scape-goat under dispensation, and a *Gentoo* ceremony of *assumed jug*, in which a horse answers the place of the goat. Many obsolete usages, alluded to in many parts of the code, may also receive illustration from the statutes of this code. It appears from the code that the bramins who are the priests of the country, have resigned all legislative and executive power into the hands of the *rajah* or king; and no bramini is capable of the magistracy since the *Suttee jogue*. The only privilege of impurity they have appropriated to themselves is exemption from all capital punishments; they may be degraded, branded, imprisoned, or sent into perpetual exile; but it is every where ordained, that a bramini shall not die on any account whatsoever. The *Gentoo*s are divided into four original tribes into which the *Gentoo*s are divided, according to their theology, 1. the *four different members of Brhima*, who are supposed immediate agent of the creative spirit of the Almighty. These tribes are the **BRAMINS**, which proceeded from his forehead, whose office is to pray, read, and instruct; the **CHETTEREES**, which proceeded from his nose, whose office is to draw the bow, to fight, and to govern; 3. the **BICE**, which proceed from his belly or thighs, who are to provide food for the people; and 4. the **VAISHYAS**, who are to cultivate the soil, and to trade; and from his feet, which are ordained to support the earth, and to travel. Few Christians, says the author of the *Gentoo* code, have expressed their more becoming reverence of the great and merciful Providence, in all their actions, with a more extensive charity towards their fellow creatures, or every profession of the *Gentoo*s. It is indeed an article of the religion of the bramins, that God's all merciful Providence has not permitted such a number of nations to be created, if he had not found a pleasure in their varieties.

\* GENTRY. n. f. [*gentilery*, *gentry*]

condition; rank derived from inheri-

are certainly a gentleman, the experience'd, which no less adorns us than our parent's noble name, the success we are gentle. *Shak.* of people, above the vulgar; those be- vulgar and the nobility.—They flaugh- of the *gentry*, for whom no sex or be accepted for excuse. *Sidney.*—Let t aim at greatness, take heed how their id *gentry* multiply too fast. *Bacon.*— cheerfully the hawkers cry and the *gentry* buy. *Swift,* of civility real or ironical.—

many-coloured *gentry* there above, are rul'd by tumult and by love. *Prior,* ; complaisance. Obsolete.— us so much *gentry* and good-will, stend your time with us a while. *Shak.* SING, a town of China, in the pro- chuen.

A. See GENOA, § 5.  
ELECTENTES. See CATECHUMEN,

GENUFLECTION. *n. f.* [*genuflexion*, and *flecto*, Lat.] The act of bending the ration expressed by bending the knee. : all the rites of adoration, *genuflexions*, :s, incense, oblations, prayers only ex- illing *flect.*

NUFLECTION, says the Jesuit Rosweyd, *usficon*, has been a very ancient cus- : church, even under the Old Testa- :pation; and was observed through- ar, excepting on Sundays, and from Whituntide, when kneeling was for- the council of Nice. Others have at the custom of not kneeling on d obtained from the time of the a- appears from St Irenæus, and Tertul- he Ethiopic church, scrupulously at- :e ancient ceremonies, still retains that at divine service. The Russians esteem ent posture to worship God on the e Jews usually prayed standing. Ros- the reasons of the prohibition of ge- : Sundays, &c. from St Basil, Anasta- in, &c.

VINE. *adj.* [*genuinus*, Lat.] Not spu- counterfeit; real; natural; true.— s were at one time tried with *genuine* nd at another time sophisticated ones. : belief and remembrance, and love and , have so great influence to make men at where any of these is, the rest, to- the true and *genuine* effects of them, l to be. *Tillotson.*—

sudden darkness covers all; :me night: night added to the groves. *Dryden.*

INELY. *adv.* [from *genuine*.] With- :tion; without foreign admixtures; : There is another agent able to analyze :odies less violently, more *genuinely*, :iversally than fire. *Boyle.*

INENESS. *n. f.* [from *genuine*.] Free- :ny thing counterfeit; freedom from

adulteration; purity; natural state.—It is not essential to the *genuineness* of colours to be du- rable. *Boyle.*

(1.) \* GENUS. *n. f.* [Latin.] In science, a class of beings, comprehending under it many spe- cies: as *quadruped* is a *genus* comprehending un- der it almost all terrestrial beasts.—A general idea is called by the schools *genus*, and it is one common nature agreeing to several other common natures: so animal is a *genus*, because it agrees to horse, lion, whale, and butterfly. *Watt's Logick.*—If mi- nerals are not convertible into another species, though of the same *genus*, much less can they be supposed reducible into a species of another *genus*. *Harvey on Consump.*

(2.) GENUS is also used for a character or man- ner applicable to every thing of a certain nature or condition: in which sense it serves to make capital divisions in divers sciences, as medicine, na- tural history, &c.

(3.) GENUS, in medicine. See MEDICINE, un- der the *Nojology*.

(4.) GENUS, in metaphysics and logic, denotes a number of beings which agree in certain gene- ral properties common to them all; so that a ge- nus is nothing else but an abstract idea, expressed by some general name or term. See LOGIC and METAPHYSICS.

(5.) GENUS, in music, by the ancients called *genus melodia*, is a certain manner of dividing and subdividing the principles of melody, *i. e.* the con- sonant and dissonant intervals, into their concin- nous parts. The moderns considering the octave as the most perfect of intervals, and that whereon all the cords depend, in the present theory of music, the division of that interval is considered as con- taining the true division of the whole scale. But the ancients went to work somewhat differently; the *diatessaron*, or fourth, was the least interval which they admitted as concord; and therefore they sought first how that might be most conven- iently divided; from whence they constituted the diapente and diapason. The diatessaron being thus, as it were, the root and foundation of the scale, what they called the *genera*, or kinds, a- rose from its various divisions; and hence they defined the *genus modulandi* to be the manner of dividing the tetrachord and disposing its 4 sounds as to succession. The genera of the music were 3, the ENHARMONIC, CHROMATIC, and DIATO- NIC. (See these articles.) The two first were va- riously subdivided; and even the last, though that is commonly reckoned to be without any species, yet different authors have proposed different di- visions, under that name, without giving any par- ticular names to the species, as were done in the other two.

(6.) GENUS, in natural history, a subdivision of any class or order of natural beings, whether of the animal, vegetable, or mineral kingdoms, all agreeing in certain common characters. See BO- TANY and ZOOLOGY.

(7.) GENUS, in rhetoric, Authors distinguish the art of rhetoric, as well as orations or discour- ses produced thereby, into 3 genera, demonstra- tive, deliberative, and judiciary. To the demon- strative kind belong panegyrics, genethliacons, ex- pithalamiums, funeral harangues, &c. To the delibe-

berative, perfusions, diffusions, commendations, &c. To the judiciary, accusations and defences.

GENZANO, a town of Naples in the prov. of Basilicata, 12 miles ESE. of Venosa.

\* GEOCENTRICK. *adj.* [*γῆ and κέντρον*; *geocentrique*, Fr.] Applied to a planet or orb having the earth for its centre, or the same centre with the earth. *Harris.*

\* GEODÆSIA. *n. f.* [*γεωδαισια*; *geodesie*, French.] That part of geometry which contains the doctrine or art of measuring surfaces, and finding the contents of all plain figures. *Harris.*

\* GEODÆTICAL. *adj.* [from *geodæsia*.] Relating to the art of measuring surfaces; comprehending or showing the art of measuring land.

GEOFFRÆA. See GEOFFRŒA.

GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH, Bp. of St Asaph, called by our ancient biographers *Gallofridus Monumetensis*. Leland conjectures that he was educated in a benedictine convent at Monmouth, where he was born; and that he became a monk of that order. Bale, and after him Pits, call him archdeacon of Monmouth; and it is generally asserted, that he was made bishop of St Asaph, in 1151 or 1152, in the reign of K. Stephen. His history was probably finished after 1138. It contains a fabulous account of British kings, from Brutus the grandson of Æneas the Trojan to Cadwallader, in 690. But Geoffrey, though we may blame his credulity, was not the inventor of the legendary history. It is a translation from a MS. written in the British language, and brought to England from Armorica by his friend Gualter, archdeacon of Oxford. But the achievements of king Arthur, Merlin's prophecies, and many speeches and letters, were chiefly his own additions. In excuse for this historian, Mr Wharton judiciously observes, that fabulous histories were then the fashion, and popular traditions a recommendation to his book.

GEOFFRŒA, or } in botany, a genus of the  
GEOFFROYA, } decandria order, belonging to the diadelphia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 32d order *Papilionaceæ*. The calyx is quinquefid, the fruit an oval plum; the kernel compressed. There is only one species, viz.

GEOFFROYA INERMIS, the cabbage-bark tree, a native of Brasil and Jamaica. See *Plate CLX, fig. 5*. The wood is used in building; but it is chiefly valued for its bark, which is administered as an anthelmintic medicine. From this medical property it is also called the *worm-bark tree*. This bark is of a grey colour externally, but black and

furrowed on the inside. It has a mild and sweetish taste, and a disagreeable sive given in cases of worms, in form of decoction, syrup, and extract. The decoction is preferred; and is made by slowly boiling of the fresh dried bark in a quart of wine, assume the colour of Madeira wine. Itself is the syrup; evaporated, it forms a solid mass. It commonly produces some sickness and sometimes violent effects, as vomiting, and fever. These last are said to be overcome by the use of warm water, castor oil, and tartaric acid. It should always be begun with small doses. But when properly and cautiously administered, it is said to operate as a ver anthelmintic, particularly for the expulsion of lumbrici, which are a very common case in the West India islands, where it is frequently employed. But it has, we believe, but little use in Britain.

GEOFFROY, Stephen Francis, M.D. celebrated physician, botanist, and chemist, Paris, in 1672. After having finished his studies at Paris, he travelled into England, Holland, and Italy. In 1704, he received the degree of M.D. and at length became professor of chemistry at the Royal College of Physicians of London, and of the Academy of Sciences. He wrote, 1. Several very curious Theſes, which were afterwards translated in French. 2. An excellent treatise intitled *Traictat de la Médecine, ou des Médicamentorum simplicium virtute, delectu, et usu*. He died at Paris in 1738.

\* GEOGRAPHER. *n. f.* [*γῆ and γραφή*, French.] One who describes the earth according to the position of its different parts. A greater part of the earth hath been explored than hath been known or described by the old geographers. *Ad Crater* by the old geographers. *Ad Crater* from sea to sea, from realm to realm.

And grow a meet geographer by love.

(1.) \* GEOGRAPHICAL. *adj.* [from *geography*.] Relating to geography.

(2.) GEOGRAPHICAL MILE, the farthest sea mile; being one minute, or the 60th part of a degree of a great circle on the earth.

\* GEOGRAPHICALLY. *adv.* [from *geographical*.] In a geographical manner; as the rules of geography.—Minerva lets to the knowledge of this country; she calls it to him. *Broome on the*

## G E O G R A P H Y.

### SECT. I. DEFINITIONS and DIVISIONS of the SCIENCE.

GEOGRAPHY is thus defined by Dr JOHNSON:

\* GEOGRAPHY. *n. f.* [*γῆ and γραφή*; *geographie*, French.] *Geography*, in a strict sense, signifies the knowledge of the circles of the earthly globe, and

the situation of the various parts of the earth. When it is taken in a little larger sense, it signifies the knowledge of the seas also; and in the sense of all, it extends to the various customs, manners, and governments of nations. *Waller* is extolled by the Greeks as attaining to the knowledge of heaven; but *geography* makes slight account of, when they discourse of *Andalusia*.

*g. Errs.*—According to ancient fables it sailed up the Danube, and from thence into the Adriatick, carrying their shoulders; a mark of great ignominy. *Arbutnet on Coins.*

**PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY** is more accurately defined by Dr. HART as "the science that teaches and explains the nature and properties of the earth, as to its surface, magnitude, motions, celestial aspects, &c. with the various lines, real or imaginary, which divide its surface. Geography is distinguished from **TOPOGRAPHY**, as a part from the whole; and from **ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY**, as considering the whole visible world, and earth. And from **TOPOGRAPHY** it is distinguished, as the general and special, or universal and particular.

**PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY** considers geography as either exterior: but **VARENIUS** more justly divides it into general and special, or universal and particular.

**GENERAL OR UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY** is that which considers the earth in general without respect to particular countries; or the affection to the whole globe, as its figure, motion, land, sea, &c.

**PARTICULAR OR TOPOGRAPHY** is that which contemplates the constitution of the several regions, or countries, their bounds, climate, seasons, weather, inhabitants, arts, language, &c."

**ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY** is that which is considered in a still more extensive view, by other modern writers, who divide it into **ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY**.

**ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY** comprehends that part of the science which treats of the measurement of the degree of the earth at different latitudes: Proportion of the circumference of the earth to the diameter of the equator: Circles of latitude and longitude: Division of its surface by latitude; by zones; by circles of longitude: Methods of finding the latitude and longitude: Representation of the earth's surface on a globe; and on a plane: by maps; by charts; stereographic, conical, and globular, &c. &c.

**PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY** comprehends the description of the earth, according to the properties of the several substances, which compose it: The division into solid and fluid: division of the earth into air and water: The gravity, extent, depth, saltiness, productions, and general appearance of the ocean; the phenomena of the winds, whirlpools, &c. Division of the earth into stratified and unstratified; metallic veins, &c. Natural divisions of the earth from the constitution of its surface: Structure and height of mountains, &c. Divisions of the earth as considered in the atmosphere: View of its constitution: elasticity, density, and temperature: Congelation; evaporation; rain; rivers; springs, and lakes; motion, velocity, and direction of winds; inundations, &c. of rivers: The distribution of cold of its surface: Unequal distribution of heat in the atmosphere the cause of winds: The earth formed by the phenomena of the atmosphere, &c. &c.

It must be allowed, that this complete and comprehensive view of the science, is quite agreeable to the original meaning of the word, *Γεωγραφία*, which is derived from *Γη*, earth, and *γραφειν*, to write or describe; and may therefore be used to signify a description of the earth, both external and internal, in the fullest sense of the word. But as **PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY** comprehends the subject of many other sciences, which will be found treated of under **AEROLOGY**, **CHEMISTRY**, **EARTH**, **ELECTRICITY**, **MAGNETISM**, **METALLURGY**, **MINERALOGY**, **RIVER**, **TIDE**, **WIND**, &c. &c. we mean to restrict the present treatise to **ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY**, and more especially to that branch of it above defined by **VARENIUS**, under the title of **GENERAL GEOGRAPHY**; the particular geography of the various countries, kingdoms, cities, towns, &c. being to be found in their order, under their respective names throughout this work.

## SECT. II. HISTORY OF GEOGRAPHY.

It is quite uncertain when geography began first to be studied among mankind. It is generally agreed, that the knowledge of it was derived to the Greeks, who first of the European nations cultivated this science, from the Egyptians or Babylonians; but it is impossible to determine which of these two nations had the honour of the invention. Herodotus tells us, that the Greeks first learned the poles, the gnomon, and the 12 divisions of the day, from the Babylonians. **PLINY**, and **DIOGENES LAERTIUS**, however, tell us, that **Thales of Miletus** first found out the passage of the sun from tropic to tropic; which he could not have done without the assistance of a gnomon. He is said to have been the author of two books, the one on the tropic, and the other on the equinox; both of which he probably determined by the gnomon; and thus he was led to discover the four seasons of the year, which are determined by the solstices and equinoxes.

**Thales** divided the year into 365 days; which was undoubtedly a method discovered by the Egyptians, and communicated by them to him. It is said to have been invented by **Mercurius Trimegistus**, who, according to **Eusebius**, lived about 50 years after the departure of the Israelites out of Egypt. **Pliny** tells us expressly, that this discovery was made by observing when the shadow returned to its marks; a clear proof that it was done by the gnomon. **Thales** also knew the method of determining the height of bodies by the length of their shadows, as appears by his proposing this method for measuring the height of the Egyptian pyramids. Hence many learned men have been of opinion, that as the use of the gnomon was known in Egypt long before the dawn of learning in Greece, the pyramids and obelisks, which to common travellers appeared to be only buildings of magnificence, were in reality as many sun-dials, built on a very large scale, with a design to ascertain the season of the year, by the variation of the length of their shadows. In confirmation of this opinion, it was found by **M. CHAZELLES**, in 1694, that the two sides, both of the larger and smaller pyramids, stood



## G E O G R A P H Y.

stood exactly N. and S.; so that they still form true meridian lines.

From the time of Thales, who flourished in the sixth century before Christ, very little seems to have been done towards the improvement of geography for 200 years. During this period, there is only one astronomical observation recorded; namely, that of METON and EUCTEMON, who observed the summer solstice at Athens, during the archonship of Apseudes, on the 21st of the Egyptian month Phamenoth, in the morning, being the 27th of June, A. A. C. 432. This observation was made by watching narrowly the shadow of the gnomon, and was done with a design to fix the beginning of their cycle of 19 years.

TIMOCHARIS and ARISTILLUS, who began to observe about A. A. C. 295, seem to have been the first who attempted to determine the longitudes and latitudes of the fixed stars, by considering their distances from the equator. One of their observations gave rise to the discovery of the precession of the equinoxes, which was first observed by HIPPARCHUS, about 150 years after; who also made use of their method, to delineate the parallels of latitude, and the meridians on the surface of the earth; thus laying the foundation of the science, as it is now studied.

The latitudes and longitudes, thus introduced by Hipparchus, were not however, much attended to till PTOLEMY'S time. STRABO, Vitruvius and Pliny, entered into a minute geographical description of the situation of places, according to the length of the shadows of the gnomon, without taking the least notice of the longitudes and latitudes.

But Hipparchus's discovery of the longitudes and latitudes soon laid a foundation for making maps, or delineations of the surface of the earth *in plano*, on a very different plan from what had been formerly attempted. Maps were at first little more than rude outlines and topographical sketches of different countries. The earliest were those of SESOSTRIS, mentioned by Eustathius; who says, that "this Egyptian king, having traversed great part of the earth, recorded his march in maps, and gave copies of his maps not only to the Egyptians, but to the Scythians, to their great astonishment."

Some imagine, that the Israelites made a map of the Holy Land, when they gave the different portions to the seven tribes at Shiloh, which seems extremely probable. for JOSHUA tells us, that they were sent to walk through the land, and that they *described it by cities in seven parts in a book*; and JOSEPHUS tells us, that when Joshua sent out people from the different tribes to measure the land, he gave them, as companions, persons well skilled in geometry, who could not be mistaken. (Josh. xviii. 8, 9.)

The first Grecian map on record is that of ANAXIMANDER, mentioned by STRABO, lib. i. p. 7. It has been conjectured, that this was a general map of the then known world, and it is supposed to be the one referred to by Hipparchus by the name of the *ancient map*.

ERATOSTHENES minutely describes a map made by ANAXAGORAS tyrant of Miletus, which will give us some idea of the maps of those

ages. He tells us, that Aristagoras of Cleomenes king of Sparta, with a view of convincing him to attack the king of Persia, palace at Susa, in order to restore their ancient liberty. It was traced by a piece of copper, and contained the intermediate meridians which were to be traversed in that manner. Herodotus tells us, that it contained "the circumference of the earth, the whole of the sea, and all the rivers;" but from the statophylax at that time, it may be fairly conjectured by the *whole sea* was meant no more than the Mediterranean: and therefore, the earth was divided into the coasts of that sea, and part of Lesser Asia, extending towards the Persian Gulf. The rivers were the Halys, and Tigris, which Herodotus mentions as necessary to be crossed in that expedition. It contained one straight line, called the *way*, which took in all the places of the world from Sardis to Susa. Of these there were 13,500 Roman miles of 5000 feet each.

These itinerary maps of the places were indispensably necessary in the time of ALEXANDER the Great. PTOLEMY quotes BÆTON as author of a book intitled, *The encampments of Alexander* and likewise Amyntas to the same purpose. Ptolemy tells us, that Diognetus and Bæton were surveyors of Alexander's marches, and that they made the exact number of miles according to the duration; which he afterwards confirmed by the letters of ALEXANDER himself. The same author also remarks that a copy of this great survey was given by Xenocles his son to PATROCLES the geographer, who, as Ptolemy informs us, was admiral of the fleets of Antiochus. His book on geography is quoted both by Strabo and Pliny: and Eratosthenes with the principal in constructing his map of the oriental world.

ERATOSTHENES first attempted to reduce geography to a regular system, and introduced a regular parallel of latitude. This was a certain place where the longest day was of the same length. He began it from the straits of Gibraltar; and it thence passed through the Mediterranean sea, and near the southern extremity of Sicily. Thence it was continued to the island of Rhodes and the Bay of Issus; entering Cilicia, and crossing the Euphrates, it was extended to the mountain Caucasus. By means of this line, he endeavoured to correct the errors of the ancient map. In drawing this parallel, he was regulated by observing the longest day was 14½ hours, which he afterwards determined to be the latitude of Rhodes. This first parallel through Rhodes was considered with a degree of preference as the foundation stone of all ancient maps; a degree of the then known world was attempted to be measured in stadia, according to the extent of that line, by the ancients.

Eratosthenes soon after attempted to draw other parallels of latitude, but also a meridian at right angles to these, passing



of Alexandria, down to Syene and Me-  
 sic at last undertook a still more arduous  
 to determine the circumference of the  
 in actual measurement of a segment of  
 great circles.

over the magnitude of the earth is in-  
 bleem which has probably engaged the  
 of astronomers and geographers ever  
 obular figure of it was known. ANAX-  
 s said to have been the first among the  
 o wrote upon this subject. ARCHY-  
 rentum, a Pythagorean, famous for his  
 ithematics and mechanics, also made  
 pts in this way; and Dr Long conjec-  
 these are the authors of the most an-  
 on, that the circumference of the earth  
 stadia. ARISTARCHUS of Samos is  
 have considered the magnitude of the  
 ell as of the sun and moon. ARCHI-  
 tions, that the ancients held the circum-  
 the earth to be 30,000 stadia; but it does  
 what methods were made use of by these  
 graphers to solve the problem. Perhaps  
 ted it by observations of stars in the  
 a the horizon, and actual mensuration  
 part of the circumference of the earth.  
 rls in his treatise *De Cælo*, affords a  
 is. In that work he says, that differ-  
 as through our zenith, according as  
 n is more or less northerly; and that  
 ern parts of the earth stars come above  
 n, which, if we go northward, are no  
 ble. Hence it appears, that there are  
 of measuring the circumference of the  
 by observing stars which pass through  
 of one place, and do not pass through  
 ther; the other by observing some stars  
 above the horizon of one place, and are  
 the same time to be in the horizon of a-  
 ratosthenes, made use of the former me-  
 h is the best, at Alexandria in Egypt, A.

He knew, that at the summer solstice  
 s vertical to the inhabitants of Syene, a  
 e confines of Ethiopia, under the tro-  
 icer, where they had a well built for  
 ce, on the bottom of which the rays of  
 perpendicularly on the day of the sum-  
 e. He observed by the shadow of a  
 erpendicularly in an hemispherical ba-  
 much the sun was on that day at noon  
 n the zenith of Alexandria; and found  
 x to be the 50th part of a great circle  
 ens. Then supposing Syene and Alex-  
 be under the same meridian, he con-  
 distance between them to be the 50th  
 great circle upon the earth; and this  
 ing by measure 5000 stadia, he conclu-  
 circumference of the earth to be 250,000  
 : as this number divided by 360 would  
 stadia to a degree, either Eratosthenes  
 ome of his followers assigned the round  
 o stadia to a degree; which multiplied  
 takes the circumference of the earth  
 dia; whence both these measures are  
 fferent authors as that of Eratosthenes.  
 ne of Pompey the Great, POSSIDONI-  
 a attempt to measure the circumference

of the earth by Aristotle's 2d method, viz. hori-  
 zontal observations. Knowing that the star called  
*Canopus* was but just visible in the horizon of  
 Rhodes, and that at Alexandria its meridian  
 height was the 48th part of a great circle in the  
 heavens, or  $7\frac{1}{2}$  deg.; answering to the like quan-  
 tity of a circle on the earth: then supposing them  
 both to be under the same meridian, and the dis-  
 tance between them to be 5000 stadia, the circum-  
 ference of the earth will be 240,000 stadia; which  
 is the first measure of Possidonius. But according  
 to Strabo, Possidonius made the measure of the  
 earth to be 180,000 stadia, at the rate of 300 sta-  
 dia to a degree. The reason of this difference is  
 thought to be, that Eratosthenes measured the  
 distance between Rhodes and Alexandria, and  
 found it only 3,750 stadia: Taking this for a 48th  
 part of the earth's circumference, which is the  
 measure of Possidonius, the whole circumference  
 will be 180,000 stadia. This measure was receiv-  
 ed by Marinus of Tyre, and is usually ascribed  
 to Ptolomy. Possidonius's method, however, is  
 found to be exceedingly erroneous, on account of  
 the great refraction in the stars near the horizon,  
 the difficulty of measuring the distance at sea be-  
 tween Rhodes and Alexandria, and from his sup-  
 posing these places under the same meridian,  
 when they are really very different. Cassini re-  
 marks, that taking exactly the mean betwixt the  
 last dimensions of Eratosthenes and Possidonius, a  
 degree of a great circle upon the earth will be  
 600 stadia, and a minute of a degree 10 stadia,  
 which is just a mile and a quarter of the ancient  
 Roman measure and a mile of the modern mea-  
 sure.

Several geographers, after the time of Eratosthe-  
 nes and Possidonius, made use of the different  
 heights of the pole in distant places under the same  
 meridian, to find the dimensions of the earth. About  
 A. D. 800, the khalif Almamun had the distance  
 measured of two places two degrees asunder, and  
 under the same meridian, in the plains of Sinjar  
 near the Red Sea. The result was, that the ma-  
 thematicians found the degree at one time to con-  
 sist of 56 miles, and at another of  $56\frac{1}{2}$ , or  $56\frac{3}{4}$ .

The next attempt to find the circumference of  
 the earth was in 1525, by FERNEL, a learned  
 French physician. To attain his purpose, he  
 took the height of the pole at Paris, going from  
 thence directly northwards, until he came to the  
 place where the height of the pole was one de-  
 grée more than at that city. The length of the  
 way was measured by the number of revolutions  
 made by one of the wheels of his carriage; and  
 after proper allowances for the declivities and  
 turnings of the road, he concluded that 68 Italian  
 miles were equal to a degree on the earth.

SNELLIUS, an eminent Dutch mathematician,  
 next attempted to measure the circumference of  
 the earth. Having taken the heights of the pole  
 at Alemaer and at Bergen op Zoom, he found  
 the difference to be  $1^{\circ} 11' 30''$ . He next mea-  
 sured the distance betwixt the parallels of these  
 two places, by taking several stations and forming  
 triangles; by means of which he found the de-  
 grée to consist of 341,676 Leyden feet. Having  
 measured the distance betwixt the parallels of Ale-  
 maer

## G E O G R A P H Y.

and Leyden, which differ only half a degree in their latitude, the calculation came out 342,120 Leyden feet to a degree. Hence he assigned the round number 342,000 Leyden feet to a degree; which, according to Picard, amounts to 55,021 French toises.

In 1635, Mr NORWOOD, an Englishman, took the elevations of the pole at London and at York; and having measured the distance betwixt the two parallels, assigned 69½ miles and two poles to a degree; each pole being reckoned 164 feet.

After 1654, RICCIOLUS made use of several methods to determine the circumference of the earth; from all which he concluded, that one degree contained 64,363 Bologna paces, which are equivalent to 61,650 French toises. The most remarkable attempt, however, was that of the French mathematicians, who employed telescopic sights for the purpose, which had never been done before. These are much the best; as by them the view may be directed to an object at a greater distance, and towards any point with more certainty; whence the triangles for measuring distances may be formed with greater accuracy than otherwise can be done. In consequence of this improvement, the fundamental base of their operations was much longer than that made use of by Snellius or Ricciolus. The distance measured was between the parallels of Sourdon and Malvoisine; between which the difference of the polar altitude is somewhat more than one degree. The result of the whole, as related by PICARD, was, that one degree contained 57,060 French toises.

As this problem can be the more accurately determined in proportion to the length of the meridian line measured, the members of the Royal Academy prolonged theirs quite across the kingdom of France, measuring it trigonometrically all the way. This work was begun in 1683, and finished in 1718. They used Picard's fundamental base, as being measured with sufficient accuracy; and an account of the whole was published by Cassini in 1720. In this work some mistakes were detected in the calculations of Snellius; and it was likewise shown, that there are errors in those of Ricciolus owing principally to the latter having taken too short a fundamental base, and not having paid sufficient attention to the effects of refraction. But though Snellius, had made some mistakes in his calculations, there is no reason to doubt the accuracy of his observations. Holland, by its flatness, is the fittest country in Europe for measuring an arc of the meridian; and Snellius had an uncommon opportunity of observing the exactness of his fundamental base, viz. the distance betwixt one tower at Leyden and another at Souterwode. A frost happened just after the country round Leyden had been overflowed; by which means he was enabled to take two stations upon the ice, the distance between which he carefully measured 3 times over; and then from these stations he observed the angles which the visual rays pointing at those towers made with the straight line upon the ice. From these considerations professor MUSCHENBROEK was induced to make new calculations and form triangles upon the fundamental base of Snellius, which he did in 1700; and from these he assigns

57,033 toises to a degree, which is more than had been done by the academicians.

In consequence of various opinions entertained concerning the true figure of the earth, and the magnitude of a degree upon the surface, Messrs MAUPERTUIS, CLAIRAULT, and L'ONTOUR, of France, were sent by Louis XIV. to measure an arc of the meridian in the regions of the earth.

They began their operations, assisted by CELSUS, an eminent astronomer of Sweden, in Swedish Lapland, in July 1736; and returned to Paris by the end of May following. They obtained the measure of that degree whose middle point was in lat. 66° 20' N. and found it to be 57,439 toises when reduced to the level of the sea. About the same time another company of astronomers were sent to South America, consisting of GODIN, BOUGUER, and CONDAMINE, to whom were joined Don JORGE JUAN DE ULLOA, of Spain. They sailed from Europe in 1735, and began their operations in the province of Quito in Peru, in October 1735, and finished them after many interruptions in 1743. The Spanish gentlemen published a separate account, and assigned for the length of the meridian, at the equator, 57,753 toises. M. Bouguer makes it 56,753 toises reduced to the level of the sea; and Cassini states it at 56,749 toises.

M. LA CAILLE, being at the Cape of Good Hope in 1752, found the length of an arc of the meridian in lat. 33° 18' 30" S. to be 57,060 toises. In 1755, Father BOSCOVICI found the length of a degree in lat. 43° to be 57,060 toises as measured between Rome and Rimini.

In 1740, Messrs Cassini again examined the length of the meridian in France; and, after making the necessary corrections, found the length of a degree whose middle point is in lat. 47° to be 57,074 toises; and in the lat. of Paris 57,050 toises. In 1764, F. BECCA found a portion of the meridian in the neighbourhood of Vienna, and found the length of a degree whose middle point was 44° 44' N. to be 57,024 toises. Vienna 3 degrees of the meridian were measured from which it may be concluded that an arc of the meridian in lat. 47° 40' N. may be reckoned to be 57,050 Paris toises. In 1766, Messrs MASON and WELLES measured a part of the meridian in Maryland, Pennsylvania, and found that the length of a degree whose middle point is 39° 40' N. to be 57,044 English feet, or 56,904½ toises.

To the history of these attempts to measure the length of the meridian, we may add that considerable additional information upon the subject may be expected, when the Survey of the Coast shall be completed, which was begun by late Gen. ROY some years ago, and continued in a style of accuracy greatly superior to any former system of geometrical operations. An important addition has also been made to our knowledge of the figure of the earth; by the very extensive arch of the meridian reaching from Denmark to Barcelona, measured by order of the Constituent Assembly of France, for the purpose of fixing an universal standard of weights and

elucidation of this problem of the circumference of the earth was essentially necessary for the radical principles of all maps; ANTOXYENES, though the best of which can boast, was nevertheless exceedingly and inaccurately. It contained little of the states of Greece; and the dominions of Alexander; digested according to the surveys above mentioned. He indeed, and has quoted, the voyages of into the great Atlantic ocean, which some faint idea of the western parts of it so imperfect, that they could not be put into the outlines of a chart. Strabo, as extremely ignorant of Gaul, Spain, Britain, Italy, the coasts of the Adriatic, and all the countries towards the east; made the distance between Epidamnus and Corchium on the Adriatic, and the bay of the Ægean sea, to be only 900 stadia, while it was above 2000; and enlarged the distance from Carthage to Alexandria to 15,000 stadia, when in reality it was only 9000.

The state of geography and the nature of it prior to the time of HIPPARCHUS; a closer connection between geography and astronomy, by determining the longitudes and latitudes from celestial observations, being steps to this new projection of the globe, had been in a great measure made easy by the discoveries, upwards of 50 years before the time of HIPPARCHUS, when he invented his noble method of measuring the surface of a sphere by spherical segments.

It has been often the occasion of making out the maps of different countries; and the progress of geography made great advances from the time of the Roman arms. In all the provinces conquered by that people, camps were everywhere erected at proper intervals; and roads were constructed with substantial materials, for making communication between them: and thus the progress of surveying was carried on accordingly throughout the extent of that large empire. The progress of a new survey of the countries where the scenes were laid; so that the materials of geography were accumulated by every additional conquest. Strabo tells us, that at the beginning of the Punic war, when HANNIBAL was preparing for expedition against Rome, the countries which he was to pass were carefully measured by the Romans.

CÆSAR caused a general survey of the empire to be made, by a decree of the senate. The surveyors, ZENODOXUS, THEOPHASTUS, POLYCLITUS, had this task assigned to them, and are said to have completed it in 25 years. The Roman itineraries, that are still extant, are the result of the care and pains they had been at, in making surveys in all the different provinces of the empire; and Pliny has filled the 3d, 4th, and 5th books of his Natural History with the geographical notices that were thus measured. A few maps are still preserved, known by the name of the *Peutingian Tables*, published by the Emperor Constantine, which give a sufficient specimen of the *Itinera Picta*, for

the clearer direction of their armies in their march.

The Roman empire had been enlarged to its greatest extent, and all its provinces well known and surveyed, when PROLEMY, in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about A. D. 150, composed his system of geography. The principal materials he made use of for composing this work, were the proportions of the gnomon to its shadow, taken by different astronomers at the times of the equinoxes and solstices; calculations founded upon the length of the longest days: the measures or computed distances of the principal roads contained in their surveys and itineraries; and the various reports of travellers and navigators, who often determined the distances of places by hearsay and conjecture. All these were compared together, and digested into one uniform body or system; and afterwards were translated by him into a new mathematical language, expressing the different degrees of longitude and latitude, according to the invention of Hipparchus; but which Ptolemy had the merit of carrying into full practice and execution, after it had been neglected for upwards of 250 years. With such imperfect and inaccurate materials, it is no wonder to find many errors in Ptolemy's system. Neither were these errors such as had been introduced in the more distant extremities of his maps, but even in the very centre of that part of the world which was best known to the ancient Greeks and Romans, and where all the famed ancient astronomers had made their observations. Yet this system, with all its imperfections, continued in vogue till the end of the 15th century.

The improvements in geography, which, since that period, have taken place, were owing to the great progress made in astronomy by Copernicus, Galileo, Newton, and other eminent men who lived within these 3 last centuries. More correct methods and instruments for observing the latitude were found out; and the discovery of Jupiter's satellites afforded a much easier method of finding the longitudes than was formerly known. The voyages also made by celebrated navigators of different nations, which were now become much more frequent than formerly, brought to the knowledge of the Europeans a vast number of countries totally unknown to them before. The late voyages of Captain Cook, made by order of his Britannic Majesty, have contributed more to the improvement of geography, than any thing that has been done during the 18th century. See COOK, N° III. § 2—II.

To these may be added the voyage made by VANDERCOUVER to explore the NW. coasts of America; and that of the unfortunate LA PEYROUSE in the South Sea: as well as the late important additions made to geographical knowledge by the discoveries made by Mr MUNGO PARK, in his Travels in the interior Parts of Africa. On the whole the geography of the utmost extremities of the globe is now in a fair way of being much better known to the moderns, than that of the most adjacent countries was to the ancients: at least with regard to the sea-coasts of these countries; for, as to their internal geography, it is less known now than before, except in a very few places. Still however, it must be owned, that geography is a science

even yet far from perfection. The maps of America and the eastern parts of Asia are, perhaps, more unfinished than any of the rest. Even the maps of Great Britain and Ireland are imperfect and unsatisfactory; and the great numbers of them, that are varied and republished, without any real improvement, confirm an observation made by Lord Bacon, that an opinion of plenty is one of the causes of want. The late Dr Bradley was of opinion, that there were but two places in England whose longitude might be depended upon as accurately taken; and that these were the observatory at Greenwich, and Serburn castle, the seat of the earl of Macclesfield in Oxfordshire; and that their distance was one degree in space, or four minutes in time. Even this was found to be inaccurate, the distance in time being observed by the late transit of Venus to be only 3 minutes and 47 seconds. It were well, however, if there were no greater errors with regard to other places; but if we examine the longitude of the Lizard, we shall find scarce any two geographers that agree concerning it; some making it  $4^{\circ} 40'$  from London; others  $5^{\circ}$ , and others  $5^{\circ} 14'$ : while some enlarge it to  $6^{\circ}$ . Our best maps are therefore still to be considered as unfinished works, where there will always be many things to be added and corrected, as future geographers may find time and opportunity.

The chief works on geography among the moderns are Johannes de Sacrobosco, (or John Hallifax,) *De sphaera*; Sebastian Munster's *Cosmographia Universalis*; Clavius, on the sphere of Sacrobosco; Piccioli's *Geographia et Hydrographia Reformata*; Weigelius's *Speculum Terræ*; De Chales's Geography, in his *Mundus Mathematicus*; Cellarius's Geography; Cluverii *Introductio in Universam Geographiam*; Leibnecht's *Elementa Geographica Generalis*; Stevenius's *Compendium Geographicum*; Wolfii *Geographia*, in his *Elementa Mathematica*; Busching's New System of Geography; Gordon's, Salmon's, and Guthrie's Grammars; and, above all, Varnius's *Geographia Generalis*, with Jurin's additions, the most scientific and systematical of any geographical work.

### SECT. III. Of the FIGURE and MAGNITUDE of the EARTH.

THE EARTH is one of the great bodies which compose the planetary system. It moves round the sun in an orbit nearly circular, and compleats its revolution in the course of a year, while at the same time it revolves continually upon its own axis, which is inclined to the plane of its orbit at an angle of  $66\frac{1}{2}$  degrees; the time of a revolution being 23 hours and 56 minutes. The revolution of the earth round the sun is called its ANNUAL MOTION, and the rotation it performs on its own axis is called its DIURNAL MOTION.

While the earth revolves round the sun in the course of its annual motion, its axis, round which the diurnal motion is constantly performed, moves always parallel to itself. It is by the parallelism the axis, and the annual motion of the earth, that the changes of the seasons are produced, as been already explained at large; (See ASTRONOMY, Part 3, Sect. 3,) while by the diurnal motion all places on the earth's surface are alternate-

ly turned towards the sun, and by the changes of day and night are produced. (See ASTRONOMY, § 412 and 413.)

That the earth is nearly of a spheroid may be proved by many arguments: these have been given under ASTRONOMY, § 389. See also BARTH, § IV, ii this conclusion has been drawn from observations which were not greatly complicated, and which were intimately connected with the common affairs of life, it is reasonable to conclude that the attention which was directed to determine the returns of the proper performing the labours of husbandry, regulation of civil affairs, would lead to an early period of society to form a pretence of the figure of the earth. When it was once known to be spherical, the curiosity would naturally lead him to endeavour to measure its dimensions; and we accordingly find in history, that such attempts were not long after been already noticed in last section. The accurate measure that was made of the length of a degree of the meridian, which we have any certain knowledge executed by M. PICCARD, in France, at the end of the last century, and which I have mentioned several times since that period. It is difficult to understand in what way this length could be measured; the direction of gravity is perpendicular to the earth's surface: it follows that the zenith of any place, or the heavens directly over our head, and the horizon which is a plane touching the earth at that place, will be continually changing as we change our position on the earth's surface. Hence it follows, that as we move towards N., the pole of the heavens, or the zenith, in which the earth's axis is directed, descends towards the sphere of the fixed stars, and more elevated above the horizon, the meridian altitude also of the stars in the regions of the heavens will appear to be diminished. By the elevation of the stars, we shall know the angle of the point of concurrence of perpendiculars drawn from the earth's surface at each extremity of the arc; for this angle is equal to the difference of the meridian altitude of the same star as seen from the extremities of the arc, diminished by the angle which the arc itself subtends as seen from the centre. This last angle is altogether insignificant, the number of degrees in the arc being only necessary to determine its length, which may be known measure, as a fathom, &c. but it will be a work of great labour to apply this method to an arc of great extent, it will be sufficient if the extremities be connected by a series of triangles, the base of one to those of a base line of 3, or 4000 fathoms, and considering the accuracy with which the angles of these triangles can be observed, the length of the arc may be found with great accuracy. It was in this way that degrees of the meridian have been repeatedly measured. In France, within these few years, an arc of the meridian extending from Dunkirk to Bayonne, and the degree whose middle is situated at Bayonne has by this means been found to be

the spherical figure be the most simple natural for man to suppose objects at form which he most readily conceives; the simplicity of nature is not always that of our conceptions. Infinitely various, Nature is only simple in her cause: economy consists in producing a great variety of circumstances, by means of a few general laws. The earth is a result of these laws, which vary in a great variety of circumstances; small variations, observed in the length of the meridian in France, sufficiently at such a deviation did exist; but they were unavoidable in such observations: an important phenomenon in a state of

ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, in which this has been warmly agitated, concluded with the difference of magnitude in the meridian, if real, would be most sensed by the comparison of degrees measured at the equator and towards the poles. A company of Academicians was sent to Lapland, where, having measured a degree of the meridian, they found it to contain 56,753 toises; at the lat. of 45° N. Other Academicians were sent to Lapland, about the lat. of 66° N. and found it to be 57,458 toises, which was a difference of 705 toises, or about the length of the degree at the equator by 68; to these measurements, it was concluded that the earth was not exactly spherical: the measurements of degrees made since have all tended to shew, that the meridian gradually increases from the poles.

It is the next curve in point of simplicity, and the earth has been considered as a spheroid formed by the revolution of a circle about its lesser axis; its oblateness or flattening, in the direction of its poles, is a consequence of the observed increase of the length of the meridian from the equator to the poles: the radii of these degrees being in the inverse ratio of the gravity, they are by the law of the perpendicularity of fluids perpendicular to the surface, with which the earth is in a great measure covered. They do not therefore, as in a sphere, tend to the centre of the spheroid; they are in the same direction, nor of the same length, as the radii drawn from the centre to the surface; which cut it obliquely every where: the two adjoining perpendiculars, drawn from the same meridian, meet each other at the poles: of the small terrestrial arc which they cut, the perpendiculars would be parallel, if the earth were a sphere: but in proportion as this arc is curved, they would meet at a distance: the distance is less, as the curvature of the arc is greater. Hence it follows, that seeing the length of the meridian is the point where the length of the ellipse is the least, the radius of a

degree at the pole, and consequently that degree itself, must be the greatest of any degree on the earth's surface. On the contrary, at the equator or at the extremity of the greater axis, the curvature is the least, and therefore the degree in the direction of the meridian is there the smallest. And in going from the equator to the pole, the degrees increase in such a manner, that if the ellipse be not very eccentric, the increase is nearly proportional to the square of the sine of the latitude.

If the earth were exactly an oblate spheroid, its magnitude, as well as the proportion of its axes, might be determined by the mensuration of two degrees in the direction of the meridian, as has been already explained. See EARTH, § IV, ii. It should also follow, that by a comparison of all the degrees hitherto measured, taken two and two, we should obtain the same proportion between the axes. This, however, has not been the case: The results have indeed shewn, that the earth is flattened at the poles; but they have left an uncertainty as to the quantity of the compression, extending from between the 170th to the 330th part of the radius of the equator. Between these two quantities, the former of which is nearly double of the latter, most of the results are placed; but in such a manner, that those most entitled to credit are much nearer to the least extreme than to the greatest.

In consequence of this disagreement in the result of comparisons of degrees of the meridian, measured in different latitudes, it has been concluded by mathematicians, that the figure of the earth is not that of a spheroid; nor does it even appear, that the parts of it on each side of the equator are exactly similar.

It will, however, be sufficient for the purpose of Geography, to suppose the earth a spheroid. Upon this hypothesis, LA PLACE, by a comparison of the arc of the meridian measured at the equator, and another measured between Dunkirk and Mountjoy, has found, that the polar diameter is less than the equatorial by one 334th part of the latter: and that a 4th part of the elliptic meridian is 5,130,740 toises; the toise being that used in measuring the earth in Peru, and reduced to a temperature of 16½ degrees of a mercurial thermometer, divided into 100 degrees from the freezing point to that of water, boiling under a pressure equivalent to a column of mercury 76 centimetres in height, or about 30 inches English measure. This determination also agrees nearly with the results from the combination of a great number of experiments made at different places of the earth, upon the pendulum.

Because the measure of a degree at the equator has been assumed, in the preceding calculation at 56,753 toises, it follows also from the method explained under the article EARTH, § IV, ii. that the equatorial diameter is 3,271,267, and the polar diameter 3,261,471 toises; the difference between them being 9,796 toises. From these data, and the rules of mensuration, it will be easy to find the surface, solidity, &c. of the earth, also the number of miles in a degree, &c.

The French government have taken the length of the quadrant of the meridian, as the basis of a new system of weights and measures. The ten millionth part of the quadrant has been assumed as

the *metre* or unit of linear measures, from which all the other measures are formed, by taking its multiples and submultiples according to the decimal mode of notation. Thus it appears the metre is expressed by the decimal fraction of the toise 513,074. For a full account of the measures of the French Republic, see MEASURE.

The following table of the dimensions of the earth is given by Dr HUTTON.

The diameter	79,579 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles
The circumference	25,000 miles
A degree contains	69 $\frac{1}{2}$ English miles
The superficies	198,944,206 square miles
The solidity	263,930,000,000 cubic miles.

SECT. IV. *Of the CIRCLES supposed to be DESCRIBED on the EARTH'S SURFACE.*

In geography the circles, which the sun apparently describes in the heavens, are supposed to be extended as far as the earth, and marked on its surface. In like manner we may imagine as many circles as we please to be described on the earth, and their planes to be extended to the celestial sphere, till they mark concentric ones on the heavens. The most remarkable of those supposed by geographers to be described in this manner are the following:

The **AXIS** of the earth is that imaginary line passing through the earth's centre, round which it continually revolves, from west to east.

The **POLES** of the earth are the points at which the axis meets the earth's surface. One of these is called the north pole, and the other the south pole. These correspond to the poles of the heavens, or the points where the earth's axis, when produced, meets the starry sphere.

The **EQUATOR** is a great circle on the earth's surface, equally distant from both poles, and corresponds to the equinoctial circle in the heavens. It divides the earth's surface into two equal portions called the *northern* and *southern hemispheres*. The equator is also sometimes called the **LINE**, or **EQUINOCTIAL LINE**.

The distance of any place, northward or southward from the equator, is called its **LATITUDE**, and is reckoned in degrees and minutes, &c. The distance between the poles and equator, which is a quadrant of a great circle passing thro' the poles, has by all geographers hitherto been supposed to be divided into 90 degrees; and each of these again subdivided into 60 minutes, &c. But some French astronomers, and in particular **LA PLACE**, in his *Exposition du Systeme du Monde*, as well as in his *Traite de Mecanique Celeste*, has adopted the decimal division of the meridian. They have supposed the distance between the equator and the poles to be divided into 100 degrees, and each degree to be subdivided into 100 minutes, each minute into 100 seconds, and so on.

All places lying on the north side of the equator are said to have north latitude: on the contrary, all places on the south side of the equator are said to have south latitude.

**PARALLELS OF LATITUDE** are lesser circles upon the earth's surface parallel to the equator. They are considered as indefinite in number; that lie directly east or west from each are said to lie in the same parallel of latitude.

The **TROPICS** are two lesser circles or parallels to the equator, and 23 $\frac{1}{2}$  degrees from it. That which lies on the north equator is called the **TROPIC OF CANCER**; that which lies on the south side is the **TROPIC OF CAPRICORN**. These correspond to the circles of the same name, and the sun's north and south declination in the heavens.

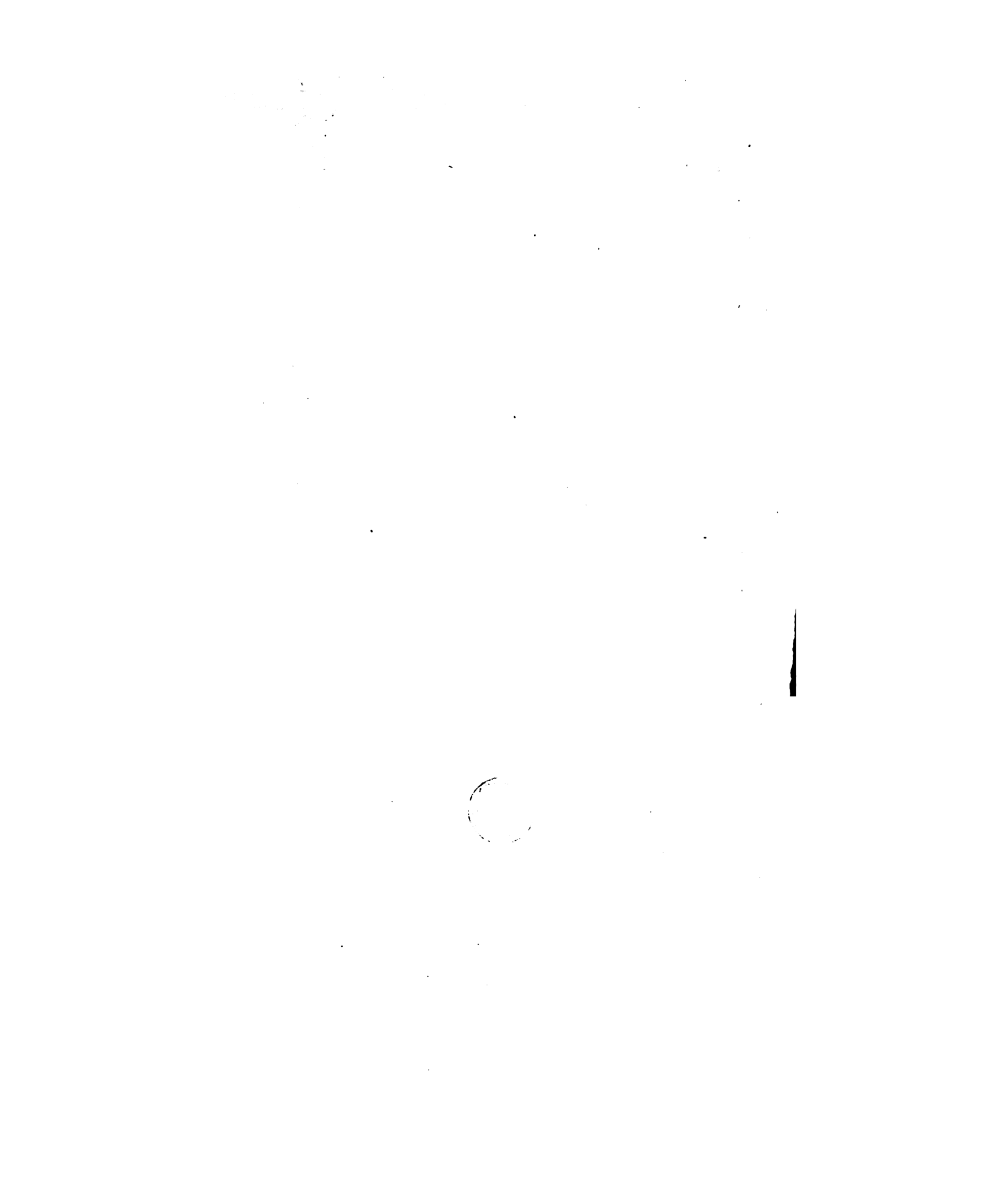
The **POLAR CIRCLES** are two lesser circles on the earth's surface, parallel to the equator, as far distant from the poles, which are as the tropics are from the equator. That which lies towards the north pole is called the **ARCTIC CIRCLE**, and that which lies towards the south pole is called the **ANTARCTIC CIRCLE**. To these there are corresponding circles in the heavens.

**Great circles** passing through the poles of the earth, and therefore perpendicular to the equator, are called **MERIDIANS**. The meridian passing through any particular place, lies in the same plane as the celestial meridian of that place. It divides the surface of the earth into two portions, called the *eastern* and *western* hemispheres, in respect of that place. The meridian is considered as indefinite in number; and any two lying directly north and south from each other are upon the same meridian. Sometimes the meridian of a place is understood to be the great circle, passing through that place, and tending from the one pole to the other. The other half of the circle is called the *opposite meridian*.

If we suppose 12 great circles, one of which is the meridian of a given place, to intersect each other at the poles of the earth, and divide the equator into 24 equal parts, these are called **HORARY CIRCLES** of that place. The poles are divided into 24 semicircles, corresponding to the 24 hours of the day, and the distance between each two of these is 15°, being the 24th part of 360°.

The **LONGITUDE** of any place on the earth is an arc of the equator intercepted between the meridian passing through that place and another meridian previously agreed upon, called the *first meridian*. The longitude is reckoned eastward and westward from the first meridian, by which means all places lying in the same hemisphere to the eastward of that place will have the same longitude; and all places lying in the other hemisphere to the westward of that place, will have the same longitude.

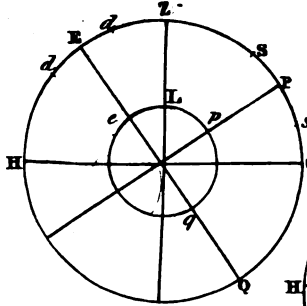
Geographers at different periods, and in different countries, have fixed upon different meridians for the first meridian. The rule anciently was to make it pass through the most distant to the west that was known. But moderns, knowing that there is no farthest part of the earth as can be considered the beginning, have laid aside that method of reckoning longitude. Ptolemy assumed the meridian passing through the southernmost of the Canary Islands for his first meridian. After him, as more islands were discovered in that quarter, the first meridian was removed farther off. The Arabian



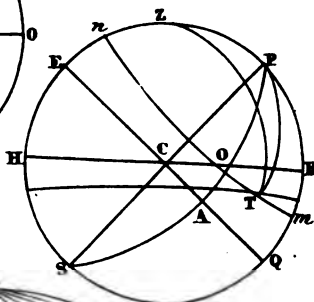


**GEOGRAPHY.**

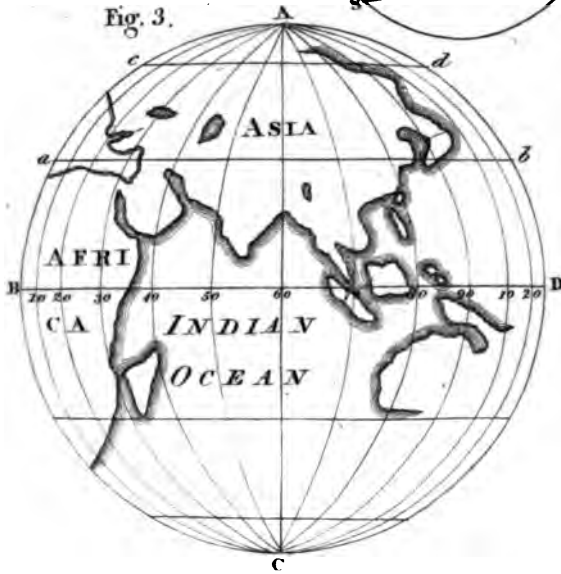
**Fig. 1.**



**Fig. 2.**



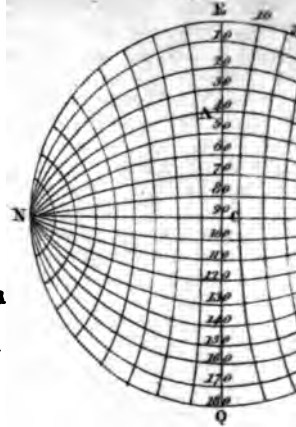
**Fig. 3.**



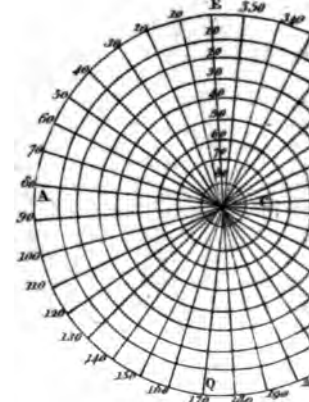
**Fig. 4.**



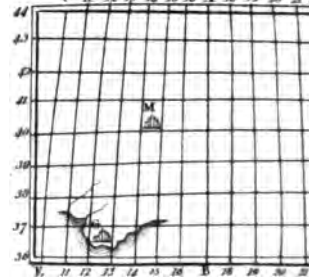
**Fig. 5.**



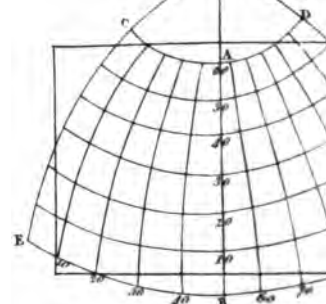
**Fig. 6.**



**Fig. 7.**



**Fig. 8.**









id in the observations, will be so much as the motion of the celestial body, upon which observations are made, is the more hence it appears, that observations made of the moon, when at her least distance from the earth, are preferable to those made upon her when at her greatest distance. If the motion of the sun used to determine the longitude, since his motion is only about one 13th of that of the moon, it is evident that the errors in the longitude would be 13 times greater: from which it appears, that the moon is the only celestial body which is employed to determine the longitude. It also appears of what importance it is in the sciences of navigation and geography, that tables should be constructed of her mo-

on observations the longitudes and latitudes of a great number of places have been determined, and the position and extent of many countries accurately defined, concerning which there were erroneous opinions formerly were entertained. Much, however, yet remains to be done: the parts of Africa and America are yet to be measured entirely unknown, and even the parts frequently visited by navigators may have their positions more accurately determined than hitherto done.

The methods of finding the longitude are not stated; of these there is yet another much used by navigators; to whom an exact knowledge of the position, when at sea, and without any other method than the stars and compass, is of the greatest importance. It has been already observed, that in order to know the longitude of any place, it is necessary to know the difference between the time of noon, or of any other hour, at that place, and the time of noon, or of the same hour, at any place upon the first meridian; for every difference of time the longitude may be found, allowing 15° of longitude for every hour of time, and so in proportion for any period of time.

It appears, that if a traveller, or navigator, carries with him a watch, or time-keeper, so regulated as to show exactly the hours as reckoned at the place of his departure; by comparing the time shewn by the watch with the time as reckoned at any place he comes to, or as found by means of proper astronomical observations at that place, it is evident that he may immediately find its longitude. If in departing from the first meridian, he had known from any other meridian whose longitude was known, still it is evident that the longitude is to be found by the same method of observation. This method of finding longitude would be the most simple of all, if it were not a matter of great difficulty to carry time-keepers that shall go with perfect accuracy; more especially on board of a ship, where they are continually exposed to changes of position, as well as continual agitation. The watches that occur have however been over-looked, and ingenuity; and watches have been constructed that have gone with great accuracy for many months. See LONGITUDES.

#### SECT. VI. Of the DIFFERENT POSITIONS of the SPHERE.

If we could suppose an inhabitant of the earth capable of living at either of the poles, he would have always one of the celestial poles in his zenith and the other in his nadir, the equator coinciding with the horizon. Hence all the celestial parallels, are also parallel to the horizon; and hence a person, or people, are said to live in a PARALLEL SPHERE, or to have a *parallel horizon*.

Those who live under the equator have both poles in the horizon, all the celestial parallels cutting the horizon at right angles; whence they are said to live in a RIGHT SPHERE, or to have a RIGHT HORIZON.

Those who live between either of the poles and the equator are said to live in an OBLIQUE SPHERE, or to have an *oblique horizon*; because the celestial equator cuts his horizon obliquely, and all the parallels in the celestial sphere have their planes oblique to that of the horizon. In this sphere some of the parallels intersect the horizon at oblique angles, some are entirely above it, and some entirely below it; all of them, however, so situated, that they would obliquely intersect the plane of the horizon extended.

The largest parallel, which appears entire above the horizon of any place in N. latitude, is called by the ancient astronomers the ARCTIC CIRCLE of that place. Within this circle, *i. e.* between it and the arctic pole, are comprehended all the stars which never set in that place, but are carried perpetually round the horizon, in circles parallel to the equator.

The largest parallel, which is hid entirely below the horizon of any place in N. latitude, was called the ANTARCTIC CIRCLE of that place by the ancients. This circle comprehends all the stars which never rise in that place, but are carried perpetually round below the horizon, in circles parallel to the equator.

In a parallel sphere, however, the equator may be considered as both *arctic* and *antarctic* circles; for being coincident with the horizon, all the parallels on one side are entirely above it, and those on the other entirely below it. In an oblique sphere, the nearer any place is to either of the poles the larger are the arctic and antarctic circles, as being nearer to the celestial equator, which is a great circle. In a right sphere, the arctic and antarctic circles have no place; because no parallel appears either entirely above or below it.

By the ancients the arctic circle was called *maximus semper apparentium*, and *circulus perpetuæ apparitionis*; the antarctic circle on the other hand, being named *maximus semper occultorum*, and *circulus perpetuæ occultationis*.

By the arctic and antarctic circles, however, modern geographers in general understand two fixed circles, at the distance of 23½ degrees from the poles. These mark out the space all round the globe where the sun appears to touch the horizon at midnight in mid-summer, and to be entirely sunk below it in winter.

According to the different positions of the globe with regard to the sun, the celestial bodies exhibit

but different phenomena to the inhabitants. Thus, in a parallel sphere, they appear to move in circles round the horizon; in a right sphere, they appear to rise and set as at present, but always in circles cutting the horizon at right angles; but in an oblique sphere, the angle varies according to the degree of obliquity, and the position of the axis of the sphere with regard to the sun. The phenomena thence arising will be sufficiently understood from what is said under the article **ASTRONOMY**. From thence we will easily perceive the reason of the sun's continual change of place in the heavens: but though it is certain that this change takes place every moment, it is imperceptible for some time, unless by very nice astronomical observations. Hence we may generally suppose the place of the sun to be the same for a day or two together, though in a considerable number of days it becomes exceedingly obvious to every body. When he appears in the celestial equator, his motion seems for some time to be in the plane of that circle, though it is certain that his place there is only for a single moment; and in like manner, when he comes to any other point of the heavens, his apparent diurnal motion is in a parallel drawn throughout. Twice a year he is in the equator, and then the days and nights are nearly equal all over the earth. This happens in March and September; after which, the sun proceeding either northward or south, according to the season of the year, and the position of the observer, the days become longer or shorter than the nights, and summer or winter comes on, as is fully explained under the article **ASTRONOMY**.

The recession of the sun from the equator either northward or southward is called his **DECLINATION**; and is either north or south according to the season of the year; and when this declination is at its greatest height, he is then said to be in the tropic.

The space between the two tropics, called the **TORID ZONE**, extends 47 degrees of latitude all round the globe; and throughout the whole of that space the sun is vertical to some of the inhabitants twice a-year, but to those who live directly under the tropics only once. Throughout the whole torrid zone also there is little difference between the length of the days and nights. The ancient geographers found themselves considerably embarrassed in their attempts to fix the northern tropic; for though they took a very proper method, namely, to observe the most northerly place where objects had no shadow on a certain day, yet they found that on the same day no shadow was cast for a space of no less than 300 stadia. The reason of this was, the apparent diameter of the sun; which being about half a degree, seemed to extend himself over as much of the surface of the earth, and to be vertical every where within that space.

When the sun is in or near the equator, he  
 to change his place in the heavens most rapidly  
 so that about the equinoxes one may very  
 receive the difference in a day or two:  
 approaches the tropics this apparent  
 comes gradually slower; so that for a  
 days he seems to move at all.  
 commonly will be understood from

any map on which the ecliptic is described by drawing lines through every degree parallel to the equator, we shall perceive they all approach nearer and nearer each other at last, when we approach the point betwixt the ecliptic and tropic, several degrees scarce be distinguishable.

**SECT. VII. METHOD of FINDING of the DAY, and the BEGINNING of the TWILIGHT.**

As it is of considerable importance in Geography, to know the length of the day assigned place upon the earth, it will be proper to shew the manner of finding the time of the rising and setting of the sun, or any other of the celestial bodies. Let **PZES**, *Plate CLXII, Fig. 2.* represent the celestial meridian of any place, **P** and **E** the poles of the sphere; let **EQ** be the horizon, stereographically projected upon the plane of the meridian; let **I** be the 6 o'clock hour circle, and **m** the point of declination described by the sun on any given day of the year; the point in which it cuts the horizon; then **n** half the arch described by the sun within the horizon, and **O m** the half of the arch when below the horizon. Let **POS** be an hour circle passing through the sun in the horizon, and meeting the equator at **A**; the arch **EA** of the equator intercepted between the meridian and hour circle, and converted into time, (allowing 15 minutes will evidently give half the time that the sun will remain above the horizon, as 15 minutes will give half the time it remains below the horizon. As the arch **EC** contains 90 degrees, it is only necessary to find the arch **CA** which is called the sun's ascension, it being the difference between his right ascension, and his oblique ascension converted into time to add it to, or subtract from six hours, according as the place and sun's declination are of contrary names, that is both **N.** or both **S.** or the one **N.** and the other **S.** and the difference shall be half the length of the day required.

In the spherical triangle **CAO**, right angled at **A**, we have **AO** the complement of the sun's declination, to be found from astronomical tables; the angle **ACO** the complement of the sun's declination; and **CO** of the place, in order to find **AC** the sun's ascension. Hence from the principles of spherical trigonometry we have the following proportion:

As radius to the tangent of the latitude, so the tangent of the sun's declination to the tangent of the sun's ascension.

When the sun is in the same hemisphere as the place, and his declination is less than the complement of its latitude, which happens to places in the polar circle, the parallel of declination will not cut the horizon, and consequently the sun will not set during the time his declination exceeds the latitude; but when the sun and place

eres, then he will never rise at that  
his declination exceeds the co-la-  
ice it is easy to see how to find the  
sun begins to shine constantly upon  
within the polar circle; and also  
that place begins to be wholly in  
considerable time together.

observed in ASTRONOMY, Part III,  
twilight commences in the morn-  
the evening, when the sun is  $18^{\circ}$   
zon. The time of its commence-  
g, may be found by spherical trigo-  
nometry: *Plate CLXII, fig. 2.* Let  
h, P the pole of the sphere, and T  
sun,  $18^{\circ}$  below the horizon H R.  
triangle P Z T, we have P Z the  
pole from the zenith, which is e-  
latitude of the place, and P T the  
the sun's declination; also Z T,  
the sun from the zenith, which, in  
ways  $90^{\circ} + 18^{\circ}$  or  $108^{\circ}$ . From  
find the hour angle, Z P T, which  
the following proportion. Let V  
of the triangle. Then as sine Z P  
radius square, so is sine (V—Z P)  
T) to the square of the sine of  $\frac{1}{2}$   
ngle Z P T being turned into time  
ne from noon of the beginning or  
twilight.

*of the DIVISION of the EARTH'S SUR-  
CLIMATES and ZONES; and the DI-  
the SHADOWS of BODIES.*

ing the diversity in the length of  
ights, the rising and setting of the  
other phænomena already mention-  
t geographers divided the surface  
o certain districts, which they cal-  
; and instead of the method of de-  
uation of places by their latitude  
s we do now, they contented them-  
tioning the climate in which they

When more accuracy was requi-  
ioned also the beginning, middle,  
he climates.

ion, however, was certainly very  
urate: for the only method they had  
the difference was by the length of  
climate, according to them, was  
had the day in its most northerly  
r longer than in the most southerly.  
ng of their first climate, they took  
der which the day is  $12\frac{1}{4}$  hours  
ts of the world which lie nearer  
: being supposed to be in any cli-  
cause in a loose sense they may be  
a right sphere, or because they  
or thought to be uninhabitable by  
t. The northern climates were gene-  
be seven; which must have an equal  
bern climates corresponding with  
thern climates. according to the  
as follow: 1. Meroe. 2. Syene in  
alexandria in Egypt. 4. Rhodes.  
according to others, a parallel  
the Hellespont. 6. The parallel  
the mouth of the river Boristhe-  
pheaton mountains.—Each of these  
r 1.

places was supposed to be in the middle of the cli-  
mate; and as the southern parts of the globe were  
then very little known, the climates to the S. of  
the equator were supposed to be as far distant  
from that circle as the northern ones; in conse-  
quence of which they took their names from the  
latter.

A parallel was said to pass through the middle  
of a climate, when the day under that parallel is a  
quarter of an hour longer than that which passes  
through the most southerly part. Hence it does  
not divide the space into two equal parts, but that  
part next the equator will always be the larger of  
the two; because the farther we recede from that  
circle, the less increase of latitude will be sufficient  
to lengthen the day a quarter of an hour. Thus,  
in every climate there are 3 parallels; one mark-  
ing the beginning, the 2d the middle, and the 3d  
the ending of the climate; the ending of one be-  
ing always the beginning of another. Some of  
the ancients divided the earth by these parallels;  
others by a parallel did not mean a mere line,  
but a space of some breadth: and hence the pa-  
rallel may be understood as the same with half a  
climate.

This method of dividing the surface of the earth  
into climates, though now very much disused, has  
been adopted by several modern geographers. Some  
of these begin their climates at the equator, reckon-  
ing them by the increase of half an hour in the length  
of the day northward. Thus they go on till they  
come to the polar circles, where the longest day is  
24 hours: betwixt these and the poles they count  
the climates by the increase of a natural day in the  
length of time that the sun continues above the  
horizon, until they come to one where the longest  
day is 15 of ours, or half a month; and from this to  
the pole they count by the increase of half months  
or whole months, the climates ending at the poles  
where the days are six months long. The climates  
betwixt the equator and the polar circles are cal-  
led *hour climates*, and those between the polar cir-  
cles and the poles are called *month climates*.—In  
common language, however, we use the word  
CLIMATE in a very different sense; so that, when  
two different countries are said to be in different  
climates, we understand only that the temperature  
of the air, seasons, &c. are different.

The division of the earth into ZONES has aris-  
sen from the various appearances of the sun, and  
the effects of his light and heat upon different parts  
of it. These are five in number: 1. The torrid  
zone, lying between the two tropics for a space  
of  $47^{\circ}$  of latitude. This is divided into two equal  
parts by the equator; and the inhabitants have  
the sun vertical to them twice a-year, excepting  
only those who dwell under the tropics, to whom  
he is vertical only once. 2. The two temperate  
zones lie between the polar circles and the tropics,  
containing a space of  $43^{\circ}$  of latitude. And, 3.  
The two frigid zones lie between the polar circles  
and the poles. In these last the longest day is never  
below 24 hours; in the temperate zones it is never  
quite so much, and in the torrid zone it is never  
above 14. The zones are named from the degree  
of heat they were supposed to be subjected to.  
The torrid zone was supposed by the ancients to

T t

be.



ar circle, or by the eye placed in  
ar point, according to the rules of  
&c. of which there are several me-

**SECTION of GENERAL MAPS.** A  
world must represent two hemispheres;  
it be drawn upon the plane of that  
divides the hemispheres.

method is to project each hemisphere  
of some particular circle, by the  
**STEREOGRAPHIC PROJECTION**; which see;  
hemispheres on one common base or  
the plane of projection is that of a  
maps will be the E. and W. hemi-  
spheres meridians will be ellipses; and  
circles will be right lines. Upon the  
equinoctial, the meridians will be  
offing in the centre, which will re-  
side; the parallels of latitude will be  
that common centre; and the maps  
northern and southern hemispheres.

**PLATE CLXII**, is an orthographic projec-  
tion of the hemispheres upon the plane of

And *Fig. 4.* an orthographic projec-  
tion of the northern hemisphere upon the plane  
of the equinoctial. The fault of this way of drawing  
towards the outside the circles are  
other; and therefore equal spaces  
there are represented by very unequal  
map.

method is to project the same hemi-  
spheres by the rules of **STEREOGRAPHIC PROJEC-**  
TION; in which way all the parallels will be re-  
circles, and the meridians by circles

(For the nature and properties of  
this projection, See **PROJECTION OF THE**  
HEMISPHERES, at here the contrary fault occurs;  
towards the outides are too far a-  
bout the middle they are too near

method is therefore adopted to reme-  
dy both the former methods: viz.

E. and W. hemispheres, describe the

*Fig. 5. plate CLXII*, for the meridi-  
an projection; through the centre of  
the equinoctial EQ, and axis PN per-  
pendicular, making P and N, the north and  
south poles. Divide the quadrant PE, EN, NQ,  
EQ, into 9 equal parts, each representing 10  
degrees of latitude, beginning at  
the equinoctial EQ. Divide  
PN into 9 equal parts, beginning at  
the north pole P, draw circles  
through the corresponding points draw  
of latitude. Again divide CE and  
EN into 12 equal parts; and through the points of  
division draw circles, for the meridians. Thus the  
map is prepared to receive the names of the  
countries, kingdoms, cities, &c. in the

N. or S. hemisphere, draw AQBE,  
the equinoctial, dividing it into the four  
quadrants, AQ, QB, and BE; and each qua-  
drant into 12 equal parts; and through these points  
draw circles from the centre C, for the paral-  
lels of latitude; numbering them as in the figure.  
By this method, equal spaces on the earth  
will be represented by equal spaces on the map, as  
in the next section will bear; for a spherical

surface can no way be represented exactly upon a  
plane. Then the several countries, kingdoms, ci-  
ties, seas, islands, sea coasts, towns, &c. are to  
be marked in the map, according to their latitudes  
and longitudes.

In filling up the map, all places representing land  
are filled with such cities, towns, rivers, hills, &c.  
as the countries contain; but the seas are left  
white; the shores adjoining to them being shaded.  
Large rivers are marked by strong or double lines,  
drawn winding in the form of those they repre-  
sent; and small rivers are expressed by small  
lines. Different countries are best distinguished  
by different colours; at least the borders of them  
should be so distinguished. Forests are represented  
by small trees; and mountains are shaded to make  
them appear. Sands are denoted by numerous  
small points; and rocks under water by small  
crosses. The mariner's compass, with the 32  
points representing the winds, is drawn in any  
void space.

## II. CONSTRUCTION of PARTICULAR MAPS.

To draw a map of any particular country, its extent  
must be known as to latitude and longitude: as,  
Suppose Spain, lying between the N. latitudes 36°  
and 44°, and extending from 10° to 23° of longitude.  
So that its extent from N. to S. is 8° and from E.  
to W. 13°.

1. Draw the line AB, *fig. 7. plate CLXII*, for a  
meridian passing through the middle of the coun-  
try; on this, set off 8° from B to A, taken from  
any convenient scale; A being the north and B  
the south point. Through A and B draw the per-  
pendiculars CD, EF, for the extreme parallels  
of latitude. Divide AB into 8 parts or degrees,  
through which draw the other parallels of latitude,  
parallel to the former.

For the meridians, divide any degree in AB in-  
to 60 equal parts, or geographical miles. Then,  
because the length of a degree in each parallel de-  
creases towards the pole, (as appears from the  
annexed TABLE,) take the number of miles an-  
swering to the latitude of B, which is 48½ nearly,  
and set it from B, 7 times to E, and 6 times to  
F; so is EF divided into degrees. Again, from  
the same table take the number of miles of a de-  
gree in the latitude A, viz. 43½ nearly; which set  
off, from A, seven times to C, and six times to D.  
Then from the points of division in the line CD,  
to the corresponding points in the line EF, draw  
so many right lines for the meridians. Number  
the degrees of latitude up both sides of the map,  
and the degrees of longitude on the top and bot-  
tom. Also in some vacant place make a scale of  
miles; or of degrees, if the map represent a large  
part of the earth; to serve for finding the distan-  
ces of places upon the map.

Then make the proper divisions and subdivisions  
of the country; and having the latitudes and lon-  
gitudes of the principal places, it will be easy to  
set them down in the map; for any town, &c.  
must be placed, where the circles of its latitude  
and longitude intersect. For instance, GIBRAL-  
TAR, whose lat. is 36° 11' and lon. 12° 27' will  
be at G; and MADRID, whose lat. is 40° 10' and  
lon. 14° 44', will be at M. In like manner, the  
mouth of a river must be set down; but to de-  
scribe the whole river, the lat. and lon. of every



ry turning must be marked down, and the towns and bridges by and under which it runs. And so for woods, forests, mountains, lakes, forts, &c. The boundaries will be described by setting down the most remarkable places on the sea coast, and drawing a continued dotted line through them all. This method is very proper for small countries.

TABLE, showing the NUMBER of MILES contained in a DEGREE of LONGITUDE, in each PARALLEL of LATITUDE from the EQUATOR.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th parts of a mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	63	52	37	00	82	08	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	70	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	52	06	60	30	00	90	00	00

2. Maps of particular places, being portions of the globe, may be drawn after the same manner as the whole: *i. e.* either by the orthographic or stereographic projection of the sphere. But in partial maps, an easier method may be taken; thus: having drawn the meridian AB, *fig. 7*, and divided it into equal parts, as in the last method, draw lines through all the points of division perpendicular to AB, for the parallels of latitude; CD, *fig. 7*, being the extreme parallels. Then, to divide these, set off the degrees in each parallel, diminished as directed for the two extreme parallels *P*. in the last method; and through all the dividing points draw the meridians, which will be right lines; and which were right lines in the whole globe, because only the extreme paral-

ls were divided by the table. This method is proper for a large tract, as Europe, &c. in the parallels and meridians need only be divided every 5 or 10 degrees. This method is used in drawing maps; as all the parts are of their due magnitude, but a little distorted towards the outside, from the obliqueness of the meridians and parallels.

3. A 3d method may be adopted for a meridian: Divide it into 9 equal parts through the points of division, describe circles for the parallels of latitude, from the pole P, which represents the pole. See *fig. 8*. the height of the map; then CI parallel passing through the greatest latitude; EF will represent the equator. Divide the meridian EF into equal parts, of the same length in AB, both ways, beginning at B. Divide all the parallels into the same number of parts, but lesser, in proportion to the length of the several latitudes, as directed in the last method for the rectilineal parallels. Through all the corresponding divisions, draw lines which will represent the meridians, the first ones being EC and ED. Lastly number the parallels in degrees of lat. and lon., and place a scale of miles or degrees for the distances, either of miles or degrees for the distances. This is a very good method for large maps, and is called the GLOBULAR METHOD; all the parts of the earth being nearly of their due magnitude, except the parts near the outside, which are a little distorted on the outside.

When the place of which a map is intended is but small, *e. g.* if a county were to be drawn, the meridians, as to sense, will be parallel, and the whole will differ very little from a plane. Such a map may be made more exact than by the preceding rules, merely by measuring the distances in miles, and so laying them out in a plane rectangular map. But this method of map making belongs more properly to the ART, which see.

The USE OF MAPS is obvious from the preceding construction. The degrees of the meridians shew the latitudes and longitudes, and the scale of miles annexed, their distance from us, with regard to each other, as well as to the cardinal points, appearance; the top of the map being always the north, the bottom the south, the right hand the east, the left the west, unless the compass is annexed, shew the contrary.

#### SECT. X. GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE REPRESENTATION of the SPHERE.

HAVING discovered, by the preceding method, the true situation of the different parts of the earth with regard to each other, we know many other particulars relative to the earth, as their distance from us, the hour of the day, the season of the year, &c. at a particular place. As each of these problems would require a particular and somewhat tedious calculation, machines have been invented by which all the calculations may be performed, and every problem in geography may be





# GEOGRAPHY.

Fig. 1.  
Terrestrial Globe.



Fig. 4.



Fig. 5.



Fig. 2. Armillary Sphere.



Fig. 3. Celestial Globe.



and in the most easy and expeditious these machines are the celestial and lobes, and the armillary sphere; of hall now give a description, with the using them.

of the world be accurately delineated cal ball, the surface thereof will re-surface of the earth: for the bulk of nconsiderable with respect to that of hat they take off no more from its ran grains of sand do from the round-ommon globe: the diameter of the 8000 miles, and no known hill upon ve three miles in perpendicular height. sferver placed any where in the inde-

where there is nothing to limit his emote objects would appear equally i him; and to be placed in a vast con-, of which his eye is the centre. The ich nearer to us than the sun; some ts are sometimes nearer and sometimes n us than the sun; others never come is as the sun always is: the remotest ar system is beyond comparison nearer ny of the fixed stars are; and yet, all al objects appear equally distant from ore, if we suppose a large hollow sphere ave as many bright studs fixed to its ere are stars visible in the heaven, and

to be of different magnitudes, and be same angular distances from each o-stars are; the sphere will be a true re- of the starry heaven, to an eye sup-in its centre, and viewing it all around, nall globe, with a map of the earth placed on an axis in the centre of this re, and the sphere be made to turn his axis, it will represent the apparent he heavens round the earth.

t circle be so drawn upon this sphere, it into two equal parts or hemispheres, ne of the circle be perpendicular to the sphere, this circle will represent the IAL, which divides the heaven into two s, called the *northern* and the *southern*; and every point of that circle will distant from the POLES, or ends in the hat pole which is in the middle of the :misphere will be called the *north pole* of and that which is in the middle of the :misphere the *south pole*.

r great circle be drawn upon the sphere, manner as to cut the equinoctial at an g degrees in two opposite points, it will be ECLIPTIC, or circle of the sun's ap- al motion; one half of which is on ide of the equinoctial, and the other south.

stud be made to move eastward in this such a manner as to go quite round it, that the sphere is turned round west-imes upon its axis, this stud will repre- x changing his place every day a 365th ecliptic, and going round westward ay as the stars do; but with a motion over than the motion of the stars, ill make 366 revolutions about the axis re in the time that the sun makes only

365. During one half of these revolutions, the sun will be on the north side of the equinoctial; during the other half, on the south; and at the end of each half, in the equinoctial.

If we suppose the terrestrial globe in this machine to be about one inch in diameter, and the diameter of the starry sphere to be about 5 or 6 feet, a small insect on the globe would see a very little portion of its surface; but it would see one half of the starry sphere, the convexity of the globe hiding the other half from its view. If the sphere were turned westward round the globe, and the insect could judge of the appearances which arise from that motion, it would see some stars rising to its view in the eastern side of the sphere, whilst others were setting on the western; but as all the stars are fixed to the sphere, the same stars would always rise in the same points of view on the E. side, and set on the same points of view on the W. side. With the sun it would be otherwise; because the sun is not fixed to any point of the sphere, but moves slowly along an oblique circle in it. And if the insect should look towards the south, and call that point of the globe, where the equinoctial in the sphere seems to cut it on the left side, the east point; and where it cuts the globe on the right side, the west point; the little animal would see the sun rise north of the east, and set north of the west, for 182½ revolutions; after which, for as many more, the sun would rise south of the east, and set south of the west. And in the whole 365 revolutions, the sun would rise only twice in the east point, and set twice in the west.

All these appearances would be the same, if the starry sphere stood still (the sun only moving in the ecliptic), and the earthly globe were turned round the axis of the sphere eastward. For, as the insect would be carried round with the globe, he would be quite insensible of its motion, and the sun and stars would appear to move westward.

#### SECT. XI. DESCRIPTION of the TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

THE equator, ecliptic, and tropics, polar circles, and meridians, are laid down upon the globe in the manner already described. The ecliptic is divided into 12 signs, and each sign into 30 degrees. Each tropic is 23½ degrees from the equator, and each polar circle is 23½ degrees from its respective pole. Circles are drawn parallel to the equator, at every 10 degrees distance from it on each side of the poles: these circles are called *parallels of latitude*. On large globes there are circles drawn perpendicularly thro' every 10th degree of the equator, intersecting each other at the poles; but on the globes of or under a foot diameter, they are only drawn through every 15th degree of the equator: these circles are generally called *meridians*, sometimes *circles of longitude*, and at other times *hour-circles*.

The globe is hung in a brass ring, A, fig. 1, plate CLXIII, called the *brass meridian*, and turns upon a wire in each pole sunk half its thickness into one side of the meridian ring; by which means that side of the ring divides the globe into two equal parts, called *eastern* and *western hemispheres*;

spheres; as the equator divides it into two equal parts, called the *northern* and *southern hemispheres*. The ring is divided into 360 equal parts or degrees, on the side wherein the axis of the globe turns. One half of these degrees are numbered, and reckoned from the equator to the poles, where they end at 90. Their use is to show the latitudes of places. The degrees on the other half of the meridian are numbered from the poles to the equator, where they end at 90: Their use is to show how to elevate either the north or south pole above the horizon, according to the latitude of any given place, as it is N. or S. of the equator.

The brazen meridian is let into two notches made in a broad flat ring called the *wooden horizon*, B, C; the upper surface of which divides the globe into two equal parts, called the *upper* and *lower hemispheres*. One notch is in the north point of the horizon, and the other in the south. On this horizon are several concentric circles, which contain the months and days of the year, the signs and degrees answering to the sun's place for each month and day, the 32 points of the compass, and the circles of amplitude and azimuth. The graduated side of the brazen meridian lies towards the east side of the horizon, and should be generally kept towards the person who works problems by the globes.

There is a small horary circle D, so fixed to the north part of the brazen meridian, that the wire in the north pole of the globe is in the centre of that circle; and on the wire is an index, which goes over all the 24 hours of the circle, as the globe is turned round its axis. Sometimes there are two horary circles, one between each pole of the globe and the brazen meridian.

There is a thin slip of brass, called the *QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE*, which is divided into 90 equal parts or degrees, answering exactly to so many degrees of the equator. It is occasionally fixed to the uppermost point of the brazen meridian by a nut and screw. The divisions end at the nut E, and the quadrant is turned round upon it.

There is also applied occasionally to the globe a magnetic needle, freely moving over a circle divided into four times 90 degrees; reckoning from the N. and S. points towards the E. and W. and also into the 32 points of the compass. As this needle makes nearly a certain constant angle with the meridian in every place, called the *variation*; therefore this compass, being added to the frame, will rectify the position of the meridian of the globe when the variation of the needle is known. Thus at London, the variation of the needle is at this time about 23 degrees northward; therefore, by moving the frame of the globe about till the needle settles itself over the 23d degree, reckoning westward from the north point or *fleur de lis*, we shall have the brass meridian coinciding with the true meridian. The compass is sometimes fixed between the legs underneath the globe.

#### SECT. XII. DESCRIPTION and USE of the ARMILLARY SPHERE.

THE exterior parts of this machine are, a compass of brass rings, (See Plate CLXIII. fig. 2.)

which represent the principal circles viz. 1. The equinoctial, AA, which to 360 degrees (beginning at its intersection with the ecliptic in Aries), for showing his right ascension in degrees; and also into 12 signs, for showing his right ascension in time. 2. The tropic, BB, which is divided into 12 signs into 30 degrees, and also into 12 days of the year; in such a manner that every degree or point of the ecliptic in which it stands on any given day, stands over that circle of months. 3. The tropic of Cancer, touching the ecliptic at the beginning in ♋, and the tropic of Capricorn FF touching the ecliptic at the beginning in ♎ each 23½ degrees from the equinoctial. The arctic circle E, and the antarctic circle G, each 23½ degrees from its respective pole. 4. The equinoctial colure GG, touching the north and south poles of the globe, and the equinoctial colure HH, and through the equinoctial points Cancer and Libra, in the ecliptic. 5. The solstitial colure HH, passing through the poles of the ecliptic, and through the solstitial points Cancer and Capricorn in the ecliptic. Each quarter of these colures is divided into 90 degrees, from the equinoctial to the poles of the world, for showing the declination of the sun, moon, and each quarter of the latter, from the equator, to its poles *b* and *d*, to the latitude of the stars.

In the north pole of the ecliptic there is fixed one end of a quadrant to the other end a small sun Y, which goes round the ecliptic BB, by turning in the south pole of the ecliptic there is fixed another quadrantal wire, which is another quadrantal wire, the moon Z upon it, which may be moved by the hand; but there is a particular mechanism for causing the moon to move in a circle which crosses the ecliptic at an angle of 5 degrees, at two opposite points called the *moon's nodes*, also for shifting these points back and forth along the ecliptic, as the moon's nodes shift in the ecliptic.

Within these circular rings is a flat brass meridian I, fixed on an axis KK, which passes through the north and south poles of the globe to those of the celestial sphere at L. This axis is fixed the flat celestial sphere at L, which may be set directly over the meridian place on the globe, and then turned round the globe, so as to keep still the flat meridian upon it. This flat meridian is graduated in the same way as the brass meridian of a common globe, its use is much the same. To this is added the moveable horizon MM, so as to be supported by two strong wires proceeding from its ends to the globe, and entering the opposite point of its equator, which is a moveable brass ring let into the globe around its equator. The globe may be held within this ring, so as to present the brazen meridian upon it, directly under the horizon LL. The horizon is divided into degrees all around its outermost edge, and the points of the compass for the declination of the sun and moon both in

celestial meridian LL, passes through the north and south points of the a common globe; but here, if the globe is turned round, the horizon and meridian

At the south pole of the sphere is a brass, fixed to the rings: and on the axis which goes round that circle, if turned round its axis.

The fabric is supported on a pedestal N, elevated or depressed upon the joint number of degrees from 0 to 90, by the arc P, which is fixed in the strong and slides in the upright piece R, in order to fix it at any other proper

There are two wheels (as in Dr Long's two pinions, whose axes come out either of which may be turned by the wheel W. When the winch is put upon and turned backward, the terrestrial horizon and celestial meridian, and the whole sphere of circles turn east, by south, to west, carrying the moon Z, round the same way, when it rises above and sets below the horizon; when the winch is put upon and turned forward, the sphere with the earth keep at rest; and the earth, with its meridian, turn round from W. by S. to the same points of the horizon to the north, to which these bodies came when at rest and they were carried round that they rise and set in the same points, and at the same time in the hour when the motion be in the earth or in

If the earthly globe be turned, the hour circle goes round its hour circle; but if the celestial globe be turned, the hour circle goes round its hour circle. And thus, by this construction, the globe is equally fitted to show either the motion of the earth or the apparent motion of the sun.

To use the sphere for use, first slacken the upright stem R, and taking hold of the globe move it up or down until the given latitude for any place be at the side of the globe, and then the axis of the sphere will be elevated so as to stand parallel to the ecliptic, if the machine be set north and south compass: This done, count the degrees of the north pole, upon the celestial meridian towards the north notch of the globe, until the horizon to that latitude; then turn the sun Y comes to the given place in the ecliptic, and the sun will be in the place for that day: find the place of the sun in the ecliptic, and also the place of the sun in the ecliptic, and set them right: lastly, turn the winch W, until it comes to the meridian LL, or until the sun comes to the sun (according as you here or earth to move), and set the hour XII, marked noon, and the whole globe be rectified. Then turn the winch, when the sun and moon rise and set, and the hour index will show the time for the given day.

Who understand the use of the globe

will be at no loss to work many other problems by this sphere, it is needless to enlarge any farther upon it.

#### SECT. XIII. DIRECTIONS for USING the TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

In using globes, keep the east side of the horizon towards you (unless the problem requires to turn it), which side may be known by the word EAST upon the horizon; for then you have the graduated side of the meridian towards you, the quadrant of altitude before you, and the globe divided exactly into two equal parts, by the graduated side of the meridian.

In working some problems, it will be necessary to turn the whole globe and horizon about, that you may look on the west side thereof; which turning will be apt to jog the ball so, as to shift away that degree of the globe which was before set to the horizon or meridian: to avoid which inconvenience, thrust in the feather end of a quill between the ball of the globe and the brazen meridian; which, without hurting the ball, will keep it from turning in the meridian, whilst you turn the west side of the horizon towards you.

PROB. I. To find the latitude and longitude of any given place upon the globe.—Turn the globe on its axis, until the given place comes exactly under that graduated side of the brazen meridian on which the degrees are numbered from the equator; and observe what degree of the meridian the place then lies under; which is its latitude, N. or S. as the place is N. or S. of the equator.

The globe remaining in this position, the degree of the equator, which is under the brazen meridian, is the longitude of the place, which is E. or W.; as the place lies on the E. or W. side of the first meridian of the globe.—All the Atlantic ocean and America, are on the W. side of the meridian of London; and the greatest part of Europe, and of Africa, together with all Asia, are on the E. side of the meridian of London, which is reckoned the first meridian of the globe by the British geographers and astronomers.

PROB. II. To find the longitude and latitude of a place being given, to find that place on the globe.—Look for the given longitude in the equator (counting it eastward or westward from the first meridian, as it is mentioned to be E. or W.); and bringing the point of longitude in the equator to the brazen meridian, on that side which is above the south point of the horizon: then count from the equator, on the brazen meridian, to the degree of the given latitude, towards the N. or S. pole, according as the latitude is N. or S.; and under that degree of latitude on the meridian you will have the place required.

PROB. III. To find the difference of longitude, or difference of latitude, between any two given places.—Bring each of these places to the brazen meridian, and see what its latitude is: the lesser latitude subtracted from the greater, if both places are on the same side of the equator, or both latitudes added together if they are on different sides of it, is the difference of latitude required. And the number of degrees contained between these places, reckoned on the equator, when they are brought

brought separately under the brazen meridian, is their difference of longitude, if it be less than 180; but if more, let it be subtracted from 360, and the remainder is the difference of longitude required. Or,

Having brought one of the places to the brazen meridian, and set the hour index to XII, turn the globe until the other place comes to the brazen meridian; and the number of hours and parts of an hour, passed over by the index, will give the longitude in time; which may be easily reduced to degrees, by allowing 15 degrees for every hour, and one degree for every four minutes.

N. B. When we speak of *bringing any place to the brazen meridian*, it is the graduated side of the meridian that is meant.

PROB. IV. *Any place being given, to find all those places that have the same longitude or latitude with it.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian; then all those places which lie under that side of the meridian, from pole to pole, have the same longitude with the given place. Turn the globe round its axis: and all those places, which pass under the same degree of the meridian that the given place does, have the same latitude with that place.

Since all latitudes are reckoned from the equator, and all longitudes are reckoned from the first meridian, it is evident, that the point of the equator which is cut by the first meridian, has neither latitude nor longitude.—The greatest latitude is 90 degrees, because no place is more than 90 degrees from the equator: and the greatest longitude is 180 degrees, because no place is more than 180 degrees from the first meridian.

PROB. V. *To find the antæci, periæci, and antipodes of any given place.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian; and having found its latitude, keep the globe in that situation, and count the same number of degrees of latitude from the equator towards the contrary pole; and where the reckoning ends, you have the *antæci* of the given place upon the globe. Those who live at the equator have no *antæci*.

The globe remaining in the same position, set the hour index to the upper XII on the horary circle, and turn the globe until the index comes to the lower XII; then the place which lies under the meridian, in the same latitude with the given place, is the *periæci* required. Those who live at the poles have no *periæci*.

As the globe now stands (with the index at the lower XII), the *antipodes* of the given place will be under the same point of the brazen meridian where its *antæci* stood before. Every place upon the globe has its *antipodes*.

PROB. VI. *To find the distance between any two places on the globe.*—Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and count the number of degrees intercepted between them on the quadrant; then multiply these degrees by 60, and the product will give the distance in geographical miles: but to find the distance in miles, multiply the degrees by 69½, and the product will be the number of miles required. Or, take the distance betwixt any two places with a pair of compasses, and apply that extent to the equator; the number of degrees, intercepted be-

tween the points of the compasses, in degrees of a great circle: which extend either to geographical miles, miles, as above.

PROB. VII. *A place on the globe and its distance from any other place or places upon the globe, which a distance from the given place.*—Bring the place to the brazen meridian, and draw a quadrant of altitude to the meridian at that place; then keeping the globe in that position, turn the quadrant quite round upon the degree of the quadrant that touches the place; then the place which is equally distant with it from the given place will pass over all the other places equally distant with it from the given place, is the same as if one foot of a pair of compasses were set in the given place, and the other end extended to the second place, which is known; for if the compasses be then moved about the first place as a centre, the moving end will pass over all those places which are at the same distance with the second from it.

PROB. VIII. *The hour of the day at any given place, to find all those places where it is the same at that time.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index to that hour; then turn the globe until the index points to the upper XII, and then all the places under the brazen meridian have the same hour.

N. B. The upper XII always stands for noon, and when the bringing of any place to the brazen meridian is mentioned, the side of the globe on which the degrees are reckoned is meant, unless the contrary side is expressed.

PROB. IX. *The hour of the day at any given place, to find what o'clock it is at any other place.*—Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index to that hour; then turn the globe, until the place where the hour is required comes to the meridian; the index will point out the hour at that place.

PROB. X. *To find the sun's place and his declinations for any given day.*—Look on the horizon for the given day; against it you have the degree of the ecliptic where the sun is (or his place) on that day. Find the same degree of that sign upon the globe, and having brought a quadrant of altitude upon the brazen meridian, observe what degree of the meridian stands over it; for that is the sun's declination reckoned from the equator.

PROB. XI. *The day of the month, to find all those places of the earth, where the sun will pass vertically on that day.*—Bring the given place in the ecliptic for the given day to the brazen meridian, and draw a quadrant of altitude to that point of the meridian; then turn the globe round its axis, all those places which pass under that point of the meridian are required; for as their latitude is the same as the declination of the sun, the sun must be directly over them at its respective noon.

PROB. XII. *A place being given, to find those two days of the year, when the sun shall be vertical to that place.*—Bring the place to the brazen meridian, and draw a quadrant of altitude to that degree of latitude that is exactly



then turn the globe round its axis, and elevate two degrees of the ecliptic which pass under that degree of latitude: lastly, find when the sun is in those degrees of the ecliptic are the days required: for on them, the sun's declination is equal to the latitude of the given place; and, consequently, he will be vertical to it at noon.

III. *To find all those places of the north where the sun begins to shine constantly, on any given day, from the 21st of the 23d of September.*—On these two days, in the equinoctial, and enlightens the whole from pole to pole: therefore, as the globe turns round its axis, which terminates in the north and south poles, every place upon it will go equally through light and dark, and so make the day and night equal to all places of the earth. But as the sun is from the equator, towards either pole, it enlightens as many degrees round that pole as it has declination from the equator: every place within that distance of the pole will go through any part of the dark, and the sun will not set to it. Now, as the sun's declination is northward from the 21st to the 23d of September, he must come round the north pole all that time; and so every day that he is in the northern tropic, enlightens upon the whole north frigid zone; so every place within the north polar circle goes through any part of the dark on that day. Therefore, bring the sun's place for the given day (by Prob. IX.) count as many degrees on the ecliptic from the north pole, as are equal to the sun's declination from the equator, and mark that point from the pole where the reckoning ends: turning the globe round its axis, observe which places in the north frigid zone pass directly under that mark; for they are the places required. This may be done for the south frigid zone, from the 23d of September to the 21st of March, which time the sun shines constantly on the

IV. *To find the place over which the sun is vertical at any hour of a given day.*—Having found the sun's declination for the given day (by Prob. IX.) mark it with chalk on the brazen meridian; then bring the place where you are (suppose London) to the brazen meridian, and set the globe to the given hour; which done, turn the globe on its axis, until the index points to XII; and the place on the globe, which is directly under the point of the sun's declination upon the meridian, has the sun that day at the zenith, or directly over head.

V. *The day and hour of a lunar eclipse; and to find all those places of the earth to which it will be visible.*—The moon is never eclipsed when she is full, and so directly opposite to the sun; that the earth's shadow falls upon her. Therefore, whatever place of the earth the sun is at that time, the moon must be vertical to the opposite of that place: so that the sun is visible to one half of the earth, and the moon to the other. Find the place to which the sun is vertical at the given hour (by Prob. XV.)

and elevate the pole to the latitude of that place, and bring the place to the upper part of the brazen meridian, as in the former problem: then, as the sun will be visible to all those parts of the globe which are above the horizon, the moon will be visible to all those parts which are below it, at the time of her greatest obscuration.

PROB. XVI. *To rectify the globe for the latitude, the zenith, and the sun's place.*—Find the latitude of the place (by Prob. I.), and if the place be in the northern hemisphere, raise the north pole above the north point of the horizon, as many degrees (counted from the pole upon the brazen meridian) as are equal to the latitude of the place. If the place be in the southern hemisphere, raise the south pole above the south point of the horizon as many degrees as are equal to the latitude. Then, turn the globe till the place comes under its latitude on the brazen meridian, and fasten the quadrant of altitude so, that the chamfered edge of its nut (which is even with the graduated edge) may be joined to the zenith, or point of latitude. This done, bring the sun's place in the ecliptic for the given day (found by Prob. X.) to the graduated side of the brazen meridian, and set the hour-index to XII at noon, which is the uppermost XII on the hour-circle; and the globe will be rectified.

PROB. XVII. *The latitude of any place, not exceeding 66½ degrees, and the day of the month, being given; to find the time of the sun's rising and setting, and consequently the length of the day and night.*—Having rectified the globe for the latitude, and for the sun's place on the given day (as directed in the preceding problem), bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the eastern side of the horizon, and the hour-index will show the time of sun-rising; then turn the globe on its axis, until the sun's place comes to the western side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of sun-setting. The hour of sun-setting doubled, gives the length of the day; and the hour of sun-rising doubled, gives the length of the night.

PROB. XVIII. *The latitude of any place, and the day of the month, being given; to find when the morning twilight begins, and the evening twilight ends, at that place.*—This problem is often limited: for, when the sun does not go 18 degrees below the horizon, the twilight continues the whole night; and for several nights together in summer, between 49 and 66½ degrees of latitude; and the nearer to 66½, the greater is the number of these nights. But when it does begin and end, the following method will show the time for any given day. Rectify the globe, and bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the eastern side of the horizon; then mark with chalk that point of the ecliptic which is in the western side of the horizon, it being the point opposite to the sun's place; this done, lay the quadrant of altitude over the said point, and turn the globe eastward, keeping the quadrant at the chalk mark, until it is just 18 degrees high on the quadrant; and the index will point out the time when the morning twilight begins: for the sun's place will then be 18 degrees below the eastern side of the horizon. To find the time when the evening twilight ends, bring the sun's place to the western side of the horizon, and

and the point opposite to it, which was marked with the chalk, will be rising in the east: then bring the quadrant over that point, and keeping it thereon, turn the globe westward, until the said point be 18 degrees above the horizon on the quadrant, and the index will show the time when the evening twilight ends; the sun's place being then 18° below the western side of the horizon.

PROB. XIX. *To find on what day of the year the sun begins to shine constantly, on any given place on the north frigid zone; and how long he continues to do so.*—Rectify the globe to the latitude of the place, and turn it about until some point of the ecliptic, between Aries and Cancer, coincides with the north point of the horizon where the brazen meridian cuts it; then find, on the wooden horizon, what day of the year the sun is in that point of the ecliptic; for that is the day on which the sun begins to shine constantly on the given place without setting. This done, turn the globe, until some point of the ecliptic, between Cancer and Libra, coincides with the north point of the horizon, where the brazen meridian cuts it; and find, on the wooden horizon, on what day the sun is in that point of the ecliptic; which is the day that the sun leaves off constantly shining on the said place, and rises and sets to it as to other places on the globe. The number of natural days, or complete revolutions of the sun about the earth, between the two days above found, is the time that the sun keeps constantly above the horizon without setting; for all that portion of the ecliptic, which lies between the two points which intersect the horizon in the very north, never sets below it; and there is just as much of the opposite part of the ecliptic that never rises; therefore the sun will keep as long constantly below the horizon in winter as above it in summer.

PROB. XX. *To find in what latitude the sun shines constantly, for any length of time less than 182½ of our days and nights.*—Find a point in the ecliptic half as many degrees from the beginning of Cancer (either toward Aries or Libra) as there are natural days in the time given; and bring that point to the north side of the brazen meridian, on which the degrees are numbered from the pole towards the equator: then keep the globe from turning on its axis, and slide the meridian up or down, until the foresaid point of the ecliptic comes to the north point of the horizon, and then the elevation of the pole will be equal to the latitude required.

PROB. XXI. *The latitude of a place, not exceeding 66½ degrees, and the day of the month, being given; to find the sun's amplitude or point of the compass, on which he rises or sets.*—Rectify the globe, and bring the sun's place to the eastern side of the horizon; then observe what point of the compass on the horizon stands right against the sun's place, for that is his amplitude at rising. This done, turn the globe westward, until the sun's place comes to the western side of the horizon, and it will cut the point of his amplitude at setting. Or, you may count the rising amplitude in degrees, from the east point of the horizon to that point where the sun's place cuts it; and the setting amplitude from the west point of the horizon to the sun's place at setting.

PROB. XXII. *The latitude, the sun's place, his altitude, being given; to find the hour of the day, and the sun's azimuth, or number of that he is distant from the meridian.*—Rectify the globe, and bring the sun's place to the height upon the quadrant of altitude; on the eastern side of the horizon, if the time be in the noon; or the western side, if it be in the noon: then the index will show the hour, and the number of degrees in the horizon, taken between the quadrant of altitude and the point, will be the sun's true azimuth at that time.

PROB. XXIII. *The latitude, hour of the day, the sun's place, being given; to find the sun's altitude and azimuth.*—Rectify the globe, and turn the index points to the given hour; then bring the quadrant of altitude over the sun's place on the ecliptic, and the degree of the quadrant cut the sun's place is his altitude at that time above the horizon; and the degree of the horizon cut the quadrant is the sun's azimuth, reckoned from the meridian.

PROB. XXIV. *The latitude, the sun's place, and his azimuth, being given; to find his place on the ecliptic, the day of the month, and how long he continues to do so.*—Rectify the globe for the latitude and zenith, and set the quadrant of altitude to the given azimuth in the horizon; keeping it there, turn the globe on its axis until the ecliptic cuts the quadrant in the altitude: that point of the ecliptic which cuts the quadrant there will be the sun's place; and the day of the month answering thereto will be the day over the like place of the sun on the wooden horizon. Keep the quadrant of altitude in the same position; and, having brought the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and the hour-index to XII at noon, turn back the globe, until the sun's place cuts the quadrant of altitude again, and the index will show the hour.

Any two points of the ecliptic, which are distant from the beginning of Cancer or of Aries, will have the same altitude and azimuth at the same hour, though the months be different; and therefore it requires some care in the use of the globe, not to mistake both the month and the day of the month; to avoid which, observe, that from the 21st of March to the 21st of June, that portion of the ecliptic which is between the beginning of Aries and beginning of Cancer is to be used; from the 21st of June to the 23d of September, be it the beginning of Cancer and beginning of Libra; from the 23d of September to the 21st of December, between the beginning of Libra and beginning of Capricorn; and from the 21st of December to the 20th of March, between the beginning of Capricorn and beginning of Aries. As one can never be at a loss to know in what quarter of the year he takes the sun's altitude and azimuth, the above caution with regard to the quarters of the ecliptic will keep him right in the month and day thereof.

PROB. XXV. *To find the length of the day at any given place.*—If the place be on the same side of the equator, find its latitude (by Prob. I) and elevate the north pole to that latitude; then bring the beginning of Cancer to the brazen meridian, and set the hour-index to XII at noon. But if the given place be on the S. side of



elevate the south pole to its latitude, and the beginning of Capricorn to the brazen meridian and the hour-index to XII. This done, turn the globe westward, until the beginning of Capricorn (as the latitude is N. or S.) be to the horizon; and the index will then show the time of sun-setting, for it will be over all the afternoon hours, between noon and sun-set; which length of time being doubled, will give the whole length of the day answering to sun-setting. For, in all latitudes the sun rises as long before mid day as he sets after it.

PROB. XXVI. *To find in what latitude the longitude, of any given length, less than 24 hours, is latitude be N.* bring the beginning of Capricorn to the brazen meridian, and elevate the south pole to about  $66\frac{1}{2}$  degrees; but if the latitude be S. bring the beginning of Capricorn to the brazen meridian, and elevate the south pole to about  $66\frac{1}{2}$  degrees; because the longest day in N. latitude, when the sun is in the first point of Cancer, is S. latitude, when he is in the first point of Capricorn. Then set the hour-index to noon, and turn the globe westward, until the index points at half the number of hours which is done, keep the globe from turning on its axis, and slide the meridian down in the globe, until the aforesaid point of the ecliptic (Cancer or Capricorn) comes to the horizon; the elevation of the pole will be equal to the latitude required.

PROB. XXVII. *The latitude of any place, not above  $66\frac{1}{2}$  degrees, being given; to find in what latitude the place is.*—Find the length of the day at the given place, (by Prob. XXV.) and divide it by the number of hours whereby it is twelve, double that number, and the result will give the climate in which the place is.

PROB. XXVIII. *The latitude, and the day of the year being given; to find the hour of the day, when the sun shines.*—Set the wooden horizon to the meridian, and the brazen meridian due N. and S. with a mariner's compass; then, having rectified the globe, stick a small sewing needle into the surface of the ecliptic, perpendicular to that of the surface of the globe; this done, turn the globe on its axis, until the needle comes to the brazen meridian, and set the hour-index to noon; then turn the globe on its axis, until the needle points exactly towards the sun; it will do when it casts no shadow on the globe, and the index will show the hour.

XXIV. DIRECTIONS for using the CELESTIAL GLOBE.

When we shall now proceed to the use of the celestial globe, premising, that as the equator, ecliptic, polar circles, horizon, and brazen meridian are exactly alike on both globes, all the problems concerning the sun are solved in the same way. The method also of rectifying the globe is the same. N. B. The sun's place for any day of the year stands directly over that day on the horizon of the celestial globe, as on the terrestrial.

LATITUDE and LONGITUDE of the stars, and all other celestial phenomena, are reckoned from that of places on the earth; for

all terrestrial latitudes are reckoned from the equator; and longitudes from the meridian of some remarkable place; but all astronomers reckon the latitudes of the heavenly bodies from the ecliptic; and their longitudes from the equinoctial colure, in that semicircle of it which cuts the ecliptic at the beginning of Aries; and thence eastward, quite round; so that stars between the equinoctial and the northern half of the ecliptic, have north declination and south latitude; those between the equinoctial and the southern half of the ecliptic have south declination and north latitude; and all between the tropics and poles, have declinations and latitudes of the same denomination.

There are six great circles on the celestial globe, which cut the ecliptic perpendicularly, and meet in two opposite points in the polar circles; which points are each ninety degrees from the ecliptic, and are called its poles. These polar points divide those circles into 12 semicircles; which cut the ecliptic at the beginning of the twelve signs. They resemble so many meridians on the terrestrial globe; and as all places which lie under any particular meridian-semicircle on that globe have the same longitude; so all those points of the heaven, through which any of the above semicircles are drawn, have the same longitude.—And as the greatest latitudes on the earth are at the north and south poles of the earth, so the greatest latitudes in the heaven are at the north and south poles of the ecliptic.

For the division of the stars into constellations, &c. see ASTRONOMY.

PROB. I. *To find the right ascension and declination of the sun, or any fixed star.*—Bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the brazen meridian; then that degree in the equinoctial which is cut by the meridian, is the sun's right ascension; and that degree of the meridian which is over the sun's place is his declination. Bring any fixed star to the meridian, and its right ascension will be cut by the meridian in the equinoctial; and the degree of the meridian that stands over it is its declination.

So that right ascension and declination, on the celestial globe, are found in the same manner as longitude and latitude on the terrestrial.

PROB. II. *To find the latitude and longitude of any star.*—If the given star be on the north side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant of altitude on the north pole of the ecliptic, where the 12 semicircles meet, which divide the ecliptic into the 12 signs; but if the star be on the S. side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant on the south pole of the ecliptic; keeping the 90th degree of the quadrant on the proper pole, turn the quadrant about, until its graduated edge cuts the star; then the number of degrees in the quadrant, between the ecliptic and the star, is its latitude; and the degree of the ecliptic cut by the quadrant, is the star's longitude, reckoned according to the sign in which the quadrant then is.

PROB. III. *To represent the face of the starry firmament, as seen from any given place of the earth, at any hour of the night.*—Rectify the celestial globe for the given latitude, the zenith, and sun's place in every respect, as taught by the XVth

on the globe is higher or lower than it  
ved to be in the heaven, turn the globe  
or forwards, keeping the edge of the  
upon the star, until its centre comes to  
ved altitude in the quadrant; and then  
will show the true time of the night.

PROB. IV. *The latitude of the place, and day of the month, being given; to find the time when any known star will rise, or be upon the meridian, or set.*—Having rectified the globe, turn it about until the given star comes to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's rising; then turn the globe westward, and when the star comes to the brazen meridian, the index will show the time of the star's coming to meridian of your place; lastly, turn on, until the star comes to the western side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's setting. *N. B.* In northern latitudes, those stars which are less distant from the north pole than the quantity of its elevation above the north point of the horizon never set; and those which are less distant from the south pole than the number of degrees by which it is depressed below the horizon never rise: and *vice versa* in southern latitudes.

PROB. V. *To find at what time of the year a given star will be upon the meridian at a given hour of the night.*—Bring the given star to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe, until the index points to XII at noon, and the upper semicircle of the meridian will then cut the sun's place, answering to the day of the year sought; which day may be easily found against the like place of the sun among the signs on the wooden horizon.

PROB. VI. *The latitude, day of the month, and azimuth of any known star being given; to find the hour of the night.*—Having rectified the globe for the latitude, zenith, and sun's place, lay the quadrant of altitude to the given degree of azimuth in the horizon; then turn the globe on its axis, until the star comes to the graduated edge of the quadrant; and when it does, the index will point out the hour of the night.

PROB. VII. *The latitude of the place, the day of the month, and altitude of any known star, being given; to find the hour of the night.*—Rectify the globe as in the former problem, guess at the hour of the night, and turn the globe until the index points at the supposed hour; then lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over the known star; and if the degree of the star's height in the quadrant upon the globe answers exactly to the degree of the star's observed altitude in the heaven, you have guessed exactly: but if the star

on the globe is higher or lower than it  
ved to be in the heaven, turn the globe  
or forwards, keeping the edge of the  
upon the star, until its centre comes to  
ved altitude in the quadrant; and then  
will show the true time of the night.

PROB. VIII. *An easy method for finding both their altitude and azimuth of any two known stars at any hour of the night by any two known stars, knowing either their altitude or azimuth, and thereby the true meridian.*—Tie one end to a common musket bullet; and having the globe as above, hold the other thread in your hand, and carry it slowly betwixt your eye and the starry heaven, until it cuts any two known stars at or guessing at the hour of the night, turn until the index points to that time circle; which done, lay the graduated the quadrant over any one of these stars on the globe which the thread cut in. If the said edge of the quadrant cuts the other star also, you have guessed the time exactly; if it does not, turn the globe slowly backwards, until the quadrant (kept upon the star) cuts them both through their centres; the index will point out the exact time of the degree of the horizon cut by the thread will be the true azimuth of both these stars; and the stars themselves will show their true altitudes in the quadrant: At present, if a common azimuth compass be set upon a floor or level pavement, that the shadow of the needle may have the same bearing upon the pavement as the shadow of the needle upon the wooden horizon, a thread extended over the north end of the compass will be directly in the true meridian; and if a line be drawn upon the pavement, along the course of the shadow, an upright wire be placed in the middle of the line, the shadow of the wire will show that line, when the sun is on the meridian upon the pavement.

PROB. IX. *To find the place of the planet in the ecliptic, for the given month; and according to its longitude, as shown by the ephemeris, mark with chalk upon the globe.* Then, having rectified the globe, turn it round its axis, until the planet comes to the eastern side of the horizon, to the brazen meridian, or western side of the horizon, the index will show at what time the planet rises, comes to meridian, and sets, in the same manner as for a fixed star.

For an explanation of the harvest of the globe, and the equation of time, see *ASTRONOMY, Index.*

SECT. XV. DESCRIPTION of the IMPROVEMENTS applied to GLOBES.

GLOBES mounted in the common way with their hour circles fixed on the globe, though instructive instruments for ex-

es of geography and the spherical doctrine, yet have several defects; want any elevation of the north and south to their axes, or the brass meridian quite moveable round in the horizon; do not show how all the phenomena they arise from the motion of the earth; are not adapted to the present age; cannot serve accurately the purposes of astronomy and history, which they might be if the poles whereon they turn were not move in a circle round those of the earth according to its present obliquity.

Mr John Senex, F. R. S. invented a method for remedying these defects, by fixing the axis of the diurnal motion to two shoulders of brass, at the distance of  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees of the ecliptic. These shoulders are fastened at the other end to an iron ring, which passes through the poles of the ecliptic, and made to move round with a very stiff spring, that when it is adjusted to any point of the ecliptic which the equator is made to intersect, the motion of the globe on its axis is thereby altered. When it is to be adjusted for the past or future, one of the brazen circles is brought under the meridian, and held fast with one hand, whilst the globe is turned round the other, so that the point of the ecliptic which the equator is to intersect, may pass under the degree of the brazen meridian; then the globe is turned to that point, and turning the globe, it will describe the equator according to the declination at the time required; and transferred to  $23\frac{1}{2}$  and  $66\frac{1}{2}$  degrees on the ecliptic, the tropics and polar circles will be described for the same time. By this contrivance the celestial globe may be so adjusted, as to represent not only the rising and setting of the stars and in all latitudes, but likewise all the phenomena that depend upon the motion of the diurnal axis round the annual axis. Several globes, especially the two great globes of 28 inches in diameter, have been contrived upon this principle; so that by means of a screw, the pole of the equator is made to revolve about the pole of the ecliptic. See *Phil. Trans.* N<sup>o</sup> 447. p. 201, 203. or *Martyn's Abr.* Vol. VIII. p. 217. and N<sup>o</sup> 493. art. 18. in *Phil. Trans.* Vol. XLVI. p. 290.

To represent the above phenomena in the most easy manner, the late Mr B. Martin invented a method, by which Mr Senex's contrivance a moveable equator and solstitial colure, a moveable ecliptic, and a moveable ecliptic; all so contrived as to represent those imaginary circles of the heavens for any age of the world. Mr Harris, late essay-master of the mint, to remedy the former of the defects mentioned, by placing two horary circles round the meridian, one at each pole; these circles are fixed tight between two brass rollers placed parallel to the axis, so that when the globe is turned round, they revolve round with it, the meridian being fixed to cut the horary divisions. The globe in this state serves universally and readily to solve all the problems in N. and S. latitudes, and

also in places near the equator; whereas in the common construction, the axis and horary circle prevent the brass meridian from being moveable quite round in the horizon. This globe is also adapted for showing how the vicissitudes of day and night, and the alteration of their lengths, are really occasioned by the motion of the earth: for this purpose, he divided the brass meridian at one of the poles into months and days, according to the sun's declination, reckoning from the pole. Therefore, by bringing the day of the month to the horizon, and rectifying the globe according to the time of the day, the horizon will represent the circle separating light and darkness; and the upper half of the globe, the illuminated hemisphere, the sun being in the zenith. *Phil. Trans.* N<sup>o</sup> 456. p. 321. or *Martyn's Abr.* Vol. VIII. p. 352.

The late Mr George Adam, mathematical instrument-maker, made some additional improvements in the construction of the globes. His globes, like others, are suspended at their poles in a strong brass circle NZÆS (See *Plate CLXIII.* fig. 3, representing the celestial,) and turn therein upon two iron pins, which form the axis. They have each a thin brass semicircle NHI moveable about these poles, with a small, thin, sliding circle II thereon; which semicircle is divided into two quadrants of 90 degrees each, from the equator to both the poles. On the terrestrial globe this semicircle is a moveable meridian, and its small sliding circle, which is divided into a few points of the compass, is the visible horizon of any particular place to which it is set. On the celestial globe this semicircle is a moveable circle of declination, and its small annexed circle an artificial sun or planet. Each globe has a brass wire TWY placed at the limits of the crepusculum or twilight; which, together with the globe, is mounted in a wooden frame, supported by a neat pillar and claw feet, with a magnetic needle in a compass-box, marked M in the figure. On the strong brass circle of the terrestrial globe, and about  $23\frac{1}{2}$  degrees on each side of the north pole, the days of each month are laid down according to the sun's declination; and this brass circle is so contrived, that the globe may be placed with the north and south poles in the plane of the horizon, and with the south pole elevated above it. The equator on the surface of either globe serves the purpose of the horary circle, by means of a semicircular wire placed in the plane of the equator, ÆEF, carrying two indices, F; one on the east, the other on the west side of the strong brass circle; one of which is occasionally to be used to point out the time upon the equator. In these globes, therefore, the indices being set to the particular time on the equator, the globes are turned round, and the indices point out the time by remaining fixed; whereas in the globes as generally mounted, the indices move over the horary circles while the globe is moving, and thus point out the change of time. For farther particulars of these globes, and the method of using them, *Mr Adam's Treatise on their Construction and Use,* &c. 1772, may be consulted.

The additions and alterations above mentioned, made by Mr Adam, may save trouble to a practitioner.

tioner in the performance of a few complex problems, and render the globes more elegant and costly; but to a young beginner, the more simple the construction of the globes, the better will they be adapted to initiate him into the *rational* and practice of the problems in general; and as such, the globes, as improved by the late Mr B. Martin and Mr Wright, described below, appear to have considerably the advantage in simplicity, and to obviate several material defects that attend the construction of the other globes. The chief of the defects in the old globes is, that the horary circle being screwed on the meridian at the north pole, prevents the elevation of the south pole; which is necessary for the performance of problems for all latitudes. In Mr Adam's, the semicircular wire ZEF preventing the equator being placed exactly in the horizon, or the poles in the zenith, the great distance of the strong brass circle NZÆS from the surface of the globe, on account of the brass semicircles, renders the solution of problems, which require the use of the strong circle, not very easy nor accurate.

An easy and expeditious method of elevating the south pole of the terrestrial globe, and by which means the new discoveries, tracks, &c. made of late years by Captain Cook and other eminent navigators in the south seas, may be clearly seen and traced by the eye over all the southern ocean, was made use of by Mr B. Martin in the construction of the following improvement.

There is a groove turned out on the back part of the brass meridian A, *fig. 1. Plate CLXIII*; and by unscrewing the nut of the hour circle D at the north pole, the circle is made to slide away to any other part of the meridian, as at G. The meridian is fixed or moveable at pleasure by a screw passing into the groove, through the piece or side of the notch in which it moves, on the bottom or nadir point: by properly loosening this screw, the meridian is free to move, and the globe with it, into any required position; but at the same time, it is confined within the notch of the brass piece, and thereby the globe is prevented from falling out of the frame in any position thereof whatsoever. The hour-circle being removed, both the north and south poles of the globe may be placed in the horizon, and thereby form a right sphere, which the usual mounting of the globes does not admit of.

By this construction also, the south pole may be elevated for all latitudes: for this purpose there is an hour-circle about the south pole between the meridian and the globe, which does not obstruct the sight of any land, none having been thereabouts discovered. Consequently the globe is thus equally useful for the solution of all common geographical problems in the southern as in the northern hemisphere, and more extensively so than heretofore.

In this method of mounting the globe, it may readily be converted into a TELLURIAN; for as the globe cannot fall out of the frame, the horizon of it may be placed in a perpendicular position: then the sun's place in the ecliptic being brought to the meridian, and its declination, the pole of the globe must be elevated to its declination; which may be done by means

of the degrees cut on the outer edge of the meridian for that purpose. If a lighted candle be placed at a considerable distance, and the height of the centre of the globe, as well as the meridian, the globe will exhibit the phenomena of our earth for that day; and if the horizon of the globe be conformed to the horizon, and divides the whole into light and dark hemispheres; therefore, in revolving the globe about its axis from West to East, it clearly appears that all places emerging from the dark hemisphere into the luminous hemisphere, will then be rising; when they arrive at the meridian it will be their noon; and when they come to the dark hemisphere at the eastern horizon, they will see the sun as setting.

When any place is under the meridian, the hour index to XII, and revolve the globe, it will the natural motion and position of the sun be seen when at all hours of the day the sun rises or sets to it; the length of the day and nocturnal arches, or of day and night, and what places the sun does not rise and set to; and whence the vicissitudes of day and night throughout the year in all latitudes, &c. should give this experiment the best effect, it should be enclosed within a dark lacquer, and its light issue through a hole or lens in the same purpose.

On the outer part of the sliding hour-circle, the north pole, are usually engraved the hours of the compass; so that by bringing the hour-circle centrally over any place on the globe, the hour may be seen by inspection only upon what part of the compass any other place bears from it, all over the globe.

This method of the sliding hour-circle is applicable to the celestial globe. Mr Martin of London has yet farther simplified the construction of the hour-circles, and it is the least operose than Mr Martin's above. It consists of the following particulars: The hour-circles are engraved on the globes two hour-circles at each of the poles; which are divided into a double set of 12 hours, as usual in terrestrial globes, except that the hours are engraved round both to the right and left: See *Plate CLXIII*. The hour hand or index, is in such a manner under the brass meridian, that it may be moveable at pleasure to any required position, and yet remain there during the revolution of the globe on its axis, and is entirely independent of the poles of the globe. In this manner by the motion of the globe about its axis, carrying the hour-circle, the hour-circle serves to point out the time, the same may be done in the reverse way by Mr Martin's or other method.

There is an advantage by having the hour-circle figured both ways, as one hour-circle serves for XII for the other, and the same may be used for rising and setting, and *vice versa*, and may be seen at the same time on the hour-circle. The problems generally to be performed, on the globe, the circle is the circle of reckoning, and the hour-circle is only the complement. *Fig. 5.* is a representation of the globe, with Mr Wright's hour-circle at C.





*An Analemma, Showing the time of Sun rising & Sun setting, the length  
 of Nights, & the point of the Compass on which the Sun rises & sets, for every Degree  
 for every Degree of the Sun's North and South declination.*



William Jones, mathematical instrument maker, who mounts globes according to the improvements above mentioned of Messrs Wright and Smeaton, applies a compass of a portable form to the east part of the wooden horizon of portable globes (see F, fig. 1.), by a dove-tail joint to the lid of the compass-box; which method is more convenient and ready in the case of problems, than when fixed under a frame at their feet; and as it occasions no removal away from the globes, the compass is useful in other situations.

To perform the problems which relate to the altitudes and azimuths of celestial objects, Mr. Smeaton has made the following instrument applicable to the celestial globe. It consists of a thin flexible slip of brass, which accompanies the globes, called the *quadrant*. Mr. Smeaton substitutes an arch of a circle of the same radius, breadth and substance, as the meridian, divided into degrees, &c. and the divisions of that circle, and which, from its strength, is not liable to be bent out of its plane of a vertical circle, as is usual with the quadrant put to globes. That end of the arch which is the horizon, being filed off square to fit and lay on it throughout its whole breadth; the other end of the arch is firmly attached, by an arm, to a vertical socket, in such a position that when the lower end of the arch is on the horizon, the lower end of this socket is at the upper edge of the brass meridian, directly under the zenith of the globe. This socket is supported and ground with a steel spindle of the same diameter, so that it will turn freely on it without friction; and the steel spindle has an apparatus at its lower end, by which it can be kept in a vertical position to the brass meridian, its centre directly over the zenith point of the globe. The spindle being fixed firmly in the base, and the socket which is attached to the arch put on to it, and so adjusted that the lower end of the arch just rests on and fits the horizon; it is evident that the altitude of any object above the horizon will be the degree which it intersects on this arch, and its azimuth by that end of the arch which is on the horizon.

Mr. Smeaton also directs to place the index usually fixed on one end of the axis of the globe, in such a manner that its upper edge may move in the plane of the horizon rather than above it, as it usually does. He directs to fix the end of this index to a circular arch, of the same radius with the inner edge of the hour circle, which it is to fit very exactly; and a line drawn on its upper surface to determine the hour, instead of the tapering point which is usually used. By these means half minutes are distinguished, if the hour circle be 4 inches in diameter. Mr. Smeaton also describes a method for preventing the meridian from shifting, when the operator is engaged in adjusting the globe, while the operator is engaged in adjusting the globe. But as the method which this is intended to answer appears to be better performed, by the turned groove

on the meridian in Mr. Martin's contrivance described above, we shall omit the particular description; and for farther explanations and figures of Mr. Smeaton's improvements, refer the reader to the *Phil. Trans.* Vol. LXXIX, Part 1.

Mr. FERGUSON made another improvement on the celestial globe. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.

Most of the above problems may also be performed by accurate maps; but this requires a great deal of calculation, which is often very troublesome. The ANALEMMA, or Orthographic Projection, delineated on Plate CLXIV. will solve many of the most curious; and with the assistance of the maps will be almost equivalent to a terrestrial globe. The parallel lines drawn on this figure represent the degrees of the sun's declination from the equator, whether N. or S. amounting to 23½ nearly. On these lines are marked the months and days which correspond to such and such declinations. The size of the figure does not admit of having every day of the year inserted; but by making allowance for the intermediate days, in proportion to the rest, the declination may be guessed at with tolerable exactness. The elliptical lines are designed to show the hours of sun-rising or sun-setting, before or after six o'clock. As 60 minutes make an hour of time, a fourth part of the space between each of the hour lines will represent 15 minutes; which the eye can readily guess at, and which is as great exactness as can be expected from any mechanical invention, or as is necessary to answer any common purpose. The circles drawn round the centre at the distance of 11½ each, show the point of the compass on which the sun rises and sets, and on what point the twilight begins and ends. To make use of this analemma, it is only necessary to consider, that when the latitude of the place and the sun's declination are both north or both south, the sun rises before six o'clock, between the east and the elevated pole; that is, towards the north, if the latitude and declination are north; or towards the south, if the latitude and declination are south. Let us now suppose it is required to find the time of the sun's rising and setting, the length of the days and nights, the time when the twilight begins and ends, and what point of the horizon the sun rises and sets on, for the Lizard point in England, Franckfort in Germany, or Abbeville in France, on the 30th of April. The latitude of these places by the maps will be found nearly 50° north. Place the moveable index so that its point may touch 50° on the quadrant of north latitude in the figure; then observe where its edge cuts the parallel line on which April 30th is wrote. From this reckon the hour-lines towards the centre, and you will find that the parallel line is cut by the index nearly at the distance of one hour and 15 minutes. So the sun rises at one hour 15 minutes before six, or 45 minutes after four in the morning, and sets 15 minutes after seven in the evening. The length of the day is 14 hours 30 minutes. Observe how far the intersections of the edge of the index with the parallel of April 30th is distant from any of the concentric circles; which you will find to be a little beyond that marked two points of the compass; and this shows, that on the 30th of April the sun rises two points and

G E O G R A P H Y. S E

ro the east towards the north,  
no ward of ENE. and sets a  
d of WNW. To find the  
; and e of twilight, take from the  
ed arch C. circle  $17\frac{1}{2}$  degrees with a  
compasses, move one foot of the compas-  
Add to this distance along the parallel for  
April, t l the other just touches the  
index, which must still point at 50.  
ere the other foot rests on the paral-  
l 30th, then denotes the number of  
re fix at which the twilight begins.

This is somewhat more than three hou-  
half; which shows, that the twilight t-  
soon after two in the morning, and lik-  
it begins to appear near five points fro-  
towards the north. The uses of this  
may be varied in a great number of  
the example just now given will be fu-  
the ingenious reader.—The small circ-  
same plate, marked *Island, Promontor*  
added, to render the maps more inte-  
shewing how the different subjects are  
delineated on them.

G E O

G E O

GEOLOGICAL, *adj.* belonging to GEOLOGY.  
(1.) \* GEOLOGY, *n. f.* [ $\gamma\eta$  and  $\lambda\alpha\gamma\theta$ .] The  
doctrine of the earth; the knowledge of the state  
and nature of the earth.

(2.) GEOLOGY, [from  $\gamma\eta$ , earth, and  $\lambda\alpha\gamma\theta$ , dis-  
course,] properly signifies a discourse upon the  
earth; but is generally used for a discourse on the  
origin or theory of the earth. See TERRAQUE-  
OUS GLOBE. M. Chaptal, in his *Elem. of Chem.*  
vol. 2. introduces his III<sup>d</sup> Part, “concerning Me-  
tallie Substances,” with “General Views respec-  
ting the decompositions and changes to which the  
stony part of our Globe has been subjected,” un-  
der the title of “GEOLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.”  
From these we shall here give a short extract:  
“The slightest observation (says he) shews us,  
that living beings are kept up and perpetuated  
only by successive decompositions and combina-  
tions. A slight view of the mineral kingdom ex-  
hibits the same changes; and our globe, in all its  
productions, presents continual modifications, and  
a circle of *activity*, which might appear incom-  
patible with the apparent *inertia* of lithologic pro-  
ducts. In order to arrange our ideas with greater  
regularity, we will consider this globe in two dif-  
ferent states. We will first examine the primitive  
rock which forms the central part. This appears  
to contain no germ of life, includes no remains or  
part of any living being, and from every circum-  
stance appears to have been of primitive forma-  
tion, anterior to the creation of animated or ve-  
getating bodies. We shall pursue the various  
changes, which are daily produced by the des-  
tructive action of such agents as alter or modify  
this substance. We shall then proceed to examine  
what stones have been successively placed upon  
this, and what are the decompositions to which  
these secondary rocks have been subjected. The  
observations of naturalists all unite to prove, that  
the central part of the globe consists of the stone  
known by the name of GRANITE. The profound  
excavations, which the art of man or currents of  
water, have made in the surface of our planet,  
have all uncovered this rock, and have been in-  
capable of penetrating lower. We may therefore  
consider this substance as the nucleus of the globe;  
upon this substance it is that all matters of  
ior formation rest. Granite exhibits many  
• in its form, composition, and disposition:  
• a general consists of an assemblage of cer-

tain siliceous stones; such as quartz, f-  
spar, mica, &c. and the more or less ex-  
magnitude of these elements of granite,  
it to be divided into coarse-grained g-  
fine grained granite. It appears to me  
rocks owe their arrangement to water;  
may be permitted to recur to that  
which, according to sacred and profane  
the water and earth were confounded  
confused mixture of all principles form-  
we shall see that the laws of gravity in  
matter must have carried it down, and  
produced the arrangement which obs-  
present exhibits to us. The water, a  
heavy, must have purified itself, and ar-  
surface by a filtration through the other  
while the earthy principles must have pr-  
and formed a mud, in which all the e-  
stones were confounded. In this very  
der of things, the general law of affinity  
continually tends to bring together all  
parts, must have exerted itself upon the  
of this almost fluid pate; and the result  
been a number of bodies of a more def-  
in crystals more or less regular: and  
muddy substance, in which the princij-  
stones were confounded, that compose t  
a rock must have been produced, cont-  
elementary stones all in their distinct  
characters. In this manner we obser-  
very different kinds develope themselves:  
which hold them in solution, and crys-  
and gypsum formed in clays which co-  
component parts. It may easily be  
that the laws of gravitation must have  
the arrangement and disposition of the  
The most gross heavy bodies must have  
the lightest and most attenuated subst-  
have arranged themselves on the surfac-  
constitutes the primitive schisti, the  
rocks of mica, &c. which commonly re-  
granite. The disposition of the fine-gr-  
nite in strata or beds, appears to depen-  
position, and the fineness or tenuity of  
Being placed in immediate contact with  
fluid must naturally have influenced the  
ment which it presents to us; and the  
this rock, being subjected to the effect  
and the action of currents, must have for  
The rocks of granite being once establi-



our globe, we may, from the analysis of its constituent principles, and by attending to the various agents capable of altering the degradations to which it has been subjected, step by step. Water is the principal agent which we shall examine. This fluid, in the ocean, is carried by the winds to the most elevated mountains, where it is precipitated in rain, and forms torrents, which by their various degrees of rapidity into the reservoir. This uninterrupted motion must gradually attenuate and wear away the rocks, and carry their pulverulent particles more or less considerable. The air, and the varying temperatures of the atmosphere, facilitate the attenuation and decomposition of these rocks. Heat dries their surface, renders it more accessible and more penetrable to the air which succeeds; cold divides them, by the expansion of the water which has entered into their texture; and the carbonic acid, which is formed in the air, and causes it to effloresce; the action of the iron and calcines it; in some cases the concurrence of causes favours the decomposition; and consequently the action of the water, which carries away the products of decomposition, and makes previous a succeeding process of the same nature. The first effect of the rain is therefore to be the mountains. But the stones which they must resist in proportion to their height, and we observe peaks, which have resisted the destructive action of time, and still remain above the primitive level of the mountains which have appeared. The primitive rocks, alike in the injury of ages, as to the animals which cover less elevated mountains with their remains, may be considered as the origin of the streams. The water, which falls on the mountains, flows down in torrents by their sides. In its course, it wears away the rocks which it incessantly acts. It hollows out, of a depth proportioned to the rapidity of its course, the quantity of its waters, and the nature of the rock over which it flows: at the same time that it carries along with it fragments of stones as it loosens in its course. The rocks, led along by the water, strike together, and break off their projecting angles; a process which quickly has afforded those rounded pebbles which form the pebbles of rivers. These are diminished in size in proportion to their distance from the mountain which affords them; and to this cause that Mr Dorthes has referred the proportionate magnitude of the pebbles, in our ancient worn stones, when compared with those of modern date: For the sea itself formerly much more inland, in the case of the Rhone, the stones which it received from the rivers, and threw back again upon the banks, had not run through so long a space of time as those which they at present pass by us the remains of the Alps, carried along by the Rhone, have successively covered the banks, and comprised between the mountains of Vivarais; and are carried into our rivers, and deposited them in small pebbles on the banks. The pulverulent remains of mountains, (or

the powder which results from the rounding of these flints,) are carried along with greater facility than the flints themselves: They float long in the water whose transparency they impair; and when these waters are less agitated, they are deposited in a fine and light paste, forming beds more or less thick, and of the same nature as that of the rocks to which they owe their origin. These strata gradually became drier, by the agglutination of their principles; they become consistent, acquire hardness, and form siliceous clay, silex, petrosilex, and all the numerous class of pebbles, which are found dispersed in strata, or in banks, in the ancient beds of rivers. Mr Pallas has observed the transition of clay to the state of silex, in the brook of Sunghir near Wolodimir. Mr J. W. Baumer has likewise observed it in Upper Hesse. The mud is much more frequently deposited in the interstices between the rounded flints themselves, which it fills, and there forms a true cement that becomes hard, and constitutes the compound stones known by the names of PUDDING-STONES, and GRIT-STONES: for these two kinds do not appear to differ, but in the coarseness of the grain which forms them, and the cement which connects them. We sometimes observe the granite spontaneously decomposed. The texture of the stones which form it has been destroyed; the component parts are disunited, and gradually carried away by the waters. I have observed near Mende, towards Castelnouvel, the most beautiful kaolin on the surface of a granite, in a state of decomposition; and this same rock is decomposed in several other parts of our province. It appeared that the felspar was particularly subject to be altered first. Most siliceous stones, formed by the decomposition of fluviatile waters, and hardened by the lapse of time are easily subjected to a second decomposition. Iron is the principal agent in these secondary alterations; and its calcination, determined by air or water, produces a disunion of principles. Nature may be observed in this process by an attentive examination of such alterations as gun flints, variolites, porphyries, jaspers, and the like are subjected to. The decomposition of flints, calcedonies, agates, and generally all stones of this kind, which possess a certain degree of transparency, appears to me to be referable to the volatilization of the water, which forms one of their principles, and is the cause of their transparency. These stones may be considered as commencements of CRYSTALLIZATION; and when the water is dissipated, they effloresce after the manner of certain neutral salts. Hence it arises, that the decomposition is announced by opacity, a white colour, loss of consistence and hardness; and terminates by forming a very attenuated powder, sometimes of extreme whiteness. It is this decomposition particularly, which forms clays. There are flints, whose alterations form effervescent marles. These do not appear to be of the nature of primitive rocks: They have the same origin as the calcareous stones, from which they differ only in consequence of a very considerable proportion of clay. The stones which we so abundantly find around us, among calcareous decompositions, may be considered as of this kind. Water, filtering through mountains of primitive

rock, frequently carries along with it very minutely divided particles of quartz, and proceeds to form, by deposition, stalactites, agates, rock crystal, &c. These quartzose stalactites, differently coloured, are of a formation considerably analogous to that of calcareous alabasters; and we perceive no other difference between them, than that of their constituent parts." M. Chaptal next proceeds to consider the decompositions and changes which appear to be produced by the class of living or organized beings on our globe; such as "the remains of shell animals, of marine and terrestrial vegetables;" &c. for which, as room permits us not to quote the whole of his Geological Observations, we must refer the reader to his work.

\* **GEOMANCER.** *n. f.* [*γην* and *μαντις*.] A fortuneteller; a caster of figures; a cheat who pretends to foretell futurity by other means than the astrologer.—Fortunetellers, jugglers, *geomancers*, and the incantatory impostors, though commonly men of inferior rank, daily delude the vulgar. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

(1.) \* **GEOMANCY.** *n. f.* [*γην* and *μαντις*; *geomance*, French.] The act of casting figures; the act of foretelling by figures what shall happen.—According to some there are four kinds of divination; hydromancy, pyromancy, aeromancy, and *geomancy*. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) **GEOMANCY,** } is performed by means of a  
**GEOMANTIA,** } number little points, or dots, made on paper at random: and by forming from the various lines and figures which those points present, a pretended judgment of futurity, upon any question proposed. The word is derived from the Greek *γην*, earth, and *μαντις*, divination; it being the ancient custom to cast little pebbles on the earth, and thence to form their conjectures, instead of the points afterwards made use of. Polydore Virgil defines *geomancy* a kind of divination performed by means of clefts or chinks made in the ground; and supposes the Persian Magi to have been the inventors of it.

\* **GEOMANTICK.** *adj.* [from *geomancy*.] Pertaining to the act of casting figures.—

Two *geomantick* figures were display'd }  
 Above his head, a warrior and a maid, }  
 One when direct; and one when retrograde. }  
*Dryden.*

\* **GEOMETER.** *n. f.* [*γεωμετρος*; *geometre*, Fr.] One skilled in geometry; a geometrician.—He became one of the chief *geometers* of his age. *Watts.*

\* **GEOMETRAL.** *adj.* [*geometral*, Fr. from *geometre*.] Pertaining to geometry. *Dict.*

\* **GEOMETRICAL.** **GEOMETRICK.** *adj.* [*γεωμετρικος*; *geometrique*, French; from *geometry*.]

1. Pertaining to geometry.—A *geometrical* scheme is let in by the eyes, but the demonstration is discerned by reason. *Mere against Atheism.*—This mathematical discipline, by the help of *geometrical* principles, doth teach to contrive several powers. *Wilkins.* 2. Prescribed or laid down by geometry.—Must men take measure of God just by the same *geometrical* proportions that he did, that gather'd the height and bigness of Hercules by his foot? *Stillingfleet.*—

Does not this wise philosopher assert,  
 That the vast orb, which casts so fair his beams,

Is such, or not much bigger than  
 That the dimensions of his glorious

Two *geometrick* feet do scarce surpass  
 3. Disposed according to geometry,  
 Jasper seemeth of affinity with the *lapis*  
 described by Boetius; but it is certain  
 of *lapis cruciformis*. *Grew's Medusæ.*

(2.) **GEOMETRICAL CONSTRUCTION**  
**CONSTRUCTION OF EQUATIONS.** See **ALGEBRA**  
**CONSTRUCTION,** § 1, *def.* 7.

(3.) **GEOMETRICAL CURVES.** See **ALGEBRA**  
*Chap.* II. § 5, 7.

(4.) **GEOMETRICAL LINE.** See **ALGEBRA**

(5.) **GEOMETRICAL METHOD.**

established the higher parts of their  
 on the same principles as the elements  
 science, by demonstrations of the same  
 they did not suppose any thing done,  
 vious problem, they had shewn that  
 actually done by performing it. &  
 they suppose any thing done *that cannot*  
*be done*; such as a line or series to be a  
 need to infinity, or a magnitude to be  
 till it become infinitely less than what  
 elements into which they resolved  
 were finite, and such as might be con-  
 sidered. Unbounded liberties have of-  
 ten been introduced; by which geometry,  
 which should be perfectly clear, is filled with  
*oxymorons*. *Int.* p. 39.

(6.) **GEOMETRICAL FACE,** a measure

(7.) **GEOMETRICAL PROGRESSION**  
 sion in which the terms have all the  
 same ratio; as, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, &c. the  
 common ratio is 2.

(8.) **GEOMETRICAL PROPORTION**  
 tude or equality of ratio; called **ALGEBRA**  
**PROPORTION.**

(9.) **GEOMETRICAL SERIES.** See **ALGEBRA**  
*Chap.* VII. § II.

(10.) **GEOMETRICAL SOLUTION** i  
 blem is resolved according to the  
 geometry, and by lines truly geom-  
 etrical, is used in contradistinction  
 metrical, instrumental, or mechanical.

\* **GEOMETRICALLY.** *adv.* [*geometricaliter*.]  
 According to the laws of geom-  
 etry, or *geometrically* to contrive the  
 motion as shall be of greater swiftness

volutions of the heavens. *Wilkins's*.  
 All the bones, muscles, and vessels  
 are contrived most *geometrically*, ac-  
 cording to the strictest rules of mechanicks. *Ray on*

\* **GEOMETRICIAN.** *n. f.* [*γεωμετρικος*.]  
 skilled in geometry; a geometer.—A

be a certain truth, *geometricians* want  
 satisfaction without demonstration th-  
 —How easily does an expert geom-  
 one glance of his eye take in a complica-  
 made up of many lines and circles!

**GEOMETRICUS LOCUS.** See **ALGEBRA**

\* **To GEOMETRIZE.** *v. a.* [*γεωμετροω*.]  
 according to the laws of geometry.—  
 good store of crystals, whose figur-  
 ing enough, though prettily shaped,  
 had at once affected variety in their  
 and yet confined herself to *geometri-*

## DEFINITIONS of the SCIENCE.

**METRY** is defined by Dr Johnson as follows:

**GEOMETRY**. *n. f.* [*γωμετρία*; *geometrie*, Fr.] signifies the art of measuring the earth, distances or dimensions on or within it: now used for the science of quantity, extent or magnitude, abstractedly considered, in regard to matter.—*Geometry* is usual-ly divided into speculative and practical; the former contemplates and treats of the properties of continued quantity abstractedly; and the latter applies these speculations and theories to use and practice. *Harris*.—In the music there seems to be more *geometry* than in the artificial engines in the world. *Ray*.—I think also for my censor I disdain, I think all science, as all virtue, vain; I count *geometry* and numbers toys, I with his foot the sacred dust destroys.

*Dryden's Persif.*  
The word **GEOMETRY** literally signifies *measuring the earth*, as it was the necessity of measuring land that first gave occasion to study the rules and rules of this science, which has since extended to numberless other speculations. It is the science of inquiring, inventing, constructing, all the affections of magnitude: it files it the knowledge of magnitudes and their limitations; as also of their ratios, positions and motions of every kind. The word, *geometry*, together with arithmetic forms the chief foundation of all the mathematics.

## HISTORY of GEOMETRY.

The invention of geometry is generally ascribed to the EGYPTIANS. Herodotus, Diodorus, Strabo, Proclus, all agree that the annual inundation of the Nile gave rise to it, by carrying away the sand marks and boundaries of estates and covering the surface of the ground, which effaced every trace of their former. Hence the Egyptians were obliged to distinguish and lay out their lands in consideration of their figure and quantity, and every person might have his own property: by repeated experience and practice, in measuring of lands, the Greeks at length discovered the science of *Geometry*. By farther consideration on the draughts of figures, their wonderful properties were more and more discovered, and continually gained ground and improved, till the discoveries of succeeding mathematicians appear to be the most probable origin of it; though Josephus seems to ascribe the invention to the Hebrews; while others of the ancients ascribe it to Mercury the inventor. *Polyd. Virg. de re. l. i. c. 18.*

It is said to have introduced this science into Greece; where it was greatly improved and improved by himself, as well as by THALES, ANAXAGORAS of Clazomene, HIPPOCRATES of Chios, and PLATO; who testified

his conviction of the necessity and importance of *Geometry* to the successful study of Philosophy, by inscribing over the door of his Academy, *Let no one ignorant of GEOMETRY enter here*. Plato thought the word *Geometry* too mean a name for this science; and substituted instead of it the more extensive name of MENSURATION; and after him others gave it the title of PANTOMETRY. But even these are now become too confined in their import, fully to comprehend its extent; for it not only inquires into, and demonstrates the quantities of magnitudes, but also their qualities, as the species, figures, ratios, positions, transformations, descriptions, divisions, the finding of their centres, diameters, tangents, asymptotes, curvatures, &c.

About 50 years after PLATO, EUCLID collected together all those theorems, which had been invented by his predecessors in Egypt and Greece, and digested them into 13 books, entitled *The Elements of Geometry*: demonstrating and arranging the whole in a very accurate and perfect manner.

The next to Euclid, of those ancient authors whose works are extant, is APOLLONIUS PERGÆUS, who flourished in the reign of Ptolemy Euergetes, about A. A. C. 230, and 100 years after Euclid. He was author of the first and principal work on Conic Sections; on account of which, and his other accurate and ingenious geometrical works, he acquired from his patron the emphatical appellation of the *Great Geometrician*.

Contemporary with Apollonius, or perhaps a few years before him, flourished ARCHIMEDES, celebrated for his extraordinary mechanical inventions during the siege of Syracuse, and no less so for his many ingenious geometrical compositions.

EUDOXUS of Cnidus, Archytas of Tarentum, Philolaus, Bratosthenes, Aristarchus of Samos, Dinostratus, the inventor of the quadratrix, Menechmus his brother, and the disciple of Plato, the two Aristarchuses, Conon, Thracidius, Nicoteles, Leon, Theudius, Hermetimus, Hero, and Nicomedes, the inventor of the conchoid; besides many other ancient geometricians, have contributed to the improvement of geometry.

The Greeks continued their attention to it, even after they were subdued by the Romans; whereas the Romans themselves were so little acquainted with it, even in the most flourishing time of their republic, that Tacitus informs us they gave the name of mathematicians to those who pursued the chimeras of divination and judicial astrology. Nor does it appear they were disposed to cultivate geometry during the decline, and after the fall of the Roman empire. But the case was different with the Greeks; among whom are found many excellent geometricians since the commencement of the Christian era, and after the translation of the Roman empire. Ptolemy lived under Marcus Aurelius; and we have still extant the works of Pappus of Alexandria, who lived in the time of Theodosius; the commentary of Eutocius, the Ascalonite, who lived about A. D. 540, on Archimedes's mensuration of the circle; and the commentary on Euclid, by Proclus, who lived under the empire of Anastasius.

The consequent inundation of ignorance and barbarism was unfavourable to geometry, as well

as to the other sciences; and the few who applied themselves to this science, were calumniated as magicians. However, in those times of European darkness, the Arabians were distinguished as the guardians and promoters of science; and from the 9th to the 14th century, they produced many astronomers, geometricians, geographers, &c.; from whom the mathematical sciences were again received into Spain, Italy, and the rest of Europe, somewhat before the year 1400.

Some of the earliest writers after this period, are Leonardus Pisanus, Lucas Pacciolus or De Burgo, and others between 1400 and 1500. And after this appeared many editions of Euclid, or commentaries upon him: thus, Orontius Finæus, in 1520, published a commentary on the first 6 books; as did James Peletarius, in 1556; and about the same time Nicholas Tartaglia published a commentary on the whole 13 books. There have been also the editions, or commentaries, of Commandine, Clavius, Billingsly, Scheubelius, Herlinus, Dasydopodius, Ramus, Herigon, Stevinus, Saville, Barrow, Tacquet, Dechales, Fournier, Scarborough, Keill, Stone, and many others; but the completest edition of all the works of Euclid, is that of Dr Gregory, printed at Oxford in 1703, in Greek and Latin. The edition of Euclid, by Dr Robert Simson of Glasgow, containing the first 6 books, with the 11th and 12th, is much esteemed for its correctness.

The principal other elementary writers, besides the editors of Euclid, are Pardies, Marchetti, Wolfius, Simpson, &c. And among those who have gone beyond Euclid in the nature of the elementary parts of geometry, may be chiefly reckoned, Apollonius, in his Conics, his Loci Plani, De Sectione Determinata, his Tangencies, Inclinations, Section of a Ratio, Section of a Space, &c.; Archimedes, in his treatises of the Sphere and Cylinder, the Dimension of the circle, of Conoids and Spheroids, or Spirals, and the quadrature of the Parabola: Theodosius, in his Spherics, Serenius, in his Sections of the Cone and Cylinder; Kepler's Nova Stereometria; Cavalierius's Geometria Indivisibilium; Torricelli's Opera Geometrica; Viviani in his Divinationes Geometricæ, Exercitatio Mathematica, De Locis Solidis, De Maximis & Minimis, &c.; Vieta, in his Effectio Geometrica, Supplement. Geometricæ, Sectiones Angulares, Responsum ad Problemata, Apollonius Gallus, &c.; Gregory St Vincent's Quadratura Circuli; Fermat's Varia Opera Mathematica; Dr Barrow's Lectiones Geometricæ; Buihald de Lineis Spirabilibus; Cavalierius; Schooten and Gregory's Exercitationes Geometricæ, and Gregory's Pars Universalis, &c.; De Billy's treatise De Proportione Harmonica; La Lovera's Geometria veterum promota; Stadius's Mefolabium, Problemata Solida, &c.; Wallis in his treatises De Cycloide, Cissoide, &c.; De Proportionibus, De Sectionibus Conicis, Arithmetica Infinitorum, De Centro Gravitatis, De Sectionibus Angularibus, De Angulo Contactus, Cono Cuneus, &c. &c.; Hugo De Omericis, in his Analysis Geometrica; Pascal on the Cycloid; Stepl. Angeli's Problemata Geometrica; Alex. Anderson's Suppl. Relati 1, Vartorum Problemata Practice, &c.; Baronius's Geomet. Prob. &c.; Gheudo Grandini Geometr. Demonstr. &c.; Ghe-

taldi Apollonius Redivivus, &c.; Lu Colen or a Ceulen, de Circulo et Adici Snell's Apollonius Batavus, Cyclometriae Herbertstein's Diotomo Circularum; Palcit. in Geometriam; Guldini Centro-Ba several others equally eminent, of modern date, as Dr Rob. Simson, Dr Mat. St Tho. Simpson, &c.

Since the introduction of the new geometry of curve lines; as exponential equations, in this part of geometry following names, among many others especially to be respected, viz. D Schooten, Newton, Maclaurin, Br Cramer, Cotes, Waring, &c. &c.

As to the subject of practical geometry chief writers are Beyer, Kepler, Ram Mallet, Tacquet, Ozanam, Wolfius, with innumerable others.

On the whole, the history of geometry divided into 4 grand æras: viz. 1. Prior to its introduction into Greece by 2. From that period to its meridian; EUCLID: 3. From EUCLID and ARCH DESCARTES, who, by applying algebraic elements of geometry, gave a new turn to it: and, 4. From Descartes to its present state, by Sir ISAAC NEWTON and M. LEIBNIZ: who introduced still greater improvements by the application of FLUXIONS.

This science is generally divided into two parts, viz. I. THEORETICAL GEOMETRY, the general principles of the science; II. PRACTICAL GEOMETRY, or the application of these principles to the mensuration of solids, &c.

## PART I.

### THEORETICAL GEOMETRY

OR, GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF THE  
SECT. I. Of STRAIGHT LINES and FIGURES. See Plates CLXV, CLXVI

#### DEFINITIONS.

1. A POINT is that which has position without magnitude.

2. A LINE is length without breadth; the extremities of a line are therefore points.

3. A RIGHT LINE, or STRAIGHT LINE, is that which lies evenly between its extremities. Fig. 1. Plate CLXV.

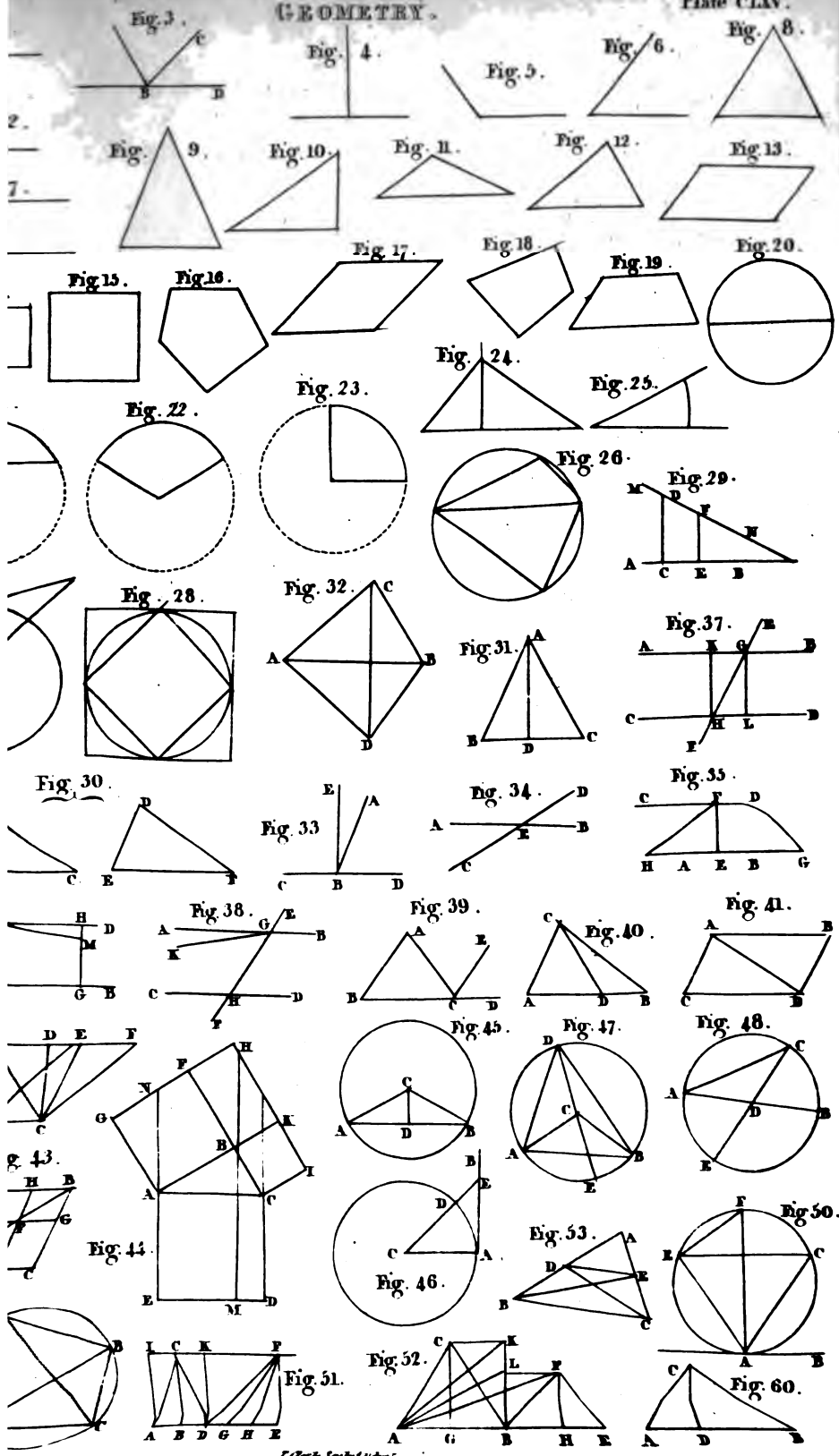
4. A SUPERFICIES is that which has length and breadth; the extremities of a superficies therefore lines, and the intersections of a superficies with one another are also lines.

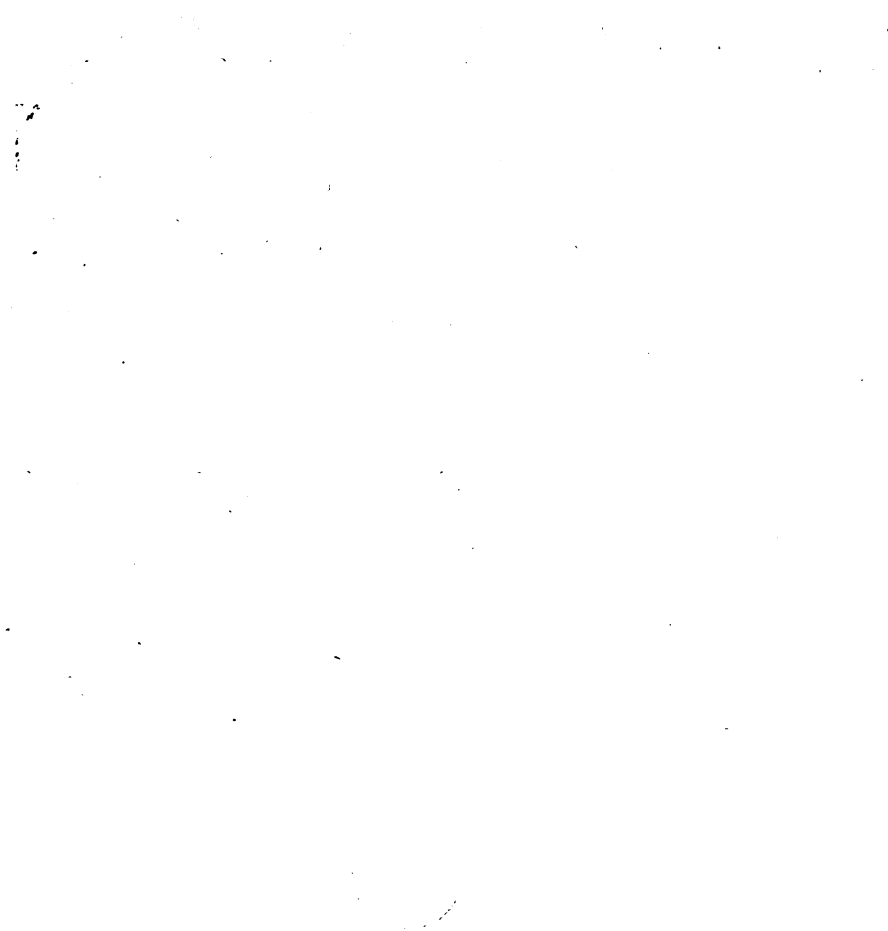
5. A PLANE SUPERFICIES is that in which two points being taken, the straight line which connects them lies wholly in that superficies.

6. A PLANE RECTILINEAL ANGLE is the inclination of two straight lines to one another, meeting together, but are not in the same line. Fig. 2.

Note. When several angles are formed at the same point, as at B, Fig. 3. Each angle is described by three letters, whereof one lies within the angular point, and the other two

GEOMETRY.





form the angle, thus, CBD or DBC denoting the angle contained by the line CB and DB. A straight line standing on another so makes the adjacent angles equal to each other, each of the angles is called a RIGHT ANGLE, and the straight line which stands on the other is called a PERPENDICULAR. *Fig. 4.*

AN OBTUSE ANGLE is that which is greater than a right angle. *Fig. 5.*

AN ACUTE ANGLE is that which is less than a right angle. *Fig. 6.*

PARALLEL STRAIGHT LINES are such as lie in the same plane, and which being produced both ways do not meet. *Fig. 7.*

A FIGURE is that which is enclosed by one or more boundaries.

RECTILINEAL FIGURES are those which are bounded by straight lines.

Every plane figure bounded by three straight lines is called a TRIANGLE, of which the three sides are called the sides, that side upon which the triangle is conceived to stand is called the base, and the opposite angular point the vertex.

AN EQUILATERAL TRIANGLE is that which has three equal sides. *Fig. 8.*

AN ISOSCELES TRIANGLE is that which has two equal sides. *Fig. 9.*

AN OBTUSE ANGLED TRIANGLE is that which has one obtuse angle. *Fig. 10.*

AN ACUTE ANGLED TRIANGLE is that which has three acute angles. *Fig. 11.*

Every plane figure bounded by four straight lines is called a QUADRILATERAL, and the right line which divides the opposite angles is called a diagonal.

A PARALLELOGRAM is a quadrilateral of which the opposite sides are parallel. *Fig. 12.*

A RECTANGLE is a parallelogram which has four right angles. *Fig. 13.*

A SQUARE is a parallelogram which has four equal sides and all its angles right. *Fig. 14.*

A RHOMBUS is a parallelogram which has four equal sides. *Fig. 15.*

A TRAPEZIUM is a quadrilateral which has two opposite sides parallel. *Fig. 16.*

A TRAPEZOID is a quadrilateral which has two opposite sides parallel. *Fig. 17.*

Every figure bounded by more than four sides is called a POLYGON. *Fig. 18.*

A PENTAGON is a polygon of five sides, a HEXAGON hath six sides; a HEPTAGON seven; an OCTAGON eight; a NONAGON nine; a DECAGON ten; an UNDÉCAGON eleven; and a DODECAGON twelve sides.

AN EQUILATERAL POLYGON hath all its sides equal; if they are not equal, it is called an IRREGULAR POLYGON.

A CIRCLE is a plane figure bounded by one line, the circumference, which is such that all the lines drawn to it from a certain point called the centre are equal; and these lines are called the radii of the circle. The circumference itself is also often called a circle. *Fig. 19.*

31. The DIAMETER of a circle is a straight line passing through the centre, and terminated both ways by the circumference.

32. An ARC of a circle is any part of its circumference. *Fig. 20.*

33. A CHORD is a straight line joining the extremities of an arc. *Fig. 21.*

34. A SEGMENT is any part of a circle bounded by an arc and its chord. *Fig. 22.*

35. A SEMICIRCLE is half the circle, or a segment cut off by a diameter. The half circumference is also sometimes called a semicircle. *Fig. 23.*

36. A SECTOR is any part of a circle which is bounded by an arc, and two radii drawn to its circumference. *Fig. 24.*

37. A QUADRANT, or quarter of a circle, is a sector having a quarter of a circle for its arc, and its two radii are perpendicular to each other. A quarter of the circumference is also called a quadrant. *Fig. 25.*

38. The HEIGHT or ALTITUDE of a figure is a perpendicular let fall from an angle or its vertex to the opposite side or base. *Fig. 26.*

39. In a right angled triangle the side opposite the right angle is called the HYPOTHENUSE, and the other two sides are called the LEGS, or sometimes the base and perpendicular. *Fig. 27.*

40. The circumference of every circle is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts called DEGREES, and each degree into 60 MINUTES, each minute into 60 SECONDS, and so on. Hence a semicircle contains 180 degrees, and a quadrant 90 degrees.

41. The MEASURE of a RECTILINEAL ANGLE is an arc of any circle contained between the two lines which form that angle, the angular point being the centre, and it is estimated by the number of degrees in that arc. *Fig. 28.*

42. IDENTICAL FIGURES are such as have all the sides and all the angles of the one, respectively equal to all the sides and all the angles of the other, each to each, so that if the one figure were applied to, or laid upon the other, all the sides of the one would exactly fall upon and cover all the sides of the other, the two becoming as it were but one and the same figure.

43. The DISTANCE of a POINT from a LINE is the straight line drawn from that point perpendicular to, and terminating in that line.

44. An ANGLE in a SEGMENT of a CIRCLE is that which is contained by two lines drawn from any point in the arc of the segment to the extremities of that arc. *Fig. 29.*

45. An ANGLE on a SEGMENT, or an ARC, is that which is contained by two lines drawn from any point in the opposite, or supplemental part of the circumference, to the extremities of the arc, and containing the arc between them. *Fig. 30.*

46. An ANGLE at the CIRCUMFERENCE is that whose angular point is any where in the circumference, and an angle at the centre is that whose angular point is at the centre. *Fig. 31.*

47. A TANGENT to a CIRCLE is a straight line that meets the circle at one point, and every where else falls without it. *Fig. 32.*

48. A SECANT is a straight line that cuts the circle lying partly within and partly without it. *Fig. 33.*

49. A RIGHT LINED FIGURE is inscribed in a circle, or the circle circumscribes it when all the angular points of the figure are in the circumference of the circle. *Fig. 28.*

50. A RIGHT LINED FIGURE circumscribes a circle, or the circle is inscribed in it when all the sides of the figure touch the circumference of the circle. *Fig. 28.*

51. ONE RIGHT LINE FIGURE is inscribed in another, or the latter circumscribes the former when all the angular points of the former are placed in the sides of the latter. *Fig. 28.*

52. SIMILAR FIGURES are those that have all the angles of the one equal to all the angles of the other, each to each, and the sides about these angles proportional.

53. The PERIMETER of a FIGURE is the sum of all its sides taken together.

Note. When the word *line* occurs, without the addition of either *straight* or *curved*, a straight line is always meant; also the contractions (Def.) (Ax.) (Th.) are references to the definitions, axioms and theorems that have been before mentioned.

#### AXIOMS.

1. Things which are equal to the same thing are equal to one another.

2. When equals are added to equals, the wholes are equal.

3. When equals are taken from equals, the remainders are equal.

4. When equals are added to unequals, the wholes are unequal.

5. When equals are taken from unequals, the remainders are unequal.

6. Things which are doubles of the same thing are equal to one another.

7. Things which are halves of the same thing are equal.

8. The whole is equal to all its parts taken together.

9. Things which coincide, or fill the same space, are identical, or mutually equal in all their parts.

10. All right angles are equal to one another.

11. Angles that have equal measures, or arcs, are equal.

12. More than one straight line cannot be drawn from any given point to another given point. *Fig. 1.*

13. If two points D, F in a right line MN are situated at unequal distances DC, FE from another right line AB in the same plane; those two lines being indefinitely produced on the side of the least distance will meet one another. *Fig. 29.*

REMARKS. A PROPOSITION is something proposed to be done, and is either a Problem or Theorem.

A PROBLEM is something proposed to be done.

A THEOREM is something proposed to be demonstrated.

A LEMMA is something premised or demonstrated, in order to make what follows the more easy.

A COROLLARY is a consequent truth gained immediately from some preceding truth or demonstration.

A SCHOLIUM is a remark or observation made upon something going before.

THEOREM I. *fig. 30.* If two triangles have two

sides and the included angle of the two sides and the included angle of the triangles will be identical, or equal.

In the two triangles ABC, DEF, if the side AB of the one be equal to the side DE of the other, and the side AC equal to DF, also the angle A equal to the angle D, the triangles will be identical, or equal in all respects. For the triangle ABC, to be applied to, or superposed on the triangle DEF, so that the point A coincide with D, and the side AB with DE, then since the angles A and D are equal, the side AC shall also coincide with DF, and the angle C equal to E, and AC is equal to DF; consequently the side BC will coincide with the side EF; (Ax. 12.) therefore the triangles are identical (Ax. 9.) and have their corresponding parts equal.

THEOR. II. *fig. 30.* Triangles whose two sides and the side which lies between them are identical, or have their other sides equal.

Let the two triangles ABC, DEF, have the angle B equal to the angle E, the side BC equal to the side EF, and the side AB equal to DE, then these triangles will be identical.

For conceive the triangle ABC to be applied to, or superposed on the triangle DEF, so that BC may fall exactly upon EF, since the angle B is equal to the angle E, the side BA will fall upon DE, and in like manner the angles C and F, are equal, the side AC will fall upon FD, thus the triangles will coincide and therefore (Ax. 9.) are identical.

THEOR. III. *fig. 31.* In an isosceles triangle the angles at the base are equal.

If the triangle ABC be isosceles, with the side AB equal to a side AC; then will the angle B be equal to the angle at C. For the angle at A to be bisected, or divided into two equal parts by the line AD. The triangles BAD, CAD having two sides an angle of the one equal to two sides and the contained angle of the other, namely AB equal to AC, and AD common to both, BAD equal to the angle CAD, are identical (Th. 1.) therefore the angle B is equal to the angle C.

COROLLARY I. An equilateral triangle is equiangular.

COR. 2. A line that bisects the vertex of an isosceles triangle bisects also the base and is perpendicular to it.

THEOR. IV. *fig. 31.* If a triangle has its angles equal, the sides which subtend opposite to these angles are also equal.

Let ABC be a triangle, of which the angles B and C are equal, the side AB will be equal to the side AC. Suppose BC to be bisected, and AD joined, dividing the triangle into the two triangles BAD, CAD; and the angle ABD to be turned over, so that it may fall upon DC, then the point B will fall upon DC, and since the angles B and C are equal, the sides AB and AC will fall upon CA, and the extremity C will coincide with the extremity C because DC is common to both; consequently the side AC is equal to the side BC.



hence every equiangular triangle is also

V. *fig. 32.* Triangles which have sides mutually equal, are identical, or their three angles equal each to each.

Triangles ABC, ADC have their 3 sides equal, viz. AC equal to AC, AB equal to BC equal to DC, the angles opposite shall be equal, namely BAC to DAC, CA, and ABC to ADC. Suppose the lines AB, DC are not parallel, draw the line BD. Then the angle ABD is equal to ADB, and the angle CBD to the angle CDB (Th. 3.) the whole angle ABC is equal to the whole angle ADC (Ax. 2.) and since AB is equal to BC to DC, the triangles ABC, ADC are equal. (Th. 1.)

VI. *fig. 33.* The angles which one line makes with another upon one side of it are equal to two right angles.

Let the line AB make with CD upon one side angles ABD, ABC, these are together equal to two right angles. If AB be perpendicular to CD, draw BE perpendicular to CD, dividing the greater angle ABC into the angles EBC, EBA, then the former EBC is equal to the angle ABD, and the remaining part EBA is equal to the whole lesser angle ABC equal to two right angles, the whole of both the angles must necessarily be equal to two right angles. (Ax. 2.)

Hence also, conversely, if the two angles ABD, ABC on both sides of line AB make equal to two right angles then CB and BD form one straight line.

All the angles that can be made round a point are equal to two right angles.

VII. *fig. 34.* If two lines intersect each other, the opposite angles are equal. Let the lines AB, CD intersect each other in E, the angle AEB is equal to BED, and AED to BEC; the angles AEC, AED are together equal to two right angles (Th. 6.) and in like manner BED, BEC are together equal to two right angles; therefore the angles AED are together equal to BED, BEC, and taking away the common angle AED, there remains AEC equal to BEC.

VIII. *fig. 35.* Two straight lines perpendicular to one and the same straight line are parallel to each other.

Let CD be perpendicular to EF, the lines AB, CD be parallel. For if they be not parallel, draw the line GH, meeting EF at G, and join FH. The triangles EHF, GHF have the angles FEH, FEH equal to EG and EF common to both, and also the angles FEH, FEH equal in all respects, (Th. 1.) and so the angles EHF, GHF being both right angles, the lines AB, CD must be one straight line; (Th. 6. Cor. 1.), which is impossible, therefore AB and CD are parallel.

IX. *fig. 36.* If two straight lines be perpendicular to the one terminated

by the other, are equal, and are also perpendicular to both the parallels.

Let AB and CD be parallel straight lines, and let EF, GH, perpendiculars to CD one of them at E and C, meet the other at F and H; the lines EF and GH are equal between themselves, and also perpendicular to CD. It is evident that EF and GH are equal, for if they were not equal, AB would not be parallel to CD. (Ax. 13.) The line EF must also be perpendicular to CD, for if it be not, then draw FM perpendicular to FE, meeting GH in M; so shall FM be parallel to AB (Th. 8.) and therefore GM equal to EF, or to GH, which is impossible; therefore EF is perpendicular to CD, and by the same argument GH is perpendicular to CD.

THEOR. X. *fig. 37.* If a line intersect two parallel lines, it makes the alternate angles equal.

Let the line EF intersect the parallel lines AB, CD at G and H, the alternate angles AGH, GHD are equal. Let HK, GL be perpendicular to the parallel lines AB, CD, then the lines HK, GL are also parallel, (Th. 8.) now the triangles HKG, HGL having the side HK equal to GL and KG equal to HL (Th. 9.) also the angles at K and L equal, they being right angles, will have the angles KGH, LHG equal. (Th. 1.)

COR. If a line intersect two parallel lines it makes the exterior angle equal to the interior and opposite on the same side, and also the two interior angles on the same side equal to two right angles. For the interior angle GHD is equal to AGH, that is, (Th. 7.) to the exterior angle EGB, to each of these add BGH, and the two interior angles BGH, GHD are together equal to BGH, EGB, that is to two right angles. (Th. 6.)

THEOR. XI. *fig. 38.* If a line intersecting two other lines makes the alternate angles equal, these lines are parallel.

Let EF intersect the lines AB, CD at G and H, and make the alternate angles AGH, GHD equal, the lines AB, CD are parallel. For if AB or AG be not parallel to CD, suppose KG parallel to CD, then the angle KGH will be equal to GHD, (Th. 10.) that is by hypothesis to AGH which is impossible, (Ax. 8) therefore no other line than AB can be parallel to CD.

COR. If a line intersecting two other lines makes the exterior angle equal to the interior angle on the same side, or the two interior angles on the same side equal to two right angles, these lines are parallel.

THEOR. XII. *fig. 39.* If one side of a triangle be produced, the exterior angle is equal to both the interior and opposite angles, and the three interior angles are equal to two right angles.

Let BC a side of the triangle ABC be produced to D, the exterior angle ACD is equal to the two interior and opposite angles BAC, ABC, and the three interior angles ABC, BAC, BCA are equal to two right angles. Let CE be parallel to AB, then the angle ACE is equal CAB (Th. 10.) and the angle ABC to ECD, (Th. 10. Cor.) therefore the angle ACD is equal to the two angles CAB, ECD, to each of these equals add ACB, thus the angles ACB, ACD are equal to the three angles ABC, CBA, BAC, but ACB, ACD are equal to two

two right angles (Th. 6.) therefore the three angles of the triangle are equal to two right angles.

COR. 1. The exterior angle of a triangle is greater than either of the interior opposite angles.

COR. 2. Any two angles of a triangle are together less than two right angles.

COR. 3. If two triangles have two angles of the one equal to two angles of the other, the remaining angle of the one is equal to the remaining angle of the other.

COR. 4. The two acute angles of a right angled triangle are together equal to a right angle.

THEOR. XIII. *fig. 40.* The greatest side of every triangle subtends the greatest angle.

Let ABC be a triangle of which the side AB is greater than AC, the angle ACB is greater than ABC. Take AD equal to AC and join DC, then the angle ACD is equal to ADC (Th. 3.), but ADC is greater than ABC (Th. 12. Cor. 1.) therefore ACD is greater than ABC, much more then is ACB greater than ABC.

COR. The greatest angle of every triangle is subtended by the greatest side.

THEOR. XIV. *fig. 41.* The opposite sides and opposite angles of a parallelogram are equal, and the diagonal divides the parallelogram into two equal parts.

Let ABC be a parallelogram, AB is equal to CD, and AC to BD, also the angle CAB is equal to CDB, and ACD to ADB, and the triangle ACD is equal to ABD. For since AB is parallel to CD (def. 21.) the angles BAD, CDA are equal (Th. 10.) and since AC is parallel to BD, for the same reason, the angles CAD, BDA are equal, now AD is common to the triangles ABD, ACD therefore these triangles are identical, (Th. 2.) hence AB is equal to CD, AC to BD, the angle ACD to ABD, the angle CAD to ADB, and BAD to ADC, and consequently the whole angle CAB to the whole angle CDB.

THEOR. XV. *fig. 41.* The lines which join the extremities of equal and parallel lines towards the same parts are themselves equal and parallel.

Let AB be equal and parallel to CD, then AC and BD which join their extremities towards the same parts are also equal and parallel. Join AD, then the angles BAD, CDA are equal, (Th. 10.) and since AB is equal to CD and AD common to the triangles ABD, ACD, these triangles are equal in all respects (Th. 1.), therefore AC is equal to BD, and the angle CAD to ADB, hence AC is also parallel to BD. (Th. 11.)

THEOR. XVI. *fig. 42.* Parallelograms standing upon the same base and between the same parallels are equal.

Let ABCD, EBCF be parallelograms standing on the same base BC, and between the same parallels BC, AF, they are equal to one another. For since AD is equal to BC, that is to EF, (Th. 14.) therefore AE is equal to DF, now AB is equal to DC (Th. 14.) and the angle BAE to CDF, (Th. 10. Cor.) therefore the triangles BAE and CDF are equal. (Th. 1.) Now if from the whole figure BAFC there be taken away the angle CDF, there remains the parallelogram ABCD, and if from the same figure there be taken away the equal triangle BAE, there re-

mains the parallelogram EBCF, therefore the parallelograms are equal to one another.

COR. 1. Hence triangles standing on the same base and between the same parallels are equal to one another.

For let BAC, BEC be two triangles on the same base BC and between the same parallels BC, AF, it is evident that they are the parallelograms BADC, BEFC, and equal.

COR. 2. Hence if a triangle and a parallelogram stand on the same base, the triangle is equal to one half of the parallelogram.

COR. 3. Therefore all parallelograms on the same base and between the same parallels are equal among themselves.

THEOR. XVII. *fig. 43.* The complement of a parallelogram are equal.

Let BD the diagonal of a parallelogram be drawn, and let HK, EG parallels be drawn, intersecting each other at F a point in the diagonal, the whole parallelogram is thus divided into four parallelograms; two of these, viz. EK and FK are called the complements, and are proved equal. The whole triangle BDC is equal to the whole triangle DAB, (Th. 12.) for the same reason the parts DEF, FGD are respectively equal to the parts DKF, FGB, therefore the remaining parts HE, CK, are equal.

THEOR. XVIII. *fig. 44.* In a right angled triangle the square of the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares upon the other two sides.

Let AD be a square upon the hypotenuse of a right angled triangle ABC and BG, a square upon its side AB, AD is equal to the sum of the squares BI, BH. Let MBH be parallel to AE produced in H, and let EA, produce in N. If from the equal angles CAB, MBH, common to both, be taken, there remains NAG, equal to BAC, and the side AN is equal to AB, and the side AG is equal to AC, and the angle NAG is equal to BAC, and the side AN is equal to AB, and therefore the parallelograms AM, AN are equal (Th. 16. Cor. 3.) but AH is equal to BG (Th. 16.) therefore AM is equal to BG, in the same way it will appear that the square BI is equal to the square BH, therefore the whole AD is equal to the sum of the squares BI, BH.

THEOR. XIX. *fig. 45.* A perpendicular from the centre of a circle to a chord bisects the chord.

Let CD be drawn from the centre C perpendicular to AB a chord in the circle, AD, DB. Join CA, CB. Because AC is equal to BC (def. 3.) the angles CAB, CBA are equal, now ADC, BDC are equal, being in the same straight line, therefore the angles ACD, BCD are equal, (Th. 12. Cor. 3.) therefore the triangles ADC, BDC are in all respects equal, (Th. 1.) and consequently AD equal to DB.

COR. A perpendicular bisecting at right angles passes through the centre of a circle.

THEOR. XX. *fig. 46.* A straight line drawn through any point in the circum-

right angles to the radius terminating in it, is a tangent to the circle.  
 If a line be perpendicular to the radius AC, the line is a tangent to the circle at the point A.  
 If any line from the centre cutting the circle, and the line AB at E. Because CAE is a right angle, CEA is less than a right angle, therefore CE is greater than CA, or, (Th. 13.) therefore the point E is without the circle, and the same may be shewn of every other point in AB, except A, therefore AB is a tangent to the circle. (def. 47.)  
 If a line be perpendicular to a tangent at the point of contact, that line passes through the

XXI. fig. 47. An angle at the centre is double the angle at the circumference subtends upon the same arch.  
 Let B be the angle at the centre of a circle and angle at the circumference, the angle subtended is double ADB. Join DC which produces to angle ACE is equal to both the angles CAD, (Th. 12.) that is, since CD and AD are equal to twice CAD; (Th. 4.) in like manner will appear that BCE is equal to twice the angle at the circumference therefore the whole angle ACB is double

All angles in the same segment of a circle are equal to each other.

In the same circle, or in circles of equal radii, if two angles at the circumference subtend equal arches, they are equal to one another and conversely.

XXII. fig. 48. An angle in a semicircle is a right angle.

Let B be an angle in a semicircle, draw the diameter CDE. The angle ACE at the circumference is half of ADE at the centre, and in like manner CE is half of BDE; (Th. 21.) therefore angle ACB is half the sum of the angles ADE, EDB, or is equal to a right angle.

XXIII. fig. 49. The sum of any two opposite angles of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle is equal to two right angles.

Let ABCD be a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle, the angles A and C, also the sum of ADC, ABC, are equal to two right angles. Join AC, BD. The angle BAC is equal to BDC, also the angle DAC is equal to DBC (Th. 21. cor. 1.), therefore angle DAB is equal to the two angles BDC and DBC; and the sum of DAB and DCB is equal to three angles BDC, DBC and DCB, that is, equal to two right angles. (Th. 12.)

XXIV. fig. 50. The angle formed by a tangent and a chord drawn to the point of contact, is equal to the angle in the alternate segment of the circle.

Let AB be a tangent, and AC a chord, the angle BAC is equal to any angle CEA in the alternate segment. Draw AF perpendicular to AB, and join EF; thus AF is a diameter of the circle (Th. 20 Cor.) and angle AEF is a right angle (Th. 21.), and therefore angle FAC, but FEC, FAC, parts of these angles are equal, therefore the remainders CEA, AEF are equal.

PART I.

SECT. II. Of RATIOS and PROPORTIONS.

In treating of proportion, the Algebraic notation is here adopted for the sake of brevity; it will therefore be proper to observe,

1. That the letters A, B, &c. are used to denote quantities of any kind, and the letters m, p, q, &c. to denote numbers only.

2. The sign + (plus) written between the symbols of two quantities or numbers, signifies the sum of those quantities or numbers. Thus A + B means the sum of the quantities denoted by A and B, &c.

3. The sign - (minus) written between the symbols of two quantities, signifies the difference of these quantities. Thus A - B means the difference between A and B.

4. When a letter denoting a number is written close to a letter denoting any quantity, it signifies that the quantity is multiplied by the number, thus mA means m times A, also qmB means that B is multiplied by the product of the numbers q and m.

5. The quotient arising from the division of any quantity A by another quantity B is written thus  $\frac{A}{B}$ .

6. The sign = signifies the equality of quantities denoted by the letters that stand on the opposite sides of it. Thus  $\frac{mA}{mB} = \frac{A}{B}$  denotes that the quotient arising from the division of m times A by m times B is the same as the quotient arising from the division of A by B.

7. It is likewise supposed that the following principle in the arithmetic of fractional quantities is already known, namely, that if both the numerator and denominator of a given fraction be divided by the same number, the resulting quotients are the numerator and denominator of a fraction of the same value as the given one. It is upon this principle that the fractional quantity  $\frac{mA}{mB}$  is concluded to

be equal to  $\frac{A}{B}$ , viz. by dividing both numerator and denominator by m, and so of other quantities.

DEFINITIONS.

54. When one quantity contains another a certain number of times exactly, the former is said to be a MULTIPLE of the latter, and the latter a PART of the former; thus 20 is a multiple of 5, and 5 a part of 20; and in general, m being any number, and A any quantity, mA is a multiple of A, and A a part of mA.

55. When several quantities are multiples of as many others, and each contains its part the same number of times, the former are said to be EQUI-MULTIPLES of the latter, and the latter LIKE PARTS of the former; thus 20 and 30 are equimultiples of 2 and 3, and in general mA and mB are equi-multiples of A and B; also, A and B are like parts of mA and mB.

56. RATIO is the proportion which one magnitude bears to another.

Y y

tude

tude bears to another magnitude of the same kind, with respect to quantity.

NOTE. The measure, or quantity of a ratio, is conceived by considering what part or parts the leading quantity called the antecedent is of the other called the consequent. So the ratio of a quantity expressed by the number 2 to a like quantity expressed by the number 6 is denoted by 6 divided by 2, or  $\frac{6}{2}$  or 3; the number 2 being 3 times contained in 6, or the third of it, and in general the measure of the ratio of A to B is expressed by the quotient of B divided by A, or the fraction  $\frac{B}{A}$ .

57. PROPORTION is an equality of ratios, and three quantities are said to be PROPORTIONAL when the ratio of the first to the second is equal to the ratio of the second to the third. As of the three quantities A (2), B (4), C (8); where  $\frac{4}{2} = \frac{8}{4} = 2$ , the same ratio.

58. Four quantities are said to be PROPORTIONAL when the ratio of the first to the second is the same as the ratio of the third to the fourth. As of the four quantities A (2), B (4), C (5), D (10); where  $\frac{4}{2} = \frac{10}{5} = 2$ , the common ratio.

NOTE. To denote that four quantities A, B, C, D, are proportional, they are usually placed thus A : B :: C : D, and read thus, As A is to B, so is C to D; but when three quantities are proportional, the middle one is repeated, and they are written thus, A : B :: B : C.

59. Of three proportional quantities, the middle one is said to be a MEAN PROPORTIONAL between the other two, and the last a THIRD PROPORTIONAL to the first and second.

60. Of four proportional quantities, the last is said to be a FOURTH PROPORTIONAL to the other three taken in order.

61. Quantities are said to be CONTINUALLY proportional, or in CONTINUED proportion, when the ratio is the same between every two adjoining terms, thus, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, &c. are in continued proportion.

62. In a series of quantities continually proportional, the ratio of the first and third is said to be DUPLICATE to that of the first and second; and the ratio of the first and fourth is said to be TRIPPLICATE to that of the first and second, and so on.

63. INVERSE ratio is, when the antecedent is made the consequent, and the consequent the antecedent; thus, if 1 : 2 :: 3 : 6; then, inversely 2 : 1 :: 6 : 3.

64. ALTERNATE proportion is, when antecedent is compared with antecedent, and consequent with consequent, as if 1 : 2 :: 3 : 6; then by alternation or permutation 1 : 3 :: 2 : 6.

65. COMPOUNDED ratio is, when the sum of the antecedent and consequent is compared, either with the antecedent or consequent, thus, if 1 : 2 :: 3 : 6; then by composition 1 + 2 : 1 :: 3 + 6 : 3, and 1 + 2 : 2 :: 3 + 6 : 6.

66. DIVIDED ratio is, when the difference of the antecedent and consequent is compared either with the antecedent or consequent, thus, if 1 : 2 :: 3 : 6; then by division 2 - 1 : 1 :: 6 - 3 : 3; 1 : 2 :: 6 - 3 : 6.

THEOR. XXV. Equimultiples of any two quantities have the same ratio as the quantities them-

selves. Let A and B be any two quantities, mA, mB any equimultiples of them, number whatever; then will mA have the same ratio as A and B, or A : B :

For  $\frac{mB}{mA} = \frac{B}{A}$ , the same ratio.

COR. Hence, like parts of quantities have the same ratio as the wholes, because the equimultiples of the like parts, or like parts of mA and mB.

THEOR. XXVI. If four quantities of the same kind are proportional, they will be also by alternation or permutation, and the antecedents will have the same ratio as the consequents.

Let A : B :: mA : mB, then will A :

For  $\frac{mA}{A} = m$  and  $\frac{mB}{B} = m$ , both the same ratio.

THEOR. XXVII. If four quantities of the same kind are proportional, they will be proportional also or inversely.

Let A : B :: mA : mB, then will B :

For  $\frac{mA}{mB} = \frac{A}{B}$ , both the same ratio.

THEOR. XXVIII. If four quantities of the same kind are proportional, they will also be proportional, and by division.

Let A : B :: mA : mB.

Then will B + A : A :: mB + mA :

or, B + A : B :: mB + mA :

For  $\frac{mA}{mB + mA} = \frac{A}{B + A}$  &  $\frac{mB}{mB + mA}$

In like manner it will appear, that

B - A : A :: mB - mA : mA,

or, B - A : B :: mB - mA : mB.

For  $\frac{mA}{mB - mA} = \frac{A}{B - A}$  &  $\frac{mB}{mB - mA}$

THEOR. XXIX. If, of four quantities there be taken any equimultiples of the two antecedents, and any whatever of the two consequents, the resulting will still be proportional.

Let A : B :: mA : mB, also let pA

any equimultiples, of the two antecedents, then will pA : qB :: pmA : qmB.

For  $\frac{qmB}{pmA} = \frac{qB}{pA}$ , the same ratio.

THEOR. XXX. If there be four quantities, and the two consequents be multiplied or diminished, by quantities having the same ratio as the respective antecedents and the antecedents will still be proportional.

Let A : B :: mA : mB, and nA :

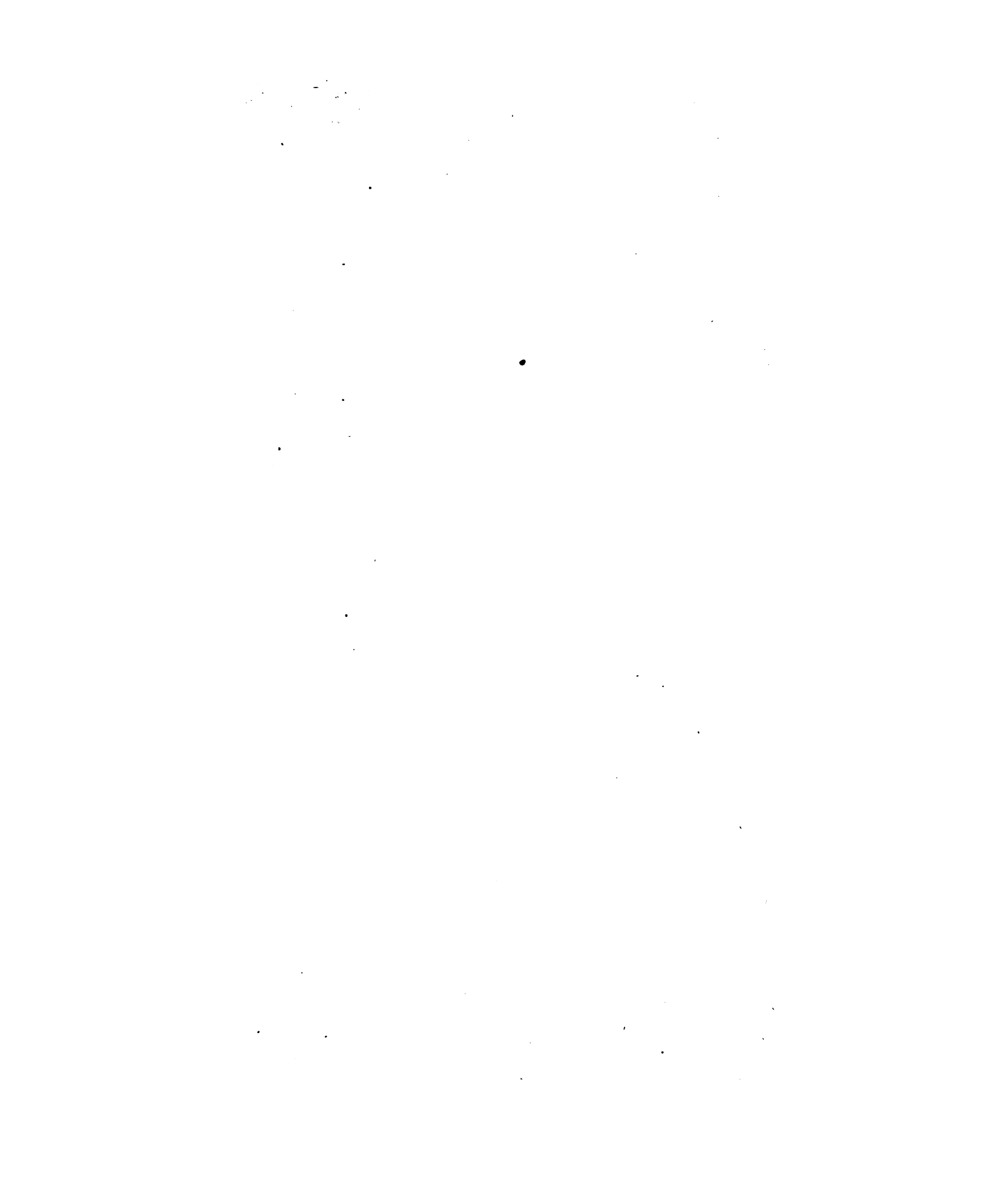
two quantities having the same ratio as the antecedents; then will

A : B + nA :: mA :: mB + nA

Also A : B - nA :: mA :: mB - nA

For  $\frac{mB + nA}{mA} = \frac{B + nA}{A}$ , the same ratio.

THEOR. XXXI. If any number of quantities be proportional, either of the antecedents or consequents, as the sum of all the antecedents will have the same ratio as the sum of all the consequents.



# G E O M E T R Y.

...ponding angles equal. Take DH equal to AC and DG equal to AB. Then  $DG : DH :: DE : DF$ , therefore GH is parallel to EF (Th. 36, Cor. 2); hence the triangles DGH, DEF are equiangular (Th. 10.); wherefore  $DG : GH :: DE : EF$  (Th. 38.);  $AB : BC$  (by hyp.); since therefore  $DG : GH :: AB : BC$ , and that DG is equal to AB, therefore GH is equal to BC. Thus the triangles DGH, ABC, having the three sides of the one respectively equal to the three sides of the other, are equiangular (Th. 5.) therefore also the triangles ABC, DEF are equiangular.

**THEOR. XL. fig. 55.** Triangles which have one angle in the one equal to one angle in the other, and the sides about these angles proportional, are equiangular.

Let ABC, DEF be two triangles having the angles A and D equal, and  $AB : AC :: DE : DF$ ; these triangles shall be equiangular. Make DG equal to AB, and DH to AC, and join GH: thus the triangles ABC, DGH are identical and equiangular (Th. 1.); therefore  $HD : DG :: CA : AB :: FD : DE$  (by hyp.); therefore HG is parallel to FE, (Th. 36. Cor. 2.) and the triangles HDG, FDE, also CAB, FDE are equiangular.

**THEOR. XLI. fig. 56.** If four lines are proportional, the rectangle of the extremes will be equal to the rectangle of the means; and if the rectangle of the extremes be equal to the rectangle of the means, the four lines are proportional.

Let the four lines A, B, C, D be proportional, or  $A : B :: C : D$ , then will the rectangle of A and D be equal to the rectangle of B and C. Let the four lines be placed with their extremities meeting at a common point, and forming four right angles; and draw lines parallel to them to complete the rectangles P, Q, R; where P is the rectangle of A, and D, Q the rectangle of B and C, and R the rectangle of B and D. Then the rectangles P and R will be to each other as A and B (Th. 35.) and in like manner the rectangles Q and R will be to each other as C and D; but the ratio of A to B is the same as the ratio of C to D; therefore the ratio of P to R is the same as the ratio of Q to R, and consequently P and Q are equal.

Again, if the rectangle of A and D be equal to the rectangle of B and C,  $A : B :: C : D$ . For the rectangles being placed as before, it is evident that P and Q have each the same ratio to R; but P is to R as A to B, and Q to R as C to D, therefore  $A : B :: C : D$ .

**COR.** If three lines are proportional, the rectangle of the extremes is equal to the square of the mean: and if the rectangle of the extremes be equal to the square of the mean, the three lines are proportional.

**THEOR. XLII. fig. 57 and 58.** If two lines meeting a circle cut each other, either within it, or without, the rectangle of the parts of the one will be equal to the rectangle of the parts of the other; the parts of each being measured from the point of meeting to the two intersections with the circumference.

Let the two chords, AB, CD, meet each other in E, the rectangle of AE, EB is equal to the rectangle of CE, ED. Join AD, and CB. The angles AED, CEB are equiangular, for the angles at D and B are equal (Th. 21. Cor. 1.), and

the angles AED, CEB are opposite (fig. therefore equal (Th. 7.); or the angle common to both triangles (fig. 58.), in both triangles are equiangular; therefore  $DE : EB :: EC : ED$  (Th. 38.); hence the rectangle EC is equal to the rectangle of AE, EB.

**COR.** If the line BAE, (fig. 58.) be by revolving to come into the position tangent AE (fig. 59), the distances BE, AE have become equal. Hence we have the **LEM.** If from a point without a circle be drawn, one touching it, and the other it, the rectangle of the distances of it from the intersections of the cutting tangent, is equal to the square of the tangent.

**THEOR. XLIII. fig. 60.** In a right angle, a perpendicular from the right angle is a mean proportional between the segments of the hypotenuse; and each of the sides about the angle is a mean proportional between the segment, and the hypotenuse.

Let ABC be a right angled triangle, perpendicular upon the hypotenuse;  $AD : DC :: DC : DB$ , and  $AB : AC :: AD$ , and  $AB : BC :: BC : BD$ .

For the triangles ACB, ADC having angles at C and D equal, and the angle common, have their third angles equal, and equiangular; and in like manner it will be the triangles ACB, CDB are equiangular; these three triangles ACB, ADC, CDB equiangular, will have the sides about angles proportional; thus we get  $AD : DC :: DC : DB$ , and  $AB : AC :: AC : AD$ ,  $BC : : BC : BD$ . (Th. 38.)

**THEOR. XLIV. fig. 61.** Equiangular triangles are to each other as the squares of their like sides.

Let ABC, DEF, be two equiangular triangles AB and DE being their homologous or AL DN squares on these sides. The triangle ABC is to the triangle DEF as the square AL to the square DN. Draw GG and FH parallel to AB and DE, and join BK and FL; triangles ACG, DFH are equiangular (Cor. 3.); therefore  $AC : DF :: CG : FH$  but the triangles ABC, DEF being equiangular we have  $AC : DF :: AB : DE$ ; therefore by equality of ratios, we have  $CG : FH :: AB : DE$ , and by alternation,  $CG : AB :: FH : DE$ . Now  $CG : AB ::$  triangle ABC : triangle DEF (Th. 35, Cor.); and in like manner  $FH : DE ::$  triangle DEF : triangle DME, therefore triangle ABC : triangle DEF :: triangle DEF : triangle DME, therefore triangle ABC : triangle DEF :: triangle ABC : triangle DME, and by alternation triangle ABC : triangle DEF :: triangle ABC : triangle DME. Therefore the triangle ABC is to the triangle DEF as the square AL to the square DN.

**THEOR. XLV, fig. 62.** Similar rectilinear figures are to each other as the squares of their like sides.

Let ABCDE, FGHIK be two similar figures the like sides being AB and FG, BC and HI, &c.; the figure ABCDE will be to the figure FGHIK as the square of AB to the square of FG. Join BE, BD, GK, GI. Because the angles at E and F are equal, and BA : AE :: GF : FG, triangles BAE, GFK are equiangular

# G E O M

EB : FK : KG, but AE : ED :: FK  
 (p.), therefore BE : ED :: GK : KI.  
 Angles AED, FKI are equal, and the an-  
 gles FKG have been proved equal; there-  
 fore BED, GKI are equal; thus the  
 ED, GKI are also equiangular, and in  
 ay it may be shown that the triangles  
 are equiangular. The triangle ABE  
 as the square of BE to the square of  
 s, as the triangle EBD to the triangle  
 14.), and in like manner it will appear,  
 s to KGI as DBC to IGH: Therefore  
 figure ABCDE is to the figure FGHK,  
 gle ABE to the triangle FGK (Th. 37.);  
 the square of AB to the square of FG

From this proposition it may be  
 ed, that circles are to one another as  
 of their diameters. And in general,  
 ilar plane figures whatever, are to one  
 the squares of their like parts.  
 BCDEF, GHKLMN, (fig. 63.) be any  
 polygons, of the same number of sides,  
 circles whose diameters are AD, GL.  
 FO to the centre of the one polygon,  
 NP to the centre of the other. The  
 F, GPN, standing each upon the same  
 whole circumference, are evidently e-  
 consequently the isosceles triangles, AOF,  
 imilar: Thus it appears that each of the  
 made up of the same number of simi-  
 s; therefore the polygon, ABCDEF, is  
 gon, GHKLMN, as the triangle AOF  
 gle GPN; that is, as the square of AO  
 re of GP, or as the square of the dia-  
 to the square of the diameter GL. Now  
 e the number of the sides of the polygon,  
 s, that their proportion to each other will  
 ; namely, that of the squares of the dia-  
 their circumscribing circles. By suppo-  
 mber of the sides of the polygons con-  
 creased, it is evident that their areas will  
 more and more to the areas of their cir-  
 circles, which may be considered as  
 ; for it may be demonstrated, that a  
 ay have its sides so numerous as to dif-  
 re area of its circumscribing circle by  
 y assignable quantity. Hence we may  
 that the area of the circles themselves  
 h other the same proportion as their in-  
 polygons; namely that of the squares of  
 ra.

## . III. Of PLANES and SOLIDS.

### DEFINITIONS.

**COMMON SECTION** of two planes, is  
 which they meet, or cut each other.  
**PERPENDICULAR** to a  
 straight line is **PERPENDICULAR** to a  
 n it is perpendicular to every line which  
 that plane.  
**PERPENDICULAR** to another,  
 right line in the one, which is perpen-  
 their line of common section, is perpen-  
 the other.  
**INCLINATION** of one plane to another,  
 le they form between them, is the angle  
 by two right lines, drawn from any

# E T R Y.

357.

point in the common section, and at right angles  
 to the same, one of these lines in each plane.

71. **PARALLEL PLANES** are such as being pro-  
 duced ever so far both ways, will never meet; or  
 which are every where at an equal perpendicular  
 distance.

72. A **SOLID** is that which has length, breadth,  
 and thickness.

73. A **PRISM** is a solid whose ends are parallel,  
 equal, and like plane figures; and its sides con-  
 necting those ends, are parallelograms. Fig. 64.

74. A **PARALLELOPIPED**, or **PARALLELOPIPE-  
 DON**, is a solid bound by six parallelograms, every  
 opposite two of which are equal, alike, and paral-  
 lel. If the bounding planes are rectangles, it is a  
**RECTANGULAR PARALLELOPIPEDON**. Fig. 65.

75. A **CUBE** is a rectangular parallelopipe-  
 don, whose six bounding sides are squares. Fig. 66.

76. A **CYLINDER** is a solid, conceived to be ge-  
 nerated by the revolution of a rectangle about one  
 of its sides, supposed to be at rest. The fixed line,  
 about which it revolves, is called its **AXIS**. Fig. 67.

77. A **PYRAMID** is a solid, whose base is any  
 right-lined figure, and its sides triangles, having  
 all their vertices meeting at a point above the base,  
 called the **VERTEX** of the pyramid. Fig. 68.

77. A **CONE** is a solid, conceived to be genera-  
 ted by the revolution of a right angled triangle a-  
 bout its perpendicular, which fixed line is called  
 the **AXIS** of the cone. Fig. 69.

78. A **SPHERE** is a solid described by the revo-  
 lution of a semicircle about its diameter; the fixed  
 line, about which it revolves, is called the **AXIS**  
 of the sphere. Fig. 114.

**THEOR. XLVI, fig. 70.** A **PERPENDICULAR** is  
 the shortest line that can be drawn from any point  
 to a plane.

Let AB be perpendicular to the plane DE, then  
 any other line, as AC, drawn from the same point  
 A to the plane, will be longer than AB. Join BC;  
 then ABC is a right angle, hence BAC is less than  
 a right angle, and consequently BA less than BC.  
 (Th. 13.)

**COR.** A perpendicular measures the distance of  
 any point from a plane.

**THEOR. XLVII, fig. 71.** The common section  
 of two planes is a straight line.

Let ACBDA, AEBFA, be two planes cutting  
 each other, and A, B two points in which the two  
 planes meet; the straight line joining these points  
 will be the common intersection of the planes.  
 For, because the straight line AB touches both  
 planes at the points A, B, it touches them in all  
 other points (Def. 5.); this line is therefore com-  
 mon to both planes, that is, their common inter-  
 section is a straight line.

**THEOR. XLVIII, fig. 72.** If a straight line be  
 perpendicular to two other straight lines, at their  
 common intersection, it will be perpendicular to  
 the plane of those straight lines.

Let the line AB make right angles with the lines  
 AC, AD, it will be perpendicular to the plane  
 CDE, which passes through these lines. For, if  
 the line AB were not perpendicular to the plane  
 CDE, another plane might pass through the  
 point A, to which AB would be perpendicular;  
 but this is impossible, for since the angles BAC,  
 BAD,

BAD,

$\angle B A D$ , are right angles, this other plane must pass through the points  $C, D$ . Hence this plane passing through the points  $A, C$  of the line  $AC$ , and also through the points  $A, D$  of the line  $AD$ , it will pass through both these lines, and therefore be the same plane with the former.

**COR.** If a straight line stand at right angles to each of three straight lines at the same point, these three lines are in one plane.

**THEOR. XLIX. fig. 73.** If two straight lines be perpendicular to the same plane, they will be parallel to each other.

Let  $AB$  and  $CD$  be both perpendicular to the plane  $EF$ ; these lines are parallel. Join the points  $B$  and  $D$ , and draw  $DG$  perpendicular to  $BD$ , in the plane  $EF$ ; make  $DG$  equal to  $BA$ , and join  $AD, AG$ . The triangles  $B D G, D B A$ , have the sides  $DG, BA$ , equal, and  $BD$  common to both; the angles  $B D G, D B A$  are also equal, being right angles; therefore these triangles are identical, (Th. 1.) hence  $BG$  is equal to  $AD$ , and the triangles  $ABG, GDA$  have two sides  $AB, BG$  of the one, equal to two sides  $GD, DA$  of the other, each to each, and the side  $AG$  common to both; therefore these also are identical (Th. 5.) hence the angle  $ADG$  is equal to  $BDG$ , that is to a right angle. Hence it appears that  $DG$  is perpendicular to the lines  $BD, AD$ ; and it is also perpendicular to  $DC$ ; (Def. 68.) Therefore the lines  $BD, DA, DC$  are in the same plane. (Th. 48, Cor.) Since it thus appears that  $AB, CD$ , lines in the same plane, are both perpendicular to a third line  $BD$ , the lines  $AB, CD$  are parallel. (Th. 8.)

**COR.** If two lines be parallel, and one of them perpendicular to any plane, the other will also be perpendicular to the same plane.

**THEOR. L. fig. 74.** If two planes cut each other at right angles, and a straight line be drawn in one of the planes, perpendicular to their common intersection, it will be perpendicular to the other plane.

Let the planes  $ACBD, AEBF$ , cut each other at right angles, and the line  $CG$  be perpendicular to their common section  $AB$ ; then will  $CG$  be perpendicular to the plane  $AEBF$ . For, let  $EG$  be perpendicular to  $AB$ , thus the angle  $CGE$  is the angle of inclination of the planes (Def. 79.), and is therefore a right angle; since therefore the line  $CG$  is perpendicular to the two lines  $AG, GE$ , it is perpendicular to the plane  $AEBF$ , in which these lines are drawn. (Th. 48.)

**THEOR. LI. fig. 75.** Planes, which are perpendicular to the same straight line, are parallel to one another.

Let the planes  $EF, GH$ , be perpendicular to the same line  $AB$ ; these planes are parallel. For, draw any straight line  $CD$  parallel to  $AB$ , meeting the planes in  $C$  and  $D$ , join  $AC, BD$ . Then  $CD$  as well as  $AB$  is perpendicular to both planes (Th. 49. Cor.); thus  $ABCD$  will be a rectangle, and consequently  $AB$  equal to  $CD$ , and in the same way it may be shewn, that all other perpendiculars terminated by both planes are equal; therefore the planes are parallel. (Def. 71.)

**COR.** Hence straight lines perpendicular to one of two parallel planes are also perpendicular to the other plane.

**THEOR. LII. fig. 76.** If two straight lines be parallel to each other, and a third line be drawn parallel to a third line, though not in the same plane with it, they will be parallel to each other.

Let  $AB, CD$ , be each parallel to the line  $EF$ , though not in the same plane with it; shall be parallel to  $CD$ . For, let  $GH$  be perpendicular to  $EF$ , in the planes  $AF, CE$ , the parallels; then shall  $GF$  be perpendicular to the plane passing by  $HGI$  (Th. 48.); and will also be perpendicular to the same plane (Th. 49. Cor.), and therefore parallel. (Th. 49.)

**THEOR. LIII. fig. 77.** If two lines that are parallel to two other lines, and each other, tho' not in the same plane, the angles contained by these lines will be equal.

Let the lines  $AB, AC$ , be parallel to the lines  $DE, DF$ , then will the angles  $BAC, EDF$  be equal. For, take  $AB, AC, DE, DF$ , equal, and join  $EB, FC, BC, EF$ . Then the triangles  $DE, EF$ , being equal and parallel, the line  $DE$  will also be equal and parallel, (Th. 15.) the same reason  $AD, CF$ , are equal and parallel, therefore  $CF$  is parallel to  $BE$ , (Th. 51.) equal to it; hence  $BC$  is equal to  $EF$ . The triangles  $ABC, DEF$ , are in all respects equal; and therefore the angles  $B, E$  are equal.

**THEOR. LIV. fig. 78.** The sections of a plane cutting two parallel planes are parallel to each other.

Let the parallel planes  $AB, CD$ , be cut by the plane  $EPHG$ , in the lines  $EF, GH$ . These lines are parallel. For, suppose  $EG, FH$ , to be parallel to each other in the plane  $EF$ ; let  $EI, FK$ , be perpendicular to the line  $EG$ , and let  $IG, KH$ , be joined: Then  $EG, KH$ , are parallel, and  $EI, FK$ , being both perpendicular to the plane  $CD$ , are also parallel to each other. (Th. 49.) therefore the angle  $IFK$  is equal to the angle  $GEI$  (Th. 53.); but the angles  $I, E$  are equal, being right angles; therefore the triangles  $FKH, EIG$ , are equiangular, (Th. 1.) and the sides  $FK, EI$ , being equal, it follows, that the sides  $FH, EG$ , are equal (Th. 2.); but these two lines are parallel as well as equal; therefore also  $EF$  and  $GH$  join their extremities are parallel. (Th. 16.)

We have now given the most material demonstrations, with their demonstrations, of the most important parts of geometry, as far as relates to PLANE and to the positions and intersections of planes. As to what relates to SOLID geometry, such as the proportion of similar Solids, the proportion of Pyramids to Prisms, the Cone to the Cylinder, and of the Sphere to the Cylinder, &c.; it can hardly be expected that we can find room for the work as ours, we can find room for the parts of geometry in so diffuse and rigid as they are treated of in books professing upon the subject. We shall therefore proceed to such as wish to acquire the true geometrical reasoning, as are contained in the works of Euclid and Archimedes; particularly on his sphere and cylinder, and on spheroids. In the 11th and 12th books and in Archimedes's works, we may find that very refined mode of geometrical



*Method of Exhaustions*, applied to describe relations which solids bear to each other bounded by plane or curve surfaces. *Remarks* however, relating to the mensuration of bodies, may be more concisely, and rigidly investigated by the methods of *analysis*. See *FLUXIONS*. What has already demonstrated in this treatise will be found for connecting GEOMETRY with ALGEBRA, SECTION, PERSPECTIVE, NAVIGATION, TRIGONOMETRY, PLANE and SPHERICAL, the different branches of mixed MATHEMATICS, such as OPTICS, &c. all which are treatises of sciences, in their order, in this *Ve* shall, therefore, in the second part, PRACTICAL GEOMETRY, concisely state the rules by which geometry is to be applied to a few easy but useful geometrical problems to the mensuration of all the figures, superficial or solid, that commonly occur in ordinary affairs of life.

PART II.

PRACTICAL GEOMETRY,

APPLICATION OF THE PRINCIPLES.

BOOK I. GEOMETRICAL PROBLEMS.

LEM I. *fig. 79.* To divide a given line AB into equal parts.—1. From the points A and B, with any distance greater than half the line, describe arcs cutting each other in *m* and *n*. 2. Through these points draw the line *mn*, and it will cut AB, where it cuts AB, will be the middle point required.

II. *fig. 80.* To divide a given angle ABC into equal parts.—1. From the point B, with any radius, describe the arc AC. 2. And from the same, or any other radius, describe arcs cutting each other in *n*. 3. Through the point *n*, draw *nB*, and it will bisect the angle ABC, as required.

III. *fig. 81, 82.* From a given point C, to draw a straight line AB, to erect a perpendicular. I. When the point is near the middle of the line. *Fig. 81.*—1. On each side of the point C, take two equal distances *Cn*, *Cm*. 2. From the points *n* and *m*, with any radius greater than *Cn* or *Cm*, describe arcs cutting each other in *s*. 3. Through the point *s*, draw the line *sC*, and it will be the perpendicular required.

II. When the point is at or near the end of the line. *Fig. 82.*—1. Take any point *o*, and from it, with any radius or distance *oC*, describe the arc cutting the line AB in *n*. 2. From the point *n*, draw the line *nC*, and it will be the perpendicular required.

III. *fig. 83, 84.* From a given point C, to draw a straight line AB, to let fall a perpendicular. I. When the point is nearly opposite to the end of the line. *Fig. 83.*—1. From the point C, with any radius, describe the arc *mn*, cutting the line AB in *n* and *m*. 2. From the points *n* and *m*, with the same or any other radius, describe two arcs cutting each other in *s*. 3. Through the point *s*, draw the line *sC*, and *CG* will be the perpendicular required.

CASE II. When the point is nearly opposite to the end of the line. *Fig. 84.*—1. To any point *m* in the line AB draw the line *Cm*. 2. Bisect the line *Cm*, or divide it into two equal parts, in the point *n*. 3. From *n*, with the radius *nm*, or *nG*, describe the arc *CG*, cutting AB in *G*. 4. Through the point C, draw the line *CG*, and it will be the perpendicular required.

PROB. V. *fig. 85.* At a given point D, to make an angle equal to a given angle, ABC.—1. From the point B with any radius describe the arc *nm*, cutting the legs BA, BC, in the points *m*, *n*. 2. Draw the line *DE*, and from the point D, with the same radius as before, describe the arc *rs*. 3. Take the distance *mn* on the former arc, and apply it to the arc *rs*, from *r* to *s*. 4. Through the points *Ds* draw the line *DF*, and the angle EDF will be equal to the angle ABC, as was required.

PROB. VI. To draw a line parallel to a given line AB. *Fig. 86, 87.*

CASE I. When the parallel line is to pass through a given point C. *Fig. 86.*—1. To AB from the point C, draw any straight line *Cm*. 2. From the point *m*, with the radius *mC*, describe the arc *Cn*, cutting AB in *n*. 3. And with the same radius, from the point C, describe the arc *mr*. 4. Take the distance *Cn*, and apply it to the arc *mr* from *m* to *r*. 5. Through the points *Cr*, draw the line *CG*, and it will be parallel to AB, as required.

CASE II. When the parallel line is to be at a given distance from AB. *Fig. 87.*—1. From any two points *r*, *s*, in the line AB, with a radius equal to the given distance, describe the arcs *n*, *m*. 2. Draw the line *DG*, to touch those arcs without cutting them, and it will be parallel to AB, as was required. *N.B.* The former case of this problem, as well as several other operations of practical geometry, may be more easily effected by a mathematical instrument known by the name of a *parallel ruler*.

PROB. VII. *fig. 88.* To divide a given line AB, into any proposed number of equal parts.—1. From one end of the line A, draw *Am*, making any angle with AB; and from B the other end, draw *Bn*, making an equal angle *ABn*. 2. In each of the lines *Am*, *Bn*, beginning at A and B, set off as many equal parts, of any length, as AB is to be divided into. 3. Join the parts *A5*, *14*, *23*, &c. and AB will be divided as required. *Note.* *Bn* may be drawn parallel to *Am* by means of a parallel ruler.

PROB. VIII. *fig. 89.* To find the centre of a given circle, or one already described.—1. Draw any chord AB, and bisect it with the perpendicular *CD*. 2. Bisect *CD* in like manner with the chord *EF*, and their intersection O will be the centre required. *Note.* The centre of a given circle, or any arch of it, may be found as in the next problem by taking three points in the circumference.

PROB. IX. *fig. 90.* To describe the circumference of a circle thro' three given points A, B, C.—1. From the middle point draw the lines or chords, BA and BC. 2. Bisect these chords perpendicularly with lines meeting each other in O. 3. From the point of intersection O, with the distance

distance

# G E O M E T R Y.

OA, OB, or OC describe the circle ABC, and it will be that required.

PROB. X. *fig. 91, 92.* To draw a tangent to a given circle that shall pass thro' a given point A.

CASE I. When the point A is in the circumference of the circle. *Fig. 91.*—1. From the given point A, to the centre of the circle, draw the radius OA. 2. Through the point A draw CD perpendicular to OA, and it will be the tangent required.

CASE II. When the point A is without the circle. *Fig. 92.*—1. To the point A from the centre O draw the line OA and bisect it in *n*. 2. From the point *n* with the radius *nA* or *nO* describe the semicircle ABO, cutting the given circle in B. 3. Through the points A, B, draw the line BA, and it will be the tangent required.

PROB. XI. *fig. 93.* To find a third proportional to two given lines A, B.—1. From the point C, draw two right lines, making any angle FCG. 2. In these lines take CE equal to the first term A, and CG, CD, each equal to the second term B. 3. Join ED, and draw GF parallel to it, and CF will be the third proportional required: That is, CE (A) : CG (B) : : CD (B) : CF.

PROB. XII. *fig. 94.* To find a fourth proportional to three given right lines A, B, C.—1. From the point D, draw two right lines, making any angle GDH. 2. In these lines, take DF, equal to the first term A, DE, equal to the second term B, and DH, equal to the third term C. 3. Join FE, and draw HG parallel to it, and DG will be the fourth proportional required: That is, DF (A) : DE (B) : : DH (C) : DG.

PROB. XIII. *fig. 95.* To find a mean proportional between two given right lines A, B.—1. Draw any right line in which take CE equal to A, and ED equal to B. 2. Bisect CD in O, and with OD, or OC, as radius, describe the semicircle CFD. 3. From the given point E, draw EF perpendicular to CD, and it will be the mean proportional required. That is, CE (A) : EF : : EF : ED (B).

PROB. XIV. *fig. 96.* To divide a given line AB, in the same proportion with which another given line C is divided.—1. From the point A draw AD equal to the given line C, and making any angle with AB. 2. To AD apply the several divisions of C, and join DB. 3. Draw the several lines 1, 2, 3, &c. each parallel to DB, and the line AB will be divided as required:—That is, the parts A 1, 12, 23, 34, 4 B, on the line AB, will be proportional to the parts 01, 12, 23, 34, 45 on the line C.

PROB. XV. *fig. 97.* To make a triangle whose three sides shall be respectively equal to three given lines A, B, C.—1. Draw a line DE equal to one of the given lines C. 2. On the point D, with a radius equal to B, describe an arc. 3. And on the point E, with a radius equal to A, describe another arc, cutting the former in F. 4. Draw the lines DF, EF, and DFE will be the triangle required.

COR. Hence it is evident in what way an equilateral triangle may be described upon a given straight line.

Note. The three given lines must be of such a

length that any two of them must be greater than the third.

PROB. XVI. *fig. 98.* Upon a given line describe a square.—1. From the point B perpendicular, and equal to AB, and C, with the radius AB, describe two arcs cutting each other in D. 3. Draw the line CD and the figure ABCD will be the square required.

PROB. XVII. *fig. 99.* To describe a rectangle whose length and breadth shall be equal to two given lines AB and C.—1. At the point B, in the line AB, erect the perpendicular BD equal to C. 2. From the points B, D, with the radii AB and C, describe two arcs cutting each other in E. 3. Join EA and ED, and the figure ABCE will be the rectangle required.

PROB. XVIII. *fig. 100.* In a given triangle to inscribe a circle.—1. Bisect the angles A and B by the straight lines AO and BO. 2. Let O be the point of intersection O; let fall the perpendicular ON, and it will be the radius of the circle required.

PROB. XIX. *fig. 101.* About a given triangle ABC, to circumscribe a circle.—1. Bisect the sides AB, BC, by the perpendiculars OD, OE. 2. From the point of intersection O, with the distance OA, OB, or OC, describe the circle, and it will be that required.

PROB. XX. *fig. 102.* To make a figure similar to a given figure ABCDE.—1. Take A as the side of the figure required, and from A draw the diagonals AC, AD. 2. On the points b, c, d, draw bc, cd, de, parallel to CD, DE, and A b c d e will be similar to ABCDE. The same thing may also be done by the angles b, c, d, e, respectively equal to the angles D, E.

PROB. XXI. *fig. 103.* To construct a square on any given radius, AB.—1. Draw a perpendicular to AB, and on A as a centre, with the given radius AB, describe the arc BC, which shall be a quadrant. 2. On B, as a centre, with the given radius AB describe an arc cutting the first quadrant arc at D, then BD will be an arc of 30 degrees. 3. Take an arc DE equal to the quadrant BC will be divided into 3 parts, each containing 30°. 4. Let each of the parts ED, DC, be divided into 30 equal parts, must be done by trials, for it cannot be done by any direct geometrical method, and the quadrant will be divided into 90°. 5. On B, as a centre, with the distance between B and each of the divisions as radii be described to meet BC, as in the figure the distance, between B and any one of the divisions of the scale BC, will be equal to the corresponding arc of the quadrant.

PROB. XXII. *fig. 104.* To make a circle of any proposed number of degrees.—1. First 60 degrees from the scale of chords, take the point A, with this radius describe the arc Am. 2. Take the chord of the proposed number of degrees from the same scale, as from *n* to *m*. 3. From the point A draw a line An and Am, and they will form the angle required. 4. If the given angle be greater than 60 degrees it may be taken at twice.

XXIII. *fig. 104.* An angle, BAC, being given find the number of degrees it contains — by the angular point A with the chord of arcs describe the arc *nm* cutting the legs in parts *n* and *m*. 2. Take the distance *nm* by *R* to the scale of chords, and it will be degrees required. 3. When the distance is greater than 90°, it must be taken at *N 2*. Both this and the last problem are performed by means of a protractor, and graduated arc designed for the purpose. *fig. 105.*

XXIV. *fig. 106.* In a given circle, to describe a polygon of any proposed number of sides — Divide 360° by the number of sides, and make the angle AOB, at the centre, whose measure is equal to the degrees in the quotient. 2. Take two points A, B, and apply the chord AB, to the circumference the given number of times, and draw the polygon required.

XXV. *fig. 106.* On a given line AB to describe a regular polygon of any proposed number — 1. Divide 360° by the number of sides, subtract the quotient from 180 degrees. 2. The angles ABO and BAO each equal to the difference last found. 3. From the point B, describe a circle. 4. Apply a chord, AD, to the circumference the proposed number of times, and draw the polygon required. *Nota.* By this the circumference of a circle may be divided into any number of equal parts.

**I. Of the MENSURATION of LINES and ANGLES, as applied to the DETERMINATION of HEIGHTS and DISTANCES.**

Every magnitude is measured by a magnitude of the kind, called the *measuring unit*. Thus, a line is measured by a line, an angle by an angle, &c. by a surface, and a solid by a solid. Magnitudes being given, that is, their measures being determined by an actual application of the measuring unit, it is the business of mensuration to show how the measures of others, which depend on these, may be obtained. The art of mensuration that treats of lines and angles being chiefly concerned about measuring the sides and angles of a plane triangle, is called PLANE TRIGONOMETRY, which is treated of, as a distinct science, in a

part of our work, to which our present engagement necessarily refers it, is yet to be considered as forming a part of the general science of geometry. By the mensuration and protraction of lines and angles, the lengths, heights, depths, &c. of objects are determined. ACCESSIBLE LINES are measured by applying to them, a certain measure a number of times, as an inch, or yard; but INACCESSIBLE LINES must be measured by a measurement of angles and distances, by means of proper instruments, and the application of methods to be derived from the principles of geometry.

INSTRUMENTS commonly used for measuring heights and distances are, a *Chain*, a *Quadrant*, and a *Theodolite*.

The *Chain* is used for measuring those distances, which are to be given sides of triangles.

**C. PART II.**

The English chain is in length 4 poles or 66 feet. It consists of 100 equal links, made of iron, each link, therefore, should be 792 inches long. Every ten links, from one end to the middle of the chain, is distinguished by a mark made of brass.

A *Quadrant* is used for determining vertical angles; it is made of brass or wood, the radius being of any convenient length; the circumference is divided into 90 equal parts, and these parts subdivided as far as the dimensions of the quadrant will admit. A silver plummet is suspended by a thread from the centre, and two sights fixed on one of the radii. See *fig. 107.*

A *Square* is used for finding the proportion of the sides of a right angled triangle. It is made of the same materials. Two of its sides are divided each into 100 equal parts. This instrument is commonly called a *Geometrical Square*. See *fig. 109.*

A *Theodolite* is used for measuring horizontal, as well as vertical angles. It is a circle of brass divided into degrees, &c. having an index moveable above its centre, and is furnished with sights. The manner of applying these instruments will be explained in the following Problems.

PROBLEM I. To find the height of an accessible object standing upon level ground. *Fig. 110, 111.*

I. By THE QUADRANT, *fig. 110.* Let any convenient distance, BA, be measured by the chain, in a direct line from the foot of the perpendicular, BC, that falls from the top of the object. Then standing at the point A, let the quadrant be held as represented in the figure, so that the eye at D may see the top of the object C, along the side of the quadrant, DE. Now if the plummet hang freely, the line, FP, will be perpendicular to the horizon, and therefore parallel to BC; hence the angles DPP, DCI, are equal, and their complements GEP, CDE, also equal. Thus GN, the arch of the quadrant that is remote from the eye, will shew the number of degrees in the angle of elevation CDE. Whence, in the right angled triangle CED, the side DE (=AB), and the angle CDE being given, we may find CE by this proportion; as radius to the tangent of CDE so is DE to EC to which DA, the height of the eye above the ground, being added, we get the whole height of the object. If the angle of elevation be 45°, then DE = EC; that is, the distance measured is equal to the height of the object above the eye.

II. By the SQUARE *fig. 111.* Having measured AB as before, hold the square to the eye at D, as in the figure. Then, the plummet hanging freely, the line FP cuts off from the square a small triangle similar to CDE. Therefore we shall have the proportion of DE to EC; and the former being given, the latter may be found by the rule of proportion. Let *n* represent the number of equal parts which the plummet cuts off from the side DH or HG, towards the end D or G. Then,

1. When the plummet cuts the side GH remote from the eye, it is as 100 : *n* :: DE : EC. Hence, if in this case, DE = 100, then EC = *n*.

2. When it passes through the opposite angle H, we have a ratio of equality, DE = EC.

3. When it cuts the side DH contiguous to the eye, it is as *n* : 100 :: D'E : EC.

PROB.

PROB. II. To find the height of an inaccessible object. *Fig. 112.*

I. By the QUADRANT. From any convenient station B, measure the distance BA in a direct line with the foot of the object, and at both stations A, B, take the angles of elevation DAC, DBC. The difference of these angles will give the angle ADE. Then in the triangle ABD, from the principles of trigonometry we have this proportion; as sine of ADB to sine of DAB so is AB to DB; Next, in the triangle BDC, as radius to sine of B so is BD to DC; the height of the object as required

II. By the SQUARE. At the station A, find by the square the proportion of AC to CD, and at the station B find the ratio of CD to CB; hence the ratio of AC to CB will be given, and consequently that of AB to BC, from which BC, and consequently CD may be found. Let  $AB=d$ , and  $AC : CD :: m : n$  and  $BC : CD :: p : q$ , then

$CD = \frac{n q d}{m q - n p}$ . If at both stations the plummet cut the side of the square remote from the eye,

$CD = \frac{n q}{q-n} \times \frac{d}{100}$ . If the side contiguous to the eye,  $CD = \frac{100 d}{m-p}$ . If the plummet cut the opposite angles of the square at the first station B,

then  $CD = \frac{n d}{100-n}$ .

PROB. III. To find the distance of a given place from an inaccessible object. *Fig. 113.*

Let A be the inaccessible object, it is required to find its distance from the given station B. Measure any convenient distance BC, as the base of a triangle, whose vertex is at A. Then, the theodolite being placed at B, let the diameter be directed towards the station C, and the movable index towards the object A, and the intercepted arch shows the number of degrees in the angle ABC. In like manner let the angle BCA be measured, and the angle at A will be known by subtracting their sum from  $180^\circ$ . Then in the triangle CAB, BA may be found by the following proportion. As sine of A to sine of C, so is BC to BA.

PROB. IV. To find the distance between two inaccessible objects. *Fig. 114.*

Let a proper distance, CD, be measured as the base of two triangles whose vertices are at the objects A, B. Then the angles at C and D being measured by the theodolite, we find as in the last problem the sides AD, DB; and as the included angle ADB is given, the other angles of the triangle DBA may be found by the following proportion. As the sum of AD and BD, to their distance, so is the tangent of half the sum of the angles DBA, DAB, to the tangent of half their difference. Then  $\frac{1}{2}$  the difference of their angles added to  $\frac{1}{2}$  the sum gives the greater; and  $\frac{1}{2}$  the difference subtracted from half the sum leaves the lesser. In the triangle CDA we now know all the angles; also two of the sides; hence we may find AB by either of these proportions. As sine of DAB to sine of ADB so is DB to BA; or, as sine of ABD to sine of ADE so is DA to AB.

The methods here pointed out for measuring heights and distances are generally applicable. But it will not be difficult for a person acquainted with the principles of geometry, who may be provided with instruments, to fall upon other methods of determining the angles, or the relation of known lines to such as are to be found. Thus if the height of an object be required, the length of its shadow can be found, it is easy to see that by measuring at the foot of the shadow of an object whose height is known, we shall get the height required by the rule of proportion. For, from the two similar triangles, as the length of the shadow of either object to its height so is the length of the shadow of the other object to its height.

### SECT. III. Of the MENSURATION of FIGURES.

THE AREA of any plane figure is the measure of the space contained within its extremes, or without any regard to thickness. This content of the plane figure, is estimate by the number of little squares that may be contained; the side of those little measuring squares an inch, a foot, a yard, or any other fixity. And hence the area is said to be square inches, square feet, or square yards. Thus if the figure to be measured be the rectangle ABCD, *Fig. 115*, and the little square side is one inch, be the measuring unit  $p$  then, as often as the said little square is contained in the rectangle, so many square inches the rectangle is said to contain, which in the *Fig. 115* is 12. The least superficial measure is other measures being derived from it: as the table given in ARITHMETIC, p. 62.

PROB. I. To find the area of any parallelogram whether it be a square, a rectangle, a rhombus, or a rhomboid. *Fig. 13, 14, 15, 17.*

RULE I. Multiply the length by the perpendicular breadth, or height, and the product is the area.

If two sides and an included angle of a parallelogram are given to find the area, then measure the following rule.

PROB. II. As radius to the side of the parallelogram, so is the product of the two sides to the area.

PROB. III. To find the area of a triangle

RULE I. When the base and perpendicular height are given, Multiply the base by the perpendicular height, and half the product is the area.

RULE II. When two sides and the included angle are given. Multiply the two sides, and take half their product: Then multiply by the sine of the given angle, so is that product to the area.

RULE III. When the three sides are given together the three sides, and take half the sum. Next subtract each side severally from half the sum, thus obtaining three remainders, multiply the half sum and those three remainders together, and extract the square root of the product for the area of the triangle.

PROB. III. To find the area of a parallelogram. *Fig. 19.* Add together the two parallel

multiply their half sum by the perpendicular  
th or distance between them, and half the  
uct will be the area.

os. IV. To find the area of any trapezium,  
3. Divide the trapezium into two triangles  
lagonal; then find the areas of these triangles  
d them together.

esse let two perpendiculars be drawn to the  
nal, from the opposite angles, the sum of  
eing multiplied by the diagonal; half the  
ct shall be the area required.

os. V. To find the area of any irregular po-  
Fig. 116.

ew diagonals dividing the proposed polygon  
rapeziums and triangles. Then find the areas  
these separately, and add them together for  
ment of the whole polygon.

os. VI. To find the area of any regular po-  
Fig. 116.

LE 1. Multiply the perimeter of the polygon,  
m of its sides, by the perpendicular drawn  
its centre on one of its sides, and take half  
roduct for the area.

LE 11. Square the side of the polygon; then  
ply that square by the area, or multiplier, set  
h its name in the following table, and the  
ct will be the area.

of sides.	Names.	Areas, or Multipliers.
3	Trigon or Triangle,	0.433013
4	Tetragon or Square,	1.000000
5	Pentagon,	1.720477
6	Hexagon,	2.598076
7	Heptagon,	3.639912
8	Octagon,	4.828427
9	Nonagon,	6.181824
10	Decagon,	7.694209
11	Undecagon,	9.365640
12	Dodecagon,	11.196152

. The numbers in the above table express  
as of the regular polygons, when the linear  
unity.

os. VII. To find the diameter and circumfe-  
re of a circle, the one for the other. Fig. 20.  
to 22, so is the diameter to the circumfe-

Or, 25 1 to 3.1416 so is the diameter to  
circumference.

os. VIII. To find the length of any arc of a

e. Multiply the degrees in the given arc by  
ius of the circle, and the product again by  
imal .01745 for the length of the arc.

os. IX. To find the area of a circle.

LE 1. Multiply half the circumference by  
diameter. Or multiply the whole circumfe-  
re by the whole diameter and take  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the  
t for the area.

LE 11. Square the diameter and multiply that  
by the decimal .7854, for the area.

os. X. To find the area of a circular ring.

LE 1. Take the difference between the areas  
circles, as found by the last problem. Or,  
the same thing, subtract the square of the  
meter from the square of the greater, and  
r their difference by .7854.

PROB. XI. To find the area of the sector of a  
circle. Fig. 22.

RULE 1. Multiply the radius, or half diameter,  
by half the arc of the sector, for the area. Or,  
multiply the whole diameter by the whole arc of  
the sector, and take  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the product.

RULE 11. As 360 is to the degrees in the arc of  
the sector, so is the area of the whole circle to  
the area of the sector. This is evident, because the  
sector is proportional to the length of the arc, or  
to the degrees contained in it.

PROB. XII. To find the area of a segment of a  
circle. Fig. 21.

RULE. Find the area of the sector, having the  
same arc with the segment, by the last problem.

Find also the area of the triangle, formed by  
the chord of the segment and the two radii of the  
sector.

Then take the sum of these two for the answer,  
when the segment is greater than a semicircle: or  
take their difference for the answer, when it is less  
than a semicircle: As is evident by inspection.

PROB. XIII. To find the area of an ellipse.

RULE. Multiply the product of the transverse  
and conjugate axes by the decimal .7854, the re-  
sult will be the area.

PROB. XIV. To find the area of a parabola, its  
base and height being given.

RULE. Multiply the base by the height, and  $\frac{2}{3}$  of  
the product is the area.

#### SECT. IV. Of LAND-SURVEYING.

THE most useful instruments for surveying are  
the CHAIN, and PLANE TABLE. A statute acre  
of land being 160 square poles, the chain is made  
4 poles, or 66 feet in length, that 10 square chains,  
or 100,000 square links, may make a square acre.  
A chain of that length is commonly called Gunter's  
chain, but in Scotland land is measured with a  
chain 24 Scots ells, or 74 feet in length. Hence  
it follows that the Scots acre is to the English in  
the proportion of 1369 to 1089, or nearly as 5 to 4.  
The plane table is used for drawing a plan of the  
field, and taking such angles as are necessary to  
calculate its area. It is of a rectangular form, and  
surrounded with a moveable frame, by means of  
which, a sheet of paper may be fixed to its sur-  
face. It is furnished with an index, by which a  
line may be drawn upon the paper in the direction  
of any object in the field; and with scales of equal  
parts; by which such lines may be made propor-  
tional to the distances of the objects from the  
plane table, when measured by the chain; and its  
frame is divided into degrees for observing angles.

PROB. 1. To measure a field with the chain.

Let  $A^mBCD^q$  (fig. 117.) represent the field to  
be measured. Let it be resolved into the triangles  
 $A^mB$ ,  $ABD$ ,  $BCD$ ,  $A^qD$ . Let all the sides of the  
large triangles  $ABD$ ,  $BCD$ , and the perpendicu-  
lars of the small ones,  $A^mB$ ,  $A^qD$ , from their ver-  
tices  $m$ ,  $q$ , be measured by the chain, and the areas  
calculated: their amount is the area of the whole.

But if, on account of the curvature of its  
sides, the field cannot be wholly resolved into tri-  
angles, then either a straight line may be drawn  
over the curve side, so that the parts cut off from  
the field, and those added to it may be nearly equal;

qual; or, without going beyond the bounds of the field, the curvilinear spaces may be taken so small, that they may be considered as a number of trapezoids and measured accordingly.

PROB. II. To measure a field with the plane table.

Let ABCDE (*fig. 118.*) be the field, and let the plane table be fixed about the middle of it, as at F, and its distances FA, FB, FC, &c. from the several corners of the field be measured with the chain. Let the index be directed from any point assumed on the paper, to the points A, B, C, &c. successively; and the lines Fa, Fb, Fc, &c. drawn in these directions. Let the angles which these lines contain be observed, and the lines themselves be made proportional to the distances measured, by means of a scale of equal parts, such as that represented by *fig. 107.* Then their extremities being joined, there will be formed a figure *abcde*, similar to that of the field; and the area of the field may be found, by calculating the areas of the several triangles of which it consists.

PROB. III. To plan a field from a given base line. *Fig. 119.*

Let two stations A, B, be taken within the field, but not in the same straight line with any of its corners, and let their distance be measured. Then the plane table being fixed at A, and the point *a* assumed on its surface directly above A; let its index be directed to B, and the straight line *ab* drawn along the side of it, to represent AB; also let the index be directed from *a* to an object at the corner C, and an indefinite line drawn in that direction; and so of every other corner successively.

Next let the plane table be set at B, so that *b* may be directly over B; and *ba* in the same direction with BA; and let a straight line be drawn from *b*, in the direction BC; then *c* the intersection of that line with the former, it is evident, will determine the position of the point C, and the triangle *abc*, on the paper, will be similar to ABC in the field. In this manner are all the other angular points to be determined; and these being joined, there will be formed a representation of the field.

If the angles at both stations were observed, as the distance between them is given, the area of the field might be calculated from these data; but the operation is too tedious for practice. It is usual, therefore, to measure such lines in the figure that has been constructed, as will render the calculation easy.

#### SECT. V. Of the MENSURATION of SOLIDS.

By the mensuration of solids are determined the spaces included by contiguous surfaces, and the sum of the measures of these including surfaces, is the whole surface or superficies of the body.

The measure of a solid, is called its solidity, capacity, or contents.

Solids are measured by cubes, whose sides are inches, or feet, or yards, &c.; and hence the solidity of a body is said to be so many cubic inches, feet, yards, &c. as will fill its capacity, or space, or another of equal magnitude. The least solid measure is the cubic inch, other cubes being taken from it, according to the proportion in the following TABLE.

1728	cubic inches,	make 1 cubic f
27	cubic feet,	1 cubic y
166 $\frac{2}{3}$	cubic yards,	1 cubic p
64000	cubic poles,	1 cubic f
512	cubic furlongs,	1 cubic r

PROB. I. To find the superficies of a solid.

RULE. Multiply the perimeter of  $\sigma$  the length or height of the solid, and it will be the surface of all the sides. To also the areas of the two ends when required.

NOTE. The cube and parallelepiped to be understood as coming under the denomination of a prism, agreeably to De

PROB. II. To find the surface of a pyramid or cone. *Fig. 62, 69.*

RULE. Multiply the perimeter of  $\sigma$  the base height, or length of the side, an product will be the surface of the side sum of the areas of all the triangles within it. To which add the area of the end, required.

PROB. III. To find the surface of  $\sigma$  of a pyramid or cone, being the lower part the top is cut off by a plane parallel to

RULE. Add together the perimeters of the ends, and multiply their sum by the side taking half the product for the answer.

PROB. IV. To find the solid content of a prism or cylinder. *Fig. 64, 65, 66, 67.*

RULE. Find the area of the base whatever the figure may be; and multiply the length of the prism or cylinder, for content.

NOTE. The cube and parallelepiped may be considered as prisms, as in Prob. I.

PROB. V. To find the content of a sphere or cone. *Fig. 68, 69.*

RULE. Find the area of the base, and multiply that area by the perpendicular height, and take  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the product for the content.

PROB. VI. To find the solidity of  $\sigma$  of a cone or pyramid.

RULE. Add into one sum, the areas of the two ends, and the mean proportional between them, that is the square root of their sum, and  $\frac{2}{3}$  of their sum will be a mean area being multiplied by the perpendicular height of the frustum, will give its content.

PROB. VII. To find the surface of a spherical segment of it. *Fig. 120.*

RULE I. Multiply the circumference of the sphere by its diameter, and the product will be the whole surface of it.

RULE II. Multiply the square of the diameter by 3.1416, and the product will be the surface of a segment or frustum required.

Multiply the whole circumference by the height of the part required.

PROB. VIII. To find the solidity of a spherical segment or globe. *Fig. 120.*

RULE I. Multiply the surface by the diameter, and take  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the product for the content.

RULE II. Multiply the cube of the diameter by .5235 for the content.

PROB. IX. To find the solid content of a spherical segment. *Fig. 120.*

- From three times the diameter of . take double the height of the segment; multiply the remainder by the square of the diameter the product by the number 5236 for t.
- To three times the square of the radius segment's base, add the square of its height multiply the sum by the height, and it by 5236 for the content.
- To find the solid content of a spheroid

of measuring the capacities of all kinds of vessels, and determining the quantities of fluids, or other matters contained in them. These are principally pipes, tuns, barrels, &c. also hacks, coolers, vats, &c. The solid contents of vessels of the most common figures may be found from the preceding rules in feet, or inches, &c. and thence their contents in liquid measure may be found, by considering that 231 cubic inches make a wine gallon, and 252 inches an ale gallon.

A spheroid is a solid formed by the revolution of a semiellipse about either of its axes.

In ascertaining the contents of vessels it may also be useful to know that the Winchester bushel contains 2150 cubic inches; the barley firloot contains 31 Scots pints, and the wheat firloot 21 pints and 1 mutchkin. Concerning the capacity of the Scots pint, however there is some uncertainty, for although the standard jug which is kept by the borough of Stirling, was supposed to contain 105 cubic inches, yet, after several careful trials, it was found to contain only about 103½ inches. The pint *stoups* however, are still regulated to contain 105 inches, and the customary ale measures are about ⅞ above that standard.

- Multiply the square of the revolving fixed axis, and the product again by the result is the solidity required.
- XL. To find the solid content of the sum of a spheroid, the ends being supular, or parallel to the revolving axis.

It has been usual to divide casks into four varieties of forms, denominated as follows from the supposed resemblance they bear to the frustums of solids of the same names: viz.

To twice the square of the middle diameter the square of the diameter of either end this sum multiplied by the length of the cask, and the product again by 2618 will give the solidity; where note, that 2618 is ⅓ of 7854.

1. The middle frustum of a spheroid.
2. The middle frustum of a parabolic spindle.
3. The two equal frustums of a paraboloid.
4. The two equal frustums of a cone.

III. To find the solid content of a paraboloid, or paraboloid. *Fig. 122.*  
A parabolic conoid is a solid formed by the revolution of a semiparabola about the axis, and diameter.

The contents of casks of these different forms, may be found from the rules already given, for the mensuration of the figures which the casks are supposed to resemble the most; and thence their content in gallons, or pints, by dividing the content in cubic inches by the number of cubic inches contained in the respective measures.

Multiply the area of the base by half the length, and the product will be the content.

III. To find the solid content of the frustum of a paraboloid, when its ends are perpendicular to the axis of the solid. *Fig. 122.*  
Multiply the sum of the squares of the diameters of the two ends, by the height of the frustum, and the product again by 3927, and it will give the solidity; where it may be observed is ⅓ of 11778.

The form that may be assigned to a cask, it is evident, is altogether hypothetical; and therefore it seldom happens, that the content, as found by experiment, agrees exactly with that found by calculation.

IV. To find the solid content of a parabolic spindle. *Fig. 123.*  
A parabolic spindle is a solid generated by the revolution of a parabola about its base or axis.

The calculations are also very troublesome and inconvenient, and for this reason excise officers generally determine the contents of casks by means of scales constructed for the purpose.

Multiply the area of the middle section by the length and ⅓ of the product is the solidity required.

Dr Hutton, in his mensuration, gives the following general rule, which he says applies to all casks commonly to be met with; and at the same time is quite easy and very accurate, as having been often verified and proved by filling the casks with a true gallon measure.

V. To find the solid content of the frustum of a parabolic spindle. *Fig. 123.*  
Add into one sum 8 times the square of the diameter of the smaller end, 3 times the square of the diameter of the larger end, and 4 times the product of the diameters; multiply the sum by the length, and by the number 5236, and the result will be the solidity required.

RULE. Add into one sum, 39 times the square of the bung diameter, 24 times the square of the head diameter, and 26 times the product of these diameters; multiply the sum by the length of the cask, and the product by 102034, and this last product divided by 9 will give the content of the cask in wine gallons, and by 11 will give the content in ale gallons.

SECT. VI. Of GAUGING.  
GAUGING is commonly understood the art

G E O

ORI. See EUPATRIDÆ.  
ONICAL. *adj.* [*γῆ* and *πῶς*; *gēpō-*

G E O

*nique*, French.] Relating to agriculture; relating to the cultivation of the ground.—Such expressions are

are frequent in authors *geoponical*, or such as have treated *de re rustica*. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

\* **GEOPONICKS.** *n. f.* [*γῆ* and *πονός*.] The science of cultivating the ground; the doctrine of agriculture.

(1.) **GEORGE I.** king of Great Britain, the son of Ernest Augustus, D. of Brunswick Lunenburgh, and elector of Hanover, by Sophia, daughter of Frederick Elector Palatine, and grand daughter of K. James I. He succeeded to the British throne, in 1714, in virtue of an act of parliament, passed in the reign of K. William III. limiting the succession, after the demise of that monarch, and Q. Anne, without issue, to the princess Sophia and her heirs, being Protestants. He was born in 1660, created D. of Cambridge, in 1706, and died June 11th. 1727, aged 67. See ENGLAND § 76—78.

(2.) **GEORGE II.** the only son of K. George I. succeeded him in 1727, and enjoyed a long and glorious reign; dying amidst the most rapid and extensive conquests, in the 77th year of his age. See ENGLAND, § 79—82. He was succeeded by his grandson George III. our present sovereign, on the 25th Oct. 1760; leaving the character of a brave warrior, and an impartial lover of justice. It is recorded to his honour, that he never once pardoned murder, during the whole course of his long reign, though strongly importuned in some cases; particularly in that of Earl Ferrers, who was hanged for murdering his servant, and though a peer, could obtain no other mitigation of his sentence, than that of being hanged in a silken rope.

(3.) **GEORGE**, despot of Servia. See SERVIA.

(4.) **GEORGE**, David, the founder of the sect of the DAVIDISTS. See DAVIDICI.

(5.) \* **GEORGE.** *n. f.* [*Georgius*, Latin.] 1. A figure of St George on horseback, worn by the knights of the garter.—

Look on my *george*, I am a gentleman;  
Rate me at what thou wilt. *Shak. Henry VI.*  
2. A brown loaf. Of this sense I know not the original.—

Cubb'd in a cabbin, on a mattress laid,  
On a brown *george*, with lowly twobbers, fed.  
*Diad. Pers.*

(6.) **GEORGE**, FORT, a strong and regular fortress of Scotland, in Inverness-shire. It has several handsome streets of barracks, and is seated on the point of Ardrier, a peninsula running into the firth of Murray. It completely commands the entrance into the harbour of Inverness, and lies opposite to Fortrose, 15 miles N.W. of Inverness.

(7.) **GEORGE**, FORT, a fort on New York, at the S. end of Lake George, (N<sup>o</sup> 10.) 42 miles N. of Albany.

(8.) **GEORGE**, FORT ST, a town and fort of Asia, in the peninsula of India, belonging to Britain; called also *Madrass* and *Calicutam*. See MADRAS.

(9.) **GEORGE**, LAKE, a lake of E. Florida, called also GREAT LAKE, about 15 miles by a channel 20 feet deep. It is a dilatation of the great St Johns, which runs through it.

(10.) **GEORGE**, LAKE, a lake of New York, SW. of Lake Champlain, 25 miles long from N.E. to SW. and from a point to another. Its waters are 100 feet higher than those of lake Champlain, into

which they run by a channel 1½ mile is said to contain 365 isles.

(11.) **GEORGE**, ST, or **GEORGE** DOGIA, a saint or hero, after whom the both military and religious, he denoted is famous throughout all the East; by the Greeks *Μεγαλομαχης*, i. e. the great. On some medals of the emperors Jo-nuel Comneni, we have the figure of a man armed, holding a sword or javelin in one hand, and in the other a buckler, with this

an O, and therein a little A, and ΓΕ-

king O ΑΓΙΟΣ ΓΕΩΡΓΙΟΣ, *O holy George* is usually represented on horseback, as he is to have frequently engaged in combat. He is highly venerated throughout the East, and all the countries here to the Greek rite; from the Greek ship has long ago been received into the church; England and Portugal have him for their patron saint. Great disputes have been raised about this saint or hero, and his existence has been called in question. Some who wrote first and most about him, considered him only a symbolical device; and Dr I. turned him into a mere Basilidian story. Mr Pegg, in a paper in the (Vol. I. I.) has attempted to restore him finally, Mr Gibbon, has sunk him in his history, under Constantius and Julian.

(12.) **GEORGE**, ST, or **GEORGE** DOGIAN, was so surnamed, according to some, from his parents or education; and at Epiphania, in Cilicia, in a fuller's shop, of this obscure and servile origin, he rose by the talents of a parasite; and the more he assiduously flattered, procured the more he depended, a lucrative employment was meant; he rendered himself rich by the fraud and corruption; but his malice so notorious, that George was constrained to flee from the pursuits of justice. A grace, in which he appears to have shined, was the expense of his honour, he with real or affected zeal, the protestantism. From the love, or the contempt of religion, he collected a valuable library of books, philosophy, and theology; and of the prevailing faction promoted George's patron to the throne of Athanasius. In this faction is represented by a man as polluted by cruelty and avarice, a character as a just punishment for it of his life, among which Mr Gibbon has lately said *his vanity to the Greeks*; no modern or philosopher can justify a man of the absurdities and harshness of his mythology and superstition. Of his death, however, as narrated by several writers, will not add anything to it. There was in Alexandria, a place consecrated to offer human sacrifices. Constantine gave to the church of St



bishop ordered it to be cleared, to  
 isian church on it. In doing this,  
 ed an immense subterraneous cavern,  
 heathen mysteries had been perform-  
 t were many human skulls. These,  
 ings which they found in the place,  
 s brought out and exposed to public  
 he heathens, provoked at this exhibi-  
 tions and rushing upon the Christians,  
 of them. On this the Christians pro-  
 rther in clearing the temple; but the  
 using their advantage, seized the  
 e church, and put him in prison.  
 y they dispatched him; and then fast-  
 ed to a camel, dragged it about the  
 ay, and in the evening they burnt it  
 d together. This tale, Sozomen says,  
 wed in part to his haughtiness while  
 our with Constantius; and some say  
 of Athanasius were concerned in this  
 ut he ascribes it chiefly to the invete-  
 heathens, whose superstitions he had  
 ve in abolishing. His George, the A-  
 of Alexandria, was a man of letters and  
 valuable library, which Julian ordered  
 for his own use; and in his orders  
 t, he says that many of the books were  
 chical and rhetorical subjects, though  
 m related to the doctrine of the im-  
 ans; (as he always affected to call the  
 ' These books (says he) I could with-  
 rly destroyed; but least books of va-  
 e destroyed along with them, let these  
 fully sought for.' But Mr Gibbon  
 erent turn to the adair of George's  
 well as relates it with different circum-  
 ; and the rich temples of Alexandria  
 pillaged or insulted by the haughty  
 exclaimed, in a loud and threatening  
 long will these sepulchres be permit-  
 ?' Under the reign of Constantius, he  
 l by the fury, or rather by the justice  
 e; and it was not without a violent  
 at the civil and military powers of the  
 restore his authority, and gratify his  
 he messenger who proclaimed at A-  
 the accession of Julian, announced the  
 the archbishop. George, with two of  
 ous ministers, count Dioclorus, and  
 master of the mint, was ignominiously  
 chains to the public prison. At the  
 ays, the prison was forced open by  
 a superstitious multitude, impatient of  
 forms of judicial proceedings. The  
 sds and men expired under their cruel  
 lifeless bodies of the archbishop and  
 s were carried in triumph through the  
 ie back of a camel: and the inactivity  
 rian party was esteemed a shining ex-  
 vangelical patience. The remains of  
 wretches were thrown into the sea; and  
 leaders of the tumult declared their re-  
 ject the devotion of the Christians,  
 ept the future honours of these martyrs  
 een punished, like their predecessors,  
 ies of their religion. The fears of the  
 : just, and their precautions ineffectu-

al. The meritorious death of the archbishop ob-  
 literated the memory of his life. The rival of  
 Athanasius was dear and sacred to the Arians, and  
 the seeming conversion of these sectaries introdu-  
 ced his worship into the bosom of the Catholic  
 church. The odious franger, disguising every  
 circumstance of time and place, assumed the mask  
 of a martyr, a saint, and a Christian hero; and the  
 infamous George of Cappadocia has been trans-  
 formed into the renowned St George of England,  
 the patron of arms, of chivalry, and of the garter."  
*Hist. Vol. II. p. 404.*

(13.) GEORGE ISLAND, ST, in geography, one of the  
 AZORES. It has about 5000 inhabitants, who cul-  
 tivate wheat in great quantities. Lon. 28. 0. W.  
 Lat. 38. 39. N.

(14.) GEORGE, ST, an island of the United  
 States, in the Strait of St Mary, which runs be-  
 tween lake Superior and Lake Huron.

(15.) GEORGE, ST, in Italy. See *GIORGIO, ST.*

(16.) GEORGE, ST, CROSS OF, a red cross in a  
 field argent, which makes part of the British standard.

(17.) GEORGE, ST, DEL MINA, a fort on the  
 Gold Coast of Guinea, the principal settlement  
 of the Dutch in those parts, who took it from the  
 Portuguese in 1630. The fort is the best on the  
 coast. Under it is the town called by the natives  
 ODDENA, which is very long, and pretty broad.  
 The houses are built of stone, though in all the  
 neighbouring places they are composed only of  
 clay and wood. It was once very populous, but  
 the inhabitants were greatly reduced by the small  
 pox. It is about 12 miles W. of Cape Coast Castle.  
 Lon. 0. 21. W. Lat. 5. 0. N.

(18.) GEORGE, ST, KNIGHTS OF. See *GAR-  
 TER*. There have been various orders under this  
 denomination, most of which are now extinct;  
 particularly one founded by the emperor Frederick  
 III. in 1470, to guard the frontiers of Bohemia  
 and Hungary against the Turks; another called *St  
 George of Aflima*, founded by the kings of Ara-  
 gon; a 3d and 4th in Austria and Carinthia;  
 and a 5th, in the republic of Genoa, &c.

(19.) GEORGE, ST, RELIGIOUS OF. Of these  
 there are divers orders and congregations; parti-  
 cularly canons regular of St George in Alga, at  
 Venice, founded by Bartholomew Colonna, in  
 1396, and established by Pope Boniface IX. in  
 1404. Pope Pius V. in 1570, gave these canons  
 precedence of all other religious. There is an-  
 other congregation in Sicily.

(20.) GEORGE THE KING'S ISLAND, KING, the  
 name given by Capt. Cook to OYAHETE.

(21.) GEORGE TOWN. See *GEORGETOWN*.

GEORGHAM, a town on the coast of De-  
 vonshire. SW. of Ilfracomb.

GEORGENBERG, a town of Silesia, in the  
 county of Oppeln, 9 miles N. of Beuthen.

GEORGENBURG, a town of Prussian Lithua-  
 nia, 2 miles S. of Insterburg.

GEORGENTHAL, a town of Upper Saxony,  
 in the county of Gotha, 6 miles S. of Gotha.

GEORGE'S BANE, ST, a fishing bank of Mas-  
 sachusetts, on the Atlantic, E. of Cape Cod; ex-  
 tending between Lon. 67. 50. and 68. 40. W. and  
 from Lat. 41. 15. to 42. 22. N.

GEORGE'S CAPE, ST, a cape of St George's  
 Island, 18 miles E. of Cape Blaize. Lat. 29. 38. N.

GEORGE'S

**CHANNEL, ST.** the channel between the coast of England and the SE. of Ireland.

**GEORGE'S ISLAND, ST.** an island of England in Cornwall, opposite to E. and W. Loc.

**GEORGE'S ISLANDS, KING.** See KING.

**GEORGE'S ISLANDS, ST.** islands in the Gulf of Mexico, on the coast of E. Florida, nearly opposite to the mouth of the Apalachicola. Lon. 84. 50. W. Lat. 29. 30. N.

**GEORGE'S KEY, ST.** a small island of North America, off the coast of Honduras. It is likewise called *Cafina* or *Cayo Cafina*. By a convention, in 1786, the English logwood-cutters in the bay of Honduras were permitted, under certain restrictions, to occupy this island.

(1.) **GEORGE'S RIVER, ST.** a river of the United States, in the district of Maine, which becomes an arm of the sea, 2 leagues SW. of Penobscott Bay.

(2.) **GEORGE'S RIVER, ST.** a very broad but short river of Maryland, in St Mary's county.

(3.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** the largest of the Bermuda Islands, lying 500 miles E. of the continent of N. America. Lon. 63. 30. W. Lat. 32. 45. N.

(4.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** the capital of the island of Grenada, formerly called *Fort Royal*, from its fort. It is seated on the W. side of the island, on a spacious bay, and has one of the best harbours in the British W. Indies. It was lately fortified.

(5.) **GEORGE'S ST.** a small island of Maritime Austria, in the gulf of Venice, lying to the S. of Venice. In it there is a Benedictine monastery, whose church is one of the finest in Italy.

(6.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** a village of the State of Delaware, in Newcastle county, 45 miles SW. of Philadelphia.

(7, 8.) **GEORGE'S, ST.** two English villages: 1. in Gloucestershire; and, 2. in Somersetshire; both near Bristol.

**GEORGETOWN,** the name of a district and 7 towns, in the United States, viz.

1. **GEORGETOWN,** a large maritime district of S. Carolina, bounded on the NE. by N. Carolina, SE. by the Atlantic, SW. by the Santee and N. W. by Camden and Cheraws districts. It is 112 miles long from N. to S. and 63 broad; and contain 4 counties, viz. Liberty, Winyaw, Kingston, and Williamsburg. Its population in 1790, (which is said to have been under-rated) was 8991 citizens, and 13,131 slaves. It produces rice, Indian corn, cotton, indigo, wood, &c.

2. **GEORGETOWN,** the capital of the above district, situated near the junction of the Pedee and the Sampitt, 65 miles N. by E. of Charlestown. Lon. 79. 30. W. Lat. 33. 20. N.

3. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Delaware, capital of Suffex county, 16 miles WSW. of Lewistown, and 103 S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 18. W. of that city. Lat. 38. 46. N.

4. **GEORGETOWN,** a flourishing town of Georgia, on the NE. side of the Ogeechee, 55 miles from Augusta, and 801 from Philadelphia.

5. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Kentucky, capital of Scott county, on the S. side of the Elkhorn, 11 NNW. of Lexington, and 20 E. by N. fort. Lon. 10. 8. W. of Philadelphia. S. N.

6. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Maryland, in county, on the S. side of the Sassafras, 9 W. of Warwick, and 61 SW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 46. W. of that city. Lat. 39. 20. N.

7. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Maryland, in Montgomery county, on the NE. side of the Potomac. It has an academy founded by Protestants and Roman Catholics, on liberal principles, which carries on trade with Europe and the W. Indies, and lies 8 miles N. of Alexandria, and 128 S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 3. W. of that city. Lat. 38. 55. N.

8. **GEORGETOWN,** a town of Pennsylvania, in Fayette county, on the SE. side of the Monongahela, 16 miles SW. of Union.

(1.) **GEORGIA,** a country of Asia, bounded the N. by Circassia, on the E. by Daghestan, the N. by Armenia, and on the W. by the Euxine or Black Sea; comprehending the greater part of the ancient Colchis, Iberia, and Armenia. About the etymology of the name, authors differ. The most probable opinion is, that it is a corruption by softening of *KURGIA*, from the river whence also it is supposed that the inhabitants called by the Persians indifferently *Georgia* and *Georgistan*; and the country *KURGISTAN* and *Georgistan*.

(2.) **GEORGIA, DIVISIONS OF.** Georgia is divided by a ridge of mountains into eastern and western; the former of which is again subdivided into the kingdoms of Caket, Carduel or Cakel, and Goguetia; and the latter into the provinces of Abcassia, Mirets or Imeritia, and Gamsir. Another division is into Georgia Proper, Abcassia, and Mingrelia. A 3d division, and the last of this country, is into 9 provinces; 5 of which (or were lately) subject to the famous prince Heraclius, forming what is commonly called the kingdom of Georgia, of which *Tepals* is the capital, and 4 are under the dominion of David, occupying the kingdom of Imeritia. See *IMERITIA*.

(3.) **GEORGIA, GENERAL APPEARANCE, RUDE AND CLIMATE OF.** This whole country is so extremely beautiful, that some travellers have imagined they had here found the situation of the original garden of Eden. The mountains are covered with forests of oak, ash, beech, chestnuts, walnuts, and elms, encircled with vines growing perfectly wild, but producing vast quantities of grapes. From these is annually made much wine as is necessary for the yearly consumption; the remainder are left to rot on the vine. The wine is so rich, that the Persian Monarch keeps it always at his table. The whole country is fertile, and abounds with cattle and wild fowls of various kinds. The bread is excellent, and the fruits, apples, pears, pomegranates, &c. are of exquisite flavour. Cotton grows spontaneously well as the finest European fruit trees, viz. wheat, millet, hemp, and flax, are raised in the plains, almost without culture. The valleys afford the finest pasturage: the rivers are full of fish; the mountains abound in minerals, and the climate is delicious; so that nature appears to have lavished on this favoured country every blessing that can contribute to the happiness of its inhabitants.

(4.) **GEORGIA, GOVERNMENT OF.** The

t of Georgia is despotic; but, were it be assistance of the Russian troops, the could frequently be unable to carry his into execution. The punishments in crimi- are shockingly cruel; fortunately they re- quent, because it is easy to escape into the neighbouring countries, and because ce is more enriched by confiscating the of the criminal, than by putting him e. Judicial combats are considered as ge of nobility, and take place when the extremely intricate, or when the power est of two claimants are so equal, that an force a decision of the court in his fa- his mode of trial is called *an appeal to the of God.*

**GEORGIA, HISTORY OF.** This country abounded with great cities, as appears : ruins of many of them still visible, ow that they must have been very large, and magnificently built. These were all by the northern barbarians from mount , as the Alans, Huns, Suevi, and others, noted in history for their strength, cou- conquests. In the 13th century, a king ia divided among his 5 sons the provin- rduel and Caket, Imeritia, Mingrelia, and Abcassia. These petty princes were as to unite for their common defence, reak singly to resist a foreign enemy, or check the encroachments of their great to soon became independent. By form- y among these nobles, the Turks gran- ned possession of all the western provin- ce the Persians occupied the govern- Carduel and Caket. Since that period unsuccessful attempts of the Georgians their liberty have repeatedly produced tation of their country. Abbas the id had to have carried off in one expedition provinces of Carduel and Caket no less o families; a number which, probably, e whole actual population of those provin- The most horrible cruelties were again on the unhappy people, at the begin- : 18th century, by the merciless Nadir; were small evils, compared with those m the internal dissensions of the great This numerous body of men, idle, and ferocious, possessed of an unlimited r the lives and properties of their vassals, employment but that of arms, and no ggrandizing themselves but by the plun- der rivals, were constantly in a state of and as their success was various, and its of the vanquished were constantly and sold to the Turks or Persians, every increased the depopulation of the coun- length they invited the neighbouring ers, by the hopes of plunder, to take air quarrels; and these dangerous allies, acquainted with the country, and being of the weakness of its inhabitants, soon its desolation. A few squalid wretches, half starved, and driven to despair by less exactions of their landlords, are crised over the most beautiful provinces a. The revolutions of Persia, and the . PART II.

weakness of the Turkish government, have indeed enabled the princes of the country to recover their independence; but the smallness of their revenue has hitherto disabled them from repressing effectually the tyranny of the nobles, and relieving the burdens of the peasants. Of all the Georgian princes, who of late have rendered themselves famous, by shaking off the Ottoman yoke, the most eminent is prince Heraclius. Of this prince, we have the following account by the late profes- sor Guldenstadt when he travelled into these parts in 1770. "Heraclius, or, as he is called, the tzar *Irachi*, is above 60 years old, of a middle size, with a long countenance, a dark complexion, large eyes, and a small beard. He passed his youth at the court and in the army of the cele- brated Nadir Shah, where he contracted a fond- ness for Persian customs and manners, which he has introduced into his kingdom. He has 7 sons and 6 daughters. He is much revered and dread- ed by the Persian khans his neighbours; and is usually chosen to mediate between them in their disputes with each other. When they are at war, he supports one of the parties with a few troops, who diffuse a spirit of courage among the rest, because the Georgian soldiers are esteemed the bravest of those parts; and prince Heraclius him- self is renowned for his courage and military skill. When on horseback he has always a pair of load- ed pistols at his girdle, and, if the enemy is near, a musket slung over his shoulder. In all engage- ments he is the foremost to give examples of per- sonal bravery; and frequently charges the enemy at the head of his troops with the sabre in his hand. He loves pomp and expence; he has adopted the dress of Persia; and regulates his court after the manner of that country. From the example of the Russian troops, who were quartered in Georgia during the last Turkish war, he has learnt the use of plates, knives, and forks, dishes and house- hold furniture, &c."

(6.) **GEORGIA, INHABITANTS OF.** "The in- habitants, (says Sir George Chardin,) are robust, valiant, and of a jovial temper; great lovers of wine, and esteemed very trusty and faithful; en- dowed with good natural parts, but, for want of education, very vicious. The women are gene- rally so fair and comely, that the wives and con- cubines of the king of Persia and his court are for the most part Georgian women. Nature has ad- orned them with graces no where else to be met with: it is impossible to see them without loving them; they are of a good size, clean-limbed, and well shaped." Another traveller, however, of no mean character, thus expresses himself with respect to these women: "As to the Georgian women, they did not at all surprize us; for we expected to find them perfect beauties. They are, indeed, no way disagreeable; and may be counted beau- ties, if compared with the Curdes. They have an air of health that is pleasing enough; but, af- ter all, they are neither so handsome nor so well shaped as is reported. Those who live in the towns have nothing extraordinary more than the others; so that I may, I think, venture to contra- dict the accounts that have been given of them by most travellers." The other inhabitants of Georgia are Tartars, Ossi, and Armenians, called in the

Georgian language *Somabbi*. These last are found all over Georgia, sometimes mixed with the natives, and sometimes in villages of their own. They speak among themselves their own language, but all understand and can talk the Georgian. Their religion is partly the Armenian, and partly the Roman Catholic. They are the most oppressed of the inhabitants, but are still distinguished by that instinctive industry which every where characterizes these nations. Besides these, there are in Georgia considerable numbers of Jews, called, in the language of the country, *Uria*. Some have villages of their own; and others are mixed with the Georgian, Armenian, and Tartar inhabitants, but never with the Ossi. They pay a small tribute above that of the natives.

(7.) GEORGIA, MANNERS AND CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE OF. The Georgians are Christians of the Greek communion. Their dress nearly resembles that of the Cossacks; but men of rank frequently wear the habit of Persia. They usually dye their hair, beard, and nails with red. The Georgian women employ the same colour to stain the palms of their hands. On their heads they wear a cap or fillet, under which their black hair falls on their forehead: behind, it is braided into several tresses. Their eye-brows are painted with black, so as to form one entire line, and their faces are perfectly coated with white and red. Their robe is open to the girdle, so that they are reduced to conceal the breasts with their hands. Their air and manner are extremely voluptuous. Being generally educated in convents, they can all read and write; a qualification which is very unusual among the men, even of the highest rank. Girls are betrothed as soon as possible, often at 3 or 4 years of age. In the streets the women of rank are always veiled, and then it is indecent in any man to accost them. It is likewise uncivil in conversation to inquire after the wives of any of the company. These, however, are not ancient customs, but consequences of the violences committed by the Persians, under Shah Nadir. Travellers accuse the Georgians of drunkenness, superstition, cruelty, sloth, avarice, and cowardice; vices which are everywhere common to slaves and tyrants, and are by no means peculiar to the natives of this country. The descendants of the colonists, carried off by Shah Abbas, and settled at Perzia, near Ispahan, and in Masanderan, have changed their character with their government; and the Georgian troops, employed in Persia against the Affghans, were advantageously distinguished by their docility, their discipline, and their courage.

(8.) GEORGIA, POPULATION OF. The subjects of Heraclius have been estimated at about 60,000 families; but this, notwithstanding the present desolated state of the country, is probably an under-valuation. The peasants belonging to the queen, and those of the patriarch, pay no tax to the prince, and therefore do not appear on the books of the revenue officers. Many similar exemptions have likewise been granted by the prince to his favourites. Besides, as the impost on the peasants is not a poll-tax, but a tax on hearths, the inhabitants of a village, on the approach of the collectors, frequently carry the furniture of several huts into one, and destroy the

remainder, which are afterwards very built. It is probable, therefore, that the population of Georgia does not fall short of 500,000 souls.

(9.) GEORGIA, REVENUE OF. There can be estimated at about 1,000,000 rubles, or 17,500,000 roubles. They consist of, 1. The custom, 1,750,000.—2. Rent paid by the farmers of the soil at Teflis, 17,500,000.—3. The tribute paid by the Khans of Erivan and Ganja, 700,000.—4. An hearth money levied on the peasants, 2,000,000 to 15,750,000. The common coin here is the *abasse*, of about 15d. value, and a fine coin, stamped at the mint at Teflis. There is a large quantity of gold and silver brought into the country from Persia, in exchange for honey, butter, and blue linen.

(10.) GEORGIA, TRADE OF. The Georgia, being fed by mountain torrents, is not adapted for navigation: the Black Sea, the seat of commerce and civilization might be derived from Europe, has been till very lately, in the exclusive possession of the Turks: the trade to Georgia by land is greatly obstructed by the mountains of Caucasus: and this obstacle is increased by the swarms of predatory robbers which those mountains are inhabited.

(11.) GEORGIA, the most southerly of the United States of America, bounded on the Atlantic Ocean, on the S. by E. and Florida, on the W. by the Mississippi, on the N.E. and N. by S. Carolina and Tennessee, 665 miles long and 262 broad, lying between 31° 17' and 35° 17' Lon. W.; and 30° 17' and 35° 17' Lat. N.

(12.) GEORGIA, CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTS OF. The winters in Georgia are very pleasant. Snow is seldom or never seen. The soil and its fertility are various, according to the situation and improvements. By culture they produce rice, indigo, cotton, silk, Indian corn, oranges, figs, pomegranates, &c. The staple commodity is the cotton; but a duty is also paid to the raising of tobacco.

(13.) GEORGIA, COUNTIES AND CHIEF TOWNS OF. Georgia, before the revolution, was divided into parishes; afterwards into 3 districts, now into two, called the *Upper* and *Lower*. The *Upper* is subdivided into 24 counties; 9 in the *Upper* District viz. Camden, Glynn, Liberty, Bryan, McIntosh, Effingham, Scriven, and 15 in the *Lower*, viz. Montgomery, Hancock, Greene, Franklin, Oglethorpe, Wilkes, Lincoln, Warren, Jackson, Bullock, Columbia, and 1. The chief towns are SAVANNAH, the capital of the state, AUGUSTA, the late seat of government, LOUISVILLE, the present seat (See these articles;) Sunbury, Brunswick, Washington, St Patricks, Goltsboro, &c.

(14.) GEORGIA, GENERAL APPEARANCE OF. The E. part of the state between the Atlantic ocean, and the Savannah and St Marys rivers is an entirely level tract of 120 miles N. to S. and from 40 to 50 broad, single hill or stone. About 45 miles from

lands begin to be uneven, ridges rising into hills, and these into mountains, terminate in the Alleghany and Appalichians in New York.

**GEORGIA, GOVERNMENT AND CONSTITUTION.** By the constitution established, the legislative power is vested in a series of representatives, both elected by the people, and styled the *General Assembly*. It consists of 24 members, one from each of the 12 counties. A senator must be at least 30 years a citizen of Georgia and 9 years a citizen of the United States: he must also possess at least 250 acres of land, and 2500 l. of property. A member of the house of representatives must be at least 21 years of age, two years a citizen of Georgia and 7 in the United States; he must possess at least 100 acres of land, or property worth at least 500 l. A year's residence entitles a citizen to vote. There are only two judges in the superior court, one presides in each district, and decides in all the most important causes: But there is an inferior court, or court of common pleas in each district, presided in by 3 judges who sit twice a year. The procedure is simple and the causes soon de-

**GEORGIA HISTORY OF.** The settlement of the Savannah and Altamaha was first made in England in 1732, for the accommodation of the poor people in Great Britain and for the farther security of Carolina. The humane and public spirit compared to the benevolent design. Humane and public spirit suggested a plan of transporting a number of indigent families to this part of America. For this purpose they applied to George II. and obtained from him a charter, dated June 9, 1732, for legally carrying into execution what they had generously proposed, called the new province *Georgia*, of the king who encouraged the plan. The first settlement, consisting of 21 persons, was called by the name of, *The Trustees for settling and inhabiting the colony of Georgia*. In November the settlers embarked for Georgia, to be met at Charlestown early in 1733. Mr. Oglethorpe, an active promoter of the settlement, accompanied by William Bull, shortly after his arrival, visited Georgia; and after he had surveyed the country, marked the spot on which the new settlement should be made, as the fittest to begin their

Here they accordingly began to erect a fort; and a number of huts for their accommodation. Such of the settlers as were able to bear arms were embodied, and with officers, arms, and ammunition. A friendly friendship was concluded between the English and their neighbours the Creek Indians, who were the first to show them the way to the country, and to give them the prospect of peace and plenty. But the first English settlers were disappointed of these expectations, it was found that a hardy and bold race of men, who were used to manual labour and fatigue, would be better fitted both to cultivate and defend the in-

land province. Accordingly 570 adventurers, among whom were 150 Highlanders, and 170 Germans, were prevailed on to emigrate to Georgia within 3 years after. But the fundamental regulations established by the trustees of Georgia were ill adapted to the circumstances and situation of the poor settlers, and of pernicious consequences to the prosperity of the province. Yet although the trustees were greatly mistaken with respect to their plan of settlement, it must be acknowledged their views were generous. Like other distant legislators, who framed their regulations upon principles of speculation, they were liable to many errors and mistakes; and however good their design, their rules were found improper and impracticable. These injudicious regulations and restrictions, the wars in which they were involved with the Spaniards and Indians, and the frequent insurrections among themselves, threw the colony into a state of confusion and wretchedness too great for human nature long to endure. Their oppressed situation was represented to the trustees by repeated complaints; till at length finding that the province languished under their care, and weary with the complaints of the people, they in 1752, surrendered their charter to the king, and it was made a royal government. John Reynolds, Esq. was appointed governor, and a legislature similar to that of the other provinces was established.—In 1740, the Rev. George Whitefield founded an orphan-house academy in Georgia, about 12 miles from Savannah. From the time that Georgia became a royal government in 1752, till the peace of Paris in 1763, the colony struggled under many difficulties arising from the want of credit, and the frequent molestations of enemies. The good effects of the peace were sensibly felt. From this time it began to flourish under the care of gov. Wright; and within 10 years only, from 1763 to 1773 its exports arose from 27,021 l. to 121,676 l. Sterling. During the American war, Georgia was overrun by the British troops, and the inhabitants were obliged to flee into the neighbouring states for safety. Since the peace, the population, agriculture, commerce and arts, have increased with astonishing rapidity, though these have been a good deal retarded within these few years by the hostile incursions of the CREEK or MUSKOGULGE Indians, who inhabit the middle parts of the state. See MUSKOGULGE. In 1789, the constitution was new-modelled upon a plan similar to that of the other states. In 1790, a treaty of peace being concluded between the United States and the Indians, the state of Georgia has been ever since increasing in wealth and population.

(vii.) **GEORGIA, INDIAN NATIONS IN.** The middle parts of this state are inhabited by the CREEK or MUSKOGULGE Indians, the most numerous nation of Aboriginal Americans within the United States, consisting of about 20 different tribes united. Their country is fertile, though hilly, and extends from the Mobile to the Atlantic. The CHACKTAWS, CHICKASAWS, and CHEROKEES, have settlements in the N. and W. parts of the state. See these articles.

(viii.) **GEORGIA, INHABITANTS OF.** In the grand convention at Philadelphia in 1787, the inhabitants of this state were reckoned at 90,000,

including 20,000 negroes. At present (1800) the total population is estimated at 100,000 including 30,000 slaves; so that the only increase seems to be in the number of that unfortunate race. The number of Indians in Georgia is estimated at about 32,000. No general character will apply to the citizens of this state. Collected from different parts of the world, as interest, necessity, or inclination led them, their character and manners must of course partake of all the varieties which distinguish the several states and kingdoms from whence they came. There is so little uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An aversion to labour seems predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of necessity to excite industry. An open and friendly hospitality, however, particularly to strangers, is an ornamental characteristic of a great part of this people. As to religion the upper counties are supplied pretty generally by baptist and methodist ministers; but the greater part of the state is without ministers of any denomination.

(ix.) **GEORGIA, ISLANDS OF.** The whole coast of Georgia is bordered with islands, the principal of which are Skiddaway, Waffaw, Ossabaw, St Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyll and Cumberland.

(x.) **GEORGIA, NATURAL CURIOSITIES OF.** Near Augusta, there is a bank of oyster shells 90 miles from the sea: and in Wilkes county, near Washington, there is a remarkable spring which rises from a hollow tree, 5 feet long. The inside of the tree is covered with a coat of matter an inch thick, and the leaves around the spring are encrusted with a peculiar substance as white as snow. The water is said to be an effectual remedy for the scurvy, scrofula, gout, rheumatism and consumption.

(xi.) **GEORGIA, RIVERS OF.** The chief rivers in this state are the Savannah, Turtle river, Little and Great Satilla, Crooked river, and St Mary's which forms a part of the southern boundary of the United States. The rivers in the middle and western parts are the Apalachicola, formed by the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers, Mobile, Pascagoula, and Pearl rivers. All these run southward into the Gulf of Mexico.

(xii.) **GEORGIA, TRADE OF.** The commerce of this state has greatly increased of late. The articles chiefly exported are cotton, rice, tobacco, indigo, fago, lumber, naval stores, leather, deer skins, muskeroot, myrtle, bees wax, corn, and live stock; of which last, the farmers raise from 1000 to 1500 head annually. The exports in 1795 amounted to 695,985 dollars: and in 1799 to 1,396,759. The chief imports are West India goods, tea, wine, cloths, dry goods, fish; cheese, cyder, shoes, &c. Silk, indigo, and fago, are the chief manufactures.

(xiii.) **GEORGIA, UNIVERSITY OF.** A charter was passed in 1785, for erecting a college, with ample and liberal endowments, at Louisville, in a high and healthy part of the country, near the centre of the state. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county of the state, to be supported from the same funds, and to consist of a president and members of the same.

direction of a president and board of trustees pointed for their literary accomplishments the different parts of the state, and invest the customary powers of corporations. This institution thus composed is denominated *University of Georgia*. The funds for the support of this institution are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to about 50,000 acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and very valuable. There are also nearly 60000 acres lying in bonds, houses and town lots in the city of Augusta. Other public property to the amount of 100000 in each county has been set apart for the purposes of building and furnishing the several academies. The funds originally appropriated for the support of the orphan-house are now applied to rice, plantations and negroes.

(xiv.) **GEORGIA, WESTERN TERRITORY.** This country extends from the Mississippi to the Flint and Apalachicola on the west, and is intersected by many rivers. Great part of it belongs to the Indians. (See § vii.) . . . millions of acres of it were sold a few years ago by the state of Georgia to several companies withstanding a very violent opposition occasioned a general ferment.

(III.) **GEORGIA,** a township of Vermont, Franklin county, on lake Champlain.

(IV.) **GEORGIA, SOUTH,** an island in the Pacific Ocean, discovered and named by James Cook in 1775. See COOK, N° III, § 9. It is 9 leagues long, and its greatest breadth is 15 leagues. It seems to abound with bays and harbours, and the vast quantities of ice render it inaccessible the greatest part of the year. Two rocky islands are situated at the N. end; one named *Hale's* from the person who discovered it. *Bird Islands*, from the innumerable flock of all sorts that were seen near it, from albatrosses down to the least petrels, porpoises and seals were likewise observed. The ice is perpendicular ice-cliffs, of considerable height like those at Spitzbergen. Pieces were observed breaking off, and floating out to sea. Between 33. 13. and 35. 34. W. Lat. 54. 57. S.

(V.) **GEORGIA, WEST.** See N° II, GEORGIANS, the people of Georgia.

(1.) \* **GEORGIC, n. s.** [From *georgon*, Gr.] Relating to the doctrine of agriculture.

Here I peruse the Marston's *georgic*  
And learn the labours of Italian Isidore.

(2.) \* **GEORGIC, n. f.** Some part of the science of husbandry put into a pleasing or poetical form, as in the Georgics of Virgil.

(3.) **GEORGICS** are poetical compositions relating to husbandry. Hesiod and Virgil are the best masters in Georgics. The moderns have produced nothing in this kind, except Rapsodia of Gardening; and the celebrated poem of Cyder, by Mr Philips, who, if he had but the advantage of Virgil's language, would have been second to Virgil in a much nearer manner.

**GEORGIY,** a town of Russia, in the government of Caucasus, 52 miles WNW. of Jambou.

), ST. See **GIORGIO, St.**

**Z**, a town of Walachia, 18 miles  
west, and 24 SE. of Tergovisto.

**IM SIDUS**, or the **GEORGIAN PLANET**,  
**ASTRONOMY, Index.** The late Prof.  
w Jersey, in his *Researches into the*  
*Planets*, says, "The encouragement  
jesty, by his beneficence and exam-

Astronomy, certainly entitles him  
y other living sovereign to the ho-  
ame. But it is not very probable it  
ned. The satellites of Jupiter were

ir discoverer, Galileo, *Pianeti Medi-*  
of his patrons, the Medici. This

r was discontinued. Had Mr Her-

the name of some of the ancient

s, it would have been universally a-

mong that number, *Minerva* deser-

eminence. The planet Venus oba-

me from its beauty and brillian-

planet Mars has been so called from

. The new planet, being a telescop-

be said to denote the modesty of the

isdom." Foreign astronomers have

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

ed this planet **HERSCHEL**, after its

resemblance of a stork's beak. There are above  
80 species. The common wild sorts, and those  
which are brought from the colder climates, are  
hardy enough, and require little care; but the  
African species, and the others from hot countries  
which make so very beautiful a figure in our  
green-houses, require great care in their culture  
and propagation. These may be propagated by  
seed, which should be sown toward the end of  
March in beds of light earth, carefully shading  
them from the sun, and giving them frequent but  
gentle waterings, till they are well rooted. The  
mats with which these beds are covered are to be  
taken off in gentle showers, and always in the hot  
weather at nights, that the plants may have the  
benefit of the dew. They should remain about  
two months in this bed, by which time they will  
have taken root. Some pots of about 7 inches  
wide should then be filled with light earth, and  
the plants taken up with as much as possible of  
their own earth about them, and planted severally  
in the middle of these pots; when they are to  
be set in a shady place, and watered at times till  
they have taken root. When well rooted, they  
should be set in a more exposed place to harden  
them, and should stand out till the middle of Oc-

tober; but when the mornings begin to grow  
frosty, they must be removed into the green-house,  
and then placed as near the windows as possible,  
and the windows should be opened upon them till  
the weather is very cold. During the winter they  
must be often watered a little at a time, and their  
dead leaves should be pulled off. They must not  
stand under the shade of other plants, nor near a-

ny artificial heat. Those who wish that their  
plants should be large and flower soon, sow the  
seeds on a moderate hot-bed in the spring; when  
they are come up, they should not be drawn weak,  
and the pots into which they are transplanted  
should be plunged into another moderate hot-bed;  
shading them from the sun till they have taken  
root, and gradually inuring them to the open air,  
into which they should be removed in the begin-

ning of June, and placed in a sheltered situation  
with other exotic plants. The shrubby African  
geraniums are commonly propagated by cuttings,  
which planted in a shady border, in June or July,  
will take good root in 5 or 6 weeks; and they  
may then be taken up and planted in separate  
pots, placing them in the shade till they have ta-

ken new root; after which they may be removed  
into a sheltered situation, and treated as the seed-

ling plants. Geranium is recommended as one  
of the greatest vulneraries and abstersgents of the  
vegetable world, and is highly extolled for its  
power of stopping profluvia of the menses, and  
hæmorrhagies of all kinds. Experience confirms  
this, especially among the poor peop. in the  
country; and it were to be wished, that the plant  
could be brought into more esteem in the shops,  
where at present it is disregarded.

**GERANZAGO**, a town of the Cisalpine re-

public, in the dep. of Tessino, and late principa-

lity of Pavia.

**GERAR**, or } in ancient geography, the south

**GERARA**, } boundary of Canaan near Berse-

ba; situated between Cades and Zur; two deserts,

the one facing Egypt and the other Arabia Petrea

(1.) **GER-**

**PY, n. f.** [from Γη, earth, and πύριον,  
observation of the different qualities

*Bailey.*

**CK. adj.** [from γη.] Belonging to the  
trial. *Diß.*

, } in ancient geography, accord-

or, } ing to Procopius, were a Go-

thic people, some of whom, in

1 of the Goths, settled in an island at

f the Visula, which they called Ge-

their own name, which denotes lazy

others in Dacia, calling their settle-

**EPIDIA.**

**Z**, an imperial town of Wirtemberg,

of Stutgard. Lon. 9. 45. E. Lat. 48.

town of Saxony in Misnia, on the

miles SSW. of Leipzig, and 68 W. of

n. 11. 56. S. Lat. 50. 50. N.

[גרה, Heb.] the smallest silver coin a-

shrews, in value 7½d sterling.

**GER**, a town of Norway, in the dio-

ceson, 22 miles SSW. of Romedal.

**TES**, in natural history, an appella-

tion such of the semipellucid gems as are

of a spot resembling a crane's eye.

**UM, CRANE'S BILL**, in botany, a ge-

cecandria order, belonging to the mo-

sa of plants; and in the natural me-

g are these: the flower has a perman-

ent, composed of 5 small oval leaves,

5 heartshaped petals, spreading open,

in some species equal, and in others

are much larger than the 3 lower. It

isina, alternately longer than each other,

and the petals, and terminated by oblong  
in the bottom of the flower is situated  
ed germen, which is permanent. The  
ceded by 5 seeds, each being wrap-

pe husk of the beak, where they are  
ether at the point, so as to form the



(1.) GERARD, Alexander, D. D. professor of divinity in King's college, Aberdeen, and one of his majesty's chaplains for Scotland. He was eldest son of the rev. Gilbert Gerard, minister of Chapel of Garioch, and was born the 22d Feb. 1728. He received the rudiments of his education at Foveran, in Aberdeenshire; but his father dying when he was only ten years old, his mother and the family removed to Aberdeen, where he made such progress at the grammar school, that in two years he was deemed fit for the university. He accordingly entered student at Marischal college, and in 4 years afterwards was admitted A. M.: after which he studied theology at the universities of Aberdeen and Edinburgh. Having been licensed to preach in 1748, he was chosen assistant to prof. D. Fordyce, in 1750, and was afterwards appointed his successor, upon his untimely death, in 1752. See FORDYCE. In 1754, a material alteration being made in the order of teaching philosophy in the university, prof. Gerard was appointed to lay before the public the reasons which had influenced them to deviate from the former practice; which he accordingly did in a small pamphlet, that gave universal satisfaction; wherein he pointed out the inconveniences of the old, and the advantages of the new plan; which was at this time adopted by both colleges. About this time too he was an active member of a respectable literary society, which met once a fortnight at Aberdeen, and of which Drs Blackwell, Beattie, Gregory, Reid, Campbell, and other eminent literary gentlemen were members. On the 5th of Sept. 1759, he was ordained a minister of the church of Scotland; on the 11th of June, 1760, he was appointed professor of divinity in the Marischal college, and minister of the Gray-friars church at Aberdeen; and about the same time he was created D. D. On the 18th June 1771, he resigned both these offices, and was appointed professor of divinity in king's college; in which station he continued equally esteemed by his colleagues, and revered by his pupils, till his birthday 1795, when having just entered his 68th year, he died in consequence of a scirrous tumour, which had begun to appear in his face in 1794; and gradually impaired his constitution. Dr Gerard's character in private life was amiable and exemplary. Kindness to his relations, affability with his dependants, steadiness and warmth in his attachments to his friends, and hospitality to strangers without extravagance or ostentation, were conspicuous in his general conduct. His public discourses, as a minister and professor, were equally marked by distinctness of arrangement, accuracy of composition, and justness of reasoning. His friend, Dr Beattie, (who himself stands high in the republic of letters) assures us, that "he had improved his memory to such a degree, that, in little more than an hour, he could get by heart any sermon of ordinary length; though far from availing himself of this talent, as many would have done, he composed with care all the sermons that he preached." He was author of, 1. An Essay on Taste: 8vo. 1759. 2. Dissertations on subjects relating to the genius and evidences of Christianity: 8vo. 1766. 3. An Essay on Genius: 8vo. 1774. 4. Several Sermons on various subjects, published

from 1760 to 1782; and 5. A part of a gical course, entitled *The Pastoral* published in 1799, by his son, Dr Gilbert who succeeded him in his professorship. *Say on Taste* gained the gold prize medal the Philosophical Society of Edinburgh.

(2.) GERARD, John, a learned Luth. professor of divinity, and rector of the of Jena, his birth-place. He wrote, 1. *mony of the Eastern Languages*; 2. *A the Coptic Church*; and other works esteemed. He died in 1668.

(3.) GERARD, Tung, or Tom, found Grand Master of the Knights hospital John, or Knights of Malta, was born in Italy, in the 11th century. In A. D assumed a religious habit, with a white the breast, and, with many others, e vows of chastity, poverty, and to relief tians in distress, &c. He died in 1120 succeeded as grand master by Raymond Sec MALTA.

GERARDE, John, surgeon in Lo greatest botanist of his time, and many gardener to Lord Burleigh; who was great lover of plants, and had the best in the kingdom, among which were introduced by Gerarde. In 1597, he his *Herbal*, which was printed at the J. Norton, who procured the figures fort. In 1663, Thomas Johnson, an published an improved edition of Gerard which met with such approbation by ty of Oxford, that they conferred upo degree of M. D. and it is still much The descriptions in the herbal are plain liar; and are calculated to make the desistand the characters of the plants.

GERARDI, Christophcr, an emine of landscapes, grotesque and histories born at Florence in 1500. He died in

GERARDIA, in botany; a genius o espermia order, belonging to the didyr of plants: and in the natura! method r der the 40th order, *Ferjonat.e*. The cal quefid, the corolla bilabiate; the under tite; the side lobes emarginated, and t one bipartite; the capsule bilocular and

GERARDMER, a town of France i of Vosges, 10 miles SE. of Bruyeres, of Remiremort.

GERARDS, Mark, a famous painter born in 1561, who came to England and was appointed painter to Q. Eliza was eminent in history portraits and li and died in 1635.

GERARDSTOWN, a town of Virginia, ley county, 10 miles from Martinsburg from Philadelphia.

GERASA. See GADARENORUM AC GERASTORFF, a town of German ria; 7 miles E. of Korn Neuburg.

(1.) GERAU, or } a country of Ge  
(1.) GERAW, } Hesse Darmstadt  
conflux of the Maine and the Rhine.

(2.) GERAW, or GERAU, GROSS, Hesse Darmstadt, 8 miles WNW. of 1 and 10 SE. of Mentz. It is the capital



according to Dr Brookes, but Mrs Darmstadt the capital. Lon. 8. 45. N.

See JERBA.

US, Nicolas, an eminent lawyer, born in the 15th century. He published, 1. Description of Greece, in Latin; 2. *Vita F. Cypriani*; and 3. a curious *Enabaptistarum ortu & progressu*. Strasbourg, much respected and very

ON, Gabriel, a French priest and artist, born in 1620. He taught theology, till Lewis XIV. having ordered executed on account of the freedom of the bed to Holland. He died at St. 1. His chief work is his History of vols 12mo, Amst. 1703.

Y, a town of France, in the dep. of province of Isle of France. It was 9th century; taken by the English, 1437; but in 1449, the garrison were by the Picards. It is 6 miles NE. of NW. of Beauvais, and 50 N. of Paris. Lat. 49. 32. N.

or ZERBI. See ZERBI.

ILERS, a town of France, in the time, and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine; seated on the Agen, 6 miles S. of 16 E. of Fexelize.

Sir Balthazar, a painter of Antwerp, who distinguished himself by pictures in distemper. K. Charles I. was with his performances, that he invited, where he grew into great favour. hired, and sent to Brussels, where he is agent for that monarch.

ON, John Francis, one of the most Jesuit missionaries in China, was. He was in great favour with the whom he composed 2 books on geodesy at Pekin in the Chinese and Tartar. He wrote also Historical Observations of Tartary, and an Account of some, inserted in Du Halde's History of China at Pekin, superior general of all China.

ADT, a town of Saxony, in the county, 30 miles SW. of Dessau, and 36 S. E.

AN, a town of Prussia, in the prov. built in 1325, and defended by two on the Omat, 30 miles SE. of Ko-

, a town of Germany, in the bishopdom, 2 miles SE. of Dringenberg.

, a town of Russia, in the government of the Colva, 152 miles N. of Perm.

CHANSKOI, a fort of Siberia.

VT. *adj.* [*gerens*, Latin.] Carrying; 7.

DORF, a town of Austria, 3 miles ns.

, a town of Negropont.

FALCON. *n. f.* A bird of prey, in a vulture and a hawk, and of the 5th next to the eagle. *Bailey*.

ALCON. See FALCO, N<sup>o</sup> 22 and 31.

GERGAR, a town of Spain, in Granada.

GERGEFALVA, a town of Transylvania.

GERGENTI. See GIRGENTI.

GERGESA, in ancient geography, a Transjordan town, is otherwise known than by the *Gergetenes* of St Matthew, GERGESAI of Moses; supposed to have stood in the neighbourhood of Gadara, and near the sea of Tiberias. See GADARENORUM AGER.

GERGESZI, or } one of the 7 ancient nations  
GERGSENES, } of Canaan, less frequently mentioned than the rest. They appear to have been less considerable and more obscure: their name is from *Girgasi*, one of Canaan's sons. See GIRGASHITES.

GERGINSWALDE, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Leipzig, 4 miles NE. of Rochlitz.

GERHARDSBRON, a town of Germany, in Anspach; 28 miles W. of Anspach.

GERISIM, } or GARIZIM, in ancient geo-  
GERIZIM, } graphy, a mountain of Samaria, at the foot of which stood Shechem; so near, that Jotham could be heard by the Shechemites from its top; (*Judges ix. 7.*) famous for the temple built on it by Sanballat, in favour of his son-in-law Manasseh, by the permission of Alexander the Great; and destroyed 200 years after, by John Hyrcanus, son of Simon the 4th in succession of the Asmoneans. *Josephus*.

GERIA, a village of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of the Benaco.

GERLATZKOI, a fort of Russian Siberia.

GERM. See GERME, and GERMEN.

(1.) GERMAIN, or ST GERMAIN, a town of France, in the department of Seine and Oise, and ci-devant province of the Isle of France. It has a magnificent palace, embellished by Lewis XIV, who was born in it, with a fine forest and elegant gardens, &c. long the asylum of K. James II. It is seated on the Seine, 10 miles NW. of Paris. Lon. 2. 15. E. Lat. 48. 52. N.

(2.) GERMAIN LAVAL, ST, a town of France, in the dept. of Rhone and Loire, and late province of Forez; 18 miles S. of Roanne, and 225 SE. of Paris. Lon. 4. 2. E. Lat. 45. 50. N.

GERMAINS, ST, a borough of England, in Cornwall, formerly the largest town in the county, and a bishop's see. Part of the old cathedral is used as the parish church, and the priory is still standing. It is 10 miles W. of Plymouth, and 224 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 24. W. Lat. 50. 21. N.

(1.) GERMAN, or GERMANIC, *adj.* belonging to Germany.

(2.) \* GERMAN. *adj.* [*germanus*, Lat.] Related. Obsolete.—Not he alone shall suffer what wit can make heavy, and vengeance bitter; but those that are *german* to him, though removed fifty times, shall come under the hangman. *Scott's*.

(3.) \* GERMAN. *n. f.* [*germain*, Fr. *germanus*, Lat.] Brother; one approaching to a brother in proximity of blood: thus the children of brothers or sisters are called cousins *german*, the only sense in which the word is now used.—They knew it was their cousin *german*, the famous Amphialus. *Sidonius*.

And to him said, go now, proud miscreant,  
Thyself thy message do to *german* dear. *F. Q.*  
—Wert thou a bear, thou wouldst be kill'd by the  
horde;

horse; wert thou a horse, thou wouldst be seiz'd by the leopard; wert thou a leopard, thou wert *german* to the lion, and the spots of thy kindred wert juries on thy life. *Shak. Timon*.—You'll have your nephews neigh to you; you'll have couriers for cousins, and genets for *germans*. *Othello*.

(4.) GERMAN, in genealogy, signifies whole, entire, or own. *Germani, quasi eadem stirpe geniti. Fofius*. Hence, BROTHER GERMAN, denotes a brother both by the father's and mother's side, in contradistinction to uterine brothers, &c. who are only so by the mother's side. And COUSINS GERMAN, are those in the first degree, the children of brothers or sisters. See CONSANGUINITY, and COUSIN, § 1, 2.

(5.) GERMAN, in geography, a township of Pennsylvania, in Fayette county.

(6.) GERMAN PLATS, a town and township of New York, the capital of Herkemer county, containing 4194 citizens in 1790, of whom 684 were electors: seated on the Mohawk opposite Herkemer; 60 miles W. of Schenectady, 80 NW. by W. of Albany, and 340 N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0, 5. E. of that city. Lat. 42. 58. N.

(1.) \* GERMANDER. *n. f.* [*germandrée*, Fr. *chamaedrys*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller*.

(2.) GERMANDER, in botany. See TRUCRUM.

(3.) GERMANDER, ROCK. See VERONICA.

GERMANICUS CÆSAR, Claudius, the son of Drusus, and nephew to the emperor Tiberius, who adopted him. By his mother Antonia, daughter of Mark Antony and Octavia, he was grand-nephew to Augustus. He was much renowned as a general, but still more for his virtues. He took the title of *Germanicus* from his conquests in Germany; but though he refused the empire offered to him by his army, Tiberius, jealous of his success and popularity, caused him to be poisoned, A. D. 29, aged 34. He was a protector of learning; and composed some Greek comedies and Latin poems, some of which are still extant.

GERMANO, ST, a town of Naples, at the foot of Mount Cassano, with an abbey on the top of it. Lon. 13. 59. Lat. 41. 13. N.

(1.) GERMANS, the people of GERMANY.

(2.) GERMANS, CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE ANCIENT. The ancient Germans are described by the Greek and Roman writers as resembling the Gauls; and differing from other nations by their tall stature, ruddy complexion, blue eyes, yellow bushy hair, haughty and threatening looks, strong constitutions, and being proof against hunger, cold, and all kinds of hardships. Their native disposition appeared chiefly in their martial genius, and in their singular fidelity. The former they indeed carried to such an excess as came little short of downright ferocity: and as to the latter, they not only valued themselves, but were greatly esteemed by other nations for it; inasmuch that Augustus, and several of his successors, committed the guard of their persons to them, and other nations either courted their alliance, or hired them as auxiliaries: though it must be owned, that their extreme love of liberty, and their hatred of tyranny and oppression, often hurried them to treachery and murder, especially when they thought themselves ill used by those who hired

for in such cases they were easily provoked,

and extremely vindictive. In other cases tells us, they were noble, magnanimous, deficient, without ambition to aggrandize, or invade those from whom they had received no injury; rather choosing to exert strength and valour defensively than to preserve their own than to ravage their neighbours. Their friendship and inter- rather a compound of honest blunt-ness, than of wit, humour, or gall; and strangers were sure to meet with a kin- from them to the utmost of their ability to those who were not in a capacity to them, reckoned it a duty to introduce those who could; and nothing was held testable, than to refuse them either the other. They do not seem, indeed, to taste for elegant entertainments; they every thing, in their houses, furniture, rather plainness and simplicity, than in- nefs and luxury. If they learned of the and Gauls the use of money, it was cause they found it more convenient ancient way of bartering one commodi- ther; and then they preferred those an which had been stamped during the ti Roman liberty, especially such as were ed or cut in the rims, because they co- so easily cheated in them as in some oth- were frequently nothing but copper or over with silver. This last metal they li- ferred before gold, as more convenient and as they became more feared by th- they learned how to draw enough of it to supply their whole country, besides ed from other nations. As to marri- man was contented with one wife, ex- few of their nobles, who kept a plura- for shew than pleasure; and both part faithful to each other, and chaste, tru- interested, in their conjugal affection, th- prefers their manners in this respect t- the Romans. The men sought not do- their wives, but bestowed them upon th- youth, in those cold climes, did not be- to feel the warmth of love as those in h- it was common with them not to mar- and those were most esteemed who- longest in celibacy, because they reck- effectual means to make them grow tall: To marry, or be concerned with a wom- they were full 20 years old, was account- ful wantonness. The women shared- husbands not only the care of their fa- the education of their children, but ever- ships of war. They attended them in- cooked their victuals, dressed their w- cited their courage to fight against th- and sometimes by their own bravery r- victory when it was upon the point of- In a word, they looked upon such ex- tendance on them, not as a servitude, li- man dames, but as a duty and an hon- what appears to have been still an hard- the ancient German ladies was, that- ODIN, or WODEN, excluded all thos- *valballu*, or paradise, who did not, by- lent death, follow their deceased husba-

**GERMANS, FUNERALS AND FEASTS OF THE ANCIENT.** There is scarcely any thing in German customs, though nearly allied in most particulars to the Gauls, were more peculiar than in their funerals. Those of the former were performed with great pomp and magnificence, those of the latter with the same simplicity which they observed in their religious rites. The only grandeur they affected was, to burn the bodies of their great men in peculiar kinds of wood; but then the funeral pile was neither adorned with the clothes of the deceased, nor with any of the furniture of the deceased, nor with fragrant herbs and gums: each man's arms, as his sword, shield, and spear, were deposited, and sometimes his riding horse. The funeral pile, being kindled, the chief mourners, who walked in a gloomy procession round the fire, exhorted the bystanders to follow into it in honour of the deceased. The Romans deposited their ashes in urns, like the Egyptians, and numbers which have been dug up in various parts of the country, and illustrated by dissertations on them, by several learned moderns of France. And the sacrifices they offered for the dead, and all the other superstitious rites attended to them, were done in consequence of the tenets of their ancient religion, which had a strong tendency to the immortality of the soul, and the bliss or misery of a future life. At the same time, as well as in all their other feasts, they were inclined to drinking to excess; and one of the chief promoters of health and strength, and bravery; upon which account, they were very fond of feasts, and before battle, but even in their private meals.

**GERMANS, RELIGIOUS OPINIONS AND CUSTOMS OF THE ANCIENT.** As the ancients did not commit any thing to writing, none of the ancient writers have given us any account of it, it is impossible to guess how much of their great Woden, and his parables received among them. It may have been older than the times of Tacitus, and we know nothing of it, from their care in their religion from strangers; but as their doctrines to posterity by songs and most of their northern poets tell us, have drawn their intelligence from poems, which were preserved among them, may justly suppose, that whatever doctrines contained in them, were formerly prominent: generality of the nation, especially their ancient practice conformable to it. The surest road to this paradise was, to do great deeds, and to die intrepidly in the field; and as none were excluded from the rewards, and betrayers of their country.

ART. II.

It is natural to think, that the signal and excessive bravery of the Germans flowed from this ancient belief of theirs: and, if their females were so brave and faithful, as not only to share with their husbands all the dangers and fatigues of war, but at length to follow them by a voluntary death, into the other world; it can hardly be attributed to any thing else but a strong persuasion of their being admitted to live with them in that place of bliss. This belief therefore, whether received originally from the ancient Celtes, or afterwards taught them by the since deified Woden, seems, from their general practice, to have been universally received by all the Germans, though they might differ one from another in their notions of that future life. The notion of a future happiness obtained by martial exploits, especially by dying sword-in-hand, made them bewail the fate of those who lived to old age, as dishonourable here, and hopeless hereafter: upon which account, they had a barbarous way of sending them into the other world, willing or not willing. And this custom is said to have lasted several ages even after their receiving Christianity, especially among the Prussians and Veneti. These murders were preceded by a fast and followed by a feast.

(5.) **GERMANS, STATURE, CHARACTER, AND MANNERS OF THE MODERN.** The modern Germans in their persons are tall and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape, that are so bewitching in Britain. Both men and women affect rich dresses, which in fashion are the same as in France and England; but the superior ranks are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially those in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, who can obtain them. The female part of the burgher families, in many German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic, as may be seen in many prints published in books of Travels; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did 40 or 50 years ago. The peasants and labourers dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments and opulence. In Westphalia, and most other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-beds, or rather the upper one of down, with sheets stretched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but, in general, the circumstances of the common people were far preferable to those of the French, before the revolution. The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously proud of titles, ancestry, and show. The Germans, in general, are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert even in the field of battle.

B b b

But

But when commanded by able generals, especially Italians, such as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things, both against the Turks and the French. The Imperial arms, it has been said, seldom made any remarkable figure against either of those two nations, or against the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This possibly might be owing to the arbitrary obstinacy of the court of Vienna; but in the two last wars, as well as in the present, the Austrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius. Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible were they not visible, especially in watch and clock making, jewellery, turnery, sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking; and perhaps not unjustly, owing to the vast abundance of their country in wine and provisions of every kind. But these vices seem now to be wearing out. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely during dinner, yet the repast is commonly finished by coffee after 3 or 4 public toasts. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, &c. The German nobles are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, than of any other nation. The merchants and tradesmen are very obliging. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds. This perhaps is one reason, why the German husbands are not quite so complaisant as they ought otherwise to be to their ladies, who are not intitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being neither ambitious nor loquacious, though they are said to be fond of gaming. Many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniences. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it may treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a species of beings superior to labourers, they would demean themselves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds. The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreations in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tigers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet, lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by a horse of tag, set off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly

in the night time, servants ride before the sledge with torches, and a gentleman sitting on the sledge behind guides the horse.

(1.) GERMANTOWN, a town of New York, in Columbia county, containing 516 citizens, in 1796.

(2. 3.) GERMANTOWN, the name of two towns in North Carolina; 1. in Hyde county, Newbern district; 2. the capital of Stokes county, on a branch of the Dan, 523 miles SW. by S. of Philadelphia.

(4.) GERMANTOWN, a town of Pennsylvania, in Philadelphia county, chiefly inhabited by Germans. It has one principal street, mostly of stone buildings, 2 miles long, with Lutheran and Calvinist churches, Quaker meeting house, &c. Stockings are manufactured to a great extent, and there are several tanneries. It is 7 miles N. of Philadelphia.

(1.) GERMANY, a very extensive empire in Europe, but which, in different ages, has had very different limits. The name, according to the most probable conjecture, is derived from the Celtic words, *Ghar man*, signifying a warlike man, in which their other name, *ALLMAN*, or *ALLMANN*, likewise alludes.

(2.) GERMANY, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS AND EXTENT OF. The ancient history of the Germans is altogether wrapped up in obscurity; nor do we, in many ages, know any thing more of them than what we learn from the history of their wars with the Romans. The first time they are mentioned by the Roman historians, is about A. A. C. 113, when Marcellus subdued Insubria and Liguria, and defeated the *Gefate*, a German nation situated on the banks of the Rhine. From this time history is silent with regard to all these northern nations till the eruption of the Cimbric and Teutonic, who inhabited the most northerly parts of Germany. The event of their enterprise will be found related under the articles AMBRONES, CIMBRI, and TEUTONES. We must not, however, imagine, because these people invaded Italy at the same time, that therefore their countries were contiguous. The Cimbric and Teutonic only dwelt beyond the Rhine; while the Ambrones inhabited the country between Switzerland and Provence. It is indeed very difficult to fix the limits of the country called *Germany* by the Romans. The southern Germans were intermixed with the Gauls, and the northern ones with the Scythians; and thus the ancient history of the Germans includes that of the Dacians, Huns, Goths, &c. till the destruction of the western Roman empire by them. Ancient Germany, therefore, we may reckon to have included the northern part of France, the Netherlands, Holland, *Germany* so called at present, Denmark, Prussia, Poland, Hungary, part of Turkey in Europe, and Muscovy.

(3.) GERMANY, ANCIENT DIVISION OF. The Romans divided Germany into two regions; BELGIC or *Lower Germany*, which lay to the southward of the Rhine; and, 2. GERMANY PROPER or *HIGH GERMANY*.

I. GERMANY, BELGIC, or LOWER GERMAN, lay between the rivers Seine and the Rhine; and in this we find a number of different nations, the most remarkable of which were the following: 1. The *UBII*, whose territory lay betwe

rhine and the Mosæ, (or Mæse,) and whose capital was Cologne. 2. Next to them were the *Tungri*, supposed to be the same whom Cæsar calls *Sibrones* and *Coudrivi*; and whose metropolis, then called *Attuatica*, has since been named *Tonnes*. 3. Higher up from them, and on the other side of the Moselle, were the *Treviri*, whose capital was *Augusta Trevirorum*, now *Triers*. 4. Next to them were the *Tribocci*, *Neuenses*, and *Favonenses*. The former dwelt in Alsace, and had *Argentoratum*, now *Strasbourg*, for their capital: the others inhabited the cities of *Worms*, *Spire*, and *Bentz*. 5. The *Mediomatrici* were situated along the Moselle, about the city of *Niezy* in Lorraine: and above them were situated another German nation, named *Raurici*, *Ravari*, or *Rauriaci*, who inhabited that part of Helvetia, above *Basil*. To the W. and S. of these were the *Nervi*, *Suessones*, *Silvanenses*, *Luci*, *Rhemi*, *Langones*, &c. who inhabited Belgic Gaul. Between the heads of the Rhine and Danube were seated the ancient kingdom of *Vindelicia*, whose capital was called *Lugudunum Vindelicorum*, now *Augsburg*. Below it, on the banks of the Danube were the kingdoms of *Noricum* and *Pannonia*. The first of these was divided into *Noricum Ripense* and *Mediterraneum*. It contained a great part of the provinces of *Austria*, *Styria*, *Carinthia*, *Tyrol*, *Bavaria*, and some others of less note. The latter contained the kingdom of *Hungary*, divided into *Upper* and *Lower*; and extending from *Illyricum* to the *Danube*, and the mountains *Cæthi* in the neighbourhood of *Vandobona*, now *Vienna*.

**GERMANY, PROPER, UPPER, or HIGH GERMANY**, lay beyond the Rhine and Danube. Between the Rhine and Elbe were the following nations: 1. The *Chauci*, *Upper* and *Lower*; who were divided from each other by the river *Visurgæ*, now the *Hefe*. Their country contained what is now called *Bremen*, *Lunenbourg*, *Friesland*, and *Amstergaen*. The upper *Chauci* had the *Cheruci*, and the lower the *Chamavi* on the SE. and the *Frisoni* on the NW. 2. The *Frisoni*, upper and lower, were divided from the lower *Chauci* by the river *Amisfa*, now the *Ems*; and from one another by an arm of the Rhine. Their country retains the name of *Friesland*, and is divided into *East* and *West*; but the latter has been long separated from Germany, as one of the *Seven United Provinces*, and now forms the department of *Ems* in the *Batavian republic*. 3. Beyond the *Frisoni*, (now the *Yssel*), which bounded the country of the *Frisoni*, were situated the *Bructeri*, who inhabited that tract now called *Broccmorland*; and the *Marsi*, about the river *Luppe*. On the other side of that river were the *Usippii* or *Uspites*; and these were famed for often changing their territories, and therefore found in other places. 4. Next to these were the *Juones*, or inhabitants of *Juverna*, between the *Mæse* and the *Rhine*. 5. The *Catti*, another ancient and warlike nation, inhabited *Hesse* and *Thuringia*, from the *Haartzian mountains* to the *Rhine* and *Weser*; among whom were comprehended the *Mattiaci*, whose capital by some thought to be *Marpurg*, by others *Weser*. 6. Next to these were the *Seducii* bordering upon *Suabia*; *Narisci*, or the ancient inhabitants of *Northgow*, whose capital was *Nu-*

*remberg*; and the *Marcomanni*, whose country anciently reached from the Rhine to the head of the *Danube* and to the *Neckar*. The *MARCOMANNI* afterwards went and settled in *Bohemia* and *Moravia*, under their general or king *Mirobodius*; and some of them in *Gaul*, whence they drove the *Boii*, who had settled themselves there. 7. On the other side of the *Danube*, and between the *Rhine* and it, where the *HERMUNDURI*, who possessed the country now called *Misfia* in *Upper Saxony*; though some make their territories to have extended much farther, and to have reached to, or even beyond *Bohemia*, then the seat of the *Boii*, whence its name. 8. Beyond them, on the N. of the *Danube*, was another seat of the *MARCOMANNI* along the river *Albis*, or *Elbe*. 9. Next to *Bohemia* were situated the *QUADI*, whose territories extended from the *Danube* to *Moravia*, and the northern part of *Austria*. These are comprehended under the ancient name of *SUEVI*; part of whom at length forced their way into *Spain*, and settled a kingdom there. 10. Eastward of the *Quadi* were situated the *BASTARNÆ*, and parted from them by the *Granna*, now *Gran*, a river that falls into the *Danube*; and by the *Carpathian mountains*, from them called *Alpes Bastarnicæ*. The country of the *Bastarnæ* indeed made part of the *European Sarmatia*, and so was without the limits of *Germany* properly so called; but we find these people so often in league with the *German nations*, and joining them for the destruction of the *Romans*, that we cannot but account them as one people. Between those nations, seated along the other side of the *Danube* and the *Hercynian forest*, were several others whose exact situation is uncertain, viz. the *Martigni*, *Burii*, *Borades*, *Lygii*, or *Loziones*, and some others, who are placed by our geographers along the forest above-mentioned, between the *Danube* and the *Vistula*. On this side the *Hercynian forest*, were the famed *RHÆTI*, (now *GRISONS*;) seated among the *Alps*. Their country, which was also called *Western Illyricum*, was divided into *Rætia Prima* or *Propria*, and *Secunda*; and was then of much larger extent, spreading itself towards *Suabia*, *Bavaria*, and *Austria*. On the other side of the *Hercynian forest* were, 1. The *SUEVI*, who spread themselves from the *Vistula* to the river *Elbe*. 2. The *LONGOBARDI*, so called, according to some, on account of their wearing long beards; but according to others, on account of their consisting of two nations, viz. the *Bardi* and *Lingones*. These dwelt along the river *Elbe*, and bordered southward on the *Chauci* above-mentioned. 3. The *BURGUNDI*, of whose original seat we are uncertain. 4. The *Semnonæ*, who, about the time of *Tiberius*, were seated on the river *Elbe*. 5. The *ANGLES*, *SAXONS*, and *GOTHS*, were probably the descendants of the *Cimbri*; and inhabited the countries of *Denmark*, along the *Baltic sea*, and the peninsula of *Scandinavia*, containing *Norway*, *Sweden*, *Lapland*, and *Finmark*. 6. The *VANDALS* were a Gothic nation, who, proceeding from *Scandinavia*, settled in the countries now called *Mecklenburgh* and *Brandenburgh*. 7. Of the same race were the *DACIANS*, who settled themselves in the neighbourhood of *Palus Mæotis*, and extended their territories along the banks of the *Danube*.

(4.) **GERMANY, ANCIENT HISTORY OF, TILL CÆSAR'S EXPEDITION.** The above are the names of the German nations, who performed the most remarkable exploits in their wars with the Romans. We also find mention made of the **SCORDISCI**, a Thracian nation, who afterwards settled on the banks of the Danube. About A. A. C. 113, they ravaged Macedon, and cut off a whole Roman army sent against them; the general M. Porcius Cato, grandson to Cato the censor, being the only person who escaped. After this, they ravaged all Thessaly; and advanced to the coasts of the Adriatic, into which, because it stopped their farther progress, they discharged a shower of darts. By another Roman general, however, they were driven back into their own country with great slaughter; and, soon after, Metellus so weakened them by repeated defeats, that they were incapable, for some time, of making any more attempts on the Roman provinces. At last, in the consulship of M. Livius Drusus and L. Calpurnius Piso, the former prevailed on them to pass the Danube, which thenceforth became the boundary between the Romans and them. Notwithstanding this, in the time of the Jugurthine war, the Scordisci passed the Danube on the ice every winter, and being joined by the **TRIBALLI**, a people of Lower Mœsia, and the **Daci** of Upper Mœsia, penetrated as far as Macedon, committing every where dreadful ravages. So early did these northern nations begin to be formidable to the Romans, even when they were most renowned for warlike exploits. Till the time of Julius Cæsar, however, we hear nothing more concerning the Germans.

(5.) **GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM CÆSAR'S EXPEDITION TO HIS DEATH.** About A. A. C. 58, Cæsar undertook his expedition into Gaul; during which, his assistance was implored by the **Ædui**, against **Ariovistus**, a German prince who oppressed them. Cæsar, pleased with this opportunity of increasing his power, invited Ariovistus to an interview; but this being declined, he next sent deputies desiring him to restore the hostages he had taken from the **Ædui**, and to bring no more troops over the Rhine into Gaul. To this a haughty answer was returned; and a battle soon after ensued, in which Ariovistus was entirely defeated, and with great difficulty made his escape. In A. A. C. 55, Cæsar having subdued the **Suevones**, **Bellovaci**, **Ambiani**, **Nervi**, and other nations of Belgic Gaul, hastened to oppose the **Usipetes** and **Tencteri**. These nations having been driven out of their own country by the **Suevi**, had crossed the Rhine with a design to settle in Gaul. As soon as he appeared, the Germans sent him a deputation, offering to join him, provided he would assign them lands. Cæsar replied, that there was no room in Gaul for them; but he would desire the **Ubii** to give them leave to settle among them. Upon this, they desired time to treat with the **Ubii**; but in the mean time fell upon some Roman squadrons: which so provoked Cæsar, that he immediately marched against them, and coming unexpectedly upon them, defeated them with great slaughter. They fled in the utmost confusion; but the Romans pursued them to the conflux of the Rhine and the Mæse, where a battle was renewed with such fury, that

about 400,000 of the Germans perished. A this, Cæsar, being resolved to spread the terror of the Roman name through Germany, built a bridge over the Rhine, and entered that country. In this expedition, however, which was his last into Germany, he performed no remarkable exploits. A little before his death, indeed, he had projected the conquest of that as well as of many other countries; but his assassination prevented the execution of these projects.

(6.) **GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM CÆSAR'S TIME, TILL THE DEATH OF DRUSUS.** Not further is recorded of the Germans till about A. C. 17, when the **TENCTERI** made an irruption into Gaul, and defeated M. Lollius, proconsul of that province. At last, however, they were pushed, and forced to retire with great loss beyond the Rhine. Soon after this the **Rhæti** invaded Italy, where they committed the greatest devastations, putting all the males they met to the sword without distinction of age; and when they began to take women with child, they consulted their augurs to know whether the child was male or female; and if they pronounced it a male, the mother was immediately massacred. Against these barbarians was sent Drusus, the second son of Livia, a youth of extraordinary valour and great accomplishments. He brought them to battle; in which the Romans proved victorious, and cut in pieces great numbers of them with very little loss. Those who escaped the general slaughter, being joined by the **Vindelici**, fled their rout towards Gaul, with a design to invade that province. But Augustus, upon the notice of their march, dispatched against them **Tiberius** with several chosen legions. He was no less successful than Drusus had been; for having transported his troops over the lake **Brigantium** (now **CONSTANCE**), he fell unexpectedly on the enemy, and gave them a total overthrow, took most of their strong holds, and obliged the whole nation to submit to his own terms. Tiberius, to keep the conquered countries in awe, planted two colonies in **Vindelicia**, and opened from thence a road to **Rhætia** and **Noricum**. One of the cities which he built for the defence of his colonies, he called from his father Drusus, **Drusomagus**; the other by the name of Augustus, **Augusta Vindelicorum**, which cities are now known by the names of **MUNINGHEN** and **AUGSBURG**. He next encountered the **Pannonians**, who had been subdued by **Agrippa**, but revolted on hearing the news of that great commander's death, which happened A. A. C. 11. Tiberius, however, with the assistance of the **Scordisci**, soon forced them to submit. They delivered up their arms, and hostages, and put the Romans in possession of all their towns and strong holds. Tiberius spared their lives; but laid waste their country, plundered their cities, and sent the best part of their youth into other countries. In the mean time, Drusus having prevented the Gauls from revolting, prepared to oppose the Germans who dwelt beyond the Rhine. They had collected the most numerous and formidable army that ever been seen in those parts; with which they were advancing towards the Rhine, when Drusus defeated them as they attempted to cross

and, pursuing his advantage, entered of the Usipetes, now *Relinchen*, and advanced against the Sicambri in the wood of the Lype and Yffel. They were in a great battle, laid waste their burnt most of their cities, and following of the Rhine, approached the Germanic the Frisii and the Chauci between and the Elbe. In these marches the need extremely for want of provisions: himself was often in great danger of need, as the Romans who attended him unacquainted with the flux and reflux of the Rhine. The Roman forces went into their winter quarters; and next year (A. D. 12) Drusus marched against the Teutones, easily subdued. Afterwards, passing (now the Lype) he reduced the Catti, extending his conquests to the Visurgis (or Weser); which he would had he not been in want of provisions, having laid waste the whole country. retreating, the Germans unexpectedly met him in a narrow passage; and having cut the Roman army, cut a great number of pieces. But Drusus having animated the Germans were defeated with such slaughter that the ground was strewed for several days with dead bodies. Drusus found in their camp a quantity of iron chains, which they had taken from the Romans; and so great was the booty, that they had agreed before the division of the booty. After this Drusus built two forts to keep the countries in awe; the one at the confluence of the Lype and the Alme, the other in the Catti on the Rhine. He also made a canal, called in honour of his wife *Flavia*, to convey the waters of the Rhine into the North Sea, which extended 8 miles; and was very convenient for conveying the Roman troops by water to the Frisii and Chauci. The Emperor Augustus, bent on the subduing of the whole of Germany, advanced to the North Sea, attended by Tiberius and the former he sent against the Daci, to the S. of the Danube; and the complete conquest he had so successfully in the western parts of Germany, easily overcame the Daci, and transported of them into Gaul. The latter, of the Rhine, subdued all the nations over to the Elbe; but having attempted to cross this last, he set out for Rome: never, was put to his conquests and violent fever, with which he was seized: turn.

GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM DRUSUS'S THAT OF VARUS. After the death of Tiberius again over-ran all those countries Drusus had spent the preceding year had struck some of the northern nations in error, that they sent deputies to sue for peace. This, however, they could not obtain from the emperor declaring that he would conclude a peace with one, unless they But the Catti, or according to some

the Sicambri, could not be prevailed upon to submit; so that the war was carried on, though in a languid manner, for about 18 years. During this period, some of the German nations had quitted their forests, and begun to live in a civilized manner under the protection of the Romans; but Quinctilius Varus being sent to command the Roman forces in that country, he so provoked the inhabitants by his extortions, that not only those who still held out refused to submit, but even the nations that had submitted were seized with an eager desire of throwing off the yoke. Among these was a young chieftain of extraordinary parts and valour, named *Arminius*. He was the son of Sigimer, one of the most powerful chiefs among the Catti, had served with great reputation in the Roman armies, and been honoured by Augustus with the privileges of a Roman citizen, and the title of knight. But his patriotism prevailing over his gratitude, he resolved to improve the general discontent among his countrymen, to deliver them from the Roman yoke. With this view he engaged, underhand, the leading men of all the nations between the Rhine and the Elbe, in a conspiracy against the Romans. To put Varus off his guard, he advised him to show himself to the inhabitants of the more distant provinces, administer justice among them, and accustom them to live after the Roman manner. Varus, being a man of a peaceable temper, readily consented to this insidious proposal; and, leaving the neighbourhood of the Rhine, marched into the country of the Cherusci. Having there spent some time in hearing causes, Arminius persuaded him to weaken his army, by sending out detachments to clear the country of robbers. This done, some distant nations of Germany rose up in arms by Arminius's directions; while those through which Varus was to pass in marching against them, pretended to be in a state of tranquillity, and ready to join the Romans against their enemies. On the first news of the revolt, Varus marched against the enemy with three legions and six cohorts; but being attacked by the Germans as he passed through a wood, his army was almost totally cut off, while he himself and most of his officers fell by their own hands.

(8.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM GERMANICUS'S FIRST EXPEDITION TO HIS RETURN. This terrible overthrow, though it raised a general consternation in Rome, did not, however, cause Augustus to abandon his enterprise. About two years after (A. D. 12), Tiberius and Germanicus were appointed to command in Germany. The death of Augustus, which happened soon after, prevented Tiberius from going on his expedition; and Germanicus was for some time hindered from proceeding in his, by a revolt of the legions, first in Pannonia, and then in Germany. About A. D. 15, Germanicus having brought over the soldiers to their duty, laid a bridge across the Rhine, over which he marched 12,000 legionaries, 26 cohorts of the allies, and 8 alæ (squadrons of 300 each) of horse. With these he first traversed the Cælian forest (part of the Hercynian, supposed to lie partly in the duchy of Cleves, and partly in Westphalia), and some other woods. On his march, he was informed, that



that the Marſi were celebrating a feſtival with great mirth and jollity. Upon this he advanced with ſuch expedition, that he ſurprized them in the miſt of their debauch; a terrible maſſacre enſued, and the country was deſtroyed with fire and ſword for 30 miles round, without the loſs of a ſingle man on the part of the Romans. This general maſſacre roused the Bruſteri, the Tubantes, and the Uſipetes; who beſetting the paſſes through which the Roman army was to return, fell upon the rear, and put them into diſorder; but the Romans ſoon recovered themſelves, and defeated the Germans with conſiderable loſs. The following year, (A. D. 16.) Germanicus, taking advantage of ſome intestine broils which happened among the Catti, entered their country, where he put great numbers to the ſword. Moſt of their youth, however, eſcaped by ſwimming over the Adrana, (now the Eder,) and attempted to prevent the Romans from laying a bridge over that river; but being diſappointed in this, ſome of them ſubmitted to Germanicus, while the greater part, abandoning their villages, took refuge in the woods; ſo that the Romans, without oppoſition, ſet fire to all their towns, and villages; and having burnt their capital, began their march back to the Rhine. Germanicus had ſcarce reached his camp, when he received a meſſage from Segeſtes, a German prince, in the intereſt of the Romans, acquainting him that he was beſieged in his camp by Arminius. On this he inſtantly marched againſt the beſiegers, entirely defeated them, and took a great number of priſoners; among whom was Thuſfeldis, the wife of Arminius, and daughter of Segeſtes, whom the former had carried off, and married againſt her father's will. Arminius then, more enraged than ever, for the loſs of his wife, whom he tenderly loved, ſtirred up all the neighbouring nations againſt the Romans. Germanicus to avoid engaging ſuch numerous forces at once, detached his lieutenant Cæcina, at the head of 40 cohorts, into the territories of the Bruſteri; his cavalry, under the command of Pedro, entered the country of the Friſii; while he himſelf embarked the remainder of his army, conſiſting of four legions, on a neighbouring lake; and transported them by rivers and canals to the place appointed on the Ecms, where the three bodies met. In their march they found the ſad remains of the legions conducted by Varus, which they buried with all the ceremony their circumſtances could admit. After this they advanced againſt Arminius, who retired and poſted himſelf advantageouſly cloſe to a wood. The Roman general coming up with him, ordered his cavalry to advance and attack the enemy. Arminius, at their firſt approach, pretended to fly; but ſuddenly wheeled about, and giving the ſignal to a body of troops, whom he had concealed in the wood, to ruſh out, obliged the cavalry to give ground. The cohorts then advanced to their relief; but they too were put into diſorder, and would have been pushed into a morafs, had not Germanicus himſelf advanced with the reſt of the cavalry to their relief. Arminius did not think it prudent to engage theſe freſh troops, but retired in good order; upon which Germanicus alſo retired towards the Ecms. Here he embarked with four

legions, ordered Cæcina to reconduct four by land, and ſent the cavalry to march along the ſhore with orders to march along the ſhore. Though Cæcina was to return by ſea, yet Germanicus adviſed him to go with all poſſible ſpeed, a cauſeway, called *the ſea way*, which led acroſs vaſt marſhes, on all ſides with woods and hills. He having got notice of this, arrived at the ſea before him; and filled the woods with ſoldiers who, on the approach of the Romans, and attacked them with great fury. Germanicus was unable to manage their arms in the manner he was obliged to yield; and would have been entirely defeated, had not night put an end to combat. The Germans, encouraged by ſucceſs, inſtead of ſleeping ſpent the night in diverting the courſes of the rivulets in the neighbouring mountains; ſo that the camp of the Romans was ſwamped with water, and their works were overturned; at laſt reſolved to attack the enemy by land, having driven them to their woods, and ſtationed them there, till the baggage and what ſhould paſs the cauſeway, and get out of my's reach. But when his army was ſtationed, the legions poſted on the wings, diſtations, and occupied a field beyond; Cæcina followed them, but the baggage was ſtationed in the mire, as he attempted to croſs it, which greatly embarrassed the foldiers; perceiving this, began the attack, and ſaid, "This is a ſecond Varus, the ſame as he who killed him and his legions," fell on the Romans with expreſſible fury. As he had ordered the baggage to be carried, great numbers were killed; and the ground became ſo ſoaked with their blood, the reſt either fell on their knees, or galloping through the rain in diſorder. Cæcina diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the battle, but his horſe being killed, he would have been taken priſoner, had not the firſt legions taken him. The avarice of the enemy, however, prevented the Romans from deſtruction; for the legions were quite ſpent, and on the morning, the Germans ſuddenly abandoned their baggage. During this reſt, the Romans ſtruggled out of the marſh, and entered the dry fields, formed a camp with ſpeed. The Germans having thus loſt the opportunity of deſtroying the Romans, conſidering the advice of Arminius, attacked them the next morning, but were repulſed with great loſs; after which they gave Cæcina no more trouble till he reached the banks of the Rhine. Germanicus, in the mean time, having collected the legions he had with him down to the ocean, to return by ſea to the Rhine, ſending his veſſels overloaded, delivered the 14th legions to P. Vitellius, deſiring him to reconduct them by land. But this march was attended with great numbers, who were either killed or ſwallowed up by the tide, to which they were as yet unaccuſtomed. Thoſe who eſcaped, loſt their arms, and provisions; and paſſed a melancholy time, ſome of them an eminence, which they had gained up to the chin. The next morning a



y a hasty march, reached the USINGIS, (so thought to be the HOERENSTER,) on the city of Groningen stands. There Germanicus, who had reached that river with his look the legions again on board, and conducted them to the mouth of the Rhine, whence he returned to Cologne, where it was reported they were totally lost.

**GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM GERMANICUS'S RETURN TO HIS DECISIVE VICTORY ARMINIUS.** This expedition cost the Romans very dear, and procured very few advantages.

Great numbers of men had perished; and the greatest part of those who had escaped to managers returned without arms, utensils, horse, half naked, lamed, and unfit for service. Next year, however, Germanicus, bent on the reduction of Germany, made vast preparations for another expedition. Having found that the Germans were chiefly indebted for their safety to woods and marshes, their short summers and long winters; and that his troops suffered from their tedious marches than from the enemy, he resolved to enter the country by sea, and thus to begin the campaign earlier, and to reach the enemy. Having therefore built 1000 vessels, with great dispatch, during winter, he sailed them early in the spring, (A. D. 16.) to the mouth of the Rhine; and appointed the island of Batavia for the general rendezvous of his fleet.

When the fleet was sailing, he detached some of his lieutenants, with orders to make an irruption into the country of the Catti; and in the mean time, he himself, upon hearing a Roman fort on the Lupias was besieged, and with six legions to its relief. Silius was repulsed, by sudden rains, from doing more than to take some booty, with the wife and daughter of the king of the Catti; neither did those who were to defend the fort wait the arrival of Germanicus. In the mean time, the fleet arriving at the island of Batavia, the provisions and warlike engines were put on board and sent forward; ships were assigned to the legions and allies; and the army being embarked, the fleet entered the bay formerly cut by Drusus, and from his name called *Flessa Drusiana*. Hence he sailed prosperously to the mouth of the Ems; where, having collected his troops, he marched directly to the Weser, and found Arminius encamped on the opposite bank, and determined to dispute his passage. The next day Arminius drew out his troops in order of battle: but Germanicus, not thinking it prudent to attack them, ordered the horse to be sent under the command of his lieutenants Silius and Emilius; who, to divide the enemy's forces, crossed the river in two different places.

At the same time Carovalda, the leader of the Batavian auxiliaries, crossed the river where the most rapid: but being driven into an ambush, he was killed, together with most of the nobility; and the rest would have been cut off, had not Stertinus and Emilius come to their assistance. Germanicus at the same time passed the river without molestation. Soon after ensued; in which the Germans were defeated with so great a slaughter that the river was covered with arms and dead bodies

for more than 10 miles round: and among the spoils taken on this occasion, were found, as formerly, the chains with which the Germans had hoped to bind their captives.

(10.) **GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM GERMANICUS'S VICTORY, TO THE INVASION BY THE DACIANS.** In memory of this signal victory, Germanicus raised a mount, upon which he placed as trophies the arms of the enemy, and inscribed underneath the names of the conquered nations. This so provoked the Germans, though already vanquished and determined to abandon their country, that they attacked the Roman army unexpectedly on its march, and put them into some disorder. Being repulsed, they encamped between a river and a large forest surrounded by a marsh except on one side, where it was inclosed by a broad rampart formerly raised by the Angrivarii as a barrier between them and the Cherusci. Here another battle ensued; in which the Germans behaved with great bravery, but in the end were defeated with great slaughter. After this second defeat, the Angrivarii submitted, and were taken under the protection of the Romans, and Germanicus put an end to the campaign. Some of the legions he sent to their winter-quarters by land, while he himself embarked with the rest on the river Ems, in order to return by sea. The ocean proved at first very calm, and the wind favourable: but all of a sudden a storm arising, the fleet, consisting of 1000 vessels, was dispersed: some of them were swallowed up by the waves; others were dashed in pieces against the rocks, or driven upon remote and inhospitable islands, where the men either perished by famine, or lived upon the flesh of the dead horses with which the shores soon appeared strewed; for, in order to lighten their vessels, and disengage them from the shoals, they had been obliged to throw overboard their horses and beasts of burden, nay, even their arms and baggage. Most of the men, however, were saved, and even great part of the fleet recovered. Some of them were driven upon the coast of Britain; but the petty kings who reigned there generously sent them back. On the news of this misfortune, the Catti, taking new courage, ran to arms; but Caius Silius being detached against them with 30,000 foot and 3000 horse, kept them in awe. Germanicus himself, at the head of a numerous body, made a sudden irruption into the territories of the Marci, where he recovered one of Varus's eagles, and having laid waste the country, he returned to the frontiers of Germany, and put his troops into winter quarters; whence it was soon recalled by Tiberius, and never suffered to return into Germany again. After the departure of Germanicus, the more northern nations of Germany were no more molested by the Romans. Arminius carried on a long and successful war with Maroboduus king of the Marcomanni, whom he at last expelled, and obliged to apply to the Romans for assistance; but, excepting Germanicus, it seems they had at this time no other general capable of opposing Arminius, so that Maroboduus was never restored. After the final departure of the Romans, however, Arminius having attempted to enslave his country, fell by the treachery of his own kindred.

The Germans held his memory in great veneration; and Tacitus informs us, that in their still celebrated him in their songs. Nothing remarkable occurs in the history of Germany from this time till the reign of Claudius I. A war indeed is said to have been carried on by Lucius Domitius, the father of Nero. But of his exploits we know nothing more than that he penetrated beyond the river Elbe, and led his army farther into the country than any of the Romans had ever done. In the reign of Claudius, however, the German territories were invaded by Cn. Domitius Corbulo, one of the greatest generals of his age. But when he was on the point of forcing them to submit to the Roman yoke, he was recalled by Claudius, who was jealous of the reputation he had acquired. In the reign of the emperor Nero, a terrible revolt happened among the Batavians and those German nations who had submitted to the Romans; an account of which will be found under the article ROME. The revolt was with difficulty subdued; but, in the reign of Domitian, the Dacians invaded the empire, and proved a more terrible enemy than any of the other German nations had been.

(12.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DACIAN INVASION TO THE DEATH OF DECEBALUS. After repeated defeats, Domitian was at last obliged to consent to pay an annual tribute to Decebalus king of the Dacians; which continued to the time of Trajan. But this warlike prince refused to pay tribute; alleging, when it was demanded of him, that he had never been conquered by Decebalus. Upon this the Dacians passed the Danube, and began to commit hostilities in the Roman territories. Trajan, glad of this opportunity to humble an enemy whom he began to fear, drew together a great army, and marched with the utmost expedition to the banks of the Danube. As Decebalus was not apprised of his arrival, the emperor passed the river without opposition, and entering Dacia, laid waste the country. At last he was met by Decebalus with a numerous army. A bloody engagement ensued, in which the Dacians were defeated; though the victory cost the Romans dear: the wounded were so numerous, that they wanted linen to bind up their wounds; and to supply the defect, the emperor generously devoted his own wardrobe. After the victory, he pursued Decebalus from place to place, and at last obliged him to consent to a peace on the following terms: 1. That he should surrender the territories which he had unjustly taken from the neighbouring nations. 2. That he should deliver up his arms, his warlike engines, with the artificers who made them, and all the Roman deserters. 3. That for the future he should entertain no deserters, nor take into his service the natives of any country subject to Rome. 4. That he should dismantle all his fortresses, castles, and strong holds. And, lastly, that he should have the same friends and foes with the Romans. This peace was of short duration. Four years after, (A. D. 105), Decebalus began to raise men, provide arms, entertain deserters, fortify his castles, and invite the neighbouring nations to join him against the Romans as a common enemy.

The Scythians hearkened to his call, but the Jazyges, a neighbouring nation, refused to bear arms against Rome, and defended their country. Hereupon Trajan marched against him; but the Dacian, finding himself unable to withstand him by open force, recourse to treachery, and attempted to murder the emperor. His design proved abortive, and Trajan pursued him into Dacia. That his troops might not be obliged to pass and repass the Danube, he caused a celebrated bridge over that river. See BRIDGE, INDEX. To guard the bridge, two castles to be built; one on each side of the river. Trajan, however, as the season advanced, did not enter Dacia this year, but contented himself with making the necessary preparations. Early in the next spring, Trajan set out for Dacia; and having crossed the Danube by the new bridge, reduced the country, and would have taken Decebalus himself had he not put an end to his own life by falling into the hands of the Romans.

(13.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF DECEBALUS, TO THAT OF AURELIUS. After the death of Decebalus, Dacia was reduced to a Roman province; several castles were built in it, and garrisons sent in them to keep the country in awe. In the reign of Trajan, the Roman empire declined, and the northern nations to be more and more formidable. Dacia indeed was not the Romans till the reign of Gallienus; who succeeded Trajan, caused the bridge over the Danube to be broken, and the barbarians should make themselves masters of it, and invade the Roman territories. At the time of Marcus Aurelius, the Goths and Quadi invaded the empire, and effected an emperor a terrible overthrow. He carried on a war, however, with better success, and invaded their country in his turn. During this war that the Roman army is said to have been saved from destruction, by that event related under the article CHRIS. In the end, the Marcomanni and Quadi, after repeated defeats, brought to the verge of submission; inasmuch that their country would have been reduced to a Roman province, had not Marcus Aurelius been diverted from it by conquests by the revolt of one of his provinces.

(14.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF M. AURELIUS, TO THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE. After the death of Aurelius, the Germanic nations became more and more formidable to the Romans, from being able to invade and attempt the conquest of these northern countries, the greatest difficulty to repress the rage of their inhabitants. But for a particular time, their various invasions of the Roman empire, and its total destruction by them at last. The immediate destroyers of the Roman empire were the Heruli; who, under their king Odoacer, dethroned Augustulus the last Roman emperor, and proclaimed Odoacer king of Italy in 476. The Heruli were soon expelled

hs; and these in their turn were subdued  
 Justinian I, who re-annexed Italy to the eastern  
 empire. But the popes found means to obtain  
 temporal as well as spiritual jurisdiction over  
 a considerable part of the country, while the Lombards  
 subdued the rest. These last proved very  
 lesome to the popes, and at length besieged  
 Rome in his capital. In this distress he applied  
 to Charles the Great king of France; who con-  
 quered both Italy and Germany, and was crown-  
 ed emperor of the west, A. D. 800. See FRANCE,  
 § 13—15.

(.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE BE-  
 GINNING OF THE EMPIRE BY CHARLEMAGNE,  
 TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF ITS PRESENT CON-  
 STITUTION. The extensive empire erected by  
 Charlemagne the Great, which he himself imprudently  
 endeavoured to divide among his sons during his own  
 reign, (see FRANCE, § 1, 16.) was not long en-  
 dured by his posterity. In France the Carolin-  
 gian race continued to reign for 183 years after  
 Charlemagne; but in Germany, it continued only 74  
 years; producing within that period 6 emperors:  
 Louis I. his son, Lothair I, and Lewis II. his  
 sons; Charles II, his great-grandson; and Lewis  
 III, son of Charles II, and Charles III, who was  
 deposed in 888. The history of these unfortunate  
 emperors is related under the article FRANCE, § 1,  
 19. On the deposition of Charles III, the  
 German princes resumed their ancient independ-  
 ence; and, rejecting the Carolingian race, (ac-  
 cording to some: elected Arnulph, king of Pohe-  
 nia; Others, however, say, this Arnulph was the  
 son of Carloman, a descendant of Charlemagne.  
 As it may, he reigned 12 years, and con-  
 quered his rival Guido, or Guy, who had been  
 in opposition to him, and crowned king of  
 Germany, by pope Formosus in 892; who after  
 the death of Guy, next year, crowned his  
 son Lambert. Arnulph, however, reigned till 899,  
 when he died, and was succeeded by his son Lewis  
 whom some stile the last of the male line of  
 Charlemagne. Upon his death, in 911, the nobles  
 elected Otho, duke of Saxony, but he being old,  
 recommended CONRAD, duke of Franconia, whom  
 they elected accordingly in 912. Conrad dying  
 young, recommended to their election, Henry I,  
 surnamed the Fowler, the son of Otho. Henry con-  
 quered the Danes, Huns, Vandals, and Bohemi-  
 ans, and was succeeded in 937 by his son OTHO I,  
 surnamed the Great; who after reigning 26 years  
 of Germany, was crowned emperor in 962.  
 This he reigned other 10 years; and in 973,  
 was succeeded by his son, Otho II; who dying in  
 983, was succeeded by his son Otho III, a boy of  
 3 years of age. The reigns of most of these mon-  
 archs contain little remarkable, except their con-  
 tention with the popes; for which see ITALY. What  
 immediately merits attention is the progress  
 of the empire in Germany, which was in a great  
 measure opposite to that of the other kingdoms of  
 Europe. When the empire erected by Charle-  
 magne fell asunder, all the independent princes  
 lost the right of election; and those now dis-  
 tinguished by the name of electors had no legal or  
 a right to appoint a successor to the impe-  
 ror. They were only the officers of the  
 emperor's or king's household, his secretary, stew-  
 ard, chaplain, marshal, or master of horse, &c.  
 By degrees, however, as they lived near his per-  
 son, and had independent territories of their own,  
 they increased their influence and authority; and  
 in the election of Otho III, A. D. 984, acquired  
 the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus,  
 while in the other kingdoms of Europe, the dig-  
 nity of the great lords, who were all originally feo-  
 dal or independent barons, was diminished by  
 the power of the king, as in France, and by the  
 influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in  
 Germany, on the other hand, the power of the  
 electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's  
 supremacy, and of the people's jurisdiction.

(15.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE ES-  
 TABLISHMENT OF THE IMPERIAL CONSTITU-  
 TION, TO THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF  
 AUSTRIA. Upon the death of Otho III, in 1002,  
 an interregnum of 4 months ensued; after which  
 the princes elected Henry II, surnamed the Lambe,  
 the grandson of Henry I, who reigned 23 years.  
 Of this emperor's successors, till the accession of  
 the house of Austria, it is only necessary here to  
 give a brief chronological list, as their most impor-  
 tant transactions will be noticed under the article  
 ITALY. Conrad II, surnamed Salicus, the son of  
 Herman, duke of Franconia, was elected in 1024;  
 (see CONRAD II;) and after reigning near 15 years,  
 was succeeded, in 1039, by his son Henry III;  
 who, in 1056, was succeeded by his son Henry IV,  
 though not without opposition, from Rodolph of  
 Suabia, and Herman of Luxemburg. Henry IV,  
 after having reigned no less than 50 years, was de-  
 posed in 1106, by his unnatural son Henry V; on  
 whose death in 1125, Lothaire II, duke of Saxony,  
 was elected. He died in 1137, and next year, the  
 diet chose CONRAD III, duke of Franconia, the  
 son of Frederic, duke of Suabia. He was succeeded  
 in 1152, by his brother Frederic I, surnamed  
 Barbarossa, who having embarked against the in-  
 fidels, and taken Iconium, was drowned in Syria,  
 in 1190. He was succeeded by his son, Henry VI,  
 who behaved so villainously to Richard I. of Eng-  
 land, (see ENGLAND, § 24,) and who was at last  
 poisoned by his wife, Constance, and succeeded by  
 his son, Otho IV, in 1197. But a party of the  
 princes having chosen Philip, duke of Suabia,  
 Henry's brother, a civil war ensued, which end-  
 ed in favour of Otho, Philip being assassinated in  
 1208. But 4 years after, Otho was deposed, and  
 Frederic II, his younger brother, then king of Sic-  
 ily, was elected emperor, and crowned by pope  
 Honorius III, in 1220. Having afterwards offend-  
 ed pope Gregory IX, by making peace with the  
 Sultan of Babylon, Frederic was excommunicated,  
 which gave rise to the factions of the Guelphs and  
 Ghiblins, who by their inveterate virulence against  
 each other, disturbed the empire for several ages.  
 See GUELPHS. Conrad IV. was elected emperor  
 on the death of his father Frederic II, in 1250.  
 See CONRAD IV. He died 4 years after, and was  
 supposed to have been poisoned. His son was still  
 more unfortunate. See CONRAD, N<sup>o</sup> 6. After an  
 interregnum of two years, Richard, duke of Corn-  
 wall, brother to Henry III, king of England, was  
 elected emperor, in 1257; but that prince refusing  
 mostly in England, Alphonso X, king of Castile,  
 was elected in opposition to him. See ALPHONSO X.

VII. OF Luxembourg was then elected, upon whose death in 1313, an interregnum of a year took place, when Lewis V, the son of Lewis D. of Bavaria, by Matilda daughter of Rodolph I, was chosen by one party of the electors, and Frederic, the son of Albert I, by another. But Frederic, being taken prisoner, was obliged to renounce his dignity; and Lewis, being killed by a fall from his horse, in 1347, was succeeded by his other competitor, Charles IV, the son of John, king of Bohemia, and grandson of Henry VII. This prince was a great encourager of learning, and in his reign the golden bull, establishing the Germanic constitution, was given by Pope Innocent VI, in 1356. Charles, dying in 1378, was succeeded by his son Wenceslaus, who was twice imprisoned by the Bohemians, and at last deposed in 1400, when Rupert, Prince Palatine, was elected. Rupert was succeeded in 1410, by Jodocus Margrave of Moravia, who, in 1411, was displaced by Sigismund, K. of Hungary and Bohemia, the son of Charles IV. Albert II, D. of Austria, having married this monarch's daughter, succeeded him in all his dominions in 1437, but reigned only two years. His son Frederic III, archduke of Austria, &c. was elected emperor in 1440; and from this period the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for 300 years. His successor Maximilian I. married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy; whereby Burgundy and the 17 provinces of the Netherlands were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, was elected emperor, A. D. 1519. Under him MEXICO and PERU were conquered by the Spaniards; and in his reign happened the REFORMATION in several parts of Germany; which, however, was not confirmed by authority till 1648, at the treaty of Westphalia.

(17.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE RE-

to much divided, as to threaten a civil war. His ambition, however, ed to reconcile them; but the Bohemians, and threw the imperial committee window at Prague. This gave rise to a civil war, which lasted 30 years. Matthias to have exterminated both parties; ed a confederacy, called the *Evangelical Union*, which was counterbalanced by a Catholic league. Matthias dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin FERDINAND II.; but the Bohemians refused to give him the crown, and elected their crown to Frederic the elector, the most powerful Protestant prince and son in law to K. James I. He was so imprudent as to accept of the crown, and lost it, being entirely defeated by the Bohemians, and the imperial generals at Prague; and he was even deprived of the rate, the best part of which was given to the Protestants of Bavaria. The Protestant prince however, had among them at this time several commanders, who were at the head of the army, and continued the war with wonder. Among these were the margrave of Brandenburg, Christian duke of Brunswic, an excellent field. Christian IV. king of Denmark, who was defeated by them; and Richelieu, the French minister, not fond of seeing the house of Austria so powerful. The emperor, on the other hand, had several excellent generals; and Christian, having been defeated by Tilly, an Imperialist of great reputation. The Protestants formed a confederacy at Leipnic, of which the emperor was the head. CHARLES X. GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS king of Sweden, who was defeated by Tilly, An account of his glorious victories under the article SWEDEN. At last he was killed at the battle of Lutzen in 1632. His Protestant cause did not die with him. F

with both. Lewis XIV. had the two generals Condé and Turenne in his service; the latter had already distinguished himself at exploits against the Spaniards; and, in possession of Leopold, the court of France had the opportunity of confirming the treaty, and attaching to her interest several great princes of Germany. The tranquillity now took place, however, was not upon any permanent basis. War with Spain began in 1668; and the great successes of the Netherlands excited the ambition of Louis XIV. to attempt the conquest of Combray, then under the protection of Austria. This was accomplished in 1672; but the rapid success of Lewis had excited the jealousy of his neighbours to such a degree that a league was formed against him by Holland, and Sweden; and the French were obliged to enter the lists with such formidable enemies, consented to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which, among other articles, Combray was restored.

GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE BEGINNING OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, TO THAT OF THE TREATY OF NIMÈGUE. The flames of war were soon renewed by the insatiable ambition of Lewis XIV; who, in 1673, entered into an alliance with Charles II. of England, aimed at the total overthrow of the public. The event of that war will be related under the article UNITED PRO-

vinces. The misfortunes of the Dutch excited the jealousy of the emperor and king of Spain, who declared themselves their allies. Thus opposed by the prince of Orange and the great general Montecuculi, whose artful conduct even the penetrating eye of Turenne could not see, he sat down suddenly before Bonn. He was joined by the prince of Orange, who evaded the vigilance of the French.

Bonn soon surrendered, and several towns in Cologne fell into the hands of the French; who likewise cut off the communication between France and the United Provinces; so that the prince was obliged to recall his armies, and all his conquests with greater rapidity had been made. In 1674 he was defeated by his ally Charles II. of England, and the emperor and elector of Cologne were compelled to renounce their allegiance to him; but, notwithstanding these misfortunes, he continued to make head against his enemies, and effected new conquests. With a powerful army he invaded Franche Comte in person, and in a few weeks reduced the whole province to obedience. In Alsace, Turenne defeated the general at Sintzheim, and ravaged the country; surprised 70,000 Germans; cut in pieces a considerable detachment at Mulhausen; and the elector of Brandenburg, who had been with the chief command, near Colmar; and the duke of Prussia, who had the command of the body a similar fate at Tuskheim; and the whole German forces at last to evacuate the country and repass the Rhine. In consequence of these disasters Montecuculi was recalled, and Turenne. The military skill of the French and Germans seemed to be nearly equal; but the superiority could be adjudged to either,

Turenne was killed by a cannon ball, in reconnoitering a situation for erecting a battery. By his death the Imperialists obtained a decided superiority. Montecuculi penetrated into Alsace; and the French, under de Lorges, nephew to the deceased general, were happy in being able to avoid a defeat. Part of the German army now sat down before Treves, where they were opposed by Marechal Crequi; but his negligence exposed him to such a dreadful defeat, that he was obliged to fly into the city with only 4 attendants. Here he endeavoured in vain to animate the people to a vigorous defence. The garrison mutinied, and, when he refused to sign the capitulation they made, delivered him up prisoner to the enemy. Lewis in the mean time had taken the field in person against the prince of Orange; but the disastrous state of affairs in Germany induced him to recall the prince of Condé to make head against Montecuculi. In this campaign the prince seemed to have the advantage. He compelled the Germans to raise the sieges of Hagenau and Saverne; and at last to repass the Rhine without having been able to force him to a battle. This was the last campaign made by these celebrated commanders; both of whom now retired from the field to spend the remainder of their days in peace. The excellent discipline, however, which the two great French generals had introduced into their armies, still continued to make them very formidable. In Germany, the duke of Lorraine, who had recovered Philippsburgh, was repeatedly defeated by Marechal Crequi, who had been ransomed. In Flanders, the prince of Orange was overmatched by the duke of Orleans and Marshal Luxembourg. A peace was at length concluded at Nimègue in 1679, by which Lewis secured Franche Comte with many cities in the Netherlands; while the king of Sweden was reinstated in those places of which he had been stripped by the Danes and Germans. This tranquillity, however, was of short duration. Lewis prepared for new conquests; possessed himself of Strasburg by treachery; and dispossessed the Elector Palatine and the Elector of Treves of the lordships of Falkenburg, Germanstein, and Valdeutz. On the most frivolous pretences he had demanded Alost from the Spaniards; and on their refusal, seized upon Luxembourg. His conduct, in short, was so intolerable, that the prince of Orange, his inveterate enemy, sought means to unite the whole empire in a league against him. Spain and Holland became parties in the same cause; and Sweden and Denmark seemed also inclined to accede to the general confederacy. Notwithstanding this formidable combination, Lewis seemed still to have the advantage. He made himself master of Philippsburg, Mannheim, Frankendal, Spiers, Worms, and Oppenheim; the palatinate was ravaged dreadfully; the towns were reduced to ashes; and the people, driven from their habitations, were left to perish through the inclemency of the weather and want of provisions. By this cruelty his enemies were rather exasperated than vanquished: the Imperialists, under the duke of Lorraine, resumed their courage, and put a stop to the French conquests. At length all parties, weary of a destructive war, consented to the treaty of Ryswick in 1697.

(20.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, FROM THE TREATY OF RYSWICK TO THAT OF UTRECHT. By the treaty of Ryswick, Lewis XIV. gave up to the empire, Fribourg, Brisac, Kehl, and Philippsburg; and consented to destroy the fortifications of Strasburg. Fort Louis and Traerbach, the works of which had exhausted the skill of the great Vauban, with Lorrain, Treves, and the Palatinaté, were resigned to their respective princes; inasmuch that the terms to which he now consented, after so many victories, were such as could scarce have been expected under the pressure of the greatest misfortunes. The views of Lewis, however, in consenting to this apparently humiliating treaty, were beyond the views of ordinary politicians. The health of the king of Spain was in such a declining way, that his death appeared to be at hand; and Lewis now resolved to renew his pretensions to that kingdom, which he had formerly by treaty solemnly renounced. His designs in this respect could not be concealed from the vigilance of William III. of Britain; of which Lewis being sensible, and knowing that the emperor had claims of the same nature on Spain, he entered into a very extraordinary treaty with William. This was no less than the partition of the whole Spanish dominions, in the following manner: To the young prince of Bavaria were to be assigned Spain and the E. Indies; the dauphin, son to Lewis, was to have Naples, Sicily, and the province of Guipuscoa; while the archduke Charles, son to Leopold, was to have only the duchy of Milan. By this scandalous treaty the indignation of Charles was roused, so that he bequeathed the whole of his dominions to the prince of Bavaria. This scheme, however, was disconcerted by the sudden death of the prince; upon which a new treaty of partition was concluded between Lewis and William. By this the kingdom of Spain, with the E. India territories, were to be bestowed on the Archduke Charles, and the duchy of Milan upon the duke of Lorrain. The last moments of the Spanish monarch were disturbed by the intrigues of the rival houses of Austria and Bourbon; but the haughtiness of the Austrian ministers so disgusted those of Spain, that they prevailed upon their dying monarch to make a new will. By this the whole of his dominions were bequeathed to Philip duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV; who, prompted by his ambition, accepted the kingdom bequeathed to his grandson, excusing himself to his allies in the best manner he could for departing from his engagements. For this, however, he was made to pay dear. His insatiable ambition and his former successes had alarmed all Europe. The Emperor, the Dutch, and the king of England, entered into a new confederacy against him; and a bloody war ensued which threatened to overthrow the French monarchy entirely. While this war (of which an account is given under ENGLAND, § 69—74.) was carried on with such success, the emperor Leopold died in 1705. He was succeeded by his son JOSEPH I, who gave the electors of Cologne and Bavar's to the ban of the empire; but being ill served by Prince Lewis of Baden, general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough had not all the

success he expected or deserved. Joseph was suspected of a design to subvert the liberties; and it was plain by his conduct he expected England should take the lead in the war, which was to be entire for his benefit. The English were disappointed and selfishness; but he died in he had reduced the Hungarians; and male issue, was succeeded by his brother VI, whom the allies were endeavouring on the throne of Spain, in opposition to the duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis X.

(21.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, TREATY OF UTRECHT, TO THE CHARLES VI. When the peace of 1713, Charles at first made to continue the war; but found himself that he was forsaken by the British, he was obliged to conclude a peace at Buda in 1714, that he might arrest the progress of the Turks in Hungary; who had a total defeat from Prince Eugene at Peterwaradin. They received equal importance from the same general before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialists; and next year the peace was concluded between them and the Turks. Charles employed his leisure in arrangements for increasing and preserving his dominions in Italy and the Empire. Happily for him, the crown of Great Britain was bestowed on the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in European negotiations between George I. and the Emperor. Charles was sensible of this; matters were so high a stake, that in 1724 and 1725, a treaty was concluded between George I. and to assist by was factors all over Europe at that time, the powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to the old. It is sufficient to observe here, that the Hanover, and its arrangements, were the object of the British ministry; that it was the eternal aim of the party, to favour of his death, for the late emperor, having no male issue, named no other throne next to him, but that of a young prince between George I. and Charles VI; the elector of Saxony, succeeded with the view to the throne of Poland, being a descendant of the Austrian succession. The emperor had very bad success in a war, which he had undertaken chiefly for himself for the great troubles, he had to the house of Bourbon. He died, then dead, and he had no male issue. The system of France, by Cardinal Fleury, happened to be very obtained for him, from the Turks, a man he had reason to expect. On the death of the German elector, only his death, given his eldest daughter, afterwards empress queen, in the duke of Lorrain, a prince who, on the accession of power to the Austrian died in 1740.

Charles VI. was no sooner in the grave than ad so long laboured for must have been own, had it not been for the firmness of II. The young king of Prussia entered conquered Silesia, which he said had been slyly dismembered from his family. The Spain and elector of Bavaria set up claims incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, his they were joined by France; though powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The throne, after a considerable vacancy, was by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title les VII, in Jan. 1742. The French poured nies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; Q. of Hungary, to take off Prussia, ceded rance the most valuable part of the duchy a by a formal treaty. Her youth, her beautiferrings, and the fortitude with which she r, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, ose arms she threw herself and her young id though they had been long remarkable r disaffection to the house of Austria, they l unanimously in her favour. Her geneve the French out of Bohemia; and K. r II. at the head of an English and Hano- rmy, gained the battle of Dettingen, in Charles VII. was at this time miserable on erial throne, and would have given the f Hungary almost her own terms; but she ily and impolitically rejected all accommod- though advised to it by his Britannic majes- best and indeed only friend. This obsti- ve a colour to the king of Prussia to invade ra, under pretence of supporting the impe- nity; but though he took Prague, and sub- ne greatest part of the kingdom, he was orted by the French; upon which he a- ed all his conquests and retired into Silesia. rent confirmed the obsequy of the queen of ry; who came to an accommodation with perior, that she might recover Silesia. He en after in 1745, and FRANCIS I, D. of a, then grand duke of Tuscany, consent to en of Hungary, after surmounting some s, was elected emperor.

GERMANY, HISTORY OF, UNDER FRAN- The bad success of the allies against the and Prussians in the Low Countries, and of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the oins of the empress queen against the K. of . The latter beat the emperor's brother, ules of Lorraine, who had before driven the us out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the queen, was such, that his Britannic majesty t proper to guarantee him the possession ia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, the king it, alleging that he had discovered a secret tion between the empress queen, the emf Russia, and the king of Poland, to strip his dominions and to divide them amon- lres, suddenly drove the king of Poland out ony, defeated his troops, and took posses- Dresden; which he held till a treaty was under the mediation of king George II. ch the king of Prussia acknowledged Fran- r emperor. The war, however, continu- e Low Countries, to the disadvantage and t of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was fi-

nished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress queen and the king of Poland, who were unaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon these two principles all former differences between these two monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 675,000*l.* to Frederick during the war. The flames of war now broke out in Germany with more violence than ever. The armies of his Prussian majesty, like an irresistible torrent burst in Saxony; totally defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz; forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna; and the elector of Saxony to flee to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, the K. of Prussia was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into the empire. The conduct of Frederick on this occasion is the most amazing to be met with in history: for a particular account of which, see PRUSSIA. At last, however, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, was on the point of completing his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died Jan. 5, 1762. George II, his only ally died on the 25th Oct. 1766. The deaths of these illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III, sought to finish the war with honour, and Peter III. of Russia, recalled his armies. Frederick the Great was, notwithstanding, so much reduced, that the empress queen, probably, would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the wise backwardness of other German princes, to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible backwardness of her generals to execute her orders, and the new successes obtained by the king of Prussia, at last prevailed on her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsbuigh, which secured to Frederick the possession of Silesia. Upon the death of her husband, in 1762, her son Joseph II, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him.

(24.) GERMANY, HISTORY OF, UNDER JOSEPH II. This prince shewed an active and restless disposition, much inclined to extend his territories by conquest, and to make reformatations in the internal policy of his dominions, yet without taking any proper methods for accomplishing his purposes. Hence he was almost always disappointed; inasmuch that he at last wrote for himself the following epitaph: "Here lies Joseph, unfortunate in all his undertakings." In 1788, a war commenced betwixt him and the king of Prussia; in which, notwithstanding the impetuous valour of that monarch, Joseph acted with such caution, that his adversary could gain no advantage over him;

court procured their possessors an influence over other members, and their general residence there gave them a solid advantage in their constant and early presence at the diet of election. For in times of turbulence several emperors were elected, when princes had not an opportunity to attend. And hence sprung up a sanction to that right, which the high officers of the household had assumed, of electing without any consultation of the other members of the empire. Pope Gregory X. too, either conceiving that they did possess, or willing that they should acquire, this right, exhorted them in a bull to terminate the troubles of Germany by electing an emperor. And since that period they have been held as the sole electors. But the possession of this high power was strengthened by a league amongst themselves called the *electoral union*, which received additional confirmation from the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, and was formally and fully ratified by that famous constitution of Charles IV, termed the *golden bull*; according to which, the territories and the high offices by which the electoral dignity is conveyed, must descend according to the right of primogeniture, and are indivisible. The golden bull declares the number and titles of the electors. (See ELECTOR, § 3.) And this number cannot be increased by the emperor without a previous election by the electors themselves; who, being thus capable of electing and of being elected, may style themselves *Coinperantes*; and they actually exercise part of the imperial authority, when a vacancy happens. But when or before this occurs, the election of the emperor is proceeded to after the following manner: The elector of Mentz, within a month after the emperor's death, summons, as great chancellor of the empire, the rest of the electors to attend on some fixed day within the space of three months from the date of the summons. The electors generally send their ambassadors to the place of election, which is held at Francfort on the Mayne; but saving the right of that city, it may be held elsewhere. When the diet of electors is assembled, they proceed to compose the capitulation, to which the emperor when elected is to swear. The capitulation being adjusted, the elector of Mentz appoints a day for the election. On that day, the gates of the city are shut, and the keys delivered to the elector of Mentz. The electors or their ambassadors, who are catholics, repair in great pomp to mass: and after its celebration they take a solemn oath to choose, unbiassed and uninfluenced, the person that appears most proper for the imperial dignity. After this they repair to the sacristy, where the elector of Mentz asks, if there be any impediment known against their proceeding at present to an election; and next obtains a promise, that the person elected by the majority shall be received as emperor. The declarations of the electoral ambassadors, on these two points, are recorded by two notaries. Then all witnesses withdraw; and the elector of Mentz collecting the suffrages, which are given *voce voce*, and giving his own last, the witnesses are recalled, and he declares the person chosen. But the election is not complete, nor is the new emperor proclaimed, until the capitulation be sworn

to, either by himself or by his ambassador absent. From this time he is styled *elector Romanus* until the coronation takes place. The ceremony confers the title of emperor. According to the golden bull, it should be celebrated at Aix-la-Chapelle, out of respect to Charlemagne who resided there; but saving the right of that city, it may take place elsewhere. The election is performed by the Abp. of Mentz, the elector of Cologne. And when he is seated on the throne, the duke of Saxony delivers into his hands the sword of Charles the Great, with which he makes some knights of the holy Roman Empire, and confers that honour upon such others as are nominated by the respective electors. After the election proceeds to dinner in the great hall, he sits at a table elevated two steps higher than the other electors, and is served by counts of the Empire. The electors, each of whom has a table, are attended by the gentlemen of the respective courts. During the election his presumptive successor may be elected by the Romans. But by an express article of the capitulation, the king of the Romans swears not to interfere with the government during the reign of the emperor; but on his decease, he confirms him emperor without a second election. When no king of the Romans has been elected, and the throne becomes vacant, the government is administered by the vicars of the empire, who are the electors Palatine and of Saxony, the archbishop, palatine and archmarshal of the empire. The vicar of the Palatine has his district, and tribunal of the vicars, which by the golden bull all acts of the vicars are confirmed by the emperor; but they are afterwards confirmed by the emperor; which confirmation, by his capitulation, he is bound to give. There are also vicars of the emperor, constituted by a delegation of the emperor to any prince of the empire, when he is unable to execute it himself. But these vicars are accountable to the emperor; their acts are null and their offices revoked, being contrary to the will of the emperor. When Charlemagne ceased to govern in Germany, the princes and states associated to continue the empire; and to choose an emperor. From that time all electors and princes, except the emperor, receive investiture of their counts and free cities from the emperor. But this investiture is only a sign of the majesty of the empire, which is derived from the emperor. For as the princes of the empire are dependent on that collection from which they derive protection, they shew this dependence on the emperor, by representing the majesty of that union or empire; but in all other respects they are independent and free. These princes or sovereigns may even wage war with the prince wearing the imperial crown, as possessed of other titles and nations unconnected with his imperial state; can the sovereignty of any member be long as he remains loyal to the emperor, loyalty constitutes his duty, and secures his protection. But should he be guilty of rebellion against the emperor, as head of the empire, such a crime would commit him to the punishment of its laws, and he would be pun-



For this crime would be against that collective body of sovereigns whose union constitutes the empire; and therefore any violation of that union is justly punished with deprivation of the territories which render such sovereigns members of the empire. Nor can this punishment of the emperor derogate from the dignity of those princes who derive their sovereignty from this constitution, whose subjection is an act of their own consent; never, no member of the empire can be put under the ban without being first heard, and without the concurrence of the electors, princes, and states, being previously obtained. The next assembly of the states in which the legislative power of the empire resides; and is composed of the electors, princes, prelates, counts, and cities of the empire. It has sat since 1663, and is held usually at Ratisbon. The emperor, at present, presides in person; when absent, his commissary, whose communication of proposals from the emperor to the assembly is called *imperial decree*. The elector of Mentz, as chancery of the empire, is director of the diet; to his chancery are all things addressed, that are to be submitted to the empire; the reading of them by his secretary, to the secretaries of the ministers at the diet, is denominated *per litteras*, and constitutes the form of transmitting orders or memorials to the signature of the emperor. The diet is composed of three distinct colleges, each of which has its particular director. The first is that of electors; of which the abp. of Mentz is the first elector. The 2d is that of princes, which consists of princes, archbishops, and bishops; prelates, abbots, and counts, who are not considered as princes. Each prince spiritual and temporal has a vote, but prelates and counts vote by proxies. The prelates are divided into two colleges, the counts into four; and each bench has only one vote. The archduke of Austria and the abp. of Salzburg are alternately directors of the college of princes. The 3d college is that of the cities of the empire; the director of which is the minister of the city in which the diet happens to sit. In all these colleges, the sentiments of the majority are decisive, except in respect of fundamental laws, which affect the whole empire, and such matters as relate to religion. In these cases, the proceedings are also different. The diet is then considered as consisting of two colleges, the evangelic and the catholic; and if a religious point be proposed, it must meet not only the unanimous concurrence of the proposing college, but must have the majority of the other to pass it. This distinction arose from a constitution called the *evangelic body*; which was established by the Protestant states and princes to protect the Protestant interest in Germany, by giving over the laws for the security of their religion, and, in case of violation, by obtaining redress from the imperial throne. For in any part of the empire, where the count is a Papist and the electors are Protestants, should oppressions arise, redress would be made to the evangelic body by the director. The elector of Saxony is the director of the evangelic body, though he is a Papist; therefore his representations in favour

of the Protestants have the more force; and besides, should he abuse an office which invests him with considerable weight and influence, he could be instantly deprived of it. The first two colleges are styled superior, and in effect constitute the diet; for all points that come before the diet, are generally first deliberated in the college of electors, and then pass from that to the college of princes; in which, if any objection arise, a free conference takes place between the directors of each college. And should they, in consequence of this free conference, concur, they invite the 3d college to accede to their joint opinion; which invitation is generally complied with; but should this college return a refusal, the opinion of the other two colleges is in some few cases engrossed in the chancery, and delivered to the emperor's commissary as the opinion of the empire. The opinion of the 3d college is merely mentioned at the close. However, though the superior colleges do in effect constitute the diet; yet the received maxim is, that no two colleges constitute a majority, that is, the majority of voices at the diet; nor can the emperor confirm the opinion of two colleges as an opinion of the diet. By the peace of Westphalia, a decisive vote was recognized as a right of the imperial cities, which the two superior colleges should not infringe upon: their vote being, by the fundamental law, of equal weight with that of the electors and princes. After a measure is approved by the colleges, it is submitted to the emperor, to receive his negative or confirmation. Should he approve the point, it is published in his name as the resolution of the empire, which states are exhorted to obey, and tribunals desired to consider as such. The diet not only makes and explains laws, but decides ambiguous cases. It must also be consulted before war is made; appoints the field-marshal who is to command the army, and assigns him his council of war. The diet also enters into and makes alliances, but usually empowers the emperor to negotiate them; and foreign states have their ambassadors at the diet, but the diet sends no ministers to foreign courts. See § 33, 35, and 36.

(33.) GERMANY, MODERN GOVERNMENT OF. In the commencement of the empire, justice was administered in the districts of the provinces by counts, and appeals lay from their courts to that of the emperor before the count palatine. But as civil broils shook the power of the emperor, they interrupted also the course of justice. The consequent inconveniences caused several solicitations to be preferred from the states to different emperors for the establishment of a court of justice, which should take cognizance of great as well as small causes. And at length such a court was erected by Maximilian I. under the title of the *Imperial Chamber at Worms*, in 1495; but was removed to Spire in 1533, and to Wetlar in 1696, where it is now held. The members of this court are a judge of the chamber and 25 assessors, partly Protestants partly Papists. The president is appointed by the emperor, the assessors by the states. The court receives appeals from inferior jurisdictions, and decides dubious titles; and all causes before it between princes and princes, or princes and private persons, are adjudged

according to the laws of the respective parties, or according to the Imperial law. This tribunal is under the inspection of visitors appointed by the states; and, during their visitation, the sentences of the court are subject to revision. Appeals lie afterward also from the judgment of the visitors, to that of the diet. The emperors finding themselves deprived of many of their powers, wished to raise their prerogatives by forming a tribunal, of which they should name the judges, and before whom causes in the last resort should come. But Maximilian foresaw, in respect to the new tribunal, that though a consciousness of its importance made the states struggle for its erection, the expenses of its establishment would make them neglect its support; and the event bore witness to his sagacity. But when, through the omissions and negligence of the states, there happened to be a cessation in the distribution of justice by the Imperial chamber, he revived his court of the count Palatinate, or AULIC COUNCIL. And in order to gain the quiet acquiescence of the states, under the mask of a partition of power, and of generous moderation, he desired them to add 8 to the number of assessors, and the salaries of all should be discharged by him. The states swallowed the bait, but soon perceived that they had lost part of their liberty. The emperor, by keeping the tribunal always open, by filling its seats with men of first-rate talents, and by having its sentences duly and speedily executed, drew all causes before it. The states remonstrated, declaring, that the Imperial chamber ought to be not only the supreme, but sole tribunal of that kind. The emperor answered, that he had erected the Imperial chamber in consequence of their solicitations; but as they had not supplied the tribunal with judges, he provided for that deficiency by a constant administration of justice in the establishment of another. The Aulic council now subsists with equal authority, each receiving appeals from interior jurisdictions; but neither appealing to the other, as the *dernier resort* from both must be had to the diet. However, to the Aulic council belong the reserved rights of the emperor; and to the Imperial chamber also are annexed peculiar powers. The Imperial chamber subsists during a vacancy of the throne, under the authority of the vicars of the empire; whereas the Aulic council does not exist until appointed by the succeeding emperor. The Aulic council consists of a president, vice-president, and 17 assessors, of whom 6 are Protestants. The vice-chancellor of the empire is also intitled to a seat; and all decrees issuing from the council pass through his hands to those who are to execute them. This tribunal obtains for the emperor, through the appeals from the courts of other princes, a new authority beside that which he possesses from his reserved rights; but electors and some princes, as those of Hanover, Austria, Brunswick, Swedish Pomerania, and Hesse, are free from this dependence on the emperor, to whose Aulic council their subjects cannot appeal; nor can it take cognizance of ecclesiastical or criminal causes, both of which appertain to territorial justice; which we shall presently consider. The division of the empire into circles is a regulation coeval with the establishment of the Imperial chamber

by Maximilian, in order to strengthen justice with vigour to enforce its decision was into six circles, called the *ancient circles*. These are Franconia, Suabia, Lower Saxony, per Rhine, and Westphalia; but the princes, who at first declined bringing them under the form of circles, were obliged, by the political necessity of the emperor, to adopt them, and increase the number to ten, the four new circles of Austria, Burgoynia, the electorate, and Upper Saxony. Over these are preside directors; to whom the tribunals commit the execution of their decrees. The old circles have two directors each, the new have one each. The office of director is permanent and hereditary, as it belongs always to the first prince in the circle, upon whom rests the highest authority; for all the decrees of the Imperial chamber and Aulic council are put in execution, unless the director will execute them. The directors of the circles are not only engaged in the prosecution of the emperor's wars, but of peace; for in case of imperial war, they are to collect the troops of their circle; and if any state or prince of the empire should suffer violation from other princes, they are to yield protection and enforce the laws. Should there be any tumultuous uprising among the people, the suppression of such uprisings is their duty. The emperor is the executive in the whole empire; the directors are such executive parts called circles; the preservation of which brings at stake, the directors, must hold frequent diets in their respective circles, to consult on and adopt measures for their safety and welfare: the interests of those near to us are generally blended with our own, that they either cannot be pursued without the concurrence of both, there arise negotiations on particular points between the diets of the circles, which are therefore styled *negotiating circles*; and these negotiations being managed amongst the circles of the Upper and Lower Saxony, they are denominated *pondering circles*.

(34.) GERMANY, POPULATION OF. The total population before the present war was estimated at 30 millions.

(35.) GERMANY, POWERS OF THE EMPEROR. The emperor, though his power is diminished, (See § 32 and 33.) still enjoys many privileges, and his power partly appears in the exercise of his reserved rights, or the peculiar powers annexed to the imperial dignity. He has the right of investiture of their dominions; this he is bound as the laws direct to exercise, but promises that they shall be only on such persons as will maintain the title, and can support their rank. He has the title; for the power or privilege of ennobling cannot be obtained from their respective alone. But in some instances even of high importance. For the descendants are incapable of succession, if their rank is inferior to that of their father; but the acquisition of a title ennobles her and removes the collateral line conflicts. The emperor

and universities, grant the privilege of holding. He can also dispense with the tedious minor, and empower princes to assume the government of their own circles.

He decides all rank and precedence, power of *primus preces*, that is, of granting in every chapter of the empire a va-

But he is not above the law; for the ave not only chosen but deposed emperors, however, the capitulation is intended to such rigorous proceedings; but should violation be violated, the electors might remonstrate; and if these remonstrances be without effect, in conjunction with they might resort to more forcible remedies.

GERMANY, POWERS OF THE PRINCES. Every prince is sovereign in his own country, may enter into alliances, and pursue by all measures his own private interest, as he pleases; for if even an Imperial war should break out, he may remain neuter if the safety of the empire be not at stake. Each state or territory appoints in general three colleges for its government. The first is the *geheimderath*, or council; the second is the *regierung*, or revenue; the third the *rentkammer*, or chamber of accounts.

Each of these has a president; and a president of the first college is always president of the empire. The *geheimderath* represents the emperor and superintends the other two. The *regierung* negotiates treaties with other princes, and is in most courts of justice; however, in some states there is a court of justice called *justitz departement* besides the right of conference assigned to the *regierung* by the sovereign; when there is a dispute between princes, there is also an *arbitration*, appointed to decide them.

There must be paid to this privilege of *primus preces* must be called on to appoint an *austrage* must be had to the Imperial tribunal, but there still lies an appeal from the judge of the *austrage*. The *rentkammer* attends to the regulation of domains and estates, to the revenues, and management of the taxes.

The sovereign or prince is arbitrary in laws of the empire; for no new tax or impost can be laid on his country without the consent of the nobles and subjects. For this purpose, he holds a *tag*, or day on which his subjects are assembled, which is once in the period of seven years, and at no other time can he assemble them; he calls together the nobles and deputies of the towns of his dominions; the nobles usually attend in person, but the deputies are representatives. To this assembly the emperor proposes the taxes, &c. and a majority of the emperor proposes the measures. Villages, though they send no deputies to this assembly; they are either already represented by the lords, or because they rank too low in a state of vassalage when compared with the lords; for their inhabitants must mend highways and can be impressed as soldiers; from both these inhabitants of towns are exempt. On the *tag*, the respective quotas also of each

place are fixed, in order to discharge the prince's contingent in case of an imperial war.

(37.) GERMANY, RELIGIONS ESTABLISHED IN. The three religions principally established in the empire are the Roman Catholic, the Lutheran, and the Calvinist. The first prevails in the dominions of the emperor, in the ecclesiastical electorates, and in Bavaria; the second in the Circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, great part of Westphalia, Franconia, Suabia, the Upper Rhine, and in most of the Imperial towns; and the third in the dominions of the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, and of some other princes. But Christians of almost every denomination are tolerated in many parts of the empire, and there is a multitude of Jews in all the great towns. The Romish superior clergy consist of 8 archbishops, and 40 bishops. The Protestant clergy are governed by consistories under the sovereign prince of each state.

(38.) GERMANY, REVENUE OF. The actual revenue of all Germany has been calculated at nearly 18,000,000 l. Sterling, or 100 millions of dollars. The revenue of the emperor, in time of peace, is only about 20,000 crowns, being the contributions of a few imperial towns; but in case of war, extraordinary aids, called *Roman months*, laid on by the diet, are contributed by the different circles, at the following rate for raising 1½ millions of florins, viz.

	Florins.	Xtr.
Upper Saxony	156,360	15
Lower Saxony	156,360	15
Westphalia	156,360	15
Upper Rhine	101,411	30
Lower Rhine	105,654	5
Franconia	113,481	25
Austria	306,390	20
Bavaria	91,261	5
Suabia	156,360	15

Total 1,343,539 25

The ci-devant circle of Burgundy or Belgium formerly contributed 156,360 fl. 15 Xtr.

(39.) GERMANY, RIVERS OF. The principal rivers of Germany are the Danube, Elbe, Maine, Oder, Rhine, and Weiser.

(40.) GERMANY, SOIL, CLIMATE AND PRODUCE OF. From the great extent of the empire, every variety of soil and climate is to be met with; but it is upon the whole more fertile than otherwise; and in general temperate and healthy. The middle parts are most productive in corn and cattle; the southern abound with excellent wines and fruits, and grain of all kinds. The northern parts, from their coldness, are rather unfavourable to vegetation; yet agriculture throughout improves exceedingly.

(41.) GERMANY, STATE OF LITERATURE IN. Literature is at present in a very advanced state throughout almost all Germany, but particularly in the Protestant states. It is but about half a century since the German language has been purified and cultivated; since which various works of taste and elegance, as well as superior productions in the different sciences, particularly in the dramatic line, have appeared in it.

(42.) GERMANY, TOWNS AND VILLAGES IN. The number of towns in the empire, before the

war, has been estimated at upwards of 2,300; and that of the villages at 20,000.

(43.) GERMANY, TRADE OF. From the central situation of Germany, its commerce with the rest of Europe is very extensive. Its minerals are decidedly the first native articles for trade; after which its medicinal waters, salt, hemp, flax, linen, silk, wines, fruits, corn, cattle, fuffs, cloths, timber, porcelain, wrought iron and steel, drugs, oils and colours, are the principal. The French artizans, exiled by the revocation of the edict of Nantz, enabled Germany to stand in no need of the wrought silks of other countries. Great commercial fairs still exist in Germany.

(44.) GERMANY, UNIVERSITIES, &c. IN. There are 38 universities in Germany; 19 Protestant, 17 Catholic, and two which partake of both; besides a number of literary societies and academic institutions: and education in general is particularly attended to even in the very lowest ranks.

(II.) GERMANY, a township of the United States, in York county, Pennsylvania.

(1.) \* GERME. *n. f.* [*germen*, Latin.] A sprout or shoot; that part which grows and spreads.—Whether it be not made out of the *germe*, or treadle of the egg, doth seem of lesser doubt. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

(2.) GERMS, among shipping, a kind of bark used in the shallows on the coast of Egypt, as drawing but little water. They are strong and well built; but have no decks. They have one, 2, or 3 masts according to their sizes. The yards are fixed to the top of the masts, and, as well as the sails, are unmanageable from below. To effect the smallest change, the seaman must go aloft. The burden of these boats is 3 or 6 tons. They are chiefly used to convey goods from Alexandria to Rosetta. In two of these awkward and unmanageable boats, Mr Bray, the carpenter of the Tigris, worked two 68 pound carronades with great effect, under Sir Sidney Smith, in 1799.

(1.) GERMEN, the seed-bud; See BOTANY, *Index.* In assimilating the vegetable and animal kingdoms, Linnæus denominates the germen, the *ovarium* or *uterus* of plants; and affirms its existence to be chiefly at the time of the dispersion of the male dust by the antheræ; as, after its impregnation, it becomes a seed-vessel.

(2.) GERMEN, by Pliny and the ancient botanists is used to signify a bud containing the rudiments of the leaves. See GEMMA.

GERMERSHEIM, a town of Germany, lately in the Palatinate of the Rhine, now included in the French republic, and dept. of Mont Tonnerre. It was erected into a town by Rodolph I, who died in it, in 1290. It was taken in Jan. 1794, by the French; who, however, were defeated near it, on the 29th May, 1794, by the Austrians, with the loss of 1000 men: 400 being killed and 600 taken prisoners. It is seated at the confluence of the Queich and the Rhine, 5 miles S. of Spire, and 5 N. of Philippsburg.

(1.) GERMIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of Yonne, 3 miles SE. of St Florentin.

(2.) GERMINGY, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Marne, 3 miles E. of Meux.

\* GERMIN. *n. f.* [*germen*, Lat.] A shooting or sprouting seed. Out of use.—

Though palaces and pyramids do  
Their heads to their foundations;  
treasure

Of nature's *germins* tumble all toge  
Even 'till destruction sicken; and we  
To what I ask you. *See*

Thou all-shaking thund  
Strike flat the thick rotundity o' th  
Crack nature's mould; all *germins*  
That wake ungrateful man. *Shak.*

GERMINAL, [from *germino*, Lat.  
to bud or spring.] *q. d.* the spring mon  
month in the new French calendar.  
March 21st, and ends April 19th.

\* To GERMINATE. *v. n.* [*germ*  
To sprout; to shoot; to bud; to ]  
This action is furthered by the chalk  
hath within a spirit that will put forth  
*note*, as we see in the chymical trials.

*Hist.*—The seeds of all kinds of vege  
planted near the surface of the earth,  
nient soil, amongst matter proper for th  
of vegetables, would *germinate*, grow  
plentiful the face of the earth. *Woodw.*

(1.) \* GERMINATION. *n. f.* [*germ*  
French, from *germinate*.] The act  
or shooting; growth.—For accelerati  
*nation*, we shall handle the subject of  
rally. *Bacon.*—The duke of Buckingh  
ther kind of *germination*: and surely,  
a plant, he would have been reckoned  
*sponte nascentes*. *Wotton*—There is be  
litude between a terreous humidity  
*germinations*. *Glanv. Scepsis.*—Suppo  
should be carried to the great distanc  
there the whole globe would be one  
there would be no life, no *germinatio*

(2.) GERMINATION, among botanist  
prehends the precise time which the s  
rise after they have been committed  
The different species of seeds are long  
in rising, according to the degree of h  
proper to each. Millet, wheat, and s  
grasses, rise in one day; blite, spir  
mustard, kidney-beans, turnips, and  
days; lettuce and dill, in 4; cucum  
melon and cress, in 5; radish and  
barley, in 7; orach, in 8; purslane,  
bage, in 10; hyssop, in 30; parsley, in 4  
peach, almond, walnut, chestnut, pæ  
poppy, hypocoum, and ranunculus  
one year; rose-bush, cornel-tree, haw  
lar, and hazel nut, in two. The se  
species of orchis, and of some liliaceo  
ver rise at all. Some seeds require t  
almost as soon as they are ripe, otherw  
not sprout or germinate. Of this k  
seeds of coffee and fraxinella. Other  
ly those of the pea-bloom flowers, p  
germinating faculty for a series of ye  
danson asserts, that the sensitive plant  
virtue for 30 or 40 years. Air and w  
agents of germination. The humidit  
alone makes several seeds to rise that  
to it. Seeds too are observed to ri  
without the intervention of earth; bu  
out air is insufficient. Mr *Hombert's*  
on this head are decisive. He put

exhausted receiver of an air-pump, with establish something certain on the cause of germination. Some of them did not rise at all; the greatest part of those which did, made weak and feeble productions. Thus it is for air that seeds, which are buried at a very depth in the earth, either thrive but indifferently do not rise at all. They frequently pre-vent, their germinating virtue for many years in the bowels of the earth; and it is usual, upon a piece of ground being newly cultivated to considerable depth, to observe it soon after sown with several plants, which had not risen there in the memory of man. Were this experiment frequently repeated, it would doubtless be of use in recovering certain species of plants which are regarded as lost; or which perhaps have been neglected to the knowledge of botanists. Some seeds require a greater quantity of air than others. The turnip, for instance, which does not rise till after lettuce has risen, rises before it *in vacuo*; and both will not rise at all, or perish altogether, while crested as freely as in the open air.

**GERMINATION, CHEMICAL EXPERIMENTS ON.** The late discoveries in chemistry have thrown much light on this subject. In 1793, Berthollet discovered, that simple metallic acids are not favourable to the germination of seeds, but that metallic oxyds favour it in proportion to their degree of oxidation. This led to a search for a substance with which oxygen might be so weakly combined as to be easily separated, and he tried oxygenated muriatic acid diluted with water. Cressets (See *LEPIDIUM*), in this acid showed germs at the end of 6 days and in common water at the end of 32 days. The action of the acid on the vegetable is announced by a great number of air-bubbles covering the seeds, which did not take till the water till the end of from 50 to 45 days. These experiments, published in *Humboldt's Flora Subterranea Friburgensis*, and in his *Essay on the Chemical Physiology of Plants*, have been repeated by Messrs Uslar, Plenck, Villdenow &c. See *Dictionnaire de Physique, par Gebelin* were made at a temperature of from 40 to 50° of Reaumur. In 1796, Humboldt made several experiments, and found that, by joining to oxygen, vegetation was still more accelerated. He threw equal quantities of the seeds in cressets into pure water and oxygenated acid, at a temperature of 58° F. Cressets germinated in the acid in 3 hours, but in the water till the end of 26 hours. In the muriatic or sulphuric acid, there was no germination, though according to the experiments of Berthollet, the nitric acid accelerates germination, when greatly diluted with water. Prof. Dreyer caused the seed of a new species of *ORBIA* to germinate in oxygenated mud, though taken from Bocconi's collected plants, 110 or 120 years old. Jacq. Vander Schott at Vienna threw into oxygenated muriatic acid all the old seeds, which he had kept 20 or 30 years at the botanical garden, every attempt to produce vegetation in them proved fruitless, and the greater part of them, even the hardest seeds germinated. A-

mong these were the yellow bonduc, or nickar tree, (See *GUILANDINA*, N° 1.) the pigeon pea, (See *CYTISUS*, N° 2.) the *Dodonaea Angustifolia*, the climbing mimosa, (See *MIMOSA*, N° 19.) and some new species of the *HOPEA*. These are now shewn at Vienna very valuable plants, which are entirely raised by the oxygenated muriatic acid; and are from 5 to 8 inches high. Humboldt made the *clusia rosea* to germinate, the seeds of which had been brought from the Bahama islands by Boose, and had resisted every previous effort to make them vegetate. For this purpose he used a new process, which will be easier for gardeners who cannot procure the oxygenated muriatic acid. He formed a paste by mixing the seeds with the black oxyd of manganese, and then poured over it the muriatic acid diluted with water, in the proportion of half a cubic inch of the acid to 3 of water. The vessel containing this mixture must be covered, but not shut close, lest it should burst. At the temperature of 95°, the muriatic acid becomes strongly oxydated; the oxygenated muriatic gas which is disengaged passes through the seeds; and during this passage the irritation of the vegetable fibres takes place. *Pbilsch. Mag.*

**GERMISCH**, a town of Bavaria, in the bishopric of Freysing, 21 miles S. of Weilheim.

**GERMOR**, a village in Cornwall.

**GERMS**, a town of Austria, 4 m. W. of Zwettl.

(1.) **GERN**, a town of Bavaria, 15 miles W. NW. of Branau.

(2.) **GERN**, a town of Russia, 28 m. SW. of Tula.

**GERNOI**, a fort of Russian Siberia, in Koltivan, on the Irtysh. Lon. 96° E. of Ferro. Lat. 51. 44. N.

**GERNRODE**, an abbey of Saxony, founded in 960; 22 m. W. of Bernburg, and 30 of Dessau.

**GERNSHEIM**, a town of the French republic, in the dept. of Mont Tonnerre, lately in the electorate of Mentz, seated on the Rhine, 18 miles SSE. of Mentz.

**GERNYOSZEG**, a town of Transylvania.

**GERODA**, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, 8 miles NE. of Duderstadt.

**GERODOT**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aube, 9 miles E. of Troyes.

**GEROLDSECK HOHEN**, a castle and county of Suabia. The castle is seated on the Kinzig, 3 miles SSE. of Gensbach.

**GEROLDSGRUN**, a village of Franconia, in Bayreuth, 4 miles SW. of Lichtenberg.

(1.) **GEROLDSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in the late county of Blankenheim, now included in the French republic, and dep. of the Rhine and Moselle: seated on the Kill, 14 miles N. of Treves.

(2.) **GEROLDSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, 7 miles S. of Naftedt.

**GEROLTZHOFFEN**, a town of Franconia, in the bishopric of Wurzburg, 30 miles NE. of Wurzburg.

**GERON**, or **GERON POINT**, a cape of Ireland, in Antrim county, 15 miles NE. of Antrim, and 32 N. of Belfast. Lon. 5. 50. W. Lat. 55. 3. N.

**GERONA**, **GIRONA**, or **GIRONNA**, an ancient town of Spain, in Catalonia, and a bishop's see. In 1694, it was taken by the French and restored at the peace of Ryfwick. In 1705, it was taken by

by the Austrians, and in 1711, it was again taken by the French, under the D. of Noailles. It is seated on a hill, near the Onhal, 44 miles S. of Perpignan, and 47 N.E. of Barcelona. Lon. 2. 52. E. Lat. 42. 10. N.

GERONICON, [from *geron*, Gr. an old man.] a book famous among the modern Greeks, containing the lives of the ancient monks.

GERONTES, [from *geron*,] in antiquity, a kind of judges, or magistrates, in ancient Sparta, answering to what the Areopagites were at Athens. See AREOPAGUS. The senate of gerontes was called GERUSIA, i. e. the assembly or council of old men. They were originally instituted by Lycurgus: their number, according to some, was 28; and, according to others, 32. They governed in conjunction with the king, whose authority they were intended to balance, and to watch over the interests of the people. Polybius defines their office in few words, when he says, *per ipsos, & cum ipsis, omnia administrari*. None were admitted into this office under 60 years of age, and they held it for life. They were succeeded by the EPHORI.

GERONTIC, *adj.* belonging to old men.

GEROPOGON, in botany, a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The receptacle is paleaceous, with the points of the paleæ sharp or bristly; the calyx is simple; the seeds of the disc have a feathered pappus; those of the radius have a pappus of five awns.

GERRETZ. See REMBRANDT.

(1.) GERRI, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 37 miles N. of Balaguer.

(2.) GERRI, a town of Nubia, on the Nile, 130 miles NNE. of Sennar. Lon. 30. 34. E. Lat. 16. 15. N.

GERRISH, an island of the United States, on the coast of the district of Maine.

GERRISHHEIM, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and duchy of Berg, 4 miles E. of Duffeldorp.

GERRY, a township of Massachusetts, in Worcester county, containing 14,000 acres, and 740 citizens, in 1795: 30 miles NW. of Worcester and 65 of Boston.

(1.) GERS, a department of France, bounded on the N. by those of Landes, and Lot and Gironne; on the E. by that of Upper Garonne; on the S. by those of the Upper and Lower Pyrenees; and on the W. by that of Languedoc. It includes the ci-devant provinces of ARMAGNAC and GASCONY; and extends 25 miles in length, and from 21 to 45 in breadth. Auch is the capital.

(2.) GERS, a town of France, which rises in the dept. of the Upper Pyrenees, on the river giving name to that of the Gers. N. E. and falls into the Garonne, 4 miles S. of Auch.

(1.) GERSA, a district of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Solothurn, which, before the late revolution, was a republic of itself, though only 6 miles long and 3 broad, and containing but few citizens.

(2.) GERSA, the capital of the above territory, seated N. of the lake of Four Cantons, and 6 miles SW. of Schwytz.

GERSCHITZ, a town of Bohemia

GERSDORF, a town of Saxony, in C

GERSPACH, a town of Suabia, on the 2 miles SE. of Baden and 22 NE. of St. It was taken by the French, after a battle in the Austrians were defeated, on the 1793.

GERSPRENTZ, a river of Germany circle of the Lower Rhine, which runs Main, near Stockstadt.

GERSTRUNGEN, a town of Saxony principality of Eisenach, 8 miles W. of E

GERSWALDE, a town of Braudenbu

GERTRUDENBERG, a town of Osn

GERTRUDENBERG, } an anci

GERTRUYDENBERG, or } strong

GERTRUYDENBERG, } the Bat

public, in the department of Dommel and and late province of Dutch Brabant.

good harbour, formed by the Merwe, flux into lake Bies Bosche, and built in the

a crescent, with regular fortifications, as

bastions. It has also a castle built in 13

fluices by means of which the adjacent can be laid under water. In ancient chi

is named *Mons Littoris*, i. e. the moun shore. In 947, it was given by Pepin de

D. of Brabant, to his daughter *Gertrud*.

name it bears. In 1220, it was taken an by the inhabitants of Dort. It was tak

the Spaniards, in 1573, by the confederader Capt. Poyet, a French Calvinist.

the English garrison surrendered it to the of Parma, but Prince Maurice retook it

after a siege of three months. Two ceat afterwards, it was taken by the French r.p

under Dumourier, on the 4th March 17 evacuated soon after. It was again t

Jan. 1795, by the French under Pichegr lies 7 miles NE. of Breda, and 10 SE.

Lon. 4. 52. E. Lat. 51. 42. N.

GERVAISE, or } of Tilbury, a famous

GERVASE, } writer of the 13th c

born at Tilbury on the Thames. He was to Henry II. king of England; and was

credit with Otho IV. emperor of Geru whom he dedicated a Description of the and a Chronicle. He also composed a H

England, a History of the Holy Land, and works.

GERUMENHA, or } an ancient town

GERUMENHI, } regal, in Alente

a strong castle, seated on a hill, near the G. In 1662, it stood a siege of a month, b

surrendered to the Spaniards. It lies 13 low Badajoz.

(1.) \* GERUND, *n. f.* [*gerundum*, Lat. the Latin grammar, a kind of verbal noun

governs cases like a verb.

(2.) Gerunds are substantive nouns

2d declension and neuter gender, particip

nature of a participle, declinable only in

singular number, through all the cases ex

vocative, as *legendum, legendi*; &c. They

pr. fi. not only the *time*, but the *manner*

action; as, "he fell *in running* post." differ from participles, in that they ex-

press what participles do not, though

apply some time; and they differ from tenets y so called, in that they express the *manner*, he tenets do not.

**UNDA**, in ancient geography, a town of setani, in Hispania Citerior, on the S. or se of the Sambreca; now called GERONA.

**UNDENSES**, the people of GERUNDA.

**UNDIVE**, *n. f.* in grammar, an adjective of a gerund.

**US**, in ancient geography, a river of Al that runs into the Caspian sea.

**USIA**. See GERONTES.

**YON**, or ) in fabulous history, a king of YONES, ) Gades, in Iberia, who had odies, and fed his cattle with human flesh. antler was slain by Hercules, who carried off le. Hyginus makes him the son of Chry- rother of the winged horse Pegasus, and nd n of Neptune, by Medusa, one of the

The fable is supposed to mean that he ing of 3 contiguous Spanish islands; or as think, there were 3 brethren kings, all fo r united, as to seem to have but one soul.

**ZAT**, a town of France in the dep. of Dome, 4 miles N.E. of Clermont.

**ZEN**, a town of Germany, in Bavaria, E. of Dingeltingen, and 11 E. of Land-

**AS**, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

**CHE EL AUBE**, or **GIR-GIR**, a species of described by Mr Bruce, as growing plentiar Ras el Peel, on the borders of Abyssinia. ves are long, pointed, narrow, and of a exture. They shoot plentifully, soon turn and fall to the ground. Goats prefer it her food. A very small glutinous juice, taste of sugar, is often seen on the leaves. e root of the branch arises two and some- stalks. The flower and seed are well de-

The head, when in perfection, is of a brown. This plant begins to shoot in of April, and advances rapidly to its full which is 3 or 4 inches. It is ripe early and decays soon after.

**EKE**, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, ESE. of Lippstadt, and 14 N. of Ruden.

**HAUSEN**. See GESTUNGHAUSEN.

**HEN**. See AMBA-GESHEN.

**IS**, a town of Germany, in the county of t, 4 miles E. of Feldkirk.

**MU; D**, a town of Germany, in the bi- of Osnaburg, 12 miles SE. of Vorden.

**GESNER**, Conrad, M. D. a celebrated n and naturalist, born at Zurich in 1516. nished his studies in France, he travelled y, and taught medicine and philosophy at e, with extraordinary reputation. He o much in natural history, that he was d the *German Pliny*. He died Dec. 9, aving 66 works behind him, on botany, r grammar, natural history, &c. Of : principal are, 1. A history of animals, nd fossils: 2. *Bibliotheca Universalis*: A d Latin lexicon. Boerhaave emphatical- him *Monstrum Eruditionis*, "a prodigy ig." Those indeed (as Mr Coxe ob- his Letters on Switzerland) "who are t with the works of this great naturalist

cannot repress their admiration at the amplitude of his knowledge in every species of erudition, and the variety of his discoveries in natural history. Their admiration is still further augmented, when they consider the gross ignorance of the age which he helped to enlighten, and the scanty succours he possessed to aid him in thus extending the bounds of knowledge; that he composed his works, and made those discoveries which would have done honour to the most enlightened period, under the complicated evils of poverty, sickness, and domestic uneasiness." During his last 24 years, however, his salary as a professor, enabled him to live in easy circumstances.

(2.) **GESNER**, John Matthew, an acute German critic, born at Neuburg, in 1691. After superintending the public school of Weinheim for 11 years, he removed to Anspach, and thence to Gottingen, where he was made professor of humanity, and public librarian, &c. He died at Gottingen in 1761. His most esteemed works are, an excellent Latin Dictionary, and his editions of the Classics.

(3.) **GESNER**, Solomon, the celebrated author of the *Death of Abel*, was the son of John Conrad Gesner, bookseller and member of the Great Council, and was born at Zurich in 1730. In his early years he showed no signs of superior abilities; and his progress in education was so slow, that his master gave him up as incapable of any greater attainments than writing and the four first rules of arithmetic. Upon this he was placed under a clergyman, a relation of his father's, who showed himself better acquainted with the art of discovering the natural inclinations of his pupils. He often carried young Gesner with him into the fields, to survey the beauties of nature; and finding that he took pleasure in such lessons, and listened to them with peculiar attention, he repeated some of the most striking passages of the ancient authors, who have written on these subjects, in the most agreeable manner. By this ingenious artifice, young Gesner's mind began to open, and its powers to expand; and it is, perhaps, owing to this circumstance, that he became so fond of the language of Virgil and Theocritus. When he arrived at a proper age, he chose his father's profession. Of 3 printing houses at Zurich, two were occupied by Gesners. The house in which our poet's father had a share, was known by the firm of *Orel, Gesner, and Company*, and was famed for the elegance of the works which it published. But Mr Gesner did not damp his genius, by the drudgery of business. He indulged himself freely in pursuing his favourite object, and his partners never grudged him that time which he devoted to study. In 1752, he made a tour through Germany, not so much to extend his commerce, as to see and be acquainted with those authors who have done honour to their country. The following anecdote is strikingly characteristic of that timidity which often accompanies true genius. When Mr Gesner was at Berlin, he was admitted into a literary society, of which Gleim and Lessing were members. Every member read in turn some pieces of his own composition, and Gesner was very desirous of submitting to these able critics a small work, which was



his first attempt. As each member had done, reading, Gesner was observed to move his hand with a kind of tremour towards his pocket, and to draw it back again without producing any thing. Having not yet published any work, none of the company could guess the cause of a motion which his modesty prevented him from explaining. The piece which he wished, but had not the courage, to show, was his poem, intitled *Night*, which he published on his return to Zurich in 1753. It was considered as an original, of which no model is to be found among the moderns; but in Gesner's opinion, it was only a piece of imaginary painting, or, to use his own words, in one of his letters to Mr Huber who translated his works, "A caricature composed in the moments of folly or intoxication." In this little poem he has introduced a short episode on the origin of the glow-worm, containing a poetical explanation of this natural phosphorus, which has all the beauty of Ovid's *Metamorphoses* without their prolixity. The success of this essay emboldened him to publish a pastoral romance, called *Daphnis*, in three cantos. The applause deservedly bestowed upon this performance induced him to publish his *Idylls* and other rural poems in imitation of Theocritus. Pastoral poetry, which was then little known in Germany but by translations, began to be preferred to every other kind. The only author of note who had preceded him in this line, was Mr Rost of Leipsick, who had the art to unite spirit and simplicity in a kind of writing, which appears insipid without the former, but becomes unnatural and disgusting if it is too abundant. He sometimes throws a delicate veil over those images which are deficient in decency, but it is often too slight. Such was the rival with whom Gesner had to contend. But our poet pursued a different course. Instead of placing, like Rost, his scenes in modern times, he went back with Theocritus to the golden age. The characters of Gesner's *Idylls* are taken from those societies which exist no longer but in the remembrance, or rather in the imagination. His shepherds are fathers, children, and husbands, to whom generosity, beneficence, and respect for the Deity, are sentiments no less familiar than love. These *Idylls* were the favourite object of his pursuit, and that part of his work which acquired him the greatest reputation. His *Death of Abel*, was first published in 1758. It is written, like the rest of his pieces, in poetical prose; and went through three editions in one year. The French edition was followed by others, in Italian, Dutch, Danish, and, lastly, two in English, one in prose and the other in verse. He next published his *First Navigator*, a poem in 3 cantos, which many consider as his masterpiece. He produced likewise, in the dramatic stile *Evagder and Alcimne* in 3 acts; and *Eraslus*, in one act, which was represented with applause at Leipsick and Vienna. But though poetry was Gesner's darling pursuit, and though he enriched German literature with works which will immortalize his name, he did not confine himself to it. In his childhood he had received a few lessons in drawing, and had pursued this study, but without any intention of becoming an artist. At the age of 30, being ex-

cited by the sight of a beautiful collection by his father-in-law, Mr Heidegger, to this treasure, composed principally of Flemish pieces; and to this new taste most sacrificed every other. He at first only to delineate some decorations for 10 pieces of his books; but in 1765, he published landscapes etched and engraved by his other pieces appeared in 1769; and afterwards, he executed ornaments for many which came from his presses; among which his own works and a German translation from Mr Gesner's enthusiasm for his pursuits, and from the time and attention bestowed upon them, we might conclude found little leisure for discharging his citizen. The contrary, however, was the case for he passed almost the half of his life in employments of the state. In 1765 he was elected to the grand council, in 1767 to the 1768 he was appointed bailiff of Bilbac the four guards in 1776; and in 1781 superintendent of waters, which office in 1787 was to him for six years. In all these stations he discharged his duty with the most fidelity. He died of a paralytical disorder on the 24 March, 1788, aged 58. As a past Gesner, if he has been equalled by any, excelled by none. Pastoral poetry is surely very limited, but those who read his works will be convinced, that it is full of much variety. His pastoral romance is not inferior in natural simplicity to the celebrated work of Longus; but it surpasses it in variety of images and incident. *Eraslus*, *Evagder* are instructive and interesting poem count of the contrast between the world and the nature which reigns throughout them; an *Navigator* unites the mildest philosophy with the splendour and imagery of Fairy Land. His dramatic poems abound with interesting characters well delineated, and situations of novelty. His language is that of the most chaste ears might listen to the language which he has described. If he has some humour of Sterne and Fontaine, it is not in their licentiousness. The severest taste in his writings no phrase deserving reproach Gesner's character, as a man, was no less as a husband, a father, a friend, a son, and a citizen, his virtues were equally shining. He was naturally of a melancholic temper but was no enemy to rational mirth; mildness of his temper rendered his conversation ways engaging. Possessed of noble talents united with great modesty, he was simple in external appearance, as well as in his conversation. His language was lively and animated reserve before strangers resembled that which it was only in the presence of those with whom he was acquainted, that his real character shone in its full lustre. His reputation and his name known even in the remotest parts of the world. The late empress, Catharine II, presented him with a gold medal as a mark of her esteem. Many travellers thought they had seen only the artist of Gesner, or procured some of his



It way he had acquired so much reputation; he was ranked among the best artists; and Mr Fueslin, who was himself in the preface to the 3d vol. of his essay on the painters, engravers, architects, sculptors, who have done honour to the world, gives a distinguished place to Mr Gough then living.

**ERIA**, in botany: A genus of the angiosperm order, belonging to the didynamia class and in the natural method ranking unisexual order, *Personate*. The calyx is 5-lobed, and placed on the germen; the corolla is 5-lobed and then recurved; the capsule is bilocular.

**NE**, a town of Bohemia, in Boleslau.  
**NO, POINT**, a cape of Ireland in Sligo: 1 mile W. of Sligo. Lon. 8. 33. W. 2. N.

**NO**, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra, 12 E. of Civita Borella.

**PS**, a town of the United States in 8 miles SSE. of Fort William.

**RIACUM**, in ancient geography, a station for ships of the Morini in Gallia in Cæsar's time, according to Dio, no town; but Florus speaks of it as the *Gessorincenses Muri* are mentioned in his Panegyric. The author of *Geographica*, commonly called *Pentinger's* expressly, that Gessoriacum was in his *Bouonia*. It is now called *Boulogne*.

**EST. n. f.** [*gestum*, Latin.] 1. A deed; an achievement.—

fair them quites, as him befeemed best, dly cau discourse with many a noble *gest*.

representation.—*Gests* should be inter the Pelian manner, by ages, young 3. The roll or journal of the several stages prefixed, in the progresses of our life of them being still extant in the he-

re. [from *geste*, or *gite*, Fr.] *Hanmer*.—

I'll give you my commission, im there a month, behind the *gest*, for's parting. *Shak. Winter's Tale*.; so much of a journey as passes with- tion. In all senses obsolete.—He dis- down the *gests* and progress thereof.

**r**, in geography, a town of France, in vent of Maine and Loire; 10½ miles S. nt.

a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland. NTE'S. See BEARER, § 3.

**STATION. n. f.** [*gestatio*, Lat.] The 1g the young in the womb.—Aristotle 1c birth of the infant, or time of its tendeth sometimes unto the eleventh Hippocrates avers that it exceedeth th. *Brown*.—Why in viviparous ani- time of *gestation*, should the nourish- ried to the embryo in the womb, 1er times goeth not that way? *Ray on*

**ATION.** See MIDWIFERY.  
OR **GEISTE**, a river of Germany, in ich runs into the Weser.

PART II.

\* To **GESTICULATE. v. n.** [*gesticular*, Lat. *gesticular*, Fr.] To play antick tricks; to shew postures. *Ditt*.

\* **GESTICULATION. n. f.** [*gesticulatio*, Lat. *gesticulation*, Fr. from *gesticulate*.] Antick tricks; various postures.

**GESTINEN**, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Uri, 15 miles S. of Altorf.

**GESTRICIA**, or **GESTRICKLAND**, } a province of Sweden, bounded by Helgingia on the N. by the gulf of Bothnia on the E. by Upland, Westmanland, and Dalecarlia, on the S. and by Dalecarlia on the W. It abounds with mines, forests, lakes, and rivers; and is 17 miles long and 10 broad. **GEFLE** is the capital. The Dahl, the finest river in Sweden, meanders through it.

**GESTUNGHAUSEN**, or **GESHAUSEN**, a town of Saxony in Coburg, 7 miles E. of Coburg.

(1.) \* **GESTURE. n. f.** [*gesto*, *gestum*, Lat. *gesto*, Fr.] 1. Action or posture expressive of sentiment.

—Ah, my sister, if you had heard his words, or seen his *gestures*, when he made me know what and to whom his love was, you would have matched in yourself, those two rarely matched together, pity and delight. *Sidney*.—When we make profession of our faith, we stand; when we acknowledge our sins, or seek unto God for favour, we fall down; because the *gesture* of constancy becometh us best in the one, in the other the behaviour of humbly. *Hooker*.—

To the dumbness of the *gesture*.  
One might interpret. *Shak. Timon*.

—Humble and reverend *gestures* in our approaches to God express the inward reverence of our souls. *Duty of Man*. 2. Movement of the body.—

Grace was in all her steps, heav'n in her eye,  
In ev'ry *gesture* dignity and love! *Milton*.

—Every one will agree in this, that we ought either to lay aside all kinds of *gesture*, or at least to make use of such only as are graceful and expressive. *Spectator*.

(2.) **GESTURE**, (§ 1. def. 1.) consists principally in the action of the hands and face; and may be defined, a suitable conformity of the motions of the countenance, and of several parts of the body, in speaking to the subject of discourse. See DECLAMATION and ORATORY.

\* To **GESTURE. v. a.** [from the noun.] To accompany with action or posture.—Our attire disgraceth it; it is not orderly read, nor *gestured* as befeemeth. *Hooker*.—He undertook to *gesture* and muffle up himself in his hood, as the duke's manner was, that none should discern him. *Wotton*.

**GESVALDO**, a town of Naples, in the Principato Ultra, 12 miles NW. of Conza.

(1.) \* To **GET. v. a.** pret. *I got*, anciently *gat*; part. pass. *got*, or *gotten*. [*getan*, *gettan*, Saxon.] 1. To procure; to obtain.—

Thine be the cosset, well hast thou it *got*. *Spenser*.—Of that which was our father's hath he *gotten* all this glory. *Gen. xxxi. 1*.—We *gat* our bread with the peril of our lives. *Sam. v. 9*.—David *gat* him a name when he returned from smiting of the Syrians. 2 *Sam. viii. 13*.—Most of these things might be more exactly tried by the Torricellian experiments, if we could *get* tubes so accurately blown that the cavity were perfectly cylindrical. *Boyle*.—Such a conscience, as has not been want-

ing to itself, in endeavouring to *get* the utmost and clearest information about the will of God, that its power, advantages, and opportunities could afford it, is that great internal judge, whose ab-  
 sultion is a rational and sure ground of confidence.  
*Soub.*—He insensibly *got* a facility, without perceiving how; and that is attributed wholly to nature, which was much more the effect of use and practice. *Locke*.—The man who lives upon alms, *gets* him his set of admirers, and delights in superiority. *Spectator*.—

Sphinx was a monster that would eat  
 Whatever stranger she could get,  
 Unless his ready wit disclos'd,  
 The subtle riddle she propos'd. *Addison*.  
 —This practice is to be used at first, in order to get a fixed habit of attention, and in some cases only. *Watts*.—The word *get* is variously used: we say to *get* money, to *get* in, to *get* off, to *get* ready, to *get* a stomach, and to *get* a cold. *Watts's Logick*. 2. To force; to seize.—Such losses and scatterings cannot easily, by any constable, or other ordinary officer, be *gotten*, when they are challenged for any such fact. *Spenser on Ireland*.—  
 The king seeing this, started from where he sat,  
 Out from his trembling hand his weapon *got*.

*Daniel*.  
 All things, but one, you can restore;  
 The heart you *get* returns no more. *Waller*.  
 3. To win by contest.—

Henry the sixth hath lost  
 All that which Henry the fifth had *gotten*. *Shak*.  
 —He *got* his people great honour, and he made battles, protecting the host with his sword. 1 *Mac*. iii. 3.—To *get* the day of them of his own nation, would be a most unhappy day for him. 2 *Mac*. v. 6.—Auria held that course to have drawn the galleys within his great ships, who thundering amongst them with their great ordnance, might have opened a way unto his galleys to have *gotten* a victory. *Knolles's Hist*. 4. To have possession of; to have. This sense is commonly in the compound preterite.

Then forcing thee, by fire he made thee bright;  
 Nay, thou hast *got* the face of man. *Herbert*.  
 5. To beget upon a female.—These boys are boys of ice; they'll none of her: sure they are bastards to the English, the French never *got* them. *Shak*.

Women with study'd arts they vex;  
 Ye gods destroy that impious sex;  
 And if there must be some t'invoke  
 Your pow'rs, and make your altars smoke,  
 Come down yourselves, and, in their place,  
 Get a more just and nobler race. *Waller*.  
 —Children they *got* on their female captives. *Locke*.—If you'll take 'em as their fathers *got* 'em, so and well; if not, you must stay 'till they *get* a better generation. *Dryden*.—

Has no man, but who has kill'd  
 A father, right to *get* a child? *Prior*.  
 Let ev'ry married man, that's grave and wise,  
 Take a tartuff of known ability,  
 Who shall so settle lasting reformation;  
 First *get* a son, then give him education. *Dorset*.  
 The god of day, descending from above,  
 Mixt with the day, and *got* the queen of love. *Granville*.

6. To gain as profit.—Though creditors will lose one fifth of their principal and use, and landlords

one fifth of their income, yet the debtors will not *get* it. *Locke*. 7. To gain by advantage.—

If they *get* ground and advantage  
 Then join you with them like a rib of  
 8. To earn; to gain by labour.—Harris nor any other way of *getting* or keeping but by trade, so much of our trade as much of our riches must necessarily. *Locke*.—If it be so much pains to count I would spend, what labour did it costors to *get* it? *Locke*. 9. To receive reward.—Any tax laid on foreign goods England raises their price, and makes *get* more for them; but a tax laid on made commodities lessens their price. To learn.—This defect he frequently being harder with him to *get* one fern than to pen twenty. *Fell*.—*Get* by her common and useful words out of his vocabulary. *Watts*. 11. To procure shall show how we may *get* it thus in afterwards preserve and keep it so. To put into any state.—Nature taught make certain vessels of a tree, whi down, not with cutting, but with fr  
 Take no repulse, whatever she d  
 For, *get* you gone, she doth not mean  
 —He who attempts to *get* another n absolute power, does thereby put hi state of war with him. *Locke*.—Befor bring forth, they may be pretty well them a little into heart. *Morimac*.— was taken up in embalming the bodie place very frequently: his greatest pe how to *get* the lovers out of it, the watched. *Guardian*. 13. To prevail duce.—Though the king could not *ge* gage in a life of business, he made h his chief companion. *Spectator*. 14 to hook.—With much communicat tempt thee, and smiling upon thee *ge* crets. *Bechuf*. xiii. 11.—By the mar grandson Ferdinand he *got* into his kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary After having *got* out of you every th spare, I scorn to trespass. *Guardian*. take; to remove; implying haste or c you to bed on th' instant; I will forthwith. *Shak. Othello*.—Arise, *get* t this land. *Gen*. xxxi. 13.—Left they j our enemies, and fight against us, and up out of the land. *Exodus* i. 10.— speed *got* himself with his followers t town of Mega. *Knolles's Hist*. 16. T force or art.—She was quickly *got* of gain. *Knolles*.—The roving fumes of in evaporating, would oftentimes fall gold in such plenty, as would put b trouble to *get* them off from his rin When mercury is *got* by the help of of a metal, or other mineral body, i pose this quicksilver to have been a j of its own kind. *Boyle*.—They would *get* out those weeds which their own planted, and which now have taken t to be easily extirpated. *Locke on Es* put.—*Get* on thy boots; we'll ride all

**GET off.** To sell or dispose of by some ex-  
—Wood, to *get* his halfpence *off*, offered  
1-*d* pounds in his coin for seventy in li-  
*ast*.  
**To GET, v. a. 1.** To arrive at any state  
ire by degrees with some kind of labour,  
or difficulty; used either of persons or  
—Phidantus was entrapp'd, and saw round  
in, but could not *get* out. *Timon*.—  
u knew he walk'd o'er perils, on an edge  
likely to fall in than to *get* o'er. *Spoken*.—  
stranger shall *get* up above thee very high,  
u shalt come down very low. *Dante*.—  
he fox bray'd what a number of shifts  
was he had to *get* from the hounds; and  
said he had but one, which was to climb  
*Bacon*.—Those that are very cold, and e-  
y in their feet, cannot *get* to sleep. *Bacon's*  
*ist*.—I utterly condemn the practice of the  
mes, that some who are prick'd for sheriffs,  
re sit, should *get* out of the bill. *Bacon's*  
*to Villiers*.—He *got* away unto the Christi-  
d hardly escaped. *Knolles*.—He would be  
locks before they could *get* out of Anne-  
*letta's Hill*.—She plays with his rage, and  
ave his anger. *Denham*.—The luttant air  
away in bubbles. *Bacon*.—There are few  
whole minute parts stick so close together,  
it is possible to meet with some other  
these small parts may *get* between, and to  
them. *Boyle*.—There was but an insinua-  
tion of the liquor upon the recess of what-  
was that *got* through the cork. *Boyle*.—Al-  
the universe, and every part thereof, are  
of full excellency, yet the multiplicity  
is so various, that the understanding falls  
a kind of despondency of *getting* through  
t a task. *Hale's Origin of Mankind*.—If there  
be any leak at the bottom of the vessel,  
y little water would *get* in, because no air  
*get* out. *Wilkins's Math. Mag.*  
beav'n, in what a labyrinth am I led!  
ld *get* out, but she detains the thread. *Dryd.*  
have I seen some fearful hare maintain  
urise, 'till tir'd before the dog she lay;  
ha, stretch'd behind her, pants upon the  
plain,  
pow'r to kill, as she to *get* away. *Dryden*.  
more oily and light part of this mass would  
ve the other, and swim upon it. *Burnet's*  
—Having *got* through the foregoing part  
t us go on to his next argument. *Locke*.—  
moving of the pains we feel, is the *getting*  
nifery, and consequently the first thing to  
, in order to happiness, absent good. *Locke*.  
iving *got* into the sense of the epistles, we  
t compare what he says, in the places  
e treats of the same subject, we can hard-  
straken in his sense. *Locke*.—I *got* up as fast  
ble, girt on my rapier, and snatched up  
when my landlady came up to me. *Tatler*.  
shalus would let no body *get* upon him  
ander the Great. *Addison*.—  
orison'd fires, in the close dungeons pent,  
to *get* loose, and struggle for a vent;  
; their way, and undermining all,  
with a mighty burst whole mountains fall.  
*Addison*.

When Alma now, in different ages,  
Has finish'd her ascending stages,  
Into the head at length she *gets*,  
And there in publick grandeur sits,  
To judge of things. *Prior*.  
—I resolv'd to break through all measures to *get*  
away. *Swift*. 2. To fall; to come by accident.  
—Two or three men of the town are *got* among  
them. *Tatler*. 3. To find the way; to insinuate  
itself.—When an egg is made hard by boiling,  
since there is nothing that appears to *get* in at the  
shell, unless some little particles of the water, it  
is not easy to discover from whence else this  
change proceed: than from a change made in the  
texture of the parts. *Boyle*.—  
He taves; his words are loose  
As heaps of sand, and scattering wide from  
sense;  
So high he's mounted in his airy hopes,  
That now the wind is *got* into his head,  
And turns his brains to frenzy. *Dryd. Sp. Fryar*.  
—A child runs to overtake and *get* up to the top  
of his shadow, which still advances at the same  
rate that he does. *Locke*.—Should dressine, feait-  
ing, and balls once *get* among the Cantons, their  
military roughness would be quickly lost. *Addison*.  
—The fluids which surround bodies, upon the  
surface of the globe, *get* in between the surface of  
bodies, when they are at any distance. *Cibyne's*  
*Phil. Princ*. 4. To move; to remove.—  
*Get* home with thy fewel made ready to set;  
The sooner, and easier carriage to *get*. *Tusser*.  
5. To have recourse to.—The Turks made great  
haste through the midst of the town ditch, to *get*  
up into the bulwark to help their fellows. *Knolles*.  
—Lying is so cheap a cover for any miscarriage,  
and so much in fashion, that a child can scarce be  
kept from *getting* into it. *Locke*. 6. To go; to  
repair.—They ran to their weapons, and furiously  
assail'd the Turks, now fearing no such matter,  
and were not as yet all *got* into the castle. *Knolles's*  
*Hist*.—A knot of ladies, *got* together by themselves,  
is a very school of impertinence. *Swift*. 7. To  
put one's self in any state.—They might *get* over  
the river Avon at Stratford, and *get* between the  
king and Worcester. *Clarendon*.—We can neither  
find source nor issue for such an excessive mass of  
waters, neither where to have them; nor, if we  
had them, how to *get* quit of them. *Bacon's*  
*Tutor*.—Without his assistance we can no more  
*get* quit of our affliction, than but by his permis-  
sion we should have fallen into it. *Hale's Prop.*  
*for Death*.—There is a sort of men who pretend  
to divest themselves of partiality on both sides,  
and to *get* above that imperfect idea of their sub-  
ject which little writers fall into. *Pop. on Homer*.  
—As the obtaining the love of valuable men is the  
happiest end of this life, so the next felicity is to  
*get* rid of fools and scoundrels. *Pope to Swift*. 8.  
To become by any act what one was not before.  
The laughing sot, like all unthinking men,  
Bathes and *gets* drunk; then bathes and drinks  
again. *Dryden*.  
9. To be a gainer; to receive advantage.—  
Like jewels to advantage *get*,  
Her beauty by the shade does *get*. *Waller*.  
10. To GET off. To escape.—The gallies, by the  
benefit

benefit of the shores and shallows, *got off*. *Bacon's War with Spain*.—

Whate'er thou dost, deliver not thy sword;  
With that thou may'st *get off*, tho' odds oppose thee. *Dryden*.

11. To *GET over*. To conquer; to suppress; to pass without being stopped in thinking or acting.—'Tis very pleasant to hear the lady propose her doubts, and to see the pains he is at to *get over* them. *Addison*.—I cannot *get over* the prejudice of taking some little offence at the clergy, for perpetually reading their sermons. *Swift*.—To remove this difficulty, Peterborough was dispatched to Vienna, and *got over* some part of those disputes. *Swift*. 12. To *GET up*. To rise from repose.—Sheep will *get up* betimes in the morning to feed against rain. *Bacon's Nat. History*. 13. To *GET up*. To rise from a seat. 14. To remove from a place.—*Get you up* from about the tabernacle of Koran, Dathan, and Ahiram. *Num. xvi.* 15. To *get*, in all its significations, both active and neutral, implies the acquisition of something, or the arrival at some state or place by some means; except in the use of the preterite compound, which often implies mere possession; as, *he has got a good estate*, does not always mean that he has acquired, but barely that he possesses it. So we say *the lady has got black eyes*, merely meaning that she has them.

(1.) GETA, M. Septimius Antoninus, the son of the emperor Severus, and brother to Caracalla. In the 8th year of his age, he was moved with compassion at the fate of some of the partizans of Niger and Albinus, who were to be executed, and his father struck with his humanity retracted the sentence. After Severus's death, he reigned at Rome conjointly with his brother; but Caracalla, who envied his virtues and was jealous of his popularity, ordered him to be poisoned; and this not being effected, he murdered him in the arms of his mother Julia, who in attempting to defend him, received a wound in her arm, from the hand of her worthless son, A. D. 212. Geta had not reached the 23d year of his age, and the Romans lamented the death of so virtuous a prince, while they groaned under the cruelties and oppressions of Caracalla.

(2.) GETA, in geography. See GASTA.

GETÆ, an ancient nation of Thrace, who dwelt on both sides of the Ister, near Scythia, supposed to be the ancestors of the Dacians and Goths; or according to others, of the Walachians or Moldavians.

GETCHAO, a town of China, in the province of Chang tong, 27 miles ESE. of Lu.

GETTIN, Lady Grace, an English lady of uncommon parts, daughter of Sir George Norton of Abbots-Leigh in Somersetshire; was born in 1675; and became the wife of Sir Richard Gethin, of Gethin-Crett in Ireland. She was mistress of great accomplishments, natural and acquired, but did not live long enough to display them; for she died in her 21st year. She was buried in Westminster abbey, where a beautiful monument with an inscription is erected over her; and, to perpetuate her memory, provision was made for a sermon to be preached in Westminster abbey yearly, on Ash-Wednesday for ever. She wrote in look-

papers, a work which, after her death, was published under the title *quæ Gethiniana*; or, Some remains of ingenious and excellent lady, Grace lately deceased. Being a collection of courses, pleasant apophthems, and witty sayings. Written by her, for the most part of essay, and at spare hours." Lond. 1700.

GETHSEMENE, [גתסמנה. Heb. i. e. ley of fat, or fertility.] in ancient geography a village at the foot of Mount Olivet, whither Christ sometimes retired in the night-time in a garden belonging to this village; there he suffered the agony in which he sweated blood, and was arrested by Judas and his band. It is described by Maundrel as an even plot of not above 57 yards square, lying between Mount Olivet and the brook Cedron.

GETHYLLIS, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decadecary of plants; and in the natural method under the 9th order, *Spartocææ*. The corolla is five-lobed, and the stamina are in six different positions; the capsule is trilocular.

GETSTORFF, a town of Germany 16 miles SE. of Meissau.

GETTENDORFF, a town of Austria 8. of Aigen.

\* GETTER. *n. f.* [from *get*.] 1. One who cures or obtains. 2. One who begets on.—Peace is a very lethargy, a *getter* of tard children than war's a destroyer of men.

\* GETTING. *n. f.* [from *get*.] 1. Acting; acquisition.—Wisdom is the principle therefore get wisdom; and with all the get understanding. *Prov. iv. 7.* 2. Gain.—Who hath a state to repair may not neglect small things; and it is less dishonour to bridge a petty charge than to stoop to borrowings. *Bacon*.—The learned families rather than their *gettings*, to be a porting child. *Swift*.

GETTYSBURG, a town of Pennsylvania 9 miles N. of the Mary and 118 W. by S. of Philadelphia.

GETTILL. See GAVILL.

GETTILIA. See GAVILLIA.

GETZENDORF, two towns of Austria on the Rhenish, 12 miles SE. of Vienna and four miles S. of Zutterdorf.

GEVAUDAN, or } a ci-devant province of France, in Languedoc, bounded on the N. by Auvergne, E. by S. by Cevennes, and W. by Rouergue mountains and barren; and now four départements of LOZERE.

GEVELSBERG, or GRETTERSBERG of Westphalia, in the county of Mark SE. of Brakenstein.

GEVER, or St GOAR. See GOAR.

GEVES, a town and river of Africa, river St Domingo.

GEVEZE, a town of France, in the diocese of Vilaine, 7½ miles NNW. of Rennes.

GEVIEZ, a town of Moravia, in the Olmutz, 12 miles SW. of Muhlitz.

(1.) GEUL, a river of Germany, which falls into the Meuse, 5 miles below Maestricht.

**UL**, a town of the French republic, in the Lower Meuse, and ci-devant duchy of Lorraine, 5 miles N. of Wyck.

**U**, **AVENS**, or **HERB BENNET**, a genus of the *Lygama* order, belonging to the icosantherous plants; and in the natural method under the 35th order, *Senticose*. The leaf is divided into 10 parts; there are 5 petals, and the seed has a jointed awn. There are 5 of which the 3 following, both natives of France, are the most remarkable:

**M RIVALE**, with a very thick, fleshy, woody root, hairy leaves, and upright stalks, the flowers are high, terminated by purple flowers on one side. Of this there are varieties with yellow flowers. The root is said to be efficacious in curing the dropsy; and it is daily used for this purpose by the natives and other inhabitants of North France.

Sheep and goats eat the plant; cows, and swine, are not fond of it.

**M URBANUM**, with thick fibrous roots, a bitter taste, rough, serrated leaves, and round, hairy stalks, terminated by large flowers, succeeded by globular fruit. The herb is sown in spring before the stem comes out; if infused in ale, give it a pleasant flavour, and is a stomachic virtue. The taste is mild and aromatic, especially when the plant is in dry situations; but in moist, it hath little virtue. Both these species are propagated either by the root or seed.

**U**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Rhone, 7 miles S. of Dijon.

**U**, a town of Saxony, in the bishopric of Meissen, 3 miles E. of Zeitz.

**U**, a town of Saxony, near Cothen.

**U**, *U*. *n. f.* [*pegaw*, Sax. *ioraw*, Fr.] a rattle; a toy; a bauble; a splendid plaything that metal they exchanged for the mean and *geugaw* which the others could not value. — *Prefer that which Providence pronounced to be the staff of life, bearing geugaw that has no other value than vanity has set upon it. L'Esrange.* — Children, when they throw one toy away, a more foolish *geugaw* comes in play. *Dryden.*

*U*, *U*. *n. f.* [*geugaw*, Sax. *ioraw*, Fr.] a rattle; a toy; a bauble; a splendid plaything that metal they exchanged for the mean and *geugaw* which the others could not value. — *Prefer that which Providence pronounced to be the staff of life, bearing geugaw that has no other value than vanity has set upon it. L'Esrange.* — Children, when they throw one toy away, a more foolish *geugaw* comes in play. *Dryden.*

Some loose the hands of friendship, cancel nature's laws of honesty and tawdry *geugaws*. *Philips.* Images were fans, silks, ribbands, lace, and other *geugaws*, which lay so thick that the heart was nothing else but a toyshop. *Wardian.*

**U**, *U*. *n. f.* [*geugaw*, Sax. *ioraw*, Fr.] a rattle; a toy; a bauble; a splendid plaything that metal they exchanged for the mean and *geugaw* which the others could not value. — *Prefer that which Providence pronounced to be the staff of life, bearing geugaw that has no other value than vanity has set upon it. L'Esrange.* — Children, when they throw one toy away, a more foolish *geugaw* comes in play. *Dryden.*

**U**, a ci-devant territory of France, in the dep. of Bresse; bounded by Mount Jura, the lake of Geneva, and Switzerland. It was ceded to France by the duke of Savoy, in 1704, and forms the department of Ain.

(2.) **GEX**, a town of France, in the dep. of Ain, at the foot of Mount St Claude; 10 miles NNW. of Geneva, and 36 NE. of Mantua. Lon. 6. 1. E. Lat. 46. 20. N.

**GEYER**, a town of Upper Saxony, among the mines. Vitriol, sulphur, alum, arsenic, &c. are manufactured in it. It is 6 miles WSW. of Wolkstein.

**GEYERSBERG**, a town of Bohemia, 18 miles ENE. of Koniggratz, and 18 ENE. of Chrudim.

**GEYRACH**, a town of Germany in Stiria.

**GEYSA**, or **GEYSS**, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, and bishopric of Fulda; 15 miles NE. of Fulda.

**GEYSS-RUCKEN JAFFELER**, a mountain of Germany, between Upper Carniola and Cilley, 6 miles NE. of Stein.

**GEZAEI**, a town of Turkey in Irak Arabic, on the Euphrates, 120 miles NE. of Bassora.

**GEZAN**, or **DSJEZAN**. See **DSJESAN**.

**GEZIRA**, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the prov. of Diarbekir, in an island formed by the Tigris, 70 miles NW. of Mouful. Lon. 40. 50. E. Lat. 36. 36. N.

**GEZIRAT**, a town of Turkey, in Diarbekir, 60 miles SE. of Diarbekir.

**GEZIRAT INDAHAD**, or the ISLE OF GOLD, an island of Egypt, in the Nile, 2 miles S. of Fouad.

**GEZULA**, or **GAZULA**, a country of Africa, S. of Morocco, the inhabitants of which are allies of the emperor. They are numerous, and are reckoned the most ancient people of Africa. They have no towns, but live in camps and villages, and are hospitable to strangers. They have an annual fair, which lasts 2 months. The country abounds in corn, pasture, copper and iron.

**GEFOLL**, a town of Austria, 8 m. W. of Crems.

**GHALEFKA**, a town of Arabia Felix.

**GHANA**, or **GHANARA**, a town of Africa, in Wangara, on the Niger. Lon. 15. 56. E. Lat. 15. 30. N.

\* **GHASTFUL**. *adj.* [*gast* and *fulle*, Saxon.] Dreary; melancholy; dismal; fit for walking spirits. *Obsolete.*—

Here will I dwell apart,  
In *ghastful* grave, 'till my last sleep  
Do close mine eyes:  
Help me, ye baneful birds, whose shrieking sound  
Is sign of dreary death. *Spenser's Pastorals.*

\* **GHASTLINESS**. *n. f.* [from *ghastly*.] Horror of countenance; resemblance of a ghost; paleness.

\* **GHASTLY**. *adj.* [*gast*, or *ghost*, and *like*.] 1. Like a ghost; having horror in the countenance; pale; dreadful; dismal.—

Why looks your grace so heavily to-day?  
—O, I have past a miserable night;  
So full of ugly sights, of *ghastly* dreams,  
So full of dismal terror was the time. *Shakespeare.*  
—Envy quickly discovered in court Solymann's changed countenance upon the great bassia, and began now to shew her *ghastly* face. *Knolles's Hist. Death.*

Grinn'd horrible a *ghastly* smile, to hear  
His famine should be fill'd. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

—Those departed friends, whom at our last separation we saw disfigured by all the *ghastly* horrors of death, we shall then see assisting about the majestic

jestick throne of Christ, with their once vile bodies transfigured into the likeness of his glorious body, mingling their glad acclamations with the hallelujahs of thrones, principaities and powers. *Boyle.*

He came, but with such alter'd looks,  
So wild, so *ghastly*, as if some ghost had met him,  
All pale and speechless. *Dryd. Spanish Fryar.*  
I did not for these *ghastly* visions send;  
Their sudden coming does some ill portend.

*Dryden's Indian Emp.*

2. Horrible; shocking; dreadful.—

To be less than gods  
Disdain'd; but meaner thoughts learn'd in their flight,  
Mangled with *ghastly* wounds through plate and mail. *Milton.*

I who make the triumph of to-day,  
May of to-morrow's pomp one part appear,  
*Ghastly* with wounds, and lifeless on the bier!

*Prior.*

\* **GHAISTNESS.** *n. f.* [from *ghast*, Sax.] Ghastliness; horror of look. Not used.—

Look you pale, mistress?

Do you perceive the *ghastness* of the eye. *Sh. Oth.*

(1.) **GHEDI**, a district of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of Meta, containing 5 parishes, and 7000 souls.

(2.) **GHEDI**, a well built town in the above district, between the Naviglio and Seriola, containing 3200 citizens.

**GHEIRA**, a town of Asiatic Turkey in Natolia.

**GHEIVE**, a town of Natolia, 20 m. E. of Hnik.

**GHEME**, a town of Italy, in the Novaresc, 13 miles NNW. of Novara. The Novaresc was annexed to the Cisalpine republic, in Nov. 1800.

**GHENT**, or **GAUNT**, a city of the French republic, capital of the department of the Scheldt, and the capital of the cisalpine province of Austrian Flanders. It is situated on 4 navigable rivers, the Scheldt, the Lys, the Lieve, and the Aboze, which, with a great number of canals run through it, and divide it into 25 little isles, over which there are 200 bridges. Among these there is one remarkable for a statue of brass of a young man who was condemned to cut off his father's head; but as he was going to strike, the blade flew into the air, and the head remained in his hand, upon which they were both pardoned. There is a picture of the whole transaction in the town house. Ghent is surrounded with walls and other fortifications, and is tolerably strong considering its circumference. The streets are large and well paved, the market places spacious, and the houses built with brick. The largest market-place is remarkable for the statue of Charles V. which stands upon a pedestal in the imperial habit. That of Cortere has a fine walk, between several rows of trees. In 1737 a fine opera-house was built, and a guard-house for the garrison. Near the town is a very high tower, with a handsome clock and chimera. The great bell weighs 11,000 lb. Ghent was anciently the capital of the Nervii, and after them of the Vandals, who gave it the name of *Randa*, or *Randa*, whence *Ganda* and *Ghent* are supposed to have been derived. Godoacer of Flanders first surrounded it with walls; and in 1397 Philip, the 2<sup>d</sup> H. of Flanders, enlarged it. Prince John, the 2<sup>d</sup> son of Edward 1<sup>st</sup> of England, was born

in it, hence named *John of Gaunt* the emperor Charles V; but the inhabitants have no reason to venerate his memory; repeated oppressions, he provoked them 1539; whereupon he put to death 26 pal citizens, banished many others, and their estates; deprived the city of arms and artillery; fined the citizens of crowns, and ordered the magistrates in procession with ropes about their necks. This famous for the pacification signed for settling the tranquillity of the 17 was taken by Lewis XIV, in 1678, at the treaty of Nimueguen. The possession of it again after the death of Spain. In 1706, it was taken by Marlborough; and by the French it was retaken the same year. The French by surprise after the battle of Fontenoy the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle it was retaken the 14th Nov. 1792, it was taken by the French under Gen. Labourdonnais welcomed by the inhabitants. In they evacuated it, upon the desertion of the French; but recovered it again in July the Austrians under Clairfait retreated well seated for trade, on account of canals. It carries on a great commerce and has linen, woollen, and silk. The number of citizens is about 70,000; population is not proportionable to which Charles V. thus boasted to "I have a *glorie*" (said he, alluding name *Gand*), "in which I could put 100,000 of Paris." Ghent lies 24 miles S. of Antwerp, and 30 miles S. of London. Lat. 51. 4. N.

**GHERKEDDE**, a town of Turkey.

**GHERGISTAN MOUNTAINS**, a range of mountains in Asia, 15 leagues N. of Candahar.

**GHERGONG.** See **GORGONG.**

**GHERIAH**, or **GHERIAH**, a town in Cochin, on the W. coast, the capital of the pirate Angia, taken by Adm. Watton and Col. C. when his fleet was destroyed, and by the British and Madagascars. It lies NNW. of Goa, and 295 S. by E. of London. Lat. 16. 45. N.

\* **GHERKIN.** *n. f.* [from *garcin*, cucum. ber.] A small pickled cucumber.

**GHERKMA**, or **GHERMA**, a town in the desert of Berber. Lon. 18. 25. E.

**GHERMANSLI**, a town of Turkey.

**GHERKZE**, a town of Africa, in the desert of Berber.

\* **To GHESS.** *v. n.* [See **To GUESS**.]

by critics considered as the true but *gess* has universally prevailed.

**GHEURL**, a town of Natolia.

**GHEUTSI**, a town of Caiaman.

**GHEUSSI**, a town of Caiaman.

**GHEYSSQUAS**, a nation of Hottentots, which, as well as from the country and Biquas, it is separated by a canal.

In dress, weapons, instruments of music, for dancing and hunting, &c. the

ring nations, except that their ornaments, and composed of the bones of sheep's feet, to which, by some peculiar process, a dazzling whiteness. Their women are lively, and cheerful; yet with all their gaiety, they are remarkable for modesty, and to warm a climate, is doubtless a virtue to be admired. M. Vaillant, who visited this people near Orange river, nowhere met with a nation so truly generous, though he had nothing to give in exchange, but the two days that he staid with them, sent him bowls of milk, evening and morning a lamb, and several sheep for his tribe. A practice, for which no satisfactory reason has been assigned, universally prevails among their tribes, of semi-castration, by cutting off the left testicle. Yet, as Kolben observes, this operation is commonly performed by the parents, on the birth of the child, though sometimes till the 3d year is completed.

**NELO**, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of Tessino, and ci-devant of Pavia.

**KILAN**, or **KILAN**, a province of Persia, bordering on Russia. See **KILAN**.

**HILAN**, ST. See **GHISLAIN**, ST.

**HINALA**, a kingdom of Africa.

**GUINALA**, or **GUINALA**, the capital of the kingdom, seated on the river Grande. Lon. N. Lat. 10. 20. N.

**GHANAH**, or **GHANAH**. See **GHANAH**.

**GHUC**, a town of Turkey, in Natolia.

**GONG**, or **GHERGONG**, a city of India, the capital of Assam. It is encompassed by a high hedge of bamboos, and has 4 gates. The king's palace is surrounded by a causeway, on each side with a close hedge of bamboo, and a ditch on the outside. It is adorned with ice-work and carving. Plates of brass like mirrors are placed within and without, so that 3000 carpenters and 1200 labourers were employed in this work for two years, before it was completed. The wealth of Assam is chiefly in Ghirgong. Gold being found in every part of the country, among the sand of the rivers, and is the source of revenue. From 12, to 20,000 men are constantly employed in washing the sand, and the gold is paid by the rajah. The country around Ghirgong is fertile, and abounds with gum lac, excellent fruits, as mangoes, plantains, oranges, citrons, cocoa nuts, limes, pine apples, &c. **GHILAS**, a species of tamarind, of an excellent quality. Rice and lentiles are the chief crops. There are numerous in the neighbouring forests. **Ghirgong** is seated on the Burrampooter, 125 E. of Patna. Lon. 95. 35. E. Lat. 26.

**GHILAIN**, ST. or **ST GHILAN**, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of the North, and ci-devant prov. of French Hainault, seated on the river, 5 miles W. of Mons. It was taken by the British, in June, 1792. Lon. 3. 53. E. Lat. 53. N.

**GHIRA**, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in

the dep. of the Lario, and late duchy of Milan; 30 miles NW. of Milan.

(1.) **GHIZNI**, or **GAZNA**, an ancient empire of Asia, formerly very powerful. See **GAZNA**.

(2.) **GHIZNI**, or **GAZNA**, the capital of the above empire, lies 54 miles S. of Cabul, and 150 E. of Candahar. See **GAZNA**. Lon. 68. 20. E. Lat. 33. 40. N.

**GHOER**, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Yffel, and ci-devant prov. of Overysel; seated on the Regge, 10 miles NNE. of Borkeloo.

(1.) \* **GHOST**. *n. f.* [*gast*, Sax.] 1. The soul of man.—

Vex not his *ghost*: O, let him pass! He hates him,

That would upon the rack of this rough world Stretch him out longer. *Shak. King Lear.*

Often did I strive

To yield the *ghost*; but still the envious flood Kept in my soul. *Shak. Rich. III.*

2. A spirit appearing after death.—

The mighty *ghosts* of our great Harrys rose, And armed Edwards look'd with anxious eyes, To see this fleet among unequal foes,

By which fate promis'd them their Charles should rise. *Dryden.*

3. To give up the **GHOST**. To die; to yield up the spirit into the hands of God.—

Their shadows seem

A canopy most fatal, under which Our army lies ready to give up the *ghost*. *Shak.*

4. The third person in the adorable Trinity, called the Holy Ghost.—

(2.) **GHOST**, *v. i. def. 2.* See **APPARITION**, § 3; and **SPECTRE**.

(3.) **GHOSTS**, ANCIENT OPINIONS RESPECTING. The ancients supposed every man to be possessed of three different ghosts, which after the dissolution of the body were differently disposed of. These ghosts they distinguished by the names of *Manes*, *Spiritus* and *Umbra*. The *manes*, they fancied, went down into the infernal regions; the *spiritus* ascended to the skies; and the *umbra* hovered about the tomb, as being unwilling to quit its old connections. Thus Dido (*Virg. Æn. iv. 384.*) threatens Æneas after death that she will haunt him with her *umbra*, whilst her *manes* rejoice in his torments below. This idea of a three-fold soul is very clearly expressed in those lines, which have been attributed to Ovid:

*Bis duo sunt homini: MANES, CARO, SPIRITUS, UMBRA:*

*Quatuor ista loci bis duo suscipiunt. Terra tegit CARNEM, tumulum circumvolat UMBRA,*

*Orcus habet MANES, SPIRITUS, atra petit.*

(4.) **GHOSTS**, MODERN SUPERSTITIOUS NOTIONS RESPECTING. "A Ghost" (says captain Grose in his *Provincial Glossary*;) "is supposed to be the spirit of a person deceased, who is either commissioned to return for some especial errand, such as the discovery of a murder, to procure restitution of lands or money unjustly withheld from an orphan or widow—or having committed some injustice whilst living, cannot rest till that is redressed."

fed. Sometimes the occasion of spirits revisiting this world, is to inform their heir in what secret place, or private drawer in an old trunk, they had hidden the title-deeds of the estate; or where, in troublesome times, they buried their money and plate. Some ghosts of murdered persons, whose bodies have been secretly buried, cannot be at ease till their bones have been taken up, and deposited in consecrated ground with all the rites of Christian burial." For a farther enumeration of the popular superstitions respecting ghosts, we refer the reader to Capt. Grose's work, above quoted.

(5.) GHOSTS, PHILOSOPHICAL INQUIRY INTO THE SUBJECT OF. See SPECTRE, § 2.

(1.) \* To GHOST. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To haunt with apparitions of departed men. Obsolete.—

Julius Cæsar,

Who at Philippi the good Brutus *ghosted*,

There saw you labouring for him. *Shak.*

(2.) \* To GHOST. *v. n.* To yield up the ghost; to die. Not in use.—Euryalus taking leave of Lucretia, precipitated her into such a love-fit, that within a few hours she *ghosted*. *Sidney.*

\* GHOSTLINESS. *n. f.* [from *ghostly*.] Spiritual tendency; quality of having reference chiefly to the soul.

\* GHOSTLY. *adj.* [from *ghost*.] 1. Spiritual; relating to the soul; not carnal; not secular.—Save and defend us from our *ghostly* enemies. *Comm. Prayer*.—Our common necessities, and the lack which we all have, as well of *ghostly* as of earthly favours, is in each kind so easily known, but the gifts of God, according to these degrees and times, which he in his secret wisdom seemeth meet, are so diversely bestowed, that it seldom appeareth what all receive; what all stand in need of, it seldom lieth hid. *Hooker*.—The graces of the spirit are much more precious than worldly benefits, and our *ghostly* evils of greater importance than any harm which the body feelth. *Hooker*.—To deny me the *ghostly* comfort of my chaplains, seems a greater barbarity than is ever used by Christians. *King Charles*. 2. Having a character from religion; spiritual.—

Hence will I to my *ghostly* friar's close cell,  
His help to crave, and my dear hap to tell.

*Shak. Romeo and Juliet.*

The *ghostly* father now hath done his shrift.

*Shak. Hen. VI.*

GHOUMEL, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Pholey, on the Joto. Lon. 11. 15. W. Lat. 16. 12. N.

GHOORBOND, a town of Africa, in Cabul, 42 miles NW. of Cabul. Lon. 67. 52. E. Lat. 34. 55. N.

GHOWRI, a town of Asia, in the kingdom of Balk. Lon. 66. 56. E. Lat. 35. 40. N.

GHUNFUDE, a sea port of Arabia, on the Red Sea, belonging to the Sherife of Mecca, 145 miles S. of Mecca. Lat. 19. 7. N.

GIABER, or GEBER. See GEBER, N. 1.

GIAPFA. See JAFFA, and JOPPA.

GIAGH, in chronology, a cycle of 12 years, in use among the Turks and Cathayans. Each year of the giagh bears a name of some animal; the first that of a mouse; the 2d that of a bullock; the 3d a lynx or leopard; the 4th a hare; the 5th a

crocodile; the 6th a serpent; the 7th a 8th a sheep; the 9th a monkey; the 10th 11th a dog; and the 12th a hog. divide the day into 12 parts, called *gi* distinguish them by the names of animals. *giagh* contains two of our hours, and into eight *kebs*; so that a *keb* is a quarter hour.

GIAIDHOFF, a town of Stiria, 8 miles of Graz.

(1.) \* GIALALINA. *n. f.* [Italian.] a bright gold colour, found in the kingdom of Naples, very fine, and much valued by *Woodward's Met. Foss.*

(2.) GIALALINA, or } in natural hills  
GIALLOLINO, } fine yellow pigmented also NAPLES YELLOW.

GIALU, a town of Transylvania, SSW. of Clausenburg.

GIAMANI, a town of Persia, 28 miles of Susa.

\* GIAMBEUX. *n. f.* [*jambes*, French] or armour for legs; greaves.—

The mortal steel spiteously entail  
Deep in their flesh, quite through the  
That a large purple stream adown the  
*beux* falls.

GIAMOBASH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, 20 miles SSE. of Smyrna.

GIANNONI, Peter, an Italian author of Naples in 1680. He wrote a History of which is admired for its purity of style and purity of sentiments. It gave such offence to the court of Rome that he was obliged to flee; where he died in 1748.

(1, 1.) \* GIANT. *n. f.* [*geant*, French Latin.] A man of size above the ordinary men; a man unnaturally large. It is observed the idea of a giant is always associated with brutality, and wickedness.—

Now does he feel his axle

Hang loose about him, like a *giant's*  
Upon a dwarfish thief. *Shak.*

Gates of monarchs

Are arch'd so high that *giants* may jet  
And keep their impious turbans on,  
Good-morrow to the sun. *Shak.*

Woman's gentle brain

Could not drop forth such *giants* rude  
Such Ethiop words. *Shak. As.*  
Fierce faces threat'ning wars,  
*Giants* of mighty bone, and bold em

—Those *giants*, those mighty men, as renowned, far exceeded the proportion, and strength of those *giants* remembered by his own time. *Raleigh's Hist.*—

The *giant* brothers, in their cave  
found

I was not forc'd with ease to quit my  
*Dryde*

By weary steps and slow

The groping *giant* with a trunk of pig  
Explor'd his way.

Neptune, by pray'r repentant, rav  
Afflicts the chief t'avenge his *giant* foe  
Great Polypheme of more than mort



GIANTS, ARGUMENTS RESPECTING THE  
 CE OF. The traditions of all ages have  
 us with so many extravagant accounts  
 of incredible bulk and strength, that  
 once of such people is now generally dis-

It is commonly thought, that the  
 man has been the same in all ages; and  
 even pretended to *demonstrate* the im-  
 existence of giants mathematical-  
 these our countryman M'Laurin has been  
 explicit. But his arguments and com-  
 drawn from the disproportion between  
 ion of parts in small models and large  
 f human workmanship, are by no means  
 ; because, along with an increase of  
 any animal, we must always suppose a  
 nal increase in the cohesion of the parts  
 ly. Large works sometimes fail when  
 d on the plan of models, because the  
 of the materials whereof the model is  
 f of the large work, are the same; but  
 ce in this respect will produce a very re-  
 difference in the ultimate result. Thus,

model is made of fir wood, the model  
 m and strong enough; but a large work  
 of fir, when executed according to the  
 he model, may be so weak that it will  
 ce from its own weight. If, however,  
 use of iron for the large work instead  
 e whole will be sufficiently strong, even  
 e exactly according to the plan of the  
 he like may be said with regard to large  
 animals. If we could find an animal  
 nes exceeded in hardness and strength  
 of other animals as much as iron ex-  
 such an animal might be of a monstrous  
 et be exceedingly strong. In like man-  
 suppose the flesh and bones of a giant  
 tly superior in hardness and strength  
 f other men, the great size of his body  
 o objection at all to his strength. The  
 trovery therefore, concerning the exist-  
 ants, must rest on the credibility of the  
 iven by those who profess to have seen

not on any arguments drawn *a priori*.  
 icture we are told of *giants*, who were  
 rom the marriages of the *sons of God* with  
 rs of men. See ANTEDILUVIANS, § 6.  
 ge indeed has been differently interpre-  
 o render it doubtful whether the word  
*giants* does there imply any extraordi-  
 e. In other parts of scripture, how-  
 s, with their dimensions, are mentioned  
 nanner that we cannot possibly doubt;  
 aic of Og king of Bashan, Goliath, and  
 n. 1 Chron. xv, 4—8. The rev. Mr  
 er of Latheron, in Caithness, mentions  
 atherland the last proprietor of Berry-  
 who lived in the end of the 15th cen-  
 measured 9 feet 5 inches high. See  
*air's Stat. Acc.* xvii. p. 27,—30.

NTS, M. LE CAT'S ACCOUNT OF. M.  
 a memoir read before the Academy of  
 Rouen, gives the following account of  
 are said to have existed in different a-  
 anc historians have given 7 feet of height  
 their first hero; and in our days we  
 en 8 feet high. The giant who was  
 PAR. II.

shown in Rouen in 1735, measured 8 feet some  
 inches. The emperor Maximin was of that size;  
 Shenkius and Platerus, physicians of the last cen-  
 tury, saw several of that stature; and Goropius  
 saw a girl who was 10 feet high.—The body of  
 Orestes, according to the Greeks, was eleven feet  
 and a half; the giant Galbara, brought from A-  
 rabia to Rome under Claudius Cæsar, was near  
 10 feet; and the bones of Secondilla and Pufio,  
 keepers of the gardens of Sallust, were but six  
 inches shorter. Funnam, a Scotsman, who lived  
 in the time of Eugene II. King of Scotland, measured  
 11½ feet; and Jacob le Maire in his voyage  
 to the Straits of Magellan, reports, that on the  
 17th Dec. 1675, they found at Port Desire several  
 graves covered with stones; and having the curi-  
 osity to remove the stones, they discovered human  
 skeletons of 10 and 11 feet long. The chevalier  
 Scory, in his voyage to the peak of Teneriffe,  
 says, that they found, in one of the sepulchre  
 caverns of that mountain, the head of a Guanche  
 which had 80 teeth, and that the body was not  
 less than 15 feet long. The giant Ferragus, slain  
 by Orlando nephew of Charlemagne, was 18 feet  
 high. Rioland, a celebrated anatomist, who  
 wrote in 1614, says, that some years before there  
 was to be seen in the suburbs of St Germain the  
 tomb of the giant Iforet, who was 20 feet high.  
 In Rouen, in 1509, in digging in the ditches near  
 the Dominicans, they found a stone tomb con-  
 taining a skeleton whose skull held a bushel of  
 corn, and whose shin-bone reached up to the  
 girdle of the tallest man there, being about 4 feet  
 long, and consequently the body must have been  
 17 or 18 feet high. Upon the tomb was a plate  
 of copper, whereon was engraved, "In this tomb  
 lies the noble and puissant lord, the chevalier  
 Ricou de Vallemont, and his bones." Platerus,  
 a famous physician, declares, that he saw at  
 Lucerne the true human bones of a subject which  
 must have been at least 19 feet high. Valence in  
 Dauphiné boasts of possessing the bones of the  
 giant Bucart, tyrant of the Vivarais, who was  
 slain by an arrow by the count De Cabillon his  
 vassal. The Dominicans had a part of the shin-  
 bone, with the articulation of the knee, and his  
 figure painted in fresco, with an inscription, show-  
 ing that this giant was 22 feet and a half high  
 and that his bones were found in 1705, near  
 the banks of the Morderi, a little river at the foot  
 of the mountain of Cruffol, upon which (tradition  
 says) the giant dwelt." M. Le Cat adds, that  
 skeletons have been discovered of giants, of a still  
 more incredible height, viz. of *Theutobockus* king  
 of the Teutones, found Jan. 11. 1613, 25½ feet  
 high; of a giant near Mazarino, in Sicily in 1516,  
 30 feet; of another in 1548, near Palermo, 30  
 feet; of another in 1550, of 33 feet; of two  
 found near Athens 33 and 36 feet; and of one at  
 Totu in Bohemia, in 758, whose leg bones alone  
 measured 26 feet! But whether these accounts are  
 credited or not, we are certain that the stature of  
 the human body is by no means fixed. We are  
 ourselves a kind of giants in comparison of the  
 Laplanders; nor are these the most diminutive  
 people to be found upon the earth. The Abbé  
 la Chappe, in his journey into Siberia, to observe  
 the last transit of Venus, passed through a village  
 inhabited

inhabited by people called **WOTIACKS**, who were not above four feet high. The accounts of the **Patagonians** likewise, which cannot be entirely discredited, render it very probable, that somewhere in South America there is a race of people very considerably exceeding the common size of mankind, and consequently that we cannot altogether discredit the relations of giants handed down to us by ancient authors; though what degree of credit we ought to give them, is not easy to be determined. See **PATAGONIA**.

(4.) **GIANTS, REBELLIOUS**, in ancient mythology, the sons of **Cælus** and **Terra**. According to **Hesiod**, they sprang from the blood of the wound which **Cælus** received from his son **Saturn**. **Hyginus** calls them sons of **Tartarus** and **Terra**. They are represented as endued with strength proportioned to their gigantic size. Some of them, as **Cottus**, **Briareus**, and **Gyges**, had each 50 heads and 100 arms, and serpents instead of legs. They were of a terrible aspect, and their hair hung loose about their shoulders. **Pallene** and its neighbourhood was the place of their residence. The defeat of the **Titans**, to whom they were nearly related, incensed them against **Jupiter**, and they all conspired to dethrone him. Accordingly they reared **Mount Ossa** upon **Pelion**, and **Olympus** upon **Ossa**; and from thence attacked the gods with huge rocks, some of which fell into the sea and became islands, and others fell on the earth and formed mountains. **Jupiter** summoned a council of the gods; when being informed that it was necessary to obtain the assistance of some mortal, he by the advice of **Pallas** called up his son **Hercules**; and with the aid of this hero he exterminated the giants **Enceladus**, **Polybates**, **Alcyon**, **Porphyrion**, the two sons of **Alceus**, **Epibaltes** and **Othus**, **Eurytus**, **Clytus**, **Tythyus**, **Pallis**, **Hippolitus**, **Agrius**, **Thoon**, and **Typhon**; the last of whom it was more difficult to vanquish than all the rest. **Jupiter**, having thus gained a complete victory, cast the rebels down to **Tartarus**, where they were to receive the full punishment of their enormous crimes: according to some of the poets, he buried them alive under **Mount Ætna** and different islands.

(II.) **GIANT'S CAUSEWAY**, in geography and natural history, a vast collection of **Basaltic pillars** in the county of **Antrim** in **Ireland**. See **BASALTES**, § 5. The principal or grand causeway (for there are several less considerable and scattered fragments of them,) consists of a most irregular arrangement of many hundred thousands of columns of a black kind of rock, hard as marble: almost all of them are of a pentagonal figure, but so closely and compactly situated on their sides, though perfectly distinct from top to bottom, that scarce any thing can be introduced between them. The columns are of an unequal height and breadth; some of the highest, visible above the surface of the strand, and at the foot of the impending angular precipice, may be about 20 feet; they do not exceed this height, at least none of the principal arrangement. How deep they are fixed in the strand, was never yet discovered. This grand arrangement extends early 200 yards, visible at low water; how far beyond is uncertain: from its declining appearance, however, at low water,

it is probable it does not extend under distance any thing equal to what is seen. The breadth of the principal causeway runs out in one continued range of 600 yards in general; from 20 to 30 feet; at two it may be nearly 40 for a few yards; account are excluded the broken and detached pieces of the same kind of construction detached from the sides of the grand causeway they do not appear to have ever been to the principal arrangement, though frequently been taken into the width of the causeway. It has been the cause why many very dissimilar appearances of this causeway have been observed; the highest part is the narrowest, at the impending cliff from whence the causeway descends, where, for 4 or 5 yards, it is only 10 or 15 feet wide. The columns of this part incline from a perpendicular a little ward, and form a slope on their tops, of unequal height of the columns on the top of which an ascent is made at the foot from the head of one column to the top of the next, gradually, to the top of the great causeway at the distance of 6 yards from the perpendicular position; and lowering several heights, widens to about 20 or 30 feet, and for 100 yards nearly above water. The tops of the columns length being nearly of an equal height, form a grand and singular parade, that it is not walked on, rather inclining to the westward. But from high water mark, as it is washed by the beating surges on every tide, the platform lowers considerably, becomes more and more uneven, so that it is not walked on but with the greatest caution at a distance of 150 yards from the cliff, it is to the east for 20 or 30 yards, and then descends into the sea. The figure of these columns is most unexceptionally pentagonal, or 5 sided; there are very few of any other figure; some few are of 3, 4, and 6 sides, but the majority of them are five-sided, and it is not easy to find any other figure; one must look very nicely to find any other figure: yet what is very extraordinary there are not two columns in ten to be found, that either have their sides square themselves, or whose figures are circular. Nor is the composition of these columns deserving attention. They are not of one piece in an upright position; but composed of short lengths, curiously joined, not by faces, but articulated into each other's socket, or like the joints in the vertebrae of the larger kinds of fish, the one containing a cavity, into which the convexity of the opposite one is exactly fitted. This is not possible but by disjoining the two stones of the concavity or convexity is generally 3 or 4 inches: And the convexity, corresponding concavity, are not conformable to the external angular figure of the columns, but round, and as large as the size or diameter of the column will admit. Consequently, the tops of these columns are in general extremely uneven, the circular edges of the joint are frequent with more than 2 or 3 sides of

d from the edge of the circular part of the  
o the exterior files and angles they are  
diam. It is still farther very remarkable,  
e articulations of these joints are frequently  
d; in some the concavity is upwards, in  
the reverse. This occasions that variety  
sture of concavities and convexities on the  
the columns, which is observable through-  
e platform of this causeway, yet without  
coverable regularity with respect to the  
of either. The length of these particular  
from joint to joint, is various: in general,  
8 to 24 inches, and, for the most part,  
toward the bottom of the columns than  
the top, and the articulation of the joints  
ing deeper. The size or diameter of the  
is as different as their length and figure;  
rall, they are from 15 to 20 inches. There  
traces of uniformity discovered through-  
ole combination, except in the form of the  
which is invariably by an articulation of the  
into the concave of the piece next above  
w it; nor are there any traces of a finishing  
part, either in height, length, or breadth,  
curious causeway. If there is here and  
smooth top to any of the columns above  
there are others just by, of equal height,  
e more or less convex or concave, which  
seem to have been joined to pieces that have  
rashed or by other means taken off. And  
tedly those parts that are always above  
ave, from time to time, been made even;  
e remaining surfaces of the joints must na-  
have been worn smoother, by the constant  
of weather and soaking, than where the  
every tide, is beating upon it, and contin-  
uancing some of the upper stones and expo-  
siting joints. As these columns preserve their  
ers from top to bottom, in all the exterior  
which have 2 or 3 sides exposed to view,  
e may be with reason inferred of the inter-  
columns whose tops only are visible. Yet  
very extraordinary, and equally curious,  
notwithstanding the universal dissimilitude  
columns, both as to their figure and dia-  
and though perfectly distinct from top to  
; yet is the whole arrangement so closely  
ed at all points, that hardly a knife can be  
ced between them either on the sides or

It is really a most curious piece of enter-  
it, to examine the close texture and mee-  
n of such an infinite variety of angular fi-  
s are exhibited on the surface of this grand

From the infinite dissimilarity of the fi-  
f these columns, this will appear a most sur-  
circumstance to the curious spectator, and  
ncline him to believe it a work of human  
e it not inconceivable, that the invention of  
ould construct and combine such an infinite  
of columns, which should have a general  
t likeness, and yet be so universally dissim-  
l their figure, as that, from the minutest  
tion, not two in 10, or 20,000 should be  
whose angles and sides are equal among  
es, or of the one column to those of the  
That it is the work of nature, the atten-  
tator cannot doubt, who carefully surveys

the general form and situation, with the infinitely  
various figuration of the several parts of this cause-  
way. There are no traces of regularity or design  
in the outlines of this curious phenomenon; which,  
in looking the broken and detached pieces of the  
same kind, are extremely scattered and confused,  
and, whatever they might originally, do not at  
present appear to have any connection with the  
principal causeway, as to any supposable design  
or use in its first construction; and as little design  
can be inferred from the figure or situation of the  
several constituent parts. The whole is, indeed,  
extremely confused, disuniform, and destitute of  
every appearance of use or design in its original  
construction. But what, beyond dispute, deter-  
mines its original to be natural, is, that the very  
cliffs, at a great distance from the causeway, espe-  
cially in the bay to the eastward, exhibit at many  
places the same kind of columns, figured and  
jointed in all respects like those of the grand cause-  
way. Some of them are seen near to the top of  
the cliff, which in general, in these bays to the  
E. and W. of the causeway, is near 300 feet in  
height; others again are seen about midway, and  
at different elevations from the strand. A very  
considerable exposure of them is seen in the very  
bottom of the bay to the eastward, near 100 rods  
from the causeway, where the earth has evident-  
ly fallen away from them upon the strand; and  
exhibits a most curious arrangement of many of  
these pentagonal columns, in a perpendicular po-  
sition, supporting, in appearance, a cliff of differ-  
ent strata of earth, clay, rock, &c. to the height  
of 150 feet or more, above. Some of these  
columns are between 30 and 40 feet high, from  
the top of the sloping bank below them; and,  
being longest in the middle of the arrangement,  
shortening on either hand in view, they have ob-  
tained the appellation of *organs*, from a rude  
likeness in this particular to the frontal tubes of  
that instrument; and as there are few broken  
pieces on the strand near it, probably the outside  
range of columns that now appear is really the  
original exterior line, toward the sea, of this col-  
lection. But how far they extend internally into  
the bowels of the incumbent cliff, is unknown.  
The very substance, indeed, of that part of the  
cliff which projects to a point, between the two  
bays on the E. and W. of the causeway, seems  
composed of this kind of materials; for besides  
the many pieces that are seen on the sides of the  
cliff that circulate to the bottom of the bays, par-  
ticularly the E. side, there is, at the very point  
of the cliff, and just above the narrow and high-  
est part of the causeway, a long collection of  
them seen, whose heads or tops just appearing  
without the sloping bank, plainly show them to  
be in an oblique position, and about half-way be-  
tween the perpendicular and horizontal. The  
heads of these, likewise, are of mixed surfaces,  
convex and concave; and the columns evidently  
appear to have been removed from their original  
upright, to their present inclining or oblique po-  
sition, by the sinking of the cliff.

(III.) GIANT'S GRAVE, a village of Ireland, near  
Sligo, where there are some massive ancient monu-  
ments of stone resembling those of STONEHENGE.

(IV.) GIANT'S HEAD, a cape on the E. coast of St Christopher's, E. of Ragged Point.

(V.) GIANT'S LOAD, a large rock in Louth county, Ireland, supposed to be about 40 tons weight, supported by three irregular stones set upright.

(VI.) GIANT'S STAIRS, a large rock near Cove in Cork, Ireland, having the form of steps.

\* GIANTESS. *n. f.* [from *giant*.] A she giant; a woman of unnatural bulk and height.—I had rather be a *gianteſs*, and lie under mount Pelion. *Shak.*—Were this subject to the cedar, she would be able to make head against that huge *gianteſs*. *Howel.*

\* GIANTLIKE. } *adj.* [from *giant* and *like*.]

\* GIANTLY. } Gigantik; valt; bulky.—Single courage has often, without romance, overcome *giantly* difficulties. *Decay of Piety.*—Notwithstanding all their talk of reason and philosophy, which they are deplorably strangers to, and those unanswerable doubts and difficulties, which, over their cups, they pretend to have against Christianity; persuade but the covetous man not to dilly his money, the proud man not to adore himself, and I dare undertake, that all their *giantlike* objections against the Christian religion shall presently vanish and quit the field. *South.*

\* GIANTSHIP. *n. f.* [from *giant*.] Quality or character of a giant.—

His *giantship* is gone somewhat crest-fallen,  
Stalking with less unconſcionable strides,  
And lower looks. *Milton's Agonistes.*

GIARGA, a town of Corsica, 9 m. E. of Calvi.

GIARMAL, a town of Hungary, 20 miles ESE. of Levens.

GIARURA, a town of Candahar.

GIAT, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, 27 miles W. of Clermont, and SW. of Riom.

GIAVENNA, a town of Piedmont, in the marquisate of Susa, at the foot of the Cottian Alps, near the Sangon. It has an ancient wall with four gates; and contains 3000 inhabitants. It is 30 miles E. of Susa, and 14½ W. of Turin.

GIAMI, a town of Sardinia, 21 miles ESE. of Algeri.

GIAWLE. See GEFLE, N° 2.

GIB, the rev. Adam, minister of the Associate Congregation at Edinburgh, and for many years an useful and active member of that communion, was born on the 7th of April 1714, at Easter Castletown, in the parish of Muckhart, and county of Perth. He was the 9th son of Mr John Gib, of Easter Castletown. He gave very early proofs of a quick capacity, and strong natural parts. His progress in classical learning and philosophical study was considerable; and his natural sound judgment, and close application remarkably qualified him for the conspicuous office which he filled. After completing the usual course of study at the University of Edinburgh, he was licensed to preach in 1740, and ordained in 1741. He wrote several tracts of which the most distinguished were, his *Sacred Contemplations*, in 3 parts; among which his *Essay on Liberty and Necessity* attracted very general attention. He died at Edinburgh on the 18th of June 1788, much regretted by those who knew him best.

GIBBAROW, a river in Donegal, I.

\* GIBBE *n. f.* Any old worn out and

For who that's but a queen, fair, &  
Would from a paddock, from a bat,  
Such dear concernings hide? *Shak.*

GIBBEN, a town of Courland, 31 of Pittyn.

\* To GIBBER. *v. n.* [from *jabber*.] inarticulately.—

The sheeted dead  
Did squeak and *gibber* in the Roman *Shak.*

\* GIBBERISH. *n. f.* [Derived by *Shak.* from *Gaber*, French, to cheat; by others to be formed by corruption from *jabber* it was anciently written *gebrish*, it is derived from the chymical cant, and applied the jargon of *Geber* and his tribe the private language of rogues and gips without meaning.—Some, if they happen an old word, albeit very natural and cry out straightway, that we speak it but *gibberish*. *Spenser.*—Some of both ing down a number of letters, just as it to their heads; upon reading this *gib* which the men had wrote founded Dutch, and the other by the women li *Swift*.

(1.) \* GIBBET. *n. f.* [*gibet*, French] gallows; the post on which malefactor ed, or on which their carcases are exp

When was there ever curſed athen  
Unto the *gibbet*, but he did adore

That bleſſed pow'r which he had ſet

You ſeantal to the ſtock of verſe,  
Able to bring the *gibbet* in diſgrace.

—Haman ſuffered death himſelf upon *gibbet* that he had provided for another.

—Papers lay ſuch principles to the Tc they were true, our next buſineſs ſhould rect *gibbets* in every pariſh, and hang t the way. *Swift*. 2. Any traverse bear

(2.) GIBBET, or GIBET. See GALLI Fr. *gibet*, a gallows, is supposed to be derived from the Arabic *gibel*, "mount or elevation" as *gibbets* are usually placed on hills or

\* To GIBBET. *v. a.* [from the noun] hang or expose on a gibbet.—

I'll *gibbet* up his name.

2. To hang on any thing going traverse beam of a gibbet.—He shall come swifter than he that *gibbets* on the bracket. *Shak. Henry IV.*

GIBBETHON, a city of Palestine, in the country of the Philistines, given to it was taken by the Philistines, and attempted to be retaken, but without

\* GIBBIER. *n. f.* [French.] Game; —These imposts are laid on *gibbiere* while, at the same time, the soil is tax free. *Addison on Italy.*

GIBBIO, CASTELLO DI MONTE, the Cisalpine republic in the dep. of late duchy of Modena; fested on a where wells are dug, from 200 to 250 the waters of which afford a yellowish

off once a fortnight, and is used in var-  
embalming, and medicine.

JN, Edward, Esq; a late celebrated  
historian, born at Putney in Surrey,  
th, 1737. He was the eldest son of Ed-  
ward, Esq; and Judith Porten, daughter  
of a merchant in London. His family  
ended from John Gibbon, architect to  
III, who possessed lands in Kent. His  
on till his 15th year was extremely feeble,  
those of his brethren and sisters who all  
in infancy: and he complains, that "the  
his education was broken, as often as he  
was from the school of learning to the bed  
his." To the care and attention of his  
aunt he ascribes his preservation from a  
early death. In 1745 he was sent to the  
school at Kingston; in Jan. 1749, to  
Westminster: and in April 1752, to that of  
where he matriculated in Magdalen col-  
lege: professors of which he blames greatly  
his remissness and inattention to his moral  
and religious principles. In consequence  
he became a convert to the Roman catho-  
lic his 16th year. To cure the young ca-  
tholic his errors, and bring him back to the  
Protestant faith, his father, within 3 weeks after  
his conversion, (June 30th, 1753) sent him to  
Lausanne, and entrusted him to the tutorage  
of Richard, a Calvinist minister at Lausanne,  
whom Gibbon mentions with gratitude, as a  
skilful preceptor. Under his tuition, he  
made great progress in the Latin, Greek, and  
French; in history, geography, logic, and  
mathematics; and was also soon reclaimed from  
the error of Popery: so that on Christmas 1754,  
and the sacrament in the church of Lau-  
sanne had he communicated with 3 dis-  
courses before he was 18 years old. These  
opinions however, successively adopted  
and rejected, and the repeated changes so rapidly  
made in the one to the other, perhaps contri-  
buted to weaken our author's faith in revelation,  
and led to his final change to Deism, as much  
is evident from the usual of M. Voltaire's writings, or his  
acquaintance with that author, to whom he in-  
debted himself in 1757. About this time Mr  
Gibbon fell in love with Mad. Susan Curchod,  
the minister of Crassy, a lady whom  
he considered as possessed of every accomplishment,  
both natural and mental, that can adorn a woman. But  
without the consent of the young lady and her pa-  
rents, he was secretly obtained, yet his father's tyranni-  
cal opposition, which, "after a painful struggle,"  
deprived him of this inestimable  
source of matrimonial felicity for life. The  
next year he married to a man who will be  
remembered in history, as our author is in litera-  
ture the celebrated M. Neckar. In spring  
1761 he returned to England, and was agreed  
upon by his father; at whose house at  
Hampshire, he finished a work he had  
begun at Lausanne, entitled *Essai sur l'étude de la*  
*philosophie* which he published in 1761, 12mo,  
and dedicated to his father. Previous to this  
he had been appointed a captain in the  
British Militia, in which he served two  
years, which was of use to him, by making

him better acquainted with English manners,  
principles, and parties, than perhaps he might  
otherwise have been. After the peace in 1763,  
he went abroad; and after visiting Paris, where he  
was introduced to Mess. D'Alembert and Diderot,  
returned to his favourite residence at Lausanne.  
Having spent some time there, he made the tour  
of Italy; and at Rome, on the 15th Oct. 1764,  
while musing amidst the ruins of the capitol, the  
idea of his great work first started into his mind.  
Upon his return to Hampshire in June 1765, he  
found his father involved in pecuniary difficulties,  
and to relieve him, consented to the sale of part of  
the estate. After commencing a history of the  
revolutions of Switzerland, which he suppressed,  
he engaged in a Journal entitled, *Memoires Lite-  
raires de la Grand Bretagne*, and published 2 vols  
for 1767 and 1768; but his partner in this under-  
taking, a native of Switzerland, going abroad,  
when the 3d vol. was nearly finished, the work  
was discontinued. Bp. Warburton having about  
this time published an interpretation of the 6th  
book of Virgil's *Æneid*, he criticised it with equal  
asperity and success. But it is thought, that if  
the bishop had then possessed his former mental  
vigour, he would have chastised Mr Gibbon in  
such a manner, as to have made him afterwards  
somewhat more modest in his great work; in  
which, with all his petulant confidence, he often  
shows great inaccuracy in his quotations. Nor  
could it well be otherwise, as he himself acknow-  
ledges, that he often contented himself with bor-  
rowing his quotations, not from the original au-  
thors, but at second hand. But the taste of the  
times favouring the spirit of scepticism that ap-  
peared in his work, errors of this kind, which in  
a defender of Christianity would have been re-  
ckoned unpardonable, as so many *pious frauds* in-  
tended to deceive the reader, were either entirely  
overlooked, or considered as very venial faults,  
in the *History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman*  
*Empire*. Of this work the 1st vol. was published  
in 1776, and met with extraordinary success; the  
2d and 3d vols appeared in 1781; and the  
4th, 5th, and 6th, in 1787, established Mr Gibbon's  
name as a historian. Eulogiums were lavished on  
him from all quarters, to such a pitch indeed, that  
some of them, particularly those of Mr Hume and  
Dr Robertson, have even been reckoned *suave*.  
That Mr Hume should have been highly delighted  
with a work tending strongly to enforce his own  
principles, is not surprising; but the high pane-  
gyric bestowed by a *Minister of the Gospel*, upon  
a work, one main object of which is to prove that  
Christianity is not of divine original, is certainly  
quite out of character. Dr Zimmerman repre-  
sents Mr Gibbon as even excelling both these emi-  
nent historians in point of style. "All the dignity,  
(he adds,) all the charms of historic style, are united  
in Gibbon; his periods are melody itself, and  
all his thoughts have nerve and vigour." But o-  
thers, while they give our author full credit for  
acuteness of penetration, fertility of genius, luxu-  
riance of fancy, elegance of style, harmony of  
language, and beauty of epithets, &c. object,  
that, "the uniform flatness of his diction some-  
times imparts to his narrative a degree of obscu-  
rity, unless he descends to the miserable expedi-

ent of a note to explain the minuter circumstances: and that, "his style on the whole is much too artificial; and this gives a degree of monotony to his periods, which extends almost to the turn of his thoughts." "But a more serious objection (they justly add,) is his attack upon Christianity; the loose and disrespectful manner in which he mentions many points of morality, regarded as important on the principles of natural religion; and the indecent allusions and expressions, which too often occur in the work. An attack upon Christianity is not censurable merely *as fact*; it may proceed from the purest and most virtuous motives: but in that case, the attack will never be carried on in an insidious manner, and with improper weapons; and Christianity itself, so far from dreading, will invite every mode of fair and candid discussion. Our historian often makes, when he cannot readily find, an opportunity to insult the Christian religion. Such indeed is his eagerness in the cause, that he stoops to the most despicable pun, or to the most awkward perversion of language, for the pleasure of turning the scripture into ribaldry, or calling Jesus an impostor. Yet of the Christian religion has Mr Gibbon himself observed, that 'it contains a pure, benevolent, and universal system of ethics, adapted to every duty and every condition of life.' Such an acknowledgment, and from such a writer, too, ought to have due weight with a certain class of readers, and of authors likewise; and lead them seriously to consider, how far it is consistent with the character of good citizens, to endeavour by sly insinuations, oblique hints, indecent sneers, and profane ridicule, to weaken the influence of so pure and benevolent a system as that of Christianity, acknowledged to be admirably calculated for promoting the happiness of individuals and the welfare of society." (*Supplem. to the Encyc. Brit.* Vol. I. p. 707.) Various answers to Mr Gibbon's attack on Christianity, were published by Dr Chelsum, Dr Randolph, Lord Hailes, Dr Watson Bp. of Llandaff, Dr White, Mr Apthorpe, Mr Davis, Mr Taylor, Dr Priestley, and others. To most of these our author, made no reply, though his posthumous memoirs show he felt the weight of these answers, particularly those of Lord Hailes, Dr White, and Mr Taylor. Mr Gibbon's chief arguments on this subject, with satisfactory answers, are inserted under the article CHRISTIANITY, § 8, 9. Notwithstanding our author's zeal for the modern opinions in religion, he was no friend to the new opinions in politics. Being introduced into the House of Commons, as M. P. for Liskeard, in 1774, he uniformly supported administration with his vote, during the American war; and upon the French Revolution he adopted Mr Burke's creed, in every thing but his reverence for church establishments. Soon after the downfall of Lord North's administration, he returned to Lausanne, but his Swiss friend dying, and French politics prevailing in Berne, he left his *Paradise*, as he styled it, and returned to London in June 1793. He did not however enjoy this retreat long. His constitution had suffered much from repeated attacks of the gout, and a swelling of his ancles; and after having been tapped for a hydrocele, he died at London, *gout in his stomach*, on the 16th-Jan. 1794;

in the 57th year of his age. Of his eloquence shall only say, that his erudition was conversation captivating, his memory his penetration uncommon, and his eloquence ready and elegant, though with all these advantages he was not a public speaker. His private correspondence and journals appear to have been a dutiful son, a lover, and an affectionate friend.

(1.) \* GIBBOSITY. *n. f.* [*gibbosité*, *gibbosus*.] Convexity; prominence; protuberance.—When ships, sailing contrary ways, meet, they fight one of another, what should take the fight of ships from each other, but the interjacent water? *Ray*.

(2.) GIBBOSITY, in surgery, denotes a protuberance or convexity of the body, as in the hump-backed. Infants are much more subject to gibbosity than adults, and it proceeds from external than internal cause, as a blow, or the like, frequently thus affecting the tender bones of infants. When it proceeds from an internal cause, it is generally from the ossification of the ligaments that sustain the caries of its vertebræ; though the spine is sometimes flexed forward, and the vertebræ thus affected, are too strong and repeated action of the muscles. This, if not timely redressed, and fixed as the bones harden, till it is totally irretrievable; but when the disease is in the infant, and the person young, there are many ways of cure. The common method is by a pasteboard, wood, or steel, which presses principally on the gibbous part; long wearing may set all right. There are also a different instrument, called the gibbous, much more efficacious, though not so convenient in the wearing. By the use of this instrument, the parts are always prevented from growing, and are often cured. During the application of the gibbous, the parts should be often rubbed with spirit of turpentine, volatile alkali, or proof spirit, and with a strengthening plaster.

(1.) \* GIBBOUS. *adj.* [*gibbus*, Lat. French.] 1. Convex: protuberant; subject to inequalities.—The bones will rise, and the *gibbous* member. *Wijeman*.—

A pointed flinty rock, all bare and  
Grew *gibbous* from behind the mountain

—The sea, by this access and recess, fills  
empty shells, wears them away, reduces  
that are concave and *gibbous* to a flat.  
*Nat. Hist.* 2. Crookbacked.—I demand  
camels of Bactria came to have two humps  
on their back, whereas the camels of Arab  
have one? How oxen, in some countries,  
continue *gibbous*, or hunch-backed? *B*

(2.) GIBBOUS, in astronomy, is used  
to denote the enlightened parts of the moon,  
is moving from the first quarter to the  
full to the last quarter: for at the  
dark part appears horned or falcate  
light one hunched out, convex, or *gibbous*.

\* GIBBOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *gibbous*.]  
Convexity; prominence.—To make the  
earth discernible, suppose a man lifted in  
the air, he may have a spacious horizon; but

distance, the convexity and gibbous-  
vanish away, and he would only see a  
flat. *Beattie.*

**JAMES, A. M.** a celebrated Scottish  
born at Aberdeen, in 1674. He was  
Peter Gibbs of Footleesmire, merchant  
n, who was a Roman Catholic, but a  
nour; for, parties running high about  
and his two dogs *Whig* and *Tory*, in  
both parties;—an offence for which  
ates of Aberdeen summoned him before  
condemned the two dogs to be hanged  
! Young Gibbs was educated at the  
College, where he took his degree of  
out 1694, he travelled into Holland,  
pent some years with an eminent archi-  
where, in 1700, he was introduced to  
f Mar; who generously assisted him  
y and recommendatory letters, to en-  
complete himself under the best Italian  
about 1710, he left Italy and returned  
, where he found his noble patron in  
with the queen. An act being passed  
; 50 new churches, Mr Gibbs was employ-  
ve a specimen of his abilities by planning  
ing St Martin's church, St Mary's in the  
d several others. Among many other  
difices planned by him, and built by his  
ve shall only mention the Radcliffe Libra-  
rd; the King's College, Royal Library,  
; House at Cambridge, and the D. of  
s monument. He died 5th Aug. 1754,  
, leaving a fortune of £15,000.

**AT. n. f.** [*gib* and *cat.*] An old worn-

as melancholy as a *gibcat*, or a lugg'd  
r. *Shakefp.*

**n. f.** [from the verb.] Sneer; hint of  
y word or look; scoff; act or expres-  
n; taunt.—

the sneers, the *gibes*, and notable scorns  
ell in ev'ry region of his face. *Shak.*

The rich have still a *gibe* in store,

be monstrous witty on the poor. *Juv.*

uld hate from the bottom of their hearts,

on would be too strong for little *gibes*

ent. *Spektator.*—

ie dean, if this secret should come to his

er have done with his *gibes* and his jeers.

*Swift.*

**GIBE. v. a.** To reproach by con-

hints; to flout; to scoff; to ridicule;

th scorn; to sneer; to taunt.—

rioting in Alexandria, you

ket up my letters, and with taunts

my missive out of audience. *Shak.*

the beasts as I describe them,

eir features, while I *gibe* them. *Swift.*

**GIBE. v. n.** [*gaber*, old French, to

dicule.] To sneer; to join censorious-

contempt.—They seem to imagine that

ected of late a frame of some new reli-

gurniture whereof we should not have

from our enemies, lest they should as-

ugh and *gibe* at our party. *Hooker.*—

en he saw her toy, and *gibe*, and geer,

the bounds of modest merry-make,

ance he despis'd. *Spens'er.*

Why that's the way to choke a *gibing spirit*;  
Whose influence is begot of that loose grace  
Which thallow laughing hearers give to fools.

*Shakepeare.*

Thus with talents well endu'd

To be scurrilous and rude,

When you pertly raise your snout,

Flee and *gibe*, and laugh and flout. *Swift.*

**GIBEAH**, a city of Benjamin, lying N. of Je-  
rusalem about 20 or 30 furlongs, and built upon  
a hill, as its name imports. This city gave birth  
to Saul, the first king of Israel, for which reason  
it is often called *Gibeab of Saul*.

**GIBEL**, or **MONTÉ GIBELLO**, the modern  
name given to Mount *Ætna* by its inhabitants.  
See *ÆTNA*, and *ETNA*.

**GIBELIN**, a town of Palestine, 8 m. E. of Gaza.

**GIBELINS**, or } See **CONRAD III**, **GERMANY**,  
**GIBELLINS**, } § 14, and **GUELPHS**.

(1.) **GIBELLO**, a town of Italy, in the Palavi-  
cin, 2½ miles NE. of Buffetto.

(2.) **GIBELLO**, **MONTÉ**. See **GIBEL**.

**GIBELYN**, Count, a French author born in  
1725, who wrote a celebrated work entitled, *Le*  
*Monde Primitif comparé a Monde Moderne*; for  
which the French Academy twice awarded him  
their annual prize of 1200 livres. He died in 1784.

**GIBEON**, a city seated on an eminence about  
40 furlongs N. of Jerusalem, and not far from Gi-  
beah. See **GEBÁ**. It was the capital of the Gi-  
BEONITES.

**GIBEONITES**, an ancient nation of Canaan,  
who, hearing of Jothuah's great conquests, saved  
their lives at the expence of their liberty by a represen-  
tation of their belonging to a very remote country,  
and their desire of making an alliance with the He-  
brews. See **JOSHUA**, ix. 3—27. The Gibeonites  
were descended from the Hivites, and possessed  
4 cities; viz. Chephurah, Beeroth, Kirjathearim,  
and Gibeon; which were afterwards given to the  
Benjamites, except the last, which fell to the tribe  
of Judah. The Gibeonites continued subject to  
those burdens which Jothuah had imposed on them,  
and were very faithful to the Israelites, till the  
dispersion of that nation.

\* **GIBER. n. f.** [from *gibe*.] A sneerer; one  
who turns others to ridicule by contemptuous  
hints; a scoffer; a taunter.—You are well under-  
stood to be a more perfect *giber* of the table, than  
a necessary bencher of the capitol. *Shak. Cor.*—

He is a *giber*, and our present business

is of more serious consequence. *B. Jonf. Cust.*

\* **GIBINGLY. adv.** [from *gibe*.] Scornfully;  
contemptuously.—

His present portance.

*Gibingly* and ungravelly he did fashion

After th' inveterate hate he bears to you. *Shak.*

(1.) \* **GIBLETS. n. f.** [According to *Minsheu*  
from *gobbet*, *gabbet*: according to *Junius* more  
properly from *giller*, game, Fr.] The parts of a  
goose which are cut off before it is roasted.—

'Tis holyday: provide me better cheer:

'Tis holyday; and shall be round the year:

Shall I my household gods and genius cheat,

To make him rich who grudges me my meat?

That he may loll at ease; and pamper'd high,

When I am laid, may feed on *giblet* pie? *Dr. Perf.*

(2.) **GIBLETS** include the heart and liver, with

*Shak.*



the feet, gizzard, &c. Giblets make a considerable article in cookery: they are boiled and stewed; made into ragouts, giblet-pies, &c.

GIBLOU. See GEMBOURS.

GIBOLDEHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and territory of Eichsfeld; 6 miles N. of Dudenstadt.

GIBON, a town of Cuba, 22 m. NE. of Bayamo.

GIBRALEON, a town of Spain, in Seville, on the Odiel, 44 miles W. of Seville. Lon. 9. 45. E. of Teneriffe. Lat. 37. 20. N.

(1. 1.) GIBRALTAR, a famous promontory, or rather peninsula, of Spain, in Andalusia, but belonging to Great Britain. By the ancients it was named *Calpe*, and was also called one of the *Pillars of Hercules*; by the Arabians it is called *Gebel Tarek*, that is, "the mount of Tarek," from *Tarek*, the name of the Saracen general who conquered Spain in the beginning of the 8th century. The whole is an immense rock, rising perpendicularly about 440 yards, measuring from N. to S. about two English miles, but not above one in breadth, from E. to W.

(2.) GIBRALTAR, a town on the above promontory, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) which lies along the bay on the W. side of the mountain on a decline; by which the rains pass through it, and keep it clean. The old town was considerably larger than the new, which at present consists of between 400 and 500 houses. Many of the streets are narrow and irregular: the buildings are of different materials; some of natural stone out of the quarries, some of a facitious or artificial stone, and a few of brick. The people are supplied with fresh provisions chiefly from the coast of Barbary, with fruit, roots, and vegetables of all sorts from thence, or from their own gardens. Besides what is properly called the town, there are several spacious and commodious public edifices; such as barracks for the soldiers, apartments for their officers, magazines of different kinds, storehouses for provisions, &c. The town may be said to have two ports; the first lying to the N. and proper only for small vessels; the other is very commodious for large vessels, and has a fine stone quay. It lies 16 miles N. of Ceuta, 45 SE. of Cadiz, and 70 S. of Seville. Lon. 5. 17. W. Lat. 36. 8. N.

(3.) GIBRALTAR, BAY OF. The bay is very beautiful and capacious, being in breadth about 5 miles, and in length 8 or 9, with several small rivers running into it. It is very advantageous to the place. There is no ground to be found in the middle of it at 100 fathoms depth, so that a squadron may lie there in great safety; the breezes from it are very refreshing; and it contributes likewise to the subsistence of the inhabitants, by supplying them with plenty of fish.

(4.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL ITS CAPTURE BY JOHN DE GUZMAN, in 1462. This important fortress seems to have been first particularly noticed as a place of consequence in the year 712. At that time the general of the caliph Al Walid landed with an army of 12,000 men, on the isthmus between Mons Calpe and the continent; and that he might secure an intercourse with Africa, ordered a castle to be built on the face of that hill. Part of the building still remains: and from an inscription discovered above the principal gate, ap-

pears to have been finished in 725. It continued in the possession of the Saracens till 1333, when it was taken by Perez de Guzman, uncle of Ferdinand IV, king of Castile. In 1333, however, it was surrendered to the son of the emperor Fez, who came to the assistance of the king of Granada. An attempt was made in 1349 by Alphonso XI, king of Castile, when the fortresses had been reduced to the extremity, a pestilential fever broke out in the camp, which carried off the king himself, and a great part of his army; after which the fortress was abandoned. The fortresses continued in the possession of the Saracens of Fez, until when it was taken by Joseph III, king of Granada. A design of attacking it was formed by de Guzman in 1435; but the enterprise miscarried through his imprudence, he was defeated and slain. However, it was taken by de Guzman in 1462; since which time it has remained in the hands of the Christians.

(5.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL ITS CAPTURE BY THE ENGLISH. In 1540, the town was surprised and pillaged by Piali Haradin, a corsair of Barbarossa's; but the pirates were fallen in with some Sicilian galleys, were defeated, and all either killed or taken. In the reign of Charles V. the fortifications of Gibraltar were modernised, and such additions made as rendered them almost impregnable. But in consequence of the resolution adopted by the court of Britain, to assist the archduke Charles in his pretensions to the Spanish crown, Sir Rooke was sent with a powerful fleet into the Mediterranean, and an attempt on Gibraltar resolved upon. On the 21st of July, 1704, the British fleet were landed upon the isthmus under the command of the duke of Hesse Darmstadt; and on the refusal of the Spaniards to surrender, a cannonade was begun between the fleet and the town, which continued for 5 or 6 hours, the Spaniards were driven from many of their guns, especially at the north head. The admiral perceiving, that by this part of the fortification, the reduction of the town would be facilitated, ordered out some boats to take possession of it. On their approach the Spaniards sprung a mine, which destroyed a great part of the works, killed two lieutenants, and wounded about 60 more. Notwithstanding this disaster, the assailants kept possession of the works, and took a small bastion, (now the gun battery,) half way between the mole and the town. On this the governor capitulated, and the prince of Hesse took possession of the town on the 24th. The garrison, consisting of 1500 men, was allowed to depart with the honours of war; and the Spaniards who chose to remain were allowed the same privileges they had enjoyed under Charles V. The works were found very strong, and the place provided with ammunition and military stores; yet the capture was held of little value at the British court. See ENGLAND, § 72.

(6.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL THE END OF THE SIEGE IN 1704-5. This was achieved with the loss of about 600 British soldiers, and 216 wounded on the part of the English; the prince of Hesse remained governor; and



were left at Lisbon under the command of John Leake, to succour the garrison if there was an occasion. The loss of such an important post, however, having alarmed both the King of Madrid and Paris, orders were sent to the Marquis de Villadarias, a Spanish grandee, to go to it. The prince of Hesse immediately wrote to Sir John Leake for assistance; but the latter had time to comply with his request. The French fleet arrived, and debarked six thousand men to assist the Spaniards; after which they moved to the westward, leaving only six frigates in the bay. The trenches were opened on the 10th, about which time Sir John arrived with five English and Dutch ships; but hearing the French were about to attack him with a force, he returned to reside. Having left Lisbon to make preparations for this purpose, he accomplished the work with such expedition that on the 29th he returned, and brought with him three frigates, a fire ship, two frigates, a tartan, and a store ship. After receiving some reinforcements, supplied the garrison with six months provisions, and sent on board the sailors to assist in repairing the breaches. The Spaniards supposing that the garrison would be able to hold their guard, on account of the vicinity of the sea, formed the rash design of attempting to retake the place though the British admiral opposed it. In this mad attempt 500 brave men were associated, taking the sacrament never unless they accomplished their purpose. The attack was conducted by a goat-herd to the south of the rock near the cave-guard. This they did, and lodged themselves the first night in the tower of St Michael: the next they scaled the city wall; surprised and massacred the garrison on the hill; where afterwards, by ropes and pulleys, several hundreds of the party designed for the assault were hauled up; but being they were attacked by a party of grenadiers, all either killed or taken. Notwithstanding these misfortunes the Spaniards continued to intercept the provisions sent to the garrison, expecting that, on the arrival of their succours, the garrison would be obliged to retire, and the French to surrender. They continued their fire with additional fury, dismounted many guns, and did essential injury to the works in several different places. The prince of Hesse, however, exerted his utmost to disappoint their designs. As it was probable that they would attempt to storm the curtain, a curvette was placed in the ditch, which was filled by the tide, and a row of palisades placed parallel to the wall. The chambers of the mine under the curtain were loaded; but on a sudden the Spaniards discovered the design, and threatened an attack on which the garrison had on the declivity of the rock to flank the glacis, and overlook their works. While affairs were in this situation, the succours they had long expected arrived in the bay, Dec. 7, 1704; and in two days a considerable quantity of ammunition was landed. These had sailed from Cape Verde, and were in danger of falling into the

PART II.

hands of the enemy, whose fleet they mistook for their own; but escaped by being becalmed, so that they could not get up to them. Sir John Leake, having thus powerfully reinforced the garrison, set sail for Lisbon, where he arrived about the end of the year. In the beginning of 1705, the Spaniards were reinforced by a considerable body of infantry, and on the 11th Jan. made an attack on the King's Lines, but were repulsed. The attack was renewed next day by 600 grenadiers, French and Walloons, supported by 1000 Spaniards, under lieutenant-general Fuy. They showed an intention to storm a breach which had been made in the Round Tower at the extremity of the King's Lines, and another in the entrenchment on the hill. The retrenchment which covered the latter, with part of the entrenchment joining the precipice of the rock, was defended at night by a captain, 3 subalterns, and 90 men; but the captain usually withdrew, with two subalterns and 60 men, at day-break. The Round Tower was defended by 180 men, commanded by a lieutenant-colonel. The marquis, by deserters from the garrison, had obtained intelligence of the strength of these posts, and planned his attack accordingly. The detachment for the upper breach mounted the rock at midnight, and concealed themselves in the cliffs until the captain had withdrawn; after which, advancing to the point of the entrenchment, they threw grenades on the subaltern and his party, so that they were obliged to leave the place. At the same time 300 men stormed the Round Tower, where lieutenant-colonel Bar made a vigorous defence, though the enemy annoyed them on the flanks with great stones and grenades. Observing, however, the Spaniards marching down to cut off his retreat from the town, he retired; and, by getting over the parapet of the King's Lines, descended into the covered way, where the English guards were posted. Thus the garrison were alarmed; all the regiments were assembled at their proper posts; and captain Fisher endeavoured to stop the progress of the enemy with 17 men, but they were repulsed, and himself taken prisoner. At last, however, the Tower was retaken by lieutenant-colonel Moneal at the head of 400 or 500 men, after it had been in the possession of the enemy upwards of an hour. The garrison were now farther reinforced by six companies of Dutch troops and 200 English soldiers, with provisions and stores. The assailants, however, were still determined to go on. The marquis de Villadarias was superseded by Marischal Tesse a Frenchman, with whom Admiral Pointis was desired to co-operate in blocking up the place. The Marischal joined the army with 4 fresh battalions, besides 8 companies which had been sent before; the ordnance, which had been greatly injured, was exchanged, and the works put into the best repair. On the part of the English, a reinforcement was ordered under Sir Thomas Dike and Sir John Hardy, to join Admiral Leake at Lisbon: which being effected, the whole fleet, consisting of 23 English, 4 Dutch, and 8 Portuguese men of war, having on board two battalions of land forces, set sail from Lisbon. And happily for the besieged, the incessant rains and storms had retarded the operations of the land forces, and great

G 2 5

15

ly distressed the enemy's fleet; 3 of their ships having been forced from their anchors. At this critical period Sir John Leake, with the allied fleet, entered the straits, when the few remaining French ships put out to sea, and he immediately gave chase. Three men of war were taken; the admiral's ship and another driven on shore, and burnt; and the rest made the best of their way to Toulon. The garrison was now so well supplied, that Marshal Tesse withdrew his troops from the trenches, and formed a blockade, drawing an intrenchment across the isthmus to prevent the garrison from ravaging the country. The prince of Hesse remained for some time in the place, where he repaired the batteries, and made fortifications; after which he joined the archduke Charles at Lisbon. As the latter, however, was resolved to try his fortune with the earl of Peterborough in Valencia and Catalonia, the prince was sent back to Gibraltar to prepare part of the garrison for embarkation, and soon after was followed by the whole fleet. Major General Ramos was now appointed governor of Gibraltar, in which only two new battalions were left, as nothing was to be feared from the enemy. In the course of this siege the Spaniards lost 10,000 men including those who died of sickness; while the garrison lost only 400. The new governor brought with him 400 men for the greater security of the place; but soon resigned his government to Col. Roger Elliot, during whose time Gibraltar was made a free port by a special order from queen Anne.

(7.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL THE END OF THE SIEGE IN 1727. Col. Elliot was succeeded by Col. Congreve before 1714, and he by Col. Cotton soon after. In 1720 the Spaniards threatened another attack, but the design was abandoned. At last, however, in the end of 1726, they assembled an army near Algiers, encamping on the 20th Jan. 1727 on the plain below St Roche, and erecting a battery on the beach to protect their camp. Though Adm. Hopson was then at anchor in the Bay of Gibraltar, yet, as he had not heard of the commencement of hostilities between Britain and Spain, he allowed the boats of the latter to pass with provisions, arms, and ammunition, between Algiers and the camp, at the same time that his ship *Kane*, who had been a second time sent from Minorca, lay under similar embarrasment. The operations of the Spaniards, however, seemed to evidently to tend towards an attack; and the governor thought proper to order a detachment of 1000 men to be sent to the town to leave it, and to attend their quarters, and to order under his presence the *Comodoro Les Torres*, commander of the Spanish fleet, to sail to a place near 20 leagues distant from the coast, and to send some ships to advise with the command of the garrison. The governor then endeavoured to keep out of his reach, but with little success; and he endeavoured to force him; but to little effect, the Spanish commander reproach that he had not obeyed the governor's orders, and having made preparations for the attack, however, was obliged to suspend it on the 10th Feb. 1727, when he sailed for Minorca, having brought home his ship *Kane*, and a number of other vessels, and the naval force, and a great number of men of war, that the

Spanish general had commenced hostilities, encroaching so far on the liberties of the Strait, however, the governor sent to the Spaniards to know the reason of breaking ground on the garrison; but received for answer, that in his master's territories, and was unable to any other person for his conduct, this the governor opened the batteries Mole and those of Willis upon the Spaniards; however, they persisted in carrying on operations, and at night marched a detachment to the Devil's Tower, where they began to communicate with their other works. The governor was now informed by some deserters that the enemy were forming a mine in a trench near Willis's Battery, with a design to blow the plot being thus discovered, a party was immediately stationed to cut off the communication. On the 22d Feb. the Spaniards sent the garrison with 17 pieces of cannon and mortars; and the day following a brig left Gibraltar to send a reinforcement to Minorca. On the 3d of March the Spaniards sent a new battery of 22 guns, on the 6th another of 15 guns, and upon the same Mole, the guns of which annoyed the western flank of their approach; this time the garrison had kept up a constant well directed fire from the batteries upon the works of the enemy; but this being old frequently burnt; by which the latter were also greatly distressed by the shells sent from the Devil's Tower, since the beginning of the siege, had their home bound ships, and greatly annoyed the garrison by bringing tea prizes into the Bay, and the arrival of a reinforcement from Minorca, they fled to the westward, leaving the Spaniards to defend themselves the best way they could. The enemy continued to augment their cannon and erect new ones, until they amounted to 62 cannon besides mortars; and on the 15th, the governor received intelligence that a general assault was intended. However, on the 12th, when news of the preliminaries of a general peace were received, the course of the siege, and the loss of the Spaniards, computed at near 2000 men, besides which could not be ascertained. The garrison amounted only to 2000; a very slender force, considering that during the siege and 30 mortars bombarded the batteries.

(8.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TILL THE TAKING OF THE SPANISH FLEET. For upwards of half a century, no force was made on Gibraltar; but the hostilities presented by the Spanish ambassador at London, at the commencement of the war, was soon followed by an interruption of communication betwixt Spain and Great Britain, and a direct intention of attacking it, however, it did not till the month of July 1705, when it was completely blockaded up by a fleet of 27 gun ships, several frigates, galleys, &c. &c. after they began to form a camp below St Roche, 3 miles from the town; the garrison at this time consisted of 2500

Officers, with a company of engineers and artificers; but the greatest expectations were formed of the abilities and valour of Gen. Elliott, governor. See ELLIOTT. As soon as the breaking of the communication with Spain indicated approaching hostilities, the governor took every precaution that could be suggested by military men; but though informed of the rupture between the two courts, and though he beheld the operations of the enemy, he used no means to exempt them till the 12th Sept. when the batteries of Green's Lodge, Willis, and Queen Charlotte were opened for a few hours, with a view to disturb the workmen. From this time to the beginning of 1780 the enemy continued the blockade by sea and land, but without doing any damage to the works or garrison; and it was not till the 12th of January that a single person was killed. This happened to be a woman, who, sitting near one of the houses, was slightly hurt by a shot from the enemy. In the mean time, however, the usual supplies of provisions being cut off, the garrison began to feel all the horrors of war. All the necessaries of life were very scarce, and to be procured only at most exorbitant prices. Veal, mutton, and beef, sold at from 1s. to 4s. per lb. fresh pork from 2s. to 3s. 1 beef and pork 15d. fowls 18s. per couple; 5s. 21s.; fire wood, 8s. per cwt.; a pint of good water, 15d.; a small cabbage, 5s.; and an ill bunch of outer leaves, 6d.; Irish butter and candles, 2s. 6d. per lb.; and eggs 6d. each. A rock, however, is almost surrounded by water, it was natural to suppose, that in such a situation of other provisions great benefit would be derived from the ocean; but the fishermen being all foreigners, and under no regulation, took advantage of the scarcity in the garrison, exact a most exorbitant price for the fish. Matters remained long in this state, the garrison must have fallen into the hands of the enemy.

They were however, effectually relieved in consequence of the repeated victories gained by Admiral Rodney over the Spanish fleets, on the 8th and 10th Jan. 1780: (See ENGLADD, § 102.) The British proved equally serviceable to the garrison and detrimental to the enemy, who were now in great want of provisions and materials for shipping. The crews of the last of these important victories were sent to Gibraltar on the evening of the 17th, and two days more the garrison was completely relieved by the arrival of the fleet and convoy; they were farther reinforced by a regiment of Highlanders, consisting of 1051 men, officers included. An opportunity was also taken of sending to the fleet all the invalids and women in the garrison; with whom they set sail on the 10th leaving in the bay only the Edgar and Panther of the line, with two frigates.

**GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TO THE DESTRUCTION OF THE FLOATING BATTERIES.** On the departure of the British fleet the blockade was immediately resumed; and notwithstanding the supplies lately received, the garrison soon again to experience the want of fresh provisions. It had hitherto received these in abundance from the coast of Barbary; but the friendship of the emperor of Morocco was now trans-

ferred from Great Britain to Spain in a manner totally unprecedented. His partiality towards the latter was the more surprising, as Britain had given no provocation, and the enmity between Spain and Morocco seemed to be founded on such causes as could never cease to operate. Thus, however, the garrison became daily more and more distressed, from being obliged to make constant use of their salt provisions, and even this with the strictest economy. The industry and resolution of the brave British seamen and officers, indeed, sometimes overcame all obstacles, so that they found means to procure the necessary refreshments; though in so doing they were exposed to the utmost danger from the enemy. At the same time the defence of the garrison was so vigorous, that while it continued to be supplied even in this scanty manner, the Spaniards began to lose all hope of reducing it; for which reason they formed a project of burning all the British shipping in the bay. The night fixed for executing this scheme was the 6th of June 1780, when ten fire ships, favoured by an uncommon darkness, stood over from the Spanish to the British side of the bay. Their design was to set fire to the store-houses and shipping nearest the water side; but having been too precipitate in firing their ships, they met with a very heavy cannonade, and the attempt was frustrated. On this occasion the skill and intrepidity of the British seamen was eminently displayed. Having manned their boats, they grappled the fire-ships already in flames; and, notwithstanding the danger of their exploding, towed them clear of the vessels under the walls, and extinguished them. The failure of this project was a grievous disappointment to Don Barcelo the Spanish admiral, who lay ready with his Squadron to intercept the British vessels that might attempt to escape; while the batteries on their line were ready to bombard the town, if the fire-ships had succeeded in causing any conflagration on shore. The failure of this attempt was soon followed by other disasters. As soon as they had, with great labour, constructed new batteries, they were destroyed by the besieged; and their mortification on these occasions was the greater, as the governor allowed them to complete their works before he commenced his destructive operations. Thus the labour of many days was often lost in a few hours, and was again resumed with as little prospect of success as before. The garrison were now considerably annoyed by the Spanish gun-boats, to which indeed the shipping were equally exposed. These were vessels from 30 to 40 tons burden, constructed so that they lay low in the water, which rendered them difficult to be aimed at. They had 15 oars on a side, carried 40 or 50 men, with a 26 pounder on the prow; and, from the facility of managing them, two were deemed, in calm weather, to be a match for a frigate of moderate size. All their efforts, however, could only reduce the garrison to great straits for want of provisions; and to this dreadful inconvenience the British submitted with the most stoical resignation. From Adm. Rodney's departure in Feb. 1780 to October, almost the only provisions in the garrison were such as tended to produce the scurvy; which accordingly

ged in such a manner as to threaten the most fatal consequences. The allowance of salt provisions had hitherto continued undiminished; but now it was judged necessary to reduce the allowance of bread and meat, and to enforce the strictest economy with regard to food. Every thing of this kind that could be practised, however, seemed insufficient to preserve the garrison from absolute want. In the beginning of 1781 provisions became exceedingly scarce, by the almost total expenditure of the public stores, and the vigilance of the enemy's cruisers. About the middle of February the bakers left off work for want of flour; and many of the poorer sort wanted bread. The price of fresh provisions again rose to a most enormous height. Small pigs sold at two guineas; turkeys at three; geese at 30s.; fowls and ducks at 10s.; damaged biscuit 1s. per lb.; pease, 18d.; and all other necessaries in proportion; while the scarcity of fuel was such, that it was sometimes scarcely procurable in quantity sufficient to dress their victuals. The garrison had hitherto derived assistance occasionally from the gardens on the neutral ground, though vast quantities of vegetables had been removed thence by the enemy. Towards the end of October 1780, however, the Spaniards expelled the British from these gardens entirely. From this time the supply of vegetables depended entirely upon cultivation; which, happily for the garrison, was attended with such success, that the produce came at last to be nearly equal to the demand. At last, on the 12th April 1781, supplies were brought by the British fleet under Adm. Darby, Digby, and Ross, though they could not be got in without great difficulty. The gun boats were now much increased in number and strength; infesting the bay in such a manner as greatly to interrupt the debarkation of the stores. As no vessels of the same kind had been prepared to oppose them, they could scarce be prevented from effecting their purpose of burning the storeships. With this view they had approached them every morning in hazy weather to the number of between 20 and 30, several of them carrying mortar-pieces; and as they used both sails and oars, they eluded all pursuit, by withdrawing on the rise of any breeze. To keep off these troublesome guests several stout frigates were stationed along the bay to protect the shipping; but notwithstanding the activity of the British sailors, it was seldom that they could come near enough to do them any damage. In spite of all their endeavours, however, the garrison was effectually relieved; which so irritated the court of Spain, that they determined to exert their utmost force rather than fail in obtaining their favourite object. The works before the town were therefore carried on with more vigour than ever, and the most tremendous preparations made to cause the obstinate garrison feel their resentment. Their batteries were mounted with guns of the heaviest metal, and mortar-pieces of the largest size; the number of the former augmented to near 200, of the latter to upwards of 80. For 3 weeks this prodigious artillery continued to pour forth an almost incessant shower of shot and shells, insomuch that they consumed 100,000 lb. of gunpowder, and threw into the town 4, or 5,000 shot and

shells every 24 hours. By such an bombardment the town was almost totally ruined. The inhabitants experienced every that could arise from the destruction of habitations; several of them were killed or forced to leave the town, and take their tents with what accommodation could be had for them in such scenes of horror and confusion. Numbers took the opportunity to fly with the fleet; while many that remained reduced from a state of opulence to that of want. The conduct of Governor Eliot was humane and compassionate, allowing them a free passage to England, and supplying provisions for the voyage. During this siege, not only the greatest part of the effecting to the inhabitants were destroyed, but confiscations were in many places greatly injured; the remainder was destroyed by the soldiers had arrived at such a pitch of licentiousness they neither regarded nor would obey the laws. They were incited to this destructive conduct by the avarice of some of the inhabitants, who hoarded up and concealed a quantity of articles, to procure an advanced price for them now, therefore, kept no bounds in their waste, and extravagance; a remarkable instance of which is given by Captain Drinkwater, that their roasting a pig by a fire made of gunpowder. To put a stop to these atrocious proceedings, rigorous measures were of necessity adopted; it was intimated, that any soldier caught being drunk or asleep upon his post, or marauding, should be immediately executed. The loss of human lives during this bombardment was less than might have been expected. By the beginning of June 1781, the enemy relaxed considerably in their firing, seldom firing 600 shot in a day; and continued gradually to diminish this number so remarkably, that by the end of August they seldom fired in a day and only discharged 6 or 7, and sometimes not above 3, shot in the night. The batteries, however, were succeeded by the gun-boats, who renewed their attacks every day, keeping the garrison in continual alarm, and never failing to execute more or less execution. To restrain the force, a battery of guns capable of throwing shot to a great distance was erected as near as possible to the enemy; and as it reached the camp, it was determined to open it upon them often as the gun-boats made their attack being soon perceived, they thought it prudent to delist in some measure from that mode of attack. They continued still, however, to improve their works; and for this purpose employed the engineers both of France and Spain; so that by the end of November 1781, they had them brought to such a state of perfection, as filled the minds of the most sanguine expectations. Gov. Eliott, however, far from being dismayed at these formidable bulwarks, sufficient to proceed without molestation to the execution of his scheme, that he might in a moment disengage his labour of so many months, and thus render his disappointment the greater. In the night of the 27th Nov. a chosen party of 2000 men were detached, to destroy the enemies works and

and their success was equal to their most sanguine expectation. They marched out in great silence about 2 o'clock A. M. under the command of general Ross; after which they proceeded to the same circumspection, but with the utmost celerity, to the enemy's works, which they assailed and overthrew with astonishing rapidity. The batteries were instantly thrown into confusion and fled on every side; the guns and mortars were all spiked up; and the men, artificers, and sailors, exerted themselves so vigorously, that in an hour the magazines were blown up, the storehouses of arms, ammunition, and military implements, and all the works had been constructed, were set on fire, and consumed; the whole damage done on this day being estimated at upwards of two millions sterling. For several days after this disaster the Spaniards continued inactive, without even making any attempt to extinguish their batteries, which continued in flames; but in the beginning of December, as if suddenly aroused from their lethargy, upwards of 1000 men were set to work to prepare a great number of fascines, from which it was concluded that they designed to assault the enemy's works. In this they proceeded with great perseverance and diligence; but as the various methods of attack had constantly failed, it was thought, that if the place could be reduced at all, it must be by some means hitherto unattempted. The monarch determined to employ the length of his empire. Among the various projects proposed, that of the chevalier D'Arcon, a French engineer, proved the most acceptable, the expence attending it was immense. He proposed to construct such floating batteries as should be liable to be sunk nor set on fire. The view their bottoms were made of the same timber, and their sides of wood and corked in water, with a layer of wet sand between the planks. Their thickness was such, that they were impervious to cannon shot; and to prevent the escape of red-hot balls, a number of pipes were inserted to carry water through every part of the hull, and pumps sufficient to furnish a constant supply for the purpose. The people at the batteries were sheltered from the bombs by a rope-netting suspended over the sides, that they might roll off, and covered with wet skins to prevent fire. Ten of these floating batteries were constructed out of the hulls of large frigates, some of 50 or 60 guns, cut down for that purpose, and carrying from 10 to 28 guns each. The other half as many in reserve, in case of accident. Each gun was served by 36 artillerymen. These floating batteries were to be attended by 30 large boats carrying guns and mortars, and heavy metal; a great number of ships of the line, frigates, with some hundreds of small boats, were to accompany them with troops, for the execution of what might be judged necessary. On this occasion upwards of 1000 pieces of cannon and 80,000 barrels of gunpowder were sent to the army. A body of 12,000 of the best troops of the kingdom were now added to the Spanish army because of the success; the body of engineers was the best that the kingdom could produce; and numbers of the best families in both, attended the army. Many military gentlemen also came

from various parts of Europe, to be witnesses of what passed at this celebrated siege, which was now compared to the most famous recorded in history. The conducting of it was committed to the duke of Crillon; who had distinguished himself by the conquest of Minorca. Two princes of the blood royal of France, the count of Artois, and the duke of Bourbon, came to be witnesses of this extraordinary enterprise. These behaved with the greatest politeness both to the governor and garrison. The count of Artois transmitted a packet of letters for various individuals in the garrison, which had been intercepted and carried to Madrid, and which he requested that he might be the means of conveying to those for whom they were designed. Both he and the duke of Bourbon signified to general Elliott the high regard they had for his person and character; and the duke of Crillon expressing the same sentiments, intreated him to accept of some refreshments. Gen. Elliott returned a polite answer, but accepted of the present with reluctance, and requested him for the future not to confer any favours of that kind upon him. Such a prodigious armament raised the confidence of the besiegers so high, that they looked upon the conquest of the place as an absolute certainty; and the commander in chief was thought by far too modest, when he said, that the garrison might hold out a fortnight. "It appeared (says Captain Drinkwater) that they meant, previous to their final efforts, to strike if possible a terror through their opponents, by displaying an armament more powerful than had probably ever been brought before any fortress. Forty-seven sail of the line, including three inferior two deckers, ten battering ships, deemed perfect in design, and esteemed invincible, carrying 212 guns; innumerable frigates, xebecs, bomb ketches, cutters, gun and mortar boats, and smaller craft for disembarking men, were assembled in the bay. On the land side were most stupendous and strong batteries and works, mounting 200 pieces of heavy ordnance, and protected by an army of near 40,000 men, commanded by a victorious and active general. In their certainty of success, however, the enemy seemed entirely to have overlooked the nature of that force which was opposed to them; for though the garrison scarcely consisted of more than 7000 effective men, including the marine brigade, they forgot that they were now veterans in this service, had long been habituated to the effects of artillery, and were by degrees prepared for the arduous conflict, that awaited them. We were at the same time commanded by officers of approved courage, prudence, and activity; eminent for all the accomplishments of their profession, and in whom we had unbounded confidence. Our spirits too were not a little elevated by the success attending the firing of red hot shot, which in this attack we hoped would enable us to bring our labours to a conclusion, and relieve us from the tedious cruelty of a vexatious blockade." This was suggested by lieutenant-governor Boyd, and on the 8th Sept. 1782, their advanced works were almost destroyed by it. But as a prelude to the dreadful storm which was about to be poured forth on this garrison, the enemy on the 9th Sept. opened a battery of 64 of their largest cannon, accompanied with a terrible fire from other batteries, and a great

great number of mortars. On this and the following day an attack was made upon the batteries erected on EUROPA POINT, which at that time were entirely under the management of Captain Curtis of the Brilliant frigate, who had distinguished himself, and commanded a brigade of seamen by whom the batteries were served. By these the fire of the Spaniards was so warmly returned, that they not only could make no impression, but were forced to retire, after being so much damaged, that two of their principal ships were obliged to withdraw to the bay of Algeiras to refit. On the 12th the enemy made preparations for their grand and decisive attack. Accordingly, on the morning of the 13th, the 10 floating batteries came forward, under Don Buenventura de Moreno, a Spanish officer of great gallantry, who had signalised himself at the capture of Minorca. Before ten o'clock they had all got into their proper stations, anchoring in a line about 1000 yards from the shore. They then began a heavy cannonade, and were seconded by all the cannon and mortars in the enemy's lines and approaches, at the same time that the garrison opened all its batteries both with hot and cold shot from the guns, and shells from the howitzers and mortars. This terrible fire continued on both sides without intermission until noon; when that of the Spaniards began to slacken, and the fire of the garrison to obtain a superiority. About two o'clock the principal battering ship, commanded by Don Moreno was observed to emit smoke as if on fire, and some men were seen busy upon the roof, searching from whence it proceeded. The fire from the garrison was now kept up without the least intermission or diminution, while that from the floating batteries was perceived sensibly to decrease; so that about 7 P. M. they fired but few guns, and these only at intervals. At midnight the principal ship was seen on fire, and an hour after was completely in flames. Eight more of these batteries took fire successively; and on the 14th, of ships made by them, the multitude of relics, lances, and boats, with which they were surrounded, all came to their assistance, and began to take the men out of the burning vessels. Captain Curtis, who lay ready with the gun-boats to take advantage of any favourable circumstance, came upon them at two A. M. and forming a line on the enemy's flank, advanced upon them with such expedition as to throw them into immediate confusion. At this unexpected attack they were so astonished and disconcerted, that they fled precipitately with all their boats, totally abandoning their floating batteries to be burnt, and all who were in them to perish in the flames. This would undoubtedly have been their fate, had not Capt. Curtis celebrated them from the fire at the imminent risk of his own life and that of his men. In this work he was so eager, that while his boat was alongside of one of the largest batteries, it blew up, and the fragments of the wreck spreading all around to a vast distance, some heavy pieces of timber fell into his boat and pierced through its bottom, killing one man and wounding several others. He crept with difficulty out of this boat, which was sunk, as well as another, by the accident. The floating batteries were all consumed; and the violence with which they exploded was such, that

doors and windows at a great distance on shore burst open. About 400 people were saved; many of whom were picked up from rafts and pieces of timber. Indeed the blow of the batteries as the flames reached their rooms, and the discharge of the guns in such haste as the metal became heated by the fire, rendered the attempt to save them very dangerous. This terrible catastrophe took place in sight of the fleets of France and Spain. It had been proposed that they should co-operate upon this important occasion, by attacking the garrison at Europa and such places as appeared most exposed to tempt by sea: which must have occasioned a material division of the garrison's force, and have weakened considerably the vigorous defence used in those parts which were attacked. The reason assigned for this is was the want of wind.

(10.) GIBRALTAR, HISTORY OF, TO THE YEAR 1783. Though this terrible repulse convinced the Spaniards that Gibraltar could not be taken by force, some hope still remained without any further exertions on their part the garrison would be obliged to surrender for want of ammunition and provisions. With this view they continued to blockade it closely, and cut off all communication, flattering themselves that Britain would not be able to collect a fleet sufficient to drive their fleet from the bay; and the fortress was reduced to extremity; so that they imagined must be the case in a few days. Such diligence, however, had been used by a part of the British, that a fleet was already assembled at Portsmouth, consisting of 22 sail of the line, in excellent condition, and filled with the best officers and sailors in Europe. The command was given to Lord Howe, accompanied by Sir John Barrington, Sir Mifbank, Hood, Sir John Hughes, and commodore Hottram, all of whom were of their profession. At the same time a large fleet of merchantmen had just arrived from the Baltic; and a Dutch squadron had been cruising on their own coasts, and was able to penetrate southwards to join the British, had retired into port, and given up the idea of effecting any junction for that season. At the same time the progress of the ships was delayed by contrary winds, and it was not until they had reached the southern coast of Portugal, that they received information of the defeat of the enemy's fleet on the 13th Sept. On the 11th Oct. Lord Howe entered the Straits, and several of the ships destined for Gibraltar came first to anchor, and fired the cannon of the fort, without any molestation from the enemy. The combined fleet in the bay had been much damaged by a storm; two more were driven out of the bay into the Mediterranean; others lost their masts, and they suffered considerably. One in particular, a ship of 70 guns, was carried by the storm to the bay, and ran aground under the fortress of Gibraltar, where she was taken by the garrison. Her whole complement of men, consisting of 1000, notwithstanding the endeavours of the British to destroy her, she was safely got off, and repaired. The combined fleet, however,

e 13th, with a view to prevent the rest of the fleet from making good their entrance into it; and at the same time to rejoin the two ships that had separated from the main body by the storm. By the advantage of the wind, they bore down upon the British fleet, which drew up in battle to receive them; but notwithstanding their superiority, they declined coming to an action. On the wind becoming more favourable next day, Lord Howe took the opportunity to bring in the storeships that were in command the day following the remainder were directed to Gibraltar, the troops for the reinforcement of the garrison were landed, with a supply of powder, and provisions. As they passed through the Straits they were threatened with engagement by the combined fleets; but the latter had a superiority of 12 ships of the line, they kept at a wary distance. Some success was at length obtained on either side. This last relief proved decisive; for though the blockade continued, no news arrived of the preliminaries of peace signed, in the beginning of February, 1783, an attack was made. The news of the success was received with the utmost joy by the Spaniards. Mutual civilities passed between the commanders in chief, and the duke of Crillon by handsome compliments to the governor of Gibraltar for their noble defence; declaring he had exerted himself to the utmost of his ability, and though he had not proved successful, was happy in having his sovereign's approbation of his conduct.

**GIBRALTAR, IMPORTANCE OF, TO GREAT BRITAIN.** Gibraltar is esteemed of very great consequence to Britain. It not only gives the command of the Straits, and their navigation, but affords a safe anchorage and accommodation to our fleets in time of war, and to our merchantmen at all times. It hinders a ready communication by sea between the different ports of France and Spain, and hinders the junction of their fleets in the Mediterranean, or at least renders it so difficult as to be an perpetual check upon the ambition of these states. It awes also the piratical states of Barbary, the emperor of Morocco; inasmuch as the commerce is more safe than that of any other part of Europe, which gives us great advantage in point of freight. It is otherwise highly important to our trade in the Mediterranean and the Atlantic. It procures us the respect of the other powers; who, though far distant, consider this as an instance of her strength, and do not hurt or assist them. It also saves us the expense of squadrons and convoys, upon any disturbance that may happen among the powers, and which would otherwise be necessary for the protection of our navigation.

**GIBRALTAR, POPULATION OF.** The inhabitants, exclusive of the British subjects dependent on the garrison, or who reside there from commerce, consist of some Spaniards, a few Genoese, a considerable number of Genoese, but as many Jews; making in the whole, according to Dr Campbell, between 2, and 3,000, reckoning the garrison, which usually con-

sists of between 3, and 4,000 men; but during the last siege was double that number.

(13.) **GIBRALTAR, STRAITS OF,** a narrow sea, which forms the communication between the Atlantic ocean and the Mediterranean, thereby dividing Europe from Africa; and runs from W. to E. about 13 leagues. In this strait there are 3 remarkable promontories or capes on the Spanish side, and as many opposite to them on the Barbary side. The first of these, on the side of Spain, is Cape Trafalgar, opposite to which is Cape Spartel; and in the neighbourhood of this stood the fortress of Tangier, once in the possession of the British. The next on the Spanish side is Tarifa; and over against it lies Malabata, near the town of Alcazar, where the straits are about 5 leagues broad. Lastly, Gibraltar, facing the mountain of Abyla, near the fortress and town of Ceuta, which make the eastern entry of the straits.

(11.) **GIBRALTAR,** a town of South America, in Terra Firma, and prov. of Venezuela, E. of lake Maracaibo; famous for excellent cocoa and tobacco. It was burnt by the French in 1679. It lies 50 miles SSE. of Maracaibo. Lon. 49. 50. W. of Ferro. Lat. 10. N.

(1.) **GIBSON,** Dr Edmund, bishop of London, was born at Knipe in Westmoreland, in 1669. He early displayed his knowledge in several writings and translations, which recommended him to the patronage of Abp. Tension, who appointed him his domestic chaplain; and soon after rector of Lambeth, and archdeacon of Surry. Becoming thus a member of the convocation, he defended his patron's rights, as president, in 11 pamphlets; he then completed his scheme of the legal duties and rights of the English clergy, under the title of *Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani*, in folio. Abp. Tension dying in 1715, and Dr Wake, bishop of Lincoln being made Abp. of Canterbury, Dr Gibson succeeded him in the see of Lincoln, and in 1720 was promoted to the bishopric of London. He was extremely jealous of the privileges of the church; and therefore, continually opposed all attempts to repeal the test acts. But his laudable opposition to those licentious assemblies, called *masquerades*, gave great umbrage at court, and effectually excluded him from all further favours. He spent the latter part of his life in publishing letters, charges, occasional sermons, and tracts against the prevailing immoralities of the age. His pastoral letters are justly esteemed matterly productions against infidelity and enthusiasm. His other publications are, 1. An edition of Drummond's *Polemologia*, and James V's *Causticena Rudica*, with notes. 2. The *Chronicon Saxonicum*, with a Latin translation, and notes. 3. *Reliquia Spelmaniana*, the posthumous works of Sir Henry Spelman, relating to the laws and antiquities of England. 4. An edition of *Quintilian de Arte Oratoria*, with notes. 5. An English translation of Camden's *Britannia*, with additions, 2 vols. folio; and, 6. A number of small pieces, that have been collected and printed in 3 vols. folio. He died, aged 79, in Sept. 1748. With regard to his character, he was a true friend to the established church and government, and as great an enemy to persecution. He was usually consulted by the most learned and exalted personages in church and state, and the

greatest deference was paid to his judgment. He possessed the social virtues in an eminent degree; his beneficence was very extensive; and he had so much justice as well as generosity, that he freely gave 2,500*l.* left him by Dr Crow, who was once his chaplain, to Crow's own relations, who were very poor.

(2.) GIBSON, RICHARD, an English painter, commonly called the *Dwarf*, was originally page to a lady at Mortlake; who, observing that his genius led him to painting, generously got him instructed in that art. He devoted himself to Sir Peter Lely's manner, and copied his pictures to admiration. His paintings in water colours were also esteemed. He was in great favour with Charles I. who made him his page of the back-stairs; and he had the honour to instruct in drawing Q. Mary II. and Q. Anne, when they were princesses. He married Anne Shepherd, who was also a dwarf; on which occasion K. Charles I. honoured their marriage with his presence, and gave away the bride. Mr Waller wrote a poem on this occasion, intitled "The Marriage of the Dwarfs;" in which are these lines:

"Design or chance makes others wive,  
"But nature did this match contrive;  
"Eve might as well have Adam fled,  
"As she deny'd her little bed  
"To him, for whom heav'n seem'd to frame  
"And measure out this only dame."

Mr Fenton, in his notes on this poem, observes that he had seen this couple painted by Sir Peter Lely; and that they were of an equal stature, each being 3 feet 10 inches high. However, they had 9 children, 5 of whom arrived at maturity, well proportioned, and of the usual standard of mankind. But what nature denied this couple in stature, she gave them in length of days: for Mr Gibson died in the 75th year of his age; and his wife, having survived him almost 20 years, died in 1709. aged 89.

\* GIBSTAFF. *n. f.* 1. A long staff to gage water, or to shove forth a vessel into the deep. 2. A weapon used formerly to fight beasts upon the stage. *Dict.*

\* GIDDILY. *adv.* [from *gidly*.] 1. With the head seeming to turn round. 2. Inconstantly; unsteadily.—

To roam

*Giddily*, and be every where but at home,  
Such freedom doth abanishment become. *L'Allegre.*

3. Carelessly; heedlessly; negligently.—

'The parts that fortune hath bestow'd upon her,  
Tell her, I ho'd as *giddily* as fortune. *Shakefp.*

\* GIDDINESS. *n. f.* [from *gidly*.] 1. The state of being giddy or vertiginous; the sensation which we have when every thing seems to turn round.—Megrims and *giddiness* are rather when we rise after long sitting, than while we sit. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—This blessed thistle, which is so sovereign a medicine against the *giddiness* of the brain; 'tis this will settle it. *Holyday.*—

Vain show and noise intoxicate the brain,

Begin with *giddiness*, and end in pain. *Young.*

2. Inconstancy; unsteadiness; mutability; changeableness.—There be that delight in *giddiness*, and count it a bondage to fix a belief. *Bacon.* 3. Quick rotation; inability to keep its place.—The indig-

nation of Heaven rolling and turning length such a *giddiness* seized upon 3 that it fell into the very dregs of secta

4. Frolick; wantonness of life.—

Thou, like a contrite penitent  
Charitably warn'd of thy sins, do'st  
These vanities and *giddinesses*.

GIDDRI, a town of Albania; 8 n  
Alessio.

\* GIDDY. *adj.* [*gidig*, Sax. I know whether this word may not come from *gader*, to be in motion, *gad*, *gid*, *giddy*,] ginous; having in the head a whirl, of circular motion, such as happens by drunkenness.—

Them rev'ling thus the Tentyri  
By *giddy* heads and stagg'ring legs be

*Tate*

1. Rotatory; whirling; running round rity.—

As Ixion fix'd, the wretch shall  
The *giddy* motion of the whirling mi

3. Inconstant; mutable; unsteady; ch  
Our fancies are more *giddy* and un  
More longing, wavering, sooner lost  
Than womens are. *Shakefp. Tem.*

—It may be gnats and flies have their it  
more mutable and *giddy*, as small bird  
have. *Bacon.*—

Thanks to *giddy* chance, which ne

That mortal bliss should last for length  
She cast us headlong from our high e  
And here in hope of thy return we w

*Dryden*

The *giddy* vulgar, as their fancies g  
With noise say nothing, and in parts

*Dryden*

—You are as *giddy* and volatile as eve  
verse of Pope, who hath always loved a  
life. *Swift to Gay.* 4. That which cau  
acts.—

The frequent errors of a pathless w  
The *giddy* precipice, and dang'rous fl

The sylphs through mystick mazes g  
way,

Through all the *giddy* circle they purf  
5. Heedless; thoughtless; uncautious;

Too many *giddy* foolish hours are g  
And in fantastick measures danc'd awa

—How inexcusable are those *giddy* creatu  
in the same hour, leap from a parent's w  
a husband's bed. *Clarissa.* 6. Tottering;

As we have pac'd along

Upon the *giddy* footing of the hatches,  
Methought that Gio'ster stumbled.

7. Intoxicated; elated to thoughtlessne  
come by any overpowering inticement.—  
not *giddy* with the fashion too, that thou ha  
out of thy tale into telling me of the fashion

Like one of two contending in a pri  
That thinks he hath done well in peopl  
Hearing applause and universal shout,  
*Giddy* in spirit, gazing still in doubt,

Whether those peals of praise be his or u

\* To GIDDY. *v. n.* [from the noun.]

quick. Obsolete.—

A sodaine North-wind fecht,



**I** extreme sea, quite about againe.  
**ole** endeavours; and our courle constrain  
 & round. *Glossum.*

**DYBRAINED.** *adj.* [*giddy* and *brain.*] thoughtless.—Turn him out again, you y, useles, *giddy-brain'd* as! *Osway's fern'd.*

**DYHEADED.** *adj.* [*gid'y* and *head.*] thought or caution; without steadiness.

**DONOR** may a gulling weather spv,  
 ring forth heav'n's scheme delery  
 dition'd hats or ruffs, or futs, next year,  
*disheaded* anticke youth will wear. *Donor.*  
 en are so misaffected, melancholy, *giddy*—  
 ar the testimony of Solomon. *Burton on*

**DYPACED.** *adj.* [*giddy* and *pace.*] Mout regularity.—

than light airs, and recollected turns,  
 most brisk and *giddy* paced times. *Shak.*  
**J**, a town of Asia, in Cabulistan; 50 m. bul.

**DN,** [דגן, Heb. *i. e.* a destroyer.] the  
 shi, a Manassite, who had a very extra-  
 tall to deliver the Israelites from the op-  
 e the Midianites. Having effected their  
 e by supernatural aid, he was chosen  
 Isra-1, A. M. 2559, and died in 2793.  
 s vi. vii. and viii.

**HEHRI,** a town of Natolia.  
**LA,** a town of Russia, in Viborg.  
 a town of France, in the department of  
 miles N. of Orleans.

**HENSTEIN,** a town of Lower Sax-  
 duchy of Magdeburg, 1 m. N. of Halle.  
**ULISZKI,** a town of Samogitia, 24 m. enne.

**LOYCE,** a town of Lithuania, in Wilna,  
 8NW. of Wilna.  
**NGEN,** a town of Norway, in Chris-  
 18 miles NW. of Stavanger.

**UM,** a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus,  
 9. of Christiania.  
 a town of France, in the dep. of Loiret,  
 rovince of Orleans, on the Loire; con-  
 4,200 citizens. It is 33 miles SE. of  
 and 76 of Paris. Lon. 2. 43. E. Lat. 47.

**EN,** an imperial town of Suabia, on  
 7; 20 miles W. of Donauwert, and 28  
 Augsburg. Lon. 27. 51. E. Ferro. Lat.

**OR,** or } a town of Barbary, in Tripoli,  
**OR,** } 10 miles S. of Tripoli.  
 a river of France, which runs into the  
 miles below Lyons.

**CE,** an episcopal town of Naples, in  
 Itra, containing 13 churches, and 4 mo-  
 34 miles N. of Reggio, and 62 SSW. of  
 1.

**NONY,** a town of Lithuania, in Wilna,  
 E. of Lida.

**EAGLE.** *n. f.* [Sometimes it is written  
**An eagle** of a particular kind.—These  
 not be eaten, the swan and the pelican,  
*r-eagle. Lev. xi. 18.*

**PART II.**

**GIESCHENHAGEN,** a town of Germany, in  
 Holstein, 1 mile NW. of Segeborg.

**GIESIM,** a town of Nubia, between Sennaar  
 and Abyssinia, 150 miles ESE. of Sennaar.

**GIESMANSDORF,** a town of Silesia, in Neisse,  
 3 miles WNW. of Neisse.

**GIESSEN,** a strong town of Germany in Hesse  
 Cassel, on the Lahn, with a citadel, arsenal, and  
 university. It is 6 miles E. of Wetzlar, 16 WSW.  
 of Marburg, and 36 NE. of Mentz. Lon. 8. 41.  
 E. Lat. 50. 25. N.

**GIEZ,** a river of France, in the dep. of Rhone  
 and Loire, and ci-devant province of Lyonnais.

**GIEZAN,** a town of Samogitia, 22 miles ESE.  
 of Rokone.

**GIFANIUS,** Obertus, or Hubert, LL. D. a  
 learned critic and civilian, born at Bueren in Guel-  
 derland, in 1534. He studied at Louvain and Pa-  
 ris, and erected the German Library at Orleans,  
 where he took his degree, in 1567. He taught  
 civil law and philosophy at Strasburg, Altdorf, and  
 Ingoldstadt, and wrote several tracts, besides com-  
 ments on ancient authors. Though bred a Pro-  
 testant, he turned Roman Catholic, and was made  
 counsellor to the Emperor Redolph. He was very  
 avaricious, and is accused of suppressing the MSS.  
 of Fruterius, a youth of extraordinary genius,  
 who died at Paris, aged 25, and left them to his  
 care. Gifanius died at Prague in 1604.

**GIFFAUMONT,** a town of France, in the dep.  
 of the Marne, 12 miles SE. of Vitry.

**GIFFEN,** or **GUFFEN,** a river of Wales, in  
 Caernarvonshire, running into the Conway.

(1.) **GIFFORD,** Andrew, D. D. an eminent  
 English divine and antiquarian, born Aug. 17th,  
 1735. He was the son of Emanuel Gifford, mi-  
 nister of the Baptist church at Bristol, and was e-  
 ducated at Tewksbury, under the rev. Mr Jones,  
 and the celebrated Dr Ward. He joined his fa-  
 ther's church, and was baptised in 1723; preach-  
 ed to the meeting at Nottingham in 1725; and  
 was ordained and settled at London, Feb. 5, 1735.  
 In 1731, Sir Richard Ellys appointed him his  
 chaplain. In 1754, the Marischal college of A-  
 berdeen presented him with a diploma, creating  
 him D. D. He was also admitted a member of  
 the Society of Antiquaries, and, in 1757, was ap-  
 pointed assistant Librarian to the British Museum.  
 He was much esteemed as a pathetic and evange-  
 lical preacher; and died 19th June, 1784, leaving  
 his museum and library to the Baptist Academy at  
 Bristol.

(2.) **GIFFORD,** a village of Scotland, in East Lo-  
 thian, in Yester parish, containing about 400 in-  
 habitants in 1790.

(3.) **GIFFORD,** a small river in East Lothian, re-  
 markable for an extraordinary flood on the 4th  
 Oct. 1754, which carried down many trees and  
 most of the bridges in the parish of Yester, though  
 no uncommon quantity of rain had previously  
 fallen.

**GIFHORN,** a town of Germany, in Lunen-  
 burg-Zell, on the Allier, 19 miles E. of Zell.

**GIFONI,** a town of Naples, in Principato Citra,  
 7 miles ENE. of Salerno.

(1.) \* **GIFT.** *n. f.* [from *give.*] 1. A thing given  
 or bestowed; something conferred without price.  
 H h h — They

—They presented unto him *gifts*, gold, and frankincense and myrrh. *Mat. ii. 11.*—

Recall your *gift*, for I your pow'r confess;  
But first take back my life, a *gift* that's less.  
*Dryd. Aureng.*

2. The act of giving.—

Creator bounteous, and benign,  
Giver of all things good, but fairest this  
Of all thy *gifts*, nor envyest. *Milton.*  
Thee all things living gaze on, all things thine  
By *gift*. *Milton.*

3. The right or power of bestowing.—

They cannot give;  
For had the *gift* been theirs, it had not here  
Thus grown. *Milton.*

—No man has any antecedent right or claim to that which comes to him by free *gift*. *South.*

4. Oblation; offering.—Many nations shall come with *gifts* in their hands, even *gifts* to the king of heaven. *Tob. xiii. 11.* 5. A bribe.—Thou shalt not wrest judgment, thou shalt not respect persons, neither take a *gift*; for a *gift* doth blind the eyes of the wife. *Deut. xvi. 19.* 6. Power; faculty.—

And if the boy have not a woman's *gift*,  
To rain a shower of commanded tears,  
An onion will do well for such a shift. *Shak.*

She was lovely to attract  
Thy love, not thy subjection, and her *gifts*  
Were such as made government well seem'd  
Unseemly to bear rule. *Milton.*

—He who has the *gift* of ridicule, finds fault with any thing that gives him an opportunity of exerting his talent. *Addison.*

(1.) *GIFT*, (*Donum*), in law, is a conveyance which passeth either in lands or goods; and is of a larger extent than a grant, being applied to things moveable and immoveable; yet as to things immoveable, when taken strictly, it is applicable only to lands and tenements given in tail; but *gift* and *grant* are too often confounded.

(3.) *GIFTS*, NEW YEAR'S. See *STRENÆ*, and *YEAR*.

\* *GIFTED*. *adj.* [from *gift*.] 1. Given; bestowed.—

Magic of my enemies the scorn and gaze,  
To grind in brazen fetters, under task.  
With my heav'n *gifted* strength. *Milt. Agon.*

2. Endowed with extraordinary powers. It is commonly used ironically.—Two of their *gifted* brotherhood, Hacket and Coppinger, got up into a pease cart, and harangued the people to dispose them to an insurrection. *Dryden*.—There is no talent so pernicious as eloquence, to those who have it not under command: women, who are so liberally *gifted* by nature in this particular, ought to study the rules of female oratory. *Add. Freeb.*

(1.) \* *GIG*. *n. f.* [Etymology uncertain.] 1. Any thing that is whirled round in play.—Playthings, as tops, *gigs*, and battledores, should be procured them. *Locke.* 2. [*Gigia*, *Maudick*.] A fiddle. Now out of use.

(2.) *GIG*, } *GIGG*, or *JIG*, in music or dan-

(1.) *GIGA*, } cing, a gay, brisk, sprightly composition, and yet in full measure, as well as the *Allemand*, which is more serious. *Manage* takes the word to arise from the Italian *giga*, a musical instrument mentioned by *Dante*. Others suppose it to be derived from the Teutonic *gig*, or *gigete*,

“a fiddle.” This is a favourite air in nations of Europe: its characteristic is denoted by the  $\frac{6}{8}$ , or  $\frac{12}{8}$ : it consists of two bars out any determinate number of bars.

(2.) *GIGA*, in geography. See *GIGANTICK*. *adj.* [*gigantes*, Lat.] to a giant; big; bulky; enormous; like ed; atrocious—

Others from the wall defend  
With dart and jav'lin, stones, and  
fire;  
On each hand slaughter and *gigantic*

I dread him not, nor all his giant  
Tho' fame divulg'd him father of five  
All of *gigantick* size, Goliath chief.

The son of Hercules he justly seem  
By his broad shoulders, and *gigantic*

The Cyclopean race in arms arose  
A lawless nation of *gigantick* foes.

*GIGANTOMACHY*, *n. f.* in the  
the war of the giants. See *GIANT*, §

*GIGEAU*, a town of France, in the  
Herauld, 7 miles S. of Montpelier.

*GIGG*. See *GIG*.

\* To *GIGGLE*. *v. n.* [*gichelen*, D.]  
laugh idly; to titter; to grin with m  
It is retained in Scotland.—

We shew our present joking, *gigg*  
True joy consists in gravity and gra  
*Garrick*

\* *GIGGLER*. *n. f.* [from *giggle*.]  
a titterer; one idly and foolishly merr

A tad wife valour is the brave coo  
That leads the van, and swallows up

The *giggler* is a milk-maid, who  
Or the fir'd beacon, frighteth from

*GIGGLEWICK*, a town in the W  
Yorkshire, half a mile from Settle, on  
where, at the foot of a mountain, is a  
most noted in England for ebbing;  
sometimes thrice in an hour, and the  
sides three quarters of a yard at the reef  
the sea is 30 miles off. At this town  
next free grammar school; and near at  
of flags, slate, and stone, with a good

(1.) *GIGHA*, *GIGA*, or *GIGO*, in  
Scotland, on the W. coast of Kintyre  
shire, 11 miles ESE. of Ilay; 7 miles  
NE. to SW. and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  broad. The ground  
it is arable. The W. coast is high and  
the E. there are several dangerous inlets  
well as some good harbours for small  
fish, particularly lobsters, crabs, cock  
zoo or spout fish, abound on the  
cod, weighing from 6 to 16 lb. each,  
ling, large haddocks, &c. also about  
high duty on salt prevents any export  
from being carried on. In 1790, 3 b  
men were employed in this fishing, a  
sent to market, and in 1791, 8 bo  
60 people are employed in the bay.  
There is a regular ferry between *Gig  
tyre*. Before the late repeal of the  
carried coastwise, fuel was so scarce,  
priests allowed the people to cut

d meadow grounds; and " in many  
the rev. Mr W. Frazer, " the rocks  
*scalped*, so as to make the sight very  
to the eye." The population in 1792,  
fer's report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 392;  
of horses was 160, and that of black

There are several caves and cairns on  
and it abounds with excellent spring wa-  
it has neither lakes nor rivers. Nothing  
the view from Gigha in variety and  
affording a prospect of Ireland, Ilay,  
ba, Dana, Mull, Arran, Cowal, Kin-  
the Atlantic Ocean, with ships con-  
ing in different directions. Lon. 2. 35.  
n. Lat. 55. 40. N.

HA AND CARA, a parish of Scotland,  
shire, consisting of these two islands. See  
1 N° 1. In both, the soil is fertile, ve-  
getable, and the air salubrious. Oats, bar-  
potatoes, are produced more than suffi-  
the inhabitants; besides pot herbs, and  
is spun and sold. The total population  
ish in 1792, was 614 souls; and had in-  
ce, since 1755. The total number of  
165, and that of black cattle 570. A  
and swine are also reared. All the in-  
are of the established church, and most  
the names of Galbraith and McNeil.  
tutage is the Gaelic.

LET. *n. f.* [*germ.* Saxon; *g. fl.* Dutch;  
itish, is still retained.] A wanton; a  
girl. Now out of use.—  
ig Talbot was not born

the pillage of a *giglet* wench. *Shak.*  
fam'd Cassibelan was once at point,  
let fortune to master Cassibelan's sword.

*Spak Cymbel.*  
with those *giglets* too, and with the other  
te companion. *Shak. Meas. for Meas.*

O, an island on the coast of Sicily in  
15 miles W. of Port Hercole, and 33  
lva. Lon. 11. 16. E. Lat. 42. 23. N.

AC, a town of France, in the dept. of  
feated on the Herault, 13½ miles W. of  
er. Lon. 21. 23. E. Ferro. Lat. 43.

Y, a town of France, in the dept. of Ju-  
e Surain; 7½ miles SW. of Orgelet.

See GIGHA, N. 1.  
OT. *n. f.* [French.] The hip joint. It  
mean in *Chapman* a joint for the spit.—  
The inwards slit,

roil'd on coales, and eate: the rest, in  
ets cut, they split. *Chapman.*

LUM, a small island of Scotland, be-  
gha and Cara.

N, in ancient geography, one of the ri-  
nadicæ: according to Wells, the eastern  
the Euphrates, into which it divides af-  
ction with the Tigris.

I, a sea port of Spain, in Asturia, with  
t castle; formerly the residence of K.  
and his successors. It is 18 miles N. of  
Lon. 11. 5. E. Teneriff. Lat. 43. 32. N.

I, or GHILAN, a considerable province  
lying on the SW. side of the Caspian  
s supposed to be the HYRCANIA of the  
It is very agreeably situated, having

the sea on one side and high mountains on the o-  
ther; and there is no entering it but by narrow  
passes, which may easily be defended. The sides  
of the mountains are covered with many sorts of  
fruit trees, and in the highest parts of them there  
are deer, bears, wolves, leopards, and tigers;  
which last, the Persians have a method of taming,  
and hunt with them as we do with dogs. Gilan  
is one of the most fruitful provinces in Persia;  
and produces abundance of silk, oil, wine, rice,  
and tobacco, besides excellent fruits. The inha-  
bitants are brave, and of a better complexion than  
the other Indians; and the women are extremely  
handsome. Resht is the capital.

GILARZA, a town of Sardinia, SE. of Bosa.  
GILATTELK, a town of Pennsylvania.

GILBERD, or William, a physician, born  
(1.) GILBERT, } at Colchester, in 1530, the  
eldest son of the recorder of that borough. Ha-  
ving spent some time in both universities, he went  
abroad; and at his return settled in London, where  
he practis'd with considerable reputation. He  
became a member of the college of physicians,  
and physician in ordinary to Q. Elizabeth, who  
gave him a pension. He was also physician to K.  
James I. He died in 1603, aged 63, in Colche-  
ster, where a handsome monument was erected to  
his memory. His books, globes, instruments,  
and fossils, he bequeathed to the college of phy-  
sicians, and his picture to the school gallery at Ox-  
ford. He wrote, 1. *De Magnete, magnetisque corpo-  
ribus, et de magno magnete tellure, physologia nova*;  
Lond. 1600, fol. 2. *De mundo nostro sublanari, phi-  
losophia nova*; Amsterdam, 1651, 4to. He also in-  
vented two mathematical instruments for finding  
the latitude at sea without the help of sun, moon,  
or stars. A description of these instruments was  
afterwards published by Thomas Blondenille in  
his *Theories of the planets*.

(2.) GILBERT, Sir Humphrey, a brave officer  
and skilful navigator, born about 1535, in Devon-  
shire, of an ancient and honourable family. He  
inherited a considerable fortune from his father.  
He was educated at Eaton and Oxford. Being  
introduced at court by his aunt Mrs Catherine  
Ashley, then in the queen's service, he was diver-  
ted from the study of the law, and commenced  
soldier. Having distinguished himself in several  
military expeditions, particularly that to Newha-  
ven, in 1563, he was sent over to Ireland to assist  
in suppressing a rebellion; where, for his signal  
services, he was made commander in chief and  
governor of Munster, and knighted by the lord  
deputy, Sir Henry Sidney, Jan. 1, 1570. He re-  
turned soon after to England, where he married  
a rich heiress. In 1572, he sailed with a squadron  
of 9 ships to reinforce Colonel Morgan, who me-  
ditated the recovery of Flushing. In 1576, he  
published his book on the NW. passage to the  
East Indies. In 1578, he obtained an ample pa-  
tent, empowering him to possess in N. America  
any lands then unsettled. He sailed to Newfound-  
land, but soon after returned to England without  
success; nevertheless, in 1583, he embarked a se-  
cond time with five ships, the largest of which put  
back on account of a contagious distemper on  
board. He landed on Newfoundland on the 31  
Aug. and on the 5th took possession of the har-  
bour

hour of St John's. By virtue of his patent, he granted leases to several people; but though none of them remained there at that time, they settled afterwards in consequence of these leases: so that Sir Humphrey deserves to be remembered as the real founder of the vast N. American empire. On the 20th of Aug. he put to sea again, on board a small sloop; which on the 29th foundered in a hard gale of wind. Thus perished Sir Humphrey Gilbert; a man of quick parts, a brave officer, a good mathematician, a skilful navigator, and of a very enterprising genius. He also was remarkable for his eloquence, being much admired for his patriotic speeches in the English and Irish parliaments. His work entitled "A discourse to prove a passage by the north-west to Cathaia and the East Indies," is a masterly performance, and is preserved in Hakluyt's collection of voyages, vol. iii. p. 11. The style is superior to most, if not to all, the writers of that age; and shows the author to have been a man of considerable reading.

GILBERTINES, an order of religious, thus called from St Gilbert of Semprigham, in Lincolnshire who founded it about 1148: The monks observed the rule of St Augustine; and were accounted canons; and the nuns that of St Benedict. The founder erected a double monastery, or rather two contiguous to each other, the one for men, the other for women, but separated by a very high wall. He founded 13 monasteries of this order, viz. 4 for men alone, and 9 for men and women together, which had in them 700 brethren and 1500 sisters. At the dissolution there were about 25 houses of this order in England and Wales.

GILBERT'S ISLAND, an island near the SW. coast of Terra del Fuego. Lon. 71. 7. W. Lat. 55 13. S.

GILBERTSTOWN, a town of Virginia, 30 m. N. of Charlottesville.

GILBOA, in ancient geography, mountains of Samaria, stretching from W. to E. on the confines of the half tribe of Manasseh, and of the tribe of Issachar; and to the S. of the valley of Jezreel, beginning westward at the city of Jezreel, at the foot of these mountains, reaching almost quite to the Jordan, 6 miles from Scythopolis. They are famous for the death of Saul and Jonathan, and the defeat of the Israelites by the Philistines.

GILCHRIST, Dr Ebenezer, an eminent Scots physician, born at Dumfries in 1707. He studied medicine at Edinburgh, London and Paris; and obtained the degree of M. D. from the university of Rheims. In 1732, he returned to Dumfries, where he practised medicine till his death. Few physicians of the 18th century have exercised their profession in a manner more respectable or successful than, Dr Gilchrist. Endowed by nature with an acute judgment and an active genius, he soon distinguished himself by departing from established but unsuccessful modes of practice. Several of his improvements have procured him great and deserved reputation at home and abroad. His usefulness was not confined to his own neighbourhood. He was often consulted by letter from the most distant parts of the country. In different collections are to be found several of his valuable performances: But those which do him the great-

est honour, are two dissertations on Nerves, in the Medical Essays and Observations published by a Society in Edinburgh; and on the use of Sea voyages in medicine in 1757, and 1771. By the former, the art of physic was first turned to a species which is now found to prevail universally in the country; and the liberal use of wine, was the first among the moderns to be adopted in these fevers by judicious physicians of the present age. His life on sea voyages proves from experience utility in various distempers, particularly in the Scurvy. Dr Gilchrist died in 1774.

GILD, or GUILD. See GUILD.

\* To GILD, v. a. pret. *gilded*, or *gilt* Saxon. 1. To wash over with gold with foliated gold.—

The room was large and wide,  
As it some *gilt* or solemn temple were  
Many great golden pillars did appear  
The massy roof.

To *gild* refined gold, to paint the  
To throw a perfume on the violet.

*Shak*

And the *gilded* car of day  
His glowing axle doth allay  
In the steep Atlantick stream.

Purchasing with our time and care  
We lose our freedom in a *gilded* snare

When Britain, looking with a just  
Upon this *gilded* majesty of Spain,  
And knowing well that empire must  
Whose chief support and sinews are

Her joy in *gilded* chariots, when all  
And love of ombre after death survive

2. To cover with any yellow matter.—  
Thou did'st drink

The stale of horses and the *gilded* puc  
Which beasts would cough at.

*Shak. Ant*

3. To adorn with lustre.—  
No more the rising sun shall *gild* th  
Nor evening Cynthia fill her silver horn

*Pope*

4. To brighten; to illuminate.—The  
passion of joy was not that trivial, van  
perfidious thing, that only *gilds* the app  
and plays upon the surface of the so  
5. To recommend by adventitious orna

For my part, if a lie may do thee  
I'll *gild* it with the happiest terms I can

*Shak*

Yet, oh! th' imperfect piece move  
light;

'Tis *gilded* o'er with youth, to catch  
*Dryden's*

GILDAS, surnamed *the Wise*, a celest  
tial monk born in Wales in 511. Who  
educated is uncertain. Some say he was  
Ireland; others, that he visited France  
All agree, that after his return to E  
became a most assiduous preacher of t  
Du Pin says he founded a monastery at  
Britain. Gildas is the only British aut  
6th century whose works are printed.  
ry of Britain is valuable on account of

as containing the only information we concerning the times of which he wrote; his style is inelegant.

DEHAUSZ, a town of Germany, in the Westphalia, 3 miles SW. of Benheim.  
 GILDER. *n. f.* [from *gild*.] 1. One who lays the surface of any other body.—*Gilders* have a piece of gold in their mouth, to be the spirit of the quick-silver. *Bacon's Nat. Ve* have here a *gilder*, with his anvil and *Broom*. 2. A coin, from one shilling hence, to two shillings. *Pbil.*—

I am bound  
 to sea, and want *gilders* for my voyage. *Shak.*  
 GILDING. *n. f.* [from *gild*.] Gold laid surface by way of ornament.—Silvering ly and canker more than *gilding*, which, ight be corrected with a little mixture of here is profit. *Bacon's Phys. Rem.*—The of the Annunciation, all but one corner covered with statues, *gilding*, and paint. *son Italy.*—

old laureate Dryden Pimp and Fry'rengage,  
 I not strip the *gilding* off a knave,  
 plac'd, unpenion'd, no man's heir or slave?  
*Pope.*

GILDING signifies also the art of spreading covering a thing over with gold, either in liquid.

GILDING, ANCIENT ACCOUNTS AND MODS OF. This art was known among the Greeks, though it never arrived among them at the height to which the moderns have carried. *Say* assures us, that the first gilding seen at Rome was after the destruction of Carthage, under the reign of Lucius Mummius, when they began to gild the ceilings of their temples and the Capitol being the first place on which this enrichment was bestowed. But he that luxury advanced on them so hastily, that a little time you might see all, even private poor persons, gild the very walls, vaults, and their houses. We need not doubt but that the same method with us, of beating and reducing it into leaves; though they used to carry it to the same height. Pliny relates, that they only made 750 leaves of four fingers out of a whole ounce. But he adds, that they could make more; that the thickest called *bractea Prænestina*, from a statue of the god at Prænestine gild with such leaves; and the thinner sort were called *bractea questoria*. The ancients had no way to lay the gold on bodies that would not endure the fire, but with whites or size, neither of which will endure the fire; so that they could only gild such places as were sheltered from the moisture of the weather. The Greeks called the composition on which they did their gilding on wood LEUCOPHÆUM or *serpion*; which is described as a sort of glutinous compound earth, serving in all probability for the gold stick and bear polishing. But particulars of this earth, its colour, ingredients. antiquaries and naturalists are not agreed upon.

GILDING, MODERN METHODS OF. The modern gilders also use gold leaves of divers thickness; but there are some so fine, that a thou-

sand do not weigh above 4 or 5 drachms. The thickest are used for gilding on iron and other metals; and the thinnest on wood. But we have another advantage over the ancients in the manner of using or applying the gold: the secret of painting in oil, discovered in later ages, furnishes us with means of gilding works that shall endure all the injuries of time and weather, which to the ancients was impracticable. The lustre and beauty of gold have occasioned several inquiries, and discoveries concerning the different methods of applying it to different substances. Hence the art of gilding is very extensive, and contains many particular operations and various management. It is divided into true and false gilding.

i. GILDING, FALSE. A colour of gold is given by painting and by varnishes, without employing gold. Thus a very fine golden colour is given to brass and to silver, by applying upon these metals a gold-coloured varnish, which, being transparent, shows all the brilliancy of the metals beneath. Many ornaments of brass are varnished in this manner, which is called *gold lackerings*, to distinguish them from those which are really gilt. Silver leaves thus varnished are put upon leather, which is then called *gilt leather*. See LACKER. Amongst the false gilding may also be reckoned those which are made with thin leaves of copper or brass, called *Dutch leaf*. In this manner are made all the kinds of what is called *gilt paper*.

ii. GILDING, TRUE. In the true gilding, gold is applied to the surface of bodies. The gold intended for this purpose ought in general to be beat into thin leaves, or otherwise divided into very fine parts.

(1.) GILDING OF METALS. One method of applying gold upon metals is this: The surface of the metal to be gilt is first to be cleaned; and then leaves are to be applied to it, which, by means of rubbing with a polished blood-stone, and a certain degree of heat, are made to adhere perfectly well. In this manner silver leaf is fixed and burnished upon brass in the making of what is called *French plate*, and sometimes also gold leaf is burnished upon copper and upon iron. Gold is applied to metals in several other manners. One of these is by previously forming the gold into a paste or amalgam with mercury. To obtain a small amalgam of gold and mercury, the gold is first to be reduced into thin plates or grains, which are heated red-hot, and thrown into mercury previously heated, till it begins to smoke. Upon stirring the mercury with an iron rod, the gold totally disappears. The proportion of mercury to gold is generally as 6 or 8 to one. With this amalgam the surface of the metal to be gilded is to be covered; then a sufficient heat is to be applied to evaporate the mercury; and the gold is lastly to be burnished with a blood-stone. This method of gilding by amalgamation is chiefly used for gilding copper, or an alloy of copper with a small portion of zinc, which more readily receives the amalgam; and is also preferable for its colour, which more resembles that of gold than the colour of copper. When the metal to be gilt is wrought or chafed, it ought to be previously covered with quicksilver before the amalgam is applied, that this may be better spread: but when the surface

of the metal is plain, the amalgam may be applied directly to it. The quicksilver or amalgam is made to adhere to the metal by means of a little *amalgam*, which is rubbed on the metallic surface at the same time, by which this surface is cleansed from any rust or tarnish which might prevent the union or adhesion of the metals. But the use of the nitrous acid in this operation is not, as is generally supposed, confined merely to cleanse the surface of the metal to be gilt from any rust or tarnish it may have acquired; but it also greatly facilitates the application of the amalgam to the surface of that metal, probably in the following manner: It first dissolves part of the mercury of the amalgam; and when this solution is applied to the copper, this latter metal having a stronger disposition to unite with the nitrous acid than the mercury has, precipitates the mercury upon its surface, in the same manner as a polished piece of iron precipitates upon its surface copper from a solution of blue vitriol. When the metal to be gilt is thus covered over with a thin precipitated coat of mercury, it readily receives the amalgam. In this solution and precipitation of mercury, the principal use of the nitrous acid in the process of gilding appears to consist. The amalgam being equally spread over the surface of the metal to be gilt by a brush, the mercury is to be evaporated by a heat just sufficient for that purpose; for if it be too great, part of the gold may also be expelled, and part of it will run together, and leave some of the surface of the metal bare: while the mercury is evaporating, the piece is to be from time to time taken from the fire, that it may be examined, that the amalgam may be spread more equally by the brush, that any defective parts of it may be again covered, and that the heat may not be too suddenly applied to it. When the mercury is evaporated, which is known by the surface being entirely become of a dull yellow colour, the metal must then undergo other operations, to acquire the fine gold colour. First, the gilded piece of metal is rubbed with a scratch brush (which is a brush composed of brass wire) till its surface is made smooth; then it is covered over with a composition called *gilding wax*, and is again exposed to the fire till the wax be burnt off. This wax is composed of bees wax, sometimes mixed with some of the following substances; red ochre, verdigris, copper scales, alum, vitriol, borax: but according to Dr Lewis, the saline substances alone are sufficient, without any wax. By this operation the colour of the gilding is heightened; and this effect seems to be produced by a perfect dissipation of some mercury remaining after the former operation. This dissipation is well effected by this equable application of heat. The gilt surface is then covered over with a saline composition, consisting of nitre, alum, or other vitriolic salt, ground together, and mixed up into a paste with water or urine. The piece of metal thus covered is exposed to a certain degree of heat, and then quenched in water. By this method its colour is further improved, and brought nearer to that of gold. This effect seems to be produced by the acid of nitre (which is dissolved in the vitriolic acid of the alum or other salt) acting during the exposure to heat) acting

upon any particles of copper which may be left to lie on the gilded surface. Lastly, some think that they give an additional lustre to gilt work, by dipping it in a liquor prepared by boiling some yellow materials, as sulphur, turmeric, or furmeric. The only advantage of this operation is, that a part of the yellow matter, as the sulphur or turmeric, remains in the hollows of the carved work, in which the gilding is apt to be more imperfect, and which it gives a rich and solid appearance. Iron cannot be gilt by amalgamation, unless previously coated with copper by dipping in a solution of blue vitriol. Iron may also receive a golden coat from a saturated solution of gold in aqua regia, mixed with spirit of wine, the iron having a greater affinity with the acid, from which it therefore precipitates the gold. The method most commonly employed of fixing gold upon iron is, of burnishing gold leaf upon it when heated, as to become blue; and the operation will be perfect if the surface has been previously smoothed or grained. Another method is mentioned of fixing upon metals, and also upon earthen ware and glass; viz. to fuse gold with regulus of antimony to pulverise the mass which is sufficiently done to admit that operation, to spread this upon the piece to be gilt, and expose it to a moderate fire that the regulus may be evaporated, and the gold remains fixed. The inconveniences of this method, according to Dr Lewis, are, that the powder does not adhere to the piece, and does not be equally spread; that part of the gold is melted along with the regulus; that glass is cracked with the heat necessary for the evaporation of the regulus of antimony; and that copper is dissolved and corroded by the regulus, and to have its surface rendered uneven. On gilding by amalgamation Dr Lewis has the following remarks: "The two principal inconveniences in this method are, One, that the workmen are exposed to the fumes of the mercury, and generally, sooner or later, have their health greatly impaired by them. The other, the loss of the mercury, for though it is said to be detained in cavities made in the chimney for that purpose, yet the greater part of it is lost. From some trials I have made, it appeared that both these inconveniences, particularly the first and most considerable one, might in some measure be avoided, by means of a furnace of a due construction. If the communication of the furnace with its chimney, instead of being open to the fire, is made under the grate, the ash-pit and other apertures beneath the grate, closed, and the mouth of the furnace left open; the current of air which otherwise would have entered beneath the grate now at the top, and, passing down through the grate to the chimney, carries with it and sweeps away completely both the vapour of the fuel and the fumes of such matters as are placed upon it: the mouth of the furnace should be raised a little above the fire than the grate part, and an iron plate laid over it, that the air may enter only at the grate where the workman stands; who will be thus effectually secured from the fumes and the heat of the fire at the same time have full liberty of introducing and removing the work. If the furnace is made of strong forged (not malle-

be sufficiently durable: the upper chimney may reach above a foot and a half the level of the fire: over this is a large tube, leaving an interval of six or eight inches all round between it and the chimney: the height of 10 or 12 feet, is the better. The external air, passing between the chimney and the outer pipe, prevents the chimney from being much heated, so that the fumes will condense against its sides. The quicksilver, which, falling down to the bottom, is there caught in a hollow rim, forming inwards a portion of the lower chimney, is conveyed, by a pipe at one side, into a receiver. Some metals, particularly silver, may be gilded in the following manner: Let gold be dissolved in aqua regia. In this solution pieces of the metal to be gilded, and burnt to black ashes, being rubbed on the surface of the filaments of a wet linen rag, apply the particles which they contain, and which by their adhesion adhere very well. The remaining silver is to be washed off; and the surface of the metal, which in this state does not shine, is to be burnished with a blood-stone, and will acquire a fine colour of gold. This gilding is very easy, and consumes a small quantity of gold. Most gilt ornaments, such as ruff boxes, and other toys of much value, are nothing but silver gilt.

**OF UNMETALLIC BODIES.** As gold will adhere well merely by contact to the surface of metallic substances, when gold is applied to the surface of an unmetallic body, it must be previously covered with a tenacious substance by which the gold is made to adhere. These substances are called *sizes*. Some of these are animal and others of vegetable nature, and others of mineral. Upon them the gold is applied, and pressed down with the finger or a hard's foot: and when the work is to be finished and polished, a hard instrument, called a *d-g's tooth*, is used. When the work is required to be kept moist, it ought to be prepared with a composition of drying oil and turpentine ground together: otherwise a water size, which is prepared by boiling cut-burthen or white leather in water, and adding to this some chalk or whiting: several sizes must be laid upon the wood, and a layer of the same size mixed with wax. Lastly, another mixture called *gold size*, applied above these; upon which the gold is to be fixed. This gold size, the purpose is to make the gold leaf capable of being fixed, is composed of tobacco-pipe ash, with some ruddle or black lead, and a little tallow or oil of olives. The metal may be gilt by applying first a very thin varnish, upon which the gold leaf is to be laid, when the varnish is hardened, may be fixed. This varnish is prepared by boiling linseed oil in a brass vessel until the oil is fitted, and by diluting the same with 4 or 5 times its quantity of oil

of turpentine; and that it may dry sooner, it may be ground with some white lead. Gold leaf may also be applied to glass, porcelain, and other vitrified matters. As the surface of these matters is very smooth, and consequently is capable of a very perfect contact with gold leaves, these leaves adhere to them with some force, although they are not of a metallic nature. This gilding is so much more perfect, as the gold is more exactly applied to the surface of the glass. The pieces are then to be exposed to a certain degree of heat, and burnished slightly to give them lustre. A more substantial gilding is fixed upon glass, enamel, and porcelain, by applying to these substances powder of gold mixed with a solution of gum arabic, or with some essential oil, and a small quantity of borax; after which a sufficient heat is to be applied to soften the glass and the gold, which is then to be burnished. With this mixture any figures may be drawn. The powders for this purpose may be made, 1. By grinding gold leaf with honey, which is afterwards to be washed away with water. 2. By distilling to dryness a solution of gold in aqua regia. 3. By evaporating the mercury from an amalgam of gold, taking care to stir the mass near the end of the process. 4. By precipitating gold from its solution in aqua-regia, by applying to it a solution of green vitriol in water, or some copper, and perhaps some other metallic substances.

(1.) GILEAD, the son of Machir, and grandson of Manasse: His posterity had their inheritance allotted them in the mountains of Gilead, so named from him.

(2.) GILEAD, a descendant of the above mentioned patriarch, and the father of JEPHTHAH.

(3.) GILEAD, BALM OF. See N<sup>o</sup> 4. and AMYRIS, y 3, 4.

(4.) GILEAD, MOUNTAINS OF. The mountains of Gilead were part of that ridge which runs from Mount Lebanon southward, on the east of the Holy Land; gave their name to the whole country which lies on the east of the sea of Galilee, and included the mountainous region, called in the New Testament, TRACHONITIS. Jer. (xxii. 6.) seems to say, that Gilead begins from mount Libanus. Jacob, at his return from Mesopotamia, came in six days to the mountains of Gilead, (Gen. xxxi. 21. &c.) where this patriarch, with Laban his father-in-law, raised a heap of stones, in memory of their agreement and covenant, and called it *Gilead*, i. e. "an heap of witnesses," and which Laban called *Jegar-sabadutha*. These mountains were covered with trees abounding with gum, called the *balm of Gilead*, which the Scripture commends much. (Jer. viii. 21. xlvii. 11. li. 8.) The merchants who bought Joseph came from Gilead, and were carrying balm into Egypt, Gen. xxxv. 25.

GILEADITES, the descendants of GILEAD. Being invaded by the Ammonites, &c. they chose Jephthah for their general, who vanquished all their enemies.

(1.) GILES, John, D. D. and M. D. a native of St Albans, who flourished in the 13th century, and was the first Englishman who entered among the Dominicans. He was physician in ordinary to



GILL, Thomas, was professor of medicine at the University of Montpellier. He was the son of John Gill, Esq. of Edinburgh, who was distinguished in the 6th century of the last century as a magnificent family. He gave all his estate to the University of Montpellier, France, where he continued there 3 years. His talents were attributed to him; he was a member of the University of Languedoc, known as the University of St Giles's. In the reign of James II. he was a member of Gorton, whose descendants were in the country of Edinburgh. He was buried in the church of Edinburgh. For this donation, the magnificent charter in favour of Mr Preston's name was given to the nearest heir of the name of Gill, who carried it in all processions. He was buried in St Giles's, and appointed a chaplain in an annual mass for the soul of Mr Preston and his wife, that a tablet containing his name and account of his pious donation, should be placed in the chapel.

GIL, an ancient geography, a place between the Euphrates and Jordan, noted for the first entrance of the Israelites on this side Jordan, and the passage from Jericho. It sometimes also denotes a place. Joshua xii. 23.

GILDE, a town of Prussia, in Smoland.

GILNBURG, a town of Prussia, in Ober-Saxony, 8 SSW. of Konigsberg.

GILMER, or GELMER, a prince of the Empire, descended of Genesic. See BARBARY.

GILPIN, a town of Cheshire.

GILL, John, D. D. a Protestant dissenting minister of the Baptist denomination, the son of Edward Gill, a deacon of the Baptist church at Northampton, in Northamptonshire, was born at Northampton, Nov. 23, 1697. He was early sent to a grammar-school in the neighbourhood; where he very soon surpassed boys much his seniors, and excelled them in the common school books, and in the most of the Latin classes, and made great proficiency in the Greek language. His celebrity as a scholar, and his strong attachment to books, was soon observed by the neighbouring clergy, who frequently met and conversed with him at a bookseller's shop, to which he almost constantly resorted for reading; which gave rise to a proverbial saying, "Such a thing is as certain, as that John Gill is in the bookseller's shop." He left the grammar school, however, early, owing to the bigotry of his master, who insisted, that the children of dissenting parents, as well as those that belonged to the establishment, should attend him to church. To pave the way, therefore, for the completion of his studies, without such conformity, efforts were made by several ministers of different denominations, to get him upon his hands in London. But the same spirit of learning, however, being in-

vincible, these difficulties could neither damp the ardent desire of knowledge, nor damp application. For though his time was devoted to the business of his father; yet he far improved his leisure hours, as to be he was 19, to read all the Greek authors that fell in his way. He studied logic, moral and natural philosophy; the Hebrew language so as to read it without any other assistance than Buxtorf's grammar and lexicon. Neither the pursuing, however, nor his other necessary could eradicate those religious impressions in early life. On Nov. 1, 1716, he made public profession of his faith before the church at Kettering, and was baptised by Thomas Wallis. Of this church Mr Gill had been long a member before he was called to the ministry; soon after which, he removed to Ferrers, to pursue his studies *universis*; but his stay there was soon interrupted by an invitation to London, to preach to the church at Horslydown, over which he was called pastor, in 1719, which office he fulfilled upwards of 51 years. Mr Gill had not been long in London before rabbinical learning, of which he had acquired considerable knowledge, became the object of pursuit. To facilitate his progress through the intricacies of this labyrinth, he traded an acquaintance with one of the learned Jewish rabbis. He read the Talmuds, the Rabbot, their ancient commentaries, the book Zohar, and whatever else of that kind he was able to procure. Of the languages he made himself a complete master; there was no branch of literature which he did not attempt and attain; it may be truly affirmed, that in this line, the literature do not exhibit a character by which he was excelled. In 1743, he published a commentary on the New Testament, in 2 vols. of immense reading and learning; his ever diligent and arduous work, attracted the attention of the Royal College and University of Alton, which procured for him, without either his merit or his knowledge, a diploma, creating him a Doctor in Divinity. This intelligence was communicated to the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Pollock; who declared, "that of his knowledge of the scriptures, of the Oriental languages, and of Jewish antiquity, and the reputation gained by his works; the university had, without his solicitation, unanimously agreed to confer on him the degree of Doctor in divinity." Dr Gill's sentiments on a divine, were Calvinistic: "And perhaps (says the rev. Mr Toplady, a minister of the church of England) since the days of Arianism, written so largely in defence of the doctrine of grace; and certainly no man has treated this subject in all its branches, more judiciously, and successfully. What was said of Edward the Black Prince, that he never undertook a battle which he did not win; what has been said of the great Duke of Marlborough, that he never undertook a siege which he did not win; may be truly said of Dr Gill, that he never undertook a study which he did not master."



justly accommodated to our great and divine; who, so far as the distinctions of the gospel are concerned, is an error which he did not force upon his hearers, nor ever encountered an opponent he did not baffle and subdue. His labours, were exceeded only by the sanctity of his life and conversation. From his entrance on the ministry to his dissolution, not one of his most intimate friends was ever able to charge him with a shadow of immorality. Himself, by his writings, demonstrated that the race does not lead to licentiousness."

“while true religion and sound sense are a single friend remaining in the British works and name of Gill will be revered.” He died at Camberwell, London, aged 73 years, 10 months and 10 days the Doctor married Mrs Elizabeth whom he had many children, two of whom survived him. Mrs Gill died in 1764. 1. A Commentary on the Old and New Testament, in 9 vols fol. 2. A Body of Divinity, 4to. 3. The Cause of God and Truth, 8vo. 4. A Treatise concerning the Prophecies of the Old Testament respecting the Messiah. A Dissertation on the antiquity of the Hebrew Language, Letters, Vowel Points, &c. 5. Sermons on the Canticles, folio; with a number of sermons and controversies on different subjects.

LL. n. f. [*agulla*, Spanish; *gula*, Lat.] A gullet at each side of a fish's head.—

The Leviathan,  
like a promontory, sleeps or swims,  
as a moving land, and at his gills  
and at his trunk spouts out a sea.

*Milton.*  
The form of respiration under water by the gill fins; not behind the most fishes, but before them. *Walton.* The gill, of farther passage quite bereft,  
the mesh with gills entangl'd left.

*King's Fisherman.*  
The gills that hang below the beak of a fowl. The cock hath great and swelling gills, and the hen hath less. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 3. The gill, the chin.—In many there is no pale, but, contrariwise, redness about the gills, which is by the sending forth of the appetite to revenge. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* long bag of flesh hanging down from the people in Piedmont. *Swift.* 4. The gill, a measure of liquids the fourth part of a pint.—Every bottle rinsed with wine: some, out of the cistern, will rinse a dozen with the gill, the wine at every second bottle: some enough. *Swift.* 5. A kind of measure the tanners.—They measure their wine by the gill, which containeth a pint. In the northern counties it has half a pint measure. 7. [From *gillian*, the old name of writing *Julian*, or *Jubiana*.] The gill of a woman in ludicrous language.—

PART. II.

I can, for I will,  
Here at Burley o' th' Hill,  
Give you all your fill,  
Each Jack with his Gill. *Ben Jonson's Gypsies.*  
8. [*Cicelidonium*.] The name of a plant; ground ivy. 9. Malt liquor medicated with ground ivy.

(3.) GILL, in geography, a township of Massachusetts in Hampshire county, on the W. bank of the Connecticut.

(4.) GILLS of Fish. See ZOOLOGY.  
GILLEM'S BAY, a bay on the S. coast of St Christophers, half a league W. of Basseterre.

GILLES, Peter, a learned and enterprising French author, born at Albi, in 1490. After studying the Latin and Greek languages, philosophy, natural history, &c. he travelled through France and Italy. In 1535, he dedicated a work to Francis I, wherein he advised that monarch to send learned men to travel into foreign countries for the improvement of science; in consequence of which the king sent Gilles into the Levant. But having received no remittances from France, during his journey, he was at last obliged to enlist for subsistence in the army of Soliman II. In another voyage he was taken by a pirate, and carried into Algiers. By the generosity of cardinal Armagnac, he obtained his liberty; after which he went to his benefactor at Rome; where he died in 1555.

GILLESKAAL, a town of Norway.  
(1.) GILLESPIE, the rev. James, D. D. an eminent divine of the church of Scotland, late Princ. of St Mary's College, in the University of St Andrews. He was the son of Mr Jas. Gillespie, Minister of Arngalk; born in 1722, and studied at St Andrews, where he received all his academical honours. He was ordained minister of Abdie, in Fifeshire, on the 18th March, 1747; translated to Dumbarny, about 1750; and thence to St Andrews, Nov. 3d, 1757. This charge he resigned, on being appointed Principal, on the 14th Sept. 1779. He married, 1st. Isabella Dick, daughter of Mr W. Dick, minister of Cupar in Fife, in 1748, by whom he had 11 children: and 2d Jean Fortune, daughter of Capt. Geo. Fortune, in 1772, by whom he had 4 children. Of these 12 have survived him. He died 2d June, 1791, aged 69. Twelve Sermons, selected from his MSS. by his successor, Dr G. Hill, and which, (to use the Doctor's words,) form “a valuable accession to the stores of sacred literature,” were published after his death, at Perth, in 8vo, 1796; with a prefatory advertisement, from which we extract the following brief sketch of his character, drawn more at large by Dr Hill, in his funeral sermon:—“In the private intercourse of life, he was gentle and amiable. Although little disposed to obtrude himself in conversation, he contributed to the cheerfulness of every company, both by his polished address, and by the happy art of introducing, in the most pleasing manner, something suited to the time, the place, and the persons. His long experience in the management of affairs led him to disapprove of rash and violent measures, and he was always a counsellor of peace. Yet he was ever ready to make allowance for those who did not listen to the counsels, which he mildly suggested. Forbearing, fair, and candid, he never failed to put the best construction upon the motives and actions of

of all around him. He studied to gain his brother by kindness, and he knew how to turn away wrath by a soft answer. The world can ill spare spirits such as his."

(2.) GILLESPIE, the rev. Thomas, a late pious and popular divine of the church of Scotland, who, in consequence of a very singular and unprecedented stretch of ecclesiastical power, by the ruling party in that establishment, was deposed in May 1752, not for any immorality, but merely for acting according to his conscience; and became afterwards the founder of the sect, since denominated the *Church or Presbytery of Relief*. See RELIEF. Mr Gillespie was born at Clearburn in the parish of Duddingstone, 2 miles SE. of Edinburgh, where his father kept a brewery. After receiving the rudiments of his education at Edinburgh, he completed his studies under the rev. Dr Doddridge at Northampton. He was ordained minister of Carnock, in Fifeshire, in 1741, and had been 10½ years minister of that parish, when he was ejected. His friends soon after built a church for him in Dunfermline, and Mr Boston of Jedburgh and some others joined in communion with him. He lived about 20 years after this, during which period he saw many Relief churches planted in different parts of the kingdom. He published a small tract, entitled *An Essay on the Continuance of Immediate Revelations of Past and Future Events, in the Christian Church*: and after his death was published his *Treatise on Temptation*. The rev. Dr Erskine of Edinburgh wrote prefaces to both these tracts. Mr Gillespie married Miss Riddle, but they had no children. He died in April 1773. The following character of him is extracted from *Historical Sketches of the Relief Church*, published in 1773, soon after his death, by the rev. Mr James Smith, who succeeded him in the Relief church at Dunfermline. "This good man was acknowledged even by his enemies, to be eminently pious. Though his natural faculties were no way uncommon, he was exceedingly diligent in the discharge of his duty; he was remarkably zealous for religion. Though his pulpit talents were not the most shining, yet his zeal, his piety, and the persecution he suffered, rendered him very popular. His manners were rigid: his mind austere. The integrity of his heart made him liable to imposition. Little acquainted with the world, he was far from being a scheming politician, insinuating flatterer, or calculated to take a lead in society. To a warmth of temper was added an inflexibility of mind, which inclined him to adhere tenaciously to all his opinions: convinced that he suffered for righteousness' sake, he gloried in his persecution. His ejection out of the church was the mean of bringing him into public view. He once was tainted with Independent principles, yet afterwards heartily approved of the Presbyterian scheme," &c.

\* GILLHOUSE. *n. f.* [*gill* and *house*.] A house where *gill* is sold.—

Three shall each alehouse, three each *gillhouse* mourn,

And answering ginshops sorer sighs return. *Pope*.  
GILLIES, John, D. D. a late learned and pious divine of the Church of Scotland, author of a History of the propagation of the Gospel in America, during the 16th, 17th, and 18th centuries. He was

born in 1711, and after having passed usual course of study, at the different ordained one of the ministers of Glasgow 29th July, 1742. He died at Glasgow 29th March, 1796, in the 84th year of 54th of his ministry, much regretted. gregation and numerous acquaintance spondents. He was fond of literatures his manners, and zealous for Christ liberal to Christians of all denomi wrote notes on *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

(1.) GILLINGHAM, a parish of Kent, 3 miles below Chatham, and on the side of the Medway. Part of Chatham this parish; and here is a castle well furnished with guns that command the river, there being more than 170 embrasures for cannon; which the progress of any enemy who should be by Sheerness fort, before they could reach here. Here are also copper works. At this place many men who came over with the princes Alfred, were barbarously murdered by him. It was in remote times the property of Canterbury, who had here an elegant old hall of which is now converted to a school.

(2.) GILLINGHAM, a parish of Englishsetshire, on the Stour, near the forest, is one of the largest parishes in the county, 41 miles in circuit, and containing 64 parishes. It lies on the borders of Wilts and Somerset, NW. of Shaftsbury. It has a manufactory of iron. Near it are the traces of an ancient city of Norman or Saxon kings, 320 feet long and 100 feet broad, surrounded by a rampart of earth. King John resided here, and king John repaired the castle. Edward I. received the assize of the county. Edward I. Christmas here in 1270; the house was built by the letter L, in length 120 feet by 40, and the foot of the letter 48 by 40. The house contained 168,000 square feet enclosed by a moat, now dry, in 1699 feet deep, and 20 broad. The rampart to have been 30 feet thick. In 1694, it received damage of near 40000l. by a fire.

(3.) GILLINGHAM FOREST, an ancient Dorsetshire, near the above parish, 10 miles long, and one broad; famous for the Danes by King Edmund Ironside.

GILLORI, an island of W. Florida.

GILLSAY, an island of Scotland, betwixt Lewis and N. Uist.

(1.) GILLY, or LOUGH GILLY, a lake, in Sligo county, 2 miles W. of Sligo.

(2.) GILLY SUR LOIRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire, 4½ miles S. of M. Lancy.

(1.) \* GILLYFLOWER. *n. f.* [Either from *July-flower*, or from *gireflée*, Fr.] Or rather *Julyflowers*, so called from that they blow in July, may be reduced to these and white, purple and white, scarlet & Mortimer's *Aspidandry*.—In July come 36 of all varieties. *Bacon*.—

Fair is the *gillyflower* of gardens for the Fair is the *marygold*; for *potage met*.

(2.) GILLYFLOWER. See CHEIRANTHUS, N° 2.

GILMANTOWN, a township of N.

Strafford county; containing 775 citizens and 2613 in 1790.

**MOLO**, a large island of the Pacific Ocean of the Moluccas, lying between 1° Lat. 2° Lat. N. and between 125° and 128°

It belongs to the Dutch; but does not contain any of the fine spices, though it lies near the islands. The natives are fierce and cruel

**MOLO**, the capital of the above island. **PIN**, Bernard, an eminent English divine, descended from an ancient and honourable family in moreland, and born in 1517. Being bred in the Roman Catholic religion, he for some time studied it, and at Oxford held a disputation with the afterwards bishop of Worcester, and for the Protestant faith; but was afterwards another disputation with Peter Martyr, and again seriously to examine the contested

Being presented to the vicarage of North-Durham, he resigned it, and went abroad to visit eminent professors on both sides; and years absence returned a little before the death of Q. Mary I, satisfied in the doctrine of reformation. He was kindly received by Dr Tostall, Bp. of Durham; who soon presented him the archdeaconry of Durham, and of Easington. Though the persecution was at its height, he boldly preached against the errors, and corruptions of the times, by in the clergy; on which a charge consisting of 13 articles was drawn up against him, presented in form to the bishop. But Dr Tostall dismissed the cause in such a manner as to save his nephew, without endangering himself. He soon after presented him to the rich living of Spring. He was again accused of heresy, and again protected; when his enemies enraged at this second defeat, laid their complaints before Dr Bonner, Bp. of London; who immediately gave orders to apprehend him. Upon Mr Gilpin bravely prepared for martyrdom, and ordering his steward to provide him a garment that he might make a decent appearance at the stake, set out for London. Luckily, however, he broke his leg on the journey; which retarded his arrival until the queen's death. He was immediately set at liberty, he returned to North-Durham, where he was received by his parish with the sincerest joy. Upon the deprivation of the Popish bishops, he was offered the see of Easington, which he declined; and confining himself to his rectory, discharged all the duties of a minister in the most exemplary manner. He was satisfied with the advice he gave in public, and used to instruct in private; and made his parish come to him with their difficulties. He was most engaging towards those whom he thought well-disposed; his very reproof was softened, that it seldom gave offence; the benevolence, with which it was urged, made it appear the effect of friendship. By these means in a few years he made a great change in the neighbourhood, and gave an evidence what reason a single man may effect, when he has it. He was particularly anxious to improve the minds of the younger part of his flock; preferred to mix religion with their labours, and

amidst the cares of this life to have a constant eye upon the next. He attended to every thing which might be of service to his parishioners, and was very assiduous in preventing law-suits. His hall is said to have been often thronged with people, who came to him about their differences. Though little acquainted with law, he decided equitably, and that satisfied; nor could the royal commission have given him more weight than his own character gave him. His hospitable manner of living was the admiration of the whole country. He spent in his family every fortnight 40 bushels of corn, 20 bushels of malt, and a whole ox; besides a proportionable quantity of other provisions. Strangers and travellers found a cheerful reception. All were welcome that came; and even their beasts had so much care taken of them, that it was said, "If a horse was turned loose in any part of the country, it would immediately make its way to the rector of Houghton's." Every Sunday, from Michaelmas to Easter, was a public day with him. During this season he wished to see all his parishioners and their families. For their reception, he had three tables well covered: the first for gentlemen, the second for husbandmen, and the third for day-labourers. This piece of hospitality he never omitted, even when losses, or a scarcity of provision, made its continuance rather difficult. When he was absent from home, no alteration was made in his family expences; the poor were fed, and his neighbours entertained as usual. Notwithstanding the extent of his parish, Mr Gilpin thought the sphere of his benevolence too confined. It grieved him to see everywhere, in the parishes around, so great a degree of ignorance and superstition, occasioned by the negligence of the clergy in those parts. To supply, as far as he could, what was wanting in others, every year he regularly visited the most neglected parishes in Northumberland, Yorkshire, Cheshire, Westmoreland, and Cumberland; and that his own parish in the mean time might not suffer, he was at the expence of a constant assistant. In each place he stayed 2 or 3 days, called the people about him, and laid before them, the danger of leading wicked or even careless lives; explaining to them the nature of true religion; instructing them in the duties they owed to God, their neighbour, and themselves: and showing them how greatly a moral and religious conduct would contribute to their present as well as future happiness. As he had all the warmth of an enthusiast, though under the direction of a very calm judgment, he never wanted an audience, even in the wildest parts; where he roused many to a sense of religion, who had contracted the most inveterate habits of inattention to every thing serious. And wherever he came, he used to visit all the gaols, few in the kingdom having then any appointed minister. By his labours, and affectionate manner of behaving, he is said to have reformed many very abandoned persons in those places. He employed his interest likewise for criminals, whose cases he thought attended with any hard circumstances, and often procured pardons for them. There are two tracts upon the borders of Northumberland, called READSDALE and TINEDALE, of all barbarous places in the north at that time

the most barbarous. Before the Union, these places were called the *debatable land*, as subject by turns to England and Scotland, and the common theatre where the two nations acted their bloody scenes. They were inhabited by a kind of desperate banditti, rendered fierce and active by constant alarms; who lived by theft and plunder on both sides of the barrier; and what they plundered on one side, they exposed to sale on the other; thus escaping justice on both sides. In this dreadful country, where no man would even travel who could avoid it, Mr Gilpin never failed to spend some part of every year. He generally chose the Christmas holidays, because he found the people at that season most disengaged, and most easily assembled. He had set places for preaching, which were as regularly attended as the assize towns of a circuit. If he came where there was a church, he made use of it: if not, of barns, or any other large buildings; where great crowds of people were sure to attend him, some for his instructions, and others for his charity.— This was a very difficult and laborious employment. The country was so poor, that what provision he could get, extreme hunger only could make palatable. The inclemency of the weather, and the badness of the roads, through a mountainous country, and at that season covered with snow, exposed him likewise often to great hardships. Sometimes he was overtaken by the night, the country being in many places desolate for several miles together, and obliged to lodge out in the cold. At such times, he made his servant ride about with his horses, whilst he himself on foot used as much exercise as his age and the fatigues of the preceding day would permit. All this he cheerfully underwent, esteeming such services well compensated, by the advantages which he hoped might accrue from them to his unimpaired fellow creatures. The disinterested pains he took among these barbarous people, and the good offices he was always ready to do them, drew from them the warmest and sincerest expressions of gratitude. Indeed, he was little less than adored among them, and might have brought the whole country almost to do what he pleased. One instance is related, that shews how greatly he was revered. By the carelessness of his servants, his horses were one day stolen. The news was quickly propagated, and every one expressed the highest indignation at the theft. The thief was rejoicing over his prize, when by the report of the country, he discovered *subosc* horses he had taken. Terrified at what he had done, he instantly came trembling back, confessed the fact, returned the horses, and declared “he believed *the devil would have jerked him directly*, had he carried them off knowing them to have been Mr Gilpin’s.” The value of Mr Gilpin’s rectory was about 400 l. a-year: an income, indeed, at that time considerable, but yet in appearance very disproportionate to the generous things he did: Indeed, he could not have done them, unless his frugality had been equal to his generosity. His friends, therefore, could not but wonder to find him, amidst his great and continual expences, propose to build and endow a grammar-school: a design, however, which his exact economy soon en-

abled him to accomplish, though the cost it amounted to upwards of 5000 l. His no sooner opened, than it began to flourish: there was so great a resort of young people that the town was soon not able to accommodate them. He put himself, therefore, to the inconvenience of sitting up a part of his own that purpose, where he seldom had ten or 30 children. Some of these were persons of distinction, whom he board rates; but the greater part were poor whom he not only educated, but maintained: he was at the expence of boarding in the town many other poor. He used to bring several every year from parts where he preached, particularly, and Tinedale. As to his school, he needed able masters in it, whom he procured from Oxford, but himself likewise constant in it. To encourage and quicken the spirits of his boys, he always took particular notice of the most forward: he called them *his sons* and sent for them often into his study to read with them himself. When he met a poor scholar on the road, he made trial of his capacities, and if the answers pleased him, he provided for his education. Besides those sent from his own school to the university, he likewise sent from his own school to the university, who were in circumstances to do for themselves, what farther assistance he could afford. By these means he induced many to allow their children a liberal education, which otherwise would not have done it. He thought it enough to afford the means of a cademical education to these young men, and endeavoured to make it as beneficial as he could. With this view he held correspondence with their tutors; and the youths themselves frequently write to give him an account of their studies. Every other year he made a journey to the university to inspect their behaviour. This care was not fruitless; for many of them became ornaments to the church, as instances of piety. Every third year, a very large quantity of money was sent wholly for the poor: and every fourth year a quantity of bread they were sent to the poorest were distributed. Four times in the year a dinner was sent to the poor; when they received from him a certain quantity of corn, and a sum of money. At Christmas they had always an ox sent to them. In his walks abroad, he carried home with him poor people, and had them clothed as well as fed. He took great care to inform himself of the circumstances of the poor, that the modesty of the sufferer might prevent his relief. But the money was, in his opinion, that which chiefly prevented their seeking under them. If he had lost a heart, he would send him if a farmer had had a bad year, he would send him an abatement in his tithes. If he was able, he took the misfortune

elf; and, like a true shepherd, exposed his flock. But he was most forward of those who had large families; such never meet with his bounty, when they want for their children in the world. In the villages where he preached, as well as in the neighbourhood, his generosity and beneficence continually exercised; particularly in the parts of Northumberland. "When his journey," says an old MS. life of

he would have sol. in his purse; and, at home, he would be so nobles in debt, would always pay within a fortnight of the gaols he visited, he was not only to give the prisoners proper instructions, to purchase for them likewise what they wanted. Even upon the public he never let slip an opportunity of doing.

He has often been known to take off, and give it to an half-naked traveller; and he has had scarce money enough in it to provide himself a dinner, yet would away part of that little, or the whole, if any who seemed to stand in need of it. returning home, he saw in a field several crowding together; and judging something ordinary had happened, he rode up, and that one of the horses in a team had dropped down dead. The owner of it; how grievous a loss it would be to him, in bade him not be disheartened: "I'll save (says he), honest man, that horse of pointing to his servant's.—" Ah! mistaken the countryman, my pocket will not catch a beast as that." "Come, come (said gin,) take him, take him; and when I see money, then thou shalt pay me." This divine, who deservedly obtained the glories of the Father of the Poor, and the Father North, died in 1583, in the 66th year of age.

GIMON, a township of New Hampshire, in county.

GILT. *n. f.* [from *gild*.] Golden show; and on the surface of any matter. Now ob-

servant's gainfulness and our *gilt* are all besmirch'd, and rainy marching in the painful field. *Shakspeare*.  
 Thou wast in thy *gilt*, and thy perfume, sought thee for too much curiosity: in thy own knowest none, but art despis'd for the *gilt*. *Shakspeare*.

GILT. The participle of GILD, which signifies the *gilt* chariot never mark'd its way.

GILT-HEAD. *n. f.* [*gilt* and *head*.] 1. A bird. — He blended together the *gilt-heads*, the brains of pheasants and peacocks, and the necks of pheasants, and the necks of peacocks. *Haleswill*.

GILT-HEAD, in ichthyology. See SPARUS.

GILT-TAIL. *n. f.* [*gilt* and *tail*.] A worm to come from his yellow tail.

GIM. *adj.* [An old word.] Neat; spruce; dressed.

GIMBAR, a town of Cuba, 6 m. E. of Havannah.

GIMBORN, a lordship and citadel of Germany in Westphalia, 8 m. SSE. of Wipperfurth.

\* GIMCRACK. *n. f.* [Supposed by *Skinner*, to be ludicrously formed from *gin*, derived from *engine*.] A slight or trivial mechanism.—

For tho' these *gimcracks* were away,  
 However, more reduc'd and plain,  
 The watch would still a watch remain;  
 But if the horal orbit ceases,  
 The whole stands still, or breaks to pieces.

—What's the meaning of all these transgressions and *gimcracks*? Jumping over my master's hedges, and running your lines cross his grounds? *Arbutnot's John Bull*.

GIMESCH, a town and castle of Hungary, 10 miles W. of Buckans.

GIMIGLIANO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; 10 miles E. of Nicastro.

\* GIMLET. *n. f.* [*gibelet*, *guimbelet*, Fr.] A borer with a screw at its point.—The *gimlet* hath a worm at the end of its bit. *Moxon*.

\* GIMMAL. *n. f.* [Supposed by *Skinner* and *Ainsworth* to be derived from *gimellus*, Lat. and to be used only of something consisting of correspondent parts, or double. It seems rather to be gradually corrupted from *geometry* or *geometrical*. Any thing done by occult means is vulgarly said to be done by *geommetry*.] Some little quaint devices, or pieces of machinery. *Hammer*.—

I think by some odd *gimmals* or device  
 Their arms are set like clock's, still to strike on,  
 Else they could not hold out so as they do.

\* GIMMER. *n. f.* [See GIMMAL.] Movement; machinery.—The holding together of the parts of matter has so confounded me, that I have been prone to conclude with myself, that the *gimmers* of the world hold together not so much by geometry as some natural magick. *Morgan*.

GIMONE, a river of France, which runs into the Garonne, near Riviere Verdun.

GIMONT, a town of France, in the department of Gers, 12 miles E. of Auch.

\* GIMP. *n. f.* [See GIM. *Gimp*, in old English, is neat, spruce.] A kind of silk twist or lace.

(1.) \* GIN. *n. f.* [from *engine*.] 1. A trap; a snare.—

As the day begins,  
 With twenty *gins* we will the small birds take,  
 And pastime make. *Sidney*.

Which two, thro' treason and deceitful *gins*,  
 Have slain sir Mordant. *Spenser*.

So strives the woodcock with the *gin*;  
 So doth the coney struggle in the net. *Shakspeare*.

Be it by *gins*, by snares by subtilty. *Shakspeare*.

If those, who have but sense, can shun  
 The engines that have them annoy'd;  
 Little for me had reason done,

If I could not thy *gins* avoid. *Ben Jonson*.

I know thy trains,  
 Though dearly to my cost; thy *gins* and toils  
 No more on me have pow'r, their force is null'd. *Milton*.

He made a planetary *gin*,  
 Which rats would run their own heads in,  
 And come on purpose to be taken,  
 Without th' expence of cheese and bacon.

*Hudibras*.  
 Keep

Keep from flaying scourge thy skin,  
And ankle free from iron gin. *Hudibras.*  
2. Any thing moved with screws, as an engine of torture.—

Typhæus' joints were stretched on a gin.

3. A pump worked by rotatory sails.—The delfs would be so flown with waters, it being impossible to make any adits or foughs to drain them, that no gins or machines would suffice to lay and keep them dry. *Ray.*—A bituminous plate, alternately yellow and black, formed by water driving on the outside of the gin pump of Mostyn coalpits. *Woodw. on Fossils.* 4. [Contracted from GENEVA, which see.] The spirit drawn by distillation from juniper berries.—

This calls the church to deprecate our sin,  
And hurls the thunder of our laws on gin.

*Gin shops sourer sighs return.*

(2.) GIN, in mechanics, a machine for driving piles, fitted with a windlass and winches at each end, where eight or nine men heave, and round which a rope is reeved that goes over the wheel at the top; one end of this rope is seized to an iron-monkey, that hooks to a beetle of different weights, according to the piles they are to drive, being from eight to thirteen hundred weight; and when hove up to a cross-piece, near the wheel, it unhooks the monkey, and lets the beetle fall on the upper end of the pile, and forces the same into the ground: then the monkey's own weight overhauls the windlass, in order for its being hooked again to the beetle.

(3.) GIN. See GENEVA, N° V, § 1, ii.

(4.) GIN, in geography, a town of China, of the 3d rank, in Fetcheli, 10 miles SE. of Chun-te. GINAIRI, a town of Africa, in Kumbo.

GINASERVIS, a town of France, in the dep. of Var, 9 miles NW. of Barjols.

GINERCA, a town of Corsica, seated on a small bay, so named, 13 miles S. of Calvi.

GINESTAS, a town of France, in the dep. of Aude, 7½ m. NW. of Narbonne, and 9 E. of Azille.

GINGEE, a town of Indostan, on the coast of Cooromandel, formerly capital of a kingdom of that name. It is seated on a mountain whose top is divided into 3 points, on each of which is a castle; 34 m. NW. of Pondicherry, and 70 SW. of Madras. Lon. 79. 56. E. Lat. 12. 16. N.

GINGEN, an imperial town of Suabia, 16 m. N. of Ulm. Lon. 10. 13. E. Lat. 48. 39. N.

(1.) \* GINGER. *n. f.* [*Zingiber*, Lat. *gingero*, Italian.] The flower consists of five leaves, shaped somewhat like those of the iris: these are produced in the head or club, each coming out of a separate leafy scale. The ovary becomes a triangular fruit, having three cells, which contain seeds. *Miller.*—The root of *ginger* is of the tuberous kind, knotty, crooked, and irregular; of a hot, acrid, and pungent taste, though aromatick, and of a very agreeable smell. The Indians eat both the young shoots of the leaves and the roots themselves. *Hill's Mat. Med.*

Or waiting *ginger* round the streets to go,  
And visit alehouse where ye first did grow.

*Pope's Dunciad.*

(2.) GINGER. See AMOMUM.

(3.) GINGER, in geography, one of Islands belonging to Britain, 10 miles Virgin Gorda.

\* GINGERBREAD. *n. f.* [*ginger* and kind of farinaceous sweetmeat made of that of bread or biscuit, sweetened with and flavoured with ginger and some of tick feeds. It is sometimes gilt.—An' one penny in the world, thou should'st buy *gingerbread*. *Shak.*—

Her currans there and goosebe spread,

With the enticing god of *gingerbrea*

—'Tis a loss you are not here, to parta  
wrecks frost, and eat *gingerbread* in a  
fire upon the Thames. *Swift.*

\* GINGERLY. *adv.* [I know not w rived.] Cautiously; nicely.—

What is't that you

Took up so *gingerly*?

\* GINGERNESS. *n. f.* Niceness; t *Dis.*

GINGIDIUM, in botany, a genus gynia order, belonging to the pentandr plants. The calyx is an involucrem, near leaves; the corolla consists of 5 ov lated petals; the stamina are 5 filam antheræ roundish; the pericarpium truncated fruit, with 8 striæ; there are ted seeds, in some places plane, and convex.

GINGIRO, or ZINDERO, a barbar dom of Africa, SW. of Abyssinia. See

GINGIVÆ, the gums. See GUMS.

\* GINGIVAL. *adv.* [*gingiva*, Lat. ing to the gums.—Whilst the Italians fit a thread in their pronunciation between so to sweeten it, they make the occlude especially the *gingival*, softer than we d a little of perviousness. *Holser.*

\* GINGLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1 rebounding noise. 2. Affectation in the periods.

(1.) \* To GINGLE. *v. n.* To shake sharp shrill clattering noise should be no  
Her infant grandame's whistle next  
The bells the *gingled*, and the whistle

(2.) \* To GINGLE. *v. n.* 1. To utter clattering noise; to utter a sharp noise successful.—

The foot grows black that was with  
brown's;

And in thy pocket *gingling* halpence

*Gay*

Once, we confess, beneath the patrio  
From the crack'd bag the dropping gun  
And *gingling* down the backstairs, told  
Old Cato is as great a rogue as you.

2. To make an affected sound in perio dence.

\* GINGLYMOID. *adj.* [*gingivæ* & 2 Resembling a ginglymus; approaching t lymphus.—The malleus lies along, fixed to panum, and on the other end is joined t

le, or *ginglymoid* joint. *Holder's Eleb.*

**PLYMUS.** *n. f.* A mutual indenting into each others cavity, of which the *stance.* *Wifeman.*

**PMUS.** See **ANATOMY, Index.**  
a town of Germany, in Pomerania, of Bergen.

, a town of Germany, in the count-Munzenburg, 3 miles WNW. of the Maine, and 11 W. of Hanau.

See **MAURITIA.**  
town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra, of Teram.

**P.** *n. f.* [*γῆρας*.] A nag; a mule; a breed. Hence, according to some, erroneously, a Spanish *gennet*, impen for *giannel*.

in botany: A genus of the monocelting to the dodecandria class of n the natural method ranking with n the order is doubtful. The calyx c parts; the petals six; the capsule adivalyed, coloured, and polysper-

**ENG.** *n. f.* [I suppose *Chinese*.] A root into Europe, of a brownish colour, and somewhat yellowish within; and fine, that it seems almost transparent a very agreeable and aromatick not very strong. Its taste is acrid k, and has somewhat bitter in it. om China and America. The Chi- root at three times its weight in sil-

NG, in botany. See **PANAX.**  
**STORFF,** a town of Austria, 5 of Ebenfurth.

**STORFF,** a town of Austria, 6 m. erfurth.

ce of Scotland, on the N. coast of pinshay.

a town of Turkey in Diarbek.

or **GEDDAH,** a sea-port of Arabia, ft of the Red Sea. It is the port of arries on a good trade. Lon. 39. 30. N.

town of Transylvania, near Maros, of Mfilenbach.

, or **BEMBO, Flavio,** the celebrated: **Mariner's Compals.** See **BEMBO,**

**IA,** two towns of Naples: 1. in the zzo Ultra, 7 miles SE. of Celano. **lari,** 14 miles SSW. of Conversano. town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; **Vicotera.**

**O,** Lucas. See **JORDANO.**

**I,** a town of Walachia, on the N. nube; near which the Russians de- ks, on the 2d June, 1771; killing 5000 ng 180 pieces of cannon, with ar- es for 30,000. It is 40 miles SW. and 235 NNW. of Constantinople.

**IO, ST,** or **ST GEORGE,** a strong pine republic, and suburb of Mun- . of Mincio. It was taken by the Bonaparte, on the 15th Sept. 1796,

after an obstinate resistance from the Austrians, who lost 2500 men and 20 pieces of cannon. On the 15th Jan. 1797, Gen. Provera penetrated thus far with 6000 men to relieve Mantua, but was forced to surrender next day, with his whole troops, provisions, ammunition, &c.

(2.) **GIORGIO, ST,** a village of Maritime Austria, in Dalmatia, in the isle of Lefina. Roman urns are found in a hill near it.

(3, 4.) **GIORGIO, ST,** a commune and village of Maritime Austria, in the Veronese.

(5.) **GIORGIO, ST, IN ALGA,** an island of Maritime Austria, W. of Venice; so named from the sea-ware on its coast. It is inhabited by Carmelite friars. Its church and convent were burnt in 1716.

(6.) **GIORGIO, ST, MAGGIONE,** a beautiful island of Maritime Austria, on the coast of Venice, inhabited by Benedictine Monks since A. D. 982. It has a magnificent church with a marble front, fine statues and paintings; a convent and library.

**GIORGIONE,** an illustrious Venetian painter, born in 1478. He received his first instructions from John Bellino; but studying afterwards the works of Leonardo da Vinci, he soon surpassed them both, being the first among the Lombards, who found out the admirable effects of strong-light and shadows. Titian became his rival in this art; and excelled him. The most valuable piece of Giorgione in oil is that of Christ carrying his cross, now in the church of San Rovo in Venice; where it is held in great veneration. He died of the plague, in 1511.

**GIORNICO,** a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Uri; 13 miles N. of Bellinzona.

**GIOSEPPINO,** an eminent painter, so called by way of contraction from *Ciuseppe d' Arpino, i. e. Joseph of ARPINO,* the town where he was born, in 1560. Being carried to Rome very young, and employed by painters then at work in the Vatican to grind their colours, he soon made himself master of the elements of design. His wit and humour gained him the favour of popes and cardinals, who employed him. Gregory XIII. showed him great respect; and Lewis XIII. made him a knight of St Michael. He acquired a light and agreeable manner of designing, though De Piles says, his style neither partook of true nature nor of the antique. His battles in the Capitol are the most esteemed of all his pieces. He died at Rome in 1640.

**GIOSTAH,** a town of Africa, in Mozambique, on a bay near Sofala.

**GIOTTO,** an ingenious painter, sculptor, and architect of Florence, born in 1276. He was the disciple of Cimabue; but far superior to his master in the air of his heads, the attitude of his figures, and in the tone of his colouring; though he could not express liveliness in the eyes, tenderness in the flesh, or strength in the muscles of his naked figures. He was principally admired for his works in mosaic; the best of which is over the grand entrance of St Peter's church at Rome. Alberti says, that in that piece, the expression of fright and amazement of the disciples, at seeing St Peter walk upon the water is so excellent, that each of them exhibits some characteristic sign of his

his terror. He died in 1336, and the city of Florence honoured his memory with a statue of marble over his tomb.

GIOVANAZZO. See GIOVENAZZO.

(1.) GIOVANNI, ST., a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Lario.

(2.) GIOVANNI, ST., a village of Maritime Austria, in the isle of Brazza, in Dalmatia.

GIOVELLINO, a town of the French republic, in the island and dep. of Corsica; 25 miles E. of Corte.

GIOVENAZZO, a town and fort of Naples, in the province of Bari, near the sea; 11 miles ESE. of Trani. Lon. 16. 50. E. Lat. 41. 26. N.

\* To GIP. *v. a.* To take out the guts of herrings. *Bailey.*

(1.) GIPPING, a river of Suffolk, which joins the Orwell, and falls into the Stoure.

(2.) GIPPING, a small town in Suffolk.

\* GIPSY. *n. s.* [Corrupted from *Egyptian*; for when they first appeared in Europe, they declared, and perhaps, truly, that they were driven from Egypt by the Turks. They are now mingled with all nations.] 1. A vagabond who pretends to foretell futurity, commonly by palmistry or physiognomy.—The butler, though he is sure to lose a knife, a fork, or a spoon every time his fortune is told him, shuts himself up in the pantry with an old gipsy for above half an hour. *Addison.*

A frantick gipsy now, the house he haunts,  
And in wild phrases speaks dissembled wants.

*Prior.*

In this still labyrinth around her lie  
Spells, philters, globes, and spheres of palmistry;  
A sigil in his hand the gipsy bears,  
In th' other a prophetick sieve and sheers.

*Garth's Dispensat.*

I, near yon stile, three fallow gipsies met;  
Upon my hand they cast a poring look,  
Bid me beware, and thrice their heads they shook.

*Gay.*

2. A reproachful name for a dark complexion.—Laura, to his lady, was but a kitchen-wench; Dido a dowdy; Cleopatra a gipsy; Helen and Hero hidings and harlots. *Sbat.* 3. A name of slight reproach to a woman.—The widow play'd the gipsy, and so did her confidant too, in pretending to believe her. *L'Esrange.*

A slave I am to Clara's eyes:  
The gipsy knows her pow'r and flies. *Prior.*

GIRAFFE. See CERVUS, § I, N° iii.

GIRAGLIA, a small island near the N. coast of Corsica, 23 miles N. of Bastia.

GIRALD BARRY, or } See BARRY, N° 4.  
GIRALD OF WALES, }

(1.) GIRALDI, Lilio Gregorio, an ingenious critic, and one of the most learned men that modern Italy has produced, born at Ferrara in 1479. He was at Rome when it was plundered by the emperor Charles V.; and having thus lost all he had, and being tormented by the gout, he struggled through life with ill fortune and ill health. He wrote, nevertheless, 17 performances, which were collected and published at Basil, in 2 vols folio in 1580, and at Leyden in 1696. *Cassabon*, *Thuanus*, and other authors of the first rank, have bestowed the highest eulogies on him.

(2.) GIRALDI, John Baptist Cantio, an Italian

poet of the same family with the pre-  
x.) born in 1504. He was secretary  
of Ferrara, and professor of Rhetoric;  
died in 1573. His works, which con-  
tragedies, were collected and published  
by his son Celso Giralidi, in 1585.  
him among the best tragic writers li-  
duced.

GIRALDUS CAMBRENSIS. See B.  
GIRAN, a town of Algiers, 25 m. S.  
GIRANCOURT, a town of France  
of Vosges, 5 miles W. of Epinal.

GIRAPIETRA, a town of the ill  
16 miles SW. of Settia.

GIRAR, a fort of Indostan, in M.  
GIRARDON, Francis, a celebrate

chitect and sculptor, born at Tro  
Lewis XIV, being informed of his  
sent him to Rome with a pension of  
At his return into France, he labo  
royal palaces, and the gardens of  
Trianon; where there are many of  
bronze and in marble, from the desig  
le Brun. The mausoleum of cardinal  
in the Sorbonne, and the equestrian f  
is XIV. at the Place de Vendome, s  
tue and horse are cast in one piece,  
his best performances. He was prof  
and chancellor, of the Academy of  
Sculpture; and inspector-general of  
done in sculpture. He died in 1715.

\* GIRASOLE. *n. s.* [*girafol.*]  
herb turnsol. 2. The opal stone.

GIRCH, a river of N. Wales, in  
shire, running into the sea near Pull

GIRCHSBECK, a town of Holf  
SSW. of Segeborg, and 6 SSW. of

\* GIRD. *n. s.* [from the verb.]  
pang: it may come from the *senfati*  
a bandage or girdle drawn hard sud  
word is now seldom used, unless the  
mology be admitted.—

Sweet king! the bishop hath a  
For shame, my lord of Winchest

—Conscience by this means is free  
fearful girds and twinges which the  
*Tillotson.*—He has the glory of h  
when he doth well, to set against th  
girds of it when he doth amiss. *Goa*

(1.) \* To GIRD. *v. a.* pret. *girded*,  
*dan*, Saxon.] 1. To bind round.—I  
earth upon their heads, and *girded* th  
sackcloth. 2 *Mac. x. 3.* 2. To put  
round or bind.—Cords of the big  
thread were fastened to bandages, w  
men had *girt* round my neck. *Swift*  
ten by binding.—He *girt* his was like  
him. 1 *Mac. iii. 25.*—

My bow and thunder, my alm  
*Gird* on, and sword upon thy pu

No, let us rise at once, *gird* on  
And, at the head of our remainin  
Attack the foe.

The combatant too late the fir  
When now the sword is *girded* to



n, and set your knee against my foot;  
 verdon of that duty done,  
 with the valiant sword of York.

*Shak. Henry VI.*

The son appear'd,  
 impotence. *Milton's Par. Lost.*  
 o habit; to clothe.—I girded thee  
 e linen, and I covered thee with silk.

ene there keeps the ward,  
 finevine gown, by night and day,  
 of the souls that pass the downward

*Dryden.*

round as a garment.—  
 with what skill they had, together

ir waist: vain covering, if it hide  
 , and dreaded shame! *Milton.*  
 ; to equip.—

o coast of Jordan he directs  
 ps, girded with snaky wiles. *Milton.*  
 ; to incircle.—

That Nyctian isle,  
 he river Triton, where old Cham  
 hea and her florid son  
 chus, from his stepdame Rhea's eye.

*Milton.*

ch; to gibe.—  
 ov'd, he will not spare to gird the

*Shak.*

TRD. *v. n.* [Of this word in this sense  
 he original; it may be formed by a  
 ry transposition from *gride* or *cut*.]  
 :ornful jest; to gibe; to sneer.—  
 :ondred error growth

ut critics gird. *Drayton.*

forts take a pride to gird at me: the  
 ooith compounded clay, man, is not  
 t any thing that tends to laughter  
 invent, or is invented on me: I am  
 y in myself, but the cause that wit is

*Shak. Henry IV.*

DER. *n. f.* [from *gird*.] In architecture,  
 ece of timber in a floor. Its end is  
 d into the summers, or breast sum-  
 e joists are framed in at one arm to

arris.—The girders are also to be of  
 tling the summers and ground-plates  
 the back girder need not be so strong

irder. *Moxon's Mech. Exer.*  
 ighty girders which the fabrick bind,  
 robust and vast in order join'd.

*Blackmore.*

RS. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*. By  
 rebuilding London, they must not lie  
 inches into the walls, and their ends  
 ys laid in loam, &c.

DI.E. *n. f.* [*gyrde*, Saxon.] 1. Any  
 ound the waist, and tied or buckled.  
 ill I make the beds of roses,  
 usand fragrant posies;

owers, and a girdle,

d all with leaves of myrtle. *Shak.*

ive there is somewhat amiss, until  
 heir girdle. *Brown's Vulgar Err.*—  
 his mantle, girdle, sword, and bow,

ART II.

On him his heart and soul he did bestow.

*Cowley.*

2. Enclosure; circumference.—

Surpise within the girdle of these walls  
 Are now confin'd two mighty monarchies.

*Shak. Henry V.*

3. The zodiack.—Great breezes in great circles,  
 such as are under the girdle of the world, do re-  
 refrigerate. *Bacon.*

(2.) The GIRDLE, [*Cingulus* or *Zona*,] in anti-  
 quity, was a belt or band of leather or other mat-  
 ter, tied about the reins to keep that part more  
 firm and tight. It was anciently the custom for  
 bankrupts and other insolvent debtors to put off  
 and surrender their girdle in open court. The  
 reason was, that our ancestors used to carry all  
 their necessary utensils, as purse, keys, &c. tied  
 to the girdle; whence the girdle became a symbol  
 of the estate. History relates that the widow of  
 Philip I. duke of Burgundy, renounced her right  
 of succession by putting off her girdle upon the  
 duke's tomb. The Romans always wore a girdle  
 to tuck up the tunica when they had occasion to  
 do any thing: this custom was so general, that  
 such as went without girdles, and let their gowns  
 hang loose, were reputed idle, dissolute, perions.

(3.) GIRDLE, MAIDEN'S, or VIRGIN'S. It  
 was the custom among the Greeks and Romans  
 for the husband to untie his bride's girdle. Ho-  
 mer, lib. xi. of his *Odyssey*, calls the girdle *μαρ-  
 τυριον ζωναν, maid's girdle*. Festus relates, that it was  
 made of sheep's wool, and that the husband un-  
 tied it in bed: he adds, that it was tied in the  
 Herculean knot; and that the husband unloued  
 it, as a happy presage of his having as many chil-  
 dren as Hercules, who at his death left 70 behind  
 him.

(4.) GIRDLE OF VENUS. The poets attributed  
 to Venus a particular kind of girdle called *CESTUS*,  
 to which they annexed a faculty of inspiring the  
 passion of love. See *CESTUS*, § 2.

\* To GIRDLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To  
 gird; to bind as with a girdle.—

Lay the gentle babe, girdling one another  
 Within their innocent alabaster arms. *Shak.*

2. To inclose; to shut in; to environ.—

Those sleeping stones,  
 That as a waist do girdle you about. *Shak.*

Let me look back upon thee, O thou wall,  
 That girdlest in those wolves. *Shak. Timon.*

\* GIRDLEBELT. *n. f.* [*girdle* and *belt*.] The  
 belt that encircles the waist.—

Nor did his eyes less longingly behold  
 The girdlebelt, with nails of burnish'd gold.

*Dryden's Amiel.*

GIRDLE NESS, a cape on the E. coast of Scot-  
 land, 2 miles E. of Aberdeen.

\* GIRDLER. *n. f.* [from *girdle*.] A maker of  
 girdles.

\* GIRE. *n. f.* [*gyrus*, Latin.] A circle descri-  
 bed by any thing in motion. See *GYRE*.

GIREST, or } a town of Persia, in Kerman;  
 GIRET, } 30 miles S. of Ferabat. Lon-  
 57. 55. E. Lat. 27. 50. N.

GIRGASHITES, or GERGESENES, an ancient  
 people of Canaan, whose habitation was beyond  
 the sea of Tiberias, where we find some relics of  
 their

K k k

their name in the city of GERGESA, upon the lake of Tiberias. The Jewish rabbies inform us, that when Joshua first came into the land of Canaan, the Gergashites resolved rather to forsake their country than submit to the Hebrews, and accordingly retired into Africa. Nevertheless, it is certain that a great number of them staid behind, since Joshua (xxiv. 11.) informs us, that he subdued the Gergashites, and they whom he overcame were certainly on this side Jordan. See GADARENES.

GIRGE, a town of Egypt, capital of Said, 400 yards from the Nile, and 3 miles in circumference. It has several mosques, bazars, and squares; and lies 160 miles N. of Syene, and 215 S. of Cairo. Lon. 49. 8. E. of Ferro. Lat. 26. 30. N.

GIRGENTI, a town of Sicily, which occupies part of the site of the ancient AGRIGENTUM. It has only one street fit for carriages, though it has about 15,000 inhabitants. The only antiquities are a Latin inscription of the time of the Antonines, relative to some association between Agrigentum and Lilybæum; and a piece of ancient masonry in the foundations of a church said to be the remains of a temple of Jupiter. At some distance, on the old ground in the vale, stands the cathedral, a clumsy building patched up by barbarous architects with various discordant parts. The baptismal font is made out of an ancient sarcophagus faced with very beautiful basso-relievos. This see is the richest in Sicily, but is less enlightened than the rest of the island. Among the curiosities belonging to the cathedral is an Etruscan vase of rare size and preservation. There are also some golden pateras of extreme rarity. The monastery of San Nicolo is admirably situated on a little eminence in the centre of the city. The range of hills towards the SE. sinks gradually, so as to admit a noble reach of sea and of plain, terminated on each side by thick groves of fruit-trees. Above appear the remains of ancient grandeur, wonderfully contrasted with the humble straw cottages built at their feet. In the orchard of this convent is a square building with pilasters, supposed to have been part of the palace of the Roman prætor. Girgenti has a harbour, formed by a pier carried out in 3 sides of an octagon, with a battery at the head; the light-house is erected on the cliffs on shore. The work is strong and neat, but the Sinocco commands it entirely, and drives in great quantities of sand, which will in time choak up the port. Ships of burden find it difficult to get in, but the magazines in the rocks along the shore are very spacious. Girgenti is seated on the St Baife, 3 miles from the sea, and 47 S. of Palermo. Lon. 13. 24. E. Lat. 37. 28. N.

GIRIA, a town in Cefalonia.

\* GIRL. *n. f.* [About the etymology of this word there is much question: *Meric Casaubon*, as is his custom, derives it from *sign* of the same signification; *Minshew* from *garrula*, Latin, a prattler, or *girella*, Italian, a weathercock; *Junius* thinks that it comes from *berlodes*, Welsh, from which, says he, *barlot* is very easily deduced. *Skinner* imagines that the Saxons, who used *ceorl* for a man, might likewise have *ceorla* for a woman, though no such word is now found. Dr *Hickes* derives it most probably from the Islandick *karlinna*, a wo-

man.] A young woman, or female child. *unlugg'd days was my wife a girl.*

I will love thee ne'er the less, n

The foole Amphimachus, to golde to be his wracke,

Proude *girl* like, that doth ever t upon her backe.

A weather-beaten lover, but of Is sport for every *girl* to practise

Tragedy should blust as much To the low mimick follies of a fa

As a grave matron would to dane A boy, like thee, would make

But oh! a *girl*, like her, must be

\* GIRLISH. *adj.* [from *girl*.] S youthful.—In her *girlish* age she kept moor. *Carew*.

\* GIRLISHLY. *adv.* [from *girlish* manner.

\* To GIRN. *v. n.* It seems to be of *grim*. It is still used in Scotland, to a crabbed, captious, or peevish

GIROMAGNY, a town of France of the Upper Rhine; 6 miles NW.

(1.) GIRON, a town of Africa Coast.

(2.) GIRON, ST, a town of France, in the dep. of Arriège, and ci-de of Couferans, 3 miles S. of St Lazer E. Lat. 42. 53. N.

GIRONA. See GERONA.

(1.) GIRONDE, a dep. of France part of the ci-devant province of Gui ed on the NE. by the dep. of Lower the E. by those of Dordogne, and ronne; on the S. by that of Landes W. by the Sea. Bourdeaux is the

(2.) GIRONDE, a river of France, ed by the union of the Garonne and miles N. of Bourdeaux, and runs th hove department (N° 1.) into the a course of 27 miles NNW.

(3.) GIRONDE, a town of France, (N° 1.) 4½ m. W. of Reolle, and 9

GIRONDISTS, a political party who flourished in the first stage of it so named from the department of which their leading members were called also BRISSOTINES, from *Brissot* *rulists* from their wishing for a federal See REVOLUTION.

GIRONELLA, a town of Spain 7 miles ENE. of Solsona.

GIRONNA. See GERONA.

GIRONNE, or } in heraldry a cc GIRONNY, } divided into giron lar figures, meeting in the centre and alternately colour and metal.

\* GIRROCK. *n. f.* [*acus major* fish. *DiB.*

GIRSBY, a village in Yorkshire rum.

(1.) \* GIRT. *part. pass.* [from *Y*

(2.) \* GIRT. *n. f.* [from the verb by which the saddle or burthen is f horse.—

es old Hobson, death has broke his  
; alas! hath laid him in the dirt.

*Milton.*  
r bandage.—The most common way  
is by that of the *gird*, which *gird* hath  
the middle, and the ends are laced  
her. *Wijeman's Surv.*

*r. v. n.* [from *gird*.] To *gird*; to  
to encircle. Not proper.—  
bread ocean, undulating wide  
the radiant line that *girds* the globe.

*Thomson.*  
*H. n. f.* [from *gird*.] *r.* A band by  
iddle is fixed upon the horse—  
iddle turn'd round, or the *girths*

;  
in the ground, woe for his sake,  
is found. *Ben Jonson's Underwoods.*

*girths* could bear the load,  
; high celestial road;

oppress'd, would break his *girth*,  
be lumber from the earth. *Swift.*

to gallops on alone;

are with his follow'rs strown;

ke the *girth*, and that a bone. *Swift.*  
pals measured by the girdle, or en-  
lage.—He's a lusty jolly fellow that  
three yards in the *girth*. *Addison.*

*ITH. v. a.* To bind with a *girth*.

*IN*, a parish of Scotland, in Kirkcud-  
6 miles NW. of Kirkcudbright; a-  
s long from N. to S. and from 3 to

he climate, soil, and surface are very  
; the air is pure and healthy. Agricul-  
ture improved. About 1000 acres are  
gardens, orchards, and plantations.

ion, in 1792, stated by the rev. Mr  
n his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was  
had increased no less than 1363 since

3 to the cotton and other manufact-  
ed at GATEHOUSE, which contained  
ants, in 1792.

*TOWN*, an Indian town of the Uni-  
the North Western Territory.

*TAN*, a parish of Scotland, in Air-  
s long from SW. to NE. and from

. Two thirds of the surface are hilly,  
reen. The soil is various, but chiefly  
ould. In the low grounds the air is

d, and the crops early; but in the  
e climate is cold and moist, and vege-  
 Husbandry is much improved, and

are mostly included. Oats, barley,  
, and potatoes are the chief produce.  
bounds, but is little used. Sea ware  
n the coast, and is used both for ma-  
p. The population, in 1791, stated

as. Thomson, in his report to Sir J.  
1795, and had increased 532 since  
number of sheep was 4280, and of

1700.  
*TAN*, a river of Scotland, which rises  
art of Airshire, and runs into the sea  
*Girvan*, N° 3.

*W*, a post town and burgh of barony in  
ish, (N° 1.) at the mouth of the *Gir-*  
pposite to Ailsa. Its harbour is good

but might be much improved. Vessels can get  
out to sea with almost any wind. *Girvan* contains  
above 1000 inhabitants, and is governed by two  
baillies and a council of ten. Above 100 looms  
were employed in weaving cotton cloth, in 1791.  
Leather and shoes are also manufactured. *Gir-*  
van lies 14 miles SSW. of Ayr, and is 27 NNW.  
of Wigton.

*GIRY*, Lewis, a French lawyer, and one of the  
first members of the French academy, was born  
at Paris, in 1595. He translated Tertullian's A-  
pology and several other works; and died in 1665,  
aged 70.

*GISBORN*, a town in the West Riding of  
Yorkshire, 37 miles SE. of Manchester, 60 W.  
of York, and 219½ NNW. of London. Lon. 2.  
22. W. Lat. 53. 55. N.

*GISBOROUGH*, a town of England, in the  
N. Riding of Yorkshire, on the road from Whit-  
by to Durham, 4 miles from the mouth of the  
Tees, where is a bay and harbour for ships. It

had formerly an abbey, and a church, which, from  
its ruins, seems to have been equal to the best ca-  
thedrals in England. The soil is fertile, and has  
a constant verdure, adorned with field flowers al-  
most all the year. There is some iron and mines

of alum, which were first discovered in the reign  
of K. James I. and have been since very much im-  
proved. Sir Paul Pindar, who first farmed them,  
paid rents to the king 12,000l. to the Earl Mus-  
grave 1540l. and to Sir William Penniman 600l.

and had 800 men by sea and land in constant pay;  
yet he was a considerable gainer, as there was  
then scarce any other to be had, and the price  
was 26l. a ton; but as there are now several o-  
ther alum works in this country, the works here

have for some years been neglected. *Gisborough*  
is 18 miles E. of Stockton, and 22 NW. of Whit-  
by; but its distance from London, by sea, stated

at 224 miles, is by Mr Cruttwell, said to be 248  
N. and by Dr Brookes and J. Walker, only 155  
N. by W. Lon. 0. 55. W. Lat. 54. 35. N.

*GISCO*, son of Hamilca the Carthaginian gen-  
eral, was banished from Carthage by the influence  
of his enemies. Being afterwards recalled, he was  
made general in Sicily against the Corinthians, a-  
bout A. A. C. 309; and by his success and intre-  
pidity, he obliged them to sue for peace. See

*CARTHAGE*, § 5.

\* *To GISE Ground, v. a.* Is when the owner  
of it does not feed it with his own stock, but takes  
in other cattle to graze. *Bailey.*

*GISGI*, a town of Transylvania, near Maros.  
*GISHUBEL*, a town of Bohemia, 20 miles E.  
NE. of Koniggratz.

*GIZING*, a town and fort of Hungary.  
*GISLAVY*, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

\* *GISLE*. Among the English Saxons, signifies  
a pledge: thus *Fred'sle* is a pledge of peace;  
*Gylfebert* an illustrious pledge; like the Greek *Ho-*  
*merus*. *Camden.*

*GISLEN*, Auger, lord of *BUSBEC*, a man il-  
lustrious on account of his embassies, was born at  
Commines, in 1512; and educated at the univer-  
sities of Louvain, Paris, Venice, Bologna, and  
Padua. He was engaged in several important ne-  
gociations, and particularly was twice sent am-  
bassador by the king of the Romans to the empe-  
ror

ror Soliman. He collected inscriptions, bought MSS. searched after rare plants, inquired into the nature of animals, and, in his 2d journey to Constantinople, carried with him a painter, that he might be able to communicate to the curious the figures of the plants and animals that were little known in the west. He wrote a Discourse of the state of the Ottoman empire, and a relation on his two journeys to Turkey, which are much esteemed. He died in 1592.

GISORS, a town of France, in the dept. of Eure, and ci-devant province of Normandy, seated on the Ept; 27 miles NE. of Evreux, and 28 SE. of Rouen. Lon. 1. 43. E. Lat. 49. 17. N.

GISSA, in ancient geography, an island of Dalmatia, now called PAGO.

GISTAIN, a town of Spain, in Arragon, among the Pyrenees, near France, 15 miles N. of Ainsa.

GISTITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Boleflau, 4 miles N. of Nimburn.

GISUND, a town of Norway, in Drontheim, 44 miles NW. of Drontheim.

\* GITH. *n. f.* [*nigella.*] An herb called Guinea pepper.

GITI, a town of Asia, in Thibet, 234 miles NNE. of Delhi. Lon. 79. 36. E. Lat. 32. 10. N.

GITSCHIN, a town of Bohemia, 22 miles N. W. of Koniggratz, and 44 NE. of Prague.

GITTAIM, a city of Benjamin, to which the Reerothites fled after the death of K. Saul. It was rebuilt after the return from the captivity.

GITTITES, the people of Gath. See GATH.

\* GITTITH, a Hebrew word occurring frequently in the Psalms, and generally translated *wine presses*. Some think it signifies a sort of musical instrument; others, that the psalms with this title were sung after the vintage; and others, that the hymns of this kind were invented in the city of Gath. Calmet is of opinion, that they were sung by virgins born in Gath: Psal. viii. 1. lxxxii. 1. lxxxiv. 1. Dr Hammond thinks that the psalms with this title were all set to the same tune, and made on the defeat of Goliath the Gittite.

GIVA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Natolia, 32 miles SE. of Mileta.

GIVANIROTONDO, a town of Naples, in the Capitanata, 9 miles W. of Mont St Angelo.

GIUBA, FORT, an old castle of Maritime Austria, in the Isle of Pago, and prov. of Quarnaro.

GIUDECCA, a district of Venice.

GIUDUCCA, or ZUECCA. See ZUECCA.

(1.) \* To GIVE. *v. a.* preter. *gave*; part. pass. *given*. [*gifan*, Saxon.] 1. To bestow; to confer without any price or reward; not to sell.—I had a master that *gave* me all I could ask, but thought fit to take one thing from me again. *Temple.*—

Constant at church and change; his gains were sure,  
His *givings* rare, five farthings to the poor.

While tradesmen starve these Philomels are gay;  
For generous lords had rather *give* than pay.

Half useless doom'd to live,  
Pray'rs and advice are all I have to *give*.

2. To transmit from himself to another in speech, or writing; to deliver.—whom thou gavest to be with me of the tree, and I did eat. *Gen.* were eating and drinking, marrying marriage. *Matt.* xxiv. 38.—Those that fast not only every week, but also count of the whole year was *give* Thursday before Christmas. *Gray* *give* an account of these phenomena Aristotle advises not pacts to put false and impossible into their poetical licence to run out into wildness.

3. To put into one's possession; to import; to communicate.—*Give* for our lamps are gone out. *Matt.* *gives* us many children and friends away; but takes none away to gain. *Temple.*—*Give* me, says Arch to stand firm, and I will remove thee.—If the agreement of men first *give* any one's hands, or put a crown that almost must direct its conveyance.

4. To pay a price or reward, or in such that a man hath will be *give* for his. If you did know to whom I *gave* If you did know for whom I *gave* And would conceive for what I *gave* And how unwillingly I left thee You would abate the strength of force.

—He would *give* his nuts for a p and exchange his sheep for shells, sparkling pebble. *Locke.* 5. To yield hold.—Philo, Alexander's father, against a prisoner at a time when he and seemed to *give* small attention, after sentence was pronounced, to the king, somewhat stirred, said, you appeal? The prisoner answer'd lip, when he *gave* no ear, to Phil shall *give* ear. *Baron.*—Constantia for having so tamely *given* an ear to *Speltator.* 6. To quite; to yield place, then stranger, to an honourable. 7. To confer; to impart.—I will *give* thee a son also of her. *Gen.* can *give* that to another which it *Bramb.* against *Hobbes*—What best some places, I *give* to others who not originally. *Dryden's Fob.* 8. To yield without retention.—

All clad in skins of beasts the j *Give* to the wanton winds their i

9. To grant; to allow.— 'Tis *given* me once again to bet

—He has not *given* Luther fairer pl 10. To yield; not to deny.—

I *gave* his wife proposal w Nay, urg'd him to go on; the st Will ruin him. *Row's Amb.*

11. To afford; to supply.—This is the fear of death in them which we and *gave* them courage to all advent —*Give* us also sacrifices and burnt

Sacrifice unto the Lord. *Ex. x. 25.* 12. answer; to commission.—

Prepare the libation and the solemn pray's; give thy friend to shed the sacred wine.

*Pope's Odys.*—God himself requireth the sitting of his hands in prayers; and hath given the understanding, that the wicked, although they shall not be heard. *Hooker.*—

Give me to know this foul rout began, who set it on. *Shak.* For the weak shoot, which else would poorly rise,

The tree adopts, and lifts into the skies; the new pupil fostering juices flow, and forth the gems, and give the flow'rs to glow. *Tickel.*

—The applause and approbation I give your speeches. *Shak. Troil. and Cres.* 15. r; to vent; to pronounce.—

You must be the first that gives this sentence, as that suffers. *Shak. Meas. for Meas.*

Rhodians seeing their enemies turn their gave a great shout in derision of them.

*1 Hist.*—Let the first honest discoverer give a hint, that Wood's halpence have been and caution the poor people not to re-tem. *Swift.* 16. To exhibit; to shew.—

—Hence gives the impossibility of an eternal in any thing essentially alterable or cor-rupt. *Hale.* 17 To exhibit as the product of an action.—

The number of men being divided number of ship, gives 424 men a piece.

*104.* 18. To do any act of which the consequence reaches others.—As we desire to give no offence of judgment in others. *Barnet.* 19.

—To send forth as odours from any body oranges gives the rippling of the wind gives the finest more. *Bacon.* 20. To addict; to

—The Helots, of the other side, shutting their gates, gave themselves to bury their dead, their wounds, and rest their wearied bodies.—

After man began to grow to number, the first thing we read they gave themselves as the tiling of the earth and the feeding of the fowls. *Hooker.*—

Groves and hill altars were raised, in regard to the secret access which superstition gives, might have always been done with ease. *Hooker.*—

The duke is virtuous, mild, and too well given, to be afraid of any man's malice.

—To cry out on evil, or to work my downfall. *Shak.*

—To know him not, Cæsar, he's not dangerous: a noble Roman, and well given. *Shak.*

—The name is Falstaff: if that man should be given, he deceives me; for, Harry, I see it in his looks. *Shak.*—

Huniades, the scourge of the Turks, was dead long before; so was also: after whom succeeded others, given all to the world and ease. *Knalles's Hist.*—

—Though he was a pleasure, yet he was likewise desirous of pleasure. *Bacon's Hen.* VII.—

—He that gives his mind to the most High, will seek out all the secrets of all the ancients. *Eccly.* xxxix. 1.—

—He is much given to contemplation, and the viewing of this theatre of the world. *More against Atheism.*

—They who gave themselves to warlike action and enterprises, went immediately to the palace of Odin. *Temple.*—

—Men are given to this invidious humour of scoffing at personal beauties and defects. *L'Estrange.*—

—Besides, he is too much given to horseplay in his raillery; and comes to battle like a dictator from the plough. *Dryden.*—

—I have some business of importance with her; but her husband is so horribly given to be jealous. *Dryden.*

—What can I refuse to a man so charitably given? *Dryden.* 21. To resign; to yield up.—

—Pitching ourselves in the midst of the greatest wilderness of waters, without victual, we give ourselves for lost men, and prepared for death. *Bacon's New Atl.*—

—Who say, I care not, those I give for lost; And to instruct them will not quit the cost. *Herbert.*

—Who say, I care not, those I give for lost; And to instruct them will not quit the cost. *Herbert.*

Virtue give's for lost, Dearest and overthrown, as seem'd;

Like that self-begot'n bird From out her airy womb now teem'd.

—Since no deep within her gulph can hold Immortal vigour, though oppress'd and fail'd, I give not Heaven for lost. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

—For a man to give his name to Christianity in these days, was to list himself a martyr. *South.*—

—One's given himself for gone; you've watch'd your time, He fights this day unarm'd, without his rhyme. *Dryden.*

—The parents, after a long search for the body, gave him for drowned in one of the canals. *Speck.*

—As the hinder feet of the horse stuck to the mountain, while the body reared up in the air, the poet with great difficulty kept himself from sliding off his back, in so much that the people gave him for gone. *Guardian.* 22. To conclude; to suppose.—

Whence came you here, O friend, and whither bound? All gave you lost on far Cyclopean ground. *Garth's Ovid.*

23. To GIVE away. To alienate from one's self; to make over to another; to transfer.—

The more he got, the more he shewed that he gave away to his new mistress, when he betrayed his promises to the former. *Sidney.*—

If you shall marry, You give away this hand, and that is mine; You give away heav'n's vows, and those are mine; You give away myself, which is known mine. *Shak.*

Honest company, I thank you all, That have beheld me give away myself To this most patient, sweet, and virtuous wife. *Shak.*

—I know not how they sold themselves; but thou, like a kind fellow, gav'st thyself away gratis, and I thank thee for thee. *Shak. Henry IV.*—

—Love gives away all things, that so he may advance the interest of the beloved person. *Taylor's Rule.*—

But we who give our native rights away, And our enslav'd posterity betray.

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

—

Are now reduc'd to beg an alms, and go

On holidays to see a puppet-show. *Dryd. Juv.*

—Alas, said I, man was made in vain! How is he *given away* to misery and mortality! *Addison.*

—Theodosius made a private vow never to inquire after Constantia, whom he looked upon as *given away* to his rival, upon the day on which their marriage was to have been solemnized. *Addison.*

—Whatever we employ in charitable uses, during our lives, is *given away* from ourselves: what we bequeath at our death, is given from others only, as our nearest relations. *Atterbury.*

24. To *GIVE back.* To return; to restore.—Their vices perhaps *give back* all those advantages which their victories procured. *Atterbury.*

25. To *GIVE forth.* To publish; to tell.—Soon after it was *given forth*, and believed by many, that the king was dead. *Hayward.*

26. To *GIVE the hand.* To yield pre-eminence, as being subordinate or inferior.—Lessons being free from some inconveniences, whereunto sermons are more subject, they may in this respect no less take than in others they must *give the hand*, which betokeneth pre-eminence. *Hooker.* 27. To *GIVE over.* To leave; to quit; to cease.—Let novelty therefore in this *give over* endless contradictions, and let ancient customs prevail. *Hooker.*—It may be done rather than that be *given over.* *Hooker.*—

Never give her o'er;

For scorn at first makes after love the more.

*Sbak.*

—If Desdemona will return me my jewels, I will *give over* my suit, and repent my unlawful solicitation. *Othello.*—All the soldiers, from the highest to the lowest, had solemnly sworn to defend the city, and not to *give it over* unto the last man. *Knolles's Hist.*—Those troops which were levied, have *given over* the prosecution of the war. *Clarendon.*

But worst of all to *give her over,*

'Till she's as desperate to recover. *Hudibras.*

—A woman had a hen that laid every day an egg: she fancied that upon a larger allowance this hen might lay twice a day; but the hen grew fat, and *gave quite over* laying. *L'Esrange.*—Many have *given over* their pursuits after fame, either from the disappointments they have met, or from their experience of the little pleasure which attends it. *Spectator.* 28. To *GIVE over.* To addict; to attach to.—Zelma, govern and direct me; for I am wholly *given over* unto thee. *Sidney.*—

When the Babylonians had *given themselves over* to all manner of vice, it was time for the Lord, who had set up that empire, to pull it down. *Grew's Cosmol.*—I used one thing ill, or *gave myself* so much *over* to it, as to neglect what I owed either to God or the world. *Temple.* 29. To *GIVE over.* To conclude lost.—Since it is lawful to practise upon them that are forsaken and *given over,* I will adventure to prescribe to you.

*Suckling.*—

'Tis not amiss, e'er y' are *giv'n o'er,*

To try one desp'rate med'cine more;

And where your case can be no worse,

The desp'rate'st's the wisest course. *Hudibras.*

—The abbess, finding that the physicians had *given her over,* told her that Theodosius was just *gone before her,* and had sent her his benediction.

*Spectator.*—Her condition was now c  
rate, all regular physicians, and her  
lations, having *given her over.* *Arbut*

Yet this false comfort never *gives*  
That, whilst he creeps, his vig'rou  
can soar.

Not one foretell's I shall recover;  
But all agree to *give me over.*

30. To *GIVE over.* To abandon.—T  
uniformity throughout all churches, i  
ner of indifferent ceremonies, will be  
and therefore best to *give it over.* *Hook*  
melech, as one weary of the world, *ga*  
and betook himself to a solitary life, a  
monk. *Knolles.*—

Sleep hath forfook, and *giv'n me*  
To death's benumbing opium, as my

The cause for which we fought an  
So boldly, shall we now *give o'er?*

31. To *GIVE out.* To proclaim; to g  
utter.—The father's *gave it out* for a  
whatsoever Christ is said in Scripture to  
ceived, the same we ought to apply c  
manhood of Christ. *Hooker.*—

It is *given out*, that, sleeping in m  
A serpent stung me. So the whole c  
mark

Is, by forged process of my death,  
Rankly abused. *Sba*

One that *gives out* himself prince f  
Son of Polixenes, with his princel's.

—It hath been *given out*, by an hypocri  
who was the first master of my ship, tha  
with me out of England 22,000 piece  
per piece. *Raleigh.*—He *gave out* general  
for the assembly of his council for  
*Knolles's Hist.*—The night was disting  
the orders which he *gave out* to his a  
they should forbear all insulting of the  
*Addison.* 32. To *GIVE out.* To show  
appearance.—

His *givings out* were of an infinite c  
From his true meant design.

She that, so young, could *give c*  
seeming,

To seal her father's eyes up close as c  
33. To *GIVE up.* To resign; to quit;

—The people, weary of the miseries  
would *give him up*, if they saw him thrin

He has betray'd your business, and  
For certain drops of salt, your city R

—The sun, breaking out with his cheerf  
revived many, before ready to *give up*  
for cold, and gave comfort to them all.

*Hist.*—He found the lord Hopeton in tr  
the loss of the regiment of foot at Akton,  
the unexpected assurance of the *giving up*  
del-cattle. *Clarendon.*—Let us *give oursel*  
ly *up* to Christ in heart and desire. *Fayl*

—Such an expectation will never come  
therefore I'll e'en *give it up*, and go and  
self. *Collier.*—I can *give up* to the hist  
your country the names of so many gen  
heroes which croud their annals. *Dryd.*  
clares himself to be now satisfied to the  
in which he has *given up* the cause.

s made between several states disown-  
n to the land in the other's possession,  
common consent, *given up* their pre-  
their natural right. *Locke*.—If they *give*  
o their reasons, then they with them  
l earth and farther enquiry, and think  
o such thing as certainty. *Locke*.—We  
him *give up* again to the wild common  
whatever was more than would supply  
nencies of life. *Locke*.—

s surrender, since his father's death,  
*give up* Africk into Cæsar's hands,  
ke him lord of half the burning zone.

*Addis. Cato.*

to be honest men, *give up* your leaders,  
don shall descend on all the rest. *Cato*.  
h priest threatened to excommunicate a  
erland squire, if he did not *give up* to  
urch lands. *Addison's Freeholder*.—He  
festal deities acting in a confederacy a-  
s, and immediately *gave up* a cause  
excluded from all possibility of success.  
—An old gentleman, who had been en-  
n argument with the emperor, upon his  
ling him he wondered he would *give up*  
on when he had the better, I am never  
says he, to be confuted by one who is  
fifty legions. *Spectator*.—He may be  
o *give up* the clearest evidence. *Atterb.*  
stant health and longevity of men must  
p also, as a groundless conceit. *Bentley*.  
the physicians *giv'n up* all their hopes;  
they add a few days to a monarch?

*Rocue.*

people were obliged to demand peace,  
p to the Komans all their possessions in  
*butb*.—Every one who will not ask for  
ict of God in the study of religion, has  
n to fear he shall be left of God, and  
prey to a thousand prejudices, that he  
onsigned over to the follies of his own  
*utts*.—*Give yourselves up* to some hours

*Watts*. 34. *To GIVE up*. To abandon.  
be *given up* to believe lyes, some must  
*given up* to tell them. *Stillingf.*—Our  
urally *give themselves up* to every diver-  
b they are much accustomed to; and we  
id that play, when followed with assidu-  
esses the whole woman. *Guardian*.—A  
t no sooner communicates his works,  
imagined he is a vain young creature  
to the ambition of fame. *Pope*.—I am  
: this time to *give up* my whole applica-  
ner. *Pope*.—Persons who, through mis-  
chuse not to dress, should not, however,  
atness. *Clarissa*. 35. *To GIVE up*. To  
And Joab *gave up* the sum of the num-  
e people to the king. 2 *Sam*. xxiv. 9.—  
ints were confuted, and he could not  
them up. *Sewist*. 36. *To GIVE away*.  
; not to resist; to make room for. Pri-  
ets, with him, *gave away* to the common  
*arew*.—Perpetual pushing and assurance  
icuity out of countenance, and make a  
possibility *give away*. *Collier*.—

he had he spoken when the cloud *gave*  
y;

The mists flew upwards, and dissolv'd in day.

*Dryden's Æn.*

His golden helm *gives way* with stony blows,  
Batter'd and flat, and beaten to his brows. *Æn.*

37. The word *give* is used with great laxity, the  
general idea is that of transmitting from one to a-  
nother.

(2.) \* *To GIVE*. v. n. 1. To rush; to fall on;  
to give the assault. A phrase merely French, and  
not worthy of adoption.—

Your orders come too late, the fight's begun;

The enemy *gives on* with fury led. *Dryden.*

—Hannibal *gave upon* the Romans. *Hooke. Rom. H.*

2. To relent; to grow moist; to melt or soften;  
to thaw.—Some things are harder when they come  
from the fire, and afterwards *give* again, and  
grow soft; as the crust of bread, biscuit, sweet-  
meats, and salt. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Only a sweet and virtuous soul,

Like season'd timber, never *gives*;

But though the whole world turn to coal,

Then chiefly lives. *Herbert.*

—Unless it is kept in a hot house, it will so *give*  
again, that it will be better than raw malt. *Mor-*  
*timer*.—Before you carry your large cocks in,  
open them once, and spread them: hay is apt to  
*give* in the cock. *Mort*. 3. To move. A, Fr.  
phrase—

Up and down he traverses his ground,

Then nimbly shifts a thrust, then lends a wound;

Now back he *gives*, then rushes on amain.

*Daniel's C. War.*

4. *To GIVE in*. To go back; to give way. Not  
in use.—The charge was given with so well go-  
verned fury, that the left corner of the Scots bat-  
talion was enforced to *give in*. *Hays*. 5. *To*  
*GIVE into*. [A French phrase.] To adopt; to em-  
brace.—This is a geography particular to the me-  
dalists: the poets, however, have sometimes *given*  
*into* it, and furnish us with very good lights for  
the explication of it. *Addison*.—This consideration  
may induce a translator to *give into* those general  
phrases, which have attained a veneration in our  
language from being used in the Old Testament.

*Pope*.—The whole body of the people are either  
stupidly negligent, or else *giving in* with all their  
might to those very practices that are working  
their destruction. *Swift*. 6. *To GIVE off*. To  
cease; to forbear.—The punishment would be  
kept from being too much, if we *gave off* as soon  
as we perceived that it reaches the mind. *Luc*.

7. *To GIVE over*. To cease; to act no more.  
—If they will speak to the purpose, they must  
*give over*, and stand upon such particulars only  
as they can shew we have either added or abro-  
gated, otherwise than we ought, in the matter of  
church polity. *Hooker*.—Neither hath Christ,  
through union of both natures, incurred the  
damage of either; lest, by being born a man,  
we should think he hath *given over* to be God, or  
that because he continued God, therefore he can-  
not be man also. *Hooker*.—

*Give* not o'er to; to him again; intreat him,

Kneel down before him, hang upon his gown;

You are too cold. *Shak. Meas. for Meas.*

—The state of human actions is so variable, that to  
try things oft, and never to *give over*, doth woun-  
ders.





**GLACIATION.** *n. f.* [from *glaciate.*] The act of forming ice; ice formed.—Ice is plain upon the surface of water, but round in hail, which is hail-glaciation, and figured in its guttulous descent upon the air. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

**GLACIERS,** a name given to some very high ridges of ice among the ALPS. Mr Coxe divides these mountains, in general are composed of parallel chains, the highest of which are in the centre, and the others gradually decrease as they recede from thence. The central ridges are covered with pointed rocks; all the valleys, that are not absolutely perpendicular under perpetual snow and ice. On the sides of this ridge are fertile and cultivated lands interspersed with numerous villages, and by numerous streams. The elevated parts of the central chain are covered with snow: the declivities, excepting those that are extremely steep, have all a covering of ice as well as the intermediate parts being filled with vast quantities of ice, terminating in the cultivated valleys. The glaciers, though on a smaller scale, are the same as those chains that are at a distance from the centre: In those which are most remote, scarcely any snow, is observed, unless upon the most elevated summits; and the declivities, diminishing in height and ruggedness, are covered with verdure, until at last they terminate in small hills and plains. Thus the glaciers divide the mountains into two sorts; the first occupying the valleys in the bosom of the Alps, called **VALLEYS**; the second covering the declivities and the tops of the mountains. These are called by Mr Coxe **UPPER and LOWER GLACIERS.**

**UPPER GLACIERS,** THE LOWER, are by far the most numerous; some of them extending several miles in length. They do not communicate with each other, as has been generally supposed, but being parallel to the central chain; and being mostly in a transverse direction, are separated at the higher extremity by inaccessible ridges, and at the lower extend into the cultivated valleys. The thickness of the ice varies in different parts. In the glacier de Bois, which extends more than 15 miles in length, and upwards of 1000 feet, M. Saussure found it generally from 100 to 200 feet; but he was credibly informed that in some places it was not less than 600 feet, and in others more. These vast masses of ice usually rest upon the rocks, and are supported by their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath them, they are supported by large crevices, and have an appearance of walls, pyramids, &c. according to the position of the eye in viewing them. In those places where they lie upon even ground, they have only a gentle inclination, the surface of the ice is nearly uniform, the crevices being narrow, and the glacier being crossed by ridges on foot without any difficulty. The surface of the ice is rough and granulated, so that it is difficult to walk upon it, excepting such places as are deep descent. It is opaque, full of small stones, and of the size of a pea, very porous, and resembles a mixture of snow and water.

A vast quantity of stones and earth are brought down from the mountains upon the glaciers,

PART II.

and are by them thrown off on each side according to the descent of the ice. The place on which these rest is more hard and elevated than the rest of the ice, and is very difficult to walk upon; the earth is likewise laid upon them in such regular heaps, that it appears to have been done by art. This collection of earth and stones is termed by the natives the *Moraine*. Mr Coxe, who visited the glacier des Bois, informs us, that the appearance of it at a distance was so tremendous, that it seemed impracticable to cross it. Numerous and broad chasms intersected it in every direction; but entering upon it, the company found that courage and activity were only required to accomplish the task. They had large nails in their shoes and spiked sticks; which on this occasion were found to be particularly serviceable. Having passed the moraine, and descended upon the glacier itself, they found the ice softened by a warm wind which rendered it less slippery than usual. Having walked across it for about a quarter of an hour, they came again to the moraine, along which they continued their journey for half an hour, and then entered upon the great body of the glacier. "Here (says Mr Coxe,) it was curious to observe the numerous little rills produced by the collection of drops occasioned by the thawing of the ice on the upper part of the glacier: these little rills hollow out small channels, and, torrent-like, precipitate themselves into the chasms with a violent noise, increasing the body of waters formed by the melting of the interior surface, and finding an outlet under the immense arch of ice in the valley of Chamouni, from which the *Averon* rushes." As our traveller proceeded on his journey, he was surprised by the noise of a large fragment of rock which had detached itself from one of the highest needles, and bounded from one precipice to another with great rapidity; but before it reached the plain, it was almost reduced to dust. "Having proceeded about an hour (says he) we were astonished with a view more magnificent than imagination can conceive: hitherto the glaciers had scarcely answered my expectations, but now they far surpassed them. Nature had clad herself in all her terrors. Before us was a valley of ice 20 miles in extent, bounded by a circular glacier of pure unbroken snow, named *Taku*, which leads directly to the foot of Mount Blanc, and is surrounded by large conical rocks, terminating in sharp points like the towers of an ancient fortification; to the right rose a range of magnificent peaks, their intervals filled with glaciers; and far above the rest, the magnificent summit of Mount Blanc, his highest point obscured with clouds. He appeared of such immense magnitude, that, at his presence, the circumjacent mountains, however gigantic, seemed to shrink before him, and *hide their diminished heads.* In half an hour we arrived at the moraine, which form a boundary of the valley, crossed it, and proceeded upon a body of ice about three quarters of a mile broad. Here the ice was more even and free from chasms than in the great valley. We then passed a second moraine, and beyond that another mass of ice to a third moraine: descending from thence we came upon the last ridge of ice, broader considerably than the two former, and full of

211

Vol. 2

large chasms: it is separated from the rock only by a very narrow moraine. These moraines contain great quantities of crystal." They continued to ascend the valley of ice, the scene constantly increasing in magnificence and horror; and having walked about 3 miles on the ice, they arrived at last at the foot of the eminence named *Couvercle*, where they were obliged to quit the ice. The doing this was extremely dangerous, and at one place very tremendous. It was a bulging smooth rock, with a precipice of considerable depth terminated by a vast crevice in the ice, which seemed to stop all further progress: a small hollow in the middle, however, afforded room for one foot; and having fixed this, they sprung over to the other side, being helped and directed by the guides who went over first. Having gained the top of the *Couvercle*, they had a view of three of the glaciers, viz. that of *Talsfre* to the left, *L'Estaut* in front, and *Takul* on the right; all uniting in that great one called the *Glacier de Bois*. The *Couvercle* itself is a most extraordinary rock, having the appearance of a large irregular building with many sides; the substance of which is granite. Having reached the top, they were surprised with a thunder-storm, from whence they took shelter under an impending rock. The view was exceedingly magnificent; the glaciers appearing like a rugged expanse of frozen sea bounded by gigantic rocks, and terminated by Mount Blanc. A single rock appeared of a triangular figure covered with Alpine plants; and which, by reason of its contrast with the rugged and snowy mountains in the neighbourhood, has obtained the name of the *Garden*.—During this, as well as other excursions among the Alps, Mr Coxe had occasion to observe that the colour of the sky was of a much deeper blue than in the lower regions.

II. GLACIERS, THE UPPER, may be subdivided into those which cover the summits, and those which extend along the sides of the Alps. Those on the very summit, however, though they have the appearance of ice, are not so in reality, but consist entirely of snow hardened by the extreme cold. M. Saussure found that which covered the top of Mount Blanc to be penetrable, though with difficulty, by a stick; but below this hard crust was a soft snow without coherence. The sides are covered with a mixture of ice and snow; by reason of the superior power of the summer sun to dissolve the snow, which afterwards congeals into hard ice.

(2.) GLACIERS, CONJECTURES RESPECTING THE FORMATION OF THE. Several conjectures have been made concerning the formation of these extraordinary bodies of ice. Mr Coxe agrees with M. Gruner in opinion, that they are produced by the continual dissolution of the snow in summer, and its congelation by the succeeding frosts. Hence, on the summits of the mountains where the sun has very little power, the glacier is soft, and contains no ice: as we descend the mountains the consistence becomes firmer, because there is a considerable mixture of snow-water, the congelation of which augments the hardness; and in the valleys, the glacier is hardest of all, because the portion of water is there much superior to that of the snow. Hence it seems plain, that the glaciers derive their

origin from the melting of the snow or parts of the mountains, and the congeal water as it advances: and to this cause I add the quantity of snow which often into the valleys and congeals along with

(3.) GLACIERS, OPINIONS RESPECTING INCREASE, OR DIMINUTION OF THE. The question concerning the glaciers nature, namely, Whether they are to be considered in a state of increase or diminution? Mr Coxe is of opinion, that they occasionally increase; in proof of which he adduces the following observations. "The borders of the Montanvert are mostly skirted with trees; at its base a vast arch of ice rises to near height; under which the river Aar flows with considerable force, and in a large body. As we approached the ice, we passed wood of firs: those trees which stand at a small distance from the arch are about 80 feet high, and are undoubtedly of a very great age. These and the glacier the trees are of a large size as is evident from their texture and is Others, still smaller, have been overgrown and enveloped in the ice: there seems to be a regular gradation in the age of these trees from the largest which are standing to those that lie prostrate."—Hence our author concludes that the glacier once extended as far as the small firs; but that upon its gradual retreat a number of trees shot up on the spot occupied; since which time the ice has advanced, and overturned the last grown trees they had attained to any considerable size. This he thinks also confirmed by the fact: "Large stones of granite are visible at a small distance from the extremities of the glacier. These stones have certainly fallen from the mountains upon the ice; have been carried on by its progress; and have tumbled into the valley upon the dissolution or sinking of the rocks which supported them. These stones, which are called *Moraine*, form a kind of border along the foot of the valley of ice, and have been carried forward by the glacier in its advance; and extend even to the place occupied by the pines." In opposition to those who maintain that there is a constant accumulation of ice in the Alpine regions, our author makes the following remarks: 1. Between the years 1785 the glacier of Grindelvald had advanced to such a degree, that the spot which it occupied in the former year, was now 1000 paces from that occupied by it in the year 1785 the *Murailles de Glace*, which had been described as forming the border of the valley of Bosson, no longer existed; and you could see the parts which were then occupied by the glacier of Montanvert. Still, however, it may be urged, that these changes only take place in the valleys where the power of the sun is not so great; and that from thence we cannot form an adequate idea of what passes in the high regions, where in all probability more ice than can be dissolved. In support of this it is alleged, that the cold produced by the melting of ice already formed ought to augment it more; and that within the memory of

many places have been covered with were not so before. To these arguments, Mr Coxe replies, that the causes, with the ice in the upper regions, are more powerful than the cold which tends to augment these are, 1. Rain or snow; which falls on the lower glaciers, thaw the ice, infiltrate on its surface, excavate channels, in ways tend to diminish its quantity. Melting, which takes place even from the heat of the ice itself, acts still more powerfully; and is not confined to any particular place. The falling of the snow and ice; both comes gradually from the clouds, and descends from the mountains in great masses, he natives AVALANCHES. When these descend into milder regions, though they may resist the influence of the sun and winds, yet they generally dissolve. They are common in the upper glaciers, though they descend upon the lower, while the descent of snow from the clouds, which takes place in the lower, contributes very little to the mass. 4. All the lower glaciers of ice rest on an inclined plane, are gradually undermined by torrents which are flowing from the upper glaciers, as well as their own lowermost surface. Their foundation thus constantly diminishing, the lower is carried imperceptibly forward into the fields, where an end is necessarily put to it by the heat of the sun. Hence the reason of that strange phenomenon observed by Mr Coxe, that with one hand such ripe corn, and with the other the cold descent of the glacier is demonstrably seen overturned by it, and the moraine preserved at the bottom of the lower glacier. The heat of the sun is an evident cause of the diminution of the glaciers. To this Mr Coxe adds another cause less generally known, viz. winds which blow by night as well as by day in the upper and lower glaciers. The arm winds (says he) are during summer in those parts, that I never crossed a mountain without feeling in some particular positions similar to the air of a hot bath." 6. As the temperature of the earth in the high mountains, where it is not exposed to the piercing of the atmosphere, is found to have a temperature always above the freezing point. As the thickness of the superincumbent ice, is in the present case abundantly sufficient to prevent the access of the atmosphere, it is that the lower surface of it must, by being in contact with the earth, continually decay. With the other argument drawn from the case of the ice in some places, Mr Coxe denies it; but insists, that there is no connection of the whole, but that if it is in some places, it diminishes in others; and in union in this respect was confirmed by frequent the mountains.

**GLACIOUS.** *adj.* [*glacio*, Latin.] Icy; replete.—Although exhaled and placed in various situations, it will crystallize and shoot into various bodies. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

(1.) \* **GLACIS.** *n. f.* [French.] In fortification, a sloping bank. It is more especially taken for that which runneth from the parapet of the covered way to the level on the side of the field. *Harris.*

(2.) **GLACIS**, in building, an easy insensible slope or declivity. The descent of the glacis is less steep than that of the talus. In gardening, a descent sometimes begins in talus, and ends in glacis. The glacis of the corniche, is an easy imperceptible slope in the cymatorium, to promote the descent and draining off the rain water.

\* **GLAD.** *adj.* [*glad*, Saxon; *glad*, Danish.]

1. Cheerful; gay; in a state of hilarity.—They blessed the king, and went into their tents joyful and glad of heart. *1 Kings* viii. 66.—

*Glad* we return'd up to the coasts of light.

*Milton.*

The wily adder blithe and glad. *Milton.*

Thither they

Hasted with glad precipitance. *Milton.*

2. Wearing a gay appearance; fertile; bright; showy.—The wilderness and the solitary place shall be glad for them, and the desert shall rejoice and blossom as the rose. *Is.* xxxv.—

Then first adorn'd

With their bright luminaries, that set and rose,  
*Glad* Evening and glad Morn crown'd the fourth day. *Milton.*

3. Pleased; elevated with joy. It has generally of, sometimes *at* or *with* before the cause of gladness: perhaps *of* is most proper, when the cause of joy is something gained or possessed; and *at* or *with*, when it is some accident befallen himself or another.—I am glad to see your worship. *Shak. Hen.* IV.—He hath an uncle in Messia will be very much glad of it. *Shak. Much Ado.*—He that is glad at calamities shall not be unpunished. *Prov.*—

He glad

Of her attention, gain'd with serpent tongue,  
His fraudulent temptation thus began. *Milton.*  
—If he be my enemy, let him triumph; if he be my friend, he will be glad of my repentance. *Dryden's Fables.*—

The gaping wound gush'd out a crimson flood;

The Trojan, glad with sight of hostile blood,  
His fauchion drew. *Dryden's En.*

Glad of a quarrel strait I clap the door. *Pope.*

4. Pleading; exhilarating.—

Her conversation

More glad to me than to a miser money is. *Sid.*

5. Expressing gladness.—

Hark! a glad voice the lonely desert cheers:  
Prepare the way, a God, a God appears!

*Pope.*

6. It is used in a familiar sense, approaching to ludicrousness.—I would be glad to learn from those who pronounce that the human soul always thinks, how they know it. *Locke.*

\* **To GLAD.** *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To make glad; to cheer; to exhilarate.—

He saw rich Nestor thaws release the rigour  
Of th' icy North; from frost-bound Atlas hands  
His adamantine fetters fall: green vigour  
Gladding the Scythian rocks, and Lybian sands.

*Crashaw.*

*It glads me*

To see so many virtues thus united,  
To restore justice and dethrone oppression.

*Orway.*

Each drinks the juice that *glads* the heart of  
man.

*Pope.*

If justice Phillips' costly head  
Some frigid rhymes disburles,

They shall like Persian tales be read,

And *glad* both babes and nurses.

*Swift.*

GLADBACH, or } a town of Germany, in the  
GLADBECK, } ci-devant duchy of Juliers,  
now included in the French republic, and dept.  
of the Roer, 16 miles N. of Juliers.

\* To GLADDEN. *v. a.* [from *glad.*] To cheer;  
to delight; to make glad; to exhilarate.—

Oh, he was all made up of love and charms!  
Delight of every eye! When he appear'd,  
A secret pleasure *gladden'd* all that saw him.

*Addison's Cato.*

—A kind of vital heat in the soul cheers and *glad-*  
*dens* her, when she does not attend to it. *Specl.*

\* GLADDER. *n. f.* [from *glad.*] One that  
makes glad; one that gladdens; one that exhilarates.—

Thou *gladder* of the mount of Cytheron,

Have pity, goddess.

*Dryden.*

\* GLADE. *n. f.* [from *gladan*, Sax. to be hot, or  
to shine; whence the Danish *glad* and the obsolete  
English *gled*, a red hot coal.] A lawn or open-  
ing in a wood. *Lucas.* It is taken for an avenue  
through a wood, whether open or shaded, and  
has therefore epithets of opposite meaning.—

So flam'd his eyes with rage and rancorous  
ire;

But far within, as in a hollow *glade*,

Those glaring lamps were set, that made a  
dreadful shade.

*Spenser.*

Lo where they sp'd, how in a gloomy *glade*,  
The lion sleeping lay in secret shade.

*Hubb.*

O might I here

In solitude live savage, in some *glade*,

Obscur'd, where highest woods, impenetrable  
To star or sun-light, spread their umbrage  
broad,

And brown as evening.

*Milt. Par. Lost.*

When any, favour'd of high Jove,  
Chances to pass through this adventurous *glade*,  
Swift as a sparkle of a glancing star  
I shoot from heav'n to give him safe convoy.

*Milton.*

For noonday's heat are closer harbours made,  
And for fresh evening air the op'net *glade*.

*Dryden.*

There, interspers'd in lawns and opening  
*glades*,

Thin trees arise that shun each other's shades.

*Pope.*

By the heroes armed shades,  
Glitt'ring thro' the gloomy *glades*;  
By the youths that dy'd for love,  
Wand'ring in the myrtle grove;  
Restore, restore Eurydice to life!

Oh! take the husband, or restore the wife!

*Pope.*

She smil'd, array'd,  
With all the charms of sun-shine, stream and  
*glade*,

New dress and blooming as a bridal maid.

*Harte.*

GLADENBACH, a town of Germa-  
ny, in the province of Hesse, 8 miles W. of Marburg, a  
Gießen.

\* GLADEN. } *n. f.* [from *gladius*, L.]  
\* GLADER. } Swordgrais: a genus  
of plants that rise with a broad blade like  
*gladius*.

\* GLADFULNESS. *n. f.* [*glad*, a  
Joy; gladness. Obsolete.—

And there him rests in riotous fun  
Of all his *gladfulness*, and kingly.

(1.) \* GLADIATOR. *n. f.* [Latin  
Fr.] A swordplayer; a prizefighter.

Then whilst his foe each *gladiator*  
The atheist, looking on, enjoys the

Besides, in gratitude for such high  
Know I have vow'd two hundred g

*D.*

(2.) GLADIATORS, in antiquity, w  
who fought, generally in the arena at  
the entertainment of the people.

usually slaves, and fought out of necessity  
sometimes freemen adopted the pro-  
fession of prize fighters, for a livelihood. I  
borrowed this cruel diversion from the  
some suppose out of policy, the practice  
of gladiators tending to accustom them  
despite dangers and death.

(3.) GLADIATOR'S COMBATS, OR  
HISTORY OF. From the earliest times

we have any acquaintance in profane  
history had been the custom to sacrifice cap-  
tives of war, to the manes of the great

had died in the engagement: thus in  
the *Iliad*, lib. xxiii. sacrifices twelve

horses to the manes of Patroclus; and  
lib. xi. ver. 81, Æneas sends, captive

der, to be sacrificed at the funeral of  
his father.

In course of time they came  
to sacrifice slaves at the funerals of all per-  
sons of distinction: this was even esteem'd a ne-  
cessary part of the ceremony; but as it would have  
been barbarous to have massacred them,

they were appointed to fight with each  
other, and endeavour'd to save their own

lives, by killing their adversary. This seem'd for-  
tunate to human nature, because there was a possibili-  
ty of escaping death, by an exertion of skill and  
strength.

This occasion'd the profession of gladi-  
atorship to come an art: hence arose masters of  
the art, who taught their pupils, and

men learned to fight and exercise it.

These, whom the Latins call'd *Lanistæ*,  
taught young slaves to be trained up to this  
profession, whom they afterwards sold to such  
persons as had a passion to present the people with  
such spectacles.

These exhibitions were at first perform'd  
in the sepulchre of the deceased, or about  
the sepulchre; but were afterwards removed to  
the amphitheatres, and became ordin-  
ary spectacles.

The first show of gladiators,  
under the name of *gladiatorum*, was exhibited at  
Rome, by the emperor Nero, in the year of Ro-  
me 1000, or the year of our Lord 54, upon  
the death of his father, Nero.

At this occasion there were probably only  
three shows of gladiators. In 537, the three sons  
of the emperor Augustus, who had been

taught by their father, were made gladiators,  
and fought with each other, and with  
other gladiators, in the amphitheatre.

In 537, the three sons  
of the emperor Augustus, who had been

taught by their father, were made gladiators,  
and fought with each other, and with  
other gladiators, in the amphitheatre.

In 537, the three sons  
of the emperor Augustus, who had been

tained the people with the cruel pleasure of gladiators fight in the forum. Cæsar Africanus diverted his army at the siege of Carthage with a show of gladiators, which he gave in honour of his father and uncle, upon the reduction of Spain. In process of time, the Romans became so fond of these entertainments, that not only the heir of a noble and rich citizen lately deceased, but all the magistrates, presented the people with these shows of nature, to acquire popularity. The prætors, consuls, and, above all, the censors, made their court to the people, by giving them frequently with these fights; and these were sometimes the exhibitors of these shows. Suetonius mentions the case of Augustus, August. cap. 44. and Pliny, the *tales*, Epist. lib. vii. As for the emperors, they gratiate themselves with the populace, and were used with combats of gladiators on all occasions; and as these increased, the number of combatants increased likewise. Augustus, in his ædileship, diverted with 320 couple. Even Titus Vespasian gave a show of gladiators, wild beasts, and combats of sea-fights, which lasted 100 days. Trajan continued a solemnity of this kind for 23 days; during which time he brought out 1000 gladiators. Before this time, unbecomingly public, the number of gladiators was so great, that when the conspiracy of Catiline was discovered, the senate ordered them to be dispersed, and secured, lest they should be the disaffected party. See § 7.

**GLADIATORS, LAWS RESPECTING.** These combats became so common, and their consequence a variety of respects so dangerous, that Augustus made a law, that no person should exercise the office of gladiators within two years before he was a candidate for any office. Julius Cæsar made a law, that only a certain number of men should be in Rome at a time; and decreed, that only two shows of gladiators should be presented in a year, and never a couple of combatants in a show; and provided by an order of senate, that no person should have the privilege of gratifying himself with such a solemnity, unless he was a senator or a knight. They were also regulated by Nerva. Claudius restrained these combats to certain occasions; but he soon after undid what he had done, and private persons began to give these combats at pleasure as usual. Some carried this to such a degree of satisfaction so far as to have them at private feasts. And not slaves only, but free men would hire themselves to this infame profession. The master of the gladiators made them swear that they would fight to death; and if they failed, they were put to death either by the sword, or by clubs, whips, or the like. It was usual for the wretches to complain when they were wounded, or to ask for death or seek for it when they were overcome; but it was usual for the master to grant them life when they gave no request, but waited the fatal stroke with intrepidity. Augustus even decreed that death should always be granted them. From this it is evident that men the inhuman sport at length

spread to people of rank and condition; so that Augustus was obliged to issue a public edict that none of the senatorial order should become gladiators; and soon after he laid the same restraint on the knights: nevertheless, Nero is said to have brought upwards of 400 senators and 600 Roman knights upon the arena; though Lipsius takes both these numbers to be falsified, and reduces them to 40 senators and 60 knights: yet Domitian, that other monster of cruelty, refined upon Nero, exhibiting combats of women in the night-time. Constantine the Great, is said to have first prohibited the combats of gladiators in the East. At least he forbade those who were condemned to death for their crimes to be employed; there being an order still extant to the *præfectus prætorii*, rather to send them to work in the mines, dated at Berytus, in Phœnicia, the 1st of October 325. Honorius forbade them at Rome on occasion of the death of Telemachus, who, coming out of the East into Rome at the time of one of these spectacles, went down into the arena, and used all his endeavours to prevent the gladiators from continuing the sport; upon which the spectators of that carnage, fired with anger, stoned him to death. The practice was not, however, totally abolished in the West, before Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, put a stop to it entirely, A. D. 500.

(5.) **GLADIATORS, REGULATIONS, AND TERMS USED AMONG THEM.** Some time before the day of combat, the person who presented the people with the shows gave them notice thereof by programmes or bills, containing the names of the gladiators, and the marks whereby they were to be distinguished: for each had his several badge; which was most commonly a peacock's feather, as appears from the scholiast of Juvenal on the 158th verse of the 3d satire, and Turnebus Advers. lib. ii. cap. 8. They also gave notice how long the shows would last, and how many couples of gladiators there were; and it appears, from the 52d verse of the 7th satire of the 2d book of Horace, that they sometimes made representations of these things in painting, as is practised among us by those who have any thing to show at fairs. The day being come, they began the entertainment by bringing two kinds of weapons; the first were staves or wooden files, called *rudes*; and the second were effective weapons, as swords, poniards, &c. The first were called *arma lusoria*, or *exercitoria*; the second *decretoria*, as being given by decree or sentence of the prætor, or of him at whose expence the spectacle was exhibited. They began to fence or skirmish with the first, which was to be the prelude to the battle; and from these, when well warmed, at the sound of the trumpets they advanced to the second with which they fought naked. Then they were said *vertere arma*. The terms of striking were *petere* or *repetere*; of avoiding a blow, *exire*; and when one of the combatants received a remarkable wound, his adversary or the people cried out, *Habet* or *Illoc habet*. The first part of the engagement was called *ventilare*, *præludere*; and the second, *dimicare ad certum*, or *versus armis pugnare*: and some authors think, with much probability, that it is to these two kinds of combat that St Paul alludes in the passage 1 Cor. ix. 26, 27. "I fight, not

as one that beateth the air; but I keep my body under, and bring it into subjection." If the vanquished surrendered his arms, it was not in the victor's power to grant him life. The people during the time of the republic, and the prince or people during the time of the empire, were alone empowered to grant it. The reward of the conqueror was a branch of palm tree, and a sum of money, probably collected among the spectators: sometimes they gave him his congé, or dismissed him by putting one of the wooden files or *rudes* in his hand; and sometimes they even gave him his freedom, putting the pileus on his head. The sign or indication, whereby, the spectators showed that they granted the favour, was *premere pollicem*, which M. Dacier takes to be a clenching of the fingers of both hands between one another, and so holding the two thumbs upright close together; and, when they would have the combat finished and the vanquished slain, *verterunt pollicem*, they bent back the thumb; which we learn from Juvenal, Sat. iii. ver. 36. The gladiators challenged or defied each other, by showing the little finger; and, by extending this, or some other, during the combat, they owned themselves vanquished, and begged mercy from the people: *Vitti ostensam digiti veniam a populo postulabant*, says the old scholiast on Perlius.

(6.) GLADIATORS, VARIOUS KINDS OF. There were various kinds of gladiators, distinguished by their weapons, manner, and time of fighting, &c. as, The *andabata*, mentioned under *ANDABATÆ*: The *catervarii*, who always fought in troops or companies, number against number; or, according to others, who fought promiscuously, without any certain order: The *dimache*, who fought armed with two poniards, or swords, or with sword and dagger: The *effederii*, who fought in cars: The *ficules*, or *Cuararii*, who belonged to the emperor's company; and who, being more robust and dexterous than the rest, were frequently called for; and therefore named also *postulatitii*. Several other kinds are mentioned in the ancient authors.

(7.) GLADIATORS WAR, (*Ubi on Gladiatorum, or Spartacum*.) called also the *juvile war*, was a war which the Romans sustained about A. U. C. 680. Spartacus, Crinrus, and Oenomaus, having escaped, with other gladiators to the number of 74. out of the place where they had been kept at Capua, gathered together a body of slaves, put themselves at their head, rendered themselves masters of all Campania, and gained several victories over the Roman prætors. At length they were defeated in 682, at the extremity of Italy; having, in vain, attempted to pass over into Sicily. This war proved very formidable to the Romans. Cassius was not able to finish it: Pompey the great was forced to be sent as general.

(8.) GLADIATOR, THE DYING, a most valuable monument of ancient sculpture, long preserved in the palace of Chigi, but carried to Paris with the Laoccon, &c. in 1796. This gladiator after having received the mortal stroke, appears particularly careful *ut procumbat laonise*, "that he might fall honourably." He is seated in a reclining posture on the ground, and seems to have just strength sufficient to support himself on his

right arm; and in his expiring moment not abandon himself to grief and dejection, but is solicitous to maintain that firmness of attitude, which the gladiators valued on preserving in this last scene of distress no tokens of fear by his countenance, he sheds one tear. *Quis mediocris gladius quis vultum mutavit unquam? Quis non verum etiam decubuit turpiter?* says that part of his Tusculan, where he describes the astonishing firmness of those periclitators, notwithstanding his remaining have but a few moments to live. The spectators knew how to animate marble, at almost every expression of life.

GLADIATURE, *n. f.* the act of fighting with swords. *Abb.*

GLADIOLUS, CORN-FLAG: A monogynia order, belonging to the triandria class of plants; and in the natural method to the sixth order, *Eufate*. The corolla is partite, and ringent; the stamina ascending and bending upwards. There are 10 species, the most remarkable is,

GLADIOLUS COMMUNIS, the common corn-flag. It has a round, compressed, tubular long sword-shaped leaves; an erect stem 2 or 3 feet high; the top garnished with pretty large flowers of a red or white colour, each 6 petals. They appear in May and are succeeded by plenty of seed. The plants are very hardy, and will thrive in any soil or situation. They are propagated from the roots.

GLADKA, a sort of Russia, in the Caucasus, on the Maiva, 36 m. W.

\* GLADLY, *adv.* [from *gladus*]. With gayety; with merriment; with exultation.—

For his particular, I'll receive his sword, but not one follower. *Shak.*

—You are going to set us right; and vantage every body will gladly see you glory of. *Blount to Pope.*

GLADMORE, a town of Herts, n.

\* GLADNESS, *n. f.* [from *gladus*]. Joy; exultation.—

By such degrees the spreading joy  
In every heart, which fear had trod  
The standing streets with so narrow  
view,

That with less grief the perished the

(1.) GLADSMUIR, a parish of S. E. Lothian, erected in 1695, and contains between 5, and 6,000 acres of ground; 3000 are in tillage; above 500 sown in about 1,600 in pasture, and above 100 in wood. The air is pure, dry and healthy; the soil clayey, shallow and barren. Wheat, oats, and pease, are the chief productions; cabbages and potatoes, are also raised. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. G. Milton, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, and had decreased 35 since 1755. There were 1400 of horses; of sheep 100, and of cattle 134. Mr GEORGE HERIOT, for

the celebrated Dr WILLIAM ROBERTSON born in this parish.

**OSMURIE**, one of the three villages in the parish, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) each of which contained families in 1792. On the 21st July a violent storm burst upon the school, in which a tree, which was blown down, shattered the windows, and de- stroyed the roof; whereby two boys were killed, and several others with many of the others, much

**SOME**. *adj.* [from *glad.*] 1. Pleas'd; pleas'd.

Thou' the best angels to and fro descend,  
The best heaven in *gladsome* company.

*Fairy Queen.*  
A *gladsome* ghost in circling troops attend,  
Thy unwear'd eyes behold their friend.

*Dryden.*  
Joy; having an appearance of gayety.  
When they wak'd me with a sprightly lay;  
When heav'n they sung and *gladsome* day.

**DSOMEITY**. *adv.* [from *gladsome.*] Pleas'd and delight.

**DSOMENESS**. *n. f.* [from *gladsome.*] Pleas'dness; delight.

**GLASS**. *n. f.* [*glas*, Saxon, amber; *glaz*, glass; *glair*, Fr. *glareu*, Lat.] The name of an egg.—Take the *glair* of eggs, and wash it as short as water. *Peacocks on Draw-*  
*ing* kind of halbert. *Dict.*

**GLAZING**, (*γ* 1. *def.* 1.) is used as a varnish in painting. For this purpose it is made of a thick and common liquor of unctuous consistence, and commonly with a little brandy or spirit of wine, to make it work more freely, and with a lump of white wax to keep it body and prevent its cracking; and is spread over the picture or painting with a

**GLAZER**. *v. a.* [*glairer*, French; from *glair*.] To smear with the white of an egg.

**GLAZIER**, is still used by the bookbinders.

**GLAZING**, a SW. branch of Lake Miami, in the Western territory of the United States.

**GLAZING**, St Mary's River.

**GLAZING**, a town in Norfolk, SW.

**GLAZING BRIGGS**, or **GLANDFORD**, which last the rev. C. Cruttwell reckons (1792,) a town of Lincolnshire on the Angles, 20 miles N. of Lincoln, and 153 N. by road. It has a great trade in corn, coals, and skins. Lon. 0. 20. W. Lat. 40. 35 N.

**GLAMISS**, a parish of Scotland in the county of Perth, 12 miles long and from 1 to 3 broad. It is a level, lying in the middle of the valley of the Forth, on the N. side of Sidlaw hill; near which it is rocky and mountainous. The air is healthy. The soil is good, well cultivated, and fertile. The population, in 1783, and in 1801, was 11,000.

**GLAMISS**, was 2040, and had increased to 2755. The number of horses was 1190, and of black cattle 1190. There are 7 villages and some antiquities in the parish, and several quarries of excellent free stone

and slates. About 1000 acres of unarable ground are full of thriving plantations.

(2.) **GLAMISS**, an ancient village in the above parish, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) 4 miles from Kirriemuir, containing about 500 souls in 1790. Near the manse there is an obelisk erected in memory of the murder of K. Malcolm II, in 1034, with several emblematical figures rudely carved on it, representing that bloody transaction.

(3.) **GLAMISS, CASTLE OF**, a very ancient structure in the above parish, the seat of the E. of Strathmore. It belonged originally to the Crown; but was given by K. Robert II, in 1372, to his favourite J. Lyon, who married his daughter. It has been since greatly enlarged.

(4.) **GLAMISS, NEW TOWN OF**, a village in the above parish, near Old Glamiss, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) containing 140 inhabitants in 1790.

**GLAMORGANSHIRE**, a county of South Wales, said to have derived its name from a contraction of the Welsh words *Gwald Morgan*, or "the country of Morgan," and supposed to have been thus called from a prince of this part of the country, said to have been killed 800 years before the birth of our Saviour. Others derive the name from the British word *Mor*, which signifies the sea; this being a maritime county. It is bounded on the S. and part of the W. by the Bristol channel; on the NW. by Caermarthenshire; on the N. by Brecknockshire; and on the E. by Monmouthshire. It is 48 miles long from E. to W. 27 broad from N. to S. and 116 in circumference. It is divided into 10 hundreds, in which are one city, 7 market towns, 118 parishes about 10,000 houses, and 58,000 inhabitants. It is in the diocese of Llandaff. This county, in the time of the Romans, was part of the district inhabited by the Silures, and had several Roman stations. Thus **BOVERTON**, a few miles S. of Cowbridge, is supposed to be the **BOVIVM** of Antoninus; **NEATH** to be his *Nidum*; and **LOGHOR**, W. of Swansea, to be his *Leucarum*. The principal rivers of this county are the Rhymny, the Taff, the Ogmor, the Avon, the Cleddagh, and the Tawe. The air, in the S. part, towards the sea, is temperate; but the N. part, which is mountainous, is cold and piercing, full of thick woods, extremely barren, and thin of inhabitants. The mountains, however, feed herds of cattle, and send forth streams which add greatly to the fertility of the other parts of the county: they have likewise coal and lead ore. The S. part is so remarkably fertile, pleasant and populous, that it is generally styled the *Garden of Wales*; but it has no manufacture. This county was formerly full of castles, most of which are now decayed. It has many small harbours on the coast, for exporting coals in large quantities to England and Ireland; and provisions to England. It sends two members to parliament, one for the shire, and one for the borough of Cardiff, the capital.

**GLAMOUR**, or **GLAMER**, *n. f.* an old term of popular superstition in Scotland, denoting a kind of magical mist believed to be raised by fore-casters, and which clouded their spectators with visions of things which had no real existence, altered the appearance of those which really did exist, &c.—

The

The

The

The

The

The

The

The

The



The eastern nations have a similar superstition, as we may learn from the Arabian Nights Entertainments and other works of oriental fiction.

\* **GLANCE.** *n. f.* [*glantz*, German, glitter.]  
 1. A sudden shoot of light or splendour.—

His off'ring soon propitious fire from heav'n  
 Consum'd with nimble *glance*, and greatful  
 steam :

The other's not ; for his was not sincere.

*Milt. Par. Lost.*

2. A stroke or dart of the beam of sight.—The aspects which procure love are not gazings, but sudden *glances* and dartings of the eye. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—There are of those sort of beauties which last but for a moment ; some particularly of a violent passion, some graceful action, a smile, a *glance* of an eye, a disdainful look, and a look of gravity. *Dryden's Duff.*—

Boldly she look'd, like one of high degree :

Yet never seem'd to cast a *glance* on me ;

At which I inly joy'd, for, truth to say,

I felt an unknown awe, and some dismay. *Harte.*

3. A snatch of sight ; a quick view.—The ample mind takes a survey of several objects with one *glance*. *Watts.*

(1.) \* **To GLANCE.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To move nimbly ; to shoot obliquely.—

*Glancing* an eye of pity on his losses,

Enough to press a royal merchant down. *Shak.*

(2.) \* **To GLANCE.** *v. n.* 1. To shoot a sudden ray of splendour.—

He double blows about him fiercely laid,

That *glancing* fire out of the iron play'd,

As sparkles from the anvil use,

When heavy hammers on the wedge are sway'd.

*Spenser.*

When through the gloom the *glancing* lightnings fly,

Heavy the rattling thunders roll on high. *Rowe.*

2. To fly off in an oblique direction.—

He has a little gall'd me, I confess ;

But as the jest did *glance* away from me,

'Tis ten to one it maim'd you two outright.

*Shakespeare.*

3. To strike in an oblique direction.—

Through Paris' shield the forceful weapon went,

His corslet pierces, and his garment rends,

And *glancing* downwards near his flank descends.

*Pope.*

4. To view with a quick cast of the eye ; to play the eye.—

O' th' sudden up they rise and dance,

Then sit again, and sigh and *glance* ;

Then dance again, and kiss. *Suckling.*

Mighty dulness crown'd,

Shall take through Grub-street her triumphant round ;

And her Parnassus *glancing* o'er at once,

Behold a hundred sons, and each a dunce.

*Pope's Dunciad.*

5. To censure by oblique hints.—

How can'st thou thus, for shame, Titania,

*Glance* at my credit with Hippolita,

Knowing I know thy love to Theseus. *Shak.*

—Some men *glance* and dart at others, by justifying themselves by negatives ; as to say, this I do

not. *Bacon.*—I have never *glanced* up designed procession of his holiness and ants, notwithstanding it might have after to many ludicrous speculations. *A.* had written verses, wherein he *glanced* reverend doctor, famous for dulness. *S.*

\* **GLANCINGLY.** *adv.* [from *glance*] oblique broken manner ; transiently.—Hawkins hath done something in this brokenly and *glancingly*, intending the course of his own voyage. *Hake-will on*

(1.) \* **GLAND.** *n. f.* [*glans*, Lat. French.]—All the *glands* of a human body are reduced to two sorts, viz. conglobate and merate. A conglobate *gland* is a little body, wrapt up in a fine skin, by which it is separated from all the other parts, only an artery and nerve to pass in, and give a vein and excretory canal to come out. The most important are the *glands* in the brain, the testis, and the testes. A conglomerate *gland* is composed of many little conglobate *glands*, all tied together and wrapt up in the common tunica albuginea. *Quincy.*—The abscesses begun in the body of the *glands*. *Wiseman.*—

The *glands*, which o'er the body  
 Fine complicated clues of nervous tissue  
 Involv'd and twisted with the arteries  
 The rapid motion of the blood obscure.

(2.) **GLANDS.** See ANATOMY, Ind.

(1.) \* **GLANDERS.** *n. f.* [from *gland*] a disease of the horse, is the running of corrupt matter from the nose, which differs in colour according to the degree of malignity, being white, yellow, or black. *Farrier's Dict.*—His horse is pestered with the *glanders*, and like to mose in the clout.

(2.) **GLANDERS.** See FARRIERY, Ind.  
**GLANDEVES**, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Alps, formerly flourishing, but almost deserted, on account of the overflowings of the Var.

**GLANDFORD BRIDGE.** See BRIDGE, Ind.  
**GLANDFORD**, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

\* **GLANDIFEROUS.** *adj.* [*glans*, Lat.] Bearing mast ; bearing acorns, or mast acorns.—The beech is of two sorts, and is distinguished among the *glandiferous* trees. *Mor.*

**GLANDORÉ**, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wick, with an excellent harbour, 3 miles W. and 6 W. of Galley Head. Between the town and Ros, the coast is high and bold, with two small coves : viz. Mellcove on the one side, and Cowcove on the other. Near the harbour is a small inlet ; and on the upper end a deep and narrow glin, called the *Leap*. Lon. 8, 56. W. 22. N.

**GLANDORP**, Matthias, M. D. a physician, born in 1595, at Cologne, in which city his father was a surgeon. After taking his degree at Padua, and visiting the principal universities, he settled at Bremen in 1618, where he practised physic and surgery with success, and made physician to the republic and to the bishop. He published at Bremen, 1. *Chirurgorum*, in 1619 ; 2. *Methodus in chirurgiâ*, in 1623 ; 3. *Tractatus de potestate affectu gratissimo*, in 1628 ; and 4. *De*



*fonticularum et Setonium referatam*, in which were republished, with his life pre- London, in 4to, 1729. He died young. **IDULÆ RENALES.** See ANATOMY, §

**INDULE.** *n. f.* [*glandula*, Lat. *glandule*, A small gland serving to the secretion of —Nature hath provided several *glandules* in this juice from the blood, and no less pair of channels to convey it into the which are called *ductus salivaris*. *Ruy.*

**INDULOSITY.** *n. f.* [from *glandulosus*.] tion of glands.—In the upper parts of e found certain white and oval *glandulo-*

**INDULOUS.** *adj.* [*glandulosus*, Latin ; r, French ; from *glandule*.] Pertaining nds ; subsisting in the glands ; having the glands.—The beaver's bags are not tef- parts official unto generation, but *glan-* stances, that hold the nature of emunc- *osum*.—Such constitutions must be sub- *andulous* tumours, and ruptures of the ks. *Arbutus*.

**GARIFF BAY,** a bay of Ireland, on the ie county of Cork.

**GOWRA,** a town of Ireland, in Cork.

**ANMIRE,** a river of Ireland, in Cork hich runs through a beautiful and fertile untry, somewhat hilly, and falls into the ork harbour.

**ANMIRE,** a town in Cork, seated on the r, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) about 3 miles from Cork. autiful variety of extensive prospects.

**MORE,** a town of Ireland, in Kilken- es from Dublin.

**ORGA,** a town of Ireland, in Limeric. l. See ANATOMY, § 313, and 318.

**HAMMAR,** a town of Sweden, in the f Nericia, 7 miles NE. of Orebro.

**ANTON,** a town of Ireland, in Cork uniter, 135 miles from Dublin.

**ANTON,** a village of England, SE. of

**TL,** Joseph, a learned and ingenious, l and credulous, writer in the 17th cen- at Plymouth in 1636, and bred at Ox- was a great admirer of Mr Baxter, and a commonwealth. After the restora- blished *The vanity of dogmatizing ;*

F. R. S. and, taking orders in 1662, ed to the vicarage of Frome-Selwood shire. In 1662, he published his *Lux* in 1665, his *Scriptis Scientifica* ; and in *philosophical considerations touching the rbes and witchcraft*. In 1668, he pub- *lstra* ; or, *The progress and advance- vledge since the days of Aristotle*. He dished, *A seasonable recommendation of reason* ; and *Philosophia Pia*, or *A be religious temper and tendencies of the philosophy*. In 1678 he was made a of Worcester, and died in 1680.

**NVILLE,** Bartholomew, an English thor of the 14th century, commonly *domus Anglus*. He was a Francis- cended of the noble family of Suffolk, ed in the reign of Edward III. He

**PART. II.**

wrote a book on natural history, entitled *De Pro- prietatibus Rerum* : which was translated into Eng- lish by John de Trevisa, in 1398.

(2.) **GLANVILLE,** Ranulph, an English lawyer of the 12th century, who first collected the Eng- lish laws into one body.

**GLANWORTH,** and } two small towns of  
**GLANYFREHANE,** } Ireland in Cork.

**GLAPHOW,** a town of England, in Yorksh.

\* **GLARE.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Over- powering lustre ; splendour, such as dazzles the eye.—

The frame of burnish'd steel that cast a *glare*  
From far, and seem'd to thaw the freezing air.  
*Dryden's Fables.*

—I have grieved to see a person of quality gliding by me in her chair at two o'clock in the morning, and looking like a spectre amidst a *glare* of flam- beaux. *Guardian.*—

Here in a grotto, shelter'd close from air,  
And screen'd in shades from day's detested *glare*,  
She sighs for ever. *Pope.*

2. A fierce piercing look.—

About them round,  
A lion now he stalks with fiery *glare*. *Milton.*

(1.) \* **To GLARE.** *v. a.* [*glaren*, Dutch.] To shoot such splendour as the eye cannot bear.—

One spirit in them rul'd, and every eye  
*Glar'd* lightning, and shot forth pernicious fire  
Among th' accurst, that wither'd all their  
strength. *Milton.*

(2.) \* **To GLARE.** *v. n.* 1. To shine so as to dazzle the eyes.—After great light, if you come suddenly into the dark, or, contrariwise, out of the dark into a *glaring* light, the eye is dazzled for a time, and the sight confused. *Bacon.*—

His *glaring* eyes with anger's venom swell,  
And like the brand of foul Alecto flame.

*Fairfax.*  
—He is every where above conceits of epigram- matick wit, and gross hyperboles : he maintains majesty in the midst of plainness ; he shines, but *glares* not ; and is stately without ambition. *Dryden.*—

The court of Cacus stands reveal'd to fight ;  
The cavern *glares* with new admitted light.

*Dryden's Æneid.*  
Alas, thy dazzled eye  
Beholds this man in a false *glaring* light,  
Which conquest and success have thrown upon  
him. *Addison.*

2. To look with fierce piercing eyes.—  
Thou hast no speculation in those eyes,  
Which thou dost *glare* with. *Shak.*  
Look, how pale he *glares* ! *Shak.*  
Now friends no more, nor walking hand in  
hand ;  
But when they met they made a surly stand,  
And *glar'd*, like angry lions, as they pass'd,  
And with'd that ev'ry look might be their last.  
*Dryden's Fables.*

3. To shine ostentatiously, or with too much la- boured lustre.—The most *glaring* and notorious passages are none of the finest, or most correct. *Felton on the Classics.*

\* **GLAREOUS.** *adj.* [*glaireux*, Fr. *glareus*, Latin ; from *glair*.] Consisting of viscous tras- parent matter, like the white of an egg.

\* **GLARING**, *adj.* Applied to any thing notorious: as, a *glaring* crime.

(1.) **GLARIS**, or } one of the cantons of Switzerland, bounded on the E. by the county of the Grisons, and partly by that of Sargans; on the N. by Gaster, and lake Wahlenstadt; on the E. by the canton of Schwitz; and on the S. by part of the canton of Uri, and of the country of the Grisons. It is a mountainous country, almost entirely surrounded by the Alps.

(2.) **GLARIS**, or **GLARUS**, a city of the Helvetic republic, capital of the above canton, seated in a plain, at the foot of high craggy mountains. The streets are large, and the houses good. It has two churches, one in the middle of the town, and the other without, upon an eminence, in which there is a cavern, with grotesque figures formed by the water that drops therein. Even before the late revolution in 1798, (See **HELVETIC REPUBLIC**;) the government was so very democratic, that every youth of 16 years of age, had a vote in the General Assembly, which met annually on the first Sunday in May. The executive power was in a council of Regency, composed of 48 Protestants and 15 Catholics. The Calvinists and the Roman Catholics have divine service by turns in the same church. The former have increased greatly within these two centuries. It is seated on the Linth, 32 miles E. of Lucerne, and 32. SE. of Zurich. Lon. 9. 11. E. Lat. 46. 58. N.

**GLASCOTE**, a town of Warwickshire, on the S. side of the Anker, opposite to Tamworth.

(1.) **GLASENDORF**, a town of Bohemia, in Konigingratz; 6 miles NW. of Trautenau.

(2.) **GLASENDORF**, a town of Silesia, in Neisse, 10½ miles SW. of Patzschkau.

**GLASER**, Christopher, apothecary to Lewis XIV, was author of a celebrated treatise on Chemistry, which was translated into English and German. He died in 1679.

**GLASFORD**, a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, 8 miles long, and 2 broad at an average, but the breadth is very unequal. The soil is partly strong clay, in other parts mossy, and in others light loam, and remarkably stony, but the stones add to its fertility. Husbandry is very little improved, though the E. part of the parish is inclosed. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. Hugh Mitchell, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 788, and had increased 229 since 1755. That clergyman has since resigned his charge, from scruples of conscience, yet without joining any other sect; and has published his reasons in a pamphlet, bearing the singular title of *An Apology for Apostacy*. There are 3 villages in the parish, which carry on linen and cotton manufactures.

(1, 1.) **GLASGOW**, a large and beautiful city of Scotland in Lanarkshire, on the N. bank of the Clyde; justly esteemed the 2d in the kingdom. The name in the Gaelic language signifies a *gray smith*; whence it has been supposed that some spot in the most ancient part of the city was originally the residence of some blacksmith, who had become so eminent in his profession that the place went by his name. The most ancient part of the city stands on a rising ground. The rest of it is built chiefly upon a plain, bounded on the S. by

the Clyde, and on the N. by a gentle hills lying in a parallel direction with the river. The streets are all clean and well paved; several of them intersecting each other at right angles, produce a very agreeable effect. The 4 principal streets cross one another, and divide the city nearly into 4 equal parts; and the distance from the cross, the centre of intersection, to the extremities, is of great magnificence. The houses, of 4 or 5 floors in height, are built of hewn stone, and generally in an exceeding good taste, and are all of them elegant. The manufacturing houses, the great influx of people, for carrying on the manufactures, the means and encouragement which they afford to population, and the wealth thence derived to individuals, as well as accruing to the community, have all tended lately to increase the grandeur of the city, and the elegance of its buildings. Glasgow lies 10 miles SE. of Dunbarton, 44 W. of Edinburgh, and 60 SW. of Perth. Lon. 4. 55. 51' 32" N.

(2.) **GLASGOW BRIDGE**, QUAY, &c. There are two bridges over the Clyde. The Old Bridge, built about 400 years ago, by Albin, but since repaired and partly rebuilt, consists of 7 arches; and connects the suburb of Glasgow on the opposite side of the river, with the city. The other is the New Bridge, which is built in a very elegant manner. It is 500 feet long, and 12 feet wide; with a commodious road for foot passengers, 5 feet broad on each side, raised above the level of the river, and paved with free stone. It has 7 arches, the faces of which are wrought in a rustic manner, with a strong block cornice above. It was begun in 1668, and finished in 1772.

On the banks of the river eastward, is the Greenock, appropriated to the use of the inhabitants, for the conveniences for washing and drying linen. The streets are all paved with flag stones, and are very agreeable and extensive walks for recreation. On the S. side of the town, westward of the Broomie law, where the Quay is situated, the river here an average of several miles distance, was so shallow, and obstructed by shoals, as to admit only of small boats from Greenock, Port-Glasgow, and the islands; but of late it has been cleared and deepened, so as to admit ships of considerable burthen.

(3.) **GLASGOW CHURCHES**. The Cathedral or High Church, is a magnificent building, and is situated greatly to its advantage, as it is higher than any part of the city. The tower is founded upon 4 large massy pillars, 12 feet each in circumference. It is 25½ feet high within; and is surrounded by a balustrade, in which rises an octangular spire terminating in a lantern. The tower upon the west end is not on the same level, but appears not to have been built, though it is covered over with lead. In the tower is a very large bell 11 feet 4 inches in diameter. The principal entry was from the west; it is 11 feet broad at the base, and 17 feet in height. The west end of the choir is appropriated to the place of divine worship; and is divided from the remaining part by a stone partition, which is closed by another stone wall parting it into a nave. It is impossible to form an adequate idea of the awful solemnity of the place, occasi-

stiffness of the roof and the range of pillars by which the whole is supported. The nave of the church rises 4 steps higher than the choir; and on the W. side stood the organ loft, formerly ornamented with a variety of figures, but now destroyed. The pillars are elegantly executed. The organ one in the centre is 19 feet high. At the ends of the choir are flights of steps upon each side, leading into passages which were formerly the principal entrances to the burying vault immediately under the nave. It is now used as a parish church for the Baron; and is full of pillars, some of which are very massive, which support the arched roof; and is very uncomfortable for devotion. The space under the altar and vestry, now used as a place by the heritors, was formerly employed for keeping relics; and indeed, from the manner in which this place is finished, it evidently was not destined for common use. It is the monument of St Kentigern, with his effigy in a recumbent posture. The whole length of the cathedral within the walls is 284 feet, its breadth 65; the height of the choir, from the floor to the canopy, 90 feet; that of the nave, 110; that of the middle tower, 220 feet. This church was begun by John Achais, (See § 7.) and continued by succeeding bishops, till it was finished in the manner in which it now stands, was a church for which the wealth of the see of Glasgow was not sufficient; so that they were obliged to have recourse to all the churches of Scotland for alms to it. This venerable edifice was in danger of falling a victim to popular fury in 1578; and its preservation to the spirit and good sense of the tradesmen, who, upon hearing the drum for collecting the workmen appointed to demolish it, flew to arms, and declared that no man who pulled down a single stone should be buried under it. Near the cathedral are the ruins of the bishop's palace or castle, enclosed with a high wall of hewn stone by James I.; and the great tower built by Abp. James in 1426. *St Andrew's Church* was begun in 1163, and finished in 1736. It is the finest specimen of modern architecture in the city. It is 110 feet long, 60 wide, and 170 high. Besides the cathedral, which contains 3 congregations, there are 4 churches in the establishment. Their names are the Inner and Outer High Churches; the North Church, St Enoch's, the College church, the Horn, Tron and Wynd. There are also several private chapels, a Highland church, several meeting-houses, and others for sectaries of various denominations.

**GLASGOW, COLLEGE OF.** The front of the building extends along the E. side of the high street, and is upwards of 330 feet long. The gate of the entrance is decorated with rustics, and over the door is the king's arms. The building consists of several principal courts or squares. The first is 280 feet long and 44 broad. The W. side is elevated by 10 stone pillars, on which are placed pilasters supporting the Doric entablature, and ornamented with arches forming a piazza. The spire is on the E. side, is 135 feet high, and has a good clock. Under this is the gateway into the inner and largest court, which is 103 feet long

and 79 broad. Over the entry, in a niche, is a statue of Mr Zacharias Boyd, who was a benefactor to the university. (See *Boyd*.) On the E. side of the court is a narrow passage leading into a handsome terrace walk, gravelled, 122 feet long by 24 feet broad. On the S. side of the walk stands the library; a very neat edifice, well constructed, and containing a very valuable collection of books. Underneath are preserved in cases all the Roman inscriptions found on Graham's Dike, together with altars and other antiquities collected from different parts of Scotland.—Adjoining, there is an observatory, well furnished with astronomical instruments. The college also possesses, by bequest, the late Dr Hunter's famous anatomical preparations, library, and museum: And in the department of natural philosophy, it is furnished with an apparatus which is universally acknowledged to be the most extensive and useful in Britain, and which owes its perfection to the liberality and unremitting labour of Mr Anderson the late professor of that science.

(5.) **GLASGOW, CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF.** In 1711, the constitution of the burgh, established in 1690, (See § 7.) underwent some alterations; and in 1748, another set was adopted, and confirmed by the convention of royal burghs. By it the government of the city is vested in a provost and 3 bailies, a dean of guild, deacon convener, treasurer, master of works, 13 merchant and 12 trades councillors. The provost and two of the bailies must be elected from the merchants, and the other bailie from the trades. The provost is styled *lord provost*. He is lord of the police, president of the community, and *ex officio* a justice of the peace for both the burgh and county. The bailie court is held every Friday. The trades consist of 14 incorporations.

(6.) **GLASGOW, GRAMMAR SCHOOL OF.** The grammar school is situated on the NW. side of the town, and was built in 1787. It is a very handsome building, containing a large hall, and six airy commodious teaching rooms, where above 300 scholars are taught.

(7.) **GLASGOW, HISTORY OF.** Of the origin of this city there are no authentic records. So early as A. D. 560, a bishopric is said to have been founded here by St KENTIGERN, the grandson of Loth king of the Picts; but in what state the town then was, is altogether uncertain. Most probably the priests and disciples who attended St Kentigern would contribute considerably towards its advancement. His immediate successors were Baldred and Conwal. The first established a religious house at Inchinna; the second went into Lothian to preach to the Saxons; and both were ranked as saints in the Roman kalendar, Baldred on the 6th of March 608, and Conwal on the 18th of May 612. From this time we have no distinct accounts concerning the city or bishopric of Glasgow, till 1115, when David I. king of Scots attempted to recover the people from the gross barbarity into which they had fallen, and restored to the church those lands of which she had been robbed. From 1116 to the reformation, the records of the bishopric are tolerably complete. The most remarkable particulars they contain are the following. In 1136, John Achais, appointed by

of Glasgow by David I. built and adorned a part of the cathedral, which he consecrated on the 9th of July. He also divided the diocese into the two archdeanries of Glasgow and Teviotdale. In 1174, Joceline, abbot of Melrose, was elected bishop, and made an addition to the cathedral. He also procured charters from K. William I. erecting Glasgow into a royal borough, and appointing a fair to be held there annually for 8 days. In 1335, John Lindsay, bishop of Glasgow, was killed in an engagement at sea with the English, as he was returning home from Flanders. His successor, William Rae, built the stone bridge over the Clyde. In the time of Matthew Glendonig, who was elected bishop in 1387, the great spire of the church, which had been built of wood, was consumed by lightning. His successor, William Lauder, laid the foundation of the vestry of the cathedral, and built the great tower of stone as far as the first battlement. The great tower of the episcopal palace was founded about 1437, on which bishop Cameron expended a great deal of money. In 1447, William Turnbull, of the family of Bedruic in Roxburghshire, was chosen bishop. He obtained from K. James II. in 1450, a charter erecting the town and the patrimony of the bishops into a regality. He also procured a bull from pope Nicholas V. for erecting an university within the city, which contributed more than any thing that had been formerly done towards the enlargement of the town. The population increased exceedingly; the high street, from the convent of the Black friars, to where the cross is now placed, was soon filled up; the ancient road which led to the common being too distant from the new inhabitants, the Gallow-gate began to be built. Soon after, the collegiate church of St Mary (now the Tron church) being founded by the citizens, occasioned the Tron-gate street to be carried westward as far as the church. The rest of the city increased gradually towards the bridge, by the building of the Saltmarket. The borough roads, and the cattle that grazed on the commons, were now found insufficient to maintain the increased number of inhabitants; for which reason a greater degree of attention was paid to the fishing in the river. Many poor people subsisted by this occupation; they were incorporated into a society; and, that they might be at hand to prosecute their business, they built a considerable part of the street then called *Fishers gate*, now *bridge-gate*. Notwithstanding all this, Glasgow did not for a long time attain the rank among the other towns of Scotland which it now holds, though it was erected into an arch-bishopric in 1582. In 1606, it held only the 11th place among them, as appears by Q. Mary's taxation. In 1611, a very ample charter was granted by K. James VI; and in 1626, K. Charles I. granted another. During the civil wars, Glasgow suffered severely. To the nation's attending intestine discord, were added a pestilence and famine; and to complete its misfortune, the fire broke out on the 12th June, 1644, and consumed a third part of the city, constituting a great loss. The loss was estimated at 200,000 l. By the charter given to Bp. Turnbull, the city had been deprived of the privilege of electing a mayor and aldermen, when

was thenceforth exercised by the bishop; the reformation, however, this power being ceded by the citizens, the bishop, the common, and others. The idea that the bishop's borough, and not a royal free town, gave occasion to this unsettled manner of electing the magistracy. But on the 4th of July, 1560, it was declared free by a charter of W. Mary; and, in confirmation, it was in an act of parliament, June 14th, that they have power to elect their own magistrates and freely as Edinburgh or any other royal borough. (See § 5.) By the assize of boroughs in 1695, we find Glasgow reckoned the 1st city in Scotland in point of wealth, which it still continues to hold. But the prosperity of Glasgow, may be ascribed to the union, by which the American trade was opened to the inhabitants. Their assiduous attention to that trade ever since has greatly contributed to raise the city to the pitch of affluence which it at present enjoys. The city is greatly enlarged; and as the inhabitation is free of the inconvenience that attended of a sufficiency of water in the river for their commerce, the magistrates purchased some lands on the south side of the city for that purpose; and so expeditious were they in their harbour, and rearing their town, that a baillie was appointed for the government of GLASGOW; which is now a very considerable city, and lies 21 miles higher the mouth of the river than Glasgow. (See § VI.) In 1725, a great fire, upon the extension of the malt land, wherein 20 persons were killed; and the magistrates of Glasgow were sent to Edinburgh, but acquitted. Bannet, who commanded the troops, and condemned for murder; but afterwards pardoned and promoted. This affair cost 9000 l. During the rebellion in 1745, the city of Glasgow raised two battalions of men for the service of government. The rebels, however, had like to have cost them dear; for, in their journey south, they resolved to burn the city; which would probably have been done, had not Mr Cameron of Lochness, in that case, to withhold his contribution, however, was laid on, and about 14,000 l. of which they recovered upon applying to parliament. About 1750, a considerable change of manners took place among the inhabitants of Glasgow. The frugality and parsimony, had been their general character. But now, when an extensive commerce created manufactures had produced wealth, and of trade and improvement were adopted, people would formerly have been deemed madmen if they had undertaken; a new mode of living, dress, building, and an all-magnificent theatre, &c. were introduced. In 1767, the merchants having proposed a small canal from the firth of Forth to the Clyde, for the conveniency of their trade, several gentlemen, and throughout the kingdom, were of opinion that this canal should be erected.

per scale, than the one originally projected was accordingly obtained, and the cut in the manner described under the ANAL, § 9, and FORTH, § 4. In 1771, it was obtained for making and maintaining the canal and waggon-way from the collieries of Old and New Monkland, of Glasgow. On the 12th March, 1782, a great part of the city was laid under water, the inhabitants were taken out of their houses the Clyde having risen 20 feet above its level, and 18 inches higher than ever it had been to do before.

**GLASGOW, HOSPITALS AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS IN.** 1. The Town's Hospital is a building, consisting of two wings and a tower: the length 156 feet, the breadth of the wings 50 feet, and the depth of the wings 68 feet; and the building is an infirmary 127 feet long and 12 feet broad, the ascent to which is by a flight of 25 steps. The town's hospital was opened for the reception of the poor on the 15th Nov. 1791. Its revenue, in 1791, was 2400 l. 11 s. 5 d. from the general sessions, the town council, and merchants houses, the interest of lands arising from donations; money received from manufactures, and from boarders; and an annual sum made upon the inhabitants. The number of people, maintained in this hospital, was 350; besides 115 children nursed and 145 families supplied with meal and bread. 2. *Muirhead's*, or *St Nicholas's* Hospital was originally appointed to subsist 12 old men and 12 boys; but its revenues have been so diminished, that no more of them now remains but an alms-house of 12 old men and 12 boys. The income is about 1500 l. which is distributed in 1000 s. to old people, and in 500 s. to children. 3. *Hutcheson's* Hospital was founded and endowed in 1639, by James Hutcheson of Lamb-hill, notary public, and his brother, for the relief of 12 old men and 12 boys. The income is about 1500 l. which is distributed in 1000 s. to old people, and in 500 s. to children. 4. *The Merchant's* Hospital is a capital of above 17,000 l. and a revenue of above 1000 l. of which it distributes to 30 other charities about 800 l. yearly. *St Andrew's* Hospital has a revenue of above 1000 l. for the education of boys, was founded by George Wilson, who, in 1778, left that sum for that purpose. This fund is now concentrated, and gives education and clothing to 40 boys, each of whom continues 4 years, before they are admitted annually. There are also several other institutions of private societies for relieving the indigent and instructing them, as *Buchanan's Society*, *Graham's Society*, *the Society of the Sons of the Highland Society*, &c. The last 10 boys apprentices to trades, and first 3 years gives them clothing and education.

**GLASGOW, MANUFACTURES OF.** Although the manufactures of plaids, ropes, soap, &c. carried on in Glasgow, before the union, Mr Gibson is of opinion that the coun-

try to America first suggested the idea of carrying them to any considerable extent. The first attempts with that view were made about 1725; but their increase was not considerable, till great encouragement was given by the legislature to the linen manufacture in Scotland. The first causes of the success of this manufacture were the act of parliament in 1748, whereby the wearing of French cambrics was prohibited under severe penalties; that of 1751, allowing weavers in flax or hemp to settle and exercise their trades any where in Scotland free, from all corporation dues; and the bounty of 1 s. 6 d. per yard on all linens exported at and under 18 d. per yard. Since that time the spirit of manufacture has rapidly increased among the inhabitants of Glasgow; and great variety of goods, and in very great quantities, have been manufactured. Cheeks, lincens, and linen and cotton stuffs, are manufactured to great extent. Inceles were first made in 1732; printed lincens and cottons were begun to be manufactured in 1738; and handkerchiefs first printed in 1754. In 1757, carpets were begun to be made, and have been since carried on to a considerable extent. But the manufacture which has of late years been carried to the greatest extent, and by which immense and rapid fortunes have been made, is **MUSLIN**. The number of labourers employed in this single branch, is wonderful; while the consumption of cotton yarn in manufacturing mullins and calicoes, have occasioned the erection of extensive cotton mills, throughout the country. See **COTTON**, N<sup>o</sup> I, § viii, 1—4. The cotton manufactures, in 1791, employed, in Glasgow and its neighbourhood within 30 miles round, 15,000 looms, and 135,000 persons; who made goods amounting on an average to L. 1,500,000 sterl. per annum. *Statist. Acc.* V. 502. Besides these, numberless other articles are manufactured at Glasgow, of which our limits permit us not to give a detail; such as soap, sugar, iron-mongery, brass, jewellery, bottle and flint glass, pottery, hats, stockings, thread, gloves, shoes, saddles, &c. &c. Types for printing are made by Dr Wilson and Sons, equal, if not superior, in beauty to any in Britain.

(10.) **GLASGOW, MARKETS IN.** The markets in King's Street were erected in 1754, and are justly admired, as the completest of the kind in Britain. The herb market is neat and commodious; and the principal entry is decorated with columns. It is situated in the Candleriggs, and is laid out in the same manner with those in King's Street. Besides the weekly markets on Friday, there are 6 annual fairs held in Glasgow.

(11.) **GLASGOW, PARISHES IN.** Glasgow anciently formed but one parish; but as its population increased, it was afterwards divided into 7 parishes, and more lately into 8, which are named after the 8 churches. See § 3.

(12.) **GLASGOW, POPULATION OF.** At the union, the number of inhabitants was reckoned about 14,000. In 1743, Dr Webster calculated it at 18,366; but in his second report in 1755, it was stated at 23,546 souls, including those in the suburbs. In 1765, when a new division of the parish took place, it was estimated at 28,000. In 1785, an accurate survey was made, when the number was 36,139; besides 1000 in the suburbs.

But

But in 1791, the last and most accurate survey was made for *Sir J. Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland*; when the number of houses within the royalty was found to be 10,291, and that of the inhabitants 41,777; besides 20,168 souls in the suburbs and villages of Calton, Anderston, Grahamston, Gorbals, Cowcaddins, Camlachie, &c. So that the total population of the city and suburbs in 1791, was 61,945; and the increase since 1755, 38,399.

(13.) **GLASGOW, PRINTING IN.** Printing of books was first begun here by George Anderson about 1638. But there was no good printing in Glasgow till 1735, when Robert Urie printed several books in a very elegant manner. The highest perfection, however, to which printing has yet been carried in this place, was by the late Robert and Andrew Foulis, (who began in 1740); as the many correct and splendid editions of books printed by them in different languages testify.

(14.) **GLASGOW, PUBLIC HALLS IN.** The *Town House*, or *Talbooth*, is a magnificent and extremely elegant building. The front is adorned with a range of Ionic pilasters; and is elevated on strong rusticated pillars with arches, forming a piazza for merchants and others to shelter themselves from the weather when met upon business. The hall is 52 feet long, 27 wide, and 24 high. It is ornamented with whole length portraits of the kings of Scotland from K. James I, to George III. In 1781, the exchange under the piazzas was greatly enlarged, by taking down the lower part of the town-hall and assembly room; and at the same time by a tontine scheme entered into by the inhabitants, a most elegant coffee-room was added, with a suit of buildings adjoining, for the purposes of a tavern and hotel, assembly room, and offices for notaries, &c. 2. The *Guild-Hall*, or *Merchant's House*, is situated upon the S. side of Bridge-gate street; and is 82 feet long, and 31 wide. The great hall, which is the whole length and breadth of the building is so capacious, that it is better adapted for the reception of great and numerous assemblies than any other in the city. This house is adorned with a very elegant spire 200 feet high.

(15.) **GLASGOW, REVENUE OF.** The revenue amounts to 7,000 a-year. It arises from a duty upon all grain and meal brought into the city; from the rents of lands and houses belonging to the community; from an impost of two pennies Scots upon every Scots pint of ale or beer brewed, in-brought, or sold, within the city; from certain dues payable out of the markets; from the rents of the seats in churches; from the dues of cranage at the quay, weigh-house, &c. The tonnage on the river, the pontage of the bridge, and statute work, being no part of the city's revenue, are kept distinct under the management of commissioners appointed by act of parliament.

(16.) **GLASGOW, TRADE OF.** The first branch of trade, in which the citizens engaged, is said to have been the curing and exportation of salmon, caught in the Clyde. This trade was promoted by one Mr William Elphinstone in 1430; but the first authentic document concerning Glasgow as a trading city is in 1546. Complaints having been made by Henry VIII. of England, that several English

ships had been taken and robbed by vessels coming to Scotland, an order of council was discharging such captures for the future among other places mentioned in this Glasgow. Between 1630 and 1660, 24000000 lb of fish, and other valuable inland commerce was carried on by the inhabitants of Glasgow; and the exportation of salmon and herrings was greatly increased between 1660 and 1707. The citizens who distinguished themselves most during this period were James Gibbon and John Anderson. Gibbon exported in one year 300 lasts of herrings, and sent to St Martin's in France, on board a vessel called the *St Agate*, of 450 tons, 100000 lb of herrings, and 100000 lb of salt. He was the first who imported iron from Stockholm to Glasgow. Anderson is said to have been the first who imported white wines. But the Union with England, by allowing a free trade to America and the W. Indies, opened up a new source of commerce to the Glasgow traders; which they pursued with such ardour and success, that at present the shipping employed in it amounts to 60,000 tons. This commerce, however, has been with several interruptions from the opposition of the English merchants (of whose ruin it is a particular account in *Sir J. Sinclair's Statistical Account*, Vol. 498—500.) as well as from the American Revolution. Yet the spirit and industry of the Glasgow merchants proved so far superior to all opposition, that in 1790, the number of ships employed was 456, and their tonnage 45,000. In 1783, the same enterprising spirit gave birth to a society entitled the *Chamber of Commerce and Manufatures*, which has since obtained a charter, and whose exertions have been of great benefit to the country.

(17.) **GLASGOW, UNIVERSITY OF.** The university owes its origin to bishop Turrill (see § 7.) It was established in 1450; its members were all ecclesiastics; and its principal support derived from the church. In 1560, the university was brought to the verge of ruin by the magistrates, students, and servants, all of whom were expelled. The magistrates, sensible of the loss of the university to the community, endeavoured to restore it in 1572, by bestowing considerable funds, and prescribing regulations for its management. These proving insufficient, K. James VI. in 1577, by a charter called the *New Charter*, renewed the university, and bestowed upon it the town of Govan. Since that period, the university has been considerably enlarged by royal and the donations of private persons. They have also been increased from 4 to 12, and at present the university consists of a rector, dean of faculty, principal, and six professors (six of them in the gift of the crown) and 12 bursars, &c. The archbishop of Glasgow was formerly chancellor of the university; at present, the chancellor is the rector, dean of faculty, principal, &c. The revenue arises from the tithes of Govan, from those of the parishes of Kilbride, and Kilbride, granted by James VI. and confirmed by Charles I. in 1630; from

Calder, Old and New Monkland, charter from Charles II. in 1670; from the archbishoprick; and from several doffered by private persons. The university attended by above 500 students. **ASGOW**, a county of N. Carolina in District; bounded on the N. by Edg. by Pitt, S. by Lenoir, and W. by counties. It contained 2,668 citizens, 1795.

**ASGOW, BARONY OF.** See **BARONY**,

**ASGOW, CORBALS OF.** See **CORBALS**. **ASGOW, NEW PORT**, a parish of Scotland, erected in 1695, about one in extent. It is partly mountainous, the coast for 130 yards back it is nearly level, little higher than the water mark, naturally barren, sandy, and shallow, cultivation has been rendered very fertile. of the mountains is in tillage. The climate is moist but healthy. The population in 1755 exceeded 400 souls; but in 1755, according to Dr Webster's calculation, it had arisen and in 1790, by the rev. Mr J. Forrest's Sir J. Sinclair it was no less than 4,036: there was an increase of 2,341 within 35

**ASGOW, PORT, OR NEW PORT-GLASNEWARK**, a town in the above parish, comprehending the ground sewed by the city of Glasgow for erecting a port to that N<sup>o</sup> 1, y 7.) and the original village of now conjoined with it. These united in a burgh of barony, governed by two and 13 councillors. The revenue is about 2000. The harbour and pier are excellent, belonging to it, in 1791, were employed in the foreign trade, measuring 18; and 34 in the coasting and fishing business 1487 tons. The total number entered at this port, in 1790, was 450, 46,560 tons. The chief imports are sugar, rum, cotton, mahogany, log-wood, timber, iron, and hemp. Port is seated on the S. bank of the Clyde, 21 by N. of Glasgow, and 26 N. of Ayr. **BUTTEN**, or } a town of Hungary, famous for its hot baths, 7 miles from Schem-

**LETTER**, a district of Scotland, in Rosbe parish of Kintail.

**LOUGH, OR GLASSLOUGH**, a town of a Monaghan county, 5 miles NNE. of

**ASS, JOHN, M. A.** the founder of that **DEPENDENTS**, commonly distinguished by the name of **GLASSITES**, and in by that of **SANDEMANIANS**. (See **INDEX**.) His father was minister of Aberdeen he was born at his father's manse in : was educated and obtained the degree at St Andrews; and was, when a very n, ordained minister of Tealing, near His doctrine and ministry were remarkable drew much attention; and even while with the establishment, his peculiar

ideas, of the purity of church communion and government, were observable. In 1727, he published a work, entitled "The Testimony of the King of Martyrs," in which his Independent Principles were fully developed. In that treatise he maintains the inconsistency of any connection between civil establishments and the church of Christ, which is not of this world. This publication, with other concurring circumstances, produced a long controversy between Mr Glas and the Synod of Angus and Mearns. So far, however, from retracting or trimming in his principles, he still more openly avowed and maintained them, in a tract published the following year, entitled, "A Congregation subject to no Jurisdiction under Heaven." He was deposed in 1728, and immediately thereafter connected himself with a few poor people who adhered to him; and although his adherents have never been numerous, the doctrines which he taught have been generally spread through Britain and many parts of America. He was subjected to great poverty for many years, in supporting a numerous family of 13 children; and died at Dundee, in November 1773, highly valued by his friends, and respected by all who knew him. He published many religious Tracts, which were collected and printed in 4 vols 8vo. and since reprinted in five volumes; the leading doctrines in these works, are, 1. The divinity of Christ, and the perfection of his righteousness to justify the ungodly: 2. Purity of Christian Communion: 3. Independence of all human authority in matters of conscience: 4. The strictest subjection to civil government and magistracy in civil concerns: and 5. Unqualified obedience to the commands of Christ and his apostles.

(II.) **GLASS, JOHN**, son of the preceding (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) was born at Dundee, in 1725. He was bred a surgeon, but afterwards became captain of a merchant vessel belonging to London. In 1763, he embarked for Brazil, and took his wife and daughter along with him. In 1765, he re-embarked for London, taking with him his family and all his property. But when the ship came within sight of Ireland, four of the seamen formed a conspiracy and murdered Capt. Glas, his wife and daughter, the mate, one sailor and two boys. The murderers, having loaded the boat with dollars, sunk the ship, landed at Ross, and proceeded to Dublin, where they were apprehended, tried, convicted and executed. Capt. Glas was a man vol. 4to, entitled *A History of the Canary Islands*. of talents and letters. He published a work in 1765

(III.) \* **GLASS**, *adj.* Vitreous; made of glass.— Get the *glass* eyes;

And, like a scurvy politician, seem

To see the things thou do'st not. *Shak. K. Lear.* *Glass* bottles are more fit for this second sining than those of wood. *Mort. Husb.*

(IV. 1.) \* **GLASS**, *n. f.* [*glas*, Sax. *glas*, Dutch, as *Pezan* imagines from *ghis*, British, green. In Erse it is called *klann*, and this primarily signifies clean or clear, being so denominated from its transparency.] 1. An artificial substance made by fusing fixed salts and flint of sand together, with a vehement fire.—The word *glass* cometh from the Belgick and High Dutch, *glais*, from the verb *glansen*, which signifies amongst them to

shine; or perhaps from *glacies* in the Latin, which is ice, whose colour it resembles. *Peacbam.*—*Glass* is thought so compact and firm a body, that it is indestructible by art or nature, and is also of so close a texture, that the subtlest chymical spirits cannot pervade it. *Boyle.*—

Show'rs of grenadoes rain, by sudden burst  
Disploding murd'rous bowels, fragments of steel  
And stones, and *glass*s and nitrous grain aduft.

*Philips.*

1. A glass vessel of any kind.—

I'll see no more

And yet the eighth appears, who bears a *glass*;  
Which shews me many more. *Shak. Macbeth.*

3. A looking-glass; a mirror.—

He was the mark and *glass*, copy and book,  
That fashion'd t'other. *Shak. Henry IV.*

He spreads his subtle nets from sight,

With trinkling *glass*s to betray

The larks that in the m<sup>o</sup>thes light. *Dryd. Hor.*

4. An Hour GLASS. A glass used in measuring time by the flux of sand.—

Were my wife's liver

Infect'd as her life, she would not live

The running of one *glass*. *Shak. Wint. Tale.*

5. The destined time of man's life.—

No more his royal self did live, no more his  
noble sonne,

The golden Meleager now, their *glass*s all were  
run. *Chapman.*

6. A cup of glass used to drink in.—

To this last costly treaty,

That swallow'd so much treasure, and like a *glass*  
Did break i' th' rinsing. *Shak. Henry VIII.*

When thy heart

Dilates with fervent joys, and eager soul

Prompts to pursue the sparkling *glass*s, be sure

'Tis time to shun it. *Philips.*

7. The quantity of wine usually contained in a glass; a draught.—While a man thinks one *glass* more will not make him drunk, that one *glass* hath disabled him from well discerning his present condition. *Taylor.*—The first *glass* may pais for health, the second for good humour, the third for our friends; but the fourth is for our enemies. *Temple.*

8. A perspective glass.—

The moon whose orb  
Through optick *glass*s the Tuscan artist views.

*Milton.*

—Like those who survey the moon by *glasses*, I tell of a shining world above, but not relate the glories of the place. *Dryden.*

(2.) GLASS is derived by some from the Latin word GLASTUM, the name of a plant called by the Greeks *εαρσι*, by the Romans *vitrum*; by the ancient Britons *quadam*, and by the English *swad*. We find frequent mention of this plant in ancient writers, particularly Cæsar, Vitruvius, Pliny, &c. who relate, that the ancient Britons painted or dyed their bodies with glastum, quadam, vitrum, &c. i. e. with the blue colour procured from this plant. And hence, the name *glass*, which has always somewhat of this bluishness in it.

(3.) GLASS, ART OF MAKING. See GLASS-MAKING.

(4.) GLASS, ASTONISHING PROPERTIES OF.

1. Glass is one of the most elastic bodies in nature. It is the force with which glass balls strike each other

be reckoned 16, that wherewith the virtue of their elasticity will be 1

When glass is suddenly cooled, it becomes very brittle; and this brittleness is attended with very surprising phenomena

balls made of annealed glass, with them, will fly to pieces by the heat only, if the hole by which the internal air communicate be stopped

Lately, however, some vessels made of annealed glass have been discovered, with a remarkable property of resisting very given from without, though they suffer by the shocks received from the fall and minute bodies dropped into them

These glasses may be made of any thickness their bottoms must always be thick sides. The thicker the bottom is, the glasses break. One whose bottom

whose bottom breadth in thickness flies with ease at least as the thinnest glass. Some vessels have been tried with strokes sufficient to drive a nail into wood and have held good without break

and have also resisted the shock of several dies, let fall into their cavities, from 2 or 3 feet; as musket balls, piece

other metals, pyrites, jasper, wood But this is not surprising, as other of same shape and size will do the same wonder is, that taking a shiver of the

of a small pea, and letting it fall into ly from the height of 3 inches, in a condense the glass flies, and sometime

moment of the shock; nay, a bit of finer than a grain, dropped into several glass

sively, though it did not immediately yet when set by, they all flew in less quarters of an hour. Some other bodies

the same effect, as sapphire, diamond hard tempered steel, marble bowls. These experiments were made before

Society, and the effects were the same the glasses were held in the hand, and filled with water, or rested on a glass

glasses also broke upon rubbing them slightly with the finger, within half after rubbing. But when made unthin, they did not break. Hollow

green bottle glass, 3 inches thick at bottom, instantly broken by a shiver of flint, about 2 grains, though they had resisted

of a musket bullet from the height of 1000 paces, various but unsatisfactory reasons have been given for these phenomena, by Mr Euler

The effects are evidently occasioned by the motion some subtle fluid with which the interior of the glass is filled; and the motions when once excited in a particular

glass are soon propagated through the greatest part of it, and thus the cause becomes at last too weak to resist them. It can be little doubt that this fluid is the same as that which is called ELASTICITY. It is known to exist in great quantity; and to be capable of supporting glasses even when annealed with the heat if put into too violent a motion. The cooling of glass hastily may make



insistent with its cohesive power, to  
 can by the least increase of motion in  
 uid by friction or otherwise. This  
 ne case when it is broken by rubbing  
 er; but why it should also break by  
 tact of flint and the other bodies a-  
 red, has not yet been satisfactorily  
 r. 3. A most remarkable phenom-  
 ed in glass tubes placed in certain  
 2. When the tubes are laid before a fire  
 tal position, having their extremities  
 jointed, they acquire a rotatory mo-  
 air axis, and also a progressive motion  
 fire, even when their supports are de-  
 fire, so that the tubes will move a  
 wards to the fire. When the progres-  
 f the tubes towards the fire is stopped  
 e, their rotation still continues. When  
 placed in a nearly upright posture,  
 right hand, the motion will be from  
 it they lean to the left hand, their mo-  
 tom W. to E.; and the nearer they  
 the upright posture, the less will the  
 her way. If the tube is placed ho-  
 a glass plane, the fragment, for in-  
 ch window glass, instead of moving  
 re, it will move from it, and about  
 ontrary direction to what it had done  
 t will recede from the fire, and move  
 d when the place inclines towards  
 se experiments are recorded in the  
 N<sup>o</sup> 476. § 1. They succeeded best  
 out 20 or 22 inches long, which had  
 pretty strong pin fixed in cork for  
 causes of these phenomena have not  
 ed. 4. Glass is less dilatable by heat  
 substances, and solid glass sticks are  
 han tubes. This was first discovered  
 in making experiments to reduce  
 a greater degree of exactness than  
 een found practicable; (See *Philos.*  
 vii, p. 663.) and since his experi-  
 ade, one of the tubes 18 inches long,  
 ed with a solid glass rod of the  
 he former was found by a pyrome-  
 4 times as much as the other, in  
 ching to that of boiling oil. On ac-  
 uality which glass has of expanding  
 l, M. de Luc recommends it to be  
 lums; and he says, that its expan-  
 ys equable, and proportioned to the  
 at; a quality which is not to be  
 other substance yet known. *Philos.*  
 474. 5. Glass is more fit for the con-  
 vapours than metallic substances,  
 filled with water, in summer, will  
 f water on the outside, just as far  
 the inside reaches; and a person's  
 on it, manifestly moistens it. Glass  
 moist with dew, when metals do  
 7, § 7. 6. A drinking glass partly  
 er, and rubbed on the brim with a  
 lds musical notes, higher or lower  
 ore or less full; and makes the li-  
 re HARMONICA. 7. Glass is pos-  
 tent electrical virtues. See *ELECTR.*

**BALLS** are circular or otherwise  
 RT II.

shaped hollow vessels of glass, coloured within,  
 so as to imitate the semipellucid gems. The  
 method of doing it is this: Make a strong solution  
 ofisinglass, in water, by boiling; pour a quantity  
 of this while warm into the hollow of a white  
 glass vessel; shake it thoroughly about, that all  
 the sides may be wetted, and then pour off the  
 rest of the moisture. Immediately after this,  
 throw in red lead, shake it and turn it about,  
 throw it into many places with a tube, and the  
 moisture will make it stick and run in waves and  
 pretty figures. Then throw in some blue mass,  
 and make it run in waves in the ball as the red-  
 lead; then do the same with verdegis; next with  
 orpiment, then with red lake, all well ground;  
 always casting in the colours in different places,  
 and turning the glass, that the moisture within  
 may run them into the waves. Then take fine  
 plaster of Paris, and put a quantity of it into the  
 ball; shake it also nimbly about; this will every-  
 where stick firmly to the glass, and give it a strong  
 inner coat, keeping all the colours on very fairly  
 and strongly. These are set on frames of carved  
 wood, and much esteemed as ornaments in many  
 places.

(6.) **GLASS, COLOURING OF.** See **GLASS-MAKING, SECT. XIV, and PASTES.**

(7.) **GLASS, CUPPING.** See **SUPGERY, Index.**

(8.) **GLASS, DIFFERENT KINDS OF.** See **GLASS-MAKING, SECT. VI and XI.**

(9.) **GLASS DROPS.** See **RUPERT'S DROPS.**

(10.) **GLASS, ENGRAVING ON.** This art is quite  
 modern, and owes its origin to the discovery of  
 the fluoric acid. See **CHEMISTRY, § 667.** To  
 perform it, the glass is covered with melted wax  
 or mastic; and when this is hardened, the device  
 or figure is engraved upon it by a needle or other  
 sharp-pointed instrument. A mixture of the flu-  
 oric and sulphuric acids is then put upon the glass  
 or glass plate, and the whole covered with an in-  
 verted China cup to prevent the evaporation of  
 the fluoric acid. In two days the glass plate may  
 be cleared of its coating when all the traces of the  
 needle will be found engraved upon it.

(11.) **GLASSES, DIFFERENT KINDS OF.** Glasses  
 are distinguished, with regard to their form and  
 use, &c. into various kinds, as drinking glasses,  
 optical glasses, looking glasses, burning glasses, &c.

i. **GLASSES, BURNING.** See **BURNING, § 12—17.**

ii. **GLASSES, DRINKING,** are simple vessels of  
 common glass or crystal, usually made in form of  
 an inverted cone. Each glass consists of 3 parts,  
 viz. the calyx or bowl, the bottom, and the foot;  
 which are all wrought or blown separately. No-  
 thing can be more dexterous and expeditious than  
 the manner wherein these parts are all blown;  
 two of them opened, and all three joined to-  
 gether. An idea is only to be had of it, by seeing  
 the operations performed. The glasses chiefly used  
 in England are made of the ashes of fern;  
 crystal glasses being less common. The exceed-  
 ing brittleness of this commodity, notwithstanding  
 the easy rate of each glass, renders the consump-  
 tion thereof very considerable. For the method  
 of gilding the edges of drinking glasses, see **GLAS-  
 SING, § IV, 2.**

iii. **GLASSES, LOOKING.** See **FOLIATING, LOOKING GLASS, and MIRROR.**

IV. GLASSES, MUSICAL. See HARMONICA.  
 V. GLASSES, OPTICAL. See OPTICS, and TELESCOPE. The improvements hitherto made in telescopes by combining lenses made of different kinds of glass, though very great, are yet by no means adequate to the expectations that might reasonably be formed, if opticians could fall on any method of obtaining pieces of glass sufficiently large for pursuing the advantages of Mr Dollond's discovery. Unfortunately, however, though the Board of Longitude have offered a considerable reward for bringing this art to the requisite perfection, no attempt of any consequence has hitherto been made. Mr Keir is of opinion, that the accomplishment of this is by no means an easy task; as it requires not only a competent knowledge of the properties of glass fittest for the purpose (the faults not being evident to common inspection), but a considerable degree of chemical knowledge to invent a composition by which these faults may be avoided; and a dexterity in the execution of the work, which can only be acquired by practice. He, however, thinks, that if the subject were more generally understood, and the difficulties more fully pointed out, for which purpose he makes the following remarks, the end might be more easily accomplished. 1. The rays of light passing through a glass lens or prism, or through any other medium of unequal thickness, are refracted; but not in an equal manner, the blue, violet, &c. being more refracted than the red. 2. Hence it happens, that the rays of light, when refracted by a common lens, do not all unite in one focus, but in reality form as many different foci as there are colours; and hence arise the prismatic colours, or irises, which appear towards the borders of the image formed by the common convex lenses, and which render the vision extremely indistinct. 3. The indistinctness of vision produced by this cause, which is sensible in telescopes of a small aperture, increases in so great a proportion, viz. as the cubes of the diameters, that it seemed impossible to increase the power of dioptric telescopes greatly, without extending them to a very inconvenient length, unless this confusion of colours could be corrected. 4. It was known that different transparent bodies possessed different degrees of refractive power; and until Mr Dollond discovered the contrary, it was supposed, that the refractions of the coloured rays were always in a determined ratio to one another. On this supposition it seemed impossible to correct the faults of refracting telescopes; for it was supposed, that if the dispersion of light produced by a convex lens were counteracted by another lens or medium of a concave form, the refraction would be totally destroyed; and this indeed would be the case, if the two mediums were made of the same matter; and from some experiments made by Sir Isaac Newton, this was supposed to be actually the case in all substances whatever. 5. From considering that the eyes of animals are formed of mediums of different colours, it occurred first to Mr David Gregory, the celebrated professor of astronomy at Oxford, and then to Mr Euler, that, by a combination of mediums which had different refractive powers, it might be possible to remedy the imperfections of dioptric tele-

scopes. It does not, however, appear that any of these gentlemen understood the method on which these phenomena depend. Mr Dollond executed his idea by forming a common lens from two glass lenses with water between them; but his attempt was not attended with success. Mr Dollond, however, was led to this improvement by Mr Klingestern, one of Sir Isaac Newton's experimenters, who had induced even that great philosopher to suppose, that the improvement executed by Mr Dollond was impossible. A experiment was made by Sir Isaac Newton, consisting a glass prism within a prism made of water, in such a manner that the light, which were refracted by the first prism, should pass through and be refracted a second time by the water prism. In this experiment the refraction of the light was entirely counteracted. But when Mr Dollond repeated this experiment, he found, that, contrary to his own expectation, when the angles of the two prisms were proportioned that they counteracted each other's refraction, then colours appeared; on the other hand, when they were so proportioned that the dispersion of the coloured rays was not counteracted, the mean refraction still subsisted. He evidently proved, that the mean refractive powers of glass and water were proportional to one another. 6. To propose an improvement, Mr Dollond proposed several kinds of glass. Crown glass possesses the smallest dispersive power to its refraction; while flint glass possesses the greatest dispersive power in proportion to its refraction, which was also very great. By joining these two exactly together, he formed a wedge of white flint glass whose angle was 25 degrees, and another of crown glass whose angle was 29 degrees, refracted very nearly as 2 to 3; the refracted light from colour. On measuring the refracting powers of these two glasses, he found, that in flint glass, the sine of incidence to the sine of mean refraction as 1 to 1.5; that in crown glass, the sine of incidence to the sine of mean refraction as 1 to 1.2. By these methods of determining the different refractive powers of glass will be found under other experiments. We shall only observe, that two kinds of glass necessary for the construction of achromatic telescopes; one of which shall possess the greatest, the other as great, dispersive power in proportion to their mean refracting powers, as can be found. The difference of glasses in this respect depends on the quality of the ingredients employed in their composition. Crown glass, which is made of sand melted by means of the alkali of tartar, or kelp, both which fluxes consist of vegetable earth, alkali, and is found to give the smallest dispersive power to plate glass, which consists of sand melted with fixed vegetable alkali, with little or no earth, gives a greater dispersive power than flint glass, and

ed by means of minium and fixed alkalis, therefore, that the dispersion of greatest when minium, or probably oxalcalces, are made use of; and that all greater power of dispersion than ve other earths. Mr Zacher of Peter ever, informs us, that he has made a much superior in this respect to flint does not as yet appear whether it be optical purposes than that commonly seems no difficulty in augmenting the power, as that is found to depend on the minium or other flux; but thus we increase also the caputium fault to which all compositions of that kind are mely, the being subject to veins or a running through it. By these, even all as to be imperceptible to the naked s which fall on them are diverted from r direction, and the images thereby infused. This is owing to the great of the veins, as appears by their i received on white paper, when the between the paper and the sun, or t a proper distance. The rays of then made to converge by the supe of the veins, their images appear as bordered with obscure edges on the it glass is so much subject to this kind ion, that it is with difficulty the opti ck out pieces of the five commonly u arge quantity of the glass. It is fa gretted, that the minium which pro tatest dispersive power, is likewise the ce which renders flint glass much more se imperfections than any other. The at the sandy and earthy matters mix fusion; and having not only a confi ce of affinity towards each other, but ot much different from each other, apt to separate. On the other hand, u heavy substance as minium is added by substances, though it has a pretty cy to unite with them, it has none with ali, which is another ingredient in this e some parts of the glass will contain e matter than the rest; particularly e bottom of the pot, which is to full s as to be applied only to the making little value. The veins in this case y the descent of the minium to the h in its passage forms threads or veins other parts of the glass along with correction of this fault appears there ry difficult. M. Macquer informs us, n vain tried to remove it by very long fierce fire; which indeed others have erience not to correct, but to aug . Mr Keir is of opinion that some tion must be discovered, which, along ent refractive power, should possess formity of texture; but he is likewise hat scarce any alteration in this re e made without injuring the colour For optical purposes, however, he ik that an alteration in the colour of its would be very detrimental. " I l (says he), that glasses sensibly tin

ged with colour, might transmit as much or more light than the best flint glass. For the colourless appearance of flint glass is an optical deception. The minium gives it a considerable tinge of yellow, and the alkali inclines it to a bluish cast, besides the colour arising from a greater or less impurity of the materials; so that the glass would actually be very sensibly coloured, unless by the addition of manganese, which is known to give a purplish red. Thus the other tinges are counteracted, but not effaced or destroyed as has been frequently imagined. By the mixture of the three principal colours, red, yellow, and blue, more or less exactly counterpoised, a certain dark shade is introduced, in which, as not any one of the colours predominates, no coloured tinge appears, but the effect is merely a diminution of the transparency of the glass, which, however, is too small for ordinary observation." Mr Kier is even of opinion, that a certain tinge of yellow would in many cases be of service, because it would exclude some of the blue rays, which being most refrangible are most injurious to the distinctness of vision. Very great difficulties must arise in attempting improvements of this kind; as the experiments must all be tried on a very large scale. This is not only attended with a very heavy expence in itself, on account of the quantity of materials employed, but from the heavy duty of excise which is rigorously exacted whether the glass be manufactured into saleable articles or not. It is observed in the manufacture of every kind of glass, that the glass in the middle of the area or transverse section of a pot is much purer and freer from veins and other imperfections than the part which is near the sides, and that the glass at the bottom is the worst of all. Consequently it is chiefly in large pots, such as are used in manufactures, that there is a probability of success. Very fine and beautiful glasses called PASTES and artificial gems, may be made in smaller pots or crucibles; but this glass is suffered to cool and subside in the vessel, by which means the contiguous parts are more uniform in their texture than can be expected in a piece of glass taken out of the pot while hot in the common way, by making it adhere and twist round an iron rod or pipe. But although the method of allowing the glass to cool in the pots is very advantageous for the purposes of the jeweller, it is by no means applicable to those of the optician. Glass cooled in that gradual manner, suffers some degree of crystallization or peculiar arrangement of its parts; the consequence of which is, that the rays of light undergo certain refractions independent on the form of the glass, which greatly affect the distinctness of vision in TELESCOPES.

vi. GLASSES, PERSPECTIVE. See TELESCOPE.

(12.) GLASS, FOLIATING OF. See FOLIATING, and LOOKING-GLASS.

(13.) GLASS, FRENCH, } &c. See GLASS-

(14.) GLASS, GERMAN, } MAKING, SECT. XI.

(15.) GLASS, GILDING OF. See GILDING, § IV, 2.

(16.) GLASS, HOUR. See HOUR GLASS.

(17.) GLASS, IMPRESSIONS OF ANCIENT GEMS TAKEN IN. See PASTES.

(18.) GLASS, MUSCOVY. See MICA.

(19.) GLASS, NIGHT. See TELESCOPE.

(20.) GLASS OF ANTIMONY. See ANTIMONY, § 16.

(21.) GLASS OF LEAD, a glass made with the addition of a large quantity of lead, of great use in the art of making counterfeit gems. The method of making it is this: Put a large quantity of lead into a potter's kiln, and keep it in a state of fusion with a moderate fire, till it is calcined to a grey loose powder; then spread it in the kiln, and give it a greater heat, continually stirring it to keep it from running into lumps; continue this several hours, till the powder become of a fair yellow; then take it out, and sift it fine; this is called *calcined lead*. Take of this calcined lead 15 pounds, and crystalline or other frit 12 pounds; mix these as well as possible; put them in a pot, and set them in the furnace for ten hours; then cast the whole, which will be now perfectly melted, into water; separate the loose lead from it, and return the metal into the pot. After standing in fusion 12 hours more, it will be fit to work. It is very tender and brittle, and must be worked with great care, taking it slowly out of the pot, and continually wetting the marble it is wrought upon. White lead, minium, litharge, and all the other preparations and calces of lead, are easily fused by a moderate fire, and formed into a transparent glass of a deep yellow colour. But this glass is so penetrating and powerful a flux, that it is necessary to give it a greater consistence, to render it fit for use. With this view, two parts of calx of lead, e. g. minium, and one part of sand or powdered flints, may be put into a crucible of refractory clay, and baked into a compact body. Let this crucible, well closed with a luted lid, be placed in a melting furnace, and gradually heated for an hour or an hour and a half; and afterwards let the heat be increased so as to obtain a complete fusion, and continued in that state for the same time; let the crucible remain cool in the furnace; and when it is broken, a very transparent yellow-coloured glass will be found in it. Some add nitre and common salt to the above mixture, because these salts promote the fusion and the more equal distribution of the sand. This glass of lead has a considerable specific gravity, and its lowest part is always the heaviest. It is an important flux in the assays of ores to facilitate their scorifications. It is capable of all the colours of the gems in very great perfection. The methods of giving them are these: for green, take pulverine frit 20 lb. lead calcined 16 lb. sift both the powders very fine; then melt them into a glass, separating the unmixed lead, by plunging the mass in water; after this, return it into the pot, and add brass thrice calcined 6 oz. and one penny-weight of crocus martis made with vinegar; put this in at six different times, always carefully mixing it together; let it finally settle an hour, then mix it together, and take a proof of it; when the colour is right, let it stand 8 hours, and then work it. If, instead of the calcined brass, the same quantity of the caput mortuum of the vitriolum veneris be used, the green is still finer.

(22.) GLASS, OPERA. See DIOPTRICS, *Index*.

(23, i.) GLASS, PAINTING IN, ANCIENT METHODS AND HISTORY OF. The ancient manner of painting on glass was very simple; it consisted

in the mere arrangements of pieces of glass of different colours in some sort of symmetry, situated what is now called *Mosaic-work*. SAIC. In process of time they came to more regular designs, and also to represent heightened with all their shades: yet it proceeded no farther than the contours of things in black with water colours, and hatching peries after the same manner on glasses of colour of the object they designed to paint. For carnation, they used glass of a bright red and upon this they drew the principal lines of the face, &c. with black. At length, for this sort of painting improving cost and the art being found applicable to the painting of churches, basilicas, &c. they found means of incorporating the colours in the glass itself, by heating them in a fire to a proper heat having first laid on the colours. A French artist at Marseilles is said to have given the name of this improvement, upon going to Rome under Julius II.; but Albert Durer and Lucas de Leyden were the first that carried it to any perfection. This art, however, has met with much neglect, and sometimes been almost totally forgotten, which Mr Walpole gives the following account in his *Anecdotes of Painting in England*. The first interruption given to it was by the Reformation, which banished the art out of churches; it was in some measure kept up in the castles of the nobility and gentry in the window seats. Towards the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign it was omitted even there; yet the art did not entirely cease. The chapel of our Lady at Warwick was ornamented anew by Robert Dudley earl of Leicester, and his countess, a painter of the glass painter's name yet remaining, the date 1574; and in some of the churches the art again appears, in 1622, by the hand of no contemptible master. I could supply this gap of 48 years by many dates of windows of glass; but nobody ever supposed that the art was lost so early as the reign of James I. it has not perished since will be evident from the following series, reaching to the present time. The portraits in the windows of the library at Souls, Oxford. In the chapel at Queen's College, there are 12 windows, dated 1518. Philip Rubens painted the glass in the chapel at Warwick, 1574. The windows at Wadhurst, the drawing pretty good, and the colouring by Bernard Van Linge, 1622. In the chapel at the Swan Inn, a window, with the name of the painter, 1623. In the church of St Leonard, Stratford, two windows by Baptista Sutton, 1624. In the chapel at University College, Oxford, 1687. At Christ church, Oxford, a window, aged 84, 1700. Window at Queen's College, by William Price, now living, whose colours are fine, and whose taste in ornamenting is good, and whose taste in ornamenting is far superior to any of his predecessors, equal to the antique, to the good Italian, and only surpassed by his own industry. Price was the only painter in the many years in England. Afterwards one of a plumber at Reading, did some things

the late Henry earl of Pembroke; but his colours soon vanished. At last he found a very beautiful and durable red; but he died in or two, and the secret with him. A Birmingham began the same art in 1756 or 1757, and fitted up a window for Lord Lyttelton, church of Hagley; but soon broke. A little after, one Peckitt at York began the same art, and has made good proficiency. A few years after that art collected some dispersed panes in ancient buildings, particularly the late Lord North, who erected a Gothic temple at Stowe, and fitted it with arms of the old nobility. &c. In the year 1753, one Ascitti, an Italian, who had married a Flemish woman, brought a set of painted glass from Flanders, and sold it for 450 guineas to Mr Bateman of Old Windmill-lane, that I sent Ascitti again to Flanders, and bought me 450 pieces, for which, including the expence of his journey, I paid him 367 r. His wife made more journeys for the same purpose; and sold her cargoes to one Palglazier in St Martin's lane, who immediately raised the price to 1, 2, or 3 guineas for a piece, and fitted up entire windows with and with mosaics of plain glass of different colours. In 1761, Paterson an auctioneer at Effie in the Strand, exhibited the two first sets of painted glass, imported in like manner from Flanders. All this manufacture consisted of scripture histories, stained in black and white, or in small figures of black and white; and flowers in colours, and Flemish coats of arms. The colours used in painting glass are different from those used in painting either in oil or oil colours. For *black*, take scales of iron ore; scales of copper, 1 oz.; jet,  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz.; them to powder and mix them. For *blue*, powder of blue, 1 lb.; sal nitre,  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb.; mix and grind them well together. For *carmin*, take red chalk, 8 oz.; iron scales and scales of silver, of each, 2 oz.; gum arabic, 1 lb.; dissolve in water; grind all together for an hour very stiff; then put it in a glass jar, and let it stand to settle 14 days. For *green*, take red lead 1 lb.; scales of copper, and flint, 5 lb.: divide them into 3 parts; add to them as much sal nitre; put them in a crucible, and melt them with a strong fire; when it is cold, powder it, and grind it on a mill. For *gold colour*, take silver, 1 oz.; iron,  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz.; melt them in a crucible; then the mass to powder, and grind it on a mill; add to it yellow ochre, or brick-dust 1 lb.; and grind them well together with water. For *purple*, take minium, 1 lb.; crown stone, 1 lb.; white flint, 5 lb.; divide into 3 parts, and add to them as much sal nitre; calcine, melt, and grind on a mill. For *red*, take jet, 4 oz.; litharge of silver, 2 lb.; chalk, 1 oz.; powder them fine, and mix them. For *white*, take jet, two parts; white lead, one part; put all into a glass very fine, one part; mix them. For *yellow*, take Spanish brown, ten parts; leaf silver, one part; antimony, half a part; put all into a crucible, and calcine them. In the windows of ancient churches, &c. are to be seen the most beautiful and vivid

colours imaginable, which far exceed any of those used by the moderns, not so much because the secret of making those colours was entirely lost, as that the moderns will not go to the charge of them, nor be at the necessary pains, as this sort of painting is not now so much esteemed as formerly. Those beautiful works which were made in the glass houses were of two kinds. In some, the colour was diffused through the whole substance of the glass. In others, which were the more common, the colour was only on one side, scarce penetrating within the substance above  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a line; though this was more or less according to the nature of the colour, the yellow being always found to enter the deepest. These last, though not so strong and beautiful as the former, were of more advantage to the workmen, as on the same glass, though already coloured, they could show other kinds of colours where there was occasion to embroider draperies, enrich them with foliage, or represent other ornaments of gold, silver, &c. For this purpose they made use of emery, grinding or wearing down the surface of the glass till they got through the colour to the clear glass. This done, they applied the proper colours on the other side of the glass. By these means, the new colours were hindered from running and mixing with the former, when they exposed the glasses to the fire. When the ornaments were to appear white, the glass was only bared of its colour with emery, without tinging the place with any colour at all; and this was the manner by which they wrought their lights and heightenings on all kinds of colour.

(ii.) GLASS, PAINTING IN, MODERN METHOD OF. To paint glass, in the modern way, first design, and even colour, the whole subject on paper. Then choose such pieces of glass as are clear, even, and smooth, and proper to receive the several parts; and proceed to distribute the design itself, or papers it is drawn on, into pieces suitable to those of the glass; always taking care that the glasses may join in the contours of the figures and the folds of the draperies; that the carnations, and other finer parts, may not be impaired by the lead with which the pieces are to be joined together. The distribution being made, mark all the glasses as well as papers, that they may be known again: which done, applying every part of the design upon the glass intended for it, copy or transfer the design upon this glass with the black colour diluted in gum water, by tracing and following all the lines and strokes as they appear through the glass with the point of a pencil. When these strokes are well dried, which they will be in about two days, the work being only in black and white, give a slight wash over with urine, gum arabic, and a little black; and repeat it several times, according as the shades are to be heightened; with this precaution, never to apply a new wash till the former is sufficiently dried. The lights and risings are then given by rubbing off the colour in the respective places with a wooden point, or the handle of the pencil. As to the other colours above-mentioned, they are used with gum-water, much as in painting in miniature; taking care to apply them lightly, to prevent effacing the outlines of the design; or even, for the

greater

greater security, to apply them on the other side; especially yellow, which is very pernicious to the other colours, by blending therewith. And here too, as in pieces of black and white, particular regard must always be had not to lay colour on colour, or lay on a new lay, till the former are well dried. The yellow is the only colour that penetrates through the glass, and incorporates therewith by the fire; the rest, particularly the blue, (which is very difficult to use,) remaining on the surface, or at least entering very little. When the painting of all the pieces is finished, they are carried to the furnace or oven to anneal or bake the colours. The furnace here used is small, built of brick, from 18 to 30 inches square. At six inches from the bottom is an aperture to put in the fuel and maintain the fire. Over this aperture is a grate made of 3 square bars of iron, which traverse the furnace, and divide it. Two inches above this partition is another little aperture, through which they take out pieces to examine how the coction goes forward. On the grate is placed a square earthen pan, 6 or 7 inches deep, and 5 or 6 inches less every way than the perimeter of the furnace. On the one side hereof is a little aperture, for making trials, placed directly opposite to that of the furnaces destined for the same end. In this pan are the pieces of glass to be placed in the following manner: First, the bottom of the pan is covered with 3 strata or layers of quicklime pulverised; those strata being separated by two others of old broken glass, to secure the painted glass from the too intense heat of the fire. The glasses are then laid horizontally on the last or uppermost layer of lime. The first row of glass is covered over with a layer of the same powder an inch deep; over this is laid another range of glasses, and thus alternately till the pan is quite full; taking care that the whole heap always end with a layer of the lime powder. The pan being thus prepared, cover up the furnace with tiles, on a square table of earthen ware, closely luted all round; leaving 5 little apertures, one at each corner, and another in the middle, to serve as chimneys. The fire for the first two hours must be very moderate, and must be increased in proportion as the coction advances, for 10 or 12 hours; in which time it is usually completed. At last the fire, which at first was charcoal, is to be of dry wood, so that the flame covers the whole pan, and even issues out at the chimneys. During the last hours, make essays, from time to time, by taking out pieces laid for the purpose through the little aperture of the furnace and pan, to see whether the yellow be perfect, and the other colours in good order. When the annealing is thought sufficient, extinguish the fire, as quickly as possible; otherwise it would soon burn the colours, and break the glasses.

(24.) GLASS, PAINTING ON, BY MEANS OF PRINTS. See BACK-PAINTING.

(25.) GLASS PORCELAIN, the name given by many to a modern invention of imitating china ware with glass. The method given by M. Reaumur, who was the first that carried the attempt to any degree of perfection, is shortly this: The glass vessels to be converted into porcelain are to be put into a large earthen vessel, such as the com-

mon fine earthen dishes are baked in, or sufficiently large crucibles; the vessels are to be with a mixture of fine white sand, and gypsum burnt into what is called plaster and all the interstices are to be filled up same powder, so that the glass vessels where touch either one another, or the the vessel they are baked in. The vessel then covered down and luted, and the the rest of the work; for this is only to be to a common potter's furnace, and when stood there the usual time of the baking of vessels, it is to be taken out, and the contents will be found no longer glass, but converted into a white opaque substance, which is a good porcelain, and has almost the property that of China. The powder which has served will do again as well as fresh, and that for number of times: nay, it seems ever so often cause of this transformation, says Macquer probably that the vitriolic acid of the gypsum its basis of calcareous earth, and unites with alkaline salt and saline earth of the glass which it forms a kind of selenite, derived from the calcareous selenites, of which matter the glass acquires the quality of porcelain.

(26.) GLASS POTS. See GLASS-MAKING

(27.) GLASS TEAS. See RUPERT'S D

(28.) GLASS, TIN, the same with Bismuth BISMUTH, and CHEMISTRY, Index.

(29.) GLASS, VESSELS OF, USED IN CHEMISTRY. See CHEMISTRY, Index.

(30.) GLASS, WATCH. See WATCH.

(31.) GLASS, WEATHER. See BAROMETER.

(V. i.) GLASS, [from *glafs*, Gael. *l. e. g.* geography, a parish of Scotland, in the shire of Aberdeen and Banff, so called from the steepness of its hills. It is about 8 miles long from SW. and 6 broad. The *Dovern* runs through it. The soil is a deep loam. The usual crops, barley, and pease; along the bank of the river they are pretty early, but the climate cold, the rest are late. Turnips, potatoe, clover, are also cultivated by some. In 1778 farmers had not a peck of meal from a dried corn; but the king's bounty of 500000 served the inhabitants from starving. The *ber*, in 1791, stated by the rev. J. Cooper report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 970; which below that of Dr Webster, in 1755. The are bad, and in some places swampy.

(ii.) GLASS, a river of Scotland, in Inver-shire, which, after receiving the *Cannich* from NW. unites with the *Farrar*, and falls into *Beaully*. See *BEAULY*, N° 2.

(iii.) GLASS, LOCH, a beautiful navigal of Scotland, in Ross-shire, 5 miles long, 1 and 6 from the sea; remarkable for never freezing unless the frost be uncommonly severe. It is a with fine trouts.

(iv.) GLASS, STRATH, a district of Inver-shire, lying on both sides of the river *GLASS*.

\* To GLASS. *v. a.* 1. To see as in a glass or mirror. Not it

Methinks I am partaker of thy passion  
And in thy case do *glafs* mine own debi-



in glass.—

ought all his senses were lockt in his eye,  
is in crystal for some prince to buy;  
and 'ring their own worth, from whence  
y were *glass*,  
out to buy them, along as yon pass.

*Sbakesp.*  
er with glass; to glaze.—I have obser-  
v'd grains of silver to lie hid in the small ca-  
vities *glassed* over by a vitrifying heat, in  
wherein silver has been long kept in fu-  
.

ARY, [from *glasra*, Gael. a grayish  
parish of Scotland, in Argyllshire. 22 m.  
12 broad. Its form is nearly a parallel,  
usually from each side, and forming an  
tract of moor-land. The river Ad rises  
extremity, and runs through it. It has  
shery. The salmon are sold on the spot  
lb. The soil consists of loam, clay, and  
it produces tolerable crops of oats, bar-  
tatoes; but it is best adapted for green  
he others are often injured by munda-  
ne Ad, the climate being rainy. The  
in 1792, stated by the rev. Dugald  
in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was  
had decreased 183, since 1755. There  
horses, 3,200 black cattle, and 1200  
be parish has been partly improved by  
and plantations of trees.

CARRICK POINT, a cape on the E.  
ireland, in Wexford. Lon. 6. 12. W.  
N.

CASE, *n. f.* [from *glass* and *case*.] a kind  
press, with a glass lid or door, and pro-  
cess, nails, shelves, &c. in the inside;  
er horizontally upon a table, counter,  
s, or fixed perpendicularly against a  
ie shops of jewelers, hardware-men,  
rs, toy-men, and other dealers in showy  
isplay their goods to the best advan-  
tage is also applied to those windows  
ps, that are fitted up with shelves, &c.  
as frames on the inside, for exhibiting  
wares they contain to passengers.

ENBURY, a small town in Kent.

ERTON, [Sax. *i. e.* the bare hill.] a pa-  
rish in Wigtonshire, 7½ miles long  
N. and from 1½ to 2 miles 7 furlongs  
e surface is hilly and rugged: the soil

either loam, gravel, peat earth, or clay. The  
weather is variable but mild. Agriculture is great-  
ly improved; particularly on the estates of R. Haw-  
thorn-Stewart, Esq. of Physgill, and Mr Stewart  
of Castle Stewart. "The highly cultivated con-  
dition of the estate of Glasserton," says the rev.  
Dr Davidfon, "is undeniably a fine monument of  
the taste, judgment and ardent public spirit of its  
late proprietor," Adm. Keith Stewart. The po-  
pulation, in 1795, stated by the Dr in his report  
to Sir J. Sinclair, was 900 souls, and the increase  
91, since 1755. The rearing of black cattle of  
the Galloway race is the principal object of the  
farmers. Full grown and well fed oxen, of four  
years old, sell at from 9 l. to 11 l. old cows at 8 l.  
or 10 l. and bullocks of 3 years old, at 7 l. or 8 l.  
Sheep, horses, and swine, are also reared in great  
numbers. Some sheep have been sold at a guinea  
a head. The numbers of none of these cattle are  
specified.

GLASSFORD. See GLASFORD.

(1.) \* GLASSFURNACE. *n. f.* [*glass* and *furnace*.]  
A furnace in which glass is made by liquefaction.  
—If our dreamer pleases to try whether the glow-  
ing heat of a *glass-furnace* be barely a wandering  
imagination in a drowsy man's fancy, by putting  
his hand into it, he may perhaps be awakened in-  
to a certainty that it is something more than bare  
imagination. *Locke*.

(2.) GLASS FURNACE. See GLASS-MAKING, § V.

\* GLASSGAZING. *adj.* [*glass* and *gazing*.] Fi-  
nical; often contemplating himself in a mirror.—  
A whoreson, *glassgazing*, finical rogue. *Sbak.*

\* GLASSGRINDER. *n. f.* [*glass* and *grinder*.]  
One whose trade is to polish and grind glass.—  
The *glassgrinders* complain of the trouble they  
meet with. *Boyle*.

GLASSGRINDING, *n. f.* the art of grinding glass.  
See GLASS-MAKING, § VIII.

\* GLASSHOUSE. *n. f.* [*glass* and *house*.] A house  
where glass is manufactured.—I remember to have  
met with an old Roman Mosaic, composed of lit-  
tle pieces of clay half vitrified, and prepared at  
the *glasshouses*. *Addison on Italy*.

GLASSHUTTEN, a town of Saxony, 3 miles  
from Dresden, near a silver mine.

GLASSITES. See GLASS, N° I, and INDE-  
PENDENTS.

GLASSLOUGH. See GLASLOUGH.

GLASS-MAKER, *n. f.* one who makes glass.

## G L A S S - M A K I N G .

DEFINITION and HISTORY of GLASS-  
MAKING.

MAKING, *n. f.* the art of making  
or the manufacture of that commo-  
n article we shall give a brief description,  
the materials and art of glass-making,  
several branches connected with it;  
firing, polishing, and colouring of glass.  
The period the art of glass-making was first  
altogether uncertain. Some suppose  
it to be before the flood; and NERI traces  
it at least to the time of Job. But these

are mere conjectures; for the word *Zechuchib*,  
translated *crystal*, (Job xxviii. 17.) admits of vari-  
ous significations, and from the context evidently  
means some precious stone.

The EGYPTIANS boast, that this art was taught  
them by Hermes. Aristophanes, Aristotle, Alex-  
ander Aphrodisicus, Lucretius, and St John the di-  
vine, put it out of all doubt that glass was used in  
their days. Pliny relates, that it was first disco-  
vered accidentally in Syria, at the mouth of the  
river Belus, by certain merchants driven thither  
by a storm at sea; who being obliged to continue  
there, and dress their vituals by making a fire on  
the ground, where there was great plenty of the  
herb

herb kali; that plant, burning to ashes, its salts mixed and incorporated with the sand, or stones fit for vitrification, and thus produced glass; and that, this accident being known, the people of Sidon in that neighbourhood essayed the work, and brought glass into use; since which time the art has been continually improving.

Be this as it may, the first glass-houses mentioned in history were erected in TYRE, where the only staple of the manufacture was for many ages. The sand which lay on the shore for about half a mile round the mouth of the Belus was peculiarly adapted to the making of glass; and the wide range of the Tyrian commerce gave an ample vent for the productions of the furnace.

The first time we hear of glass made among the ROMANS was in the reign of Tiberius, when Pliny relates that an artist had his house demolished for making glass malleable, or rather flexible; though Petronius Arbitrator and others assure us, that the emperor ordered the artist to be beheaded for his invention. It is certain that a plate of glass was found at Herculaneum, which was destroyed, A. D. 80; and that glass vessels were made at Rome under Nero. The earliest mention made of glass windows is by Lactantius in the 3d century.

Before the conquest of BRITAIN by the Romans, glass-houses had been erected in this island, as well as in Gaul, Spain, and Italy. Hence, in many parts of the country are to be found annulets of glass, having a narrow perforation and thick rim, denominated by the remaining Britons *glein-u-naid-reedb*, or *glass adders*, and which were probably in former times used as amulets by the druids. See ANGUINUM OVUM. It can scarcely be doubted, that the Britons were sufficiently well versed in the manufacture of glass, to form out of it many more useful instruments than glass beads. History indeed assures us, that they did manufacture a considerable quantity of glass vessels. These, like their annulets, were most probably green, blue, yellow, or black, and many of them curiously streaked with other colours. The process in the manufacture would be nearly the same with that of the Gauls or Spaniards. The sand of their shores being reduced to a sufficient degree of fineness by art, was mixed with  $\frac{1}{4}$ th of its weight of their native pitch the same with our kelp, and both were melted together. The melt was then poured into a mould, where it was not to harden into a mass, and afterwards replaced in the furnace, where it became transparent by the boiling; and was afterwards figured by blowing, or modelling in the fire, into such vessels as they wanted.

According to Beloe, the first success in making glass for windows, was first introduced into England in 1574, by the Dutch merchants who were employed in glassing the windows of the court of wools in that city, which they had first seen done when first brought over by William of Orange, who was first about the year 1600. The first success in making glass plates of various sizes, and in the making and glass windowed churches, was first done about 1670. They first began to make them in France, from whence they came to England. VENEZIANI, for many years, excelled all other people in the making of its glasses, and in the 17th century, the Venetians were the only people that had the making crystal looking-glasses.

The glass manufacture was first begun in 1557: the finer sort was made at Friars, in London; the fine flint glass, prior to that of Venice, was first made at House, in the Strand, London. This

manufacture appears to have been much improved when it was carried on with pit coal wood; and a monopoly was granted to Mansel, who was allowed to import Venetian flint glasses for drinking, the art which was not brought to perfection in the reign of William III.

The first glass plates, for looking-coach windows, were made in 1673, and by the encouragement of the duke of Devonham; who, in 1670, introduced the use of fine glass into England, by Venice with amazing success. So that within a century, the French and English have not only led but even excelled the Venetians, and no longer supplied from abroad. I have made a considerable improvement in *glass*, by the invention of a method to make large plates, till then unknown, and perfected yet by any but themselves and I. This branch was established in Lancashire and is now very flourishing.

#### SECT. II. Of the THEORY of VITRIFICATION.

WITH regard to the theory of VITRIFICATION we are almost totally in the dark. It seems to be that state in which solid bodies, by the vehement action of fire, fitted to dissipate or carried off in vapour. In such situations there is a plentiful evaporation; solid substance is carried off in vapour, and the heat of a burning speculum, always previously takes place. The transition, between the state of fusion and that of a solid body, appears to be, that in the fire acts upon the parts of the body in such a manner as only to dissolve them, and render them fluid; but in vitrification it acts on the particles, but continues with them, and makes them into a third substance; where it is as much fire as it can contain, and hence their change from that density, except melted off in vapour.

But though we are unable to effect it upon solid bodies without a very violent heat, as in the several processes of crystal, and crystallization, nature may perhaps give us an idea how we can make what we call *glass*, but I believe are called *pyromorphosis*; but if they discover the essential properties, or nature of *pyromorphosis*. The most curious property of glass is its retaining the force of fire, and cannot admit of the best exchange of their fibres, but retaining their force, and still being very hard. The only use of it is for some vessels, and in the making of the most precious stones, and in the making of glass.

It is a common objection to this plan, that kinds of glass are capable of being con-



porcelain by a long continued cementation. This change happens in those kinds of glass which are made of salt and sand; and Dr Lewis has shown that ice is produced by the dissipation of the principle, which is the least fixed of the two. Therefore, we may consider as a substance which the fire has no other effect, than either to dissipate it in vapour.

• *Of the MATERIALS for MAKING GLASS.*

Materials, whereof glass is made, are salt or stones. I. The salt is procured from ashes brought from the Levant, called *or rochetta*. They are the ashes of a plant named KALI, (see SALSOLA, N<sup>o</sup> 1 & 2.) in summer, dried in the sun, and burnt either on the ground, or on iron grates; falling into a pit, grow into a hard mass, fit for use. It may also be procured from kelp, or the ashes of the *fucus vesiculosus*. See FUCUS, N<sup>o</sup> 12; and KELP.

Next the salt, these ashes are powdered and put into boiling water, and there kept till of the water be consumed; the whole is then strained up from time to time, that the ashes separate with the fluid, and all its salts be dissolved; then the vessel is filled up with new water, and boiled over again, till one half be consumed; that remains is a sort of ley, strongly coloured with salt. This ley, boiled over again in coppers, thickens in about 24 hours, and its salt, which is to be luted out, as is done in earthen pans, and thence into earthen pans to drain and dry. This done, it is dried, and thus put into a sort of oven, or furnace, to dry.

There are also other plants which yield a salt fit for use, such as the common thistle, bramble, mulberry, woad, tobacco, fern, and the numerous tribe, as pease, beans, &c. These form a leading flux in the manufacture of glass, and mostly supply the place of the Levant barilla of Spain, and other kinds. For the most part, they are sorted for making both glass and soap.

II. ASH. There are other fluxes used for the making of glass, and for various purposes, such as lead, nitre, sea salt, borax, arsenic, sulphur, and wood ashes, containing the most fixate salts as produced by incineration. In regard to these several fluxes, we may observe in general, that the more calx of lead, or of siliceous earth, that enters into the composition of glass, so much the more fusible, soft, and dense this glass is, and reciprocally the less given to glass, by calxes of lead, are the glasses that are given; on the other hand, glasses that are given by saline fluxes partake of the properties of saline fluxes; they are less heavy, less dense, harder, less brilliant, and more brittle than the glasses containing both saline and siliceous substances. Glasses too saline are easily altered by the action of air and especially those in which alkalis prevail; they are also liable to be injured by acids. Glasses that contain too much borax and arsenic, in the first they appear very beautiful, quickly

PART II.

turnish and become opaque when exposed to air. By attending to these properties of different fluxes, the artist may adjust the proportions of these to sand, or powdered flints, for the various kinds of glass.

II. The sand or stone, called by the artists TARSO, is the second ingredient in glass, and that which gives it the body and firmness. These stones, Agricola observes, must be such as will fuse; and of these such as are white and transparent are best; so that crystal has the precedency of all others. At Venice they chiefly use a sort of pebble, found in the Tefino, resembling white marble, and called *cuogolo*. Indeed Ant. Neri assures us, that all stones, which will strike fire with steel, are fit to vitrify; but Dr Morret shows, that there are some exceptions from this rule. Flints are admirable; and when calcined, powdered, and fused, make a pure white crystalline metal; but the expense of preparing them makes the masters of our glass-houses sparing of their use. Where proper stones cannot be so conveniently had, sand is used. The best for this purpose is that which is white, small, and shining; examined by the microscope, it appears to be small fragments of rock crystal. For green glass, that which is of a soft texture, and more gritty; it is to be well washed, which is all the preparation it needs. Our glass-houses are furnished with white sand, for their crystal glasses, from Lynn in Norfolk and Maidstone in Kent, and with the coarser, for green glass, from Woolwich.

III. Some mention a 3d ingredient in glass, viz. manganese; (see MANGANESE;) but the proportion of it to the rest is very inconsiderable; nor is it used in all glass. It purges off the natural greenish colour, and gives it some other tincture required. For this purpose it should be chosen of a deep colour, and free from specks of a metalline appearance, or a lighter cast. It requires to be well calcined in a hot furnace, and then to undergo a thorough levigation. The effect of manganese in destroying the colours of glass, (and hence called the *soap of glass*;) is thus accounted for by M. Montamy, in his *Traité des Couleurs pour la Peinture en Email*. It destroys the green, olive, and blue colours of glass, by adding to them a purple tinge, and by the mixture producing a blackish brown colour; and as blackness is caused merely by an absorption of the rays of light, the blackish tinge given to the glass by the mixture of colours, prevents the reflection of so many rays, and thus renders the glass less coloured than before. But the black produced by this substance suggests an obvious reason for using it very sparingly in these compositions of glass which are required to be very transparent. Nitre or saltpetre is also used with the same intention; as it serves to free glass prepared with lead as a flux from its yellow-coloured tinge; and in saline glasses, nitre is requisite in a smaller proportion to render them sufficiently transparent, as in the case of looking glass and other kinds of plates.

SECT. IV. *Of the FURNACES used in GLASS-MAKING.*

In this manufacture there are three sorts of furnaces; the 1st, called *calcar*, is for the fire; the 2d, for working the glass; the 3d, for annealing it, is called the *leer*. See *Plat. CLXVII.*

O O O

L. THE

I. The CALCAR is an oven 10 feet long, 7 feet broad, and 2 deep: the fuel, which in Britain is sea coal, is put into a trench on one side of the furnace; and the flame, reverberating from the roof upon the frit, calcines it. See CALCAR, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

II. The GLASS FURNACE, or WORKING FURNACE, is round, of 3 yards diameter, and 2 high; or in that proportion. It is divided into 3 parts, each of which is vaulted. The lower part is properly called the *croron*, and is made in that form. Its use is to keep a brisk fire, which is never put out. The mouth is called the *bocca*. There are several holes in the arch of this crown, through which the flame passes into the 2d partition, and reverberates into the pots filled with the materials. Round the insides there are 8 or more pots placed, and piling pots on them. The number of pots is always double that of the boccas or mouths, or of the number of workmen, that each may have one pot refined to work out of, and another for metal to refine in, while he works out of the other. Through the working holes the metal is taken out of the pots, and the pots are put into the furnace; and these holes are stopped with moveable covers made of lute and brick, to screen the workmen's eyes from the scorching flames. On each side of the bocca or mouth is a boccarella or little hole, out of which coloured glass or finer metal is taken from the piling pot.

III. Above this oven there is the 3d oven, called the LEER, about 5 or 6 yards long, and 4 feet wide, where the vessels of glass are annealed or cooled. This part consists of a tower, besides the leer, into which the flame ascends from the furnace. The tower has two mouths, through which the glasses are put in with a fork, and set on the floor or bottom; but they are drawn out on iron pans, called *frashes*, through the leer, to cool by degrees; so that they are quite cold by the time they reach the mouth of the leer, which enters the *farofel* or room where the glasses are to be stowed.

IV. The FURNACE for the GREEN GLASS is square; and at each angle it has an arch for annealing or cooling glasses. The metal is wrought on two opposite sides, and on the other two they have their colours, into which are made linnen holes for the fire to come from the furnace to bake the frit, and to discharge the smoke. Fires are made in the arches to anneal the work, so that the whole process is done in one furnace.

These furnaces must not be of brick, but of hard sandy stones. In France, they build the outside of brick; and the inner, to bear the fire, is made of a sort of fullers earth, or tobacco-pipe clay, of which they also make the melting pots. In Britain the pots are made of Sturbridge clay. Mr Blancourt observes, that the worst and roughest work in this art is the changing the pots when they are worn out or cracked. In this case, the great working hole must be uncovered; the faulty pot must be taken out with iron hooks and forks, and a new one must be speedily put in its place, through the flames, by the hands only. For this work, the man guards himself with a garment made of skins, in the shape of a pantaloon, that covers him all but his eyes, and is made as wet as possible: the eyes are defended with a proper sort of glass.

SECT. V. *Of the INSTRUMENTS used MAKING.*

THE instruments used in glass making are: 1. A blowing pipe, made of iron, about 2 feet long, with a wooden handle. 2. An iron tongs to take up the glass after it is blown, and to put it into the former. 3. Scissors to cut the glass whil it is soft. 4. A small iron to shape great glasses, &c. 5. An iron with the end of the handle cased with lead to take the metal out of the refining pot into the workmen's pots. 6. A small iron cased in the same manner, to skim the fat that swims at top. 7. Shovels, one to take up the great glasses; another shovel, to feed the furnace with coals. 8. A red iron fork, to stir the matter in the pot. 9. An iron rake for the same purpose, and to take out the metal. 10. An iron fork, to change or pull out the pots of the furnace. 11. And lastly the

GLASS POTS, or vessels in which the glass is melted. Those for the white glass work are made of a tobacco-pipe clay, brought from Wight, which is first well washed, then ground to a fine powder, and afterwards ground to a fine powder which being mixt with water, is the mould with the hands into the proper vessels. When these are thus made, they are afterwards annealed over the furnace. The green glass work are made of a different sort of clay from Staffordshire, and another sort of clay from Staffordshire make these so large as to hold 3 or 4 C.

They have also a small sort called *goblets*, which they set upon the larger, and work a finer and more nice metal fit for the

The clay that is used for this purpose is of the purest and most refractory kind, cleaned from all sandy, ferruginous, and matters; and to this it will be prepared ground crucibles, white sand, calcined ground levigated, or a certain proportion of baked, and pounded not very finely. The quantity of baked clay that ought to be mixed with the crude clay, to prevent the pots from cracking when dried, or exposed to a great heat, is not determined, but depends on the quality of the clay, which is more or less fat. M. de la Hire, in a memoir on this subject, proposes a method of ascertaining it; The bar clay, being mixed in different proportions, is formed into cakes, one inch thick, and six inches long and wide. Let these be dried, and exposed to a violent heat, till they come as hard and as much contracted as they can, and in this state be examined; and the one which has suffered a diminution equal only to an 18th part, is made the standard proportions. He observes, in general, that the proportion of the different clays should be to the fresh as 4 to 5.

SECT. VI. *Of the DIFFERENT KINDS*

THE manufactured glass now in use is divided into 3 general kinds; 1. white glass, 2. coloured glass, and 3. common bottle glass.

first kind there is a great variety; as the and the German crystal glass, which are to the same use: the glass for plates, for looking glasses; the glass for windows lights; and the glass for phials and small And these again differ in the substances as fluxes in forming them, as well as in fineness or fineness of such as are used for y. The flint and crystal, mirror and best glass, not only require such purity in the may render it practicable to free the cely from all colour; but, for the same ther the white Lynn sand, calcined flints, pebbles, should be used. The others do and the same nicety in the choice of rials; though the second kind of window d the best kind of phial, will not be so ey ought, if either too brown sand, or im- be suffered to enter into their composition. ured glass there is also a great variety differing in their colour or other proper- dling to the occasions for which they are

These differences depend on the prepa- d management of the artists by whom manufactured. See SECT. XIV.

is also distinguished into 3 principal kinds, or manner of working it; viz. 1. *Round* that of our bottles, vessels, phials, drink- s, &c. See SECT. X. 2. *Table or window* which there are divers kinds: as crown ous glass, &c. See SECT. XI. and 3. s, or *mirror glass*. See SECT. XII.

#### II. Of the COMPOSITIONS for making BOTTLE and PHIAL GLASS.

A common BOTTLE or GREEN GLASS of sand of any kind, fluxed by the ashes wood, or of any parts of vegetables; to y be added the *scoria* or clinkers of for- ten the softest sand is used, 200 lb. of es will suffice for 100 lb. of sand, which ground and mixed together. The com- with the clinkers consists of 170 lb. of es, 100 lb. of sand, and 50 of clinkers, to be ground and mixed together. If es cannot be ground, they must be bro- small pieces, and mixed with the other thout grinding.

AL GLASS is a kind betwixt the flint- the bottle glass. The best kind may be with 120 lb. of white sand, 50 lb. of un- earl-ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 5 lb. , and 5 oz. of magnesia. The compo- reen or common phial glass consists of the cheapest white sand, 80 lb. of wood- burnt and sifted, 20 lb. of pearl-ashes, common salt, and 1 lb. of arsenic.

#### II. Of the COMPOSITIONS for making WHITE GLASS and CRYSTAL.

of the whitest tarso, pounded small, and fine as flour, 200 lb. of the salt of pol- 1 lb. mix them, and put them into the st heating it. For an hour keep a mo- , and keep stirring the materials with a ce, that they may incorporate and cal- ber; then increase the fire for 5 hours;

after which take out the matter; which being now sufficiently calcined, is called FRIT, or BOLLITO. See these articles. From the calcar put the frit in a dry place, and cover it up from the dust for 3 or 4 months.

To make the white glass or crystal, take of the crystal frit, set it in pots in the furnace, adding to it a due quantity of manganese: when the two are fused, cast the fluor into fair water, to clear it of the salt called *sandiver*; which would other- wise make the crystal obscure and cloudy. This lotion must be repeated again and again, as often as needful till the crystal be fully purged; or the scum may be taken off by proper ladles. Then set it to boil 4, 5 or 6 days; which done, see whe- ther it have manganese enough; and if it be yet greenish, add more by little and little at a time, taking care not to overdose it, because the man- ganese inclines it to a blackish hue. Then let the metal clarify, till it becomes of a clear and shining colour; which done, it is fit to be blown or form- ed into vessels.

FLINT GLASS, as it is called by us, is of the same general kind with that which in other places is called CRYSTAL glass. It has this name from being originally made with calcined flints, before the use of the white sand was understood; and re- tains the name, though no flints are now used in the composition of it. This flint glass differs from the other, in having lead for its flux, and white sand for its body; whereas the fluxes used for the crystal glass are salts or arsenic, and the body con- sists of calcined flints or white river pebbles, tarso, or such stones. To the white sand and lead a pro- per proportion of nitre is added, and a small quan- tity of magnesia, or manganese. In some works they use a proportional quantity of arsenic to aid the fluxing ingredients.

The most perfect kind of flint glass may be made, by fusing with a very strong fire 120 lb. of the white sand, 50 lb. of red lead, 40 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 20 lb. of nitre, and 5 oz. of mag- nesia. Another composition of flint glass, which is said to come nearer to the kind now made, is the following: 120 lb. of sand, 54 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 36 lb. of red-lead, 12 lb. of nitre, and 6 oz. of magnesia. To either of these a pound or two of arsenic may be added, to increase the flux of the composition.

A cheaper composition may be made with 120 lb. of white sand, 35 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 40 lb. of red-lead, 13 lb. of nitre, 6 lb. of arsenic, and 4 oz. of magnesia; or instead of the arsenic may be substituted 15 lb. of common salt; but this will be more brittle. The cheapest compo- sition for the worst kind of flint glass consists of 120 lb. of white sand, 30 lb. of red-lead, 20 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 10 lb. of nitre, 15 lb. of common salt, and 6 lb. of arsenic. The best German crys- tal is made of 120 lb. of calcined flints or white sand, 70 lb. of the best pearl-ashes, 20 lb. of salt- petre,  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. of arsenic, and 5 oz. of magnesia. And a cheaper composition is formed of 120 lb. of calcined flints or white sand, 46 lb. of pearl- ashes, 7 lb. of nitre, 6 lb. of arsenic, and 5 oz. of magnesia.

A glass much harder than any prepared in the common

common way, may be made by means of borax, thus: Take 4 oz. of borax, and 1 of fine sand; reduce both to a subtil powder, and melt them together in a large close crucible set in a wind furnace, keeping up a strong fire for half an hour; then take out the crucible, and when cold break it, and there will be found at the bottom a pure hard glass, capable of cutting common glass like a diamond. This experiment, duly varied, says Dr Shaw, may lead to several useful improvements in making glass enamels, and facitious gems; and shows an expeditious method of making glass, without any fixed alkali, which has been generally thought an essential ingredient in glass; and perhaps calcined crystal, or other substances, added to this salt instead of sand, might make a glass approaching to the nature of a diamond.

SECT. IX. *Of the COMPOSITIONS for making PLATE or MIRROR GLASS.*

THE materials of which this glass is made are much the same as those of other works of glass, viz. an alkaline salt and sand. The salt, however, should not be that extracted from the ashes of the Syrian kali, but that from *BARILLA*, growing about Alicante in Spain. It is very rare that we have the barilla pure; the Spaniards in burning the herb mix another herb with it, which alters its quality; or add sand to it to increase the weight, which is easily discovered, if the addition be only made after the boiling of the ashes, but next to impossible if made in the boiling. From this adulteration threads and other defects in plate glass arise.

To prepare the salt, clean it well of all foreign matters; pound or grind it with a kind of mill, and finally sift it pretty fine. Pearl-ashes properly purified, will furnish the alkaline salt requisite for this purpose; but it will be necessary to add borax or common salt, to facilitate the fusion, and prevent the glass from stiffening in that degree of heat in which it is to be wrought into plates.

To purify the pearl-ashes, dissolve them in four times their weight of boiling water, in a pot of cast iron, kept clean from rust. Let the solution be removed into a clean tub, and remain there 24 hours or longer. Having decanted the clear part of the fluid from the sediment, put it again in the iron pot, and evaporate the water till the salts are left perfectly dry. Preserve them in stone jars, well secured from air and moisture. Pearl-ashes may also be purified in the highest degree, so as to be proper for the manufacture of the most transparent glass, by pulverizing 3 lb. of the best kind with 6 oz. of saltpetre in a glass or marble mortar, till they are well mixed; and then putting part of the mixture into a large crucible, and exposing it in a furnace to a strong heat. When this is red-hot, throw in the rest gradually; and when the whole is red-hot, pour it out on a moistened stone or marble, and put it into an earthen or clean iron pot, with 10 pints of water; heat it over the fire till the salts be entirely melted; let it then stand to cool, and filter it through paper in a pewter cullender. When filtered, put the fluid again into the pot, and evaporate the salt to dryness, which will then be as white as snow.

As to the sand, sift and wash it till the water

come off very clear; and when it is well mix it with the salt, passing the mixture through another sieve. This done, lay them in a sealing furnace for about two hours; at this time the matter becomes very light and in this state they are called *FATT*, and are laid in a dry clean-place, for at least a year, to give time to incorporate. When they employ this they lay it for some hours in the furnace to some the fragments of old and ill made taking care first to calcine them by heat red-hot in the furnace, and thus casting them into cold water. To the mixture must likewise be added manganese, to promote the fusion and purification.

The best composition for looking glass consists of 60 lb. of white sand cleaned, purified pearl-ashes, 15 lb. of saltpetre, 10 lb. of borax. If a yellow tinge should affect a small proportion of magnesia, mixed with an equal quantity of arsenic, should be added. An ounce of the magnesia may be first tried; if this proves insufficient, the quantity should be increased. A cheaper composition consists of white sand, 20 lb. of pearl-ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 7 lb. of nitre, 2 lb. of arsenic, and 1 lb. of borax.

The matter of which the glasses are made in the famous manufacture of *St Gobin* is a composition of feldspar and of a white sand, carefully cleaned of all heterogeneous matters, afterwards washed several times, and so as to be pulverized in a mill, consisting of pebbles, which are moved by horses. When this is done, the sand is sifted through a sieve and dried. The matter thus far prepared is fit for plate-glass, to be formed either by casting or by blowing. See *SECT. XII.*

SECT. X. *METHOD of WORKING of ROUND GLASS.*

THE working furnace has six boccaures: at one of these, called the *great b* furnace is heated, and the pots or irons are set in the furnace; two other smaller boccaures, serve to lade or take out the metal, at the end of an iron, to work the glass. At the other holes they put in pots of the ingredients, to be prepared, and at last enter into the lading pot. There are 6 pots in the furnace, all made of tobacco pipe clay, which sustain not only the heat of the fire, but the effect of the pulverine, which penetrates nothing else. There are only two of these for working: the rest serve to prepare the glass for them.

The fire is made and kept up with wood, cast in without intermission at six times. When the matter in the pots is sufficiently fused, the workman proceeds to blow or to cast. For this purpose he dips his blowing pipe into the melting pot; and by turning it about, it sticks to the iron more firmly than to the glass. This he repeats 4 times, at each time he draws the end of his instrument, with the hot metal on a piece of plate iron; over which is a stream of water which helps to cool, and so to cast, and to dispose that matter, to bind the

is to be next taken out of the melting after he has dipt a 4th time, and perceiveth it metal enough on the pipe, he removeth immediately to the other end, and blows gently through the iron tube till it engulphs like a bladder about a foot, and lies it on a marble stone a little while to set it; and then he blows a second time, by which he gives it the shape of a globe of about 13 or 20 inches. Every time he blows into the pipe, he moves it quickly to his cheek; otherwise it will be in danger, by often blowing, of being broken into his mouth; and this globe is hardened by returning it to the fire; and is made of any form by stamp irons, which are used for the purpose.

When the glass is thus blown, it is cut off at the neck; which is the narrow part that is left. The method is this: the pipe is held in an iron bar, close by the collet; then cold water being laid on the collet, it is cut about a quarter of an inch, which, with a pair of cut-throats, will immediately break the collet. The operator then dips the pipe into the melting pot, by which he softens the metal as serves to attract the glass, to which he fixes this rod at the bottom, opposite to the opening made in the neck of the collet.

When the glass is carried to the great furnace of the oven, to be heated and blown, which means it is again put into such that, by the help of an iron instrument, is pierced, opened, and widened, being turned. But the vessel is not finished till it is turned to the great bocca; where being turned thoroughly, and turned quickly about at an inclination, it will open to any size, by heat and motion. If any superfluous glass be cut off with the shears; for the rest, it remains in a soft flexible state, and is taken from the bocca, and carried to a table, covered with brands, or coals, to be cooled by turning; as that motion settling, and preserves an evenness in the glass, where, as it cools, it congeals, being first cleared from the slight stroke by the workman.

When the whole body is already made, reduced to a handle, or any other member, he makes them separately; and with the help of hot metal, which he heats the pots with his iron rod; but the work is brought to its true hardness till it has cooled. See SECT. IV.

**METHOD of WORKING or BLOWING WINDOW or TABLE GLASS.**

The method above described, in SECT. X, of blowing window or table glass, is in every particular applicable to the working of window or table glass, when the iron has been dipt the 4th time, instead of rounding it, the workman manages the metal upon the iron rod, and extends 2 or 3 feet in the form of a cylinder; which is put again to the fire, and cooled a second time; and this is repeated till

it is extended to the dimensions required, the side to which the pipe is fixed diminishing gradually till it ends in a pyramidal form; so that, to bring both ends nearly to the same diameter, while the glass is thus flexible, he adds a little hot metal to the end opposite the pipe, and draws it out with a pair of iron pincers, and immediately cuts off the same end with the help of a little cold water, as before.

The cylinder being now open at one end, is carried back to the bocca; and there, by the help of cold water, it is cut about 8 or ten inches from the iron pipe or rod; and the whole length at another place, by which also it is cut off from the iron rod. Then it is heated gradually on an earthen table, by which it opens in length; while the workman, with an iron tool, alternately lowers and raises the two halves of the cylinder; which at last will open like a sheet of paper, and fall into the same flat form in which it serves for use; in which it is preserved by heating it over again, cooling it on a table of copper, and hardening it 24 hours in the annealing furnace, to which it is carried upon forks. In this furnace 100 tables of glass may lie at a time, without injury to each other, by separating them into tents, with an iron shaver between, which diminishes the weight by dividing it, and keeps the tables flat and even.

There are various sorts of window or table glass made in different places for the use of buildings. Those most known among us are enumerated by the author of the *Baileys Dictionary*, as follows:

1. **Old Crown Glass** says Neri, there are two kinds distinguished by the places where they are wrought; viz. **Katholick crown glass**, which is the best and clearest, and was first made at the Bear-parden, on the Bankside, Southwark, but since at K. Tolson's; and there are 24 tables to the case, the table being of a circular form about 3 feet 6 inches in diameter. The other kind, or **Lambeth crown glass**, is of a darker colour, and more inclining to green. The best window or crown glass is made of white sand 60 lb. of purified pearl ashes 30 lb. of salt petre 12 oz. of brax 1 lb. and of arsenic ½ lb. If the glass should prove yellow, magnesia must be added. A cheaper composition for window glass consists of 60 lb. of white sand, 25 lb. of unpurified pearl ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 5 lb. of nitre, 2 lb. of arsenic, and 1½ oz. of magnesia. The common or green window glass is composed of 60 lb. of white sand, 30 lb. of unpurified pearl ashes, 10 lb. of common salt, 2 lb. of arsenic, and 2 oz. of magnesia. But a cheaper composition for this purpose consists of 120 lb. of the cheapest white sand, 30 lb. of unpurified pearl ashes, 60 lb. of wood ashes, well burnt and sifted, 20 lb. of common salt, and 5 lb. of arsenic.

2. **FRENCH GLASS, or NORMANDY GLASS**, called formerly *Lorraine glass*, is made wholly in the 9 glass works; whereof 5 are in the forest of Lyons, and 4 in the ci-devant county of Eu; the last at Beaumont near Rouen. It is thinner than our crown glass; and when laid on a piece of white paper, appears of a dirtyish green colour. There are but 25 tables of this to the case.

3. **GERMAN GLASS** is of two kinds, the *subite* and the *green*: the first is of a whitish colour, but

is subject to those small curved streaks observed in the Newcastle glass, though free from its blemishes. The green, besides its colour, is liable to the same streaks as the white; but both are straighter and less warped than Newcastle glass.

4. **DUTCH GLASS** is not much unlike Newcastle glass either in colour or price. It is frequently much warped like that, and the tables are but small.

5. **NEWCASTLE GLASS** is that most used in England. It is of an ash colour, and much subject to specks, streaks, and other blemishes; and besides is frequently warped. Leybourn says, there are 45 tables to the case, each containing 5 superficial feet: some say there are but 35 tables, and 6 feet in each table.

#### SECT. XII. METHODS of BLOWING and CASTING PLATE or MIRROR GLASS.

THE largest mirror glasses at St Gobin are run; the middle sized and small ones are blown.

1. **BLOWING THE PLATES.** (See *Plate CLXVII, Fig. 1.*) The workhouses, furnaces, &c. used in making the small kind of plate glass, are the same with those used for the large kind, except that they are smaller, and that the carquailles are disposed in a large covered gallery, over against the furnace.

After the materials are vitrified by the heat of the fire, and the glass is sufficiently refined, the workman dips in his blowing iron, six feet long, and two inches in diameter, narrowed at the end which is put in the mouth, and widened at the other, that the matter may adhere to it. He thus takes up a small ball of matter, which sticks to the end of the tube by constantly turning it. He then blows into the tube, to swell the ball; and carrying it over a bucket of water, which is placed on a support at the height of about 4 feet, he sprinkles the end of the tube to which the matter adheres, with water, still turning it, that by this cooling the matter may coalesce with the tube, and be fit for sustaining a greater weight. He dips the tube again into the same pot, and proceeds as before; and dipping it in the pot a 3d time, he takes it out, loaded with matter, in the shape of a pear, about ten inches in diameter, and a foot long, and cools it at the bucket; at the same time blowing into the tube, and with the assistance of a labourer, giving it a balancing motion, he causes the matter to lengthen; which, by repeating this operation several times, assumes the form of a cylinder, terminating like a ball at the bottom, and in a point at the top.

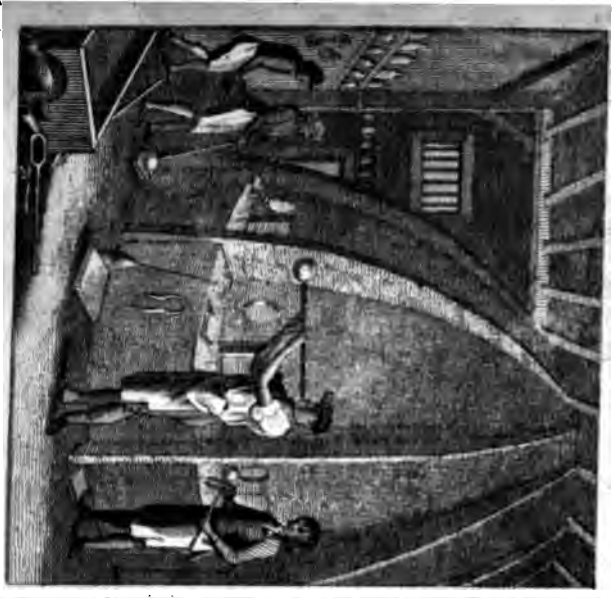
The assistant is then placed on a stool  $3\frac{1}{2}$  feet high: on this stool there are two upright pieces of timber, with a cross beam of the same, for supporting the glass and tube, which are kept in an oblique position by the assistant, that the master workman may, with a puncheon set in a wooden handle, and with a mallet, make a hole in the mass. This hole is drilled at the centre of the ball that terminates the cylinder, and is about an inch in diameter. When the glass is pierced, the defects of it are perceived; if it is tolerably perfect, the workman lays the tube horizontally on a little iron tressel, placed on the support of the aperture of the furnace. Having exposed it to the heat for

about half a quarter of an hour, he takes and with a pair of long and broad shears, ly sharp at the end, widens the glass, by driving the shears into the hole made with the puncheon while the assistant, mounted on a stool, turns it round, till at last the opening is large enough to make a perfect cylinder at bottom. When this is done, the workman lays his glass on a tressel at the mouth of the furnace to cool; he then gives it to his assistant on the stool, and the large shears cuts the mass of matter up height.

There is at the mouth of the furnace a tool, called **PONTIL**, which is now he used to separate it; it may unite and coalesce with the glass, and perform the office which the tube would do if it was separated from the glass. This piece of iron six feet long, and in the shape of a tube, having at the end of it a handle, a foot long, laid equally upon the tube, and making with it a T. This little tool is used to separate the matter of the glass, about four inches from the tube. This red-hot pontil is presented to the end of the glass, which coalesces immediately with the matter round the pontil, so as to support the tube for the following operation. When they separate the tube from the glass, a few blows with a chisel upon the tube which has been cooled; so that the tube breaks directly, and makes this separation. The tube being discharged of the glass, is carried to the pontil. They next present to the end of the tube the pontil of the glass, laying it on the tube, and redden the end of that glass with the heat of the furnace. The workman may open it with his shears, already opened one end of it, to make a hole in the tube; the assistant holding it on his side, and the workman working on the fore. For the last time, they put the tube to the tressel, that the glass may become quite flat, and the workman cuts it quite off with shears, right over-against the foreman. This he does as before, taking care that the tube and the glass are in the same line.

In the mean time, the man who holds the carquaille comes to receive the glass; he takes a shovel, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$  feet long without the handle, and 4 inches wide, with a small border of an inch in height, the right and left, and towards the handle. Upon this the glass is laid, and the workman with a small stick a foot and a half long, that the cut of the glass is turned up, and the assistant separates the glass from the pontil, by giving a few gentle blows between the two. The glass is then removed to the hot carquaille, where it becomes red-hot; the workman, with an iron tool, flattens it, and widens at the end in form of a T, 4 inches long, and 2 inches wide, and very flat, and not half an inch thick. He then lifts up the cut part of the glass, and turns it of its form of a flattened cylinder, and smooth, by turning it down upon the carquaille. The tool being now turned, the cylinder, performs this operation, and is pushed hard against all the parts. When the glass is thus made quite flat, it is pushed to the bottom of the carquaille, and the furnace with a small iron rake

Fig. 1. Blowing.



GLASS-MAKING.

Fig. 2. Casting.

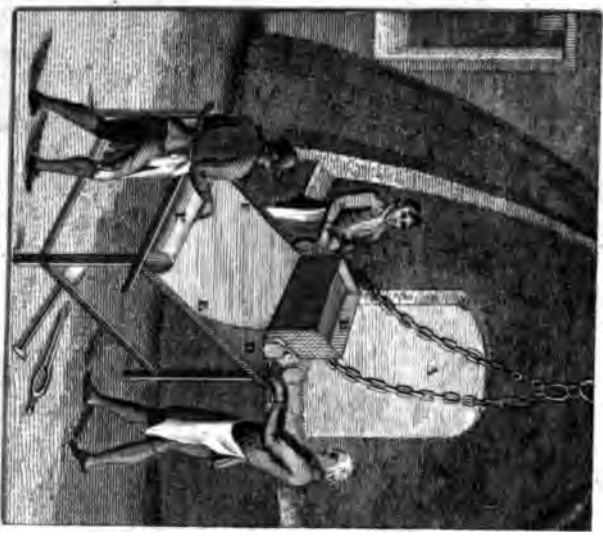


PLATE CLXXII.

Fig. 3. Polishing.

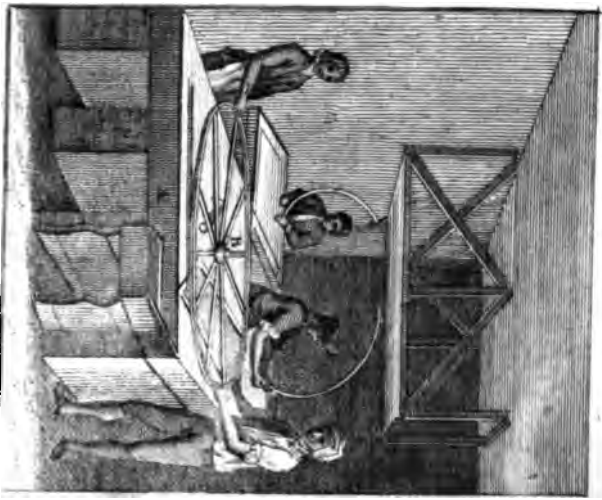
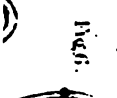


Fig. 4.

Clotopétre



Muscular gordius

Fig. 5.





ith a little iron hook. When the carquaiſſe it is ſtopped and cemented as in the caſe glaſſes, and the glaſs remains there for a ſit to be annealed; after which time it is out to be poliſhed. A workman can make 12 glaſs in an hour, and he works and reſts hours alternately.

h was the method formerly uſed for blow-ate glaſs, looking-glaſſes, &c.; but the work- by this method, could never exceed 30 inches gth, and a proportional breadth, becauſe were larger were always found to warp, h prevented them from reflecting the objects ly, and they wanted ſubſtance to bear the ry grinding. Theſe imperfections have been ed by the following invention of the Sieur am Thevart, in France, about 1688.

**CASTING OF RUNNING OF LARGE MIRROR IS PLATES.** The furnace is of a very large ſion, environed with ſeveral ovens, or an- g furnaces, called *carquaiſſes*, beſides others king of frit and calcining old pieces of glaſs. urnace, before it is fit to run glaſs, coſts . It ſeldom laſts above 3 years, and even in me it muſt be refitted every ſix months. It ix months to rebuild it, and 3 months to re-

The melting pots are as big as large hogf- and contain about 2000 weight of metal. of them burſts in the furnace, the loſs of atter and time amounts to 250 l. When the x is red-hot, the materials (ſee SECT. IX.) ut in at three different times, as this helps ſion; and in 24 hours they are vitrified, re- ſettled, and fit for caſting.

*Plate CLXVII, fig. 2,* A represents the boc- r mouth of the furnace; B the ciſtern that ys the liquid glaſs it receives out of the melt- ots in the furnace to the caſting table. Theſe as are filled in the furnace, and remain there- hours after they are filled; and then are ed out by a large iron chain, guided by a y, placed upon a carriage with four wheels, sed C,) by two men. This carriage has no le piece; ſo that when it has brought the ciſ- to the caſting table, D, they ſlip off the bot- of the ciſtern, and out ruſhes a torrent of ng matter upon the table: this matter is con- to certain dimenſions by the iron rulers EE, h are moveable, and retain it, and determine idth of the glaſs; while a man, with the rol- ; reſting on the edge of the iron rulers, re- it as it cools to an equal thickneſs, which is in the ſpace of a minute. This table is ſup- ed on a wooden frame, with truſtles for the enience of moving to the annealing furnace; which, ſtrewed with ſand, the new plate is ed, where it will harden in about 10 days.

hat is moſt ſurpriſing throughout the whole his operation, is the quickneſs and addreſs rewith ſuch maſſy ciſterns, filled with a flaming er, are taken out of the furnace, conveyed to able, and poured therein, the glaſs ſpread, &c. whole is inconceivable to ſuch as have not eye-witneſſes of that ſurpriſing manufacture. ſt as the ciſterns are emptied, they carry them to the furnace and take freſh ones, which empty as before. This they continue to do ng as there are any full ciſterns; laying as

many plates in each carquaiſſe as it will hold, and ſtopping them up with doors of baked earth, and every chink with cement, as ſoon as they are full, to let them anneal, and cool again, which requires about 14 days.

The firſt running being diſpatched, they pre- pare another, by filling the ciſterns anew from the matter in the pots; and after the 2d, a 3d, and even a 4th time, till the melting pots are quite empty. The ciſterns at each running ſhould remain at leaſt ſix hours in the furnace to whiten; and when the firſt annealing furnace is full, the caſting table is to be carried to another. The carquaiſſes, or annealing furnaces, muſt firſt have been heated to the degree proper for them. The oven-ful, or the quantity of matter commonly prepared, ſupplies the running of 18 glaſſes, which is performed in 18 hours, being an hour for each glaſs. The workmen work ſix hours, and are then relieved by others. When the pots are emp- tied, they take them out, as well as the ciſterns, to ſcrape off what glaſs remains, which otherwiſe would grow green by continuance of fire, and ſpoil the glaſſes. They are not filled again in leſs than 36 hours; ſo that they put the matter into the furnace, and begin to run it every 54 hours.

The manner of heating the large furnaces is very ſingular; the two tiſors, or perſons employed for that purpoſe, in their ſhirts, run ſwiftly round the furnace without making the leaſt ſtop: as they run along, they take two billets, or pieces of wood, which are cut for the purpoſe; theſe they throw into the firſt tiſſart; and continuing their courſe, do the ſame for the ſecond. This they hold without interruption for ſix hours ſucceſſiv- ly; after which they are relieved by others, &c. It is ſurpriſing that two ſuch ſmall pieces of wood, and which are conſumed in an inſtant, ſhould keep the furnace to the proper degree of heat; which is ſuch, that a large bar of iron, laid at one of the mouths of the furnace becomes red-hot in leſs than half a minute. The glaſs, when taken out of the melting furnace, needs nothing farther but to be ground, poliſhed, and foliated. See SECT. XIII.

SECT. XIII. *Of the GRINDING and POLISHING of PLATE or MIRROR GLASS.*

GLASS is made transparent by fire; but it receives its luſtre by the ſkill and labour of the grinder and poliſher; the former of whom takes it rough out of the hands of the maker.

I. To grind plate glaſs, they lay it horizontally upon a flat ſtone table made of a very fine-grained- free ſtone; and for its greater ſecurity they platter it down with lime or ſucco; elſe the force of the workmen, or the motion of the wheel with which they grind it, would move it about.

This ſtone table is ſupported by a ſtrong frame A, *Plate CLXVII, fig. 3,* made of wood, with a ledge quite round its edges, riſing about 2 inches higher than the glaſs. Upon this glaſs to be ground is laid another rough glaſs not above half ſo big, and ſo looſe as to ſlide upon it; but cemented to a wooden plank, to guard it from the injury it muſt otherwiſe receive from the ſcraping of the wheel to which this plank is faſtened, and from the weights laid upon it to promote the grinding or triture

triture of the glasses. The whole is covered with a wheel, B, made of hard light wood, about six inches in diameter, by pulling of which backwards and forwards alternately, and sometimes turning it round, the workmen, who always stand opposite to each other, produce a constant attrition between the two glasses, and bring them to what degree of smoothness they please, by first pouring in water and coarse sand; after that, a finer sort of sand, as the work advances, till at last they pour in the powder of smalt. As the upper or incumbent glass polishes and grows smoother, it is taken away, and another from time to time put in its place. This engine is called a *mill* by the artists, and is used only for the largest glasses; for in the grinding of the lesser glasses, they work without a wheel, and have only 4 wooden handles fastened to the 4 corners of the stone that loads the upper plank, by which they work it about.

II. When the grinder, (who finds it very difficult to bring the glass to an exact plainness,) has done his utmost, it is turned over to the polisher; who with the fine powder of tripoli stone, or emery, brings it to a perfect evenness and lustre. The instrument used in this branch is a board, *c c*, furnished with a felt, and a small roller, which the workman moves by means of a double handle at both ends. The artist, in working this roller, is assisted with a wooden hoop or spring to the end of which it is fixed; for the spring, by constantly bringing the roller back to the same points, facilitates the action of the workman's arm. Mr Burroughs invented a curious machine for grinding and polishing glass, of which we have already inserted a description. See BURROUGHS'S MACHINE, and Plate XLIV, fig. 8, 9, and 10.

#### SECT. XIV. Of the COLOURING of GLASS.

EVERY glass pot when new, and first used, leaves a foulness in the glass from its own earthy parts; so that a coloured glass made in a new pot can never be bright or perfectly fine. For this reason, the larger of these, when new, may be glazed with white glass; but the 2d time of using, the pots lose this foulness. To glaze the pots, reduce the glass to powder, and moisten the inside with water; while it is yet moist, put in some of the powdered glass, and shake it about, till the whole inner surface of the pot be covered by as much as will adhere to it, in consequence of the moisture. Throw out the redundant part of the powdered glass; and the pot being dry, set it in a furnace sufficiently hot to vitrify the glass adhering to it, and let it continue there some time; after which, care must be taken to let it cool gradually.

Pots which have served for one colour must not be used for another; as the remainder of the old matter would spoil the colour of the new. The colours must be very carefully calcined to a proper degree; for if they are calcined either too much or too little, they never do well; the proper proportion, as to quantity, must also be carefully regarded, and the furnaces must be fed with dry hard wood. All the processes succeed best when the colour is used dividedly; that is, a part of it in the frit, and the rest in melted metal.

A hard glass, proper for receiving colours, may be prepared by pulverising 12 lb. of the best sand,

cleaned by washing in a glass or flint mixing 7 lb. of pearl-ashes or any fine salt, purified with nitre, 1 lb. of saltpetre of borax, and pounding them together less hard may be prepared of 12 lb. of cleaned, 7 lb. of pearl-ashes purified petre, 1 lb. of nitre,  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. of borax, arsenic prepared as before.

1. AMETHYST COLOUR. See AMETHYST and § 16, below.

2. BALASS COLOUR. Put into a pot thrice washed in water; tinge this with prepared into a clear purple; to this *catinum*, sifted fine, in small quantities several times: this will make the glass pink, and a little reddish, but not black ways dissipates the manganese. The 1 add manganese, give no more of the *alio* unless the colour be too full. Thus, be exactly of the colour of the balas rub

3. BLACK. The glass-makers for black, take old broken glass of different grind it to powder, and add to it, parcels, a sufficient quantity of a mixture parts zaffer and one part manganese; purified, they work it into vessels, beads are coloured with manganese on

4. BLACK VELVET COLOUR. To give and fine colour to glass, take of cry pulverine frit, each 20 lb. of calc of 4 lb.; set all together in a pot in the furnace heated; when the glass is formed and steel well calcined and powdered, an iron, of each an equal quantity; powder them well; then put 6 oz. of this pot above described metal while in fusion whole thoroughly together, and let them strongly together; then let it stand 4 hours to purify, and after this work be a most elegant velvet black. A very velvet colour is also produced thus: Take of rochetta frit; add 2 lb. of tartar, a manganese, both in fine powder; mix and put them to the metal while in fusion ferent times, in several parcels; let it in fusion after this for four days, and then a glass perfectly black may also be formed, to 10 lb. of either of the compositions for above described, one ounce of zaffer, six manganese, and an equal quantity of iron calcined.

5. BLUE. A full blue may be made 6 dr. of zaffer and 2 dr. of manganese in either of the compositions for hard glass above. For a very cool or pure blue 10 ounce of calcined copper may be used the manganese, and the proportion of zaffer by one half. Glass resembling may be made with ten pounds of either composition for hard glass, three drams scruple of zaffer, and one dram of the or precipitation of gold by tin; or lastly latter ingredient, two drams and two manganese. Or a sapphire coloured glass made by mixing with any quantity of glass one eighth of its weight of beautiful blue glass is also produced from regulus of cobalt.

wn. Venetian Brown with GOLD SPAN-  
 lied also the *philosopher's stone*, is prepa-

Take of the 2d composition for hard  
 e described, and of the composition for  
 each 5 lb. and of highly calcined iron,  
 them well, and fuse them till the iron  
 ly vitrified, and has tinged the glass of  
 nispant yellow brown colour. Powder  
 and add to it 2 lb. of powdered glass of  
 ; grind them together, and thus mix  
 . Take part of this mixture, and rub  
 or 120 leaves of the counterfeit leaf gold  
*ch gold*; and when the parts of the gold  
 ibly divided, mix the powder consi-  
 with the other part of the glass. Fuse  
 with a moderate heat till the powder  
 vitreous mass, fit to be wrought into  
 or vessel; but avoid a perfect liquefac-  
 at would destroy the dissolution of the  
 nd vitrify, at least in part, the matter  
 ey are composed; converting the whole  
 d of transparent olive-coloured glass  
 of glass is procured from Venice, and is  
 great variety of toys and ornaments.

CHIMNEY. A mixture of several ingre-  
 the common matter of glass, will make  
 : the semi-opaque gems, the jaspers, a-  
 cedonies, &c. The way of making  
 what resembles the method of making  
 aper, by several colours dissolved in wa-  
 rs, which are such as will not readily  
 one another when put into water, has  
 re cast upon the paper which is to be

The following is reckoned the best  
 Dissolve 4 oz. of fine leaf silver in a glass-  
 on aquafortis; stop up the vessel, and  
 :—In another vessel, dissolve 2 oz. of  
 in 1 lb. of aquafortis, and let it settle  
 er glass vessel, dissolve in 1 lb. of aqua-  
 of fine silver, first calcined in this man-  
 gamate the silver with mercury, mix  
 m with twice its weight of common  
 rified; put the mixture in an open fire  
 le, that the mercury may fly off; and  
 be left in form of powder. Mix this  
 th an equal quantity of common salt  
 ed, and calcine this for six hours in a  
 ; when cold, wash off the salt by re-  
 lings in common water, and then put  
 nto the aquafortis. Set this solution

—In another vessel, dissolve in 1 lb. of  
 ; oz. of sal ammoniac; pour off the so-  
 dissolve in it a quarter of an ounce of  
 this also aside.—In another vessel, dis-  
 of sal ammoniac in 1 lb. of aquafortis;  
 to the solution cinnabar, crocus martis,  
 , and ferreto of Spain, of each half an  
 this also aside.—In another vessel dis-  
 of aquafortis 3 oz. of sal ammoniac;  
 to it crocus martis made with vinegar,  
 , zaffer, and cinnabar, of each half an  
 each of these be powdered very fine,  
 ntly into the aquafortis. Set this also  
 nother vessel, dissolve 3 oz. of sal am-  
 lb. of aquafortis, and add to it brass  
 ith brimstone, brats thrice calcined,

and scales of iron, of each half an  
 each be well powdered, and put gently  
 PAR II.

into the vessel. Then set this also aside.—In ano-  
 ther vessel, dissolve 2 oz. of sal ammoniac in 1 lb.  
 of aquafortis, and put to it verdigrise 1 oz. red  
 lead, crude antimony, and the caput mortuum of  
 vitriol, of each half an ounce; put these well pow-  
 dered leisurely into the vessel, and set this also a-  
 side.—In another vessel, dissolve 2 oz. of sal am-  
 moniac in 1 lb. of aquafortis, and add orpiment,  
 white arsenic, painters lake, of each half an ounce.  
 Keep the above 9 vessels in a moderate heat for 15  
 days, shaking them well at times. After this pour  
 all the matters from these vessels into one large  
 vessel, well luted at its bottom; let this stand six  
 days, shaking it at times; and then set it in a very  
 gentle heat, and evaporate all the liquor, and  
 there will remain a powder of a purplish green.  
 When this is to be wrought, put into a pot very  
 clear metal, made of broken crystalline and white  
 glass that has been used; for with the virgin frit,  
 or such as has never been wrought, the chalcidony  
 can never be made, as the colours do not stick to  
 it, but are consumed by the frit. To every pot  
 of 20 lb. of this metal put 2 or 3 oz. of this pow-  
 der at three several times; incorporate the pow-  
 der well with the glass; and let it remain an hour  
 between each time of putting in the powders. Af-  
 ter all are in, let it stand 24 hours; then let the  
 glass be well heated, and take an assay of it, which  
 will be found of a yellowish blue; return this many  
 times into the furnace; when it begins to grow  
 cold, it will show many waves of different coloura  
 very beautifully. Then take tartar 3 oz. foot of  
 the chimney 2 oz. crocus martis made with brim-  
 stone, half an ounce; let these be well powdered  
 and mixed, and put them by degrees into the glass  
 at six times, waiting a little while between each  
 putting in. When the whole is put in, let the  
 glass cool and settle for 24 hours; then make a  
 little plat body of it; which put in the furnace  
 many times, and see if the glass be enough, and  
 whether it have on the outside veins of blue, green,  
 red, yellow, and other colours, and have beside  
 these veins, waves like those of the chalcidonyes,  
 jaspers, and oriental agates, and if the body kept  
 within looks as red as fire. When it answers  
 thus, it is perfect, and may be worked into toys  
 and vessel; which will always be beautifully varie-  
 gated; these must be well annealed, which adds  
 much to the beauty of their veins. Pieces of this  
 polished by the lapidary appear like natural stones,  
 and are very beautiful. If in the working the  
 matter grow transparent, the work must be stop-  
 ped, and to be tartar, foot, and crocus martis  
 must be put to it, which will give it a necessary  
 cessary body and opacity, without which it does  
 not show the colours well.

8. CHRYSEOTRIUM. To make this glass made of  
 of 1 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass  
 described above, and six drams of calcined iron.

9. CORNELIAN. The red cornelian colour  
 may be formed by adding 1 lb. of glass of anti-  
 mony, 2 oz. of the calcined vitriol called *ferret*  
*colony*, and one dram of green mefe or magnesia,  
 to 2 lb. of either of the compositions for hard  
 glass. The glass of antimony and magnesia  
 first used with the other glass, and then powder-  
 ed and ground with the ferret colony; the whole  
 mixture is afterwards fused with a gentle heat of

all the ingredients are incorporated. A glass resembling the **WHITE** cornelian may be made of 2 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass, 2 drams of yellow ochre well washed, and 1 oz. of calcined bones: grind them together, and fuse them with a gentle heat.

10. **EMERALD.** See § 13.

11. **GARNET.** To give this colour to glass, take equal quantities of crystal and rochetta frit, and, to every hundred weight of this mixture, add 1 lb. of manganese and 1 oz. of prepared zaffer: powder these separately; then mix and add by degrees to the frit while in the furnace. Great care is to be taken to mix the manganese and zaffer very perfectly; and when the matter has stood 24 hours in fusion, it may be worked. Glass of this kind may be made by adding 1 lb. of glass of antimony, one dram of manganese, and the same quantity of the precipitate of gold by tin, to 2 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass; or the precipitate of gold may be omitted, if the quantities of the glass of antimony and manganese be doubled.

12. **GOLD COLOUR.** Take 10 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass, omitting the saltpetre; and for every pound add 1 oz. of calcined borax; or, if this quantity does not render the glass sufficiently fusible, 2 oz.; 10 oz. of red tartar of the deepest colour; 2 oz. of magenta; and two drams of charcoal of fallow, or any other soft kind. Precipitates of silver baked on glass will stain it yellow, and likewise give a yellow colour on being mixed and melted with 40 or 50 times their weight of vitreous compositions; the precipitate from aquafortis by fixed alkali seems to answer best. Yellow glasses may also be obtained with certain preparations of iron, particularly with Prussian blue. But Dr Lewis observes, that the colour does not constantly succeed, nor approach to the high colour of gold, with silver or with iron. The nearest imitations of gold which he was able to produce were effected with antimony and lead. Equal parts of the glass of antimony, of that calcined and powdered, and of nitrium, formed a glass of a high yellow. With two parts of glass of antimony, 2 of nitrium, and 3 of powdered tart, the colour approached still more to that of gold. The best composition exhibited a multitude of small speckles interspersed throughout the whole substance, which, as it is less fluid, so range in the mass, but were readily imbedded, as they rose to the air bubbles. Nonetheless, to a small colour, one part of red tartar and one part of manganese, to be mixed with 100 parts of glass. But Kamskel says, that six parts of tartar are barely sufficient, unless the tartar be of a dark red colour, almost blackish; and that he found it convenient to add to the tartar about 1/2 drams weight of powdered chromal. He adds, that the glass was very easy in melting, and that it could be kept undiluted, and worked as it stands in a furnace. Mr Samuel More, in repeating and varying the proportions to render the gold colour more brilliant, found that one ounce of tartar and one ounce of chromal, to 100 lb. of glass, was only necessary to give it a very brilliant yellow; that the tartar should be of a dark red colour; the insoluble part of the tartar should be of a few red precipitates to be the dis-

tinging substance. Mr Pott of common coals give a yellow colour to different coaly matters differ in their tints; that caput mortuum of foot and answer better than common charcoals. The sparkling coal, which remains in after the rectification of the thick animal oils, is one of the most active preparations. This preparation, he says and then burnt again a little in a clay excellent for tinging glass, and gives yellow reddish, or blackish colours, according to the quantity; but the frit must not be very hard for in this case the strong fire will de-colouring substance before the glass melts: the following compositions to be used viz. sand two parts, alkali 3 parts; alkali 2 or 3, calcined borax one; saltpetre is hardly used at all, or very little for yellow glasses, as it too much colours the substance, yet here for the certain proportion of it, easily determined is very necessary; for without it the colouring matter is apt to make the glass and even of an opaque pitchy blackness not certainly appear, that there is any verity in the effects of different colours being probably owing to the different titles of the inflammable matter which stain; so that a little more may be necessary than of another for producing the same degree of colour in the glass. Gold-colour may be diffused through the substance mixing the yellow tales with powder bringing the mixture into fusion.

13. **GREEN, or EMERALD COLOUR.** Prepared to glass by adding 3 oz. of extracted from aquafortis, and two drams of iron, to 9 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass. The finest method of beautiful colour to glass is this: Purify crystalline metal, that has been put through water, and the same the common white metal or powder common pulverine frit, and 3 lb. of tartar, the red lead well with the salt, and put into a pot in a furnace. In a few hours the metal will be well purified; then cast into water, and separate and take it, then return the metal into the pot, and find a dry lower in fusion; then put a dr of the residuum of the vitriol of a very little chromal tartis; there will be a most lively and elegant green, leave that of the oriental emerald. There are many ways of giving a green to glass, but all inferior to this: To make a SEA GREEN crystalline glass only must be added, a green must be added as first to the crystalline metal must be melted thus, then cast, which swims like oil on its top, then taken off with an iron ladle very carefully to a pot of red lead or this metal, and 1 lb. of calcined tart, and 1 part of the powdered zaffer; the powder must be put into the glass at three times; the metal well at first, and all must be mixed in the pot. After it has been

take out a little for a proof: if it be  
ld more of the powder. In 24 hours  
the powder, the whole will be ready  
t must be well stirred from the bot-  
: colour should be deepest there, and  
the top less coloured, or even quite  
Some use for this purpose half cytal  
rochetta frit, but the colour is finest  
frit is used alone.

COLOUR. See § 7.

COLOUR. M. Magellan says, that  
: of opals are easily imitable by art ;  
: of glass being made which show very  
ours by reflection and by refraction.  
one is preserved in the abbey of St  
Paris, which is green on the outside,  
fine ruby colour when held between  
he light. See OPAL. M. Magellan dis-  
t the red glass of Kunckel, when over-  
burnt in a common fire, produces a  
transmitting one colour by reflection  
by refraction.

LE of a deep and bright colour may  
by adding to 10 lb. of either of the  
; for hard glass, six drams of zaffer  
m of gold precipitated by tin; or 1  
anese and  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz. of zaffer. The co-  
RUBY may be imitated in this way.

A blood-red glass may be made in  
manner: Put 6 lb. of glass of lead,  
common glass, into a pot glazed with

When the whole is boiled and re-  
by small quantities, at short distances  
per calcined to a redness as much as  
proofs is found sufficient; then add  
vder by small quantities at a time, till  
come as red as blood; and contin-  
one or other of the ingredients till the  
te perfect.

To give the true fine red of the ruby,  
ansparency, to glass: Calcine in earth-  
ld dissolved in aqua regia; the men-  
ge evaporated by distillation, more  
ded, and the abstraction repeated 5  
till it becomes a red powder. This  
quires many days in a hot furnace.  
owder is of a proper colour, take it  
hen it is to be used, melt the finest  
and purify it by often casting it into  
hen add, by small quantities, enough  
owder to give it the true colour of a  
an elegant and perfect transparency.  
of tinging glass and enamels by prepa-  
ld was first attempted about the be-  
e 17th century. Libavius, in one of  
tled *Alchymia*, printed in 1606, con-  
the colour of the ruby proceeds from  
at gold dissolved and brought to red-  
: made to communicate a like colour  
gems and glass. On this principle  
*Art of Glass*, dated in 1611, gave the  
: cited. Glauber, in 1648, publish-  
l of producing a red colour by gold,  
which is of the vitreous kind, though  
glass. For this purpose he ground  
it or sand with 4 times its weight of  
salt: this mixture melts in a mode-  
fire, and when cold looks like glass,

but exposed to the air run into a liquid state. On  
adding this liquor to solution of gold in aqua-regia,  
the gold and flint precipitate together in form of  
a yellow powder, which by calcination becomes  
purple. By mixing this powder with 3 or 4 times  
its weight of the alkaline solution of flint, drying  
the mixture, and melting it in a strong fire for an  
hour, a mass is obtained of a transparent ruby  
colour, and of a vitreous appearance; which ne-  
vertheless is soluble in water, or by the moisture  
of the air, on account of the redundancy of the  
salt. Mr BOYLE, in a work published in 1680,  
mentions an experiment in which a like colour  
was introduced into glass without fusion; for ha-  
ving kept a mixture of gold and mercury in diges-  
tion for some months, the fire was at last im-  
moderately increased, so that the glass burst with a  
violent explosion; and the lower part of the glass  
was found tinged throughout of a transparent red  
colour, hardly to be equalled by that of rubies.  
About the same time Cassius is said to have dis-  
covered the precipitation of gold by tin, and that  
glass might be tinged of a ruby colour by melting  
it with this precipitate; though Dr Lewis doubts  
if he was the discoverer of either. He describes  
the preparation of the precipitate and its use; but  
gives no account of the manner of employing it,  
only he says that one dram of gold duly prepared  
will tinge 10 lb. of glass. This process was soon  
after brought to perfection by KUNCKEL; who  
says, that one part of the precipitate is sufficient  
to give a ruby colour to 1280 parts of glass, and  
a sensible redness to upwards of 1900 parts; but  
that the success is by no means constant. Kun-  
ckel also mentions a purple gold powder, resembling  
that of Neri, which he obtained by inspissating  
solution of gold to dryness; abstracting from it  
fresh aqua-regia 3 or 4 times, till the matter ap-  
pears like oil; then precipitating with strong alkali-  
ne ley, and washing the precipitate with water.  
By dissolving this powder in spirit of salt, and  
precipitating again, it becomes extremely fair;  
and in this state he directs it to be mixed with a  
due proportion of Venice glass. ORSCHAL, in a  
treatise intitled *Sol sine Vesca*, gives the following  
process for producing a very fine ruby. He di-  
rects the purple precipitate made by tin to be  
ground with six times its quantity of Venice glass  
into a very fine powder, and this compound to  
be very carefully mingled with the frit or vitreous  
composition to be tinged. His frit consists of  
equal parts of borax, nitre, and fixed alkaline salt,  
and 4 times as much calcined flint as of each of  
the salts; but he gives no directions as to the pro-  
portion of the gold precipitate or mode of fusion.  
Hellot describes a preparation, which, mixed with  
Venice glass, gives a beautiful purple enamel.  
This preparation consists of equal parts of solution  
of gold and of solution of zinc in aqua-regia mixed  
together, with the addition of a volatile salt prepa-  
red from sal ammoniac by quicklime, in sufficient  
quantity to precipitate the 2 metals. The precipi-  
tate is then gradually heated till it acquires a violet  
colour. However, though a purple or red colour,  
approaching to that of ruby, may, by these me-  
thods, be baked on glass or enamels, and intro-  
duced into the mass by fusion, the way of equally  
diffusing such a colour through a quantity of fluid  
glass

glass is still, says Dr Lewis, a secret. The following process for making the ruby glass was communicated to Dr Lewis by an artist, who ascribed it to Kunckel. The gold is dissolved in a mixture of one part of spirit of salt and 3 of aquafortis, and the tin in a mixture of one part of the former with two of the latter. The solution of gold being properly diluted with water, the solution of tin is added, and the mixture left to stand till the purple matter has settled to the bottom. The colourless liquor is then poured off, and the purple sediment, while moist and not very thick, is thoroughly mixed with powdered flint or sand. This mixture is well ground with powdered nitre, tartar, borax, and arsenic, and the compound melted with a suitable fire. The proportions of the ingredients are 2560 parts of sand, 384 of nitre, 240 of tartar, 240 of borax, 28 of arsenic, 5 of tin, and 5 of gold.

19. SEA GREEN. See § 13, and GLASS, § 21.

20. TOPAZ. Glass resembling this stone may be made by pulverizing 10 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass with an equal quantity of the gold-coloured glass, and fusing them together. Or take crystal frit 15 lb. calcined lead 12 lb. mix them well together, by lifting the pow-

ders through a fine sieve; then set them in a furnace not too hot, and separate the unmixed lead, by casting the whole in water; repeat this twice: then add half gold y and let them incorporate and purify. The colour will be of the true and exact colour of tal topazes.

21. WHITE OPAKE and SEMI-TRANSPARENT glass may be made of 10 lb. of either of the compositions for hard glass and 1 lb. of wax, horn, ivory, or bone; or an opake may be given to glass by adding one part of very white arsenic to ten pounds of glass. Let them be well powdered and mixing them together, and then fused with a moderate heat till they are thoroughly incorporated. A glass of this kind is made in large quantities at a manufacture near London; and used for different kinds of vessels, but as a window glass for enamel in dial-plates and snuff boxes, does not require finishing with much fire, but comes very white and fusible with a moderate heat.

22. YELLOW. See § 12.

For farther particulars respecting COLOURS, DOUBLETS, and other counterfeit GLASS, see the article PASTES.

## G L A

\* GLASSMAN. *n. f.* [*glass* and *man*.] One who sells glass.—The profit of glasses consists only in a small present made by the *glassman*. *Swift*.

\* GLASSMETAL. *n. f.* [*glass* and *metal*.] Glass infusion.—Let proof be made of the incorporating of copper or brass with *glassmetal*. *Bacon's Phys.*

GLASSNEVIN, a pleasant village of Ireland, seated on a rising ground, 2 miles from Dublin.

GLASS-POT. See GLASS-MAKING, SECT. V.

GLASTENBURG, a town of Connecticut, 17 miles WNW. of Wyndham.

\* GLASSWORK. *n. f.* [*glass* and *work*.] Manufactory of glass.—The crystalline Venice glass is a mixture, in equal proportions, of stones brought from Pavia, and the ashes of a weed called kali, gathered in a desert between Alexandria and Rosetta; by the Egyptians used first for fuel, and then they crushed the ashes into lumps like a stone, and sell them to the Venetians for their *glassworks*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

(1.) \* GLASSWORT. *n. f.* [*salicornia*, or saltwort.]—It hath an apetalous flower, wanting the empalement; for the stamina, or chives, and the embryoes, grow on the extreme part of the leaves; these embryoes afterwards become pods or bladders, which, for the most part, contain one seed. The inhabitants near the sea-coast cut the plants up toward the latter end of summer; and, having dried them in the sun, they burn them for their ashes, which are used in making of glass and soap. These herbs are by the country people called kelp. From the ashes of these plants is extracted the salt called sal kali, or alkali, by the chymists. *Mill*.—For the fine glass we use the purest of the finest sand, and the ashes of kali or *glasswort*; and for the coarser or green sort, the ashes of brake or other plants. *Bacon's Vulg. Err.*

## G L A

(2.) GLASSWORT, in botany. See

\* GLASSY. *adj.* [from *glass*.] 1. M. vitreous.—In the valley near mount C. dea there is a sand, which, of all minerals laid in it turn to a *glassy* substance. 2. Resembling glass, as in smoothness or brittleness.—

Man! proud man!

Drest in a little brief authority,  
Most ignorant of what he's most  
His *glassy* essence, like an angry ape  
Plays such fantastick tricks before  
As makes the angels weep. *Shak. M.*

There is a willow grows a-slant  
That shows his hoar leaves in the

—The magnet attracteth the shining  
Or der brought from the Indies, usual  
in writing dust. *Brown*.

Whose womb produc'd the *glass*  
Bred

The hoary frosts that fall on Wint

The *glassy* deep.

(1.) GLASTONBURY, a town of Somersetshire, anciently called *Av Avalonia*. It is noted for a famous magnificent ruins of which still remains a structure called *the Abbot's kitchen*, entire, and is of a very unusual construction. The monks pretend that it was the relict of Joseph of Arimathea, and of St Patrick of the West Saxons, erected a church in 703, which he and his successors emic that the abbot had the title of *lord*, and the barons in parliament; and not or prince durst set foot on the ille

the abbey stands, without his leave. The manor was about 40,000l. a-year, besides the tithes, and was locked with deer. In 1533, it was ruined by the plague, but rebuilt by K. Edmund I. In 1569, the town and abbey were burnt, and in 1570, destroyed by an earthquake. Richard Wisliff, abbot, who had 100 monks and 400 nuns, was hanged on Torhill, in his pontificals, for refusing to take the oath of allegiance to Henry VIII. Edgar and many other kings were buried here; as well as Arthur, British king. See ARTHUR, N<sup>o</sup> 1, § 3. The abbey has part of a pillar, a door, or a window, of which there still remain the choir, the middle tower and chapels. The sides of the abbey are overgrown with ivy, and the towers are in a melancholy and venerable aspect. Here are two parish churches. This town, under its abbots, was a parliamentary borough, but it lost that and its privilege of a corporate charter, the latter of which, however, was restored to it by Charles II. who granted it a new charter for a free borough. The only manufacture is paper, but the chief support of the place is the ruins of the abbey. The ruins here were formerly called the *Abbat's Palace*; because it was a receptacle for the pilgrims who visited the abbey. At a little distance is an old church and facing the monk's church are three remarkable pyramids, with inscriptions, but so unintelligible, and an image in bishop's robes. Clattonbury is 3 miles SSW. of Wells, W. of London. Lon. 2. 40. W. Lat. 51.

GLASTONBURY, a town of Connecticut, in the north county, on the E. side of the Connecticut river.

GLASTONBURY, a township of Vermont, in the north county.

GLASTONBURY THORN. *n. f.* A species of rose. — This species of thorn produces some of the flowers in Winter, and flowers again in Spring. *Miller*.

GLASTONBURY THORN. See CRATEGUS,

GLAUCOM. See GLASS, N<sup>o</sup> IV, § 2.

GLAUC, a river of Suabia, which runs into the Danube, 2 miles N. of Sultz.

GLAUC, a county of Bohemia, or according to Mr. Cruttwell, of Silesia, on the border of Bohemia, surrounded by mountains. It is bounded to the K. of Prussia by the Q. of Hungary. It is 45 miles in length, and 12 miles in breadth. It has mines of coal, silver, iron, &c. and marble quarries, plenty of good fine springs of mineral water. Jaspazes, &c. are found in it.

GLAUC, the capital of the above county, is situated on the Neisse, and has strong fortifications, with a castle built upon a mountain. It lies 25 miles W. of Neisse, and 88 E. of Breslau. Lon. 16. 50. E. Lat. 50. 25. N.

GLAUC, KOGEL, a mountain of Austria, in the S. of Steyr.

GLAUCER, John Rodolphus, a celebrated chemist, who flourished about 1646. He wrote a great number of treatises on chemistry, which have been translated into French.

All his works have been collected into one volume, intitled, *Glauberus concentratus*, which has been translated into English, and was printed at London in folio, in 1689.

(2—4.) GLAUBER, John, John-Gottlieb, and Diana, two brothers and a sister, all celebrated Dutch painters, born at Utrecht in 1646, 56, and 50. The brothers excelled in landscapes; the sister in portraits and history. John died in 1726; John-Gottlieb in 1703.

(5.) GLAUBER'S SALTS. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.*

GLAUCE. See CREON, N<sup>o</sup> 1. and CREUSA, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

GLAUCHA, or } a town of Upper Saxony, in  
GLAUCHAU, } Schonburg, on the Mulda,  
containing 600 houses, 6 miles N. of Zuickaw,  
and 45 W. of Dresden.

GLAUCHE, a town of Lower Saxony, in Magdeburgh, adjoining to the Halle, but governed by its own magistrates. It has 4 schools, and 120 teachers.

(1.) \* GLAUCOMA. *n. f.* [*γλαυκωμα*; *gl income*, French.] A fault in the eye, which changes the crystalline humour into a greyish colour, without detriment of sight, and therein differs from what is commonly understood by suffusion. *Quincy*. — The *glaucoma* is no other disease than the cataract. *Sharp*.

(2.) GLAUCOMA, (from *γλαυκος*, sea-green, or sky colour,) is a disease in the eyes, wherein the crystalline humour is turned of a *bluish* or *greenish* colour, and its transparency hereby diminished. To those in whom this disorder is forming, all objects appear as through a cloud or mist; when entirely formed, the visual rays are all intercepted and nothing is seen at all. It is incurable, when inveterate, and in aged persons; and is always very difficult of cure, externals proving of little service. The internals best suited to it, are those used in the gutta serena. See *Opul. C. 7, ar. Glauclimus*, Consul. 94. The glaucoma is usually distinguished from the cataract or suffusion, in this, that in the cataract the whitenss appears in the pupil, very near the cornea; but it shows deeper in the glaucoma. Some late French authors, however, maintain the cataract and glaucoma to be the same disease. According to them, the cataract is not a film, or pellicle, formed before the pupil, as had always been imagined; but an inspissation or induration of the humour itself, whereby its transparency is prevented; which brings the cataract to the glaucoma. According to Mr. Sharp, the glaucoma of the ancient Greeks is the present cataract; but M. St Yves says, it is a cataract accompanied with a gutta serena. See SURGERY.

GLAUCUS, in ancient mythology, a deity of the sea, who, before his deification, was a fisherman of Anthedon. Having one day taken a considerable number of fishes, which he laid upon the bank, he perceived that as soon as they touched an herb that grew on the shore, they received new strength, and leaped again into the sea; upon which he was tempted to taste of the herb himself, and instantly leaped into the sea after them, where he was metamorphosed into a Triton, and became one of the sea gods.

\* GLAIVE. *n. f.* [*glaiue*, French; *gluif*, a hook, Welsh.] A broad sword; a falchion.—

Two



Two hundred Greeks came next in fight well try'd,

Not surely arm'd in steel or iron strong,  
But each a *glave* hath pendant by his side. *Fairf.*  
When zeal, with aged clubs and *glaves*,

Gave chase to rockets and white staves. *Hud.*

\* To GLAVER. *v. n.* [*glave*, Welsh, flattery; *gliswan*, Saxon, to flatter. It is still retained in Scotland.] To flatter; to wheedle. A low word.—Kingdoms have their distempers, intermissions, and paroxysms, as well as natural bodies; and a *glavering* council is as dangerous as a wheedling priest or a flattering physician. *L'Esrange.*

GLAUX, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Calycanthemæ*. The calyx is monophyllous; there is no corolla: the capsule is unilocular, quinquevalved, and pentaspermous.

GLAYSLEY, a small town in Shropshire.

\* To GLAZE. *v. a.* [*To glass*, only accidentally varied.] 1. To furnish with windows of glass.—Let there be two delicate cabinets daintily paved, richly hanged, and *glazed* with crystalline glass. *Bacon's Essays*. 2. To cover with glass, as potters do their earthen ware; [from the French *glaise*, *argilla*.] 3. To overlay with something shining and pellucid.—

Sorrow's eye, *glaz'd* with brining tears,  
Divides one thing entire to many objects.

*Shak. Rich. II.*

—The reason of one man operates on that of another in all true oratory; wherein though with other ornaments he may *glaze* and brandish the weapons, yet it is found reason that carries the stroke home. *Grew's Cosm. Sac.*—White, with other strong colours, with which we paint that which we intend to *glaze*, are the life, the spirit, and the lustre of it. *Dryden's Dufr.*

GLAZERT, a small river of Scotland, in Stirlingshire, formed by the union of 3 rivulets below the church of Campsie. After running with a great rapidity 5 miles, it falls into the Kelvin, opposite Kirkintilloch.

\* GLAZIER. *n. f.* [corrupted from *glazier*, or *glazier*, of *glais*.] One whose trade is to make glass windows. Other manufactures of glass are otherwise named.—Into rabbets the several panes of glasswork are set, and fastened by the *glazier*. *Moxon.*—

The dext'rous *glazier* strong returns the bound,

And gongling sashes on the penthouse found.

*Gay's Trivia.*

And then, without the aid of neighbour's art,  
Perform'd the carpenter's and *glazier's* part.

*Harte.*

(I.) GLAZING, *n. f.* the crusting over earthen ware by a vitreous substance, the basis of which is lead. See GLASS, N<sup>o</sup> IV, § 21.

(II.) GLAZING, ANCIENT METHOD OF. The Romans had a method of glazing their earthen vessels, which in many respects appears to have been superior to ours. The common brown glazing easily scales off, cracks, and in a short time becomes disagreeable to the eye. Besides, it is very easily destroyed by acids; nor can vessels glazed in this manner be even employed to hold wa-

ter, without part of it oozing through the pores. Lead is also destructive to the human body, if acids are unwarily put into vessels glazed with lead, the liquors will receive a very deep impregnation from the metal. The *Rouge*, which is yet to be seen upon urns in several places, appears to have been some kind of varnish; and Pliny gives that it was made of bitumen. He tells us it never lost its beauty, and that at length it was customary to glaze statues in this manner; this varnish sunk deep into the substance of the ware, it was not subject to those cracks which disfigure our vessels; and as it was not able to be corroded by acids, it could not be subject to any of the accidents which may attend the use of vessels glazed with lead.

(III.) GLAZING, MODERN METHOD OF. The workers of common earthen ware, however not at the trouble of thus previously purifying pure glass of lead. Their usual composition for glazing their ware is formed of white glass 10 lb. of red lead 20 lb. of pearl-ashes 20 lb. and common salt 12 lb. Powder the sand by grinding it then add it to the other ingredients, mix them together: after which calcine them some time with a moderate heat, and when they are cold, pound it to powder. When used, temper it with water. The proportion of these ingredients may be occasionally varied, but the ware, after being turned on the wheel in the open air, is covered over with this composition by a brush; and when set in the furnace the violent heat soon reduces it to glass, covering the whole internal and surface of the vessel. Lead, however, is excluded from the composition of some, and other fluxes substituted in its stead. A more perfect glazing may be prepared without lead, consisting of 40 lb. of white sand, 25 lb. of pearl-ashes and 15 lb. of common salt; and prepared before; and a more perfect transparent glazing may be made of sand 40 lb. of wood-ashes 50 lb. of pearl-ashes 10 lb. of common salt 12 lb. The following are the most commonly used at Delft, and the other Dutch manufactories.

1. GLAZING, BLACK. Take 8 parts of lead, iron filings 3, copper ashes 3, and two measures. This when melted will be a brown black; and if wanted blacker, add zaffer to it.

2. GLAZING, BLUE. Take lead-ash 1 lb. clear sand or powdered flints, 2 lb. common salt 2 lb. white calcined tartar 1 lb. or other glass ½ lb. zaffer ¼ lb.; mix them and melt them several times, quenching them in cold water. To have it fine, put the mixture into a glass-furnace for two days. Another blue glazing may be formed of 1 lb. of tartar, ½ lb. of red-lead, ¼ oz. and ¼ lb. of powdered flints, fused or melted above. Or take 2 lb. of calcined lead, add 5 lb. of common salt, 5 lb. of powder of zaffer, tartar, and Venetian glass 1 lb. Calcine and fuse the mixture as before, take of red lead one part, of sand 3 part



8. For a *violet blue* glazing, take 4 oz. of red lead, 5 oz. of powdered litharge, and 1 half a dram of manganese.

9. **GLAZING, BROWN.** Take red lead and each 14 parts, and of manganese two parts; or, of red lead 12 parts, and manganese 10 parts fused. A brown glazing, to be laid on a ground, may be made of manganese, and of red lead and white glass, of each twice fused.

10. **GLAZING, FLESH-COLOURED.** Take 12 parts of litharge, and one of white glass.

11. **GLAZING, GOLD-COLOURED.** Take of litharge, of sand or calcined flint one part; mix these very well together, then run them through a yellow glass with a strong fire. Pound and grind it into a subtil powder, and sift with a well saturated solution of tartar into a paste, which put into a crucible cover it with a cover. Give at first a green fire; then increase it, and until you have a glass, which will be green. Wash the glass again, and grind it to a fine powder. Rub this powder with beer, so that it may be applied by a hair pencil upon the vessels of ware. These vessels when covered with this powder must be first well heated, then put in a ruffle; and, as soon as the glass runs, by holding them over burning vegetation take out the vessels. *Phil. Trans. N° 300.*

Kunckel gives several preparations for coloured yellow glazing. This may be done by fusing a mixture of 3 parts of red lead, antimony, and one of saffron of Mars; melting the powdered mass, and repeating the operation 4 times, or by fusing 4 or 5 parts of red lead and antimony of unce, and of scales of iron half an ounce; or by fusing together 8 parts of red lead, 6 parts of flints, one part of yellow ochre, of antimony, and one part of glass. A gold-coloured glazing may be obtained by fusing red lead and white flints, of each 10 parts, and of filings of iron one part.

12. **GLAZING, GREEN.** Take 8 parts of litharge, 8 of Venice glass, 4 of brass dust or copper; or 10 parts of litharge, 12 of pebble, and one of *esulum* or copper. A fine green glazing may be produced by hemian granite, filings of copper, red Venetian glass, in equal proportions; or white glass, red lead, and filings of copper each; powdering the mass, and adding part of Bohemian granite to two parts of lead. A fine green may also be obtained, by grinding together any of the yellow with equal quantities of the blue glazings; the shades and tints of green will be had by the proportions of the one to the other, the choice of the kind of yellow and blue.

13. **GLAZING, GREEN.** Take 5 lb. of lead ashes, 1 lb. of flint,  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. of salt,  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. of tartar, and 1 lb. of copper dust.

14. **GLAZING, IRON-COLOURED.** Take 15 parts of red lead, 14 of white sand or flints, and 1 part of calcined copper. Calcine and fuse this

15. **GLAZING, LIVER-COLOURED.** Take 12

parts of litharge, 8 of salt, 6 of flint, and one of manganese.

9. **GLAZING, PURPLE BROWN.** Take lead ashes 15 parts, clean sand or powdered flints 18 parts, manganese one part, and white glass 15; to which some add one of zaffer.

10. **GLAZING, RED.** Take antimony 3 lb. litharge or red lead 3, and rust of iron one; grind them to a fine powder. Or, take 2 lb. of antimony, 3 of red lead, and one of calcined saffron of Mars; and proceed as before.

11. **GLAZING, SEA GREEN.** See § 6.

12. **GLAZING, WHITE.** For common ware, take 40 lb. of clear sand, 75 lb. of litharge or lead ashes, 26 of pot-ashes, and 10 of salt: Melt these three times into a cake, quenching it each time in clear cold water. Or, take 50 lb. of clean sand, 70 of lead ashes, 30 of wood ashes, and 12 of salt. For a *fine white*: Take 2 lb. of lead and one of tin; calcine them to ashes: of this take two parts, calcined flint, white sand, or broken white glass, one part, and salt one part; mix them well together and melt them into a cake for use. The trouble of calcining the tin and lead may be prevented by procuring them in a proper state. A *very fine white* glazing may be obtained by calcining two parts of lead and one part of tin; and taking one part of this mass, and of flints and common salt of each one part, and fusing the mixture. A white glazing may be also prepared by mixing 100 lb. of masticot, 60 of red lead, 20 of calcined tin or putty, and 10 of common salt; calcining and powdering the mixture several times.

13. **GLAZING, YELLOW.** Take red lead 3 lb. calcined antimony and tin of each 2 lb.; or, according to some, equal quantities of the three ingredients. These must be melted into a cake, then ground fine; and this operation repeated several times. Or, take 15 parts of lead ore, 5 of litharge of silver, and 15 of sand. A *fine yellow* glazing may be procured by mixing 5 parts of red lead, 2 of powdered brick, 1 of sand, 1 of white glazing, and 2 of antimony; calcining the mixture and then fusing it. Or, take 4 parts of white glass, one of antimony, 3 of red lead, and one of iron scales, and fuse the mixture; or fuse 16 parts of flint, one of iron filings, and 24 of litharge. A *light yellow* glazing may be produced with 10 parts of red lead, 3 of antimony, 3 of glass, and 2 of calcined tin. (See § 5.) A *citron yellow* is made of 6 parts of red lead, 7 of fine red brick dust, and two of antimony. This mixture must be calcined day and night for four days, in the ash hole of a glass-house furnace, and at last fused.

(IV.) **GLAZING OF DELFT WARE, PORCELAIN, STONE WARE, &c.** See DELFT, N° 3. PORCELAIN, and POTTERY.

GLAZOV, a town of Russia, in Viatka, on the Tchevtz, 56 miles ESE. of Viatka.

GLEAD, or GLADE. See GLEDE.

\* GLEAM. *n. f.* [*geliona*, Saxon.] Sudden shoot of light; lustre; brightness.—

Then was the fair Dodonian tree far seen  
Upon seven hills to spread his glassome gleam;  
And conquerors bedecked with his green,  
Along the banks of the Autonian stream. *Spens.*

At

At last a *gleam*  
Of dawning light turn'd thitherward in haste  
His travell'd steps. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

As I bent down to look just opposite,  
A shape within the wat'ry *gleam* appear'd,  
Bending to look on me. *Milton's Par. Lost.*  
Mine is a *gleam* of bliss, too hot to last;  
Wat'ry it shines, and will be soon o'ercast.

*Dryd. Aurengzebr.*  
We ken them from afar; the setting sun  
Plays on their shining arms and burnish'd hel-  
mets,  
And covers all the field with *gleams* of fire.

*Addison's Cato.*  
In the clear azure *gleam* the flocks are seen,  
And floating forests paint the waves with green.

*Pope.*  
Nought was seen, and nought was heard,  
But dreadful *gleams*,  
Fires that glow. *Pope's St Cecilia.*

(1.) \* *To GLEAM. v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To  
shine with sudden conflagration.—

Observant of approaching day,  
The meek-ey'd morn appears, mother of dews,  
At first faint *gleaming* in the dappled East.

*Thomf. Summer.*  
2. To shine.—

On each hand the gushing waters play,  
And down the rough cascade white dashing fall,  
Or *gleam* in lengthen'd vistas through the trees.

*Thomson.*  
(2.) \* *To GLEAM.* Among falconers a hawk is  
said to *gleam*, when she casts or throws up filth  
from the gorge.

\* *GLEAMY. adj.* [from *gleam*.] Flushing; dart-  
ing sudden conflagrations of light.—

In brazen arms, that cast a *gleamy* ray,  
Swift through the town the warrior bends his  
way. *Pope.*

\* *GLEAN. n. f.* [from the verb.] Collection  
made laboriously by slow degrees.—

Plains, meads, and orchards all the day he  
plies;

The *gleans* of yellow theme distend his thighs:  
He spoils the saffron. *Dryden's Virgil.*

\* *To GLEAN. v. a.* [*glaner*, French, as *Sin-  
ner* thinks, from *granum*, Lat.] 1. To gather  
what the gatherers of the harvest leave behind.  
—She came and *gleaned* in the field after the reap-  
ers. *Ruth. ii.*—

He reap'd the field, and they but only *glean'd*.

*Dryden.*  
—The precept of not gathering their land clean,  
but that something should be left to the poor to  
*glean*, was a secondary offering to God himself.  
—*Nelson.*

She went, by hard necessity compell'd,  
To *glean* Palæmon's fields. *Thomf. Autumn.*

2. To gather any thing thinly scattered.—  
Gather

So much as from occasions you may *glean*,  
If aught, to us unknown, afflicts him thus.

*Shak. Hamlet.*  
That goodness

Of *gleaning* all the lord's wealth into one,  
Into your own hands. cardinal, by extortion.

*Shak. H. VIII.*

—They *gleaned* of them in the highways  
sand men. *Judges xx. 45.*—

But Argive chiefs, and Agamemno  
When his resplendent arms flash'd th'  
shady plain,

Fled from his well-known face with we  
As when his thund'ring sword and poi  
Drove headlong to their ships, and  
routed rear. *Dryde.*

—In the knowledge of bodies we must  
to *glean* what we can from particular ex  
since we cannot, from a discovery of  
essences, grasp at a time whole heav  
bundles comprehend the nature and pr  
whole species together. *Locke.*

\* *GLEANER. n. f.* [from *glean*.]  
who gathers after the reapers.—  
For still the world prevail'd, and  
laugh,

Which scarce the firm philosopher ca  
Should his heart own a *gleaner* in the

2. One who gathers any thing slowly a  
ously.—An ordinary coffee-house *glean*  
city is an arrant statesman. *Locke.*

(1.) \* *GLEANING. n. f.* [from *gle*  
act of *gleaning*, or thing *gleaned*.—The  
as the shaking of an olive tree, and as th  
of grapes when the vintage is done. *Joi*  
—The orphan and widow are membe  
same common family, and have a right  
ported out of the incomes of it, as the  
had to gather the *gleanings* of the rich  
vest. *Atterbury.*

(2.) *GLEANING.* By the customs  
countries, particularly those of *Meu*  
tampes, in France, before the revolution,  
and others were forbid, either by the  
servants, to put any cattle into the field  
vent *gleaning* in any manner whatever  
hours after carrying off the corn, und  
of confiscation.

(1.) \* *GLEBE. n. f.* [*gleba*, Latin.]  
soil; ground.—

This, like the *rapory* plots, delight  
bowers;

The grassy garlands loves, and oft at  
flowers

Of rank and mellow *glebe*.  
Fertile of corn the *glebe*, of oil and  
With herds the pastures throng'd, with  
hills.

Mark well the flow'ring almonds in  
If od'rous blooms the bearing branch  
The *glebe* will answer to the sylvan re  
Great heats will follow, and large crop

Sleeping vegetables lie,  
'Till the glad summons of a genial ra  
Unbinds the *glebe*, and calls them ou

2. The land possessed as a part of the  
an ecclesiastical benefice.—The ordin  
or revenue of a parsonage is of three  
one in land, commonly called the *gleb*  
in tythe, which is a set part of our goo  
ed to God; the third, in other officin

God and his church by the people. —A trespass done on a parson's *glebe* which is a freehold, cannot be tried in a court. *Ayliffe's Parergon*. —  
 y parishes have not an inch of *glebe*. *Swift*.  
 —*GLEBE*, among miners, signifies a piece of which is contained some mineral ore.  
 —*GLEBOUS*. *adj.* [from *glebe*.] Turfy. *Dist.*  
 —*GLEW*, a town of Courland, 18 miles S. E.

—*GLEBY*. *adj.* [from *glebe*.] Turfy; perhaps following passage fat or fruitful, if it has its meaning. —  
 —*GLEBY* flat'ry! thy malignant seeds  
 In hour and by a fatal hand  
 Diffus'd o'er virtue's *gleby* land,  
 Rising pride amidst the corn appear,  
 To ke the hopes and harvest of the year.

*Prior*.  
 —*GLEBY*, GROUND IVY; a genus of the *eremia* order, belonging to the *didynamia* plants; and in the natural method ranked under the 44th order, *Vestibulate*. Each pair of them come together in the form of a *calyx* is quinquefid. There are 3 specimens most remarkable of which is the  
 —*GLEBY* HEDERACEA, the common ground ivy virtues were formerly attributed to it, which it is now found not to be possessive of, however, it has. The leaves are put into the vat with ale to clarify it and give it strength. Ale thus prepared is often drunk as a *robustic*. The expressed juice mixed with wine, and applied morning and evening, the white specks upon horses eyes. The ivy does not grow near it do not flourish. It is hurtful to horses if they eat much of it. If it is, horses are not fond of it; cows, and swine, refuse it.

—*GLEDE*. *n. f.* [from *glidaglide*, Saxon.] A hawk.—Ye shall not eat the *glede*, the vulture. *Deut.*  
 —*GLEDE*, GLEAD, or KITE. See *FALCO*,

—*GLETSIA*, TRIPLE-THORNED ACACIA, or *ROCUST*; a genus of the *diœcia* order, belongs to the *polygama* class of plants; and in the method ranking under the 33d order, *Lo-*  
 — In this genus, says Mr Lee, "the *berries* and *males* are on the same plant, and *berries* on a different one." The hermaphrodite is quadrifid; the corolla tetrapetalous; the *stamina* six, one pistil and legumen. The *stigma* is triphyllous; the corolla tripetalous, *stamina* six. The female *calyx* is pentafid; the corolla pentapetalous; one pistil and legumen. There are two species, viz.  
 —*GLETSIA INERMIS*, so named because the *stigma* is unarmed, or without thorns. It is a native of America, and in this country re-  
 —*GLETSIA TRIACANTHOS*, a native of Virginia. It is of an upright growth, trunk is guarded by thorns 3 or 4 inches in remarkable manner. These thorns have a coming out of their sides at nearly right angles. Their colour is red. The branches are lined with a white colour; but are likewise  
 — *PART. II.*

armed with red thorns, that are proportionally smaller: they are of several directions, and at the ends of the branches often stand single. The young shoots of the preceding summer are perfectly smooth, of a reddish green, and retain their leaves often until the middle of November. Although there is a peculiar oddity in the nature and position of the spines, yet the leaves constitute the greatest beauty of these trees: they are doubly pinnated, and of a delightful shining green. The pinnated leaves, that form the duplication, do not always stand opposite by pairs on the middle rib; the pinnæ of which they are composed are small and numerous; no fewer than 10 or 11 pair belong to each of them; and as 4 or 5 pair of small leaves are arranged along the middle rib, the whole compound leaf consists often of more than 200 pinnæ of this fine green colour. They sit close, and spread open in fine weather; though during bad weather they droop, and their upper surfaces nearly join, as if in a sleeping state. The flowers are produced from the sides of the young branches in July. They are a greenish catkin, and make little show; though many are succeeded by pods, that have a wonderful effect; for these are exceedingly large, more than a foot, sometimes a foot and a half in length, two inches in breadth, and of a nut-brown colour when ripe. There is a variety of this species, with fewer thorns, smaller leaves, and oval pods. It has nearly the resemblance of the other; though the thorns are not so frequent, and the pods smaller, each containing only one seed. These trees are easily propagated, by seeds received from America in spring, which keep well in the pods, and are for the most part good. They generally arrive in February; and, as soon as possible after, they should be sown in a well sheltered warm border of light sandy earth. If no border is to be found that is naturally so, it may be improved by applying drift sand, and making it fine. The seeds should be sown about half an inch deep: and they will for the most part come up the first spring. If the summer should prove dry, they must be constantly watered; and if shade could be afforded them in the heat of the day, they would make stronger plants by autumn. Attention to this is peculiarly requisite; for as the end of the branches are often killed, if the young plant has not made some progress, it will be liable to be wholly destroyed by the winter's frost, without protection: And this renders the sowing the seeds in a warm border, under a hedge, in a well sheltered place, necessary; for there these shrubs will endure our winters, even when seedlings, and will require no farther trouble; nay, though the tops should be nipped, they will shoot out again lower, and will soon overcome it. They should remain two years in the seed-bed before they are planted out in the nursery. The spring is the best time for the work. Their distances should be one foot by two; the rows should be dug between every winter; and, being weeded in summer, they may continue with no other particular care, until they are set out to remain. These trees are late in spring before they exhibit their leaves, but keep shooting long in autumn.

\* GLEE. *n. f.* [*gligge*, Saxon.] Joy; merriment; gayety. It anciently signified musick played at feasts. It is not now used, except in ludicrous writing, or with some mixture of irony and contempt.—

She marcheth home, and by her takes the knight,

Whom all the people follow with great glee.

*Fairy Queen.*

—Many wayfaires make themselves glee, by vexing the inhabitants; who again foreflew not to baigne them with perfume. *Carow's Survey.*—

Is Blouzelinda dead? Farewel my glee!

No happiness is now reserv'd for me. *Gay.*

The poor man then was rich, and liv'd with glee;

Each barley-head untaxt, and day light free.

*Hart.*

\* GLEED. *n. f.* [from *glosau*, Saxon, to glow.] A hot glowing coal. A provincial and obsolete word.

\* GLEEFUL. *adj.* [*glee* and *full*.] Gay; merry; cheerful. Not used.—

My lovely Aaron, wherefore look'st thou sad,  
When every thing doth make a gleeftal boast?

*Shak.*

\* GLEEK. *n. f.* [*gligge*, Saxon.] Musick; or musician.—What will you give us?—No money, but the glee: I will give you the minstrel. *Shak.*

\* To GLEEK. *v. a.* [*gligman*, in Saxon, is a mimick or a droll.] 1. To facer; to gibe; to droll upon.—

I can gleek upon occasion.

*Shak.*

—I have seen you gleeing or galling at this gentleman twice or thrice. *Shak. Hen. V. 2.* In Scotland it is still retained, and signifies to fool or spend time idly, with something of mimickry or drollery.

\* To GLEEN. *v. n.* To shine with heat or polish. I know not the original notion of this word: it may be of the same race with *glow* or with *gleam*. I have not remarked it in any other place.—

Those who labour

The sweaty forge, who edge the crooked scythe,  
Bend stubborn steel, and harden gleeing armour,

Acknowledge Vulcan's aid.

*Prior.*

(1.) \* GLEET. *n. f.* [It is written by *Skinner glit*, and derived from *glidan*, Saxon, to run softly.] A sanious ooze; a thin ichor running from a sore.—A hard dry eschar, without either matter or gleet. *Wifeman's Surgery.*

(2.) GLEET is chiefly used for the flux of a thin limpid humour from the urethra. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

\* To GLEET. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To drip or ooze with a thin sanious liquor.—His thumb being inflamed and swelled, I made an incision into it to the bone; this not only bled; but gleeted a few drops. *Wifeman.* 2. To run slowly.—Vapours raised by the sun make clouds, which are carried up and down the atmosphere, 'till they hit against the mountainous places of the globe, and by this concussion are condensed, and so gleet down the caverns of these mountains, whose inner parts, being hollow, afford them a basin. *Cheyne's Phil. Princ.*

\* GLEETY. *adj.* [from *gleet*.] Ichory; thin-

ly sanious.—If the flesh lose it's radi the matter change to be thin and gleeft suspect it corrupting. *Wifeman.*

GLEIBERG, or OLITZBERG, a town many, in Nassau Weilburg; 2 miles N. and 8 NW. of Wetzlar.

GLEICHENBERG, a town of Germany, 10 miles N. of Racklburg.

GLEICHENSTEIN, a town and county, in the circle of the Lower Rhin ritory of Eichfeld.

GLEINCK, a town of Austria, 7 m. E.

GLEINSTOTTEN, a town of Stiria SE. of Voitsberg.

GLEISS, a town of Switzerland, in 26 miles E. of Sion.

GLEIWITZ, or GLIWICE, a town in Oppeln, 36 miles SE. of Oppeln.

GLEMISFORD, a village in Suffolk, Clare and Lenham.

GLEMS, a river of Germany, which the Enz, 2 miles N. of Mark-Grobingen emberg.

(1.) GLEN, John, a celebrated print graver in wood, born at Liege, about published a copious work on ancient dresses, ceremonies, &c. illustrated with figures.

(2.) \* GLEN. *n. f.* [*gleann*, Eric.] A dale; a depression between two hills.—

From me his madding mind is fit  
And woos the widow's daughter of

(3.) GLEN. See DEN, § 2.

(4.) GLEN, in geography, a river of Cumberland, running into the Till.

(5.) GLEN, a lake of Ireland, 30 miles WNW. of Londonderry.

(6.) GLEN makes part of the names number of places in Scotland and Ireland some in England, which, according to the meaning of the word, (see § 2.) either are seated in or near them; as following examples:

GLEN-ALMOND, a beautiful valley of Perthshire, about 8 miles N. of Crieff, famous for its picturesque scenery.

GLEN-ALOT, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, 14 miles N. of Dornoch.

GLENARM, a town of Ireland, in the Glenarm Bay, 105 miles from Dublin.

GLEN-ARTNEY, a vale of Scotland, Perthshire, 4 miles NE. of Callender.

GLENSHIRE, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, in the parish of GLENELG, in which are several ancient castles, exhibiting specimens of ancient Scots architecture. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*.

GLENBARRIE, a parish of Scotland, in Perthshire, 6½ miles long from N. to S. and lying along the *Bervie* for 3 miles, and 13,965 acres. The soil in the high part is clay, and in the lower, a light loam. The climate is cold but healthy. The crops bear, pease, potatoes, clover, rye-grass &c. Husbandry is much improved, the exertions of Mr Barclay of Urie. The lenity of the late Lord Momboddo, th

and the tenants thriving. The leases are stated for "a life, 19 years, and a life, the possessor, during the 19 years, naming the life with which the lease ends." The population, in 1792, as by the rev. Alex. Thom, in his report to Sir Sinclair, was 1307, and had increased 349, since 1755. There were then 53 ploughs, 161 horses; a considerable number of black cattle, but few sheep in the parish.

**BUCKET**, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, 30 miles from Aberdeen. It is 4 miles long and from  $\frac{1}{2}$  to one mile broad, encircled by a rivulet called *Bucket*, which runs into the Don. The soil is a light loam; the climate mild, and in summer warm, which makes the harvest pretty early. The crops are oats and grass. Grasses are beginning to be sown. The population, in 1795, stated by the rev. William Thomson, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 449, and increased 19 since 1755.

**CAIRN**, a parish in Dumfriesshire, 16 miles from E. to W. lying along the rivers Craigie, Dalquhat, and Castlefairn, on the W. side of both sides of the *Cairn*, the name of these rivers when united. It is 15 miles from Dumfries. The soil is light, warm, and fertile in grain and grass. The climate is healthy. The population, in 1795, stated by the rev. Walter Grierson, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1700, and had decreased 94 since 1755. The number of sheep, on the 1st of January, was above 9000; of horses 135, and of black cattle 2475. There were 27 proprietors, and 100 families in the parish, which was divided into 90 small farms.

**CARR**, a valley of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, 12 miles N. of Dornoch.

**CARRISH**. See DUTHIL, N° 1.

**CARRICOE**, or } a valley of Scotland, in Argylshire, near Loch Etive; memorable for being the scene of the most cruel and bloody massacre, that ever disgraced the annals of Britain. See ENGLAND, § 67. The rev. Mr. M'Nicol, minister of Lismore and Appin, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, in 1792, states that a veil could be thrown over this massacre of our history, as it was the most barbarous and unchristianlike action in modern times, sanctioned by any authority from government." See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* Vol. I, 498.

**CUMBER**, a river of England, in Cumberland, running into the Ullswater.

**CROSS**, a parish of Scotland, in Mid-Lothian, 7 miles W. of Edinburgh, erected in 1616. It is about 3 miles square in extent; and as it lies on Pentland hills, is well adapted for pasturing. Accordingly, about 1200 sheep, 100 horses, and 150 black cattle, are pastured in it. The population, in 1792, stated by the rev. W. Torrance, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 385 souls, and decreased 172 since 1755. There is a distillery, a bleachfield, and 3 mills in the parish; manufactures are a grievance. The chief crops are oats and grass. Limestone, coals, sandstone, granite, and heavy spar, abound; and squirrels are numerous in the woods. See *SCIURUS*, N° 1. There are some vestiges of ancient camps; a stone with a rude inscription is erected in memory of the battle of Pentland hills in 1666.

The late celebrated W. TYTLER, Esq. of Woodhouselee, and J. PHILIP, Esq. of Greenlaw, were natives of this parish.

**CROX**, a romantic valley of Scotland, in Argylshire, between two very high ridges of mountains, on the NE. side of Loch Long.

**DALAGH**, an ancient and once celebrated town of Ireland, 5 miles NW. of Rothdrum, in Wicklow; called also, the *Seven Churches*. Glendalagh signifies "the valley of the two lakes." In this valley, surrounded by high and almost inaccessible mountains, ST KEVIN, about the middle of the 6th century, founded a monastery, which in a short time from the sanctity of its founder was much resorted to, and at length became a bishopric and a religious city. During the middle ages Glendalagh, called by Hoveden *Episcopatus Bistolquienfis*, was held in great esteem, and received valuable donations and privileges; its episcopal jurisdiction extending to the walls of Dublin. About the middle of the 12th century, it became, instead of a holy city, a den of thieves; wherefore Cardinal Papiro, in 1214, united it to the see of Dublin, which union was confirmed by King John. The O'Tools, chiefs of Fithuathal, however, by the assistance of the Pope, continued long after to elect bishops and abbots to Glendalagh, though they had neither revenues nor authority, beyond the district of Tuathal, which was the western part of the county; in consequence of which the city had become nearly a desert, in 1497, when Dennis White, the last titular bishop, surrendered his right. From the ruins still remaining, this city appears to have been a place of consequence, and to have contained 7 churches and religious houses; built in an elegant style, in imitation of the Greek architecture; the walls of the cathedral are yet standing. South of them stands a small church roofed with stone, nearly entire; and in several parts of the valley are a number of stone crosses, some of which are curiously carved, but without inscriptions. In the NW. corner of the cemetery, stands a round tower, 95 feet high, and 15 in diameter; and in the cemetery of a small church, called the *Rosfeart church*, are some tombs of the O'Tools. In a perpendicular projecting rock on the S. side of the great lake, 30 yards above the surface of the water, is the celebrated bed of St Kevin, hewn out of the rock, exceedingly difficult of access and terrible in prospect. Among the ruins have been discovered a number of stones curiously carved, and containing inscriptions in Latin, Greek, and Irish. As this city was in a valley, surrounded on all sides, except the E. by inaccessible mountains, the artificial roads leading thereto are curious: the principal is that leading into the county of Kildare through Glendafon. This road for near two miles is yet perfect, composed of stones placed on their edges, making a firm and durable pavement, about 10 feet broad. At a small distance from St Kevin's bed, on the same side of the mountain, are to be seen the ruins of a small stone building, called *Saint Kevin's cell*.

**DALE**, a town of England, in Northumberland, seated on the Glen.

**DERBY**, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, 10 miles N. of Dunkeld.

**GLENDON**, a town of England, in Northamptonshire, near Rothwell.

**GLENDONAN**, a parish of Perthshire, in the middle of the Ochil hills, so named from the DOYAN, which runs through it; 6 miles long from SW. to NE. and 4½ broad. The surface, though hilly, is green and smooth; the soil light and dry. About 200 acres are generally under oats, barley, flax, and potatoes; the rest is appropriated to pasture, for which it is best adapted; feeding about 2000 sheep, 50 horses, and 220 cows. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. J. Brown, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 240, and had increased 20 since 1755.

**GLENEGAD HEAD**, a cape of Ireland, in Donegal. Lon. 7. 4. W. Lat. 55. 20. N.

**GLENELCHAIG**, a district of Scotland, in Ross-shire, in Kintail.

(1.) **GLENELG**, [from *glen*, Gael. a valley, and *selg*, hunting.] a parish of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, about 20 miles square. It is divided into 3 districts, called *Glenelg*, *Knowdort*, and *N. Murrar*. In the two former the soil is good, being partly deep black loam, partly light, and partly sandy gravel. The last is mountainous, rocky, and adapted for feeding cattle. The climate is moist, but healthy. Oats, barley, and potatoes are the chief crops, but in the best seasons, the produce does not maintain three 4ths of the inhabitants. Grazing of sheep and black cattle therefore prevails; and about 1500 stones of wool are sold annually. The population, in 1795, stated by the rev. Colin M'iver, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2746; and had increased 920 since 1755; notwithstanding 1124 had emigrated at different periods. Of these, 1310 were papists. The roads are bad.

(2.) **GLENELG**, a district in the above parish, in which there are several ancient forts. See *ARCHITECTURE*, § 54, 55.

**GLESELY**, a river of Ireland, in Antrim, which runs into the sea, 3 miles S. of Glron Point.

**GLENISK**, a district of Scotland, in Forfarshire, watered by the North Esk.

**GLEN-FICHAN**, a vale in the W. of Argyle.

**GLEN-FIDDICH**, a valley in Banffshire, 12 miles E. of Inveravan, watered by the Fiddich.

**GLENFIELD**, a village NW. of Leicester.

**GLEN-FINE**, a vale in Argyle, N. of Loch Fine.

**GLEN-FINGLASS**, a valley in Perthshire.

**GLENGAIRNS**, [from *glean*, Gael. *i. e.* a valley, and *garbh-ambain*, the rough water,] a parish of Scotland in Aberdeenshire, united with those of Glenmuick and Tulloch. It lies on both sides of the Gairn, and part of it on the Dee. It extends 6 miles NW. of Tulloch. It has an ancient castle. See **GLENMUICK**.

**GLENGAFE**, a lake in Kirkcudbrightshire, abounding with large yellow trout.

**GLENGARRIFF**, a harbour of Ireland, in Cork, on the NE. part of Bantry Bay.

**GLEN GARRY**, a valley of Scotland, in Inver-shire, N. of Loch Garry.

**GLENGONAR**, a noble river of Scotland, in the parish of Clonfert, Fermanagh, in which a gold has been found. The rev. J. Mac nochie, says "Q. Elizabeth sent down a German to gather gold dust in the waters of Elyan and Glengonar,

both which have their sources in the hills the lead is found. This man wrote an account his discoveries and labours, the MS. of which the Advocates' library. The place where he el the gold took its name from the event, called the *Gold Scour*. There are veins peated in the parish, importing that he great fortune. Be that as it will, the business resumed by order of the late E. of Hopeto discontinued, as being less profitable than e labour. Gold dust is still found on the top rocks; but the searching for it is rather an amusement, than of serious occupation. Titles seldom exceed in size the point of *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* vol. iv, 513.

**GLEN-GRUDY**, a valley of Scotland, in shire, N. of Loch Fairnith.

**GLENHAM, GREAT**, } 2 towns of Engl  
**GLENHAM, LITTLE**, } Framlingham. S

**GLENHOLM**, a parish of Scotland, in shire, seated on Holm's water, and part Tweed; 12 miles SW. of Peebles, and Edinburgh. It is about 5 miles long from The surface being hilly, the greater part laid out in pasture; the soil of the arable is loose and sharp; and produces strong grain, grass, turnips, and potatoes. This is damp. The population in 1791, state rev. Bernard Haldan, in his report to Sir J was 300 souls, and had decreased 92 in The number of sheep was 5,000; of horned black cattle 150. There are relics of the in the parish, and thirlages are not killed.

**GLENICZA**, a river of Poland, which to the Obra, near Koster in Posenia.

**GLEN-INS**, a town of Ireland, in De.

(1.) **GLENISLA**, a valley of Scotland, three districts of Forfarshire; so named Iffa, which runs through it.

(2.) **GLENISLA**, a parish in the shire 18 miles long, but a few miles above 2 is soil is mostly soft and heavy, but in parts a deep strong loam, producing a of bear, oats, turnips, and potatoes. very pure, and largely common. T tion in 1791, stated by the rev. J. Du report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1,118 sou decreased 214, since 1755. The name cattle was 1676; great numbers of the reared. The ruins of two old castles, to the Airy family, and demolished n still to be seen.

**GLENKENS**, [Gael. *i. e.* the vale on a district of Scotland in Kirkcudbright; comprehending the parishes of Dalry, K phairn, and Bilmacellan.

**GLEN-KINGLASS**, a valley of Scotland, in shire.

**GLEN-LEDNOCK**, a valley of Scotland, 10 miles NW. of Clifden.

**GLEN-LOCHRY**, a valley of Scotland, shire, NE. of Glenorchy.

**GLEN-LUFF**, [Gael. *i. e.* the vale a district, and anciently a parish of Wigtonshire, divided, in 1549, into t named *Old* and *New Luff*. See *LUFF*.

**GLEN-LYON**, a valley in Perthshire.

REE, [Gael. *i. e.* the great valley.]  
 rict of Murrayshire, in the barony  
 abounding with wood. In 1786,  
 on sold his fir woods of Glenmore  
 Company for 10,000 l. This fir is  
 stily, and reckoned equal to New  
 Vessels from 200 to 500 tons have  
 , with masts 60 feet long. There  
 n it, one of them an oval basin, 2  
 er. The other abounds with a pe-  
 f fat green trout.

ORE, a valley in Perthshire, 12 miles  
 Atholl.

STON, a valley of Inverness-shire,  
 Fort Augustus.

WICK, a vale in Angus, NW. of Brechin.  
 WICK, [Gael. *glean muic*, *i. e.* the  
 3 parish of Scotland, in Aberdeen-  
 shire, 15 miles long, lying entirely  
 of the Dee, about 40 miles W. of  
 is united with those of TULLOCH  
 RM, and each of the 3 has a church,  
 pied alternately. These united pa-  
 rishes irregular figure, about 15 miles  
 broad, intersected by the Dee. The  
 mountainous and healthy; the soil, in  
 and shallow, producing good grain,  
 er. The air is pure, dry, and salu-  
 man died in 1792, aged 102; and  
 born in Glenmuick in 1598, died  
 no less than 124. Husbandry is he-  
 : improved. The crops are bear,  
 sic, potatoes, and flax. The popu-  
 lation, in 1792, stated by the rev.  
 in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was  
 d decreased 153, since 1755. The  
 eep was 13,263; of horses 716, and  
 c 1563.

WICK, a valley in Ross-shire.

DES, the name of two cavities, or  
 ons, in the inferior part of the first  
 neck.

HAY, or } a parish of Scotland, in Ar-  
 NORCHY, } gylsh. bordering on Perth-  
 with that of INISHALL in 1618; dis-  
 it in 1650, and re-united, soon after  
 irth of both is 24 miles; the breadth  
 ey extend for 8 miles on each side of  
 ec AW, N° 3. The surface is mostly  
 . The soil on the low grounds, is a  
 light earth and sand, or rich loam;  
 arley, turnips, and various kinds of  
 atoes. The latter are cultivated with  
 nd form the chief food of the natives  
 is of the year. The population, in  
 by the rev. Dr Joseph McIntyre, in  
 Sir J. Sinclair, was 1669, and had in-  
 nce 1755. The number of sheep was  
 ck cattle are exported, (but the Dr  
 ate the number;) as well as wool,  
 n, tartans, &c. The imports are mer-  
 , and 1000 bolls of meal. The roads  
 , and inns, are good. There is a lead  
 h was wrought for many years; and  
 , ASBESTOS, and beautiful JASPERs,  
 ound in the mountains.

NORCHY, a vale in the above parish,  
 es long and half a mile broad, seated

on the URCHAY, which winds through it, and di-  
 vides it into two equal parts.

(3.) GLENORCHY, a village in the above valley,  
 15 miles NE. of Inveraray, and SE. of Bunaw.

(4.) GLENORCHY, Lady. See MAXWELL.

GLENPRASSIN, a district of Forfarshire.

GLEN-QUEICH, a valley in Perthshire, 10 miles  
 N. of Crieff.

GLEN-RINNES, a valley in Banffshire, 7 miles  
 NE. of Inveravon.

(1.) GLENSHEE, a valley in Perthshire, 15 miles  
 E. of Blair in Atholl.

(2.) GLENSHEE, SPITAL OF, a noted pass into  
 the Grampian mountains, a little S. of the point  
 where the counties of Perth, Angus, and Aber-  
 deen meet. In 1718, a small body of Highlanders,  
 with 500 Spaniards, took possession of it; but on  
 the approach of the king's troops, after retiring  
 to the pass at Strachell, and from one height to a-  
 nother, the Highlanders dispersed, and next day  
 the Spaniards surrendered. *Brookes's Gazetteer*.

(1.) GLENSHEIL, [Gael. *glean sheilich*, *i. e.* the  
 valley of hunting.] a parish of Scotland, in Ross-  
 shire, 21 miles long, from NW. to SE. and from  
 2 to 6 broad. The climate is rainy. The surface  
 is partly mountainous, partly level; the soil on  
 the former is thin, stony and barren; on the lat-  
 ter gravel and light earth. Oats, bear, and pota-  
 toes are the only crops. The population, in 1792,  
 stated by the rev. J. M'Rae, in his report to Sir J.  
 Sinclair, was 721, and had increased 212 since  
 1755. The staple of this parish is black cattle,  
 which are not large, but hardy, and uncommonly  
 elegant. They sell at from 3 l. to 5 l. Horses,  
 sheep, and goats are also reared, but the numbers  
 are not mentioned by Mr M'Rae.

(2.) GLENSHEIL, a district in the above parish,  
 consisting of two narrow valleys, 2 miles distant  
 from each other, and from 1 to 5 miles long,  
 "surrounded on each side by almost perpendicular  
 mountains of a prodigious height." In a narrow  
 pass in these heights, (says Mr M'Rae,) was fought  
 in 1719, the battle of Glenheil, between some  
 English troops and 300, or 400 Spaniards, joined  
 by some Highlanders under the earl of Seaforth,  
 who was dangerously wounded, and soon after his  
 followers gave way, and the Spaniards surren-  
 dered; though the English lost their commander."  
 This seems to be the same battle, stated by Dr  
 Brookes to have happened at Glenshee, in Perth-  
 shire, in 1718. See GLENSHEE, § 2. In 1786,  
 the proprietor, Mr M'Kenzie of Seaforth, was  
 offered *triple rent* for this district by sheep farmers,  
 but he nobly refused it, saying he would *never*  
*prefer sheep to men*; and set the lands to his old  
 tenants, on a very moderate augmentation.

(1.) GLENTANAR, a mountainous parish of  
 Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, 30 miles SW. of A-  
 berdeen, and 30 NW. of Brechin. It is seated on  
 the rivulet *Tanar*, S. of the Dee, and is united to  
 the parish of *Abogue*. The extent of both parishes  
 is 9 miles in length from E. to SW. and 3 in breadth.  
 The soil is sandy, and fertile in rainy seasons. The  
 new husbandry has been introduced, and the E. of  
 Aboyne's own farm of 400 acres is in high cultiva-  
 tion. Oats, barley, turnips, and potatoes, are the  
 chief produce. The population of Aboyne and  
 Glentanar, in 1796, was 1050, and had decreased



645 since 1755. The highest mountain in Glentanar, called *Fir Mount*, is 2,500 feet above the sea level, and affords an extensive prospect of Aberdeen, Montrose, and Arbroath. The Dee runs between the two parishes.

(1.) GLENTANAR, FOREST OF, a large forest of natural wood, in Aberdeenshire, near the above parish, (and perhaps partly in it,) 10 miles long and 6 broad, abounding with excellent Scots fir.

GLENTHAM, a village in Lincolnshire, W. of Market-Raisin.

GLENTIS, a village of Ireland, in Down county, on the Amdrafs. One of the chief fairs for black cattle in Ireland, is held at it.

GLENRATHEN, or LINRATHEN, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire. See LINRATHEN.

GLEN-URQUHART, a vale in Inverness-shire.

GLEN-YALDER, a valley in Aberdeenshire, between Loch-Garr and the Dee.

GLEVUM. See GLOUCESTER, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

\* GLEW. *n. f.* [*gluten*, Lat.] A viscous cement made by dissolving the skins of animals in boiling water, and drying the gelly. See GLUE.

(1.) \* GLIB. *adj.* (from *glib*. *Skim.*) 1. Smooth; slippery; so formed to be easily moved.—Liquid bodies have nothing to sustain their parts, nor any thing to cement them: the parts being *glib* and continually in motion, fall off from one another, which way soever gravity inclines them. *Burnet's Theory*.—Habakkuk brought him a smooth strong rope, compactly twisted together, with a noose that slipt as *glib* as a birdcatcher's gin. *Arbutnot.* 2. Smooth; voluble.—

I want that *glib* and oily art

To speak and purpose not, since what I well intend,

I'll do't before I speak. *Shak. K. Lear.*

—There was never so much *glib* nonsense put together in well sounding English. *Locke*.—

Now Curl his shop from rubbish drains;

Three genuine tomes of Swift's remains:  
And then to make them pass the *glibber*,  
Revis'd by Tibbald, More and Cibber. *Swift.*  
Be sure he's a fine spoken man;

Do but hear on the clergy how *glib* his tongue ran. *Swift.*

(2.) \* GLIB. *n. f.*—The Irish have from the Scythians mantles and long *glibs*; which is a thick curled bush of hair hanging down over their eyes, and monstrously disguised them. *Spens. on Irel.*

\* To GLIB. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To castrate.—

I'll geld them all: fourteen they shall not see,  
To bring false generations; they are coheirs,  
And I had rather *glib* myself than they

Should not produce fair issue. *Shak. Wint. Tale.*

\* GLIBLY. *adv.* [from *glib*.] Smoothly; volubly.—Many who would startle at an oath, whose stomachs as well as conscience recoil at an obscenity, do yet slide *glibly* into a detraction. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

\* GLIBNESS. *n. f.* [from *glib*.] Smoothness; slipperiness.—

A polish'd ice-like *glibness* doth enfold  
The rock. *Chapman's Odyssey.*

—The tongue is the most ready for motion of any member, needs not so much as the flexure of a

joint, and by access of humours ac-  
*ness* too, the more to facilitate its use  
of the Tongue.

GLICAS, or GLYCAS, Michael, a  
rian, who lived in Sicily, about the 11th  
century, and wrote annals of what  
the creation to the death of Alexius  
in 1118. Leunclavius added to it a 5th  
carries it down to the taking of Co  
Glicas was also the author of several  
curious letters.

\* GLIDE. *n. f.* [from the verb.]  
or manner of passing smoothly.—

About his neck

A green and gilded snake had wrea  
Who, with her head nimble in  
proach'd

The opening of his mouth; but so  
Seeing Orlando, it unshook'd itself,  
Add with indented *glides* did slip a  
Into a bush. *Shak. A*

\* To GLIDE. *v. n.* [*glidan*, Saxo  
Dutch.] 1. To flow gently and silent  
By East, among the dusty vallies  
The silver streams of Jordan's cryst

Broke by the jotting land on eith  
In double streams the briny waters.

Just before the confines of the w  
The *gliding* Lethe leads her silent fl

Where stray the muses, in what lan  
In those fair fields where sacred Ihs  
Or else where Cam his winding vale

2. To pass on without change of step.  
Ye *gliding* ghosts, permit me to n  
The mystick wonders of your silent

3. To move swiftly and smoothly aloft

If one of mean affairs

May plod it in a week, why may n  
*Glide* thither in a day? *Shak.*

Shoals of fish, with fins and spini  
*Glide* under the green wave,

He trembl'd every limb, and felt  
As if cold steel had *glided* through b

—All things are beheld as in a hasty mo  
the objects only *glide* before the eye,  
pear. *Dryden.*

\* GLIDER. *n. f.* [from *glide*.] One  
The glance into my heart did *glic*  
Hey ho the *glider*;

Therewith my soul was sharply g  
Such wounds soon waxen wider.

\* GLIKE. *n. f.* [*glig*, Saxon. See  
A sneer; a scoff; a flout. Not now  
Where's the bastard's braves, and  
*glikes*? *Shakespeare.*

GLIKEON, a town of European  
Epirus, 26 miles W. of Atla.

GLIMANY, a town of Poland in L

(1.) \* GLIMMER. *n. f.* [from the  
Faint splendour; weak light. 2. A ki  
—The lesser masses that are lodged in  
stony bodies, dispersedly, from their



were an inducement to the writers give those bodies the name of mica. *Woodward*.—Stones which are comets, that are generally plain and parallel; are flexible and elastic; talc, catmuser, of which there are three sorts, or the golden, the white or silvery, &c. *Woodward*.

IMMER, or GLIST. See MICA.  
IMMER. v. n. [*glimmer*, Danish, to new, Dutch, to glow.] 1. To shine

est yet *glimmers* with some streaks of *Sbak*.

th appears so naked on my side, purblind eye may find it out, that side it is so well apparel'd, so shining, and so evident, ill *glimmer* through a blind man's eye. *Sbak*.

re no twilight of the sun's dull ray upon the pure and native day. *Cowley*.  
*glimmering* bowers and glades &c. *Milton*.

ou you' dreary plain, forlorn and wild, of desolation, void of light, the *glimmering* of their livid flames and dreadful? *Milt. Par. Lost*.

The sacred influence appears, and from the walls of heav'n into the bosom of dim night *ring* dawn. *Milton's Par. Lost*.

hese sad shades this chaos in my soul, is of light at length began to roll; motion of an infant ray *ring* thro' the cloud, and promis'd *Prior*.

the winds, extinct the signal lies; *ring* d in the *glimm'ring* socket dies. *Gay*.  
rosy morning *glimmer'd* o'er the dale, to pasture all the lusty males. *Pope*.  
received imperfectly; to appear faint: way the baggage post-boy, who had t, got a *glimmering* who they were. he Pagan priesthood was always in the there was a perceivable *glimmering* h rites in it, though much corrupted.

PSE. n. f. [*glimmen*, Dutch, to glow.] faint light.—

ch vast room in nature, bine, yet scarce to contribute a *glimpse* of light, convey'd so far this habitable, which returns k to them. *Milton*.

ls of things, which now either wholly apprehensions, or which our short- on having got some faint *glimpse* of, dark, grope after. *Locke*. 2. A quick t.—

n the lightning *glimpse* they ran? *Milt*.  
nightless youth was wing'd with vain es;

ood, long misled by wand'ring fires, false lights; and when their *glimpse* gone,

struck out new spangles of her own. *Dryden*.

3. Transitory lustre.—  
There no dear *glimpse* of the sun's lovely face  
Strikes thro' the solid darkness of the place. *Cowley*.

If I, celestial fire, in aught  
Have serv'd thy will, or gratified thy thought,  
One *glimpse* of glory to my issue give;  
Grac'd for the little time he has to live. *Dryd*.

4. Short fleeting enjoyment.—  
If, while this weary'd flesh draws fleeting  
breath,

Not satisfy'd with life, afraid of death,  
If hap'ly be thy will that I should know  
*Glimpse* of delight, or pause from anxious woe;  
From now, from instant now, great fire, dispel  
The clouds that press my soul. *Prior*.

5. A short transitory view.—  
O friends! I hear the tread of nimble feet  
Hasting this way, and now by *glimpse* discern  
Ithuriel, and Zephor, thro' the shade. *Milton*.

—Some God punisheth exemplarily in this world, that we might have a taste or *glimpse* of his present justice. *Hakevill*.—A man used to such sort of reflections, sees as much at one *glimpse* as would require a long discourse to lay before another, and make out in one entire and gradual deduction. *Locke*.—

What should I do! while here I was enchain'd,

No *glimpse* of godlike liberty remain'd. *Dryden*.  
6. The exhibition of a faint resemblance.—No man hath a virtue that he has not a *glimpse* of. *Shakespeare*.

GLIMS-HOLM, one of the ORKNEY islands, a mile and a half S. of Pomona.

GLINA, a river of Croatia, which rises near Creutz, and runs into the Lonia.

GLIN-LOUGH, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Leitrim, 7 miles NNE. of Sligo.

GLINNINO, a town of Russia, in Novogorod.

(1.) GLINSK, a town of Ireland, in Galway.

(2.) GLINSK, a town of Russia, in Tchernigof.

GLINTZENDORF, a town of Austria.

GLINVILLE, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

GLINUS, in botany, a genus of the pentagynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 22d class *Caryophyllei*. The calyx is pentaphyllous; there is no corolla; the nectarium is composed of bifid bristles; the capsule is quinqueangular, quinquelocular, quinquevalved, and polyspermous.

GLIRES, the name of Linnæus's 4th order of mammalia. See ZOOLOGY.

GLISSON, Francis, a learned English physician of the 17th century, who was educated at Cambridge, and was made regius professor of the university. In 1634, he was admitted a fellow of the college of physicians in London. During the civil wars, he practised physic at Colchester, and afterwards settled in London. He greatly improved physic by his anatomical dissections, and made several new discoveries of singular use towards establishing a rational practice. He wrote, 1. *De rachitide*, &c. 2. *De lymphæductis nuper repertis*; with the *Anatomica prolegomena*, & *Ataxomia hepatis*. 3. *De naturæ substantia energetica*; seu de viâ vitæ naturæ, ejusque tribus primis facultatibus

*statibus, &c. quarto.* 4. *Trochæus de ventriculo & intestinis, &c.* He discovered the *capsula communis*, or *vagina portæ*.

GLIST. See GLIMMER and MICA.

\* To GLISTEN. *v. n.* [*glittan*, German.] To shine; to sparkle with light.—

The bleating kind

Eye the bleak heaven, and next the *glistening* earth,

With looks of dumb despair. *Thomf. Winter.*

—The ladies eyes *glistened* with pleasure. *Richardson's Pamela.*

\* GLISTER. *n. s.* [Properly written *clyster*, from *κλύω*.] See CLYSTER. It is written wrong even by *Brown*.—

Now enters Bush with new state air,

His lordship's premier minister;

And who, in all profound affairs,

Is held as needful as his *glister*. *Savist.*

—Choler is the natural *glister*, or one excretion whereby nature excludeth another; which descending daily into the bowels, extimulates those parts, and excites them unto expulsion. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*

\* To GLISTER. *v. n.* [*glittan*, German; *gliffieren*, Dutch.] To shine; to be bright.—The wars flame most in Summer, and the helmets *glister* brightest in the fairest sunshine. *Spens. on Irel.*—

'Tis better to be lowly born.

And range with humble livers in content,  
Than to be perk'd up in a *glistering* grief,

And wear a golden sorrow. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*

The golden sun

Gallops the zodiack in his *gliff* ring coach.

*Shakespeare.*

All that *glifters* is not gold. *Shak. M. of Ven.*

You were more the eye and talk

Of the court to-day, than all

Else that *glifters* in Whitehall. *Ben. Jonf.*

—When the sun shone upon the shields of gold and brass, the mountains *gliftered* therewith, and shined like lamps of fire. 1. *Mac. vi. 39.*—It consisted not of rubies, yet the small pieces of it were of pleasant redish colour, and *gliftered* prettily. *Boyle.*

GLITNESS, one of the SHETLAND islands on the E. coast, 11 miles N. of Lerwick.

\* GLITTER. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Lustre; bright show; splendour.—

Clad

With what permissive glory since his fall

Was left him, or false *glitter*. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

—Flourish not too much upon the *glitter* of fortune, for fear there should be too much alloy in it. *Collier.*—Take away this measure from our dress and habits, and all is turned into such paint and *glitter*, and ridiculous ornaments, as are a real shame to the wearer. *Law.*

\* To GLITTER. *v. n.* [*glittan*, Sax.] 1. To

† Dr JOHNSON is in a great mistake here. No such "participial termination" as *AND* is used in any part of Scotland that we know of. It is merely an erroneous orthography of some of our old Scots Poets, from Chaucer and other ancient English bards. The *G*, in the participial termination *ING*, is seldom pronounced in the common Scots dialect; but as *little*, or *less*, are the *A* and *D* of the obsolete termination *AND*. *GLITTERAND* and *Glittering* are called *Glitterin*.

‡ In Scotland we have no such verb as *To GLOAR*. Dr JOHNSON has perhaps heard *gloan*, but he mistakes both the sound and the spelling, when he writes it *gloarand*.

shine; to exhibit lustre; to gleam. are more resplendent than the like; and so is the *glittering* of a blade.

Rem.—

Before the battle joins, from  
The field yet *glitters* with the po

Scarce had'st thou time t' unth  
qu'ring blade;

It did but *glitter*, and the rebels

2. To be specious; to be striking. hand set the most *glittering* temptations and on the other the dismal effects of *Piety*.

In *glitt'ring* scenes, o'er her own

In crowds collected; and in coun

\* GLITTERAND. Shining; participle used by Chaucer and the poets. This participial termination is used in Scotland. †

\* GLITTERINGLY. *adv.* [With shining lustre.

GLITZBERG. See GLEIBERG

GLIUBIN, a town of European Dalmatia, 18 miles SE. of Moskar.

GLIWICE. See GLEIWITZ.

\* To GLOAR. *v. a.* [*gloeren*, D] squint; to look askew. *Skinner.* 2

to stare: as, *what a gloarand queer*

\* To GLOAT. *v. n.* [This verb to be ignorantly written for *gloar*.] glances as a timorous lover.—

Teach every grace to smile in

And her deluding eyes to *gloat* to

\* GLOBARD. *n. s.* [from *gloar* worm.

\* GLOBATED. *adj.* [from *globe* shape of a globe; spherical; spheric

GLOBBA, in botany, a genus of nia order, belonging to the monia plants. The corolla is equal and telyx trifid above; the capsule triloculy feeds.

(1. 1.) \* GLOBE. *n. s.* [*globe*, Fr Latin.] 1. A sphere; a ball; a body of which every part of their surface is at an equal distance from the centre. 2. A globe.

The youth, whose fortune the  
bey'd,

Finding his enemy betray'd,

Wept at his fall.

—Where God declares his intention of creatures that should have dominion; he meant that he would not create other species of this terrestrial globe. A sphere in which the various regions are geographically depicted, or in w

1950

1951

1952

1953

1954

1955

1956

1957

1958

1959

1960

1961

1962

1963

1964

1965

1966

1967

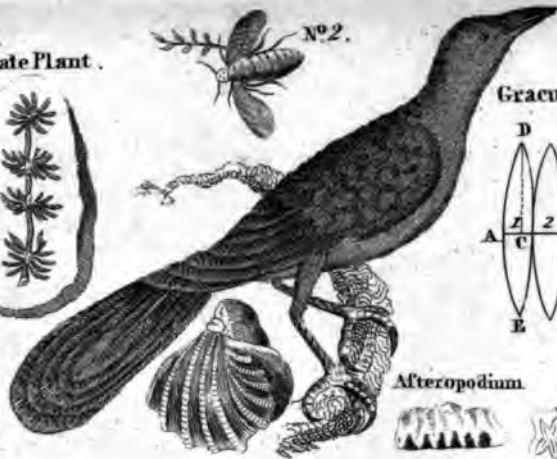
1968



Vegetable Fly.  
Nº.1. Stellate Plant.



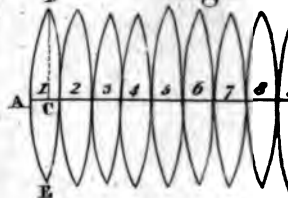
Nº.2.



Afterpodium.

Plate

Gracula. Gores for Gl.  
Fig.1.



FOSSIL SHELLS  
Afteriaæ or Star S.



Gores for Globes.

Fig. 2.

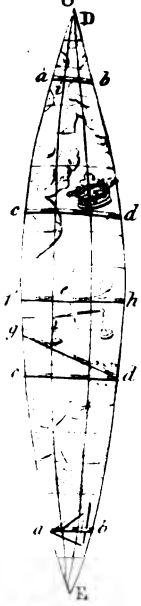


Fig. 3.

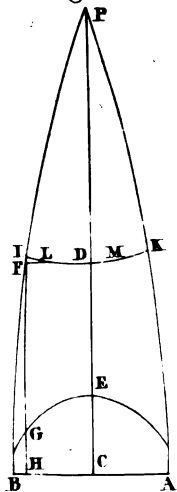
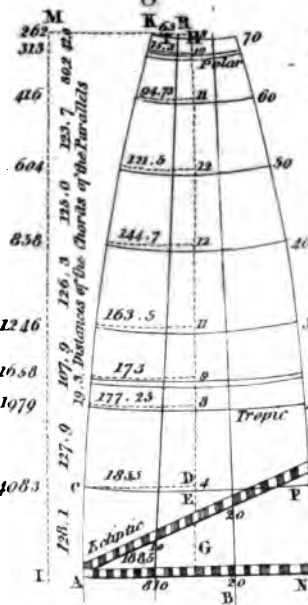
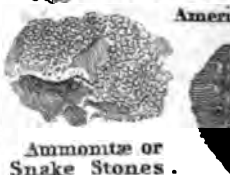
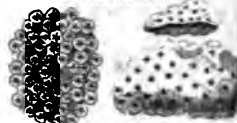


Fig. 4.



Astroites.



Ammonites or Snake Stones.



Buccina

Pecunies



Syringoides Lapis



Tubularia



Trochitaæ



Gnomon

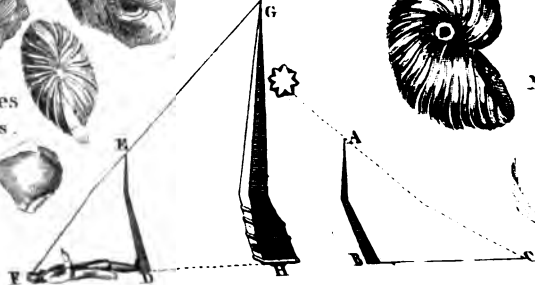


Fig.1



Fig.2. Nautilus

are laid down according to the places

astrologer who spells the stars,  
 es his *globe*, and in her brighter eye  
 ets heaven's physiognomy. *Cleav.*

These are the stars,  
 ife thy thought from sense, nor think to  
 nd  
 igures there as are in *globes* design'd.

ly of soldiers drawn into a circle.—  
 him round  
 of fiery seraphim inclos'd,  
 ight emblazoning, and horrent arms.

*Milton.*

**LOBE**, in geometry. See **SPHERE**.  
**LOBE**, in geography, and astronomy, (§  
 3.) is particularly used for an artificial  
 metal, plaster, paper, or other matter;  
 e convex surface is drawn a map, or re-  
 ion either of the earth or heavens, with  
 al circles conceived thereon. See **GEO-**  
**SECT. X—XV.** Globes are of two  
*restrial* and *cestial*; each of very con-  
 use, the one in astronomy, and the other  
 iphy, for performing many of the opera-  
 ise sciences, in an easy obvious manner,  
 ce conceived without any knowledge of  
 ematical grounds of those arts. The  
 ital parts, common to both globes, are  
 representing that of the world; and a  
 shell, or cover, which makes the body  
 be, on the external surface of which the  
 sion is drawn. See **AXIS**, **POLE**, &c.  
 bes most commonly used are made of  
 d paper. See § 4.

**LOBES, CONSTRUCTION OF.** A wooden  
 ovided, somewhat less than the intended  
 of the globe; and into the extremes  
 wo iron wires are driven for poles: this  
 be the beam, or basis of the whole struc-  
 a the axis are applied two spherical or  
 ispherical caps, formed on a kind of  
 mould or block. These caps consist of  
 d, or paper, laid one lay after another, on  
 f, to the thickness of a crown-piece; af-  
 , having stood to dry and embody, maci-  
 sion along the middle, the two caps  
 ed are slipped off the mould. They are  
 on those of the axis, as before  
 on those of the mould; and to fix them,  
 lges are sewed together with pack-thread,  
 rudiments of the globe thus laid, it  
 rengthened and made smooth and regu-  
 lder to this, the two poles are hisp'd  
 iline semicircle of the size intended;  
 l or plaster, made of whitening, water,  
 heated, melted, and incorporated toge-  
 laubed all over the paper surface. In  
 a as the plaster is applied, the ball is  
 nd in the semicircle, the edge whercof  
 whatever is superfluous and beyond the  
 sion, leaving the rest adhering in places  
 ort of it. After such application of the  
 e ball stands to dry; which done, it is  
 in the semicircle, and fresh matter ap-  
 s they continue alternately to apply the  
 PART II.

composition, and dry it, till the ball every where  
 accurately touches the semicircle, in which state  
 it is perfectly smooth, regular, and firm. The  
 ball thus finish'd, it remains to paste the map  
 or description thereon: in order to this, the map  
 is projected in several gores, or gussets, all of  
 whi h join accurately on the spherical surface, and  
 cover the whole ball. To direct the application  
 of these gores, lines are drawn by a semicircle on  
 the surface of the ball, dividing it into a number  
 of equal parts corresponding to those of the gores,  
 and subdividing those again answerably to the  
 lines and divisions of the gores. There remains  
 only to colour and illuminate the globe; and to  
 varnish it, the better to resist dust, moisture, &c.  
 The globe itself thus finish'd, is hung in a brazen  
 meridian, with an hour circle, and a quadrant of  
 altitude; and thus fitted into a wooden horizon.

(5.) **GLOBES, METHOD OF DESCRIBING THE  
 GORES, OR GUSSETS, FOR THE.** In Chambers's  
 Dictionary, the following method is directed. (See  
*Plate CLXVIII.*) "1. From the given diameter  
 of the globe, find a right line AB, *fig. 1.* equal to  
 the circumference of a great circle, and divide it  
 into 12 equal parts. 2. Through the several  
 points of division, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. with the interval  
 of ten of them, describe arches mutually intersec-  
 ting each other in D and E; these figures or pieces  
 duly pasted and joined together will make the  
 whole surface of the globe. 3. Divide each part  
 of the right line AB into 30 equal parts, so that the  
 whole line AB, representing the periphery of the  
 equator, may be divided into 360 degrees. 4.  
 From the poles D and E, *fig. 2.* with the interval  
 of 23½ deg. describe arches *a b*; these will be  
 twelfth parts of the polar circles. 5. After the like  
 manner, from the same poles D and E, with the  
 interval of 66½ deg. reckoned from the equator,  
 describe arches *c d*; these will be 12th parts of  
 the tropics. 6. Through the degree of the equa-  
 tor *e*, corresponding to the right ascension of any  
 given star, and the poles D and E, draw an arch  
 of a circle; and taking in the compasses the com-  
 plement of the declination from the pole D, de-  
 scribe an arch intersecting it in *i*; this point *i* will  
 be the place of that star. 7. All the stars of a  
 constellation being thus laid down, the figure of  
 the constellation is to be drawn according to Bayer,  
 Hevelius, or Flamsteed. 8. Lastly, after the same  
 manner are the declinations and right ascensions  
 of each degree of the ecliptic *d g* to be determi-  
 ed. 9. The surface of the globe thus projected  
 on a plane is to be engraven on copper, to save  
 the trouble of doing this over again for each globe.  
 10. A ball, in the mean time, is to be prepar'd  
 of paper, plaster, &c. as before directed, and of  
 the intended diameter of the globe; on this, by  
 means of a semicircle and style, is the equator to  
 be drawn; and through every 30th degree a me-  
 ridian. The ball thus divided into twelve parts,  
 corresponding to the segments before projected,  
 the latter are to be cut from the printed paper,  
 and pasted on the ball. 11. Nothing now remains  
 but to hang the globe as before in a brazen me-  
 ridian and wooden horizon; to which may be ad-  
 ded a quadrant of altitude made of brass, and divid-  
 ed in the same manner as the ecliptic and equator.

If the declinations and right ascensions of the stars be not given, but the longitudes and latitudes in lieu thereof, the surface of the globe is to be projected after the same manner as before; except that, in this case, D and E, *fig. 2.* are the poles of the ecliptic, and *f b* the ecliptic itself; and that the polar circles and tropics, with the equator *g d*, and parallels thereof, are to be determined from their declinations. M. De La Lande, in his *Astronomie*, 1771, *Tom. 3. p. 736.* relates the following methods: "To construct celestial and terrestrial globes, gores must be engraved, which are a kind of projection, or inclosure of the globe (*fig. 3.*) similar to what is now to be explained. The length PC of the axis of this curve is equal to a quarter of the circumference of the globe; the intervals of the parallels on the axis PC are all equal, the radii of the circles KDI which represent the parallels are equal to the cotangents of the latitudes, and the arches of each, as DI, are nearly equal to the number of the degrees of the breadth of the gore (which is usually 30°) multiplied by the sine of the latitude: thus, there will be found an intricacy in tracing them; but the difficulty proceeds from the variation found in the trial of the gores when pasting them on the globe, and of the quantity that must be taken from the paper, less on the sides than in the middle; (because the sides are longer) to apply it exactly to the space that it should cover. The method used among workmen to delineate the gores, and which is described by Mr Bion (*Usage des Globes*, tom. 3.) and by Mr Robert de Vaugendy in vol. 7th of the *Encyclopedie*, is little geometrical, but yet is sufficient in practice. Draw on the paper a line AC, equal to the chord of 15°, to make the half-breadth of the gore; and a perpendicular PC, equal to 5 times the chord of 30°, to make the half-length: for these papers, the dimensions of which will be equal to the chords, become equal to the arcs themselves when they are pasted on the globe. Divide the height CP into 9 parts, if the parallels are to be drawn in every 10°; divide also the quadrant BE into 9 equal parts through each division point of the quadrant as G; and through the corresponding point D of the right line CP draw the perpendiculars HGF and DF, the meeting of which in F gives one of the points of the curve BEP, which will terminate the circumference of the gore. When a sufficient number of points are thus found, trace the outline PIB with a curved rule. By this construction are given the gore breadths, which are on the globe, in the ratio of the cosines of the latitudes; supposing these breadths taken perpendicular to CD, which is not very exact, but it is impossible to prescribe a rigid operation sufficient to make a plane which shall cover a curved surface, and that on a right line AB shall make lines PA, PC, PB, equal among themselves, as they ought to be on the globe. To describe the circle KDI which is at 30° from the equator: there must be taken above D a point which shall be distant from it the value of the tangent of 60°, taken out either from the tables, or on a circle equal to the circumference of the globe to be traced; this point will serve as a centre for the parallel DI, which should pass through the point D, for it is supposed equal

to that of a cone circumscribing the globe which would touch at the point D. Tangents may be traced to every 10 degrees, dividing each parallel, as KI, into three parts, points L and M, and drawing from them through all these division points, curves represent the intermediate meridians between and PB, (as BR and ST, *fig. 4.*) The curve AQ may be described by means of the inclination from different points of the equator may be found in a table; for 10°, it is 320°, 7° 50' = BQ; for 30°, 11° 29', &c. observed in general, that the paper charts are printed, such as the *colombian* itself, is part of a line in six inches upwards, when it is dried after printing; this difference must therefore be corrected in the drawing of the gores: if notwithstanding that, they are found too short, it must be remedied by taking from the surface of the ball a little of the paper with which it is covered; thereby making the dimensions suitable to the gore as it were. But what is singular is, that in drawing moistened with the paste to apply it on the axis GH lengthens, and the side AI in such a manner, that neither the length of the side ACK nor that of the axis GEH are exactly equal to the quarter of the circumference of the globe, when compared to the circumference of the globe, when compared to the copper, or to the numbered side *fig. 4.* Mr Bonne having made several experiments on the dimensions that gores take, after they have been parted ready to apply to the globe particularly with the paper named *jesus*, the use of for a globe of one foot in diameter that it was necessary to give to the copper, the dimensions shown in *fig. 4.* finding that the radius of the globe corresponds to the half breadth of the gore  $\frac{1}{2}$ , the distance AC for the parallel of 10° taken on the right line LM is 12.81, the deviation from the parallel of 10 degrees middle of the gore ED is 4, the line AC is the radius of the parallel of 10° or 12.81, CEF is 4083, and so of the others as in the figure. The small circular cap worked under H, has its radius 253 inches which it would have if the sine of 30° was the radius of it.

(6.) GLOBES, USES OF THE. See PHYSICS, and ASTRONOMY, with the Plates.

(II, i.) \* GLOBE AMARANTH, or *flower. n. f. [amarantoides.] A flower.*

(ii.) GLOBE AMARANTH. See GLOBE.

(III.) GLOBE ANIMALCULE. See ANIMALCULE, § 10.

(IV, i.) \* GLOBE DAISY. *n. f. A kind of flower.*

(ii.) GLOBE DAISY. See SPHERULE.

(V, i.) \* GLOBE FISH. *n. f. A kind of fish.*

(ii.) GLOBE FISH. See OSTRACOD.

(VI.) GLOBE FLOWER. See SPHERULE.

(VII, i.) \* GLOBE RANUNCULUS. [*ranunculus.*] A plant. *Miller.*

(ii.) GLOBE RANUNCULUS. See RANUNCULUS.

(VIII, i.) \* GLOBE THISTLE. *n. f. [biculatus.] A plant. Miller.*

SE THISTLE. See ECHINOPS.  
 JOSE. *adj.* [*globosus*, Latin.] Spheri-

Regions, to which  
 omnium, Adam, is no more  
 at this garden is to all the earth,  
 he sea; from one entire *globus*  
 into longitude. *Milt. Par. Leg.*  
 hen form'd the moon  
 and ev'ry magnitude of stars. *Milt.*

ICSI'ITY. *n. f.* [from *globose*.] Sphericity;  
 ic.—Why the same eclipse of the sun,  
 ren to them that live more easterly,  
 in is elevated six degrees above the hori-  
 zont be seen to them that live one de-  
 gree farther, where the sun is but five de-  
 grees from the horizon, and so lower and lower  
 ably, 'till at last it appear not at all:  
 t can be given, but the *globosity* of the  
 or the *Creation*.

BOUS. *adj.* [*globosus*, Lat. When the  
 intended to be on the last syllable, the  
 ld be written *globose*, when on the first  
 have transferred hither a passage of  
 which this rule has been neglected.]  
 round.—

over all the plain, and wider far  
 | this *globose* earth in plain outspread;  
 : the courts of God! *Milton.*  
 razed instruments of death discharge  
 : flames, and turbid streaming clouds;  
 : *obous* irons fly, or dreadful hiss,  
 : the air. *Philips.*

BULAR. *adj.* [*globulus*, Lat.] Having  
 of a small sphere; round; spherical.—  
 : of the atoms of all visible fluids seem-  
 : *globular*, there being no other figure so  
 to the making of fluidity. *Grew's Cos-*

GLOBULARIA. *n. f.* [Latin; *globulaire*,  
 A floiculous flower. *Miller.*

OBULARIA, GLOBULAR BLUE DAISY;  
 the monogynia order, belonging to the  
 class of plants; and in the natural me-  
 thod under the 48th order, *Agregata*.  
 non calyx is imbricated; the proper one  
 inferior; the upper lip of the florets  
 the under one tripartite; the receptacle  
 s. There are several species; but only  
 monly to be met with in our gardens,

LARIA VULGARIS, or common blue  
 has broad thick radical leaves three-  
 the ends, upright stalks from about 6  
 2 inches high, garnished with spear-shap-  
 ed leaves, and the top crowned by a globular  
 blue flowers composed of many florets  
 up. It flowers in June, and makes a  
 earance: but thrives best in a moist shady  
 It is propagated by parting the roots  
 ber.

GLOBULE. *n. f.* [*globule*, French; *glo-*  
*bia*.] Such a small particle of matter as is  
 lar or spherical figure; as the red par-  
 ticle of blood, which swim in a transparent  
 d are easily discovered by the microscope.  
 ll attract one another when they come  
 due distance, and unite like the spheres

of quicksilver. *Quincy*.—The hailstones have op-  
 aque *globules* of snow in their centre, to inter-  
 cept the light within the hoar. *Newton's Opticks*.  
 —Blood consists of red *globules*, twinning in a  
 thin liquor called serum: the red *globules* are e-  
 lastick, and will break; the vessels which admit  
 the smaller *globule*, cannot admit the greater with-  
 out a disease. *Arbutnot on Aiments*.

(2.) GLOBULES. See BLOOD, p 6, 7.

\* GLOBULOUS. *adj.* [from *globulus*.] In form  
 of a small sphere; round.—The whitens of such  
*globulous* particles proceeds from the air included  
 in the froth. *Borl.*

(1.) GLOUCESTER. See GLOUCESTER.

(2.) GLOUCESTER, a village of Northumberland,  
 on the coast, near Ansell.

GLOCHIDION, in botany: A genus of the  
 syncordia order, belonging to the monoclea class  
 of plants. There is no calyx; the corolla consists  
 of six egg shaped concave petals; the stamina are  
 three very small inconspicuous filaments; the an-  
 theræ cylindric and erect; the female flowers have  
 no calyx; the corolla is parted into six; the peri-  
 carpium is a depressed roundish capsule with six  
 cells; the seeds are roundish and solitary.

GLOGAU, or } a duchy or principality of

(1.) GLOGAW, } Silesia, seated on both sides  
 of the Oder, on the borders of Poland. It is di-  
 vided into six circles, and produces plenty of  
 corn, wine, fruits, wood, and iron; and feeds nu-  
 merous flocks of sheep. Various woollen manu-  
 factures are carried on in it.

(2.) GLOGAW, GREAT, a strong town of Sile-  
 sia, the capital of the above duchy, N° 1. It is  
 not very large, but is well fortified on the side of  
 Poland. It has a handsome castle, with a tower,  
 in which several counsellors were condemned by  
 Duke John, in 1498, to perish with hunger. Be-  
 sides the Papists, there is a great number of Pro-  
 testants and Jews. It was taken by assault by Fre-  
 derick II. king of Prussia, in 1741, and the garri-  
 son made prisoners. After the peace in 1742, that  
 king settled the supreme court of justice here, it  
 being, next to Breslaw, the most populous place  
 in Silesia. It is seated on the Oder, 30 miles N.  
 W. of Breslaw; 30 SSW. of Posen, and 113 N.  
 by E. of Prague. Lon. 16. 11. E. Lat. 51. 39. N.

(3.) GLOGAW, LITTLE, or } a town of Silesia,

(3) GLOGAW, UPPER, } in the duchy of  
 Oppelen, belonging to Prussia. It is two miles SE.  
 of Great Glogaw, and 45 NW. of Breslaw. Lon.  
 16. 15. E. Lat. 51. 38. N.

GLOGNITZ, a town of Austria, 13 miles S.  
 of Vienna.

GLOGOVNITZA, a town of Croatia, 4 miles  
 NNE. of Creutz.

\* To GLOMERATE. *v. a.* [*glomerare*, Latin.]  
 To gather into a ball or sphere. A filamentous  
 substance gathered into a ball is said to be *glome-*  
*rated*, but discontinuous particles are *conglobated*.

\* GLOMERATION. *n. f.* [*glomeratio*, Lat.]  
 1. The act of forming into a ball or sphere. 2. A  
 body formed into a ball.—The rainbow consisteth  
 of a *glomeration* of small drops, which cannot fall  
 but from the air that is very low. *Bacon*.

\* GLOMEROUS. *adj.* [*glomerosus*, Latin.]  
 Gathered into a ball or sphere, as a ball of thread.

GLOMMACH, a cataract of Scotland, in Ros-

shire, on the heights of Glenechaig. "The fall of water, (says the rev. Roderick Morison) is very considerable, and rendered awful by the surrounding hills and woods. The light at this place seldom exceeds twilight." *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* VI. p. 253.

**GLOMME**, a river of Norway, in Aggerhuys, which runs into the North Sea at Frederickstadt. About 50,000 trees are annually floated down this river; but, being full of cataracts, it is not navigable.

\* **GLOOM**, *n. f.* [*glomang*, Saxon, twilight.] 1. Imperfect darkness; dismalness; obscurity; defect of light.—

Glowing embers through the room,  
Teach light to counterfeit a gloom. *Milton.*

This the feat,  
That we must change for heav'n? This mournful gloom,

For that celestial light? *Milton's Par. Lost.*

The still night, not now, as ere men fell,  
Wholesome, and cool, and mild; but with black air

Accompany'd; with damps, and dreadful gloom. *Milton.*

Now warm in love, now with'ring in thy bloom,

Lost in a convent's solitary gloom. *Pope.*

2. Cloudiness of aspect; heaviness of mind; fullness.

\* **To GLOOM**, *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To shine obscurely, as the twilight. This sense is not now in use.—

His glistering armour made  
A little glooming light much like a shade. *Spenser.*

Scarcely had Phœbus in the glooming East

Yet harnessed his fiery-footed team. *Spenser.*

2. To be cloudy; to be dark. 3. To be melancholy; to be sullen.

\* **GLOOMILY**, *adv.* [from *gloomy*.] 1. Obscurely; dimly; without perfect light; disinfully. 2. Sullenly; with cloudy aspect; with dark intentions; not cheerfully.—

See, he comes: how gloomily he looks!  
*Dryden.*

Gloomily retir'd the spider lives. *Thomson.*

\* **GLOOMINESS**, *n. f.* [from *gloomy*.] 1. Want of light; obscurity; imperfect light, dismalness. 2. Want of cheerfulness; cloudiness of look; heaviness of mind; melancholy.—Neglect spreads gloominess upon their humour, and makes them grow sullen and unconvertible. *Collier of the Spleen.*—The gloominess, in which sometimes the minds of the best men are involved, very often stands in need of such little incitements to mirth and laughter as are apt to disperse melancholy. *Addison.*

\* **GLOOMY**, *adj.* [from *gloom*.] 1. Obscure; imperfectly illuminated; almost dark; dismal for want of light.—

These were from without

The growing miseries which Adam saw

Already in part, though hid in gloomiest shade,

To sorrow abandon'd. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Deep in a cavern dwells the drowsy god,

Whose gloomy mansion nor the rising sun,

Nor setting visits, nor the lightsome noon.

*Dryden's Fables.*

—The surface of the earth is clearer or just as the sun is bright or more overcast. *Letters.* 2. Dark of complexion.—

That fair field  
Of Enna, where Proserpine gathering  
Herself a fairer flow'r, by gloomy Dis  
Was gather'd. *Milton's*

3. Sullen; melancholy; cloudy of look of heart.

**GLORIA PATRI.** See **DOXOLOGY.**

\* **GLORIED**, *adj.* [from *glory*.] 1. Honourable; decorated with glory; dignified honours. Not in use.—

Old respect

As I suppose, toward your once glor

My son, now captive, hither hath

Your younger feet, while mine cast

age

Came lagging after. *Milton's*

\* **GLORIFICATION**, *n. f.* [from *glorify*.] The act of giving glory.—ing your eyes, enter upon the day with vigour for the preservation of you the last in the glorification of God for the works of *Taylor.*

\* **To GLORIFY**, *v. a.* [from *glorifier*, Fr. Lat.] 1. To procure honour or praise.

Two such silver currents, when the

Do glorify the banks that bound them

Justice is their virtue; that all

Makes them sit sure, and glorifies the

2. To pay honour or praise in worship,

glorified when such his excellency, above

is with due admiration acknowledged.

This form and manner of glorifying God

at that time first begun; but received to

and attested at that time as an arguement

truth. *Hooker.*—

Good fellow, tell us here the circu

That we for thee may glorify the Lor

—All nations shall glorify thy name. *Pf.*

—Our bodies with which the apostle c

us to glorify God, as well as with our sic

of Man.—This is the perfection of every

attain its true and proper end; and the

these gifts and endowments, which God

ven us, is to glorify the giver. *Tillotson*

praise; to honour; to extol.—Who else

find to be most licentious of life, despair

parts of disobedience and rebellious d

him they set up and glorify. *Spenser on*

No chymist yet the elixir got,

But glorifies his pregnant pot,

If by the way to him befall,

Some odoriferous thing, or medicinal

4. To exalt to glory in heaven; to raise

tial beatitude.—If God be glorified in I

shall also glorify him in himself, and sha

way glorify him. *John*, xiii. 32.—Whom

sted them he also glorified. *Rom.* viii.

members of the church remaining, being

sanctified, shall be eternally glorified;

the whole church be truly and perfe

*Pearson.*—The soul, being immortal, w

time or other, retume its body again in

manner. *Lylyffe.*

**GLORIOSA, SUPERB LILY:** A get

□



a order, belonging to the hexandria class and in the natural method ranking un-  
der the order, *Sarmentaceae*. The corolla is  
tubular, undulated, and reflected; the style  
is but one species, a native of

It has a thick, fleshy, tuberous root,  
from its centre declinated round  
ring 8 or 10 feet long, and garnished  
with long narrow leaves running out into a  
rimmed by a long tendril. From the  
top of the stalks proceed large flame-co-  
lored flowers, consisting of six widely  
reflected petals. It flowers in June and  
July is of admirable beauty, whence its  
name requires the protection of a  
house in this country. The flower-stalks shoot  
forth in March or April; which, being long and  
rusty have tall sticks for their support.  
They are propagated by offsets, which are  
in tolerable plenty, and may be separate  
after the stalks decay, or in spring  
ones arise.

**GLORIOUS.** *adj.* [*gloriosus*, Lat. *gloriosus*,  
ostentatious; proud; haughty; ostentatious.

*Followers*, who make themselves as  
of the commendation of those they fol-  
low for want of secrecy. *Bacon*.—  
are *glorious* must needs be factious; for  
stands upon comparisons. *Bacon*. 2.  
ostentatious; excellent.—It is frequently us-  
ed by logical writers, to express the bright-  
ness of sanctity rewarded in heaven.—  
know that thou art Lord, the only God,  
is over the whole world. *Dan*. iii. 22.—  
in respect of the brightness and splen-  
dour of his body, still made more *glorious*  
by the authority which his Father  
has attributed to him of universal Judge. *Nel-*

tial justice holds her equal scales,  
where virtue does the weight incline;  
where thee thy *glorious* foe prevails,  
he defends the cause that once was thine.

*Prior*.  
remember we are Cato's friends,  
like men who claim that *glorious* title.

*Addison's Cato*.  
stand amongst the first servants of  
the *glorious* amongst those that have  
good fight. *Laus*.—If there be nothing  
as doing good, if there is nothing that  
is like to God, then nothing can be so  
the use of our money, as to use it all  
for love and goodness. *Lucy*.

**GLORIOUSLY.** *adv.* (from *glorious*.) No-  
bly; illustriously.—They inspire with  
heavenly flames which shine so *gloriously* in  
his. *Dryden's Duf*.—

with sometimes may *gloriously* offend,  
to faults true critics dare not mind.

*Pope*.

**GLORY.** *n. s.* [*glorie*, Fr. *gloria*, Lat.]  
old poets it was used sometimes as one  
word.] 1. Praise paid in adoration.—*Glo-*  
ry is the highest. *Luke* ii. 12. 2. The se-  
nate prepared for those that please God.  
Let me guide me with thy counsel, and af-

terwards receive me into thy *glory*. *Psalms* lxxiii.  
24.—

Then enter into *glory* and resume  
His seat at God's right hand, exalted high  
Above all names in heav'n. *Milton*.

—It is hardly possible for you to beseech and in-  
treat God to make any one happy in the highest  
enjoyments of his *glory* to all eternity, and yet be  
troubled to see him enjoy the much smaller gifts  
of God, in this short and low state of human life.  
*Law*. 3. Honour; praise; fame; renown; ce-  
lebrity.—

Think it no *glory* to swell in tyranny. *Sidney*.  
*Glory* is like a circle in the water,  
Which never ceaseth to enlarge itself,  
'Till by broad spreading it disperse to nought.

*Shak*.  
And with that word and warning soon was  
sight,

Each soldier longing for near coming *glory*.  
*Fairfax*.

Israel's bright sceptre far less *glory* brings,  
There have been fewer friends on earth than  
kings. *Cowley*.

—Can we imagine that neither the ambition of  
princes or interest, or gain, in private persons, or  
curiosity and the desire of knowledge, or the *glo-*  
*ry* of discoveries, could ever move them in that  
endless time to try their fortunes upon the sea.  
*Burnet*.—

Your sex's *glory* 'tis to shine unknown,  
Of all applause, be fonder of your own. *Young*.

4. Splendour; magnificence.—Solomon, in all his  
*glory*, was not arrayed like one of these. *Mat*. vi.  
29.—

Treated so ill, chas'd from your throne,  
Returning, you adorn the town;  
And with a brave revenge do shew

Their *glory* went and came with you. *Waller*.

—Aristotle says, that should a man under ground  
converse with works of art, and be afterwards  
brought up into the open day, and see the several  
*glories* of the heaven and earth, he would pro-  
nounce them the works of God. *Spettator*. 5-  
Lustre; brightness.—

Now sleeping flocks on their soft fleeces lie;  
The moon, serene in *glory*, mounts the sky.

*Pope's Winter*.  
From opening skies may streaming *glories* shine,  
And saints embrace thee with a love like mine.

*Pope*.  
6. A circle of rays which surrounds the heads of  
saints in pictures.—It is not a converting but a  
crowning grace; such an one as irradiates, and  
puts a circle of *glory* about the head of him upon  
whom it descends. *South*.—A smile plays with a  
surprising agreeableness in the eye, breaks out  
with the brightest distinction, and sits like a *glory*  
upon the countenance. *Collier*. 7. Pride; boast-  
fulness; arrogance.—By the vain *glory* of men they  
entered into the world, and therefore shall they  
come shortly to an end. *Wisd*. xiv. 14.—

On death-beds some in conscious *glory* lie,  
Since of the doctor in this mode they die.

*Young*.  
8. Generous pride.—The success of those wars  
was too notable to be unknown to your ears, and af-

which

which all worthy fame hath *glory* to come unto.

*Sidney.*

(2.) *GLORY.* See § I. *def.* 3. The desire of fame and reputation appears to be one of the principal springs of action in human society. *Glory*, therefore, is not to be contemned, as some of the ancient philosophers affected to teach; but we should regulate our pursuit after it by the dictates of reason; and if the public approbation will not follow us in that course, we must leave her behind. False ideas of glory have deluged the world with blood in all ages. If the actions of the hero, from the prejudices of mankind, conduct soonest to glory and with the greatest splendor, it is because the service he has done seems to be for *all*; and because we think, without reflecting, that he has saved our habitations, our wealth, our children, and every thing that is dear to us. If the man of science, who in his study has discovered and calculated the motions of the heavenly bodies, who in his alambics has unveiled some of the secrets of nature, or who has exhibited to mankind a new art, rises to fame with less noise; it is because the utility which he procures is more widely diffused, though it is often of less service to the present than to succeeding generations. The consequences, therefore, of these two advantages, are as opposite as the causes are different; and while the benefits procured by the warrior appear to have no more influence, and while his glory becomes obscure, that of a celebrated writer or inventor still increases, and is more and more enlarged. His works bring back his name to that age which uses them, and thus still add to his celebrity and fame. This posthumous fame indeed has been decried by some writers. The author of the *Religion of Nature delineated* has treated it as highly irrational and absurd. "In reality (says he) the man is not known ever the more to posterity, because his name is transmitted to them: He doth not live, because his name does. When it is said, Julius Cæsar subdued Gaul, conquered Pompey, &c. it is the same thing as to say, the conqueror of Pompey was Julius Cæsar; i. e. Cæsar and the conqueror of Pompey is the same thing; Cæsar is as much known by one designation as by the other. The amount then is only this, that the conqueror of Pompey conquered Pompey; or somebody conquered Pompey; or rather, since Pompey is as little known now as Cæsar, somebody conquered somebody. Such a poor business is this boasted immortality! and such is the thing called *glory* among us! To the discerning, this fame is mere air!" But surely it were to consider too curiously (as Horatio says to Hamlet) to consider thus. To be convinced of the great advantage of cherishing this high regard to posterity, this noble desire of an after life in the breath of others, one need only look back upon the history of the ancient Greeks and Romans. For what other principle was it which produced that exalted strain of virtue in those days, that may well serve, in many respects, as a model to these? Was it not the *consentiens laus bonorum*, the *incorrupta vox bene judicantium* (as Tully calls it), "the concurrent approbation of the good, the uncorrupted applause of the wise," that animated their most generous pursuits? In short, can it be reasonable to extinguish a passion which

our Creator has universally lighted up in man's breast. Revelation is so far from eradicating the seed, which the Deity has planted in our nature; that it rather cherishes and forward its growth. To *glory* with honour, and to be *had* in everlasting remembrance, are in the number of those mercies which the Jewish dispensation is so virtuous; and the person from whom the Author of the Christian system receives his commission is herself represented as rejoicing that the nations should call her blessed.

\* *To GLORY.* *v. n.* [*glorior*, Lat.] To be proud of.—With like judgment when he had happened to do a thing which he had performed some notable mischief.—They were wont, in the pride of their proceedings, to *glory*, that whereas Luther had blown away the roof, and Zuinglius had blown away the walls of popish superstition, the last work of all remained, which was to lay the very ground and foundation of popery.

Let them look they *glory* not  
Nor build their evils on the graves of  
For then my guiltless blood must  
them.

—Your *glorifying* is not good. 1 Cor.  
Thou hast seen mount A  
While storms and tempests thunders  
And oceans break their billows at  
It stands unmov'd, and *glories* in it

—This title of Freeholder is what I  
and what most effectually calls to  
happiness of that government under  
*Addison*.—If others may *glory* in the  
may not we, whose parents were call  
attend on him at his altar? *Atterbury*  
out of the reach of misfortune; no  
should *glory* in his prosperity. *Clarke*  
*GLOS*, or *GLOS LA FERRIERE*  
France, in the dep. of Evreux, 9 mi  
gle, and 18 W. of Evreux.

\* *To GLOSE.* *v. a.* To flatter;  
*Hanmer*. See *To GLOZE*.

(1.) \* *GLOSS.* *n. f.* [*γλωσσα*; *gloss*]  
A scholium; a comment.—They need  
tence, which mentioneth the word  
but forthwith their *glosses* upon it  
preached, the scripture explained,  
unto us in sermons. *Hooker*.—

If then all souls, both good and bad  
With gen'ral voice, that souls can  
'Tis not man's flatter'ing *gloss*,  
speech,

Which, like God's oracles, can never  
—Some mutter at certain passages  
putting ill *glosses* upon the text, and  
the left hand what I offer with the right

All this, without a *gloss* or comment  
He could unriddle in a moment.

—In many places he has perverted  
by his *glosses*, and interpreted my words  
phemy and bawdry, of which they  
ty. *Dryden's Fab.*—

They give the scandal, and the  
Their *glosses* teach an age too apt to

the text in short *glosses*, was Accur-  
*Baker on Learning*.—  
 res, covenants, articles they draw,  
 he fields themselves, and larger far-  
 codes with all their *glosses* are. *Pope*.  
 lustre. In this sense it seems to have  
 ration; it has perhaps some affinity

coat all over-grown with rust,  
 meath enveloped with gold,  
 stering *gloss* dark'ned with filthy dust.  
*Spenser*.

You are a sectary,  
 e plain truth: your painted *gloss* dis-  
 e,  
 hat understand you, words and weak-  
*Shakespeare*.

opinions from all sorts of people,  
 ould be worn now in their newest *gloss*.  
*Shakespeare*.

it will be whether it will polish so well;  
 es are more resplendent than plates of  
 .—

Weeds that the wind did tofs  
 ns wore: the youths, woven coats,  
 cast a faint dim *gloss*,  
 of oil. *Chatterman's Iliads*.

colour of devotion, giving a lustre to  
 nd a *gloss* to humility. *South*.—Groves,  
 meadows, are at any season pleasant to  
 but never so much as in the opening  
 s, when they are all new and fresh,  
 rst *gloss* upon them. *Spenser*. 3. An

n artfully specious; a specious repre-  
 This sense seems to partake of both

ainters oft with silly poets join,  
 e world with strange but vain conceit;  
 ings the stuff, the other stamps the coin,  
 reads nought else but *glosses* of deceit.  
*Sidney*.

part of my secret meaning to draw you  
 hatred, or to set upon the face of this  
 fairer *gloss* than the naked truth doth  
 ker.—

seems with forged quaint conceit  
*gloss* upon his bad intent. *Henry VI*.  
 The common *gloss*

ogians. *Milton*.  
 ss is derived from the Greek *γλωσσα*,  
 ie office] of a *gloss* being to explain  
 s that of the tongue to discover the

COMMENTARY.  
 ss is likewise used for a literal transla-  
 ook, into another language word for

GLOSS. v. a. [*glosser*, French, from  
 I. To explain by comment.—

chment then, large as the fields, he draws  
 es, big as *gloss*'d civil laws. *Donne*.  
 ate by specious exposition or represen-  
 this the paradise, in description where-  
*glossing* and deceiving eloquence hath

? *Hooker*.—  
 not reason wholly on your conduct?  
 e the art to *gloss* the foulest cause.

*Philip's Briton*.  
 ellish with superficial lustre.—

But thou, who lately of the common strain  
 Wert one of us, if still thou dost retain  
 The same ill habits, the same follies too,  
*Gloss*'d over only with a saint-like shew,  
 Then I resume the freedom which I gave,  
 Still thou art bound to vice, and still a slave.

*Dryden's Perf*.  
 (z.) \* To GLOSS. v. n. 1. To comment.—  
 Thou detain'st Briseis in thy hands,  
 By priestly *glossing* on the gods commands. *Dryd*.

2. To make lly remarks.—  
 Her equals first observ'd her growing zeal,  
 And laughing *gloss*'d, that Abra serv'd so well.  
*Prior*.

\* GLOSSARY. n. f. [*glossarium*, Lat. *glossaire*,  
 Fr.] A dictionary of obscure or antiquated words.  
 —According to Varro, when *delubrum* was ap-  
 plied to a place, it signified such a one, *in quo dei*  
*simulacrum dedicatum est*; and also in the old *glos-*  
*furics*. *Stillingfleet*.—I could add another word to  
 the *glossary*. *Baker*.

\* GLOSSATOR. n. f. [*glossateur*, Fr. from  
*gloss*.] A writer of *glosses*; a commentator.—The  
 reason, why the assertion of a single judge does not  
 prove the existence of judicial acts, is because his  
 office is to pronounce judgment, and not to be-  
 come an evidence: but why may not the same be  
 said of two judges? Therefore, in this respect,  
 the *glossator*'s opinion must be false. *Ayliff*.

\* GLOSSER. n. f. [*glossarius*, Lat.] 1. A scho-  
 liast; a commentator. 2. A polisher.

\* GLOSSINESS. n. f. [from *gloss*.] Smooth  
 polish; superficial lustre.—Their surfaces had a  
 smoothness and *glossiness* much surpassing whate-  
 ver I had observed in marine or common salt. *Boyle*.

GLOSSOCOMMON, in mechanics, a name  
 given by Mr Heron to a machine composed of va-  
 rious dented wheels with pinions, for raising great  
 weights.

\* GLOSSOGRAPHER. n. f. [*γλωσσα* and *γραφω*]  
 A scholiast; a commentator.

\* GLOSSOGRAPHY. n. f. [*γλωσσα* and *γραφω*.]  
 The writing of commentaries.

GLOSSOPETRA, or GLOTTOPETRA, [from  
*γλωσσα*, a tongue, and *πετρα*, a stone.] in natural  
 history, a kind of extraneous fossil, somewhat in  
 form of a serpent's tongue; frequently found in  
 the island of Malta and divers other parts. See  
 Plate CLXVII, fig. 4. The vulgar notion is, that  
 they are the tongues of serpents petrified. Hence  
 their extraordinary virtue in curing the bites of  
 serpents. The general opinion of naturalists is,  
 that they are the teeth of fishes, left at land by  
 the waters of the deluge, and since petrified. The  
 several sizes of the teeth of the same species, and  
 those of the several different species of sharks, af-  
 ford a vast variety of these fossil substances. Their  
 usual colours are black, bluish, whitish, yellowish,  
 or brown; and in shape they usually approach to  
 a triangular figure. Some are simple, others tri-  
 cuspidate, having a small point on each side of the  
 large one: many of them are quite straight; but  
 they are frequently found crooked, and bent in all  
 directions; many of them are serrated on their  
 edges, and others plain; some are undulated on  
 their edges, and slightly serrated on their undu-  
 lations. They differ also in size as much as in fi-  
 gure; the larger being 4 or 5 inches long, and the

smaller less than a quarter of an inch. They are most usually found in the strata of blue clay, though sometimes also in other substances, and are common in the clay-pits of Richmond and other places. They are very frequent also in Germany, but nowhere so plentiful as in the island of Malta. The Germans attribute many virtues to these fossil teeth; they call them cordials, sudorifics, and alexipharmics: and the people of Malta, where they are extremely plentiful, hang them about their childrens necks to promote dentition. They may possibly be of as much service this way as an anodyne necklace; and if suspended in such a manner that the child can get them to its mouth, may, by their hardness and smoothness, be of the same use as a piece of coral.

\* GLOSSY. *adj.* [from *gloss.*] Shining; smoothly polished.—There came towards us a person of place: he had on him a gown with wide sleeves, of a kind of water-camblet, of an excellent azure colour, far more *glossy* than ours. *Bacon.*—

The rest entire

Shone with a *glossy* scurf. *Milton.*

His furcoat was a bearskin on his back;  
His hair hung long behind, and *glossy* raven black.

*Dryden.*

Myself will search our planted grounds at home,  
For downy peaches and the *glossy* plum.

*Dryden's Virgil.*

GLOTA. See ARRAN, § 2.

GLOTTIS, in anatomy, the narrow slit at the upper part of the *aspera arteria*, which is covered by the epiglottis when we hold our breath and when we swallow. The glottis, by its dilatation and contraction, modulates the voice. See ANATOMY, *Index.*

GLOTTOPETRA. See GLOSSOPETRA.

(1.) GLOUCESTER, or GLOUCESTERSHIRE, a county of England, bounded on the W. by Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, and the Bristol Channel; on the N. by Worcesterhire; on the E. by Oxfordshire and Warwickshire, and on the S. by Wiltshire and Somersetshire. It is 60 miles long, from NE. to SW. 26 broad, and 160 in circumference; containing 1,100,000 acres, 26,760 houses, 162,560 inhabitants, 290 parishes, 140 impropriations, 1229 villages, 2 cities, and 28 market towns. It sends 8 members to parliament, viz. 2 each for Gloucester, (N° 2.) Tewkesbury, and Cirencester; and 2 for the county. Its manufactures are woollen cloths of various kinds, hats, leather, pens, paper, bar iron, edge-tools, nails, wire, tinned plates, brass, &c.: and its annual exports, cheese 8000 tons; bacon, grain, cyder, 5000 l. worth; perry, fish, 4000 l. worth, &c. It lies in the diocese of Gloucester and circuit of Oxford. The air is very wholesome, but the surface is very various; for the eastern part, called *Cotswold*, is hilly; (see COTESWOLD, N° 2.) the western woody; (see DEAN, § II, N° I, 4.) and the rest is a fruitful valley, through which runs the Severn. See EVESHAM, N° 3, and SEVERN, N° I, 2. This river affords a noble conveyance for goods and merchandise. The county is also watered by the Wye, Avon, Isis, Leyden, Frome, Stroud, and Windrush, besides lesser streams, all abounding with fish. The soil is in general very fertile, though much diversified, yielding plenty of corn, pasture,

fruit, and wood. In *Cotswold*, the air and the soil produces excellent pasture of the 400,000 sheep computed to be kept in the county, the greater part are fed here. The soil is exceeding fine, and hence this shire is eminent for its manufacture of cloth, of which pieces are said to have been made yearly the practice of clandestinely exporting wool became common. In the valley, much warmer, and the soil richer, yield most luxuriant pastures; in consequence of numerous herds of black cattle are kept, in quantities of that excellent cheese, for which is celebrated, made in it. The forest of Dovedale formerly almost entirely over-run with wood, extended 20 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. It was then a nest of robbers, especially the Severn; but now it contains many townships, consisting chiefly of miners, employed in the coal-pits, or in digging for iron ore, with both which it abounds. They have their particular laws, customs, and courts of law; and the king, as in all royal forests, has a swain-mote for the preservation of the venison. This forest was anciently, and is now noted for its oaks, which thrive here very well, but as there is a prodigious consumption in the forges, it is continually diminishing. A navigable canal is made between the Severn and the Thames. See SEVERN, N° I. There are also several springs at St Anthony's well, in a parish; at Barrow and Maredon, in a parish; at Ash church, near Tewkesbury; at Bleton, near Winchcomb; at Easington, near Ley; and at Cheltenham. There are also several antiquities, attributed to the Romans, such as Danes, at Abston, Wick, Dointon, Dixter, Dlethorp, Knole, Over Upton, Hanham, ton, and Bourton.

(2.) GLOUCESTER, the capital of the county, (N° 1.) is seated on the E. side of the Severn. It is an ancient city; and by Antiquaries called *Clevum* or *Glevum*, which *Camden* says was formed from the British *Caer Gleva*, a fair city. It was one of the 28 cities of the Britons before the arrival of the Romans, who made it one of their colonies, and in the 8th century it was esteemed one of the chief cities in the kingdom. In the end of the 10th century it was ravaged by the Danes. It was afterwards considerably ravaged by fire at different periods. It was destroyed during the wars with the barons, and was rebuilt upon a hill; and from the middle of the 14th century where the 4 principal streets meet, there is a descent every way, which makes it not only healthy, but adds to its beauty. For iron was its manufactory so early as the reign of William the Conqueror. Henry VIII. made a gift of a bishopric with a dean and six prebends to the city, which was erected in the time of William I. is very much decayed; part of it is left standing, the crown; and the rest serves for a prison, one of the best in England. In its cathedral, an ancient but magnificent fabric, and has reckoned one of the most curious pieces of architecture in England, are the tombs of Robert of Normandy, and of Edward II: and the whispering place like that of St Paul's at

ster-house lies Strongbow who conquered. There are 12 chapels in Gloucester, and monuments of many great persons and monuments of many great persons. John made it a borough, governed by Henry III., who was crowned here, corporation. By its present charter les I, it is governed by a steward, a recorder, 12 aldermen, out of whom is chosen, a town-clerk, 2 sheriffs, cho- out of 26 common councilmen, a sword 4 serjeants. It has 12 incorporated companies, whose masters attend the all public occasions, &c. Besides the there are 5 parish churches, (formerly hospitals, and an infirmary. There one bridge over the river Severn, with aarf, and customhouse. K. Edward I. liament here in 1272, wherein some were made, now called the *Statutes of* and he erected a gate on the S. side of still called by his name, though almost in the civil wars. Richard II. also ament here; and Richard III, in conf- d his having born the title of *Duke of* the two adjacent hundreds of d King's Barton to it, gave it his sword maintenance, and made it a county of after the restoration, the hundreds away by act of parliament, and the down; because the inhabitants stout gainst Charles I, when he besieged it which, though the siege was raised of Essex, it suffered 20,000 l. damage, houses and 6 churches destroyed, which much that it has scarce yet recover- er size and grandeur. It has many statues of the English kings; several es supported with pillars; and large nonasteries, which were once very nu- has a barley market; and a hall for called the *Booth hall*. Its chief manu- ns. In this branch the number of peo- is astonishing, there being at least ferent processes. Under the bridge is ne to supply the town, which is also water from Robin Hood's well, to is a fine walk from the city. The fa- way, called *Ermin Street*, which be- vid's in Pembrokeshire, and reaches ton, passes through this city. The ; on Wed. and Sunday; and fairs A- y 5th, Sept. 28th, and Nov. 28th; ebbly for fat hogs. Here is a charity ove 80 children, of whom above 70 and a well endowed blue coat school. ds two members to parliament. It is NE. of Bristol, and 106 WNW. of m. 2. 15. W. Lat. 51. 43. N.

CESTER, a town and township of s, in Essex county, containing 5 pa- 317 citizens in 1795. It has a good ports in 1794 amounted to 229,613 omprehends Cape Anne, and lies 16 E. of Salem, and 34 N.E. of Bolton.

CESTER, a large maritime county of 'bounded on the N. by Burlington by the Atlantic, S. by Salem, Cum- Cape May counties, and W. by the

ART II.

Delaware. It is 62 miles long, and 28 broad; and is divided into 10 townships; containing 13,172 citizens, and 191 slaves, in 1795. It a- bounds with iron ore, which is manufactured. A glass-work has also been erected. Woodbury's the capital.

(5.) GLOUCESTER, a small town in the above county, (N<sup>o</sup> 4.) formerly the capital, on the E. bank of the Delaware, 3 miles below Philadelphia.

(6.) GLOUCESTER, a large township of Rhode Island, in Providence county, containing 4025 citizens, in 1795.

(7.) GLOUCESTER, a fertile and well cultivated county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by the Plankitank, E. by Mathews county and Chesapeake bay, S. and SW. by York river, and NW. by King and Queen counties. It is 55 miles long and 30 broad; and contained 6435 citizens, and 7063 slaves, in 1795.

(8.) GLOUCESTER, a town in the above county, (N<sup>o</sup> 7.) on the N. side of the York, 17 miles from York Town, and 20 SE. of Richmond.

(9.) GLOUCESTER ISLAND, or DUKE OF GLOUCESTER'S ISLAND, an island in the South Sea, 6 miles long and 1 broad. The natives are armed with long pikes. Lon. 140. 4. W. Lat. 19. 15. S.

(10, 11.) GLOUCESTER ISLANDS, two isles in the South Sea, lying the one in Lon. 146. 0. W. and Lat. 20. 38. S.; the other in Lon. 146. 15. W. and Lat. 20. 34. S.

(1.) \* GLOVE. *n. s.* [*glofe*, Saxon, from *the fice*, Danish, to divide.] Cover of the hands.—

They flew about like chaff i' th' wind;

For haste some left their masks behind,

Some could not stay their gloves to find *Drayton*.

White gloves were on his hands, and on his head

A wreath of laurel

*Dryden*.

(2.) GLOVES, in commerce, are distinguished into leathern, silk, thread, cotton, worked, &c. Leathern gloves are made of chamois, kid, lamb, doe, elk, buff, &c. Gloves now pay a duty to the king, which increases according to their value.

(3.) GLOVE, THROWING THE, was a practice or ceremony very usual among our ancestors, being the challenge whereby another was desired to single combat. See BATTLE, § 3. It is still retained at the coronation of our kings; when the king's champion casts his glove in Westminster-hall. See CHAMPION, § 1-3. Favyn supposes the custom to have arisen from the eastern nations, who in all their sales of lands, goods, &c. used to give the purchaser their glove by way of investiture. To this effect he quotes Ruth iv. 7. where the Chaldee paraphrase calls *glove* what the common version renders *flow*. He adds, that the Rab- bins interpret by *glove* that passage in the eighth Psalm, "Over *Eodem* will I cast out my *flow*."— He also says, that the custom of blessing *gloves* in the coronation of the kings of France, was a relic of the eastern practice of giving possession with the *glove*, l. xvi. p. 1017, &c. Anciently the judges were prohibited to wear gloves on the bench. And at present in the stables of some princes, it is not safe to go in without pulling off the gloves.

\* To GLOVE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cover as with a glove.—

My limbs,  
Weaken'd with grief, being now enrag'd with  
grief,  
Are thrice themselves: hence therefore, thou  
nice crutch;  
A scaly gauntlet now, with joints of steel,  
Must *glove* this hand. *Shak. Henry IV.*

The next he preys on is her palm,  
That alm'ner of transpiring balm;  
So soft, 'tis air but once remov'd;  
Tender as 'twere a jelly *glov'd*. *Cleveland.*  
(1.) \* GLOVER. *n. f.* [from *glove*.] One  
whose trade is to make or sell gloves.—Does he  
not wear a great round beard like a *glover's* par-  
ing knife? *Shak. Merry Wives.*

(2.) GLOVER, Richard, the author of *Leonidas*  
and several other esteemed works, was the son of  
Richard Glover a Hamburgh merchant in London,  
and was born in St Martin's-lane in 1712. He  
very early showed a strong propensity to poetry;  
and while at school, he wrote, amongst other  
pieces, a poem to the memory of Sir Isaac New-  
ton, prefixed to the view of that incomparable  
author's philosophy, published in 4to, in 1728, by  
Dr Pemberton. But though possessed of talents  
calculated to excel in literature, he devoted his  
attention to commerce, and commenced a Ham-  
burgh merchant. He still, however, cultivated the  
belles lettres, and associated with persons eminent  
in science. One of his earliest friends was Mat-  
thew Green, the author of some admirable poems,  
which in 1737, after his death, were collected  
and published by Mr Glover. In 1737, Mr Glo-  
ver married Miss Nunn, with whom he received  
a handsome fortune; and published *Leonidas, a*  
*poem*, in 4to, which soon passed through 3 editions.  
It was inscribed to Lord Cobham; and on its first  
appearance was received with great approbation.  
Lord Lyttelton, in his *Common Sense*, and in a  
poem addressed to the author, praised it in the  
warmest terms; and Dr Pemberton published,  
*Observations on Poetry*, especially epic, occasioned  
by the late poem upon *Leonidas*, 1738, 12mo,  
merely to point out its beauties. In 1739, Mr  
Glover published *London or the Progress of Com-  
merce*, 4to; and a ballad intitled, *Hester's Ghost*.  
Both these pieces seem to have been written with  
a view to incite the public to resent the misbe-  
haviour of the Spaniards; and the latter had a very  
considerable effect. The political dissensions at  
this period raged with great violence especially in  
the metropolis; and at different meetings of the  
livery, Mr Glover was called to the chair, and  
acquitted himself in a very able manner, his con-  
duct being patriotic and his speeches masterly.  
His talents for public speaking, his knowledge of  
political affairs, and his information concerning  
trade and commerce, soon afterwards pointed  
him out to the merchants of London as a proper  
person to conduct their application to parliament  
on the neglect of their trade. He accepted the  
office; and in summing up the evidence gave  
striking proofs of his oratorical powers. This  
speech was pronounced Jan. 27, 1742. In 1744,  
the Duchess of Marlborough died, and by her will  
left to Mr Glover and Mr Mallet 500l. each, to  
write the History of the Duke of Marlborough's  
*Life*. This bequest, however, never took place.

It is supposed that Mr Glover very ear-  
ly ceded his share of it; and Mallet, though  
long as he lived, never made any pro-  
fit. About this period Mr Glover with-  
drew from public notice. He had been  
with the attention of Frederic Prince  
who once presented him with a com-  
pendium of the Classics, elegantly bound; and,  
sensing himself on account of the em-  
barrassment in his circumstances, sent him 500l.  
Mr Glover produced at Drury-lane his  
*Eoadicea*; which was acted 9 nights.  
Mr Mallet, Mr Mossop, Mrs Cibber, and  
Mr Ward, were among the performers; and  
Mr Pemberton wrote a pamphlet to recom-  
mend it, 1761, Mr Glover published *Medea*,  
written on the Greek model; but it was  
not until 1767, when it appeared at Drury-  
lane, Mrs Yates's benefit. At the accession  
of George the third, having surmounted his  
difficulties, he was chosen M. P. for Weymouth.

At this time, he interested himself about Indi-  
a, one of Mr Sullivan's elections; and  
introduced the fable of the man, horse,  
and wheel, whence he drew this conclusion, that  
merchants made use of armed forces to  
protect their trade, it would end in their destruc-  
tion. In 1770, his poem of *Leonidas* was repub-  
lished, 12mo, corrected and extended to  
12; several new characters being  
added, the old ones placed in new situations,  
and some new incidents arising, in June 1772, from the  
bank of Douglass, Heron, and Co. which  
occasioned Mr Glover's taking a very  
active part in the settling those complicated ac-  
counts. In Feb. 1774, he called the annuitants to-  
gether, at the King's Arms tavern, and  
proposals before them for the security of the  
annuities, with which they were fully sat-  
isfied. He also undertook to manage the inter-  
ests of the merchants and traders of London in  
the trade of Germany and Holland,  
dealers in foreign linens, in their ap-  
plication to parliament in May 1774. Both his speeches  
on these occasions were published that year.

Mr Glover engaged on behalf of the West India  
Company in their application to parliament, as  
witnesses, and summed up the evidence in a  
masterly manner. This speech was a  
very able one. For his exertions in this business, he was  
recom-  
pensed with a service of plate, worth  
1000l. After this he retired to ease and indepen-  
dence. He spent the remainder of his days with di-  
stinction an epic poem of considerable length,  
some tragedies and comedies in MS  
Nov. 25th, 1785; leaving a most estimable  
character as a man, a citizen, and an author.

(3.) GLOVER, a township of Ver-  
mont, in the county, NE. of Craftsborough.

\* To GLOUT: *v. n.* [A low word  
find no etymology.] To pout; to  
puff. It is still used in Scotland.—

She lurks in midst of all her den,  
From out a ghastly whirlpool all her  
Where, *glouting* round her rock,  
falls.

ting with sullen spight, the fury shook  
 sted locks, and blasted with each look.

*Garth.*

DW. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Shining  
 Vehemence of passion. 3. Brightness  
 of colour.—

he pale complexion of true love,  
 e red glow of scorn and proud disdain.

*Spak.*

ring glow his bloomy beds display,  
 g in bright diversities of day.

*Pope.*

suppose that the great pile might hap-  
 pended with the ornamental, that the  
 rave, and majestic dignity of Raffælle  
 te with the glow and outlie of a Paulo,  
 et, are totally mistaken. *Reynolds.*

\* GLOW. *v. a.* [*glōwan*, Saxon; *glōy-*  
 1] To make hot so as to shine. Not

On each side her

pretty dimpled boys, like smiling Cupida,  
 ivers colour'd fans, whose wind did seem  
 to the delicate cheeks which they did  
 ol.

*Shak.*

To GLOW. *v. a.* 1. To be heated so as  
 without flame.—

thence silence lesseneth not my fire,  
 d it flames, and hidden it does glow,  
 reveal what ye so much desire.

*Spenser.*

His goodly eyes,  
 'er the files and musters of the war  
 'ow'd like plated Mars, now bend, now  
 n

ffice upon a tawny front.

*Shak.*

nd, wife to the emperor Henry II. to  
 innocency, did take seven glowing irons,  
 another, in her bare hands, and had  
 o harm.

*Hakewill.*

all parts like, but all alike inform'd  
 adiant light, as glowing iron with fire.

*Milton.*

rn with vehement heat.—  
 would you find it easy to compose

ettled steeds, when from their nostrils  
 ws

rching fire that in their entrails glows.

*Addis. Ovid.*

op'ning heav'n their happy regions show,  
 waving gulphs with flaming vengeance  
 w.

*Smith.*

that glow  
 of woe,  
 l heat of body.—

*Pope.*

Did not his temples glow  
 ame sultry winds and scorching heats?

*Addis. Cato.*

cord slides swiftly through his glowing  
 ids.

*Gay.*

hibit a strong bright colour.—  
 With smile that glow'd.

*Milton.*

l rosy red, love's proper hue.  
 in a gown that glows with Tyrian rays.

*Dryden.*

A malicious joy,  
 red and fiery beams cast through your  
 ge

ng pleasure.  
 the mingled strength of shade and light,

*Dryd. and Lee's Oed.*

A new creation rites to my sight;  
 Such heav'nly figures from his pencil flow,  
 So warm with life his blended colours glow,  
 Amidst the soft variety I'm lost.

*Addison.*

Like th' ethereal glow'd the green expanse.

*Savage.*

Fair ideas flow,

Strike in the sketch, or in the picture glow.

*Pope.*

Not the fair fruit that on yon branches glows,  
 With that ripe red th' autumnal sun bettows,  
 Can move the god.

*Pope.*

Each pleasing Blount shall endless smiles Le-  
 flow,

And fair Belinda's blush for ever glow.

*Pope.*

Here clearer stars glow round the frozen pole

*Pope.*

5. To feel passion of mind, or activity of fancy.—

You strive in vain

To hide your thoughts from him, who knew  
 too well

The inward glowings of a heart in love.

*Cato.*

Forc'd compliments and formal bows  
 Will shew thee just above neglect;

The fire with which thy lover glows,

*Prior.*

Will settle into cold respect.  
 Did Shadrach's zeal my glowing breast inspire

*Prior.*

To weary tortures, and rejoice in fire.  
 Let the gay conscience of a life well spent

Calm ev'ry thought, inspire ev'ry grace,  
 Glow in thy heart, and smile upon thy face.

*Pope.*

With furies surrounded,  
 Despairing, confounded.

He trembles, he glows,

Amidst Rhodope's snows.

*Pope.*

So perish all, whose breasts ne'er learn'd to  
 glow

For others good, or melt at others woe.

*Pope.*

To praise is always hard,

When real virtue fires the glowing bard.

*Lewis.*

6. To rage or burn as a passion.—

A fire which every windy passion blows;

With pride it mounts, and with revenge it glows.

*Dryden.*

When crept into aged veins,

Love slowly burns, and long remains;

It glows, and with a sullen heat,

Like fire in logs, it warms us long.

*Shadwell.*

(1.) \* GLOWWORM. *v. f.* [*glow* and *worm*.] A  
 small creeping insect with a luminous tail.—

The honey bags steal from the humble bees,  
 And for night-tapers crop their waxen thighs,  
 And light them at the fiery glowworm's eyes.

*Shak.*

The glowworm shews the matten to be near,  
 And 'gins to pale his ineffectual fire.

*Shak.*

—A great light drowneth a smaller that it cannot  
 be seen; as the sun that of a glowworm.

*Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

The man, who first upon the ground

A glowworm spy'd, supposing he had found

A moving diamond, a breathing stone;

For life it had, and like those jewels shone:

He held it dear, 'till by the springing day

Informed, he threw the worthless worm away.

*Waller.*

(2.) GLOW-WORM, in zoology. See LAMPYRIS.

\* GLOZE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Flattery;  
 insinuation.—



Now to plain dealing; lay these *glozes* by.

*Shak.*

3. Specious show; *glofs*. Not used.—

Precious couches full oft are shaken with a fever;

If then a bodily evil in a bodily *gloze* be not hidden,

Shall such morning dews be an ease to the heat of a love's fire?

*Sidney.*

\* To *GLOZE*. *v. n.* [*glefan*, Saxon.] 1. To flatter; to wheedle; to insinuate; to fawn.—

Man will hearken to his *glozing* lies,

And easily transgress.

*Milt. Par. Lost*

So *glaz'd* the tempter, and his proem tun'd:  
Into the heart of Eve his words made way.

*Milton.*

—A false *glozing* parasite would call his foolhardiness valour, and then he may go on boldly, because blindly, and by mistaking himself for a lion, come to perish like an ass. *Soub.*

Now for a *glozing* speech.

Fair protestations, specious marks of friendship.

*Philips.*

2. To comment. This should be *glofs*.—

Which Salique land the French unjustly *gloze*  
To be the realm of France. *Shak. Henry V.*

\* *GLOZEN*. *n. f.* [from *gloze*.] A flatterer.

\* *GLUBOKAIA*, a town of Russia in Kolivan.

\* *GLUCINA*, [from *γλυκύνω*, to sweeten,] a peculiar earth discovered by Vauquelin in the beryl and emerald, so named from its characteristic property of forming salts of a saccharine taste. Its general properties are these: 1. It is white; 2. impid; 3. adhesive to the tongue; 4. insoluble in water, and 5. in ammoniac; but, 6. soluble in the fixed alkalis, 7. in the carbonate of ammoniac; and, 8. in almost all the acids, except the carbonic and phosphoric, and forming salts of a saccharine taste; 9. infusible; but, 10. fusible with borax into a transparent glass; 11. It absorbs  $\frac{1}{2}$  of its carbonic acid; 12. decomposes the aluminous salts; and, 13. is not precipitable by well saturated hydro-sulphurets. Its specific characters, which are not found united in any of the other known earths, are these: 1. Its salts are saccharine, and slightly astringent; 2. It is soluble in the carbonate of ammoniac; 3. It is very soluble in the sulphuric acid by excess; 4. It decomposes the aluminous salts; 5. It is completely precipitated from its solutions by ammoniac; and, 6. Its affinity for the acids is intermediate between magnesia and alumine. 100 parts of beryl contain 16 of glucina. M. Vauquelin justly remarks, that, "in the sciences, a body, a principle, or a property, formerly unknown, though it may often have been used, or even held in the hands, and referred to other simple species, may, when once discovered, be afterwards found in a great variety of situations, and be applied to many useful purposes. Chemistry affords many recent examples of this truth."

*GLUCKOV*, a town of Russia, in Novgorod.

*GLUCKSBURG*, a town and fort of Denmark, in Sleiswick; 9 miles E. of Flensburg.

*GLUCKSTADT*, a considerable town of Germany, in the duchy of Holstein, with a strong castle, subject to Denmark; seated on the Elbe, near its mouth; 28 miles N.W. of Hamburg. Lon. 9. 25. E. Lat. 53. 54. N.

(1.) \* *GLUE*. *n. f.* [*glu*, Fr. *gluten*, La

Welsh.] A viscous body commonly made from the skins of animals to a jelly; any tenacious matter by which bodies are held together; a cement.—Water, and all liquids readily receive dry and more terrestrial bodies; and dry bodies, on the other hand, drink in waters and liquors; so that, as well said by one of the ancients of earthy substances, one is a *glue* to another. *Nat. Hist.*—The driest and most transparent is the best. *Moxon.*—

To build the earth did chance matter

And through the parts cementing *glue*.

*Bl.*

—The flowers of grains, mixed with water, make a sort of *glue*. *Arbutnot on Aliman*

(2.) *GLUE* is differently denominated according to its preparation and the various uses it is put to; as *common glue*, *glow glue*, and *gum glue*. But the two last are more properly *glues*. The common or strong glue is chiefly made by carpenters, joiners, cabinet-makers, &c. is made of skins of animals, as oxen, cow, sheep, &c.: Whole skins are rarely used for any purpose, but only the shavings, parings, of them, or the feet sinews, &c. That whole skins, however, is undoubtedly the best, as that made of sinews is the very worst.

(3.) *GLUE*, METHOD OF MAKING.—To make glue of parings, they first steep them 24 hours in water; then, washing them well out, they put them to the consistence of a thick jelly; they pass, while hot, through a sieve to separate the impurities; and then let it stand some time to purify it further; when all the filth has subsided to the bottom of the vessel, they melt it a 2d time. They next pour it into flat moulds; whence it is taken out pretty solid, and cut into square pieces or cakes; afterwards dry it in the wind, in a fort net; and at last string it to finish its dryness. *Glue* made of sinews, feet, &c. is made in the same manner; only with this difference, they bone and scour the net, and do not steep. Of this commodity there is a great exportation from England; the English is universally allowed to be the best in Europe, not only from the excellency of the materials, but from the skill of the manufacturers. This is the Flanders glue. In both countries it is made by the tanners from fragment skins dried with much care. In France it is a paratt trade; and the glue-makers pick up materials as they can, from the several skins, and boiling these with cow heels, &c. glue; which as they purchase every thing to render it dear, as well as of an insupportable duty on exportation is sold, and a duty of 3s. 6d. on every cwt. The best glue which is made from the skins of the ox, especially if a bull's hide is used. *Glue* is considerably improved in quality by keeping it in water, and the surest way to try its quality is to lay a piece of it to steep 3 or 4 days in well considerably without melting, and when taken out resumes its former dryness, it is



will hold against fire or water, it is made thus: Mix a handful of quick-oz. of linseed oil; boil them to a good hen spread it on tin plates in the shade, become exceeding hard, but may be red over a fire as glue, and will effect it to admiration. Neumann observes, dissolved in a solution of lapis calaminarius of nitre, and afterwards inspissated, extremely slippery tenacious mass, which I use for entangling flies, caterpillars, insects, if it were not too expensive.

**2. METHOD OF PREPARING AND USING A QUART OF WATER ON THE FIRE;** then put lb. of good glue, and boil them gently till the glue be entirely dissolved and of a fience. When glue is to be used, it is made thoroughly hot; after which, with a pen or brush, besmear the faces of the joints as possible; then clapping them together, lengthwise one upon another, 2 or 3 little them close; and let them stand till dry and firm. Mr Boyle gives the receipt for preparing a fine strong glue thus: Steep the isinglass for 24 hours in brandy. When the menstruum has become softened the isinglass, they must be dissolved together, and kept stirring till they are well mixed, and till a drop thereof, suffers to turn into a strong jelly. Then strain hot, through a clean linen cloth into be kept close stopped. A gentle heat dissolve this glue into a transparent and colourless fluid, but very strong; so that wood glued together with it will break rather than in the place where they are joined together.

**GLUE v. a.** [from the noun.] 1. To join with cement.—

I fear thy overthrow  
From my body's parting with my soul:  
And fear *glue'd* many friends to thee.

*Shak. Henry VI.* teacheth a fool is as one that *glue'd* together. *Ecclus. xxii. 7.*—The custom of the Holy Virgin is so much in vogue among the Italians, that one often sees in their a little tinsel crown or circle of stars, or a canopy over the head of the figure. *n. Italy.*—Most wounds, if kept clean, the air, the flesh will *glue* together with a restorative balm. *Derham.* 2. To hold together parts of all homogeneous hard bodies, by touch one another, stick together very; and for explaining how this may be, some have invented hooked atoms, which is a question; and others tell us their bodies are together by rest; that is, by an occult attraction rather by nothing. *Newton's Opticks.* 3. To unite; to inviscate.—Those wasps and flies are sensual men plunged in their pleasures; and when they are once *glued* it is a very hard matter to work them. *L'Esrange.*—Intemperance, sensuality, and lusts, do debase men's minds and clog the senses; sink us down into sense, and *glue* us to low and inferior things. *Tillotson.*—  
A curb'd a groan that else had come;

And pausing, view'd the present in the tomb:  
Then to the heart ador'd devoutly *glue'd*  
Her lips, and, raising it, her speech renew'd.

*Dryden.*  
I hear thee, view thee, gaze o'er all thy charms,  
And round thy phantom *glue* my clasping arms.

\* **GLUEBOILER.** *n. f.* [*glue* and *boil.*] One whose trade is to make glue.

\* **GLUER.** *n. f.* [from *glue.*] One who cements with glue.

\* **GLUM** *adj.* [A low cant word formed by corrupting *gloom.*] Sullen; stubbornly grave.—Some, when they hear a story, look *glum*, and cry, Well, what then? *Guardian.*

**GLUMA,** } *n. f.* in botany, a species of calyx,  
**GLUME,** } consisting of 2 or 3 membranous valves, which are often pellucid at the edges. See **BOTANY, Index.**

**GLUMMEN,** a town of Prussia, in the prov. of Nantangen, 24 miles S. of Königsberg.

**GLURENTZ,** or } a town of Germany, in the  
**GLURNS,** } Tyrol, on the Adige, 3 miles W. of Tyrol, and 36 W. of Brixen. It was built in 1362, and surrounded with walls in 1530. It was taken by the French, under gen. Desfoles, on the 25th March 1799; but during the battle with the Austrians near it, in which the latter lost 5700 men, and 28 pieces of cannon, this town was accidentally set on fire, and totally burnt down on the 26th.

**GLUSBURN,** a town S. of Skipton, Yorksh.

(1.) \* **GLUT.** *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. That which is gorged or swallowed.—

Disgorged soul

Their devilish *glut*, chain'd thunderbolts, and hail  
Of iron globes. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

2. Plenty even to loathing and satiety.—

So death

Shall be receiv'd his *glut*; and with us two

Be forc'd to satisfy his ravenous maw. *Milt.*  
—Let him but set the one in balance against the other, and he shall find himself miserable, even in the very *glut* of his delights. *L'Esrange.*—A *glut* of study and retirement in the first part of my life, cast me into this; and this will throw me again into study and retirement. *Pope to Swift.* 3. More than enough; overmuch.—If you pour a *glut* of water upon a bottle, it receives little of it. *Ben Jonson's Discov.* 4. Any thing that fills up a passage.—The water some suppose to pass from the bottom of the sea to the heads of springs, through certain subterranean conduits or channels, until they were by some *glut*, stop, or other means, arrested in their passage. *Woodward.*

(2.) **GLUT,** among falconers, the slimy substance that lies in a hawk's paunch.

\* **To GLUT.** *v. n.* [*engloutir*, French; *glutia*, Lat. to swallow; *γλυφω*.] 1. To swallow; to devour.—

'Till cram'd and gorg'd, nigh burst

With suck'd and *gluted* offal. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

2. To cloy; to fill beyond sufficiency; to sate; to disgust.—The ambassador, making his oration, did so magnify the king and queen, as was enough to *glut* the hearers. *Bacon.*—

Love breaks friendship, whose delights

Feed, but not *glut* our appetites.

*Denham.*  
*What*

What way remove  
His settled hate, and reconcile his love,  
That he may look propitious on our toils,  
And hungry graves no more be *glutted* with our  
spoils. *Dryden.*

No more, my friend ;  
Here let our *glutted* execution end. *Dryd. Æn.*

I found  
The fickle ear soon *glutted* with the sound,  
Condemn'd eternal changes to pursue,  
Tir'd with the last, and eager of the new. *Prior.*

3. To feast or delight even to satiety.—  
With death's carcass *glut* the grave. *Milt.*  
His faithful heart, a bloody sacrifice,  
Torn from his breast, to *glut* the tyrant's eyes.  
*Dryden.*

A sylvan scene, which, rising by degrees,  
Leads up the eye below, nor *gluts* the sight  
With one full prospect ; but invites by many,  
To view at last the whole. *Dryden.*

4. To overfill ; to load.—He attributes the ill suc-  
cess of either party to their *glutting* the market,  
and retailing too much of a bad commodity at  
once. *Arbutnot's Polite Lying.* 5. To saturate.  
—The menstruum, being already *glutted*, could  
not act powerfully enough to dissolve it. *Boyle.*

GLUTA, in botany ; a genus of the pentandria  
order, belonging to the gynandria class of plants.  
The calyx is campanulated and deciduous ; there  
are 5 petals glued below to the column of the  
germ ; and the filaments inserted on the top of  
the column, on which also the germen sits.

GLUTÆUS. See ANATOMY, § 215.

GLUTEN. See BREAD, § 12, and CHEMIS-  
TRY, *Index.*

\* GLUTINOUS. *adj.* [*glutineus*, French ;  
from *gluten*, Latin.] Gluy ; viscous ; tenacious.  
—The cause of all vivification is a gentle and pro-  
portionable heat, working upon a *glutinous* and  
yielding substance ; for the heat doth bring forth  
spirit in that substance, and the substance being  
*glutinous*, produceth two effects : the one that the  
spirit is detained, and cannot break forth ; the o-  
ther, that the matter, being gentle and yielding, is  
driven forwards by the motion of the spirits, after  
some swelling, into shape and members. *Bacon.*—

Next this marble venomb'd seat,  
Smear'd with gums of *glutinous* heat. *Milton.*

—Nourishment too viscid and *glutinous* to be sub-  
dued by the vital force. *Arbutn. on Alim.*

\* GLUTINOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *glutinous*.]  
Viscosity ; tenacity.—There is a resistance in fluids,  
which may arise from their elasticity, *glutinousness*,  
and the friction of their parts. *Cheyne.*

(1) \* GLUTTON. *n. f.* [*glutton*, Fr. ; from  
*glutis*, Latin, to swallow.] 1. One who indulges  
his self too much in eating.—The Chinese eat  
horribly at this day, and some *gluttons* have used  
to have cats baked. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Thro' Mankind's gullet she runs down  
While the vile *glutton* dines alone ;  
And, void of modesty and thought,  
She follows Babel's endless draught. *Prior.*

—If a *glutton* was to say in excuse of his gluttony,  
that he only eats such things as it is lawful to eat,  
he would make as good an excuse for himself as  
the greedy, covetous, ambitious tradesman, that

should say, he only deals in lawful busi-  
ness. 2. One eager of any thing to excess.—

The rest bring home in state the  
To that last scene of bliss, and leave  
All those free joys insatiably to pro-  
With which rich beauty feasts the

*Gluttons* in murder, wanton to de-  
Their fatal arts so impiously employ  
(2.) GLUTTON, in zoology, the Er  
of a species of quadrupeds, ranked  
under the genus MUSTELA, or *Itaq*  
Dr Gmelin, and Mr Kerr, under that  
or *Bear*. There are 2 varieties, viz.  
and reddish brown. See *URSUS*, N°

\* To GLUTTONISE. *v. n.* [fro  
To play the glutton ; to be luxurious.  
\* GLUTTONOUS. *adj.* [from *g*  
ven to excessive feeding ; delighted  
with food.—

When they would smile and sav  
debts,

And take down th' interest in thei  
maws.

—The exceeding luxuriosness of thi  
age, wherein we press nature with c  
burdens, and finding her strength de  
take the work out of her hands, an  
to the artificial help of strong waters.

Well observe

The rule of not too much, by temper  
In what thou eat'st and drink'st ; &  
thence

Due nourishment, no *gluttonous* desi  
\* GLUTTONOUSLY. *adv.* [from  
With the voracity of a glutton.

(1.) \* GLUTTONY. *n. f.* [*gluttony*  
from *glutton*.] Excess of eating ; lux  
table.—*Gluttony*, a vice in a great fort  
in a small. *Holiday*—

Their sumptuous *gluttonies* and gorg  
On citron tables or Atlantic stone.

Well may they fear some miserab  
Whom *gluttony* and want at once

—The inhabitants of cold moist count  
nerally more fat than those of warm  
but the most common cause is too gr  
tity of food, and too small a quantity  
in plain English *gluttony* and laziness.

(2.) GLUTTONY, INSTANCES OF F  
NARY. There is a morbid sort of glut  
*fames canina*, i. e. *dog-like appetite*, w  
times occurs, and renders the person ic  
an object of pity and of cure as in other d.

BULMY.) But habitual *gluttons* may b  
among the monsters of nature, and e  
able for endeavouring to bring a fami  
places where they live. K. James I. w  
was presented to him who could eat a v  
at one meal, asked "What could h  
than another man ? and being answer'd  
not do so much," said "Hang him t  
is unfit a man should live that eats as  
men, and cannot do so much as one."  
peror Clodius Albinus devoured more  
shel of apples at once. He eat 500 figs t

raches, 10 melons, 20 lb. of grapes, appers, and 400 oysters. Hardi-Canute, the Danish kings in England, was so ton, that a historian calls him *Bocca di vine's-mouth*." His tables were sometimes 2-day with the most costly viands the air, sea, or land, could furnish; lived he died; for, revelling at a Lambeth, he fell down dead. One the reign of Aurelianus, at one meal, boar, one hundred loaves of bread, id a pig; and drank above three gallons. Fuller says, that one Nicholasarrison in Kent, eat a whole sheep at aw; at another 30 dozen of pigeons. iam Sidley's, he eat as much victuals as sufficed 30 men. At Lord Wotton's d at one dinner 84 rabbits; which, at a man, would have served 168 men. is breakfast 18 yards of black pudding. ed a whole hog at one sitting; and af- at 3 pecks of damofins. One Mallet, r at law, in the reign of Charles I. eat : a dinner provided in Westminster for his practice not being sufficient to sup- th better meat, he fed generally on of- ers, hearts, &c. He lived to near 60 ge, but during the 7 last years of his moderately as other men.

JS, a town near Penryn, Cornwall.  
*Y. adj.* [from *gluc.*] Viscous; tenacious.—It is called balsamick mixture, is a *gluy* spumous matter. *Harvey*.—*gluy* wax some new foundations lay a combs. *Dryden's Ann. Mirab.*  
 er is the composition of the vapour, let one quality of being very *gluy* or vis- it will mechanically solve all the phæno- e grotto. *Addison*.

S. See GLUCAS.  
 NE, KNOBBED-ROOTED LIQUORICE- genus of the decandria order, belong- diadelphia class of plants; and in the thod ranking under the 32d order, *Pa-*  
 The calyx is bilabiate; the carina ala turning back the vexillum with its

CINE ABRUS is a native of Egypt and . The stalks and roots are very sweet . Herman affirms, that the juice ob- n them by decoction is little inferior to whence its name of *wild liquorice* in of America where it is native.

CINE FRUTECENS, the Carolina kidney- It has shrubby climbing stalks, twining support, 15 or 20 feet high, adorned ted leaves of 3 pair of follicles terminated one, and from the axillas clusters of large ple flowers, succeeded by long pods of the climbing kidney-bean. It flowers id July, but the seeds do not ripen in ry. It is cultivated in our gardens how- casily propagated, either by seeds im- m America, or by layers.

RRHIZA, LIQUORICE, a genus of the order, belonging to the diadelphia class and in the natural method ranking un- 2d order, *Papilionaceæ*. The calyx is

bilabiate; the upper lip tripartite, and the m- der one entire; the legumen ovate and compressed. There are two species.

1. GLYCIRRHIZA ECHINATA, the prickly-podded liquorice, resembling the common sort, only the pods are prickly: and

2. GLYCIRRHIZA GLABRA, the common li- quorice, with long, thick, creeping roots, striking several feet deep into the ground; upright, firm, annual herbaceous stalks, 3 or 4 feet high, gar- nished with winged leaves of four or five pair of oval lobes, terminated by an odd one; and from the axillas erect spikes of pale blue flowers in July, succeeded by short smooth pods. The root is the useful part, which is replete with a sweet, balsa- mic, pectoral juice, much used in all compositions for coughs and disorders of the stomach. Both these species are very hardy perennials; but this last is the sort commonly cultivated for use, its roots being fuller of juice and sweeter than the o- ther. The roots are perennial: but the stalks rise in spring and decay in autumn. They are propa- gated by cuttings of the small roots issuing from the sides of the main ones near the earth, divided into lengths of 6 or 8 inches, each having one or more good buds. The proper season for procu- ring the sets for planting is in open weather from October to March; but from the middle of Fe- bruary till the middle of March is rather the best season for planting. An open situation is to be preferred. The soil ought to be a light loose tem- perature, and 3 or 4 feet deep: for the roots of liquorice will arrive at that depth and more, and the longer the roots the more valuable they are. The ground should be trenched 3 spades deep; then proceed to plant the sets, by line and dibble, a foot distant in each row; putting them perpen- dicular into the ground, with the tops about an inch under the surface; let the rows be a foot or a foot and a half asunder. The London gardeners sow a crop of onions on the same ground the first year; which might be done without detriment to the liquorice or the onions; as the liquorice does not rise above 10 or 12 inches the first summer; keep the ground clean from weeds by hoeing. If there be a crop of onions, use the small hoe, cutting out the onions to 4 or 5 inches distant, clearing away such as grow immediately close to the liquorice plants; and when the onions are gathered, give the ground a thorough hoeing with a large hoe, to loosen the surface and destroy all weeds; and in autumn cut down the decayed stalks of the liquorice, and nothing more is neces- sary to be done till February or March, when it is proper to give a slight digging between the rows. During spring and summer, keep down all weeds by broad hoeing; and in autumn, when the stalks are in a decaying state, cut them down to the surface of the earth. In 3 years after planting, the roots of the liquorice will be fit to take up. The proper season for this is, from the beginning of November till February; for they should nei- ther be taken up before the stalks are fully de- cayed, nor deferred till late in spring, other- wise the roots will be apt to shrivel and diminish in weight. In taking them up, the small side roots are trimmed off, the best divided into lengths for fresh sets; and the main roots tied in bundles

for sale. Sell them as soon as possible after they are taken up, before they lose much of their weight. They are sold to the druggists from about 20s. to 40s. per cwt.; and an acre of ground has produced 3000 and upwards, which have been sold for above 60l.; but the price is commonly in proportion to the goodness of the roots. This plant is cultivated in most countries of Europe for the sake of its root. British liquorice is preferable to foreign; this last being generally mouldy, which this root is very apt to become, unless kept in a dry place. The powder of liquorice usually sold is often mingled with flour, and probably too often with substances not quite so wholesome; the best sort is of a brownish yellow colour (the fine pale yellow being generally sophisticated), and of a very rich sweet taste, much more agreeable than that of the fresh root. Liquorice is almost the only sweet that quenches thirst; whence it was called by the Greeks *αἰθήρα*. See ADIPSON. Galen says, that it was employed in this intention in hydropic cases, to prevent the necessity of drinking. Mr Fuller, in his *Medicina Gymnastica*, recommends it as a very useful pectoral; and says it softens acrimonious humours, and is gently detergent; which is confirmed by experience. An extract is directed to be made from it in the shops. It is chiefly brought from abroad, though the foreign extract is not equal to such as is made with proper care in Britain.

GLYFORD, a town SE. of Bodmin, Cornwall.

(1.) \* GLYN, *n. f.* [Irish; *gleann, glyn*, plur. Erse; *glenn*, Scottish.] A hollow between two mountains.—Though he could not beat out the Irish, yet he did shut them up within those narrow corners and *glyns* under the mountain's foot, *Spenser's Ireland*.

(2.) GLYN, a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

(3.) GLYN OF AGERLOW, a town in Cork.

(4.) GLYN OF THE DOWNS, a narrow romantic valley in Ireland, in Wicklow; 13 miles from Dublin; not much wider than the breadth of the road which leads through it, along the banks of a gurgling rivulet. The sides of the valley are steep and rocky, but ornamented with various trees.

GLYNN, a county of Georgia, in the Lower District, bounded on the W. and N. by the Alamaha and Liberty county; E. by the Ocean, and S. by Camden county. Brunswick is the capital.

GLYPH, *n. f.* in sculpture and architecture, any canal or cavity used as an ornament.

(1.) GMELIN, John George, brother to Dr Gmelin, physician at Tubingen, and uncle to the celebrated Dr S. G. Gmelin, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) was author of the *Flora Siberica*, and of *Travels in Siberia*, an interesting work in 2 vols. We have met with no memoir of this author.

(2.) GMELIN, Samuel Gottlieb, LL. D. professor at Tubingen, and member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St Peterburgh, was born at Tubingen in 1745. He was celebrated for his knowledge in natural history, as well as for his travels, which he commenced in June 1768. Having traversed the provinces of Moscow, Veronetz, New Russia, Azof, Casan, and Astracan, he visited, in 1770 and 1771, the harbours of the Caspi-

an, and examined with attention those the Persian provinces which border on of which he has given a circumstantial account in the 3 first vols of his *Travels*. Anxious to his observations, he attempted to pass the western provinces of Persia, which are infested with numerous banditti; and quitted, in An Einzillee, a small trading place in Gela the southern shore of the Caspian; and count of many difficulties and dangers, until Dec. 2, 1773, reach Sallian, a town at the mouth of the Koor. Thence he proceeded to Baku and Kuba, in Shirvan, where he received a friendly reception from Ali Feth Khan, the sovereign of that district. After he had been 20 Uralian Cossacks, and when he was 10 days journey from the Russian fortress, and his companions were, on the 15th of March, arrested by the order of Usméi Khan, a Tartar prince, through whose territories he was obliged to pass. Usméi urged as a pretext for this arrest, that 30 years ago several families had escaped from his dominions, and had taken refuge in the Russian territories; adding that Gmelin should not be released until they were restored. The professor was removed from prison to prison; and at length, wearied out by continued persecutions, he expired, July 1774, at Achmet-Kent, a village of Mount Caucasus. His death was occasioned partly by vexation and loss of several papers and collections, and partly by disorders contracted from the fatigue of a long journey. Some of his papers had been taken to Kassar during his imprisonment, and were, with great difficulty, rescued from the hands of the barbarian who had detained them. The arrangement of these papers, which form the 4th volume of his travels, was confided to the care of Guildenstäedt, and his death was completed by Dr Pallas.

GMELINA, in botany; a genus of the spermia order, belonging to the didyma order of plants; and in the natural method under the 40th order, *Personate*. The calyx is quadridentate; the corolla campanulate bell-shaped; there are two bipartite and simple anthers; the fruit is a plum, with a large kernel.

GNA, or AGNO, a river of Italy, in the Kingdom of Austria, which rises in the Vicentine Mountains, runs through the ci-devant Venetian dominions, dividing it into nearly two equal parts, and after joining the Bachiglione, falls into the Adriatic.

GNA, a town of Germany, in Stiria, SE. of Graz, and 80 S. of Vienna.

GNADENHUITEN, a town of the United States in the North Western Territory, situated on the banks of the Ohio, and is settled by Moravians. It is seated on the banks of the Ohio, 100 miles from lake St Clair, and 28 N.W. of Cincinnati.

(1.) GNARJALIUM, *convulsa*, L. LOCKS, ETERNAL OR EVERLASTING &c. A genus of the polygamia superflua order, belonging to the syngenechia class of plants in the natural method ranking under the order, *Compositae*. The receptacle is naked, pappus feathered; the calyx imbricated, marginal scales roundish, parched, and

42 species; the most remarkable of

**GNAPHALUM ARBOREUM**, or tree gnaphalium, a woody stem, branching 4 or 5 feet high, with sessile leaves, with revolute borders, their upper side, and roundish bunches of small flowers.

**GNAPHALUM MARGARITACEUM**, the pearly flower, has creeping, very spread-crowned with broad, spear-shaped, dry leaves; herbaceous thick, woolly root and an half high, branching out-furnished with long, acute-pointed white rays, and terminated by a corymbose cluster of flowers, which appear in June and are very ornamental.

**GNAPHALUM ODORATISSIMUM**, the sweet-scented flower, hath shrubby winged stalks, irregularly a yard high, with corymboses of bright yellow flowers, changing yellow.

**GNAPHALUM ORIENTALE**, the oriental gold-rod, 3 varieties, with yellow, gold-colour-hite silvery flowers. They have shrub-rising 2 or 3 feet high.

**GNAPHALUM PLANTAGINIFOLIUM**, has fleshy radical leaves, decumbent running herbaceous simple stalks, rising 6 or 8 inches, terminated by a corymbus of white flowers, July, &c.

**GNAPHALUM STECHAS**, has a shrubby stalk, to slender branches 3 feet long, terminated by corymboses of yellow flowers, April and June.

**GNAPHALUM**, CULTURE OF THE DIFFERENT SPECIES OF. The 2d, 5th, and 6th sorts will thrive in any soil or situation. The 5th increase exceedingly by their slips, the 6th is easily propagated by slips. The 1st and 4th species are somewhat tender; they should be kept in pots, to be sheltered in a greenhouse or garden frame in winter. They may be planted in the full ground, in a warm situation, especially the oriental varieties, and likewise the odorous; for these two species will struggle through an ordinary winter, and make a carriage during summer. All these are propagated by slips or cuttings of their shoots. The roots of all these species will retain their vigour, if carefully gathered in a dry place after they are blown.

**GNARL**. } *v. n.* [*gnyrren*, Saxon; *knorren*, Dutch.] To growl; to snarl.—

He 'gan to rear his bristles strong,  
By gnar, until day's enemy  
appease.

Spenser.  
As the shepherd beaten from thy side,  
Whose eyes are gnarling who shall gnaw thee

Shakespeare.  
Gnawing sorrow hath less power to bite

Than that which mocks at it, and sets it light. *Shak.*  
The warring porter durst not whine for doubt;  
Nor the furies while their sovereign spoke.

*Fairfax.*  
**GNARLED**. *adj.* [*gnar*, *nar*, or *kurr*, is in

PART II.

Staffordshire a hard knot of wood which boys drive with sticks.] Knotty.—

Merciful heav'n!

Thou rather with thy sharp and sulph'rous bolt  
Split'st the unwedgeable and gnarled oak,  
Than the soft myrtle. *Shak. Meas. for Meas.*  
**GNARMACK**, a town of England in Cornwall,  
NW. of Truro.

(1) \* **TO GNASH**. *v. a.* [*knascben*, Dutch.]  
To strike together; to clash.—

The peer, who could not yet his wrath assuage,  
Row'd his green eyes, that sparkl'd with his rage,  
And gnash'd his teeth. *Dryden's Virgil.*

(2) \* **TO GNASH**. *v. n.* 1. To grind or collide  
the teeth.—He shall gnash with his teeth, and  
melt away. *Pf. cxii. 10.*—There shall be weeping  
and gnashing of teeth. *Matth. viii. 2.* To rage even  
to collision of the teeth; to fume; to growl.—

His great iron teeth he still did grind,  
And grimly gnash, threat'ning revenge in vain.

*Spenser.*  
—They gnashed upon me with their teeth. *Psalms*  
*xxxv. 16.*—

They him laid

Gnashing for anguish, and despite and shame,  
To find himself not matchless. *Milton.*

With boiling rage Atrides burn'd,  
And foam betwixt his gnashing grinders churn'd.

*Dryden.*  
(1) \* **GNAT**. *n. f.* [*gnat*, Sax.] 1. A small winged  
stinging insect.—

Her whip of cricket's bone, the lash of film;  
Her waggoner, a small grey-coated gnat. *Shak.*

2. Any thing proverbially small.—Ye blind guides,  
which strain at a gnat and swallow a camel. *Matth.*  
*xxiii. 24.*

(2) **GNAT**, in zoology. See **CULEX**.

(1) \* **GNATFLOWER**. *n. f.* [*gnat* and *flower*.]  
A flower otherwise called the bee-flower.

(2) **GNATFLOWER**. See **OPHRYS**, N° 2.

\* **GNATSNAPPER**. *n. f.* [*gnat* and *snapper*.] A bird  
so called, because he lives by catching gnats.—  
They deny that any bird is to be eaten whole, but  
only the gnat-snapper. *Haweswill on Providence.*

(1) \* **TO GNAW**. *v. a.* [*gnagan*, Sax. *knagben*,  
Dutch.] 1. To eat by degrees; to devour by slow  
corrosion.—

A knowing fellow that would gnaw a man  
Like to a vermine, with his hellish braine,  
And many an honest soul, even quick had slain.

*Chapman.*  
To you such scabb'd harsh fruit is giv'n, as  
raw

Young soldiers at their exercisings gnaw. *Dryd.*

2. To bite in agony or rage.—

Alas, why gnaw you so your nether lip?  
Some bloody passion shakes your very frame.

*Shakespeare. Othello.*  
—They gnawed their tongues for pain. *Rev. xvi.*  
*10.*—

He comely fell, and dying gnaw'd the ground.

*Dryden.*

3. To wear away by biting.—

Gnawing with my teeth my bonds asunder,  
I gain'd my freedom. *Shak. Comedy of Err.*  
Like rotten fruit I fall, worn like a cloth,  
Gnaw'n into rags by the devouring moth. *Sandys.*

—A lion, hampered in a net, called a mousetrap to help him out of the snare: the mouse gnawed the threads to pieces, and set the lion at liberty. *L'Esrange*. 4. To fret; to waste; to corrode. 5. To pick with the teeth —

His bones clean pick'd; his very bones they gnaw. *Dryden*.

(2.) \* *To GNAW*. *v. n.* To exercise the teeth. It is now used actively.—I might well, like the spaniel, gnaw upon the chain that ties me: but I should sooner mar my teeth than procure liberty. *Sidney*.—See the heel of having a false woman: my bed shall be abused, my coffers ransacked, my reputation gnawed at. *Shakesp.*—

I thought I saw a thousand fearful wrecks,

A thousand men that fishes gnaw'd upon. *Shak.*

\* *GNAWER*. *n. f.* [from *gnaw*.] One that gnaws.

*GNESEN*, } or *GNIESNO*, a large, and strong town of Great Poland, of which *GNESNO*, } it is the capital, in the palatinate of Kalish, with an archbishop's see, whose prelate is primate of Poland, and was viceroy when there was a vacancy of the throne, before the late overthrow of that monarchy. It was the first town built in the kingdom, and formerly very considerable. It is seated in that part of Poland, which was seized by Frederick-William II, K. of Prussia. It is 100 miles NE. of Breslaw, and 125 W. of Warsaw. Lon. 17. 40. E. Lat. 52. 28. N.

*GNETUM*, in botany; a genus of the monadelphica order, belonging to the monocia class of plants. The antherium of the male is a single scale; there is no corolla, and but one filament with a pair of anthers. The calyx of the female is of the same form; there is no corolla; the style with the stigma is trifid; the fruit is a monospermous plum.

*GNIAFDA*, a town of Hungary, 7 miles WSW. of Palotza.

*GNIDIA*, in botany; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the octandria class of plants. The calyx is funnel-shaped and quadrifid, with 4 petals inserted into it: there is one seed somewhat resembling a berry.

*GNIESNO*. See *GNESNA*.

*GNEW*, or *MEVA*, a town of Polish Prussia, in Pomerelia, on the Vistula; 22 miles S. of Dantzick. It was taken by the Poles in 1463; and by the Swedes, in 1626, and 1655.

*GNOMES*, } imaginary beings, who, according

*GNOMI*, } to the cabbalists, inhabit the inner parts of the earth. They are supposed to be small in stature, and guardians of quarries, mines, &c. See *FAIRY*, § 1, 3, 5.

(1.) \* *GNOMON*. *n. f.* [*γνομων*.] The hand or pin of a dial.—The *gnomon* of every dial is supposed to represent the axis of the world, and therefore the two ends or extremities thereof must directly answer to the North and South pole. *Harris*.—There were from great antiquity sun-dials, by the shadow of a style or *gnomon*, denoting the hours of the day. *Brown*.

(2.) *GNOMON*. See *DIAL* and *DIALLING*. The word *γνομων* literally implies something that makes a thing known; as the style of a dial makes the hour known.

(3.) *GNOMON*, in astronomy, a style erected per-

pendicular to the horizon, to find the altitude of the sun. Thus, in the right-angled triangle (*Plate CLXXVIII.*) are given, AD the perpendicular style, BC the length of its shadow, and the angle ABC. Hence, making CB the radius, we have this analogy for finding the angle A, viz. BC : AB :: radius : the angle C. By a *gnomon*, the sun's altitude, and consequently the latitude place, may be found more exactly than by smaller quadrants. See *QUADRANT*. By this instrument the height of any object GH found: for as DE, the distance of the object from the *gnomon*, is to DE, the height of the style; so is FH, the distance of the object from the object, to GH, its height.—See *TRIGONOMETRY*, *INDEX*; and *GEOGRAPHY*, § 3.

(4.) *GNOMON OF A GLOBE*; the index or hour circle.

(1.) \* *GNOMONICKS*. *n. f.* [*γνομωνικα*] science which makes a part of the mathematics teaches to find the just proportion of the construction of all kinds of sun-dials, and for knowing what o'clock it is at the shadow of a *gnomon* or stile, the shadow for this purpose. *Trevelyan*.

(2.) *GNOMONICK*. See *DIALLING*.

*GNOSSOS*, or } in ancient geograph

*GNOSSUS*, } of Crete. See *CREE*

*GNOSTALL*, a town of Staffordshire, between Knightly and Wil-

(1.) *GNOSTICS*, [from *γνομωνικα*, knowledge heretical, famous from the first century, principally in the east. It appears several passages of scripture, particularly ii. 18. 1 Tim. vi. 20. and Col. ii. 8. the persons were infected with the Gnostic the first century; though the sect did not itself conspicuous, either for numbers or duration, before the time of Adrian, when some erroneously date its rise. The name was by this sect, on the presumption that they were the only persons who had the true *gno* Christianity. Accordingly, they looked their Christians as simple, ignorant, and ignorant persons, who explained and interpreted their writings in a low, literal, and unedifying manner. At first the Gnostics were the philosophers and wits of those times, who formed themselves a peculiar system of theology, able to the philosophy of Pythagoras and to which they accommodated all their interpretations of scripture. But

(2.) *GNOSTICS* afterwards became a name, comprehending divers sects and heretics, who rose in the first centuries, though they differed among themselves in opinions, yet all agreed in some common principles. They corrupted the doctrine of Christ by a profligate mixture of the tenets of oriental philosophy, concerning the origin and the creation of the world, with its truths. Such were the Valentinians, the Carpocratians, Nicolaitans, &c. See § 3.

(3.) *GNOSTICS* sometimes also occurs in sense, in the ancient ecclesiastical writings particularly Clemens Alexandrinus, who, in the title of his Gnostic, describes the characters of

St Christian. This point he labours  
 ok of his *Stromata*, where he shows,  
 t the Gnostic, or learned person, has  
 ion. He affirms, that were it possi-  
 knowledge of God to be separated  
 salvation, the Gnostic would make  
 choose the knowledge; and that if  
 promise him impunity, in doing of any  
 once spoken against, or offer him  
 those terms, he would never alter a  
 courses. In this sense the father uses  
 opposition to the heretics of the same  
 ung, that the true Gnostic is grown  
 ly of the holy scripture; and that he  
 orthodox doctrine of the apostles and  
 th; whereas the false Gnostic aban-  
 apostolical traditions, as imagining  
 than the apostles.

ties was sometimes also more partic-  
 the successors of the Nicolaitans  
 tians, in the 2d century, upon their  
 he names of the first authors. Such  
 thoroughly acquainted with all their  
 verities, and visions, may consult *St*  
*Julian, Clement Alexandrinus, Origen,*  
*vanus*; particularly the first of these  
 relates their sentiments at large, and  
 n. Indeed, he dwells more on the  
 than any other sect of Gnostics; but  
 general principles whereon all their  
 mens were founded, and the method  
 l in explaining scripture. He accuses  
 ducing into religion certain vain and  
 neologies, i. e. a kind of divine pro-  
 nations, which had no other found-  
 n their own wild imagination. The  
 fessed, that these *zōons* or emanations  
 re expressly delivered in the sacred  
 t insinuated, that Jesus Christ had inti-  
 in parables to such as could under-

They built their theology not only  
 s and the epistles of St Paul, but also  
 Moses and the prophets. These last  
 rily serviceable to them, on account  
 ries and allusions with which they  
 are capable of different interpreta-  
 tions; though their doctrine, concerning the cre-  
 world by one or more inferior beings  
 imperfect nature, led them to deny  
 thority of the books of the Old Test-  
 ament contradicted this idle fiction, and  
 with an abhorrence of Moses and the  
 law; alleging, that he was actuated  
 by a malignant author of this world, who con-  
 sidered his own glory and authority, and not the  
 good of men. Their persuasion that  
 matter, as its centre and source,  
 created the body with contempt, dis-  
 regarded, and reject the doctrine of the  
 resurrection of the body and its re-union with  
 the soul. Their notion, that ma-  
 liciously predestined in nature, and occasioned  
 calamities, wars, and desolations, in-  
 duced them to apply themselves to the study of  
 magic, to weaken the powers or suspend  
 the operation of their malignant agents. The  
 considered Jesus Christ as the Son of God,  
 who came into the world to be crucified,  
 and to be buried, and to rise again, and  
 to ascend into heaven, and to sit on the  
 right hand of the Father, and to come  
 again to judge the living and the dead.

world for the rescue and happiness of miserable  
 mortals, oppressed by matter and evil beings; but  
 they rejected our Lord's humanity, on the prin-  
 ciple that every thing corporeal is essentially and  
 intrinsically evil; and therefore the greatest part  
 of the sect denied the reality of his sufferings. They  
 set a great value on the beginning of the gospel of  
 St John, where they fancied they saw a great deal  
 of their gods or emanations under the term, the  
*Word, the Life, the Light, &c.* They divided all  
 nature into three kinds of beings, viz. *hylic*, or ma-  
 terial; *psychic*, or animal; and *pneumatic*, or spi-  
 ritual. On the like principle they also distinguish-  
 ed three sorts of men; *material*, *animal*, and *spi-  
 ritual*. The first, who were material, and incap-  
 able of knowledge, inevitably perished, both soul  
 and body; the third, such as the Gnostics them-  
 selves pretended to be, were all certainly saved;  
 the psychic, or animal, who were the middle be-  
 tween the other two, were capable either of being  
 saved or damned, according to their good or evil  
 actions. With regard to their moral doctrines  
 and conduct, they were much divided. The great-  
 est part of this sect adopted very austere rules of  
 life, recommended rigorous abstinence, and pre-  
 scribed severe bodily mortifications, with a view  
 of purifying and exalting the mind. However,  
 some maintained, that there was no moral differ-  
 ence in human actions; and thus, confounding  
 right with wrong, they gave a loose rein to all the  
 passions, and asserted the innocency of following  
 blindly all their motions, and of living by their  
 tumultuous dictates. They supported their opi-  
 nions and practice by various authorities: some  
 referred to fictitious and apocryphal writings of  
 Adam, Abraham, Zoroaster, Christ, and his ap-  
 ostles; others boasted, that they had deduced  
 their sentiments from secret doctrines of Christ,  
 concealed from the vulgar; others affirmed, that  
 they arrived at superior degrees of wisdom by an  
 innate vigour of mind; and others asserted, that  
 they were instructed in their mysterious parts of  
 theological science by Theudas, a disciple of St  
 Paul, and by Matthias, one of the friends of our  
 Lord. The tenets of the ancient Gnostics were  
 revived in Spain, in the 4th century, by a sect  
 called the PASCILIANISTS. At length the name  
*Gnostic*, which originally was glorious, became in-  
 famous, by the idle opinions and dissolute lives of  
 the persons who bore it.

GNOU, or }  
 GNU, } in zoology. See CAPRA, N° IX.

(1.) \* To GO. *v. n.* pret. *I went; I have gone.*  
 [*gan*, Saxon. This was probably changed to *gone*,  
 or *gang*, then contracted to *go*. *Went* is the pre-  
 terite of the old verb *wend*.] 1. To walk; to  
 move step by step.—

You know that love

Will creep in service where it cannot go. *Shak.*  
 —After some months those muscles become cal-  
 lous; and, having yielded to the extension, the  
 patient makes shift to go upon it, though lamely.  
*Wifeman.* 2. To move; not stand still.—Rise,  
 let us be going. *Matt.* xxvi. 46. 3. To walk so-  
 lemnly.—If there be cause for the church to go  
 forth in solemn procession, his whole family have  
 such business come upon them that no one can be  
 spared. *Hooker.* 4. To walk leisurely, not run.—



And must I go to him?  
—Thou must run to him; for thou hast staid so long, that *going* will scarce serve the turn. *Shak.*

5. To march or walk a-foot.—I will only go through on my feet. *Num. xx. 19.* 6. To travel; to journey.—

From them I go,  
This uncouth errand sole. *Milton.*

7. To proceed; to make a progress.—  
Thus others we with defamation wound,  
While they stab us; and so the jest goes round. *Dryden.*

8. To remove from place to place.—  
I am in blood  
Stept in so far, that, should I wade no more,  
Returning were as tedious as go o'er. *Shak.*

9. To depart from a place; to move from a place; the opposite of *to come*.—  
I hope it be not gone, to tell my lord  
That I kiss aught but him. *Shak. Cymbel.*  
At once, good-night;  
Stand not upon the order of your going,  
But go at once. *Shak. Macbeth.*

—And when she had so said she went her way. *Yo. xi. 28.*—I will let you go, that ye may sacrifice, only you shall not go very far away. *Ex. viii. 28.*—Colchester oysters are put into pits, where the sea goeth and cometh. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—  
A young tall squire  
Did from the camp at first before him go. *Cowley.*  
Then I concur to let him go for Greece,  
And with our Egypt fairly rid of him. *Dryden.*  
Go first the master of thy herds to find,  
True to his charge, a loyal swain and kind. *Pope's Odyssey.*

10. To move or pass in any manner, or to any end.—  
Though the vicar be bad, or the parson be evil,  
Go not for thy tything thyself to the devil. *Tuffer.*  
—She may go to bed when she list; all is as she will. *Shak.*—  
You did wish that I would make her turn;  
Sir, she can turn and turn, and yet go on. *Shak.*  
—I am glad to see your lordship abroad: I heard say your lordship was sick: I hope your lordship goes abroad by advice. *Shak. Henry IV.*—The mourners go about the streets. *Ecl. xii. 5.*—The sun shall go down over the prophets, and the day shall be dark over them. *Mac. iii. 6.*—Put every man his sword by his side, and go in and out from gate to gate throughout the camp. *Ex. xxxii. 27.*—  
The sun, which once did shine alone,  
Hung down his head; and wish'd for night,  
When he beheld twelve suns for one  
Going about the world, and giving light. *Herbert.*  
This seen, the rest at awful distance stood,  
As if they had been there as servants set,  
To stay, or to go on, as he thought good,  
And not pursue, but wait on his retreat. *Dryd.*  
—Turn not children going, till you have given them all the satisfaction they are capable of. *Locke.*  
—History only acquaints us that his fleet went up the Elbe, he having carried his arms as far as that river *Arbut.*—The last advice I give you relates to your behaviour when you are going to be hanged, which, either for robbing your master, for

housebreaking, or going upon the highway probably be your lot. *Swift.*—  
come for gold will go off with pewtee rather than return empty. *Swift.*  
in company with others.—Thou shalt adorned with thy tabrets, and shalt go dances of them that make merry. *Je.*  
Away, and with thee go the way  
That seek't my friendship, and the way

—He goeth in company with the wofully, and walketh with wicked men. 8.—Whatever remains in story of a kingdom of old, is so obscured with time that it may go along with those of the islands. *Temple.* 12. To proceed in a life good or bad.—And the Levites I away far from me, when Israel went I went astray away from me after they shall even bear their iniquity. *Ezek.*  
To proceed in mental operations.—I warily too far engaged myself for the lifting it, truly I should have kept I had once again gone over it. *Dryd.*  
have gone through the speculative part of the Divine Providence. *Hale's Orig.*  
I hope, by going over all these parts may receive some tolerable satisfaction great subject. *South.*—If we go over Christianity, we shall find that, especially particulars, they enjoy the same time have made our duty more clear and easier. —In their primary qualities we very little way. *Locke.*—I go over this argument again, and enlarge a little on them. *Locke.*—They are not able time to reckon, or regularly go over rate series of numbers. *Locke.* 14. road.—I will go along by the highway, other turn to the right hand, nor to the left. *ii. 27.*—Who shall bemoan thee? Or aside to ask how thou doest? *Jer. x.*

His horses go about  
Almost a mile. *S.*  
—I have endeavoured to escape into freedom of a private scene, where a his own way and his own pace. *Ten*  
march in a hostile or warlike manner  
You were advis'd his flesh was  
Of wounds and scars, and that his spirit  
Would list where most trade of d  
Yet did you say go forth. *St.*  
—We be not able to go up again for they are stronger than we. *Nic.*  
Let us go down after the Philistines spoil them until the morning light 36.—Thou art not able to go against the fight with him. *1 Sam. xvii. 33.*—  
of Jacob shall be among the Gentile among the beasts of the forest; w through, both treadeth down and tear and none can deliver. *Mic. v. 8.* 1 state or opinion for better or worse—hearken to the king's words to go from *1 Mac. ii. 12.*—The regard of the in so great a danger, made all those which went so to wreck, to be lig



parison of their lives and liberty. *Knolles*.  
 look upon men and matters with an evil  
 eye are best pleased when things go back-  
 wards: which is the worst property of a servant of  
 or state. *Bacon*.—

goes to ruin, they themselves contrive  
 to b the honey, and subvert the hive. *Dryd*.  
 d men, by their providence and good  
 ry, accommodatng their expences to their  
 keep themselves from going backwards  
 world. *Locke*.—Cato, we all go into your

*Addison*. 17. To apply one's self.—See-  
 self confronted by so many, like a resolute  
 ne went not to denial, but to justify his  
 lehood. *Sidney*.—Because this atheist goes  
 cally to work, he will not offer to affirm  
 the parts of the embryo could, accord-  
 ic explication, be formed at a time. *Bentley*.  
 have recourse to.—Dare any of you, hav-  
 itter against another, go to law before the  
 and not before the saints? 1 *Cor*. 19. To

t to do.—So extraordinary an example,  
 generate an age, deserves for the rarity,  
 vas going to say, for the incredibility of it,  
 ration of all that knew him, and consider-  
 ortion. *Locke*. 20. To shift; to pass life not  
 ell.—Every goldsmith, eager to engross to  
 as much as he could, was content to pay  
 r-it, rather than go without. *Locke*.—

they must have; but if they speak for this  
 that colour, they should be sure to go  
 it. *Locke*. 21. To decline; to tend to-  
 death or ruin. This sense is only in the  
 les going and gone.—

is far gone, and, truly, in my youth,  
 I'd much extremity for love,  
 near this. *Shak. Hamlet*.  
 be in party or design.—

ney with the vanquish'd prince and party go,  
 leave their temples empty to the foe. *Dryd*.  
 escape.—Timotheus himself fell into the  
 f Dositheus and Sosipater, whom he be-  
 with much craft to let him go with his life.  
 xii. 24. 24. To tend to any act.—

ere be some women, Silvius, had they  
 mark'd him  
 reels as I did, would have gone near  
 all in love with him. *Shak. As you like it*.  
 be uttered.—His disciples personally ap-  
 among them, and ascertained the report  
 had gone abroad concerning a life so full of  
 s. *Addison*. 26. To be talked of; to be  
 —It has the greatest town in the island  
 s under the name of Ano Caprea, and is  
 al places covered with a very fruitful soil.

27. To pass; to be received.—Because  
 of my acquaintance set forth her praises  
 e, I will only repeat them, and spare my  
 tongue, since she goes for a woman. *Sidney*.  
 the man went among men for an old man  
 says of Saul. 1 *Sam*. xvii. 12.—A kind im-  
 agination makes a bold man have vigour and en-  
 ergy in his air and motion: it stamps value u-  
 pon his face, and tells the people he is to go for  
 h. *Collier*.—Clipping should be finally stop-  
 ped the money which remains should go ac-  
 cording to its true value. *Locke*. 28. To move

by mechanism.—This pope is decrepid, and the  
 bell goes for him. *Bacon*.

Clocks will go as they are set; but man,  
 Irregular man's never constant, never certain.  
*Ottaway*.

'Tis with our judgments as our watches, none  
 Go just alike, yet each believes his own. *Pope*.

29. To be in motion from whatever cause.—  
 The weyward sisters, hand in hand,  
 Posters of the sea and land,  
 Thus do go about, about. *Shak. Macbeth*.

—Clipt and washed money goes about, when the  
 entire and weighty lies hoarded up. *Waller*. 30.  
 To move in any direction.—Doctor, he is a curer  
 of souls, and you a curer of bodies: if you should  
 fight, you go against the hair of your professions.  
*Shak Merry Wives*.—Shall the shadow go forward  
 ten degrees, or go back ten degrees? 2 *Kings* xx.  
 9. 31. To flow; to pass; to have a course.—

The god I am, whose yellow water flows  
 Around these fields, and fattens as it goes,  
 Tyber my name. *Dryden's En*.

32. To have any tendency.—  
 Athenians, know

Against right reason all your counsels go;  
 This is not fair, nor profitable that,  
 Nor t'other question proper for debate. *Perf*.

33. To be in a state of compact or partnership.—  
 As a lion was bestriding an ox that he had newly  
 plucked down, a robber passing by cried out to  
 him, half shares: you should go your snip, says the  
 lion, if you were not so forward to be your own  
 carver. *L'Estrange*.—There was a hunting match  
 agreed upon betwixt a lion, an ass, and a fox,  
 and they were to go equal shares in the booty.  
*L'Estr*. 34. To be regulated by any method: to  
 proceed upon principles—Where the multitude  
 beareth sway, laws that shall tend to the preser-  
 vation of that state must make common smaller  
 offices to go by lot, for fear of strife and divisions  
 likely to arise. *Hosker*.—We are to go by another  
 measure. *Spratt*.—The principles I there went on,  
 I see no reason to alter. *Locke*.—The reasons that  
 they went upon were very specious and probable.

*Bentley*. 35. To be pregnant.—  
 Great bellied women,  
 That had not half a week to go. *Shak. H. VIII*.  
 The fruit she goes with,  
 I pray that it good time and life may find. *Shak*.  
 —Of living creatures some are a longer time in  
 the womb, and some shorter: women go com-  
 monly nine months, the cow and the ewe about  
 six months. *Bacon*.—Some do go with their young  
 the sixth part of a year, or two over or under, that  
 is, about six or nine weeks: and the whelps of  
 these see not till twelve days. *Brown*.—

And now with second hopes she goes,  
 And calls Lucina to her throws. *Milton*.

36. To pass; not to remain.—She began to afflict  
 him, and his strength went from him. *Judg*. xvi.  
 19. When our merchants have brought them, if  
 our commodities will not be enough, our money  
 must go to pay for them. *Locke*. 37. To pass, or  
 be loosed; not to be retained.—

Then he lets me go,  
 And, with his head over his shoulder turn'd,  
 He seem'd to find his way without his eyes. *Shak*.  
 Let

Let go the hand of that arch heretick.

*Shak. K. John.*  
38. To be expended.—Scholars are close and frugal of their words, and not willing to let any go for ornament, if they will not serve for use. *Felton.*  
39. To be in order of time or place.—We must enquire farther what is the connexion of that sentence with those that go before it, and those which follow it. *Watts's Log.* 40. To reach or be extended to any degree.—Can another man perceive that I am conscious of any thing, when I perceive it not my self? No man's knowledge here can go beyond his experience. *Locke.* 41. To extend to consequences.—It is not one matter that either directs or takes notice of these: it goes a great way barely to permit them. *L'Esrange.* 42. To reach by effects.—Considering the cheapness, so much money might go farther than a sum ten times greater could do now. *Wilkins.* 43. To extend in meaning.—His amorous expressions go no further than virtue may allow. *Dryden's Ovid.* 44. To spread; to be dispersed; to reach.

Whose flesh, torn off by lumps, the ravenous foe

In morsels cut, to make it farther go. *Tate's Juu.*  
45. To have influence; to be of weight; to be of value.—I had another reason to decline it, that ever us'd to go far with me upon all new inventions or experiments; which is, that the best trial of them is by time, and observing whether they live or no. *Temple.*—'Tis a rule that goes a great way in the government of a sober man's life, not to put any thing to hazard that may be secured by industry, consideration, or circumspection. *L'Esrange.*—Whatever appears against their prevailing vice goes for nothing, being either not applied, or passing for libel and slander. *Swift.* 46. To be rated one with another; to be considered with regard to greater or less worth.—I think, as the world goes, he was a good sort of man enough. *Arbut.* 47. To contribute; to conduce; to concur; to be an ingredient.—The medicines which go to the ointments are so strong, that, if they were used inwards, they would kill those that use them. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—More parts of the greater wheels go to the making one part of their lines. *Glanvill's Scepsis.*—There goes a great many qualifications to the completing this relation: there is no small share of honour and conscience and sufficiency required. *Collier.*—I give the sex their revenge, by laying together the many vicious characters that prevail in the male world, and shewing the different ingredients that go to the making up of such different humours and constitutions. *Addison.*—Something better and greater than high birth and quality must go toward acquiring those demonstrations of publick esteem and love. *Swift to Pope.* 48. To fall out, or terminate; to succeed.—

Your strong possession much more than your right,

Or else it must go wrong with you and me.

*Shak.*

How'er the business goes, you have made fault  
I th' boldness of your speech. *Shak.*

—I will send to thy father, and they shall declare unto him how things go with thee. *Tob. x. 8.*—In many armies, if the matter should be tried by duel

between two champions, the victory shall be the one side; and yet, if it be tried by the other side. *Bacon.*—It is the constant observation of all, that if a man had a cause depending in the court, it was one but it went against him. *South.*—At the time of the prince's landing, the father, enquiring how things would go, went over, like others, to the prince. *Swift.*—Whether it goes for me or against me, you must pay reward. *Watt's Logic.* 49. To be in an imperious sense.—It shall go ill with that is left in his tabernacle. *Job. xx.*—His name Beriah, because it went civil with his house. *1 Chron. vii. 23.* 50. To proceed or consequence.—

How goes the night, boy?

—The moon is down: I have not been clock;

And she goes down at twelve.

I had hope,

When violence was ceased, and war on  
All would have then have gone well.

—Duration in itself is to be considered as in one constant, equal, uniform course. *51. To Go about.* To attempt; to endeavour to set one's self to any business.—

O dear father,

It is thy business that I go about.

I lost him, but so found, as well I say  
He could not lose himself, but went about  
His father's business.

—Which answer exceedingly united the minds to them, who concurred only with as they saw them like to prevail in what went about. *Clarendon.*—Some men, from persuasion that they cannot reform their lives root out their old vicious habits, never set as attempt, endeavour, or go about it.

—Either my book is plainly enough written to be rightly understood by those who peruse with attention and indifferency, or else I have mine so obscurely that it is in vain to go about to mend it. *Locke.*—They never go about, as I said, to hide or palliate their vices; pose them freely to view. *Swift.* 52. To Go To err; to deviate from the right.—If a wife go aside, and commit a trespass against *Numb. v. 12.* 53. To Go between. To interpose to moderate between two.—I did go between as I said; but more than that, he loved her indeed, he was mad for her. *Shak.* 54.

by. To pass away unnoticed.—  
Do not you come my tardiness to chide  
That laps'd in time and passion, lets go  
Th' important acting of your dread cool

So much the more our carver's excel  
Which lets go by some sixteen years, and  
her

As she liv'd now.

What's that to us? The time goes by;

55. To Go by. To find or get in the course.  
In argument with men a woman ever  
Goes by the worse, whatever be her cause

—He's sure to go by the worst that contend

ry? that is too mighty for him. *L'Ess.*  
*o by.* To observe as a rule.—'Tis not  
 posed, that by searching one can possi-  
 ge of the size and form of a stone; and  
 e frequency of the fits, and violence of  
 oms, are a better rule to *go by.* *Sbars.*  
*o down.* To be swallowed; to be re-  
 ot rejected.—Nothing so ridiculous, nor  
 possible, but it *goes down* whole with  
 ith and earnest. *L'Ess.*—Folly will not  
 down in its own natural form with dis-  
 idges. *Dryden.*—If he be hungry, bread  
 own. *Locke.*—Ministers are so wise to  
 r proceedings to be accounted for by  
 at a distance, who often mould them in-  
 ems that do not only *go down* very well  
 out, but are supplies for pamphlets in  
 it age. *Swift.* 58. *To Go in and out.*  
 : business of life.—The Lord shall pre-  
 going out and thy coming in. *Ps.* 57.  
*and out.* To be at liberty.—He shall  
 out, and find pasture. *John.* x. 9. 60.  
 f. To die; to go out of life: to de-

mid the friends we miss were safe arrived:  
 rust *go off*; and yet, by these I see,  
 t a day as this is cheaply bought. *Sbak.*  
 manner he *went off*, not like a man that  
 out of life, but one that returned to his  
 tier. 61. *To Go off.* To depart from

eaders having charge from you to stand,  
 t *go off* until they hear you speak. *Sbak.*  
 on. To make attack.—

Bold Cethegus,  
 valour I have turn'd into his poison,  
 and so to daring, as he would  
 pon the Gods. *Ben Jonson.*  
 62. *To proceed.*—He found it a great  
 p that peace, but was fain to *go on* in his  
 67.—He that desires only that the work  
 id religion shall *go on*, is pleased with it,  
 s the instrument. *Taylor.*—I have esca-  
 threats of ill fits by these motions: if  
 , the only poltice I have dealt with is  
 the belly of a fat sheep. *Temple.*—To  
 the soul as *going on* from strength to  
 to consider that she is to shine for ever  
 acceptions of glory, and bughten to all  
*Addison.*—*Go on* in the glorious course  
 undertaken. *Addison.*—Copious bleeding  
 t effectual remedy in the beginning of  
 ; but when the expectoration *goes on*  
 y, not so proper, because it sometimes  
 t it. *Arbutnot.*—I have already hand-  
 abuses during the late management,  
 venient time shall *go on* with the rest.  
 Then we had found that design imprac-  
 e should not have *gone on* in so expen-  
 sagement of it. *Swift.*—Many clergy-  
 in so diminutive a manner, with such  
 slots and interlineations, that they are  
 : to *go on* without perpetual hesitations,  
 dinary expletives. *Swift.*—I wish you  
 go on with that noble work. *Berkley.*  
 over. To revolt; to betake himself  
 party.—In the change of religion, men  
 understandings don't so much consi-

der the principles as the practice of those to whom  
 they *go over.* *Addison.*—Power, which, accord-  
 ing to the old maxim, was used to follow, is now  
 gone over to money. *Swift.* 65. *To Go out.*  
 To go upon any expedition.—You need not have  
 pricked me: there are other men fitter to *go out*  
 than I. *Sbak.* 66. *To Go out.* To be extinguished.

Think'st thou the fiery fever will *go out*,  
 With titles blown from adulation? *Sbak.*  
 —Spirit of wine burned till it *go out* of itself, will  
 burn no more. *Bacon.*—The care of a state, or an  
 army, ought to be as constant as the chymist's fire,  
 to make any great production; and if it *goes out*  
 for an hour, perhaps the whole operation fails.  
*Temple.*—

The morning, as mistaken, turns about;  
 And all her early fires again *goes out.* *Dryden.*  
 —Let the acquaintance be decently buried, and  
 the flame rather *go out* than be smothered. *Collier*  
*of Friendship.*—

My blood runs cold, my heart forgets to  
 heave,  
 And life itself *goes out* at thy displeasure.

*Addison's Cat.*  
 And at her felt approach and secret might,  
 Art after art *goes out*, and all is night. *Page.*

67. *To Go through.* To perform thoroughly; to  
 execute.—Finding Pyrocles every way able to *go*  
*through* with that kind of life, he was desirous for  
 his sake as for his own to enter into it. *Sidney.*—  
 If you can as well *go through* with the statute laws  
 of that land, I will think you have not lost all your  
 time there. *Spenser.*—Kings ought not to suffer  
 their council to *go through* with the resolution and  
 direction, as if it depended on them, but take the  
 matter back into their own hands. *Bacon.*—He  
 much feared the call of Aurim had not the ardours  
 of mind enough to *go through* with such an under-  
 taking. *Ciarendon.*—The amazing difficulty and  
 greatness of his account will rather terrify than in-  
 form him, and keep him from setting heartily a-  
 bout such a task, as he despairs to *go through* with  
 it. *South.*—The powers in Germany are borrow-  
 ing money, in order to *go through* their part of  
 the expence. *Addison.* 68. *To Go through.* To  
 suffer; to undergo.—I tell thee that it is absolute-  
 ly necessary for the common good that thou  
 shouldst *go through* this operation. *Arbutnot.*  
 69. *To Go upon.* To take as a principle.—This  
 supposition I have *gone upon* through those papers.  
*Addison.* 70. The senses of this word are very  
 indistinct: its general notion is motion or progres-  
 sion. It commonly expresses passage from a place,  
 in opposition to *come*. This is often observable  
 even in figurative expressions. We say, the words  
 that *go* before and that *come* after: to day *goes*  
 away and to-morrow *comes*.

(2.) *To Go.* This verb is one of the many Eng-  
 lish words which are often used without meaning,  
 in the bombastic dialect of modern affectation.  
 That eminent and judicious critic, the late prof.  
 J. Hay Beattie has justly ridiculed the fashionable  
 phrases,—*To go to jury, To go to prove, To go into*  
*a variety of matter, &c.* in his humorous dialogue  
 in the shades between Dean Swift, a London  
 bookseller and Mercury, which we have repeat-  
 edly quoted. See BEATTIE, § 2; BLUEN, § 2;  
 To FEEL, § 3, &c. "Indeed," (says Mercury

to Swift) "the words, *line, meet, marked, feel, go,* and some others, may be used on all occasions, whether they have *meaning* or not.—His arguments *went to prove*, &c. Accounts from Spain *go to say*, that, &c. This because more verbose, is thought more elegant than—Accounts from Spain *say*—His arguments proved, &c."

(3.) \* *Go to. interj.* Come, come, take the right course. A scornful exhortation.—

*Go to*, then, O thou far renowned son  
Of great Apollo; shew thy famous might  
In medicine.

*Spenser.*

*Go to, go to*, thou art a foolish fellow;  
Let me be clear of thee.

*Shak.*

My favour is not bought with words like these:  
*Go to*; you'll teach your tongue another tale.

*Roswe.*

(1.) GOA, an island of the Indian Ocean near the W. and Malabar coast of Indostan, separated from the continent by the Mandova. It is 22 m. long and 6 broad, according to Dr Brookes; but Mr Cruttwell makes it only 24 in circumference. The soil is fertile, and produces excellent fruits, corn, &c. The climate is moderate from Oct. to March; in April and May very sultry, and from June, to Sept. almost constant rain.

(2.) GOA, a strong city of Asia, the capital of the above island. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1508, and is the chief town of all their settlements on this side the Cape of Good Hope. It is built on the N. side of the island, having the conveniency of a fine river, capable of receiving ships of the greatest burden, where they lie within a mile of the town. Its banks are beautified with churches, castles, and gentlemen's houses. The air being unwholesome, it is not so well inhabited as formerly. The viceroy's palace is a noble building; and stands at a small distance from the river, over one of the gates of the city, which leads to a spacious street, terminated by a beautiful church. This city contains a great number of handsome churches, convents, and cloisters, with a stately hospital; all well endowed, and kept in good repair. The market-place takes up an acre of ground; and in the shops may be had the produce of Europe, China, Bengal, and other countries. Every church has a set of bells, some of which are continually ringing. There are many Indian converts; but they generally retain some of their old customs; particularly they cannot be brought to eat beef. The clergy are numerous and illiterate; the churches are finely embellished, and have great numbers of images. In one of these churches, is a magnificent chapel of St Francis Xavier, whose tomb it contains: the tomb is of fine black marble from Lisbon; on the 4 sides of it the principal actions of his life are elegantly carved in basso relievo; the figures are admirably executed: It's form is pyramidal, and terminates with a coronet of mother-of-pearl. Within this chapel are excellent paintings by Italian masters; the subjects chiefly from Scripture. The tomb and chapel, must have cost an immense sum, the Portuguese justly esteem them the greatest rarities in the place. The houses are large and showy, but poorly furnished. Greens, fruits, roots, with a little bread, rice, and fish, are the principal diet of the natives, though they have hogs and fowls in plenty. The

river's mouth is defended by several fortifications, with large cannon on both sides the residence of a captain-general, who commands of all the Portuguese forces in India. They have two regiments of European infantry, 3 legions of sepoy's, 3 troops of horse, and a militia; in all, about 5000 men. Goa is at present in little estimation with the European powers; indeed the bigotry of the natives and their superstitious attachment to the idol of the serpent, so general, that the country formerly so fertile, is now reduced to a few thinly inhabited villages: the chief part of whose inhabitants have been banished: for they will not suffer any Mussulman to live within the precincts of the city, and these few are unable to carry on the trade of dry or manufactures of the country. The king of Portugal is obliged to send annually 1,000,000 of money, to defray the expences of government, which is generally swallowed up by the idleness of the king and his courtiers, and the soldiers. There was formerly an inquisition in Goa, but it is now abolished: the only remains, and its black outside is a fit emblem of the cruel and bloody transactions that pass within its walls. Provisions are to be had in great plenty and perfection. The chief trade of the country is in Arrack. Lon. 73. 46. E. Lat. 15. 28.

(3.) GOA, a town in the island of Celebes, on the S. coast. Lon. 120. 30. E. Lat. 5. 30.

\* GOAD. *n. f.* [*goad*, Saxon.] A sharp instrument with which oxen are driven forward.  
Oft in his harden'd hand a goad he

\* *To GOAD. v. a.* [from the noun.] To drive with the goad. 2. To incite to late; to instigate; to drive forward.—

Most dangerous

Is that temptation, that doth *goad* us  
To sin in loving virtue.

*Goaded* with most sharp occasions  
Which lay nice manners by, I put  
The use of your own virtues.

Of all that breathes the various passions  
Stung with delight, is *goaded* on by

(1.) GOADBY, Robert, an eminent English writer, born at Sherborne in Dorsetshire, who was bred at St John's College in Oxford. He compiled an *Illustration of the Holy Scriptures* in 3 vols fol. and a work entitled, *The Christian's Instructor*, the *life of Bonaventura*, &c. and established a newspaper in the western counties, entitled the *Sherborne Post*, which has a great circulation. He died 1778.

(2, 3.) GOADBY, 2 villages in Leicestershire.

(1.) \* GOAL. *n. f.* [*gaule*, French.] A pole, set up to mark the bounds of a field. The landmark set up to bound a race marked out to which racers run.—

As at the Olympian games, or Pythian  
Part curb their fiery steeds, or show  
With rapid wheels.

And the slope sun his upward beam  
Shoots against the dusky pole,  
Pacing toward the other goal.

2. The starting post.—

Hast thou beheld, when from the start,  
The

rtful charioteers with heaving heart  
the race? *Dryden.*  
al purpose; the end to which a design  
or poet has always the goal in his eye,  
sets him in his race: some beautiful de-  
he first establishes, and then contrives  
, which will naturally conduct him to  
*Hyden.*—  
individual seeks a several goal;  
it's great view is one, and that the  
ole. *Pope.*  
in, who here seems principal alone,  
acts second to some sphere unknown;  
s some wheel, or verges to some goal;  
: a part we see, and not a whole. *Pope.*  
ometimes improperly written for *gaol* or

AL. See GAOL, § 1 and 2.  
AR, James, a learned Dominican, born  
in 1601. In 1618 he was sent on a mis-  
sion to the Levant. On his return he resided at  
Levant. Here he was much esteemed by the Lite-  
rati. In 1647, he published at Paris, *Græcorum*  
*in Gr. and Lat. folio.* He also pub-  
lished translations of some of the Byzantine  
works, and died in 1651.

GOAR. *n. f.* [*goror*, Welsh.] Any edging  
of cloth to strengthen it. *Skinner.*  
AR, ST, ST GEVER, or ST GOWER, a  
German town, now in the French republic,  
on the Rhine and Moselle, lately in the  
possession of Hesse Rheinfeuld; with a strong fort  
on the W. bank of the Rhine, near Rhein-  
felden, was surrendered to the French, Oct.  
1792, with all its military stores. It lies 15  
miles E. of Coblenz, and 15 NW. of Bingen.  
2. E. Lat. 50. 10. N.

SHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in the  
Upper Rhine, on the E. bank of the  
Rhine, 15 miles E. of St Goar.

GOAT. *n. f.* [*gat*, Saxon and Scottish.]  
A kind of animal that seems a middle species  
between a deer and sheep.—

of goat, and slips of yew. *Sba. Macbeth.*  
Cyclops care not for your goat-fed Jove,  
or blest ones; we are better farre. *Chapm.*  
They draw naked boys riding and playing  
paper-mills upon goats, eagles, or dol-  
phins.—

little bear that rock'd the mighty Jove,  
an whole borrow'd shape conceal'd his  
eyes,  
and duty rais'd the pious maid.

AT, in zoology. See CAPRA.

BEARD. See GOAT'S-BEARD.

GOAT-CHAFFER. *n. f.* An insect; a kind  
of chaffer. *Bailey.*

AT-CHAFFER. See SCARABÆUS.

FEEDER. *n. f.* [*gat* and *byrd*, Sax. a feeder.]  
One whose employment is to tend  
the goats.

I think some goat-herd proud,  
as on yonder bank,  
he straying herd themselves doth shroud  
in the bushes rank? *Spenser's Past.*  
It gave the goat-herd good contentment,

. PART. II.

and the marquis and his servant chased the kid a-  
bout the stack. *Wotton.*

\* GOATISH. *adj.* [from *goat*.] Resembling a  
goat in any quality: as, rankness; lust.—An ad-  
mirable evasion of a whoremaster, man, to lay his  
*goatish* disposition on the change of a star. *Sbats,*  
*K. Lear.*—The last is notorious for its *goatish* smell,  
and tufts not unlike the beard of that lecherous a-  
nimal. *More against Aibeism.*

GOAT ISLAND, an isle of the United States, on  
the coast of Rhode Island, opposite Newport.  
Fort Washington is built on it.

\* GOATMARJORAM. *n. f.* The same with  
GOATSBEARD.

\* GOATMILKER. *n. f.* [*goat* and *milker*.] A  
kind of owl so called from sucking goats. *Bailey.*

(1.) \* GOATSBEARD. *n. f.* [*goat* and *beard*;  
*barba capri*.] A plant.

(2.) GOAT'S-BEARD. See TRAGOPOGON.

GOAT'S ISLAND, an island, in the E. Indian  
Ocean, one of the Bashee islands. Lon. 121. 0. E.  
Lat. 30. 6. N.

\* GOATSKIN. *n. f.* [*goat* and *skin*.]—  
Then fill'd two goat-skins, with her hands divine;  
With water one, and one with fable wine. *Pope.*

\* GOATSMILK. *n. f.* [*goat* and *milk*.] This is  
more properly two words.—After the fever and  
such like accidents are diminished, asses and *goat-*  
*milk* may be necessary. *Wigman.*

(1.) \* GOAT'S RUE. *n. f.* [*galega*.] A plant.—  
*Goat's Rue* has the reputation of being a great a-  
lexipharmick and sudorifick: the Italians eat it  
raw and boiled; with us it is of no esteem. *Hill.*

(2.) GOAT'S RUS. See GALEGA.

(1.) GOAT'S STONES, greater. See SATYRIUM.

(2.) GOAT'S STONES, lesser. See ORCHIS.

(1.) \* GOATS-THORN. *n. f.* [*goat* and *thorn*.]  
An herb.

(2.) GOATS-THORN. See ASTRAGALUS, § 2.  
GOATSUCKER. See CAPRIMULGUS.

(1.) GOAVE, GRAND, a town of Hispaniola,  
20 miles SW. of Leogane.

(2.) GOAVE, LITTLE, or } a sea port of Hispa-  
(2.) GOAVE, PETIT, } niola, with a har-  
bour capable of admitting ships of the largest size;  
20 miles WSW. of Leogane. Lon. 55. 5. W. of  
Ferro. Lat. 18. 30. N.

\* GOB. *n. f.* [*gobe*, French.] A small quanti-  
ty. A low word.—Do'st think I have so little wit  
as to part with such a *gob* of money? *L'Estrange.*  
GOBAN, a town of Persia, in Chusistan.

\* GOBBET. *n. f.* [*gobe*, Fr.] a mouthful; as  
much as can be swallowed at once.—

Therewith she spew'd, out of her filthy maw,  
A flood of poison, horrible and black,  
Full of great lumps of flesh and *gobbets* raw. *Spens.*  
By devilish policy art thou grown great,  
And like ambitious Sylla, overgorg'd  
With *gobbets* of thy mother's bleeding heart.

*Shakespeare's Henry VI.*  
—The cooks, slicing it into little *gobbets*, prick it  
on a prong of iron, and hang it in a furnace. *Sar-*  
*day's Travels.*—

The giant gorg'd with flesh, and wine, and  
blood,

Lay stretch'd at length, and snoring in his den,  
Beiching raw *gobbets* from his maw, of cherub's

U u With

With purple wine and cruddled gore confus'd.  
*Addison.*

\* To GOBBET. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To swallow at a mouthful. A low word.—Down comes a kite powdering upon them, and gobbets up both together. *L'Esrange.*

(1.) GOBBI, a province of Loango, in Africa, between CAMMA, and Cape Lopez Gonzalvo.

(2.) GOBBI, the capital of the above prov. lies about a day's journey from the sea. Their rivers abound with a variety of fish; but are infested with sea-horses, which do great mischief both by land and water. The principal commerce with the natives is in logwood, elephants teeth, and tails, the hair of which is highly valued.

\* To GOBBLE. *v. a.* [*gobber*, to swallow, old Fr.] To swallow hastily with tumult and noise.—The sheep were so keen upon the acorns, that they gobbled up now and then a piece of the coat along with them. *L'Esrange.*

Of last year's corn in barn great store;  
Fat turkies gobbling at the door. *Prior.*

The time too precious now to waste,  
And supper gobbled up in haste,  
Again afresh to cards they run. *Swift.*

\* GOBBLER. *n. s.* [from *gobble*.] One that devours in haste; a gormand; a greedy eater.

GOBBO CORTONESE. Peter Paul, a celebrated painter of fruit and landscapes, born at Cortona in 1580. He learned the principles of design from his father; was afterwards the disciple of Crescenzio at Rome, and perfected himself in his profession, by copying after nature, with judgment and accuracy. By his skill in the chiaro-scuro he gave an exact and expressive roundness to his fruits, &c. But he chiefly excelled in colouring. He died in 1640.

GOBCEIN, a town of Germany, in the Palatinate of the Rhine, 18 miles SE. of Philipsburg. Lon. 8. 56. E. Lat. 49. 6. N.

(1.) GOBELIN, Giles, a famous French dyer, in the reign of Francis I. who discovered a method of dying a beautiful scarlet, and his name has been given ever since to the finest French scarlets.

(2.) GOBELIN, a small river of France, in the department of Paris.

(3.) GOBELIN, *n. s.* in commerce, a fine kind of French tapestry, first manufactured at Paris, in 1666.

\* GO-BETWEEN. *n. s.* [*go* and *between*.] One that transacts business by running between two parties. Commonly in an ill sense.—Even as you came in to me, her assistant, or *go between*, parted from me: I say I shall be with her between ten and eleven. *Shak. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

GOBIER, Charles, a French author, born at St Malo, in 1644. He was a Jesuit, and being secretary to the missions of that society, wrote *Lettres curieuses et edifiantes*, containing the natural history, geography, and policy, of the countries explored by the Jesuits; and *Histoire des Isles Mariannes*. He died at Paris in 1708.

GOBIN, ST, a town and castle of France, in the dep. of Aisne, and late prov. of Picardy, near Fere. It has a manufactory of fine plate glass. Lon. 3. 23. E. Lat. 49. 29. N.

GOBIUS, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of thoracici. They have two

holes between the eyes, 4 rays in the of the gills, and the belly fins are united form. There are 8 species, principally distinguished by the number of rays in their

(1.) \* GOBLET. *n. s.* [*goblet*, Fr.] or cup, that holds a large draught.—

My figur'd goblets for a dish of wine  
We love not loaded boards, as  
crown'd;

But free from surfeits our repose is found  
Crown high the goblets with a cheerful  
Enjoy the present hour, adjourn  
thought.

(2.) GOBLETS are ordinarily of a round and without either foot or handle. Besides the word from the Greek *κωβηλον*, a

(1.) \* GOBLIN. *n. s.* [Fr. *gobeline*, *ver* has once retained; writing it in three This word some derive from the *Gibellin* tion in Italy; so that *esse* and *goblin* is *Gibelline*, because the children of either terrified by their nurses with the name of but it appears that *esse* is Welsh, and more than those factions. *Silff Utton*, are *the night*, and the Germans likewise has spirits among them named *Goboldi*, *Gobelin* might be derived.] 1. An evil walking spirit; a frightful phantom.—

Angels and ministers of grace descend  
Be thou a spirit of health, or *goblin*;  
Bring with thee airs from heav'n, or  
hell!

To whom the *goblin*, full of wrath  
Art thou that traitor angel? *Milt.*  
—Always, whilst he is young, be sure  
his tender mind from all impressions of  
of spirits and *goblins*, or any fearful appa-  
in the dark. *Locke.* 2. A fairy; an elf

His son was Elfinel, who overcame  
The wicked *gobelins* in bloody field  
But Elfant was of most renowned  
Who all of crystal did Panthea build  
Go, charge my *goblins* that they  
joints

With dry convulsions; shorten up  
With aged cramps. *Shakespeare*  
Mean time the village rouses up  
While well attested, and as well be-  
Heard solemn goes the *goblin* story rot  
(2.) GOBLIN. See APPARITION, GHOST,  
GOBLIN, and SPECTRE.

GOBONY. See COMPONE.

GOBRIAS, one of the 7 Persian  
conspired against Smerdis the Magiar  
usurped the throne on the death of  
A. A. C. 521. See PERSIA. He was  
in-law of Darius I, and accompanied the  
expedition against the Scythians.

\* GO-BY. *n. s.* Delusion; artifice;  
tion; over-reach.—Except an apprentice  
ted how to adulterate and varnish, and  
*go-by* upon occasion, his master may  
with neglect. *Colleur.*

\* GO-CART. *n. s.* [*go* and *cart*.]  
in which children are inclosed to tea-  
walk, and which they push forward  
ger of falling.—

ig children, who are try'd in  
to keep their steps from sliding,  
members knit, and legs grow stronger,  
of such machine no longer. *Prior.*  
town of the French republic, in the  
Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Cleves:  
s, 6 miles S. of Cleves. It has three  
id was surrounded with walls in 1291.  
E. Lat. 51. 39. N.  
IEIM, or } a town of Germany, in  
LEN, } the duchy of Wirtemberg,  
leidelberg, and 24 NNW. of Stuttgart.  
LANO, a county of Sardinia.  
ANO, the capital of the above county,  
, seated on the Thurso, 25 miles E.

LENIUS, Conrad, a learned German  
in Westphalia, in 1486. He wrote  
cero De Officiis, a translation of Lu-  
cretius, &c. He died in 1539.

LENIUS, Rodolph, a voluminous Ger-  
born in the county of Wardeck, in  
was about 50 years professor of logic  
and died there in 1628. His works  
historical.

LENIUS, Rodolph, a German physici-  
Wirtemberg, in 1572. He was pro-  
fic and mathematics at Marburg. He  
atije o- the cure of wounds by the Mag-  
d in 1621.

D. n. f. [*God*, Sax. which likewise fig-  
The same word passes in both senses  
cidental variations through all the  
ialects.] 1. The Supreme Being.—*God*  
ad they that worship him must wor-  
spirit and in truth. *John* iv. 24.—

*God* above  
een thee and me. *Shak. Macbeth.*  
urches of *God* are united into one by  
discipline and government, by virtue  
same Christ ruleth in them all. *Pearson.*  
eme Being, whom we call *God*, is ne-  
existent, eternal, immense, omni-  
otent, and best being; and therefore  
who is and ought to be esteemed most  
ly. *Grew's Colins.* 2. A god; an idol.  
ificeth unto any *god*, save unto the  
be shall be utterly destroyed. *Exod.*

to wanton boys are we to the *gods*,  
us for their sport. *Shak. K. Lear.*  
*god* of arms, whose iron sceptre sways  
ing North, and Hyperborean seas,  
san colds, and Thracia's Winter coast,  
nd thy seeds, and thou art honour'd  
*Dryden.*  
n or thing deified or too much ho-  
hose end is destruction, whose *god* is  
*Phil.* iii.—

I am not Licio,  
at scorns to live in this disguise,  
one as leaves a gentleman,  
s a *god* of such a cullion. *Shak.*

§ 1. def. 1. See CHRISTIANITY,  
ICS, MORAL PHILOSOPHY, and THE-

§ 1. def. 2.) is also used in speaking of  
ics of the heathens, many of whom

were only creatures to which divine honours and  
worship were superstitiously paid. The Greeks  
and Latins did not mean by the name *God*, an all-  
perfect being, whereof eternity, infinity, omnipre-  
sence, &c. were essential attributes: with them,  
the word only implied an excellent and superior  
nature; and accordingly they give the appellation  
*gods* to all beings of a rank or class higher and  
more perfect than that of men; and especially to  
those who were inferior agents in the divine admi-  
nistration, all subject to the one Supreme. Thus  
men themselves, according to their system, might  
become gods after death; inasmuch as their souls  
might attain to a degree of excellence superior to  
what they were capable of in life. See MYTHO-  
LOGY.

\* To *GOD*, v. a. [from the noun.] To deify; to  
exalt to divine honours.—

This last old man,  
Lov'd me above the measure of a father;  
Nay, *godded* me, indeed. *Shak. Coriolanus.*  
GODAH, a town of Asia, in Indostan.

(1.) GODALMIN, or } a parish of England, in  
(1.) GODALMING, } *Surry* which is divided  
into 9 tythings. It is agreeably diversified with  
hills and valleys. The *Wye* runs through it, sup-  
plies it with fish, and drives 4 corn and 2 paper  
mills. A bridge was built over it in 1785. This  
parish abounds with a peculiar kind of peats, that  
are reckoned better than pit coals.

(2.) GODALMING, a town in the above parish,  
(N<sup>o</sup> 1.) on the *Wye*, where it divides into several  
streams. It is a corporation, and by its charter  
the chief magistrate is a warden chosen yearly,  
with 8 assistants. It carries on manufactures of  
kerseys and stockings; and is famous for liquorice.  
It has a market on Wed. and fairs Feb. 13, Sept.  
28, and Nov. 28. In 1739, the small-pox carried  
off above 500 persons in three months, which was  
more than a 3d of the inhabitants. It lies 4 miles  
SW. of Guildford and 35 of London. Lon. o. 34-  
W. Lat. 51. 13. N.

GODANNA, a town of Persia, in the prov. of  
Iraq, 105 miles E. of Isfahan.

GODAVERY, GODURY, or GONDA, a river  
of Indostan, which rises about 70 miles NE. of  
Bombay, and whose waters, at least in the upper  
part of its course, are esteemed sacred by the Hin-  
doos; who believe that ablutions performed in  
them have a greater religious efficacy than those  
performed in any other river. After crossing Dow-  
latabad and Golconda, from W. to E. it runs SE.  
and receives the Bain Gongga; about 90 miles from  
the sea, it divides into two large branches at Raja-  
mundry; and these subdividing into inferior bran-  
ches, its waters fall into the Bay of Bengal by  
various mouths; which form harbours at Bandar-  
malanka, Coringa, Ingeram, Narsapour, Yalam,  
&c. between Lon. 81. 40. and 82. 50. E. and be-  
tween Lat. 16. 20. and 16. 50. N.

\* GODCHILD. n. f. [*god* and *child*.] A term of  
spiritual relation; one for whom one became spon-  
sor at baptism, and promised to see educated as a  
Christian.

GODDARD, Jonathan, M. D. an eminent phy-  
sician and chemist, and one of the first promoters  
of the Royal Society. He was born about 1617;  
educated and graduated at Oxford; was elected a



fellow of the college of physicians in 1646, and appointed reader of the anatomical lecture in 1647. Oliver Cromwell appointed him first physician to the army, a member of the council of state, and warden of Merton college. But he lost this office on the restoration. He was elected professor of physic in Gresham college, in 1655. He prepared all his own medicines; and in 1668, published a treatise, recommending that practice to all physicians. He was the inventor of the GUTTÆ ANGLICANÆ. He died of an apoplectic fit in 1674. Bishop Seth Ward says, he was the first Englishman who made a telescope.

\* GODDAUGHTER. *n. f.* [*god* and *daughter*.] A girl for whom one became sponsor in baptism. A term of spiritual relation.

(1.) \* GODDESS. *n. f.* [*from god*.] A female deity.—

Hear, nature, hear; dear *goddess*, hear a father!  
*Shakespeare.*

A woman I forswore; but I will prove,  
Thou being a *goddess*, I forswore not thee:  
My vow was earthly, thou a heav'nly love. *Shak.*

I long have waited in the temple nigh,  
Built to the gracious *goddess*'s Clemency;  
But reverence thou the pow'r. *Dryden's Fob.*

From his seat the *goddess* born arose,  
And thus undaunted spoke. *Dryden's Fob.*  
—When the daughter of Jupiter presented herself  
among a crowd of *goddesses*, she was distinguished  
by her graceful stature and superior beauty. *Addis.*

Modesty with-held the *goddess*'s train. *Pope.*

(2.) GODDESSES. The ancients had almost as many goddesses as gods: such were Juno, Minerva, Diana, &c. The virtues, graces, and principal advantages of life; truth, justice, piety, liberty, fortune, victory, &c. were all represented as goddesses; which was paying no small compliment to the fair sex. But to balance this, the Furies, Harpies, &c. were also represented as goddesses.

\* GODDESS-LIKE. *adj.* [*goddess* and *like*.] Resembling a goddess.—

Then female voices from the shore I heard;  
A maid amidst them *goddess-like* appear'd. *Pope.*

GODDINGTON, two small towns of England, in Kent and Oxfordshire.

GODEAU, Anthony, bishop of Grasse and Vence, in France, was born at Dreux, in 1605. He was a very voluminous writer. His principal works are, 1. *An ecclesiastical history*, in 3 vols. fol. containing the first 8 centuries, as he never finished more. 2. *Translation of the Psalms into French verse*; which was so well approved, that even those of the reformed religion preferred it to that of Marot. He died in 1671.

GODERVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine, 9 miles NE. of Montivilliers, and 15 NW. of Gaudebec.

(1.) \* GODFATHER. *n. f.* [*god* and *father*.] The sponsor at the font.—He had a son by her, and the king did him the honour to stand *godfather* to his child. *Bacon's Henry VII.*—Confirmation, a profitable usage of the church, transcribed from the apostles, consists in the child's undertaking in his own name the baptismal vow; and, that he may more solemnly enter this obligation, bringing some

*godfather* with him, not now, as in baptism procurator. *Hammond.*

(2.) GODFATHERS and GODMOTHERS: sons who, at the baptism of infants, promise their future conduct, and solemnly promise they will renounce the devil and all his works, follow a life of piety and virtue; and themselves under an indispensable obligation to instruct them, and watch over their conduct. This custom is of great antiquity in the Christian church, and was probably instituted to prevent idolatry, in case the child died before they arrived at the years of discretion. The number of godfathers and godmothers formerly great, but is reduced to 2, in the church of Rome; and 3, in the church of England.

(1.) GODFREY of Bouillon, or Boulogne, of Lorraine, a most celebrated crusader, and pious general. He was chosen general of the expedition which the Christians undertook for the recovery of the Holy Land, and led his army to prepare for the war. He took Jerusalem from the Turks in 1099; and was made king of Jerusalem. His piety would not permit him to wear gold in the city where his Saviour was crowned with thorns. The sultan of Egypt afterwards sent a terrible army against him; which he defeated, with the slaughter of about 100,000 of the enemy. He died in 1106.

(2.—6.) GODFREY. See GOTMOPREY.

GODHEAB, or GOOD HOPE, a settlement in W. Greenland. Lon. 50. 10. W. Lat. 60. 10. N.

\* GODHEAD. *n. f.* [*from god*.] 1. Deity; divinity; divine nature. It is used to denote the idols and the true God.—

Be content;  
Your low-laid son our *godhead* will upraise.  
At the holy mount

Of heav'n's high-seated top, th'impious  
Of *godhead*, fix'd for ever firm and fast  
The filial pow'r arriv'd. *Milton's*  
So may thy *godhead* be content,  
So the returning year be bliss.

2. A deity in person; a god or goddess. *Shakespeare's Timon.*—

Adoring first the *genius* of the place  
The nymphs and native *godheads* yet  
Dr

GODIVA, a lady of the 11th century, famous for an uncommon act of generosity. She gave her husband's property, and her own, to the people of Coventry. See CANTON.

\* GODLESS. *adj.* [*from god*.] Without duty to God; atheistical; wicked; impious.—Of these two sorts of men, but the one has utterly no knowledge of the other studies how to persuade thee there is no such thing to be known. *H*

That *godless* crew  
Rebellious.

For faults not his, for-guilt and  
Of *godless* men, and of rebellious  
him his ungrateful country sent,  
Their best Camillus, into banishment

\* GODLIKE. *adj.* [*god* and *like*.] Resembling a deity; supremely excellent.



Adam his illustrious guest besought,  
 us the *godlike* angels answer'd mild. *Mil-*  
 ng and much revolving in his breast,  
 est the mighty work he might begin  
 iour to mankind, and which way first  
 his *godlike* office now mature. *Milton.*  
 rince shall be so wise and *godlike*, as, by  
 l laws of liberty, to secure protection  
 ragement to the honest industry of man-  
*ke.*

**GODDING.** *n. f.* [from *god.*] A little divini-  
 mutive god.—  
 puny *godlings* of inferior race,  
 humble statues are content with brass.

*Dryden's Juv.*

**GODLINESS.** *n. f.* [from *godly.*] 1. Piety to  
 General observation of all the duties  
 l by religion.—Virtue and *godliness* of life  
 'ed at the hands of the minister of God.

**GODLY.** *adj.* [from *god.*] 1. Pious towards  
 rant that we may hereafter live a *godly*,  
 , and sober life. *Com. Prayer.* 2. Good;  
 ; religious.—Help, Lord, for the *godly*  
 th, for the faithful fail among the chil-  
 en. *Pf. xii.* 1.—The same church is real-  
 this world, in relation to all *godly* per-  
 ained in it, by a real infused sanctity.

**GODLY.** *adv.* Piously; righteously. By  
 should be *godlily*, but the repetition of  
 le is too harsh.—The apostle St Paul  
 that every one that will live *godly* in  
 us must suffer persecution. *Hooker.*

**GODLYHEAD.** *n. f.* [from *godly.*] Goodness;  
 ous. An old word.—

his, and many more such outrage,  
 your *godlyhead* to a swage  
 vorous rigour of his might. *Spenser.*

**GODLY,** *n. f.* an epithet applied to our Savi-  
 the divine and human natures being u-  
 is person.

**GODMANCHESTER,** a borough of Hunt-  
 re, 16 miles from Cambridge, and 57  
 don. It has a bridge over the Ouse,  
 to Huntingdon; was formerly a Ro-  
 by the name of *Durosponte*, where  
 man coins have been often dug up;  
 ding to old writers, in the time of the  
 was the see of a bishop, and had a castle  
 ne Gorman a Danish king, from which  
 was called GORMANCHESTER. It is  
 a fertile soil, abounding with corn. It is  
 no town in England kept more ploughs  
 an this has done. The inhabitants for-  
 ived their kings with nine score ploughs  
 , finely adorned with trappings, &c.  
 made it a corporation, under 2 bailiffs  
 istsants. Here is a school, called the  
 nmar School of queen Elizabeth. On  
 de of the town is an ancient seat of the  
 ndwich. Near this place, in the Lon-  
 between Huntingdon and Caxton, is a  
 known to travellers by the name of *Beg-*  
*h.*

**GODHAM,** a town in Yorkshire.

**GODINSTON,** a town in Dorsetshire.

**GODMOTHER.** *n. f.* [god and mother.] A

woman who has undertaken sponson in baptism.  
 A term of spiritual relation.

(2.) GODMOTHERS. See GODFATHER, § 2.

(1.) GODOLPHIN, John, an eminent English  
 civilian, born in the island of Sicily, in 1617, and  
 educated at Oxford. In 1642-3, he was created  
 LL. D. in 1653, he was appointed one of the  
 judges of the admiralty; and at the Restoration,  
 he was made one of the king's advocates. He was  
 esteemed as great a master of divinity as of law;  
 and published, 1. The holy limbeck. 2. The holy  
 arbour. 3. A view of the admiral's jurisdiction.  
 4. The orphan's legacy. 5. *Repertorium canonicum*,  
 &c. He died in 1678.

(2.) GODOLPHIN, in geography, a hill of Eng-  
 land, in Cornwall, E. of Mount's Bay, and 4 miles  
 from Market-Jew; famous for its tin mines.

(1.) GODRA, a circar of Indostan, in Guzerat.

(2.) GODRA, the capital of the above circar, 55  
 miles E. of Amedabad. Lon. 73. 40. E. Lat. 22.  
 50. N.

GODSHILL, a hill in the Isle of Wight.

\* GODSHIP. *n. f.* [from *god.*] The rank or cha-  
 racter of a god; deity; divinity.—

Discourfing largely on this theme,

O'er hills and dales their *godships* came. *Prior.*

GOD'S MERCY, ISLANDS OF, four isles at the  
 NW. extremity of Hudson's Straits. Lon. 73. 0.  
 W. Lat. 63. 45. N.

\* GONSON. *n. f.* [god and son.] One for whom  
 one has been sponfor at the font.—

What, did my father's *godson* seek your life?

He whom my father named? your Edgar? *Shak.*

GODSTONE, a village in Surry.

GODSTOW, a place NW. of Oxford, in an  
 island formed by the Isis, after it is joined by the  
 Evenlode. It is famous for fish, but more so for  
 the ruins of that nunnery, which Rosamond quit-  
 ted for the embraces of Henry II. The natives  
 show a great hole in the earth, where, they say,  
 is a subterraneous passage, under the river to  
 Woodstock, by which she used to pass and repass.  
 Little more now remains than ragged walls, scat-  
 tered over a considerable extent of ground. An  
 arched gateway, and another venerable ruin, part  
 of the tower of the conventual church, are still  
 standing. Near the altar in this church Rosamond  
 was buried, but the body was afterwards remo-  
 ved by order of a bishop of Lincoln. The only  
 entire part is small, formerly a private chapel.  
 Not many years ago, a stone coffin, said to have  
 been Rosamond's, was to be seen here. The cha-  
 pel now serves for a stable.

GODURY. See GODAVERY.

\* GODWARD. *adj.* To Godward is toward God.  
 So we read, *Hac Arethusa tenus, for balenus Are-*  
*thusa.*—And such trust have we through Christ to  
 Godward. 2 Cor.

GODWICK, a village in Norfolk.

(1.) GODWIN, earl of Kent. See ENGLAND,  
 §. 18.

(2.) GODWIN, Francis, successively bishop of  
 Landaff and Hereford, was born in 1567. He was  
 the son of Dr Thomas Godwin, bishop of Bath  
 and Wells; and was a good mathematician, an  
 excellent philosopher, a pure Latinist, and an ac-  
 curate historian. He understood the true theory  
 of the moon's motion a century before it was ge-  
 nerally

nerally known. He first started those hints afterwards pursued by Bp. Wilkins, in his *Secret and Swift messenger*; and published *A catalogue of the lives of English bishops*. He has been accused of simony, in disposing of preferments, to provide for his children. He died in 1648.

(3.) GODWIN, Mrs. See WOLLSTONECRAFT.

(4.) GODWIN, Thomas. See GODWYN, N° 2.

(5.) GODWIN SANDS. See GOODWIN, N° 3.

(1.) \* GODWIT. *n. f.* [*god*, and *wita*, an animal.] A bird of particular delicacy.—

Nor ortelans nor *godwits* crown his board.

*Cowley.*

(2.) GODWIT. See SCOLOPAX.

(1.) GODWYN, E. of Kent. See ENGLAND, § 17.

(2.) GODWYN, Thomas, a learned English author born in 1517, master of the free-school at Abington in Berkshire; where he educated many youths, who became eminent in church and state. He was a man of great learning: He wrote *Historia Romanae anthologia*, *Synopsis antiquitatum Hebraicarum*, *Moses & Aaron*, *Florilegium Phrascon*, &c. He died in 1642.

\* GODYELD. } *adv.* [corrupted from *God*

\* GODYELD. } *field* or *protecl.*] A term of thanks. Now not used.—

Herein I teach you,

How you should bid *godyeld* us for your pains,  
And thank us for your trouble. *Shak. Macbeth.*

\* GOEL. *adj.* [*golen*, Saxon.] Yellow. An old word.—

In March at the furthest, dry season or wet,  
Hop roots so well chosen let skilful go set;  
The *goeler* and younger, the better I love;  
Well gutted and pared, the better they prove.

*Tuffer.*

GOELANS, a promontory of N. America on the N. side of Lake Ontario, 33 miles SW. of Fort Frontinac.

GOELL, a town in Holstein, near Oldenburg.

GOELWARA, a circar of Indostan in Guzerat, on the W. coast of the Gulf of Cambaya.

\* GOER. *n. f.* [from *go*.] 1. One that goes; a runner.—

I would they were in Africk both together,  
Myself by with a needle, that I might prick  
The *goer* back. *Shak. Cymbeline.*

Such a man

Might be a copy to these younger times;  
Which follow'd well, would now demonstrate  
them

But *goers* backward. *Shak. All's well.*

—Nothing could hurt either of us so much as the intervening officious impertinence of those *goers* between us, who in England pretend to intimacies with you, and in Ireland to intimacies with me. *Pope to Swift.* 2. A walker; one that has a gait or manner of walking good or bad.—The earl was so far from being a good dancer, that he was no graceful *goer*. *Wotton.* 3. The foot. Obsolete,

A double mantle, cast

A'thwart his shoulders, his faire *goers* grac'ft  
With fitted shoes. *Chapman.*

GOEREE, William, a learned bookseller of Amsterdam, born at Middleburg, in 1635. He was a man of taste, and wrote, 1. A General Introduction to the Art of Painting: 2. A Trea-

tise on the principles of Architecture: Jewish Antiquities; printed at Utrecht in 2 vols. folio. He died at Amsterdam.

(1.) GOES, or TER-GOES, a town of the vian republic, in the dept. of the Meuse, devant prov. of Zealand; seated on the I. of the isle of S. Beveland, of which it is tal, on an arm of the Scheldt, from when a canal. It was nearly destroyed by action of the sea, in 1548: In 1564, great it was burnt: The Dutch took it in 17, Prince Maurice fortified it; so that it has gates and 4 bastions. In 1618, the great was burnt, but was rebuilt in an elegant Its chief trade is in grain and salt. It lies E. of Flushing, and 20 of Middleburg. 50. E. Lat. 51. 30. N.

(2.) GOES, a town of Portugal, in the of Beira, 9 miles E. of Coimbra.

GOESIIUS, William, a learned Dutch born at Leyden, and son-in-law of Danius. Among other critical works, he has notations on Petronius Arbiter; which joined to Burman's edition of that work died in 1618.

GOEZ, Damian DE, a Portuguese of great repute, born at Alanguar, of a noble, and educated at the court of K. I He travelled through the chief countries of and became acquainted with Erasmus, Olaus Magnus, Cardinals Bembo and M. Conrad Gloenius, Peter Nannius, and literati. He married and spent several Louvain; and not only wrote the history siege in 1542, but bravely put himself at of the soldiers, and contributed much to fence. After this K. John III. recalled Portugal, in order to write the history kingdom; but the favours with which march loaded him, procured him so much that he was first falsely accused and cast Lisbon; and afterwards found murder own house. He wrote, 1. *Fides, Religio que Ethioptom*: 20. *De Imperio et rebus orum*: 3. *Hispania*: 4. *Urbs Olisippone*: 5. *Chronica do Rey Dom Emanuel*: 6. *do Principe Dom Joan*: and others which have been often printed, and are esteemed

GOFF, Thomas, B. D. an English born at Essex, in 1592. He was educated at Westminster, studied at Oxford; took or obtained the living of E. Clandon, Surrey but marrying a *Xantippe*, her tongue shortened his days, and he died in 1700 wrote 5 tragedies, published after his death several sermons, besides two Latin funerals printed in 1622 and 1627.

GOFFSTOWN, a town of New Hampshire in Hillborough county, on the W. side of Merrimack, 60 miles W. of Portsmouth

GOG and MAGOG, two names general together in scripture. (Ezek. xxxviii. xxxix. 1, 2, &c. Rev. xx. 8.)

Moses Magog the son of Japhet, but *Satan* in Gen. x. 2. 1. Chr. i. 5.) Gog was prince gog, according to Ezekiel, Magog being of the country or people. The general ancients made Magog the father of the

and several interpreters discovered  
 leys of their name in the provinces of  
 ary. Others supposed that the Persi-  
 ic descendants of Magog. Some have  
 hat the Goths were descended from  
 lagog; and that the wars described by  
 nd undertaken by Gog against the  
 those which the Goths carried on a-  
 Roman empire, in the 5th century.

s placed Gog in the neighbourhood of  
 He derives the name of this celebra-  
 tion from the Hebrew *Gogchasan*, "the  
 Gog." He maintains that Prometheus,  
 chained to Caucasus by Jupiter, is Gog,  
 er. There is a province in Iberia call-  
 garene. Most commentators think,  
 nd Magog, mentioned in Ezekiel and  
 ions, are to be taken in an allegorical  
 uch princes as were enemies to the  
 saints. Thus many by Gog in Eze-  
 and Antiochus Epiphanes, the perse-  
 ose Jews who were firm to their religi-  
 the person of the same name in the Reve-  
 y suppose Antichrist to be meant; the  
 y of the church and faithful. Some  
 ured to prove that Gog, spoken of  
 means Cambyfes king of Persia. Others  
 plausibility think that Gog and Magog  
 relations denote all the enemies of the  
 so should be persecutors of it to the  
 ion of ages. From the present state  
 opinion, and the rapid progress of in-  
 he civilized parts of Europe and Ame-  
 ns not improbable, that Gog and Ma-  
 nt the two last powerful opponents of  
 r, DEISM and ATHEISM.

RD, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothland,  
 NW. of Linköping.

VA, Antony Herman, a German phyfi-  
 or of *Arifoxeni Harmonicorum Elemen-*  
 ls. published at Venice in 1592

OGGLE. *v. n.* To look askint.—

id all over with disgrace,

en by her in such a place,

nade him hang his head, and scowl,

ik and goggle like an owl. *Hudibras.*

ighs, nor groans, nor goggling eyes did

it. *Dryden.*

GLE-EYED. *adj.* [*scagl egen. Sax.*]

d; not looking straight.—They are de-

natural, or lame; and very unseemly

oon, except to men that be goggle-eyed

. *Ascham.*

LES, in surgery, instruments used for

isting, or that distortion of the eyes

asions this disorder. They are short

bes, composed of ivory stained black,

a plate of the same ivory fixed in the

their anterior extremities. Through the

each of these plates is a small circular

t the size of the pupil of the eye, for

iffion of the rays of light. These gog-

be continually worn in the day time,

asicles of the eye are brought to act re-

uniformly, so as to direct the pupil

rwards; and by these means the cure

ner or later effected.

LAND, an island of Russia, in the Gulf

of Finland, 80 miles W. of Petersburg. Lon. 44-  
 48. E. of Ferro. Lat. 60. 10. N.

GOGLIONIS, a town of Naples, in the prov.  
 of Capitanata 7½ miles S. of Termoli.

GOGMAGOG HILLS, hills three miles from  
 Cambridge, remarkable for the intrenchments and  
 other works cast up there: which some suppose  
 were a Roman camp; and others a work of the  
 Danes.

GOGNO, a river of the Piedmontese republic,  
 which runs into the Po, near St Nogaro.

GOGO, a town of Indostan, in Guzerat, near  
 the Gulf of Cambaya, 64 miles NW. of Surat,  
 and 84 SSW. of Amedabad. Lon. 71 53. E. Lat.  
 21. 45. N.

GOGOLEV, a town of Russia, in the province  
 of Kiow, 20 miles E. of Kiow.

GOGRA, or SOONJEW, a large river of Asia,  
 which rises in Thibet, from Lake Lanke-Dhe, in  
 Lat. 33. 17. N. and forcing its way through Mount  
 Himmaleh, runs SE. and joins the Ganges above  
 Chuprah in Bahar.

GOGUET, Antony-Yves, a French writer,  
 author of a celebrated work, intitled, *L'Origine  
 des Loix, des Arts, des Sciences, & de leur Progres  
 chez les anciens Peuples*, 1758, 3 vols. 4to: which  
 has been since translated into English. His father  
 was an advocate, and he was born at Paris in 1706.  
 The reputation he gained by it was great: but he  
 enjoyed it a short time, dying in the same year of  
 the small pox; which he always dreaded. Con-  
 rad Fugere, to whom he left his library and his  
 MSS. was so deeply affected with his death, that  
 he died himself about 3 days after him.

(1.) GOHUD, a circar of Indostan, in Agra,  
 subject to a rajah, who is tributary to the Poonah  
 Mahrattas

(2.) GOHUD, the capital of the above circar;  
 55 miles SSE. of Agra. Lon. 78. 44. E. Lat. 26.  
 24. N.

GOJAM, a province of Abyssinia, remarkable  
 for having in it the sources of the Nile. It is  
 bounded on the N. by the high mountains of A-  
 mid-Amid; on the S. by the Nile, on the W. by  
 the GULT, on the E. by the Temci, and on the  
 NE. by the kingdom of Damot. It is about 75  
 miles long from N. to S. and 42 broad from E.  
 to W. It is very populous, but the men are ac-  
 counted the worst soldiers in Abyssinia. It has  
 great numbers of very beautiful cattle.

GOIGN, the S. extremity of Argyllshire.

GOIN, a town of France, in the department  
 of Moielle, and late province of Lorraine: 9 miles  
 S. of Metz.

\* GOING. *n. f.* [from *go.*] 1. The act of walk-  
 ing.—

When nobles are their taylor's tutors,

No hereticks burnt, but wenches suitors,

Then comes the time, when lives to see't,

That going shall be us'd with sect. *Sbak.*

2. Pregnancy.—The time of death has a far great-  
 er latitude than that of our birth; most women  
 coming, according to their reckoning, within the  
 compass of a fortnight; that is, the twentieth part  
 of their going. *Grecul's Cosm. Sac.* 3. Departure.

Thy going is not lonely; with thee goes

Thy husband; him to follow thou art bound.

*Milton.*

GOY,

GOIT, a river of England, in Cheshire, which runs into the Mersey, 3 miles E. of Stopford.

GOITO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the department of Mincio, and late duchy of Mantua; between the lakes of Mantua and Garda; 9 miles NNW. of Mantua. It was taken by the allies in 1701, and by the Prince of Hesse in 1706. Lon. 10. 40. E. Lat. 45. 16. N.

GOKEWELL, a town of Lincolnshire NW. of Brig.

\* GOLA. *n. f.* The same with CYMATIUM. —In a cornice the *gola*, or cymatium of the corona, the coping, the modillions or dentelli, make a noble show. *Spectator.*

GOLAN, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Posen; 10 miles NE. of Posen.

GOLBORN, 2 English villages; 1. in Cheshire, SW. of Tattenhall; 2. in Lancashire, near Derby.

(1.) GOLCONDA, a province of Indostan, in the Deccan; bounded on the N. by Berar, on the E. by the gulf of Bengal; on the S. by Mysore and the Carnatic, and on the W. by Dowlatabad and Vissapour. It was anciently called TELLINGANA, or *Tilling*, and was an independent kingdom; its monarch had an army of half a million of men; but in 1687 it was conquered by Aurengzebe. It abounds in corn, rice, and cattle; but it is most remarkable for its diamond mines, which are the most considerable in the world; 6000 men being usually employed in them. The diamonds are generally purchased of the black merchants, who buy parcels of ground to search for these precious stones in. They sometimes fail of meeting with any, but in others they find immense riches. It has also mines of salt, fine iron for sword blades, and manufactures of calicoes and chintzes. It is subject to the Great Mogul, and governed by the Nizam of the Deccan. It is very fertile, and abounds with vines, fruits, rice, &c. Its winter begins in June, with furious storms of wind, thunder and rain. HYDRABAD is the capital.

(2.) GOLCONDA, a fortress and town of the above kingdom, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) which form one of the largest cities in the East Indies; being about 6 miles in circumference; and formerly the residence of the kings. It is now much frequented by European merchants. It is seated round the side and foot of a mountain, which has the form of a sugar loaf. The palace is very large and has a fine view of Hydrabad. The fort has 5 towers, and stone walls 3 feet thick, mounted with cannon. It is 5 miles WNW. of Hydrabad. Lon. 70. 10. E. Lat. 16. 30. N.

(1, 1.) \* GOLD. *n. f.* [*gold*, Sax. *golud*, riches, Welsh. It is called *gold* in our English tongue, either of *geol*, as *Staliger* says, which is in Dutch to shine; or of another Dutch word, which is *gelten*, and signifies in Latin *valere*, in English to be of price or value: hence cometh their ordinary word *gelt*, for money. *Peachment on Drawing.*] 1. *Gold* is the heaviest, the most dense, the most simple, the most ductile, and most fixed of all bodies, not to be injured either by air or fire, and seeming incorruptible. It is soluble by means of sea-salt; but is injured by no other salt. *Gold* is frequently found native, and very rarely in a state of ore. Pure *Gold* is so fixed, that Boerhaave informs us of an ounce of it set in the eye of a glass furnace

for two months, without losing a Hill on Fossils.—*Gold* hath these nature of weight, closeness of parts, fixatiou or softness, immunity from rust, and or tincture of yellow. *Bacon's Natura*

Ah! Buckingham, now do I ply To try if thou be current *gold* indeed —We readily say this is *gold*, and that let, only by the different figures and presented to the eye by the pencil. *L*

The *gold* fraught vessel, which it beat,

He sees now vainly make to his retreat. —

2. Money.— For me the *gold* of France did not Although I did admit it as a motive

The sooner to effect what I intended Thou that so stoutly had resisted

Give me thy *gold*, if thou hast any For I have bought it with an hundred

3. It is used for any thing pleasing So among the ancients *χρυσον εφεδωκεν*; *Animamque moreque aureos educit* is

The king's a bawcock, a heart of A lad of life, an imp of fame. *Sb*

(2.) GOLD, *adj.* golden; made of

(3.) GOLD, the most valuable of all is of a bright yellow colour when pure comes more or less white or high-coloured

portion as it is alloyed with silver or is the heaviest of all known bodies, excepted, its specific gravity being to tilled water at 19.640 to 1000. See *C*

*Index.* It melts in a low white heat according to Mr Wedgwood's calculation

degrees of Fahrenheit's, or 32 of his mometer for its fusion; a heat greatly that which melts silver or copper; th

quiring only 4717, and the latter 4588 heat. Other metallurgists, however,

copper requires for its fusion a greater heat than either gold or silver; and

confirmed by the experience of those who these metals.

(4.) GOLD BROCADE. See BROCADE

(5.) GOLD, COMBINATIONS OF, WITH METALS. See CHEMISTRY, § 990.

metallic state, cannot be combined with ble earth, but its calces may; for which

are often used in enamel painting and where they produce a beautiful view

Glass is tinged by them of a beautiful which we have an account in Neri's

making, though Dr Lewis says he never ceed, in making it diffuse itself equally

the substance of the glass. See GLASS,

(6.) GOLD, DUCTILITY AND EXT OF. *Gold*, is the most ductile, and most malleable, of all metals. Accord

stedt, one grain of it may be stretched cover 98 Swedish ells, equal to 63.66 f

of silver wire; but Wallerius asserts, of gold may be stretched in such a way

cover 500 ells of wire. At any rate, it is prodigious; for according to the calculations, the millionth part of a

may be made visible to the naked eye

ity inferior to its ductility. Boyle, quoted in his *Treatise of Colours*, says, that an half of gold may be beaten into of one inch square, which, if intersected by lines drawn at right angles to each other, distant only the fourth part of an inch, will produce 25 millions of little squares, each very easily discernible by the naked eye. Magellan tells us, that its surface may be struck by the hammer 159,092 times. "I find," (says he) by an intelligent gold-beater, that the finest gold leaf is that of seven skins, and must have an alloy of 3 parts of copper to the ounce of pure gold, or would be too soft to pass over the irregular skins. He affirms that 80 sheets, or leaves of gold, each measuring 3.3 square inches, each leaf containing 10.89 square inches, less than 384 grains. Each sheet, therefore, = 272.23 inches, weighs less than 3 grains; so that each grain of the metal occupies 56.718 square inches." From this calculation it appears, that the thickness of gold leaf is less than one 281,020<sup>th</sup> of an inch; and 16 oz. of gold would be sufficient to cover a wire equal in length to the whole circumference of the globe. Gold is more elastic than lead or tin, but less so than iron, or steel. It grows hard by hammering, but its ductility on being heated. Notices the ductility of gold more than that of brass or tin. The former will render steel of standard gold brittle by only touching it, and a very small quantity of steel with it will destroy its ductility and strength. Dr Lewis says, that even the veins which arise from tin in the fire, make gold that it flies in pieces under the hammer. This notion, however, was controverted by Alchorne, Esq; of the Royal Mint; who, in the course of experiments, which he made, and published in the *Philos. Trans.* for 1784, concludes, though tin, like other inferior metals, imitates gold, in proportion to the quantity mixed with it, yet there does not appear any thing specifically inimical to that precious metal, "that, when brittleness has been occasioned by the addition of tin to gold, the former adulterated with arsenic. M. Tillet, from a new set of experiments, recorded in the *Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris*, 1790, has drawn a conclusion much more favourable to the experience of all former metallurgists; that, though "gold, when perfectly pure, is a small portion of the finest tin, may, by a proper management, be extended to a certain degree by the hammer, and still better by rollers; as it cannot be annealed without danger, it is by this defect deprived of the advantage of recovering its original softness, and is then strongly hammer-hardened."

**GOLD, ELECTRICAL EXPERIMENTS WITH. See MAGNETICITY, Index.**

**GOLD, EXPERIMENTS RESPECTING THE COLOUR OF.** Gold leaf exhibits a fine green colour, which is produced by the insertion of a thin pellicle of the sun or any other luminous body, and is continued for some time to a strong heat, it becomes ignited, and at last melts, assuming a fine bluish green colour; and, when cold, crystallizes into quadrilateral pyramids. This bluish green colour, according to Mr Magellan, as well as the former, when a thin film of the metal is interposed between the eye and the luminous body, is owing to transmitted light. "The green light (says he) is transmitted in both cases, since all reflected colours are produced by the transmission of light, as the ingenious philosopher Mr Delaval has lately discovered and demonstrated, in his very elaborate treatise on this subject, inserted in the 2d vol. of the *Memoirs of the Philosophical Society of Manchester*." Sir Isaac Newton in his *Optics*, (page 162, edit. 1730,) accounts for that phenomenon, saying, that "gold foliated, and held between the eyes and the light, looks of a greenish blue, and therefore (says he) massy gold lets into its body the blue rays to be reflected to and fro within it, till they be stopped and stifled; while it reflects the yellow outwards, and therefore looks yellow. It is therefore, in the two above cases, that some of the blue rays are transmitted along with the yellow ones; and both together appear of a bluish green. If gold be exposed to the joined rays of light, excepting only the yellow ones, which we suppose stopped after they were separated by a prism, it only looks white like silver; which shows (says Sir Isaac Newton) that its yellowness arises from the excess of intercepted rays, tinged that whiteness with their colour when they are let to pass. It is a pleasing observation to look with a deep magnifier on various pieces of gold, silver, and Dutch (copper) leaves, between the eye and the sun-bine. The particles of silver are seen in the form of oblong dark lumps, with some interstices, like net-work, between them: those of the copper leaf are more numerous and more regularly distributed; but the particles of the gold leaf appear like little green semi-transparent and similar particles, uniting between themselves by nearly diaphanous joints, as if they were forced to flatten on their edges, rather than they would break their mutual cohesion with one another."

(9.) **GOLD; FORMS AND PLACES IN WHICH IT IS FOUND.** Gold is more generally found native than any other metal; (see *CHEMISTRY*, § 581.) though Bergman says, he does not know an instance of its ever being found perfectly free of alloy. Kirwan says it is seldom found so, being generally alloyed with silver, copper, or iron, and sometimes with all the three. According to Wallerius, native gold is found, 1. In solid masses, in Hungary, Transylvania, and Peru. 2. In grains, in the Spanish West Indies. 3. In a vegetable form, like the branches or twigs of plants. 4. In a druse figure, as if composed of groups or clusters of small particles united together, found in Hungary. 5. Composed of thin plates, or thin pellicles, covering other bodies, found in Siberia. 6. In a crystalline form in Hungary. Gold is also found in the form of thick solid pieces. It is in general more frequently imbedded in quartz, and mixed with it, than with any other stone; and the quartz in which the gold is found in the Hungarian mines, Mr Magellan tells us, is of a peculiar mild appearance. Sometimes, however, it is found in limestone, hornblende, &c. Europe

is principally supplied with gold from Chili and Peru in South America. A small quantity is likewise imported from China and the coast of Africa. The principal gold mines of Europe are those of Hungary, Salzburg, and Adefors in Smaland. Some gold is also extracted from the silver mines of Osterfilsarberget, in the province of Dalarna. Native gold has been found in Lapland, above Tornea, and in Westmanland. In Peru it is found mixed with a stony matter not well known, from which it is extracted by amalgamation. Mr Pallas mentions three gold mines in Peru, near the Pyschma, in which 500 men are employed. Sometimes kernels or lumps of a spongy texture, and very light, are met with, which contain a good quantity of gold dust. Gold is also found separate from any matrix, in lumps of visible grains mixed with sands, in the beds of rivers. It is visibly dispersed through masses of sand, of a yellowish red or violet colour. In this state it is so universally diffused through every kind of earth, that Mr Bergman thinks it the most common of all the metals, iron excepted. If 200 lb. of sand contain 24 grains of gold, the separation is said to be worth attending to. In Africa 5 lb. of sand often yield 63 grains of gold, or even more; and the heaviest sand, which is often black or red, contains the most. In Hungary, however, only ten or twelve grains of gold are contained in 10,000 lb. of sand; and even this trifling quantity has been extracted, though with loss. Gold is brought down with most of the large rivers. In Transylvania the Avanyos affords subsistence to upwards of 700 gypsy families, who gather gold from its sands. In Brazil it is found in great abundance in the beds of rivers.

(10.) GOLD, FULMINATING. See AURUM, § 2, 3; and CHEMISTRY, Index. M. Magellan takes notice of its extraordinary fulminating property, and says that its *fragor* is 64 times greater than that of an equal quantity of gun-powder. According to Bergman, the strength of the explosion is 176 times greater; 20 grains of aurum fulminans being equivalent to half a pound of gun-powder. Bergman accounts for the amazing strength of this explosion, by supposing it owing to the quantity of air extricated at the time; but this, according to his own account, cannot be at all sufficient for such a purpose; and Magellan is of opinion, that "this wonderful phenomenon seems not yet completely accounted for, by any hypothesis yet known." See EXPLOSION, § 5.

(11.) GOLD, INDESTRUCTIBILITY OF. The strongest heat of any furnace does not change the metallic properties of gold. Messrs Boyle and Kunckel kept gold for several months in the fire of a glasshouse without producing any change upon it. It appears, however, that, by the violent heat of the sun-beams, collected in the focus of a burning-glass, some alteration may be produced in it. Homberg observed that gold, when exposed to the lens of Teichirnhafen, formed, was volatilized, and even vitrified; and Macquer found, that the metal, when exposed to the lens of Mr Trudaine, exhaled a fume which gilded silver, and was therefore gold in a volatile state: the globule of melted gold was agitated with a rapid circular motion, and became covered with a

dull and as it were calciform pellicle; so that a violet vitrification was formed on the surface of the globule. This vitrification extended, and produced a kind of button or of a larger curvature, than that of the glass, and which stuck upon it as the transpiration appears on the selerotica of the eye-glass increased in size, while the gold gradually diminished: the support always tinged with a purple colour, seemingly by the absorption of part of the glass. I do not permit him to vitrify a quantity of gold. He observes, that it is a necessity, that the violet glass should be red combustible matters, in order to justify that it is the calx of that perfect metal would evidently appear to be the case if revived into gold. But however this Mr Fourcroy is of opinion, that this ought to be considered as a true vitrified calx of gold, with the greater probability, as in experiments with this metal the purple colour is constantly produced, and many preparations are employed to give that colour to earthenware and porcelain. "Gold (says he) is therefore like the other metals; and only requires likewise does silver, a stronger heat, and time to unite with the base of air than metallic substances." Mr Kirwan, on the other hand, tells us, that "gold exposed to the most heat of Mr Parker's lens for four months lost no sensible part of its weight; yet in contact with earthy matters, it contracted a blue or purplish tinge, to which he believes an exceeding small portion of oxygen to be dephlogisticated." This experiment of Mr Parker does not invalidate the former: for either Trudaine's lens may be more powerful than Mr Parker's; or the air being more clear than in England, the sun must be stronger. We are assured, that by means of the electric fire, gold is instantaneously calcined and even melted; whence we must conclude, not only that gold is really calcinable, but that the electric fire is most infinitely more powerful than any other fire by its means we may in a moment do what either cannot be done otherwise: very imperfectly, even by the fiercest fire raised. The flame of a lamp blown by dephlogicated air is also found sufficient to volatilize Gold being thus indestructible by the operations of fire, equally resists its flow through the atmosphere. It is altogether exempt from rusting; and though its surface becomes black by exposure to the air, it is merely in consequence of the deposition of foreign bodies upon it produces no change, says M. F. though, according to the experiments of Lavoisier, it seems capable of dividing it in the same manner as it does iron.

(12.) GOLD LEAF, OR GILT LEAF. &

(13.) GOLD LEAF, OR BEATEN GOLD. Beaten with a hammer into exceeding thinness so that it is computed, that an ounce may be extended into 1600 leaves, each 3 inches square: it takes up more than 159,052 times its former surface. See § 6; and LEAF, GOLD

cutten more or less, according to the kind of the work it is intended for; that for wire drawers to gild their ingots withal, is thicker than that for gilding the frames, &c. See GILDING, § IV, N<sup>o</sup> ii, 1. **GOLD, METHODS OF ASCERTAINING THE OF.** As gold has been reckoned by the consent of mankind, the most valuable in the world, it is of great consequence to discover its degree of purity, to procure equality of value in the different pieces in use. The methods by which this is accomplished will be found related under the articles, **ASSAY-MASTER, CARACT, § I, 3; METALLURGY.**

**GOLD, METHODS OF RECOVERING, FROM ORES.** Some powdered sil ammoniac, dissolved with aquafortis into the consistence of a spread upon the gilt silver, and the piece left till the matter smokes and becomes nearly insensible then thrown into water, it is rubbed with a scratch brush made of fine brass wire, the gold easily comes off. Another way is to dissolve the gilt silver into common aquafortis so hot as nearly to boil, and turning it frequently till it becomes all over black; to be washed with a little water, and then with the scratch brush, to get off what aqua regia may have left. This method is used; as the same aqua regia will serve until it is saturated with the gold. To separate gold from gilt copper, some direct a solution of borax to be applied on the gilt parts, but others use a pencil, and a little powder of borax to be sprinkled on the places thus moistened, the piece being then made red hot, and plunged in water, the gold is so far loosened, as to be scraped off with a brush. Others mix the vitriol with nitre and tartar, and form the mixture into a paste, which is spread upon the gilt parts. Schlutter recommends mercury means, as being generally the least expensive for separating gold from the surface both of silver and copper. If the gilt vessel be round, it may be easily got off by turning it in a lathe, applying a proper tool, a skin being stretched underneath, for receiving the shavings. He may easily collect into 2 oz. of shavings all of a gilt vessel weighing 6 lb. Where the piece does not admit of this method, scrapers fixed, and scrapers applied of different sizes according to its size and figure; some large, and some small, with two handles; others small and pointed for penetrating into depressed parts. If it cannot be got off by either of these ways, it must be used, though it takes off more of the silver underneath than the turning tool or scraper.

The gold scrapings or filings may be separated from the silver or copper they contain, by the methods. See METALLURGY. The method in the French *Encyclopédie* give a method of separating the gold from wood, that has been gilt with silver, extracted from a memoir, presented to the Academy of Sciences by M. de Montigny. The gilt wood, is steeped for a quarter of an hour in a quantity of water sufficient to cover the wood very hot: the silver being thus softened,

the wood is taken out, and scrubbed, piece by piece, in a little warm water, with short stiff bristle brushes of different sizes, some small for penetrating into the carvings, and others large for the greater dispatch in flat pieces. The whole mixture of water, lize, gold, &c. is to be boiled to dryness, the dry matter made red hot in a crucible to burn off the lize, and the remainder ground with mercury, either in a mortar, or, where the quantity is large, in a mill.

(16.) **GOLD, MINERALIZATIONS OF.** Gold is said to be mineralized, when it is mixed with some other substance in such a manner as not to be acted upon by aqua regia. In this manner gold is found mineralized by various minerals: as,

(i.) **GOLD MINERALIZED BY QUICKSILVER, OR Auriferous Cinnabar,** is said to be found in Hungary. M. Sage speaks of a specimen of gold from Hungary, then in the French king's cabinet at Paris, which was crystallized into quadrangular prisms of a grey yellowish colour and a brittle consistency, which he supposes to be the result of a mercurial amalgam of native gold.

(ii.) **GOLD MINERALIZED BY SULPHUR.** Many have insisted, that as gold and sulphur are not found to have any chemical attraction for one another, it is impossible that marcasite can contain any of the metal, or indeed that it can be found in any ore containing sulphur: but since we know by experience, that gold can be melted out of these ores, even after they have been digested in aqua regia, and that gold likewise enters into their sulphurated regulus, there is the greatest reason to believe, that some third substance, probably a metal, has by its admixture enabled the sulphur to unite with a certain quantity of gold. Marcasites, however, contain, at any rate, only a small quantity of gold, and none is to be expected from them in places where no gold is in the neighbourhood. "I am not perfectly clear (says Cronstedt) whether the gold is really dissolved and indurated, or, if I may so express myself, vitrified in the *schirls*; provided, by this mineral body, we mean a garnet substance. But I have seen a piece of what is called *schirl*, whose texture was exactly like the Schemnitz blende; and in this case it might perhaps hold the same contents."

(iii.) **GOLD MINERALIZED BY SULPHUR AND IRON.** Golden pyrites, or mercantile gold ore, is a close and compact substance of a bright yellow colour, in which gold is said to be mineralized by sulphur by means of iron, because it cannot be extracted by aqua regia or by amalgamation. A kind of gold pyrites is found at Adelfors in Smaland, which contains an ounce or less of gold in one cwt. of the ore. The Transylvania gold pyrites, according to Brunnich, in which no gold can be perceived by the naked eye, contain from 50 to 100, and 110 oz. and upwards, in one cwt. Those where the gold appears in the pyrites like brewed Spanish snuff, hold 250 oz. but they are very scarce. The mountain of Faczebaya, near Zalathna, is remarkable for its gold pyrites; and here they seem also to contain semi-metallic parts. M. Magellan thus accounts for the union of gold with this kind of pyrites: "It is well known, that gold may be dissolved by liver of sulphur. The



process given for this purpose by M. Apigny, p. 156 of his *Treatise on Colours*, is as follows: Reduce to powder 4 lb. of vegetable alkali (salt of tartar), and as many of sulphur, with one of the leaves of gold. Melt the mixture in a crucible with its cover; pour the fused matter out on a marble stone; pound it again when cold, and put the whole in a matras with hot water; which being filtrated is of a greenish-yellow colour, containing the gold dissolved. Now, as we know that *hepar sulphuris* has been found in several pyrites, and Mascagni says, that he found it in those lagoons near Sienna in Italy; is it not very natural to conclude, that this noble metal may be really mineralized in the auriferous pyrites?"

(iv.) GOLD MINERALIZED BY ZINC AND IRON, is called *Schemnitz Blende*. Cronstedt informs us, that the ores of zinc at Schemnitz in Hungary contain a great deal of silver, and that this silver is very rich in gold. Professor Brunnich enumerates the following varieties of this ore: 1. Where the metal is mineralized by means of a cubic lead ore, containing silver, found in the mines of Michael and some places in Transylvania. 2. By a copper pyrites with silver. This kind of ore is called *giff* in Hungary: it has a compact surface of a pale yellow colour; but must not for that reason be confounded with the auriferous pyrites. 3. The Cremnitz ores in which the metal is mineralized by means of red gilder ore. 4. By means of antimony, in which it sometimes appears. This kind is found at the foot of the Carpathian mountains. 5. By cubic lead ore, iron, and some unknown volatile parts. This ore, as described by Scopoli, is of a black colour; the richest pieces are lamellated almost like an iron glimmer, with a degree of flexibility. The vein is quartz, which is sometimes loose, and the metal scattered very minutely in it. It is found in Transylvania. 6. Native gold, with black lead (or molybdena), has been found near Rimezemat in Upper Hungary; but our author (Professor Brunnich) has not had any opportunity of examining whether it is mineralized by it or not. In all the above species, the gold is either entirely native, but so minutely divided, and so loosely scattered, that it can only be seen through microscopes, and often cannot be seen at all before it is separated by various processes: or it may not be in the form of native gold, but the metal as it were in embryo; in which case fire is necessary to bring the constituent parts together, and to add those that are wanting; in that case likewise it is never without silver. "To these (says Mr Magellan) may be added the following ores: 1. Gold, with arsenical pyrites, is found also at Saltzberg in Tyrol, in mountains of quartz and schistus. It contains only 25 grains in the quintal; nevertheless it affords a profit of L. 500 per annum. 2. With a white, red, or vitreous silver ore, near Cremnitz and Schemnitz in Hungary. 3. With a sulphurated ore of silver, iron, lead, and manganese, at Nagaya in Transylvania. Its specific gravity is 4.043, and it is said to afford 10 ounces per quintal. 4. With sulphurated iron, copper, and manganese, at Nagaya."

(17.) GOLD, MOSAIC, is gold applied in patches on a proper ground, distributed into squares,

lozenges, and other compartments; parts shaded to raise or heighten the rest. See M

(18.) GOLD ORES. See § 16, N<sup>o</sup> IV.

(19.) GOLD PLATES FOR ENAMELLING generally made of ducats whose fineness 23½ carats to 23¾; as the finest gold is for this purpose, unless where some part gold are left bare and unpolished, as in watch inlaid-boxes, &c. for which purposes a tin alloy is necessary, and silver is preferred per, because the latter disposes the plate white and turn green. See ENAMEL, § 3.

(20.) GOLD, SHELL, is that used by painters and illuminers, and with which gold is written. It is made by grinding gold in gold-beaters fragments, with a little honey afterwards separating the honey from the gold by water. When the honey is washed away, the gold may be put on paper or shells; whence its name. When it is diluted with gum-water or soap-suds. The same gold powder, prepared from the gold leaf in the same manner, is general and when it is well scoured with varnish, the end in japaners gilding as well as the

(21.) GOLD, SOLUTION AND PRECIPITATION. See CHEMISTRY, Index.

(22.) GOLD, SPUN, or } is flattened

(22.) GOLD THREAD, } (See § 27.)

over a thread of silk, by twisting it with and iron bobbins. To dispose the wire on silk, they pass it between two rollers mill; these rollers are of nicely polished about 3 inches in diameter. They are close to each other, and turned by a handle to one of them, which gives motion to the other. The gold wire in passing between is rendered quite flat, but without loosing anything of its gilding; and is rendered exceedingly thin and flexible, that it is used on silk thread, by means of a hand wheel wound on the bobbins. See BROCADE EMBROIDERY, § 2; LACE, &c.

(23.) GOLD, VALUE OF, CONTRASTED WITH ITS BULK. Mr Paucton, in his *Mémoire* 94, says, that one cubic foot (French) of gold is worth 2,153,000 *livres tournois* 89,708 Louis d'Or; or guineas, and 7 and that the respective value of the same foot of gold is equal to 25.6 cubic silver; each of this last metal being worth about 84,000 French livres, or 3,500 and 8 shillings: so that if we suppose the gold specie of France to be but two thirds of French livres, according to the estimate of M. Neckar, in his *Treatise upon the Commerce*, the whole amount should make a cube of gold less than 10 feet on each side, trifling, in a philosophical view, is the subject that excites the activity of 30 millions of human species.

(24.) GOLD, VITRIFICATION OF. See

(25.) GOLD, USES OF, IN THE ARTS applied to the surface of bodies, not only for ornament, but, by its indestructibility, preferred from the injuries of the atmosphere. The applying it in this manner is called GOLD-LEAFING: the immense ductility of gold renders it



applied at much less expence than gilding. It is also used in gilding, &c. of solution by acids, or amalgam-mercury, which are called WATER-; was formerly used in medicine, and were ascribed to it; whence the of golden tinctures, elixirs, &c. of all these are now deservedly exploded practitioners allow that gold, in manner it be prepared, is quite innocuous. If we may believe Dr S. Liverpool, however, the *Essence of* : valuable ingredient in his *Balm of*

WIRE, a cylindrical ingot of silver, ed with gold, and afterwards drawn rough a great number of little round awing iron, each less than the other, sometimes no bigger than a hair. See ING.

WIRE FLATTED, is the above wire ten two rollers of polished steel, to on on a stick, or to be used flat with- as in brocades, laces, embroideries, CADE, § 3, 4.

COAST, in geography, a maritime irica, on the coast of Guinea, abound- ; and extending 180 miles in length (N° V.) to Panni. See GUINEA,

D, ISLE OF. See GEZIRET.  
GOLD OF PLEASURE. *n. f.* [*mya-* nt.

OF PLEASURE. See MYAGRUM.  
RIVER, a river of Africa, in Guinea, which abound with gold dust.

RIVER, a river of America, in Ter- the Isthmus of Darien, S. of the abounding also with gold dust.

P, a town of Prussian Lithuania, 54; 68 miles ESE. of Konigsberg.  
P, Melchior Haiminsfeld, a famous rian and compiler, born at Bischof- zerland, in 1576. He was in great the learned, but being a protestant, liged to change his place of residence, him always poor, "though as Dr rves) he was one of the most labori- fatigable compilers that ever existed." *9. Dict.* He died in 1635.

PH, a town of Saxony, in the prin- otha; 2. miles N. of Gotha.

OLDBEATER. *n. f.* [*gold and beat.*] occupation is to beat or foliate gold r matter.—Our *goldbeaters*, though, n profit sake, they are wont to use ld they can get, yet they scruple oy coined gold; and that the mint- wont to alloy with copper or silver, coin more stiff, and less subject to be trition. *Boyle.*

BEATERS. See BEATER, § 2.

OLDBEATERS SKIN. *n. f.* The in- um of an ox, which goldbeaters lay leaves of their metal while they beat the membrane is reduced thin, and pply to cuts or small fresh wounds, ic common practice. *Quincy.*—When

your gillyflowers blow, if they break the pod, open it with a penknife, at each division, as low as the flower has burst it, and bind it about with a narrow slip of *goldbeater's skin*, which moisten with your tongue, and it will stick together. *Mort. Husb.*

GOLDBEATING, *n. f.* the art of beating gold. See LEAF, GOLD.

GOLDBERG, a town of Silesia, in the duchy of Lignitz, so named from a gold mine near it, formerly very rich. The natives manufacture linens and woollen. It is 8½ miles SW. of Lignitz, and 11 WNW. of Jauer. Lon. 16. 23. E. Lat. 51. 3. N.  
\* GOLDBOUND. *adj.* [*gold and bound.*] Encom- passed with gold.—

Thy air,  
Thou other *goldbound* brow, is like the first.

*Shak. Macb.*  
GOLD COAST. See GOLD, N° II, and GUINEA.

GOLD-CRONACH, a town of Franconia, in the principality of Bayreuth, so named from an ex- hausted gold mine. It is 5 miles N. of Bayreuth.

GOLDEGG, a town of Germany in Austria, 4 miles W. of St Polten.

(1.) \* GOLDEN. *adj.* [*from gold.*] 1. Made of gold; consisting of gold.—

O would to God that the inclusive verge  
Of *golden* metal, that must round my brow,  
Were red hot steel to tear me to the brain. *Shak.*  
Nine royal knights in equal rank succeed,  
Each warrior mounted on a fiery steed,  
In *golden* armour glorious to behold;  
The rivets of their arms were nail'd with gold. *Dryden.*

2. Shining; bright; splendid; resplendent.—

So sweet a kiss the *golden* sun gives not  
To those fresh morning drops upon the rose;  
Nor shines the silver moon one half so bright  
Thro' the transparent bosom of the deep. *Shak.*  
'Tis better to be lowly born  
Than wear a *golden* sorrow. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*  
Heaven's *golden* winged herald late he saw  
To a poor Gallean virgin sent. *Craibaw.*  
To her hard yoke you must hereafter bow,  
Howe'er she shines all *golden* to you now. *Dryd.*  
And see the guardian angels of the good,  
Reclining soft on many a *golden* cloud. *Rowe.*

3. Yellow; of the colour of gold.—*Golden* ruffet- ing hath a gold coloured coat under a ruffet hair, and its flesh of a yellow colour. *Mortimer.* 4. Excellent; valuable.—

I have bought  
*Golden* opinions from all sort of people,  
Which would be worn now in their newest glos,  
Not cast aside so soon. *Shak. Macbeth.*

—That verse which they commonly call *golden*, has two substantives and two adjectives, with a verb betwixt them to keep the peace. *Dryden.*—Thence arises that *golden* rule of dealing with others as we would have others deal with us. *Watts's Logick.*  
5. Happy; resembling the age of gold.—Many young gentlemen flock to him every day, and fleet the time carelessly, as they did in the *golden* world. *Shak.*

(2.) GOLDEN, in geography, a town of Ireland, in Tipperary, on the Suir; 8 miles from Dublin.

(3.) GOLDEN, a village of England in Cornwall, between Grampond and Truro.

- (4.) GOLDEN CALF. See CALF, § 3.  
 (5.) GOLDEN CUPS. See RANUNCULUS.  
 (6.) GOLDEN EAGLE. See ABYSSINIA, ETHIOPIA, § 64; and FALCO, N° 4.  
 (7.) GOLDEN FISH. See CYPRINUS, N° 2.  
 (8.) GOLDEN FLEECE, in the ancient mythology, was the skin and fleece of the ram upon which Phryxus and Helle are said to have swam over the sea to Colchis; and which being sacrificed to Jupiter, was hung upon a tree in the grove of Mars, guarded by two brazen-hoof'd bulls, and a monstrous dragon that never slept; but was taken and carried off by Jason and the Argonauts. Some authors have endeavoured to show that this fable is an allegorical representation of some real history, particularly of the philosopher's stone. Others have explained it by the profit of the wool trade to Colchis, or the gold which they commonly gathered there with fleeces in the rivers. See ARGONAUTS, N° I. § 2, 3.  
 (9.) GOLDEN FLEECE, ORDER OF THE, a military order instituted by Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, 1427; thus named from a representation of the golden fleece, worn by the knights on their collars, which consisted of flints and steels. The king of Spain, as D. of Burgundy, is grand master of the order; the number of knights is fixed to 31. It is said to have been instituted on occasion of an immense profit which that prince made by wool; though others will have a chemical mystery couched under it, as that famous one of the ancients, which the adepts pretend to be the secret of the *elixir vite*, wrote on the skin of a sheep.  
 (10.) GOLDEN ISLAND, an island of S. America, in the Gulf of Darien, and prov. of Terra Firma; where the Scots first attempted to settle, in 1698, before they took possession of the opposite shore, which they were at last obliged to relinquish, in consequence of the villainous combination of the English and Dutch merchants. See DARIEN, N° I, § 1, 1—5. Lon. 77. 10. W. Lat. 9. 0. N.  
 (11.) GOLDEN LAKE, a lake in the island of Borneo. Lon. 115. 45. E. Lat. 3. 55. N.  
 (12.) GOLDEN LUNGWORT. See HIERACIUM.  
 (13.) GOLDEN MAIDENHAIR. See POLYTRICHUM.  
 (14.) GOLDEN MOUSE-EAR. See HIERACIUM.  
 (15.) GOLDEN NUMBER. See CHRONOLOGY.  
 (16.) GOLDEN ROD. See SOLIDAGO, N° 14.  
 (17.) GOLDEN ROSE. See ROSA. The pope annually consecrates a golden rose on the 4th Sunday in lent, which is sent to princesses, or to some church, as a mark of his peculiar affection.  
 (18.) GOLDEN RULE. See ARITHMETIC, § 83.  
 (19.) GOLDEN SAMPHIRE. See INULA.  
 (20, i.) \* GOLDEN SAXIFRAGE. *n. f.* [*chrysopterium*.] An herb.  
 (ii.) GOLDEN SAXIFRAGE. See CHRYSOPLENIUM.  
 (21.) GOLDEN THISTLE. See SCOLYMUS,  
 (22.) GOLDEN VALE, a valley of England, in Herefordshire, W. of Hereford, extending along the banks of the Dove; so named from its fertility and numerous yellow flowers. The sheep fed in it have uncommonly fine wool.

\* GOLDENLY. *adv.* [from *gold* fully; splendidly—My brother Jacob school, and report speaks *goldenly* *Shak.* As you like it.

GOLDENSTETT, a town of the circle of Westphalia, and county 11. miles N. of Diepholz.

(1.) \* GOLDFINCH. *n. f.* [*gold* singing bird, so named from his.] This is called in Staffordshire a *pro* singing birds they have linnets, goldocks, Canary birds, blackbirds, the vers others. *Curew.*—

A *goldfinch* there I saw, with g  
 Of painted plumes, that hopp  
 side.

(2.) GOLD-FINCH, in ornithology GILLA, N° 5. These birds are of colours, and were they not commonly esteemed. They are usually Michaelmas, and soon become tame, differ very much in their song. They breed in the upper part of plum their nests of the moss that grows trees, and of wool; quilting the sorts of hair. They breed thrice a-year are to be taken with the nest days old, and fed as follows: Pour feed very fine in a mortar; then sieve, and add to it as much wheat feed; with a little flour of canary with a small stick or quill take up a handful of a white pea, and give times a-day. This ought to be made; for if it is suffered to sour, it stomachs, and cause them to cast up and probably die. These young kept warm till they can feed themselves are very tender. In feeding, be the bird clean his bill and mouth. falls upon his feathers, take it off not thrive. Such as eat hemp feed them, should have the seeds of mung and mercury; or lettuce and plant there is no need of purging, give three times a week a little sugar or loam or at the bottom of the cage; for an oiliness, so that if they have not absorb it, in length of time it fouls and brings on them a flux, which is ous.

\* GOLDFINDER. *n. f.* [*gold* an who finds gold.] A term ludicrous those that empty jakes.—

His empty paunch that he might  
 He suck'd his victuals thro' a quill  
 Untouch'd it pass'd between his  
 Or't had been happy for *goldfish*  
 GOLD-FISH. See CYPRINUS,  
 GOLDHAGEN, John Eustace, a  
 man author, born at Magdeburg,  
 translated many of the Greek classics  
 He died in 1772.

\* GOLDHAMMER. *n. f.* A kind  
 \* GOLDING. *n. f.* A sort of ap  
 GOLDINGEN, a town of the  
 duchy of Courland, with a handsome

1, 48 miles WNW. of Mittau, and  
 onigberg. Lon. 22. 21. E. Lat. 56.

IGHAM, a village in Essex.

IGTON a town N. of Bedford.

ILDNEY *s. l.* A sort of fish, other-  
*wise head. D. S.*

ONEY. See SPARUS.

NI, a late celebrated dramatic author,  
 ice in 1707. Having showed an un-  
 arly attachment to dramatic perfor-  
 mance, he got a small theatre  
 in his own house, in which, while a  
 he and his companions amused them-  
 selves with comedies. He even became an  
 actor, and wrote a comedy before he was 8 years  
 of age; finishing his grammatical and rhet-  
 oric at Venice and Prague, he went to  
 study philosophy; but preferring the  
 risotle, he went off with a company  
 to Chioggio. After attempting to  
 act at Venice, he became secretary to  
 the senate of that state at Milan. In this city,  
 he acted the *Venetian Gondolier*, the first of his  
 pieces that was acted and printed; and soon  
 after several other pieces for a Vene-  
 tian theatre at Milan, and whom he ac-  
 quainted with Genoa, where he married. After  
 that, he returned to Florence, and Pisa, he returned  
 and wrote comedies for the theatre of  
 Genoa. These cost him so little trouble, that  
 he wrote 16 new comedies, besides 42  
 for that theatre, within a year; and  
 2, tho' so rapidly executed, are con-  
 sidered the best productions. The first edition  
 was published in 10 vols 8vo in 1753.  
 Afterwards a great number of pieces  
 were published at St Luke, which were published  
 in *The New Comic Theatre*. He  
 wrote other pieces between 1753 and 1761;  
 and in 1761, he took a jaunt  
 from whence he went to Rome. He  
 acted in Paris, on the invitation of M. Ze-  
 nari, chief actor on the Italian theatre there,  
 he engaged for two years. After this,  
 he acted as an Italian teacher to the  
 king of the unfortunate Lewis XVI.;  
 he got only 4000 livres a-year, and a  
 box of 50 louis d'ors in a gold box. As he  
 acted at court, but went when called, in a  
 he lost his eye-sight by reading while  
 he acted. In his 62d year, he wrote a French  
 comedy titled *Bourru Bienfaisant*, which was  
 acted in Louis XVI's marriage; and for which  
 he was rewarded with a pension of 1000  
 livres from the king, besides consider-  
 able sums from the performers and the booksellers.  
 He died in Paris in 1792, aged 85; at a crisis,  
 when the French Convention were intending to  
 execute the king liberally. As a dramatic author,  
 he is considered equal to the best comic poets of  
 France; and in fertility of invention supe-  
 rior to all. His whole works were printed  
 in 1788—91, in 31 vols 8vo. He has  
 written *Moliere of Italy*; and Voltaire, in  
 the *marquis Albergati*, called him *the  
 Moliere of Italy*. His favourite work, generally  
 considered his master-piece, was his *Terence*. His  
 other pieces are his *Volponi*. He greatly reformed

the Italian theatre, by purging it of those scurri-  
 lous and low jests which formerly disgraced it.

(1.) \* GOLDPLEASURE. *s. l.* An herb. *Dist.*

(2.) GOLDPLEASURE. See MYAGRUM.

GOLDSBOROUGH, a town of the United  
 States, in the district of Main, 330 miles NE. of  
 Boston. Lat. 42. 10 N.

(1.) \* GOLDSIZE. *s. l.* A glue of a golden  
 colour; glue used by gilders.—The gum of ivy is  
 very good to put into your *gold size*, and other col-  
 ours. *Perkins.*

(2.) GOLD-SIZE FOR FURNISHED GILDING is  
 prepared of 1½ lb. of tobacco-pipe clay, ¼ oz. of  
 red chalk, ½ oz. of black lead, 40 drops of sweet  
 oil, and 3 drains of pure tallow: grind the clay,  
 chalk, and black lead, separately, very fine in wa-  
 ter; then mix them together, add the oil and tal-  
 low, and grind the mixture to a due consistence.

(3.) GOLD-SIZE FOR JAPANING may be made  
 by pulverising gum animi and asphaltum, of each  
 one ounce; red lead, charge of gold, and umbre,  
 of each one ounce and a half, mixing them with  
 a pound of linseed oil, and boiling them; stir  
 them till the whole be incorporated, and appears  
 when cold of the consistence of tar; strain the  
 mixture through a flannel, and keep it stopp'd  
 up in a bottle for use. When used, it must be  
 ground with as much vermilion as will give it an  
 opake body, and diluted with oil of turpentine,  
 so that it may be worked freely with the pencil.  
 A more simple preparation is made with 1 lb. of  
 linseed oil and 4 oz. of gum animi; powder the  
 gum, and mix it gradually with the boiling oil;  
 let it continue to boil till it becomes of the con-  
 sistence of tar; strain it through a coarse cloth;  
 keep and use it as the other.

(1.) GOLDSMITH, Oliver, a celebrated au-  
 thor, born at Roscommon in Ireland, in 1729.  
 His father, who possessed a small estate in that  
 county, had 9 sons, of whom Oliver was the 3d.  
 After being well instructed in the classics, he was,  
 with his brother the rev. Henry Goldsmith, placed  
 in Trinity college, Dublin, about the end of 1749.  
 In this seminary he took the degree of B. D. but  
 his brother not being able to obtain preferment,  
 Oliver turned to the study of physic; and, after  
 attending some courses of anatomy in Dublin,  
 proceeded to Edinburgh in 1751, where he studied  
 medicine under the professors of that university.  
 His benevolent disposition soon involved him in  
 difficulties; and he was obliged precipitately to  
 leave Scotland, in consequence of engaging to pay  
 a considerable sum for a fellow student. A few  
 days after, about the beginning of 1754, he ar-  
 rived in Sunderland, near Newcastle, where he  
 was arrested at the suit of a tailor in Edinburgh,  
 to whom he had given security for his friend. By  
 the good offices of Lauchlan MacLane, Esq; and  
 Dr Sleigh, then in the college, he was delivered  
 out of the hands of the bailiff; and took his pas-  
 sage on board a Dutch ship to Rotterdam, where,  
 after a short stay, he proceeded to Brussels. He  
 then visited great part of Flanders; and after pas-  
 sing some time at Strasburg and Louvain, where  
 he took the degree of M. B. he accompanied an  
 English gentleman to Berne and Geneva. He  
 travelled on foot most part of his tour, having  
 left England with very little money. Being of a

philoso-

philosophical turn, capable of sustaining fatigue, and not easily terrified at danger, he became enthusiastically fond of seeing different countries. He had some knowledge of French and of music, and played tolerably well on the German flute; which, from an amusement, became at times the means of subsistence. His learning produced him an hospitable reception at most of the religious houses; and his music made him welcome to the peasants of Flanders and other parts of Germany. "Whenever I approached," he used to say, "a peasant's house towards night-fall, I played one of my most merry tunes; and that procured me not only a lodging, but subsistence for the next day: but in truth, I must own, whenever I attempted to entertain persons of a higher rank, they always thought my performance odious, and never made me any return for my endeavours to please them." On his arrival at Geneva, he was recommended as a travelling tutor to a young man who had been left a considerable sum of money by his uncle, a pawnbroker near Holborn. This youth, who had been articled to an attorney, on receipt of his fortune determined to see the world; and, on engaging with his preceptor, made a proviso, that he should be permitted to govern himself; and Goldsmith soon found his pupil understood the art of directing in money concerns extremely well, as avarice was his prevailing passion. Such curiosities on the way as could be seen for nothing, he was ready to look at; but if the sight of them was to be paid for, he usually asserted, that he had been told they were not worth seeing. He never paid a bill without observing how amazingly expensive travelling was; and all this, though he was not yet 21. During Goldsmith's continuance in Switzerland, he assiduously cultivated his poetical talent, of which he gave some proofs while at the college of Edinburgh. It was here he sent the first sketch of his delightful poem called the *Traveller* to his brother the clergyman in Ireland, who lived with an amiable wife on an income of only 40l. a year. From Geneva Mr Goldsmith and his pupil visited the south of France; where the young man, upon some disagreement with his preceptor, paid him the small part of his salary which was due, and embarked at Marseilles for England. Our wanderer was left once more upon the world at large, and passed through various difficulties in traversing the greatest part of France. At length his curiosity being satisfied, he bent his course towards England, and arrived at Dover the beginning of the winter 1778. When he came to London, his cash did not amount to two livres. Being an entire stranger, his mind was filled with the most gloomy reflections. With difficulty he discovered that part of the town in which his old acquaintance Dr Sleigh resided. This gentleman received him with the warmest affection, and liberally invited him to share his purse till some establishment could be procured for him. Goldsmith, unwilling to be a burden to his friend, eagerly embraced an offer which was made him soon after, to assist the late rev. Dr Milner in the academy at Peckham; and acquitted himself greatly to the Doctor's satisfaction: but having obtained some reputation by the criticisms he had written in the *Monthly*

*Review*, Mr Griffith, the proprietor, engaged in the compilation of it; and, resolving the profession of an author, he returned to London, as the mart where abilities of merit meet distinction and reward. As his affairs were not in a good state, he adopted the strictest economy; and took lodgings in an obscure court in the Old Bailey, where he wrote several ingenious pieces. The late Mr Griffith, who gave great encouragement to literary abilities, became a patron to him, and introduced him as one of the writers in the *Ledger*, in which his *Citizen of the World* first appeared, under the title of *Chimney*. His fortune now began to improve. The simplicity of his character, the integrity of his mind, and the merit of his productions, made him very acceptable to a number of families; and he emerged from his obscurity in the Old Bailey to the polite Temple, where he took handsome chambers, and lived in a genteel style. The public noticed him by the performance of his comedy *The Natural Man* at Covent Garden theatre, which placed him in the first rank of the poets of the century. Among many other persons who were desirous to know him, the duke of Northumberland; and a circle that attended his introduction to that nobleman shows a striking trait of his character: "I was invited," said the Doctor, "by my friend, to wait upon the duke, in consequence of the satisfaction he had received from the one of my productions. I dressed myself in the best manner I could; and, after such compliments I thought necessary on this occasion, proceeded to Northumberland House, where I acquainted the servants that I had partaken with his Grace. They showed me into the antichamber; where, after waiting for some time, a gentleman very gently dressed made his appearance. Taking him for the duke, I showed him all the fine things I had composed; and complimented him on the honour he had done me when, to my great astonishment, he had mistaken him for his master, who came immediately. At this instant he entered into the apartment; and I was so confused on this occasion, that I wanted words barely to express the sense I entertained of the neglect, and went away extremely at the blunder I had committed." An anecdote exhibits the strict integrity of his mind. Previous to the publication of his *Deserters*, the bookseller had given him a note for the copy, which the Doctor, a few hours after to one of his friends, served, it was a very great sum for so short a performance: "In truth," replied Goldsmith, "I think so too; I have not been easy since; therefore I will go back and return the note;" which he absolutely did; and he obliged the bookseller to pay him the profits produced by the sale of the piece; however, turned out very considerable. The last rehearsal of his comedy intitled *Conquer*, which Mr Coleman had

ed, on the Dr's objecting to the repetition of Tony Lumpkin's speeches, being it might injure the play, the manager Kennels replied, " Psha, my dear be fearful of squibs, when we have almost these two hours upon a barrel of." The piece, however, was rewarded with common applause by the audience; and the propriety of Coleman's observation put an end to the Dr's regard for him. Notwithstanding the excess of his pieces, by some of which he was rebuked in one year, his circumstances were in a prosperous situation; partly owing to the liberality of his disposition, and partly to the habit of gaming; the arts of which he was very little of, and thus became the prey to the advantage of his simplicity. In 1744 he published the prospectus of a Dictionary of Arts and Sciences; and by the friendship of Sir Joshua Reynolds, Dr Beauclerc, Mr Garrick, and others, he was enabled to furnish him with articles upon several subjects, he entertained the most sanguine hopes from it. The undertaking, however, did not meet with that encouragement from the public, which he had imagined it would; and he lamented this circumstance almost to the end of his life. He had been for some time, at different times, with a violent passion for gaming, which contributed to embitter the latter part of his life; and which, united with the other vices he suffered upon other occasions, formed a kind of habitual despondency. In 1774 his condition he was attacked by a nervous fever, which terminated in his death, on the 17th of June 1774. His character is justly expressed in the following lines:  
 A man, simplicity a child.  
 In pleasure he lov'd to enjoy was often  
 by distresses which arose from the  
 his temper, and which sometimes threw  
 id fits of passion: but this impetuosity  
 ed upon reflection; and his servants  
 down upon these occasions, purposely to  
 selves in his way, that they might pro-  
 nediately after; for he who had the  
 re to be reproved, was certain of being  
 or it. The universal esteem in which  
 were held, and the repeated pleasure  
 the perusal, is a striking test of their  
 was a studious and correct observer of  
 ppy in the selection of his images, in  
 of his subjects, and in the harmony of  
 tion; and, though his embarrassed sit-  
 vented him from putting the last hand  
 his productions, his Hermit, his Tra-  
 his deserted Village, claim a place a-  
 most finished pieces in the English lan-  
 besides the works above mentioned, he  
 history of the earth and animated na-  
 8vo. 2. History of England, 4 vols  
 istory of Rome, 2 vols. 4. Abridge-  
 e two last, for the use of schools. 5.  
 experimental philosophy, 3 vols 8vo.;  
 us work. 6. Miscellanies, &c.  
 OLDSMITH. n. f. [gold and smit, Sax.]  
 o manufactures gold.—  
 :r chain nor goldsmith came to me. *Sba.*  
 PART II.

2. A banker; one who keeps money for others in his hands.—The *goldsmith* or scrivener, who takes all your fortune to dispose of, when he has beforehand resolved to break the following day, does surely deserve the gallows. *Swift.*  
 (3.) A GOLDSMITH, (§ 2. def. 1.) or SILVERSMITH, is an artist who makes vessels, utensils, and ornaments, in gold and silver. There is a vast variety in the works made, and tools used, by goldsmiths, which we cannot here particularize. Works that have raised figures are cast in a mould, and afterwards carved, or polished and finished: plates or vessels of silver or gold, are beat out from thin flat plates; table and tea spoons, &c. are beat out from solid ingots, and their mouths struck up with a punch: tankards, and other vessels of that kind, are formed of plates soldered together, and their mouldings are beat, not cast. The business of the goldsmiths formerly required more labour than it does at present; for they were obliged to hammer the metal from the ingot to the thinness they wanted: but since the invention of flattening mills, the metals are reduced to the thinness required, at a small expence. As the goldsmith often has to make his own moulds, he ought to be a good designer, and have a taste in sculpture: he also ought to know enough of metallurgy to be able to assay and refine gold and silver, and to mix the exact quantity of alloy. The goldsmiths in London, employ different hands under them for the various branches of their trade; such as jewellers, box makers, toy-makers, turners, gilders, burnishers, chasers, refiners, founders, &c. Goldsmiths are superior tradesmen: Their wares must be assayed by the wardens of their own company in London, and marked; and the gold and silver must be of the standard fineness, under a penalty of 10*l.* Any false metal may be seized and forfeited to the king. The cities of Edinburgh, York, Exeter, Bristol, &c. have also places appointed for assaying gold and silver plate. Plate sent to the assay office, when discovered to be coarser than the standard, is broken and defaced; and the fees for assaying are limited. A duty is paid on silver plate of 1*s.* per oz.; and on gold plate of 16*s.* per oz.; besides which every goldsmith must take out a licence annually; for which he pays either 2*l.* or 5*l.* according to the extent of his business, with an addition of 15 per cent, agreeably to the late acts. The 2*l.* or rather 2*l.* 6*s.* licence allows him to make silver plate not exceeding 30 oz. and gold plate not exceeding 2 oz. in one piece. The 5*l.* 15*s.* licence qualifies him to make plate of any weight.  
 (4.) GOLDSMITH. See GOULDSMITH.  
 GOLDWELL, a town in Kent, W. of Ashford.  
 (1.) \* GOLDYLOCKS. n. f. [*roma aurea*, Lat.] A plant.  
 (2.) GOLDYLOCKS. See CHRYSOCOMA.  
 GOLE, a village in Yorkshire, E. of Armin.  
 GOLEITA, or GOLETTA, an island of Africa, at the entrance of the Bay of Tunis; taken by the emperor Charles V, during his siege of that city, and retained for several years after. It is 29 miles N. of Tunis, and 375 E. of Algiers. Lon. 10. 20. E. Lat. 37. 10. N.  
 GOLSEZ, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Sandomirz, 60 miles SSW. of Sandomirz.  
 Y y y GOLP,

**GOLF**, a game much practised in Scotland, and said to be peculiar to this country. It has been very ancient; for there are statutes prohibiting it as early as 1457, lest it should interfere with the sport of archery. The rev. Mr R. Walker, one of the ministers of Canongate, Edinburgh, derives the name from a Dutch game, called *Kolf*, in some respects similar, being played with clubs, though in others very different. See **KOLF**. Both, he supposes, are originally derived from the Greek word, *κολοφος*. See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XVI. 28—30. Golf is commonly played on rugged broken ground, covered with short grass, near the sea-shore. A field of this sort is in Scotland called **LINKS**. The game is generally played in parties of one or two on each side. Each party has an exceeding hard ball, somewhat larger than a hen's egg. This they strike with a slender and elastic club, about 4 feet long, crooked in the head, and having lead run into it, to make it heavy. The ball being struck with this club, will fly to the distance of 200 yards, and the game is gained by the party who puts his ball into the hole with the fewest strokes. But the game does not depend solely upon the striking of the longest ball, but also upon measuring the strength of the stroke, and applying it in such direction as to lay the ball in smooth ground, whence it may be easily moved at the next stroke. To encourage this amusement, the city of Edinburgh, A. D. 1744, gave to the company of golfers a silver club, to be played for annually by the members, the victor to append a gold or silver piece to the prize. It has been played for every year since, except 1746 and 1747. For their better accommodation, 22 of the members subscribed 30*l.* each in 1768, for building a house for their meetings. The spot chosen for this purpose was the SW. corner of Leith links, where an area was feued from the magistrates of Edinburgh, and a commodious house and tavern built upon it.

**GOLGOTHA**, [גולגוטה, Syr. *i. e.* a place of skulls.] See **CALVARY**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

**GOLHEIM**, a town of Germany, in the palatinate of the Rhine; taken by the French in Oct. 1794.

**GOLI**, or **GOLLI**, a small island of Maritime Austria, in the Quarnaro, and ci-devant Venetian Dalmatia, W. of the isle of Arbe. It feeds 2000 sheep.

**GOLICH**, a town of Russia, in the province of Irkutsch, on the Lena; 2 miles S. of Orlenga.

(1.) **GOLIUS**, James, a celebrated professor of Arabic and the mathematics at Leyden, descended from a very honourable family, and born at the Hague in 1596. He studied at Leyden, under Erpinus; and, having acquired all the learned languages, travelled into Asia and Africa. He was esteemed and honoured by Muley Zidan, emperor of Morocco and the Grand Signior. He brought home many MSS. to Leyden; and in 1624, succeeded Erpinus. As he had been an eye-witness of the wretched state of Christianity in the Mahometan countries, none ever solicited for a place of honour and profit with greater eagerness, than he did to procure a new edition of the New Testament, in the original language, with a translation into the vulgar Greek; by an Archiman-

drite; and as some of these Christians blic tongue in divine service, he also among them an Arabic translation of the of the Protestants, with the Catechism. He was likewise appointed interpreter for the Arabic, Turkish, Persian, and languages. He published, 1. The *lilane*, in Arabic. 2. The history of written by Elmacin. 3. *Alferganus' Astronomy*, with a new version, and mentaries. 4. An excellent Arabic Persian Dictionary. He died in 1666.

(2.) **GOLIUS**, Peter, brother to (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) was born at Leyden; and several works in Greek and Latin. 1. *Monastery of Carmelites on the top of* banns.

\* **GOLL**. *n. f.* [corrupted, as *St* from *swal* or *swol*, whence *swaldan*, manage.] Hands; paws; claws. Used and obsolete.—They set hands, and her golden *golls* among them; and that saw not the colour of them, 1 preheminece, *Sidney*.

**GOLLERSDORF**, a town of Germany, 4 miles SSE. of Sonneberg.

**GOLLI**. See **GOLI**.

**GOLLING**, a town of Bavaria, 14 miles SSE. of Salzburg, and 1 Radstadt.

**GOLLNITZ**, a town of Upper Anhalt Zerbst; 7 miles NW. of Zerbst.

**GOLNAW**. See **GOLNOW**.

**GOLNITZ**, a town and river of 14 miles SE. of Kapisdorf.

**GOLNIZ**, a town of Germany, 13 miles S. of St Andre.

**GOLNOW**, or **GOLNAW**, a town of Saxony, in Pomerania, on the Ibm, of Stargard, and 13 NE. of Old Steff 59. E. Lat. 53. 46. N.

**GOLOGRIZZA**, a town of Maria in the province of Istria; 6 miles S. of

**GOLOMBO PZ**. See **COLOMBO**

**GOLPHINGTON**, a town of Washington county, near the head of 26 miles ESE. of Occonee, 37 SW. and 50 NW. of Louisville.

(1.) **GOLSPY**, a parish of Scotland, of Sutherlandshire, 10 miles long from and 1½ broad. The climate is dry and the soil mostly light and fertile, but is sandy, and in others mossy. Sea-wares the coast, and is partly used as made into kelp. Haddocks, whiting, turbot, and flounders also abound.

(2.) **GOLSPY**, a parish of Scotland, in 1791, stated by the rev. Mr W in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 17 increased 398, since 1750; though, or it with Dr Webster's report in 1755 have decreased 90, between these p Mr Keith says it was supposed to have led within the course of the 18th century number of horses, in 1792, was 35 1000, and of black cattle 1700. Also were under oats, barley, pease, turnip and fown grass; besides 400 under 600 of hill-ground in commons.

parish in 1746, between a party of the militia, wherein the former and several persons of rank taken

28, a rivulet in the above parish, which overflowed the globe lands and out, in 1775; and in Nov. 1781, did so in 10 days.

29, a village in the above parish, containing inhabitants in 1792.

INSKOL, } two towns of Russia, in  
VINA, } the gov. of Tobolsk.

, a town of Russia, in Kiev.  
, a town of Saxony, in Brandenburg, of New Angermunde.

ZIUS, Henry, a famous engraver born in 1558, at Mulbreck, in the diocese. He was taught engraving by Jacob Cuereubert, and acquired it perfectly; he had a lame hand. He travelled many into Italy; visited Bologna, Naples, Venice, and Rome. In this he adopted a singular disguise, making his apron for his master, while he himself appeared as a valet, kept by the other merely for amusement. Under this disguise he explored all its variety. On his return he surpassed, where he died in 1617, aged 59. He was equalled, and few have equalled, the command of the graver and freedom of hand.

He copied the style of Albert Dürer, and other old masters, with accuracy. He engraved several of his own wood, in *chiaro-scuro*. Of his works are very numerous, the following are celebrated: 1. Six large upright plates, or *pieces*. These he engraved to show himself capable of imitating the styles of others, and others, whose works were in higher estimation than his own: for he adopted a new manner, which he pursued ought it superior, and not because he was able of following the others. It is the first one of them, the Circumcision, which he intended to give it the more plausible air he actually deceived some of the most masters of that age; by one of whom for an original engraving of Albert Dürer's subjects of these plates are, *The Anne and the Virgin; Her Meeting with Elizabeth; the Circumcision; the Adoration of the Kings; the Holy Family*. 2. *The Midas*; and, 3. *The Venetian Ball*, (lately lengthwise,) from Theodore de Bry and Dog, a middling sized work from a design of his own; an advertisement. 4. *The Necromancer*, a middling sized work in *chiaro scuro*. 5. *Night* the same.

30, Hubert, a learned German, born in Gueldres, in 1526. He travelled into Germany, France, and Italy, to make medals, &c. as well as to draw from nature. He was so accurate, that he had at his own house, under his own hand even engraved the plates with his

own hand. Among these his *Imperatorum fere omnium vivae imagines, à J. Casare ad Carolum V. ex veteribus numismatibus*, is an admirable work. He died at Bruges, in 1583, aged 57.

GOLUB, a town of Prussia, in Culm.

GOLUBENSKA, a town of Russia, in the country of the Cossacks, on the Don, 200 miles ENE. of Azoph.

GOLYDDAN, an ancient British poet, who flourished in the end of the 7th and beginning of the 8th centuries. He was hard to Cadwallader, the last king of the South Britons.

GOMAR, Francis, an eminent author of the 17th century, born at Bruges. He was a man of extensive erudition, and was professor of Divinity and Hebrew, in the university of Groningen. He was a most zealous defender of the Calvinistic doctrines against Arminius. He died at Groningen, in 1641.

(1.) GOMARA. See GOMERA.

(2.) GOMARA, or COMORA. See COMORA, N° 1, 2.

GOMARISTS, a name given to the Calvinists in Holland, occasioned by professor GOMAR's defence of their tenets against Arminius and Episcopius. See ARMINIANS, § 1.

GOMASHTEH, in the commerce of Bengal, signifies one cent.

GOMBAULD, John Ogier DE, one of the best French poets in the 17th century, and one of the first members of the French academy, was born at St Just de Luffac, in 1567. He acquired the esteem of Mary de Medicis, and of the wits of his time. He was a Protestant, and died in 1666, aged 99. He wrote many works in verse and prose. His epigrams and sonnets are particularly esteemed. His posthumous works, entitled *Traitez et Lettres sur la Religion*, were printed at Holland, in 1678.

GOMBIN, GAMBIN, or GARIN. See GABIN.

GOMBRON, or } a city of Persia, in the province of Farsistan, called by the natives Bander. This city owes its wealth and grandeur to the demolition of Ormus, and the downfall of the Portuguese empire in the East Indies. It is now justly accounted one of the greatest marts in the East; was built by the great Shah Abbas, and from him obtained the name of *Bander-Abassi*, or *the court of Abbas*. It stands on a bay about 27 miles N. of the island of Kishmish, and 9 from Ormus. The English began to settle here about 1631, when, in consideration of their services against the Portuguese, Shah Abbas granted them half the customs of that port. The city wants almost every thing that contributes to the happiness and even support of life. Towards the land it is encompassed by a wall; and towards the sea are several small forts, with a platform, and a citadel, mounted with cannon to secure it and the road against an enemy by sea. The houses in most of the streets are so out of repair, some half down, others in a heap of rubbish, that a stranger would imagine the town had been sacked; not a vestige of the wealth really contained in the place appearing in view. The bazars and shops round them are chiefly kept by Banians, whose houses are generally in good order. Most of the houses are built with earth and lime, but the best with stone.



Many of them have ventilators at top, which contribute greatly to the health of the inhabitants in the hot seasons. The most sickly months are April, May, September, and October. With fish and mutton the inhabitants are well supplied. Rice is imported from India; and wheat is so abundant, that the poor subsist chiefly on bread and dates. The country abounds in the most delicious fruits, as apricots, peaches, pomegranates, pears, mangoes, grapes, quavas, plums, quinces, &c. But these advantages are more than overbalanced by the scarcity of fresh water, with which the inhabitants are supplied from Assen, a place 7 miles distant, there not being a spring or well in the town. For this reason people of condition retire into the country, in June, July, and August. Even the sea, during this season, is affected, inasmuch that the stench is as disagreeable as that of putrid carcases; and this is increased by the quantities of shell fish left on the shore, from which an exhalation arises that tarnishes gold and silver. At Assen the English factory have a country house and gardens; where they have whole groves of Seville orange trees, which, though not natural to the country, thrive well. They have likewise ponds of fine fresh water, with every thing else that can moderate the heat of the climate, and render life agreeable and elegant. Gombroon is extremely populous, from the commerce carried on by the Dutch and English as well as the natives. The English factory is close by the sea, at some distance from the Dutch, which is a commodious and fine new building. A great part of the company's profits arises from freights. As the natives have no good ships of their own, and are extremely ignorant of navigation, they freight their goods for Surat, and other Indian marts, in English and Dutch bottoms, at an exorbitant rate. The commodities are, fine wines, raisins, almonds, prunellas, dates, pistachio nuts, ginger, silks, carpets, leather, tully, galbanum, ammoniac, asa-fetida, tragacanth, with other gums, and medicines. These are chiefly the produce of Carimania, which they bring to Gombroon in caravans. The English company had once a small factory in Carimania, chiefly for the sake of a fine wool produced there, and used by the hatters. Although the company pay no customs, yet they usually make a present to the shabander, to avoid the trouble he has it in his power to give them. All private traders with the company's passes enjoy the same privileges, on paying two per cent to the company, one to the agent, and one to the broker. All private trade, either by European or country ships, has long been engrossed by the company's servants. Lon. 36. 35. E. Lat. 27. 30. N.

\* GOME. *n. f.* The black greafe of a cart-wheel. *Bailey.*

GOMEKNIES, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, and ci-devant province of French Hainault; 4 miles E. of Quefnoy.

GOMEIRA, or GOMETEA, a small isle of Scotland near the W. coast of Mull.

(1.) GOMERA, or GOMARA, one of the Canary islands, between Ferro and Teneriffe, subject to the Spaniards, who conquered it in 1485. It is 30 miles long and 10 broad; producing corn and

fruits sufficient for the inhabitants. SW. of Teneriffe.

(2.) GOMERA, a town in the above excellent harbour, where the Spaniards take in refreshments. They work, and plenty of wine. Lon. 128. 6. N.

(1.) GOMERSAL, Robert, an English poet of the 17th century. His best composition is *The Levite's Revenge*; a poem on James II. He died in 1646.

(2.) GOMERSAL, a town W. of W. GOMEZ DE CASTRO, Alvariz, a Portuguese historian, born at St Euladie near Terceira. He wrote *The History of Cardinal de Braganza*. He died in 1580, aged 65.

GOMMERN, a town of Upper Saxony, on the Elbe; 8 miles S. of Magdeburg, and 10 NW. of Dessau.

GOMMERVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire, 10½ miles S. of Evreux.

GOMORRAH, in ancient geography, one of the cities of the plain, or vale of Siddon, destroyed together with Sodom, by the Jews, on account of the wickedness of the inhabitants. To determine its particular situation is not possible.

GOMORRO ISLANDS. See COMORRO ISLANDS.

GOMOZIA, in botany: A genus of plants, belonging to the tetradymia order, and the corolla is campanulate above; there is no calyx; in the herbaceous state.

(1.) \* GOMPHOSIS. *n. f.* A particular articulation.—*Gomphosis* is the connection of the tooth to its socket. *Wise.*

(2.) GOMPHOSIS. See ANATOMY.

GOMPHRENA, GLOBE AMARANTH, or EVERLASTING FLOWER, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the tetradymia class of plants; and in the Linnaean system ranking under the 54th order. The calyx is coloured; the exterior one diphyllous, with two ciliated lobes; the nectarium cylindrical, with a capsule monospermous. There are only one of which is commonly cultivated in gardens, viz. the

GOMPHRENA GLOBOSA. It has a branching all round, 2 or 3 feet high, with oval, lanceolate, opposite leaves, and side-shoots terminated in a globose head of flowers, composed of very small starry florets, closely covered with scaly calices placed *imbricatum*, beautifully coloured purple, white, and variegated. The flowers are so small, and closely covered with that they scarcely appear. The leaves are placed scaly coverings, being of a siliceous, coloured and glittering, compact round head, about the size of a cherry, make a fine appearance. Annual plants, natives of India; and cultivated in gardens to raise and forward the growth, so that they may flower and produce ripe seed. They flower from August to November; and if the flower

ull growth, and placed out of the sun, retain their beauty several months.

GMS, a department of the Helvetic ren the Valais.

MS, a town in the above department, 33 of Sion.

AGRA, [from ग्रा, the knee, and अग्र, the gout in the knee. See MEDICINE,

ONAVES, a sea port town of Hispanio-an excellent harbour. It has a medicinal on which baths were erected in 1772; hospital for soldiers and sailors. Lon. 34. of Ferro. Lat. 19. 36. N.

ONAVES, a bay on the coast of Hispanio- Cape St Nicolas. Lat. 19. 33. N.

API, or GOUNONG-API, one of the smala Islands in the East Indian Sea. It has o, and abounds with hogs, black cattle, enta.

QUAS, a nation inhabiting about the nd supposed by Dr Sparman to be a mix- totentots and Caffres. See HOTTENTOTS.

ONAVE, an island in the bay of Leogane, W. coast of Hispaniola, about 44 miles id uniformly 9 broad, except at the ex-

ONAVE, another island on the W. coast niola, 30 miles long, and 5 broad. Lon. V. Lat. 18. 51. N.

CELIN, a town of France, in the dept. 13½ miles NNW. of Grenoble.

IDA, *n. f.* in the Hindoo language, signifier, and hence sometimes makes part of the of rivers, in the E. Indies.

IDAGAMA, GONDEGAMA, or GONDLA- a river of Indostan, which rises near m, forms the original boundary of the c on the N. and enters the bay of Bengal ipilly.

ONDAR, the capital of Abyssinia, seated top of a hill of considerable height. It s about 10,000 families in times of pea- . W. end of the town is the king's palace; y a structure of considerable consequence.

YSSINIA. The hill on which the town is ses in the middle of a deep valley, through run two rivers: one of which, the KAKHA, ; from the Mountain of the Sun, flanks all th of the town; while the other, called grab, falling from the Mountain Waggora, passes it on the N. and NE. and both rivers t the bottom of the hill about a quarter of south of the town. Upon the bank opposite idar, on the other side of the river, is a large of Mahometans; a great part of whom are yed in taking care of the king's and nobili- quipage both when they take the field, and they return. They are formed into a body proper officers; but never fight on either eing entirely confined to their occupation, ch by their care and dexterity in pitching riking the tents, and in leading and conduc- e baggage waggons, they are of great ser- Lon: 37. 33. E. Lat. 12. 34' 30" N.

GONDAR, VALLEY OF, a valley of Abyssin- which the city (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) is situated. It has

3 outlets; one S. to Dembea, Matsha, and the Agows; another on the NW. towards Sennaar, over the Mountain of the Sun; and the third N. leading to the Waggora over the high moun- tain Lamalman, and through Tigre to the Red Sea.

GONDET, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Loire, 10 miles S. of Puy.

GONDI, John Francis Paul, Cardinal de Retz, was the son of Philip Emanuel de Gondi, Count de Joigny, lieutenant general, &c. and was born in 1613. From a doctor of the Sorbonne, he first became co-adjutor to his uncle John Francis de Gondi, whom he succeeded in 1654 as Abp. of Paris; and finally made a cardinal. He has drawn his own character in his *Memoirs* with impartiality. From the greatest degree of debauchery, and still languishing under its consequences, he made him- self adored by the people as a preacher. At the age of 23, he was at the head of a conspiracy against the life of Cardinal Richelieu; he precipi- tated the parliament into cabals, and the people into sedition: he was (says M. Voltaire) the first bilhop who carried on a civil war without the mask of religion. However, he was at last oblig- ed to quit France; and he lived the life of a va- grant exile for 5 or 6 years, till the death of his great enemy Cardinal Mazarin, when he returned on certain conditions. After assisting in the conclave at Rome, which chose Clement IX. he reti- red from the world, and ended his life like a phi- losopher, in 1679; which made Voltaire say, that in his youth he lived like Catiline, and in his old age like Atticus. He wrote his *Memoirs* in his retirement; the best edition of which is that of Amsterdam, 4 vols 12mo, 1719.

(1) \* GONDOLA. *n. f.* [*gondole*, French.] A boat much used in Venice; a small boat.—

He saw did swim

Along the shore, as swift as glance of eye,  
A little gondola, bedecked trim

With boughs and arbours woven cunningly.

*Spenser.*

—In a gondola were seen together Lorenzo and his amorous Jessica. *Shak.*—

As with gondolas an his men, his

Good excellence the duke of Venice  
Sails out, and gives the gulph a ring. *Prior.*

(2.) A GONDOLA is a flat boat, very long and narrow, chiefly used at Venice to row on the canals. The word is Italian. Du Cange derives it from the vulgar Greek *κονδύλας*, a bark, or little ship. The middle sized gondolas are upwards of 30 feet long and 4 broad: they always terminate at each end in a very sharp point, which is raised perpendicularly to the height of a man.

(3.) GONDOLA is also the name of a passage boat of 6 or 8 oars, used in other parts of the coast of Italy.

(1.) \* GONDOLIER. *n. f.* [from *gondola*.] A boatman; one that rows a gondola.—

Your fair daughter,

Transported with no worse nor better guard,  
But with a knave of hire, a gondolier,

To the gross clasps of a lascivious Moor. *Otello.*

(2.) GONDOLIERS. The address of the Veneti- an gondoliers, in passing along their narrow canals, is very remarkable: there are usually two to each gondola,

gondola, and they row by pushing before them. The fore man rests his oar on the left side of the gondola: the hindman is placed on the stern, that he may see the head over the tilt or covering of the gondola, and rests his oar, which is very long, on the right side of the gondola.

GONDON, a town of France, in the department of Upper Pyrenees; 7 miles SE. of Tarbes.

GONDORF, a town of Germany lately in the archbishopric of Treves, now included in the French republic, and department of the Rhine and Moselle: 4 miles ENE. of Munster-Mainfield.

GONDRAIN, a town of France, in the dep. of Gers, 7½ miles SW. of Condom, and 20. NW. of Auch.

GONDRECOURT, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse, and ci-devant province of Bar; seated on the Orney, 20 miles S. of St Michael, 21 SSE. of Bar-le-duc, and 9 SW. of Vauconleufs.

GONDREVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Meurthe, and late province of Lorraine, with a castle, and a magnificent hospital; seated on a hill near the Moselle, 3 miles NE. of Toul, and 8 from Nanci. Lon. 6. 9. E. Lat. 48. 40. N.

\* GONE. *part. preter.* [from *go*. See *To Go*.] 1. Advanced; forward in progress.—I have known sheep cured of the rot, when they have not been far gone with it, only by being put into broomlands. *Mort.*—The observer is much the brisker of the two, and, I think, farther gone of late in lyes and impudence than his Presbyterian brother. *Swift.* 2. Ruined; undone.—He must know 'tis none of your daughter, nor my sister; we are gone else. *Shak. Winter's Tale.* 3. Past.—

I'll tell the story of my life,

And the particular accidents gone by,

Since I came to this isle. *Shak. Tempest.*

4. Lost; departed.—When her masters saw that the hope of their gains was gone, they caught Paul and Silas. *Acts* xvi. 19.—Speech is confined to the living, and imparted to only those that are in presence, and is transient and gone. *Holder.* 5. Dead; departed from life.—

I mourn Adonis dead and gone. *Oldham.*

—A dog, that has his nose held in the vapour, loses all signs of life; but carried into the air, or thrown into a lake, recovers, if not quite gone. *Addison on Italy.*

GONESSE, a town of France, in the department of Seine and Oise, and ci-devant province of the Isle of France, seated on the Crould, 9 miles N. of Paris; famous for fine bread.

GONET, John Baptist, D. D. a Dominican friar, and doctor of the University of Bourdeaux, who flourished in the 17th century. He wrote a system of Theology, in 3 vols, and died in 1681.

GONEZ, or GENESA, an Indian deity. See *ABYDOS*, and *POLYTHEISM*.

\* GONFALON, } *n. s.* [*gonfanon*, Fr. *gunfa-*

\* GONFANON, } *na*, *Islandick*, from *gunn*, a battle, and *fani*, a flag. *Mr Lye.*] An ensign; a standard.—

Ten thousand thousand ensigns high advanc'd,  
Standards and gonfalons, 'twixt van and rear,  
Stream in the air. *Milton.*

GONGA, an ancient town of European Tur-

key, in Romania, near the Sea of Marmara, 37 miles NE. of Gallipoli. Lon. 37. 31. E. Lat. 43. N.

GONGAS, a nation of Ethiopia, with the country on the W. of that of the Abissinians. See GONJAH.

GONGORA, Lewis De, an eminent poet, of the 16th century, descended from a distinguished family, and born at Cordova in Spain; the Spaniards reckon him one of their greatest poets, though none of his works were published during his death. He died in 1627.

GONIA, a town of Asiatic Turkey in the dep. of Aphiom-Karabissar, 16 miles W. of Aphiom-Karabissar.

GONJAH, a kingdom of Africa, lying between the Gulf of Guinea on the N. and the Gulf of Guinea on the S. It is supposed by M. De L'Isle to be the GONGE of M. De L'Isle's *Conche* of M. D'Anville.

(2.) GONJAH, the capital of the above, lies about 400 miles from Tombuctou, W. by S. of Cassina. Lon. 6. 10. W. Lat. 13. N.

GONINS, a town of Poland, in the dep. of Bielsk, 48 miles NW. of Bielsk.

(1.) GONIOMETRICAL, *adj.* [from *gonion*, an angle, and *metron*, to measure.] belonging to the measurement of angles.

(2.) GONIOMETRICAL LINES, in geometry, lines used for determining the quantity of such as sines, tangents, secants, &c. A treatise on this subject is inserted in the *Philos. Trans.* § 26.

GONIOMETRY, *n. s.* the art or method of measuring angles. M. De Lagny presented several papers on this art to the Royal Academy, which are inserted in their *Memoirs* for 1722 and 1729. His method consists in measuring angles with a pair of compasses, without a straight edge, except an undivided semicircle. But as it has not yet been adopted by any succeeding mathematicians, and has been reckoned of little value by some, we shall refer the inquirer for a farther description of it to the *Acad. Memoirs*, or Dr Hutton's *Mathematical Dictionary*.

GONKOFEN, a town of Lower Bavaria, 14 miles S. of Dingelsingen, and 14 E. of Landshut.

GONNELLI, John, an eminent Italian painter and sculptor of the 16th century, born in Bassano. His portraits of Pope Urban VI and Cosimo I, duke of Tuscany, have great merit. But having lost his sight at twenty years of age, he, merely by the sense of feeling, acquired perfection in sculpture. Several of his works are extant in France. He died at Rome in 1608.

GONNESSE. See GONESSE.

GONNEVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Seine, 6 miles N. of Montiville.

GONNORD, } a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire; 4 miles NNW. of Vihiers, and 15 S. of Angers.

GONOCARPUS, in botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the tetrandria digynia order, belonging to the tetrandria digynia order, belonging to the tetrandria digynia order.

GONON-BESAR, a mountain on the island of Java, famous for pepper.

(1.) \* GONORRHOEA. *n. s.* [from *gonos*, a mummy or stone mummy grows on the

they powder and boil it in milk, and  
to stop gonorrhoeas. *Woodw. on Fossils.*  
ORHOEA. See MEDICINE, and SUR-  
GES.

TOWN of Hungary, 22 miles SW. of

VT. or GONTAUT, a town of France,  
of Lot and Garonne, 4 miles N. of  
and 6 ESE. of Marmande.

ILT, Armand DE, lord of BIRON,  
France, and a celebrated general in the  
17th century, who signalized himself by his valour  
in several sieges and battles. He was  
master of the artillery in 1569, and  
assaulted him at the massacre of St

Barthelemy. He was the first who declared for  
the king. He brought a part of Normandy un-  
der the king's obedience, and dissuaded him from retiri-  
ng to Rochelle. He was killed by a  
bullet at the siege of Epernay, on the 26th  
of May 1650. He was a very universal scholar, and  
a pocket-book, in which he wrote  
things remarkable; which gave rise to  
court; when a person happened to  
bring uncommon, they told him, *Tou-  
chez à Biron's pocket-book.*

IT. See GONTANT.

ER, a Latin author of the 13th cen-  
tury wrote *A History of Constantinople*, in

ZAGA, a market town of the Cisal-  
pine, in the department of the Mincio,  
duchy of Mantua; with a fine cas-  
tral residence of the ancient dukes,  
of Mantua.

AGA, or } Lucretia, one of the most  
DO, } illustrious ladies of the  
17th century; much celebrated for her wit, learn-  
ed style. Hortensio Lando wrote  
upon her, and dedicated to her his dia-  
logues on the passions. Her letters were  
published at Venice in 1552. She was  
when she was not 14 years of age to  
anfrone, who afterwards engaged in a  
contest with the duke of Ferrara; and was de-  
prived of her freedom, but, though condemned,  
she did all in her power to  
obtain her liberty, but in vain; for he died in pri-  
son such impatience under his mis-  
fortune made it imagined he lost his senses.  
He would listen afterwards to any proposals  
which though several were made to her.  
From her pen was so much esteem-  
and reflection was made even of the notes  
of her servants.

GEN, a town of Germany, in the  
Upper Rhine, and ci-devant county of  
annexed to the French republic, and  
the department of the Rhine and  
Moselle. of Creutznach.

AND, a rich county of Virginia, 40  
miles broad; surrounded by Louisa,  
Richmond, Hanover, and Powhatan coun-  
ties, Rivanna and James rivers. In 1795,  
13,397 citizens, and 4,659 slaves.

OD. *adj.* comp. *better*, *superl. best.*  
*good*, Dutch.] 1. Having, either ge-  
nerally or any particular end, such physical

qualities as are expected or desired. Not bad;  
not ill.—God saw every thing that he had made,  
and behold it was very good. *Gen. i. 31.*—

A universe of death! which God by curse  
Created evil; for evil only good. *Milton.*  
Resolv'd

From an ill cause to draw a good effect. *Dryd.*  
—Notwithstanding this criticism the verses were  
*good.* *Spectator.*—A man is no more to be praised  
on this account, than because he has a regular  
pulse and a good digestion. *Addison.*—

Ah! ne'er so dire a thirst of glory boast,

Nor in the critick let the man be lost:

Good nature and good sense must ever join;

To err is human, to forgive, divine. *Pope.*

2. Proper; fit; convenient; right; not wrong.—  
Amongst a man's peers a man shall be sure of fami-  
liarity, and therefore it is good a little to keep state;  
amongst a man's inferiors one shall be sure of reve-  
rence, and therefore it is good a little to be familiar.

*Bacon.*—If you think good, give Martius leave.

*Bacon.*—It was a good time to comply with the  
importunity of the gentlemen of Sussex. *Clarend.*

3. Conducive to happiness.—It is not good that the  
man should be alone. *Gen. ii. 18.*—We may as  
well pretend to obtain the good which we want  
without God's assistance, as to know what is good  
for us without his direction. *Smalridge.* 4. Un-  
corrupted; undamaged.—He also bartered away  
plumbs, that would have rotted in a week, for  
nuts, that would last good for his eating a whole  
year. *Locke.* 5. Wholesome; salubrious.—

A man first builds a country seat,

Then finds the walls not good to eat. *Prior.*

6. Medicinal; salutary.—The water of Nilus is  
sweeter than other waters in taste, and it is excel-  
lent good for the stone and hypochondriack mel-  
ancholy. *Bacon.* 7. Pleasant to the taste.—Eat  
thou honey, because it is good; and the honey-  
comb, which is sweet. *Prov. xxiv. 13.*—Of herbs  
and plants some are good to eat raw; as lettuce,  
endive, and purslane. *Bacon.* 8. Complete; full.

—The Protestant subjects of the abbey make up  
a good third of its people. *Addison.* 9. Useful;  
valuable.—All quality, that is good for any thing,  
is originally founded upon merit. *Collier.*—We  
discipline betimes those other creatures we would  
make useful and good for somewhat. *Locke.* 10.

Sound; not false; not fallacious.—He is resolved  
not to shew how slight the propositions were  
which Luther let go for good. *Asterbury.* 11. Le-  
gal; valid; rightly claimed or held—According  
to military custom the place was good, and the  
lieutenant of the colonel's company might well  
pretend to the next vacant captainship in the same  
regiment. *Wotton.* 12. Confirmed; attested; va-  
lid.—

Ha! am I sure she's wrong'd? Perhaps 'tis  
malice!

Slave, make it clear, make good your accusation.

*Smitb.*  
13. With *as* preceding. It has a kind of negative  
or inverted sense; *as good as*, no better than.—  
Therefore sprang there even of one, and him *as*  
*good as* dead, so many as the stars of the sky in  
multitude. *Heb. xi.* 14. With *as* preceding. No  
worse.—He sharply reprov'd them as men of no  
courage, which, being many times *as good as* in  
possessive

possession of the victory, had most cowardly turned their backs upon their enemies. *Knolles*.—The master will be *as good as* his word, for his own business. *L'Estr.* 15. Well qualified; not deficient.—If they had held their royalties by that title, either there must have been but one sovereign over them all, or else every father of a family had been *as good as* a prince, and had *as good as* a claim to royalty as these. *Locke*. 16. Skilful; ready; dexterous.—Flatter him it may, I confess; as those are generally *good* at flattering who are *good* for nothing else. *South*.—

I make my way where-e'er I see my foe;  
But you, my lord, are *good* at a retreat. *Dryd.*  
17. Happy; prosperous.—Behold how *good* and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity. *Psalms* cxxxiii. 1.—

Many *good* morrows to my noble lord!  
—*Good* morrow, Cateby, you are early stirring.  
*Shak.*

*Good e'en*, neighbours;  
*Good e'en* to you all, *good e'en* to you all. *Shak.*  
At my window bid *good* morrow. *Milton.*  
*Good* morrow, Portius! let us once embrace.  
*Adijon.*

18. Honourable.—  
They cast to get themselves a name,  
Regardless whether *good* or evil fame. *Milton.*  
Silence, the knave's repute, the whore's *good* name,

The only honour of the wishing dame. *Pope.*  
19. Cheerful; gay. Joined with any words expressing temper of mind.—They may be of *good* comfort, and ever go cheerfully about their own affairs. 2 *Mac.* xi. 26.—Quietness improves into cheerfulness, enough to make me just so *good* humoured as to wish that world well. *Pope.* 20.

Considerable; not small though not very great.—A *good* while ago God made choice that the Gentiles by my mouth should hear the word. *Acts* xv. 7.—The plant, having a great stalk and top, doth prey upon the grass a *good* way about, by drawing the juice of the earth from it. *Bacon*.—Mirtle and pomegranate, if they be planted, tho' a *good* space one from the other, they will meet.

*Pencham*.—The king had provided a *good* fleet, and a body of three thousand foot to be embarked. *Clarendon*.—We may suppose a great many degrees of littleness and lightness in these earthy particles, so as many of them might float in the air a *good* while, like exhalations, before they fell down. *Burnes*.—They held a *good* share of civil and military employments during the whole time of the usurpation. *Swift.* 21. Elegant; decent; delicate: with *breeding*.—If the critick has published nothing but rules and observations in criticism, I then consider whether there be a propriety in his thoughts and words, clearness and delicacy in his remarks, wit and *good breeding* in his raillery. *Guardian*.—Mankind has been forced to invent a kind of artificial humanity, which is what we express by the word *good breeding*. *Spectator*.

—Those among them, who return into their several countries, are sure to be followed and imitated as the greatest patterns of wit and *good breeding*. *Swift.* 22. Real; serious; not feigned.—Love not in *good* earnest, nor no farther in sport neither, than with safety and pure blush thou

may'st in honour come off again. *S*  
Rich; of credit; able to fulfil engagements. *nio* is a *good* man: my meaning, in saying a *good* man, is to have you understand it is sufficient. *Shak.* 24. Having moral such as are wished; virtuous; pious; applied both to persons and actions, not evil.—For a *good* man some would to die. *Rom.* v. 7.—The woman hath *good* work upon me. *Matt*.—

All man's works on me,  
*Good* or not *good*, ingraft my merit,  
Shall perfect, and for these my death

What reward  
Awaits the *good*, the rest what punishment

The only Son of light  
In a dark age, against example *good*,  
Against allurements.  
Such follow him, as shall be reprobate  
Part *good*, part bad, of bad the large

Grant the bad what happiness they want,  
One they must want, which is to part

Why drew Marceilles' *good* his  
breath,  
When Nature sicken'd, and each  
death?

Such was Roscommon, not more  
*good*,  
With manners generous as his noble blood,  
No farther intercourse with Heaven  
But left *good* works to men of low

25. Kind; soft; benevolent.—Matter turned in her, that where at first likings were did breed *good* will, now *good* will the chief cause of liking her manners. Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace and *good* will towards men. *Luke* ii. 14. A *good* nature man is but a better man. *Bacon*.—

Here we are lov'd, and there we  
*Good* nature now and passion strive  
Which of the two should be above  
And laws unto the other give.  
—'Tis no wonder if that which affords  
glory to God, hath no more *good* will  
*Decay of Piety*.—

When you shall see him, sir, to do  
'Twere such a thing, 'twould so offend  
world,

'Twould make the people think you  
natur'd.

—To teach him betimes to love and be  
red to others, is to lay early the true  
of an honest man. *Locke*.—*Good* sense and  
ture are never separated, though the  
world has thought otherwise. *Dryden*.  
ty, mildness, tenderness, and a  
would fain bring back to its original  
of virtue, I mean *good* nature, are  
*Dryden*.—This doctrine of God's *good*  
men, this command of men's proportion  
will to one another, is not this the ver  
substance, this the very spirit and life

sole institution? *Spratt*.—It was his  
 sure to spread his healing wings over  
 ;, and to make every one sensible of  
 ill to mankind. *Calamy*.—  
 could you chide the young good natur'd  
 ce,  
 e him from you with so stern an air.

*Addison*.  
 ble; loving.—But the men were very  
 s, and we were not hurt. 1 *Sam*. xxv.

God is good to Israel, even to such as  
 an spirit. *Pf*. lxxiii. 1.—You have good  
 ce of us always, desiring greatly to see  
 ill to see you. 1 *Tbeff*. iii. 6.—I his in-  
 cessarily be adequate, being referred  
 else but itself, nor made by any other  
 the good liking and will of him that  
 his combination. *Locke*. 27. Compa-  
 sionate; merry. Often used ironical-  
 ly he did not draw the good fellows to  
 eking, yet he eat well. *Clarendon*.—

permitted to drink without eating, will  
 custom of having the cup at his nose;  
 beginning and preparation to good fel-  
 cty.—It was well known, that Sir Ro-  
 t a good fellow, in his youth. *Arbut-*  
*not* sometimes used as an epithet of slight  
 mplying a kind of negative virtue or  
 n from ill.—My good man, as far from  
 I am from giving him cause. *Shak*.—

the good man at home, and brought  
 ant. *SpeBar*. 29. In a numerous lentle.  
 other good women that love to do out  
 how handsome it is to louse themselves  
 ne, they that have been but a while  
 in well witness. *Spenser*. 30. Hearty;  
 dubious.—He, that saw the time fit  
 ery he intended, called unto us to fol-  
 low which we both, bound by oath, and  
 ood will, obeyed. *Sidney*.—The good  
 nation to the present war has been  
 much experienced by the successles  
 tended it. *Temple*.—

ill, she said, my want of strength sup-  
 ;  
 ence shall give what age denies.

*Dryden's Fab*.  
 o time. Not too fast.—In good time,  
 er, you have heard them dispute a-  
 um in the schools. *Collier*. 32. In  
 Really; seriously.—  
 mult I hold a candle to my shames?  
 emselves, good sooth, are too too light.

*Shak*.  
 To make.] To keep; to maintain; not  
 not to abandon.—There died upon  
 the chieftains, all making good the  
 any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced  
 re in spite of their dragoons, which  
 there to make good their retreat. *Gla-*  
*we* claim a proper interest above others  
 inent rights of the household of faith,  
 e good that claim, we are obliged a-  
 to conform to the proper manners  
 hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—  
 out fear a dangerous war pursues;  
 made him first the danger chide,  
 makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd*.

*Dryden's Fab*.  
 o time. Not too fast.—In good time,  
 er, you have heard them dispute a-  
 um in the schools. *Collier*. 32. In  
 Really; seriously.—  
 mult I hold a candle to my shames?  
 emselves, good sooth, are too too light.

*Shak*.  
 To make.] To keep; to maintain; not  
 not to abandon.—There died upon  
 the chieftains, all making good the  
 any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced  
 re in spite of their dragoons, which  
 there to make good their retreat. *Gla-*  
*we* claim a proper interest above others  
 inent rights of the household of faith,  
 e good that claim, we are obliged a-  
 to conform to the proper manners  
 hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—  
 out fear a dangerous war pursues;  
 made him first the danger chide,  
 makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd*.

*Shak*.  
 To make.] To keep; to maintain; not  
 not to abandon.—There died upon  
 the chieftains, all making good the  
 any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced  
 re in spite of their dragoons, which  
 there to make good their retreat. *Gla-*  
*we* claim a proper interest above others  
 inent rights of the household of faith,  
 e good that claim, we are obliged a-  
 to conform to the proper manners  
 hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—  
 out fear a dangerous war pursues;  
 made him first the danger chide,  
 makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd*.

*Shak*.  
 To make.] To keep; to maintain; not  
 not to abandon.—There died upon  
 the chieftains, all making good the  
 any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced  
 re in spite of their dragoons, which  
 there to make good their retreat. *Gla-*  
*we* claim a proper interest above others  
 inent rights of the household of faith,  
 e good that claim, we are obliged a-  
 to conform to the proper manners  
 hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—  
 out fear a dangerous war pursues;  
 made him first the danger chide,  
 makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd*.

*Shak*.  
 To make.] To keep; to maintain; not  
 not to abandon.—There died upon  
 the chieftains, all making good the  
 any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced  
 re in spite of their dragoons, which  
 there to make good their retreat. *Gla-*  
*we* claim a proper interest above others  
 inent rights of the household of faith,  
 e good that claim, we are obliged a-  
 to conform to the proper manners  
 hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—  
 out fear a dangerous war pursues;  
 made him first the danger chide,  
 makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd*.

*Shak*.  
 To make.] To keep; to maintain; not  
 not to abandon.—There died upon  
 the chieftains, all making good the  
 any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced  
 re in spite of their dragoons, which  
 there to make good their retreat. *Gla-*  
*we* claim a proper interest above others  
 inent rights of the household of faith,  
 e good that claim, we are obliged a-  
 to conform to the proper manners  
 hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—  
 out fear a dangerous war pursues;  
 made him first the danger chide,  
 makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd*.

*Shak*.  
 To make.] To keep; to maintain; not  
 not to abandon.—There died upon  
 the chieftains, all making good the  
 any ground given. *Bacon*.—He forced  
 re in spite of their dragoons, which  
 there to make good their retreat. *Gla-*  
*we* claim a proper interest above others  
 inent rights of the household of faith,  
 e good that claim, we are obliged a-  
 to conform to the proper manners  
 hat belong to this household. *Spratt*.—  
 out fear a dangerous war pursues;  
 made him first the danger chide,  
 makes it good on virtue's score. *Dryd*.

34. GOOD [To make]. To confirm; to establish.—  
 I farther will maintain

Upon his bad life to make all this good. *Shak*.  
 —To make good this explication of the article, it  
 will be necessary to prove that the church, which  
 our Saviour founded and the apostles gathered,  
 was to receive a constant and perpetual accession.  
*Pearson*.—These propositions I shall endeavour to  
 make good. *Smulridge*. 35. GOOD [To make.] To  
 perform.—

While she so far extends her grace,  
 She makes but good the promise of her face.

*Waller*.  
 45. GOOD [To make.] To supply.—Every distinct  
 being has somewhat peculiar to itself, to make  
 good in one circumstance what it wants in another.  
*L'Estr*.

(2.) \* GOOD. adv. 1. Well; not ill; not a-  
 miss. 2. As GOOD. No worse.—

Was I to have never parted from thy side,  
 As good have grown there still a lifeless rib.

*Milton*.  
 —Says the cuckow to the hawk, Had you not as  
 good have been eating worms now as pigeons?  
*L'Estrange*.

(3.) \* GOOD. interjection. Well! aight! It is  
 sometimes used ironically.

(4.) \* GOOD. n. s. 1. That which physically  
 contributes to happiness; benefit; advantage; the  
 contrary to evil or misery. —

I fear the emp'ror means no good to us. *Shak*.  
 —Let me play the lion too: I will roar, that I  
 will do any man's heart good to hear me. *Shak*.  
 —He wav'd indifferently 'twixt them, doing nei-  
 ther good nor harm. *Shak*.—

Love with fear the only God,  
 Merciful over all his works, with good  
 Still overcoming evil. *Milton*.

God is also in sleep, and dreams advise,  
 Which he hath sent propitious, some great good  
 Presaging. *Milton*.

Nature in man's heart her laws doth pen,  
 Prescribing truth to wit, and good to will. *Davies*.

—The lessening or escaping of evil is to be reck-  
 oned under the notion of good: the lessening or  
 loss of good is to be reckoned under the notion of  
 evil. *Wilkins*.—This caution will have also this  
 good in it, that it will put them upon considering,  
 and teach them the necessity of examining more  
 than they do. *Locke*.—Good is what is apt to cause  
 or increase pleasure, or diminish pain in us; or  
 else to procure or preserve us in the possession of  
 any other good, or absence of any evil. *Locke*.—

Refuse to leave thy destin'd charge too soon,  
 And for the church's good defer thy own. *Prior*.  
 Works may have more wit than does them  
 good,

As bodies perish through excess of blood. *Pope*.  
 —A thirst after truth, and a desire of good, are  
 principles which still act with a great and univer-  
 sal force. *Rogers*. 2. Prosperity; advancement.

If he had employ'd  
 Those excellent gifts of fortune and of nature  
 Unto the good, not ruin of the state. *B. Jonf*.

3. Earnest; not jest.—The good woman never  
 died after this, 'till she came to die for good and  
 all. *L'Estrange*. 4. Moral qualities, such as are  
 desirable; virtue; righteousness; piety; the con-  
 trary

*L'Estrange*. 4. Moral qualities, such as are  
 desirable; virtue; righteousness; piety; the con-  
 trary

*L'Estrange*. 4. Moral qualities, such as are  
 desirable; virtue; righteousness; piety; the con-  
 trary



trary to wickedness.—Depart from evil, and do good. *Pf. xxxiv. 14.*—Not only carnal good from evil does not justify; but no good, no not a purposed good, can make evil good. *Holiday.*—

O sons, like one of us is Man become,  
To know both good and evil, since his taste  
Of that defende fruit, but let him boast  
His knowledge of good lost, and evil got.  
Happier had it suffic'd him to have known  
Good by itself, and evil not at all. *Milton.*

Empty of all good, wherein consists  
Woman's domestic honour, and chief praise. *Milton.*

—By good, I question not but good, morally so called, *bonum honestum*, ought, chiefly at least, to be understood; and that the good of profit or pleasure the *bonum utile*, or *juvandum*, hardly come into any account here. *South.*—

Nor holds this earth a more deserving knight  
For virtue, valour, and for noble blood,  
Truth, honour, all that is compriz'd in good. *Dryden.*

5. Good placed after bad, with *as*, seems a substantive; but the expression is, I think, vicious; and good is rather an adjective elliptically used, or it may be considered as adverbial. See GOOD, *adv.*—The pilot must intend some port before he steers his course, or he had *as good* leave his vessel to the direction of the winds, and the government of the waves. *South.*—Without good nature and gratitude, men had *as good* live in a wilderness as in a society. *L'Esrange.*

(5.) GOOD, MORAL, (*§ 4. def. 4.*) denotes the right conduct of the senses and passions, or their just proportion and accommodation to their respective objects and relations. See MORALS.

(6.) GOOD, PHYSICAL. See § 1. *def. 1.*

GOOD BEARING. [*bonus gestus.*] in law. See ABEARING, and GOOD BEHAVIOUR. He that is bound to this, is more strictly bound than to the peace; because where the peace is not broken, the surety *de bono gestu* may be forfeited by the number of a man's company, or by their weapons.

GOODALL, Walter, a learned Scots antiquary and philologist, born in 1689. He was many years keeper of the Advocates Library, which gave him an opportunity of examining the original papers and authentic documents preserved among the records of that learned faculty, which he did not fail to improve. Being a zealous friend to the exiled royal house of Stewart, he was anxious to rescue the character of our unfortunate Q. Mary from the calumnies that had been thrown upon it, for near two centuries; and accordingly after much deep investigation, published a *Vindication* of that princess, which very much attracted the public attention, and exhibits equal proofs of his learning and industry in literary researches. He wrote several other pieces, and died at Edinburgh in 1751, in the 72d year of his age.

GOOD BEHAVIOUR, in law, an exact carriage and behaviour to the king and the people. A justice of the peace may, at the request of another, or where he himself sees cause, demand surety for the good behaviour; and to that end the justice may issue out his warrant against any persons whatsoever, under the degree of nobility; but when it is a nobleman, complaint is to be

made in the court of chancery, or where such nobleman may be bound peace. Infants and femes covert, to find surety by their friends, may be to their good behaviour; also justices sometimes local intervals, and all break the peace, or are suspected affrays, assaults, battery, wounding, quarrelling, threatening, &c. Peril likewise bound to good behaviour for way of living, keeping bawdy-house, houses, &c. and to may common whores, common whores, &c. He who demands surety for any violence offered, must take an oath of justice, that he goes in fear of his bodily harm, &c. and that it is not but from a regard to his own safety.

GOOD BREEDING. See BREEDING MANNERS.

\* GOOD-CONDITIONED, *adj.* Wholesome or symptoms. Used both of the soul, but not elegantly.—No surge affects of any kind by injections, wh good-conditioned. *Sturp's Surgery.*

GOODEROO, a lake of Abyssinia.

GOODERSTON, a town in Northamptonshire.

GOOD FORTUNE, an island in the North Sea, near the W. coast of Shetland, and 6 broad. Lon. 58. 50. E.

GOOD FRIDAY, a fast of the Christian in memory of the sufferings and death of Christ. It is observed on the Friday before Easter week. Among the Saxons it was called *Friday*; probably on account of the day, &c. then used. On Good Friday

on a plain form; and, after service is done, the cardinals wait on him back to the altar; they keep a deep silence, as a token of sorrow. In the night of Good-Friday perform the obsequies of our Saviour on a great crucifix, laid on a bed of state; flowers; these the bishops distribute to the assistants when the office is ended. On this day, set open a holy imitation of that of mount Calvary.

GOOD HENRY. See CHENOPODIUM.

(1.) GOOD HOPE, a Danish colony in Greenland. Lat. 64. 0. N.

(2.) GOOD HOPE, CAPE OF, a point in Africa, where the Dutch built a good fort; which were taken by the British of Aug. 1796. It is situated in the country of the HOTTENTOTS; for an account of the country at large, with its first discovery, see that article. On approaching the cape, a very remarkable eminence may be discovered at a considerable distance, called the TABLE MOUNTAIN, from its appearance, it terminates in a flat horizontal plain, which the face of the rock descends at right angles. In the summer season, mences in September, and continues the TABLE LAND OR MOUNTAIN, suddenly capped with a white cloud called the *spreading of the Table-cloth*; this cloud seems to roll down the face of the mountain; it is a sure indication of



of wind from the SE.; which generally with great violence, and sometimes continues day or more, but commonly is of short duration. On the first appearance of this cloud, the inhabitants of TABLE BAY prepare for it, by striking up their shutters, and making every thing as snug as possible.—A little W. of the Table Bay a round hill, called the *LOAF*; and by many the *LION'S HEAD*; there is a continuation from it contiguous to the sea, called the *Lion's Rump*; and when taken from a general view of the whole, it very much resembles that animal with his head erect. The *Head* and the *Lion's Rump* have each a fort on them, by which the approach of the governor, particularising the *Head*, is separated by a small chafin from the *Table Land*, stands *Charles's Mount*, and is by the appellation of the *Devil's Tower*; and is called so from the winds of wind supposed to issue from it, which are merely owing to the wind acquires in coming through the *Table*, which is by no means so frequent as in the *Table*, (as the *Devil's Tower* is contiguous to the *Table Land*;) that the *Table* is going to *breakfast*; if in the *Table* day, that he has going to *dinner*; if in the *Table* evening, that the cloth is spread for *dinner*. The level of the sea; the *Devil's Tower*, 2,764; and the *Lion's Head*, 2,764. In the *Table* of the latter lies *Constantia*, a town famous for its wines. (See that article.) The described high lands form a kind of *Table* about the *Table* valley, where the *Table* stands. This is situated at the bottom of the middle height, or *TABLE MOUNTAIN*; in the centre of *TABLE BAY*, so called from the *Table* mountain. *FALSE BAY*, on the SE. side of the *Cape*, is more secure than *Table Bay*, from the NW. winds. It is, however, less frequented, being 24 miles of very heavy road from the *Table*, whence almost all necessaries must be brought. The most sheltered part of *False Bay* is on the W. side, called *SIMON'S BAY*, the latest and most particular, and perhaps the most just account of the *Cape Town*, which voyagers have differed very much in that given by Mr White in his *Journal of a Voyage to New South Wales*. From the ship he observes (p. 37.) "the town appears pleasant, but at the same time small; and that arises from its being built in a valley between such stupendous mountains directly before it. On landing, however, you are surprised, and are not only not disappointed, but find it not only excellent, but well built, and in a good style; the houses are spacious, and intersecting each other at right angles with great precision. This exactness in the formation of the streets, when viewed from the *Table Land*, is observed to be very great. The houses in general are built of stone, cemented with a glutinous kind of earth which

serves as mortar, and afterwards neatly plastered and white-washed with lime. As to their height, they do not in common exceed two stories, on account of the violence of the wind, which at some seasons of the year blows with great strength and fury. For the same reason thatch has been usually preferred to tiles or shingles; but the bad effects that have proceeded from this mode when fires happen, has induced the inhabitants in all their new buildings to give the preference to slates and tiles. The lower parts of the houses, according to the custom of the Dutch, are not only uncommonly neat and clean in appearance, but they are really so; and the furniture is rather rich than elegant. But this is by no means the case with the bed-rooms or upper apartments; which are very ill furnished. The streets are rough, uneven, and unpaved: But many of the houses have a space flagged before the door; and others have trees planted before them, which form a pleasant shade, and give an agreeable air to the streets. The only landing place is at the east end of the town, where there is a wooden quay running some paces into the sea, with several cranes on it for the convenience of loading and unloading the goods that come along side. To this place excellent water is conveyed by pipes, which makes the watering of ships both easy and expeditious. Close to the quay, on the left hand, stands the castle and principal fortress; a strong extensive work, having excellent accommodations for the troops, and for many of the civil officers belonging to the company. Within the gates, the company have their principal stores; which are spacious as well as convenient. This fort covers and defends the east part of the town and harbour, as *Amsterdam fort* does the west part. The latter, which has been built since commodore Johnston's expedition, and whereon both French and Dutch judgment have been united to render it effectual and strong, is admirably planned and calculated to annoy and harass ships coming into the bay. Some smaller detached fortifications extend along the coast, both to the east and west, and make landing, which was not the case before the late war, hazardous and difficult. In a word, *Cape Town* is at this time fortified with strength, regularity, and judgment. The governor's house is delightfully situated, nearly in the centre of an extensive garden, formerly the property of the Dutch East India company, usefully planted, and at the same time elegantly laid out. This garden is as public as *St James's park*; and for its handsome, pleasant, and well-shaded walks, is much frequented by persons of every description. At the upper end of the principal walk is a small space walled in for confining some large ostriches and a few deer; and a little to the right of this is a small menagerie, in which the company kept a few wild beasts and curious birds. There are two churches in the town; one large, plain, and unadorned, for the Calvinists, and a smaller one for the Lutherans. The hospital, which is large and extensive, is situated at the upper end of the town, close to the garden; where the convalescents reap the benefit of a wholesome pure air, perfumed with the exhalations of a great variety of rich fruit trees,

trees, aromatic shrubs, and odorous plants and flowers; and likewise have the use of its productions. The Dutch East India company erected several other public buildings, which improve the appearance of the town. The two principal of these are, the stables and a house for the slaves. The former is a handsome range of buildings, capable of containing an incredible number of horses; which are small, spirited, and full of life. The latter is a building of a considerable extent, where the slaves, male and female, have separate apartments, in a very comfortable style, to reside in after their toil. The inhabitants of the Cape, though in their persons large, stout, and athletic, have not the characteristic phlegm of Dutchmen. The physical influence of climate may account for this. The ladies are lively, good-natured, and familiar; and from a peculiar gay turn, they admit of liberties that would be thought reprehensible in England, though perhaps they as seldom overleap the bounds of virtue as the women of other countries. The heavy draft work about the Cape is mostly performed by oxen; which are brought to an uncommon degree of usefulness and docility. It is not uncommon to see 14, 16, and sometimes 18, in one of their teams; when the roads are heavy, they sometimes, though rarely, yoke 20; all which the Hottentots, Malays, and Cape slaves, have in the most perfect subjection and obedience. One of these places himself on the fore part of the waggon, or, when loaded, on the top of the load, and with a tremendous long whip, which from its size he is obliged to hold in both his hands, manages these creatures with inexpressible address. They can make them either trot or gallop (a gait performed or kept up with difficulty by European oxen), with as much ease as if they were driving horses. They likewise manage horses with the same dexterity; and to see one of them driving 3, 4, 5, or, sometimes 6 pair, in hand, with one of these long whips, would astonish the most complete master of the whip in England. Carriages are not very numerous at the Cape, as the inhabitants in general travel in covered waggons, which better suit the roughness of the country. The governor and some of the principal people keep coaches, which are a good deal in the British style, and always drawn by six horses. The Cape lies W. of Cape Lagullas, the most southern extremity of Africa. Lon. 18° 23' E. Lat. 34. 29. S.

**GOODLEIGH**, a village in Devonshire.

\* **GOODLINESS**, *n. f.* [from *goodly*.] Beauty; grace; elegance.—She sung this song with a voice no less beautiful to his ears, than her *goodliness* was full of harmony to his ears. *Sidney*.—The stateliness of houses, the *goodliness* of trees, when we behold them, delighteth the eye. *Hooker*.

(1.) \* **GOODLY**, *adj.* [from *good*.] 1. Beautiful; graceful; fine; splendid. Now little in use.—A prince of a *goodly* aspect, and the more *goodly* by a grave majesty, wherewith his mind did deck his outward graces. *Sidney*.—

A *goodly* city is this Antium. *Shak. Coriol.*  
Patience and sorrow strove

Which should express her *goodliest*: you have seen  
Sunshine and rain at once. Her smiles and tears  
Were like a wetter May. *Shak. King Lear*.

Here from gracious England have  
Of *goodly* thousands. *Shak.*

—Rebekah took *goodly* raiment of Isaac, and put them upon Jacob. *G.*

—There was not among the children  
*goodlier* person than he. *1 Sam. ix. 2*

Both yonger than they were; of  
And all their formes, much *goodlier*

—He had not made them any see  
their *goodly* houses and olive gardens,  
the former wars. *Knolles*.—

The *goodliest* man of men I  
His sons, the fairest of her daughter  
Of the fourth Edward was his  
Fierce, *goodly*, valiant, beautiful,

Not long since walking in the field  
My nurse and I, we there beheld  
A *goodly* fruit, which, tempting me  
I would have pluck'd.

How full of ornament is all I see  
In all its parts! and seems as bees  
O *goodly* order'd work! O power  
Of thee I am, and what I am is thine

His eldest born, a *goodly* youth  
Excell'd the rest in shape and out  
Fair, tall, his limbs with due proportion  
But of a heavy, dull, degenerate

2. Bulky; swelling; affectedly turgid.  
Round as a globe, and liquor'd  
*Goodly* add great he sails behind him

3. Happy; desirable; gay.—Emulating  
peaceable kingdom, and but lately  
mild and *goodly* government of  
*Spenser*.—

We have many *goodly* days to live  
(2.) \* **GOODLY**, *adv.* Excellently

There Alma, like a virgin queen  
Doth flourish in all beauty excell  
And to her guests doth bound  
dight,

Attemper'd *goodly* well for health  
light.

\* **GOODLYHOOD**, *n. f.* [from *goodly* and *goodness*.] Obsolete.—

But more thy *goodlyhood* forgive  
To meet which of the gods I see

\* **GOODMAN**, *n. f.* [from *good* and *man*.] A slight appellation of civility; general

How now, what's the matter? part  
*goodman* boy, if you please excell  
*Shak. K. Lear*. 2. A rustick term of  
gaffer.—Nay, hear you, *goodman*  
*Hamlet*.—

But see the sun-beams bright to  
And gild the thatch of *goodman*!

Old *goodman* Dobson of the gr  
Remembers he the trees has seen  
**GOOD-MANNERS**. See **MANMANNERS**.

\* **GOODNESS**, *n. f.* [from *good* and *quality*.] Qualities either moral or physical; virtue.—If for any thing he loved gr  
because therein he might exercise  
*Sidney*.—There is in all things an

by they incline to something which  
:; all which perfections are contained  
cueral name of *goodness*. *Hooker*.—

All *goodness*  
to thy stomach.  
s, that *goodness*  
ng all the land's wealth unto one,  
own hands, cardinal, by extortion :  
*ness* of your intercepted packets  
to the pope against the king ; your  
*ness*,  
I provoke me, shall be most notorious.

*Shak. Henry VIII.*  
s no *goodness* in thy face. *Shak.*  
a general or natural *goodness* in crea-  
ng a more special or moral *goodness*. *Per-*  
*goodness* of every thing is measured by  
use, and that's the best thing which  
xist end and purpose. *Tillotson*.—All  
particular relations of the strength of  
my, the excellent discipline that was  
it, and the *goodness* of the men. *Clar.*  
can say that tobacco of the same *good*  
in respect of itself : one pound of the  
*ness* will never exchange for a pound  
er of the same *goodness*. *Locke*.  
sow. *interjection*. 1. In good time ; a la-  
A gentle exclamation of intreaty.  
low word—

ow, sit down, and tell me, he that  
was,

is same watch ? *Shak. Hamlet.*  
clamation of wonder.—*Good-ness*, *good-*  
rous devotions jump with mine ! *Dry-*  
*den*.

WICH, a village in Herefordshire.  
WINGTON, a town in Devonshire.  
WIS. *n. f.* [from *good*.] 1. Moveables

— That giv'st to such a guest  
nor selfe, of all thy *goods* the best.

or moveable estate.—  
hat a writ be su'd against you,  
t all your *goods*, lands, tenements,  
nd whatsoever. *Shak. Hen. VIII.*  
lets nothing the proceedings of the cl-  
which respect the temporal punishment  
body and *goods*. *Leffes*. 3. Ware ;  
erchandise.—Her majesty, when the  
r English merchant's were attached to  
f Alva, arrested likewise the *goods* of  
utch here in England. *Raleigh's Eff.*—  
that scorn'd all pow'r and laws of men,  
th their owners hurrying to their den.

*Waller*.  
SUCCESS, BAY OF. See COOK, N° III,  
DDWIN, John, an English divine and  
writer of the 17th century. He was  
St Stephen, in Coleman Street, Lon-  
as deprived of his benefice, for refu-  
sister the sacrament indiscriminately.  
lous republican, he wrote a Vindica-  
execution of Charles I. ; which, after  
ion, was burnt by the hangman. He  
1661.

(2.) GOODWIN, Thomas, an English divine,  
born at Rolesby, in Norfolk, A. D. 1600. To  
avoid religious persecution he went to Holland,  
and was chosen pastor of the English church at  
Arnhem. He returned to England during the  
civil war, and was elected a member of the cele-  
brated Assembly of Divines at Westminster. Oli-  
ver Cromwell appointed him president of Magda-  
len College, Oxford ; and he attended him in his  
last illness. Upon the restoration, he was ejected  
from his presidency, and died soon after. He  
wrote a number of tracts, which make 5 vols folio.

(3.) GOODWIN SANDS, or GODWIN SANDS, fa-  
mous sand banks off the coast of Kent, lying be-  
tween the N. and S. Foreland. As they run paral-  
lel with the coast for 3 leagues together, at about  
2½ leagues distant from it, they add to the security  
of that capacious road, the Downs : for while the  
land shelters ships with the wind from SW. to N.  
W. only, these sands break all the force of the sea  
when the wind is at ESE. The most dangerous  
wind, when blowing hard on the Downs, is the  
SSW. These sands occupy the space, that was  
formerly a large tract of low ground, belonging  
to Godwyns earl of Kent, father of K. Harold II. ;  
and which being afterward given to the monastery  
of St Augustin at Canterbury, the abbot neglect-  
ing to keep in repair the wall that defended it  
from the sea, the whole tract was drowned, A. D.  
1100, leaving these sands, upon which so many  
ships have since been wrecked. These sands lie  
E. of the Downs 4½ miles from S. Foreland.

GOODWINSTON, a village in Kent.

\* GOODY. *n. f.* [corrupted from *good wife*.]  
A low term for civility used to mean persequ—

So t, *goody* sheep, then said the fox, not so ;  
Unto the king so rash you may not go.

*Hubberd's Tale.*  
Swarm'd on a rotten sick the bees I spy'd,  
Which erst I saw when *goody* Dobson died. *Gay.*

Plain *goody* would no longer down ;  
'Twas madam in her grogram gown. *Swift.*

\* GOODYSHIP *n. f.* [from *goody*.] The qua-  
lity of *goody*. Ludicrous.—

The more shame for her *goodyship*,  
To give so near a friend the slip. *Hudibras.*

GOOGINGS, in sea language, are clamps of  
iron bolted on the stern-post of a ship, whereon  
to hang the rudder, and keep it steady ; for which  
purpose there is a hole in each of them, to receive  
a correspondent spindle bolted on the back of the  
rudder, which turns thereby as upon hinges.

GOOL, John VAN, an eminent Dutch painter  
and man of letters, born at the Hague, in 1685.  
He wrote a history of the lives and works of the  
Flemish painters.

GOOMPTY, a river of Indostan Proper, which  
rises in Rohilla, runs SE. by Lucknow and Jion-  
pour, and falls into the Ganges below Benares.

GOOSANDER. See MERGUS, N° 4.

(1.) \* GOOSE. *n. f.* plural *geese*. [*gos*, Saxon ;  
*goes*, Dutch ; *gawse*, Erse, sing. *gewey*, plural.]  
1. A large waterfowl proverbially noted, I know  
not why, for foolishness.—

Thou cream-faced lown,  
Where got'st thou that *goose* look ? *Shak. Marb.*  
—Since I pluckt *geese*, play'd truant, and whipt  
top,

top, I knew not what 'twas to be beaten till lately. *Shak.*—Birds most easy to be drawn see water-fowl; as the *goose* and *swan*. *Peacbam.*—

Nor watchful dogs, nor the more wakeful *geese*.

Disturb with nightly noise the sacred peace.

*Dryd. Fables.*

2. A taylor's smoothing iron.—Come in, taylor; here you may roast your *goose*. *Shak.*

(1.) *GOOSE*, in ornithology, (§ 1. def 1.) See *ANAS*, § 4, 8, &c. Geese were held in great esteem amongst the Romans, for having saved the Capital from the invasion of the Gauls, by cackling and clapping their wings. They were kept in the temple of Juno; and the censors, when they entered upon their office provided meat for them. There was also an annual feast at Rome, at which they carried a silver image of a goose in state; and hanged a dog, because these animals did not bark at the arrival of the Gauls.

(2.) *GOOSE*, *EMPER*, a peculiar species of geese, that frequent the coasts of the Orkney and Shetland isles, in the winter, described by the rev. Mr Bremner, in his account of Walls and Flota. See *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XVII. 321. From his description, they seem to be a species of *MERCUS*. "Though less in size, (he says,) than the common grey goose, it weighs a great deal more. They sometimes weigh 18 lb. It is never seen on land, and, though it has pretty large wings, it is never seen to fly. The feet are so much in a right line with its body, that they can never be brought far enough forward to assist it in rising out of the water. Nor does nature seem to have intended, that it ever should fly; for in whatever manner it is attacked, pursued, or surpris'd, it always has recourse to diving. Being a bird of passage, it differs from all others in preferring the medium of water to that of air. How this bird hatches its young remains a profound secret, both as to the manner and place."

(4.) *GOOSE*, *GOLDEN*. See *ABYSSINIA*.

(1.) \* *GOOSEBERRY*. *n. f.* [*goose* and *berry*, because eaten with young geese as sauce.] A berry and tree. The species are, 1. The common gooseberry. 2. The large manured gooseberry. 3. The red hairy gooseberry. 4. The large white Dutch gooseberry. 5. The large amber gooseberry. 6. The large green gooseberry. 7. The large red gooseberry. 8. The yellow-leaved gooseberry. 9. The striped leaved gooseberry. *Miller.*—August has upon his arm a basket of all manner of ripe fruits; as pears, plums, apples, *gooseberries*. *Peacbam.*—

Upon a *gooseberry* bush a snail I found;

For always snails near sweetest fruit abound.

*Gay.*

(2.) *GOOSEBERRY*, in botany. See *RIBES*.

(3.) *GOOSEBERRY*, *AMERICAN*. See *MELASTOMA*.

(4.) *GOOSEBERRY*, *BARBADOES*. See *CACTUS*.

*GOOSEBERRY HILL*, a hill in Cork, Ireland.

*GOOSEBERRY ISLANDS*, islands near the E. coast of Newfoundland, 24 miles NW. of Cape Bonavista.

*GOOSEBERRY MOUNTAIN*, a mountain of New York, on the W. bank of Hudson's River, 4 miles S. of Fort George.

*GOOSEBERRY ROCKS*, rocks on the Massachusetts, 2 miles N. of Marblehead.

\* *GOOSECAP*, *n. f.* [from *goose* and a silly person.

*GOOSE CREEK*, a river of Virginia, which into the Potomac, 1 mile S. of Thorpe, Fairfax county.

(1.) \* *GOOSEFOOT*. *n. f.* [*chenopodium*] orach. *Miller.*

(2.) *GOOSEFOOT*. See *CHENOPodium*.

(1.) \* *GOOSEGRASS* *n. f.* *Clivers*; an *Goosegrass*, or wild tansy, is a weed the clays are very subject to. *Mort.*

(2.) *GOOSEGRASS*. See *GALIUM*, N°

(3.) *GOOSEGRASS*, *GREAT*, or *wild*. See *ASPERUGO*.

*GOOSEHURST*, a town N. of Soath.

*GOOSE ISLAND*, an isle in the Gulph of rence, near the coast of Labrador. Lon W. Lat. 50. 52. N.

*GOOSE-NECK*, in a ship, a piece of it on the one end of the tiller, to which the of the whip-staff or the wheel-rope co steering the ship.

*GOOSE-TONGUE*, a species of *ACHILL*.

*GOOSE-WING*, in sea language. When sails before, or with a quarter wind on gale, to make the more haste, they launch boom and sail on the lee side; and a sail is called a *goose-wing*.

*GOOSEY*, a town near Stamford, Be

*GOOTY*, or *GUTTI*, a strong fort on an islan, formerly the seat of government of Row, a Mahratta prince, and lately by sultan Tippoo, before his final defeat by tish in 1799. It is seated beyond the Pe miles S. by E. of Adoni. Lon. 77. 35. E. 15. N.

*GOPLO*, a lake of Poland, in the p of Brzesk, 16 miles long and 4 broad, W. of Brzesk.

*GOPPENGEN*, a town of Germany duchy of Wirtemberg, seated on the Vil mineral spring, 22 miles ESE. of Stuttg 20 NNW. of Ulm. It has considerable manufactures. At present (Jan. 1801) th are in possession of it.

*GORANTO*, a town of Asiatic Tartarania, 80 miles SW. of Satalia.

(1.) *The GORBALS OF GLASGOW*, Scotland, in Lanarkshire, disjoined from Govan, in 1771; comprehending abo acres. The soil is partly a strong bla partly rich clay, and partly sand, the air and the ground flat, abounding with coa Govan colliery is supposed to have as n as would serve Glasgow for 100 years. 200 men are employed in it.

(2.) *GORBALS OF GLASGOW*, a villagi rony in the above parish, on the S. in Clyde, anciently called Bridge-end. It contained 3000 inhabitants, and in 179 5000; as stated by the rev. W. Anderst report to Sir J. Sinclair. Within three e. in 1795, it was expected that number doubled. There were then 556 looms i lage. Longevity is not uncommon. Se lived to 100 and 104. Most of the vi

748; and it was much damaged by ice in 1712, and 1782.

ARA, a town of the French republic in and dept. of Corsica, 8 miles NE. of

ATA, a town of Tunis, 20 miles S. of

ATOV, a town of Russia, in Nizgorod.

BELLIED. *adj.* [from *gorbelly*.] Fat; having swelling paunches.—Hang ye, knaves, are you undone? No, ye fat would your store were here. *Henry IV.*

BELLY. *n. f.* [from *gor*, dung, and *rding* to *Skinner* and *Junius*. It may come from *gor*, Welsh, beyond, too; as seems to me more likely, may be from *gormand*, or *gorman's belly*, the glutton.] A big paunch; a swelling term of reproach for a fat man.

E. *n. f.* a pool to keep fish in. *Bailey*.

UM, or GORICHEM, a town of the Baublic, in the dept. of Delft, and late lulland, which carries on a considerable cheese and butter. It is seated at the f the Ligne and Maese, 12 miles E. of 130 S. of Amsterdam. Lon. 4. 59. E. 1. N.

LD. *n. f.* An instrument of gaming, as om *Beaumont* and *Fletcher*. *Warburton*. y bones can reach at nothing now, but *minepins*. *Beaum. and Fletcher*.—Let vulc thy guts; for *gords* and Fulham-holds.

ELIZA, a town of Spain, in the pro-  
copr; 22 miles SSE. of Leon.

ES, a town of France, in the dept. of  
hs of the Rhone, 9 miles W. of Apt,  
of Avignon.

ÆI MOUNTS, or } The name of one  
ÆIUS MOWS, } or more mountains  
2, upon which Noah's ark is said to  
d after the general deluge, and on one  
the Tigris rises.

IAN. See GORDIANUS, I, II, and III.  
IN KNOT, in antiquity a knot made by  
us, in one of the cords of his yoke, or  
we it, in the leathers of his chariot har-  
ch was so very intricately twisted, that it  
ible to discover where it began or ended.  
e of Apollo having declared that, who-  
d untie this knot should be master of all  
y attempted it, but without success;  
Alexander the Great, after likewise at-  
in vain to untie it, cut it asunder with  
and thus either eluded or fulfilled the  
See GORDIUS, N° 1.

IANUS I, Mæcius Antonius, a Roman  
or his virtues chosen emperor by the ar-  
reign of Maximus, A. D. 236. He  
ded on the father's side from the Græc-  
the mother's from Trajan. He had  
e consul, and was proconsul of Africa  
sen emperor; but his son being slain by  
the governor of Mauritania, he killed  
his 80th year. See ROME. He was so  
er of literature that he had collected in-  
try 62,000 books.

IANUS II, Mæcius Antonius, surnamed

*Africains*, the son of the preceding, by Annia  
Orestilla, the grand-daughter of the emperor Mar-  
cus Antoninus, was like his father very learned  
and liberal. He was made consul by the emperor  
Alexander, and afterwards associated with his fa-  
ther in the empire, but slain in fighting against the  
partisans of Maximinus, A. D. 237.

GORDIANUS III. Mæcius Antonius, grandson of  
Gordianus I, by his daughter Faustina, a renown-  
ed warrior, and styled *The guardian of the Roman  
commonwealth*. He was treacherously assassinated  
by Phillip, an Arabian, one of his generals; who  
succeeded him, A. D. 244. See ROME.

GORDIUM, a city of Phrygia Major, where  
Alexander the Great cut the Gordian Knot.

(I.) GORDIUS, in fabulous history, a poor  
husbandman who had two yokes of oxen, where-  
with he ploughed his land and drew his wain.  
An eagle sitting a long while upon one of his ox-  
en, he consulted the soothsayers; a virgin bad  
him sacrifice to Jupiter in the capacity of king.  
He married the virgin, who bore to him MIDAS.  
The Phrygians instructed by the oracle to set the  
first person they met in a wain upon the throne,  
met Gordius, and made him king. Midas for this  
good fortune dedicated to Jupiter his father's cart;  
and Gordius hung up the knot of the yoke in the  
temple. See GORDIAN KNOT.

(II.) GORDIUS, in zoology, the HAIR WORM,  
a genus of animals belonging to the class of *ver-  
mes* and order of *intestina*. There are several spe-  
cies; viz.

1. GORDIUS AQUATICUS, the water hair worm,  
is 10 or 12 inches in length, and of about the  
thickness of a horse hair; its skin is smooth and  
glossy; its colour pale yellowish white all over,  
except the head and tail, which are black. The  
body is rounded, and very slender in proportion  
to its length: the mouth is small, and placed ho-  
rizontally; the jaws are of equal length, and ob-  
tuse at their extremities. This species is common  
in our fresh waters, especially in clay, through  
which it passes as a fish does through the water,  
and thus gives rise to many springs. This is the  
species of worms, that in Guinea and in some o-  
ther hot countries get into the flesh of the natives,  
and occasion great mischief: with us, though fre-  
quent enough in water where people bathe, it ne-  
ver attempts this.

2. GORDIUS ARGILLACEUS, or clay hair-worm,  
only differs from the preceding in colour, being  
yellowish at the extremities, and in being chiefly  
found in clay.

3. GORDIUS MARINUS, the sea hair-worm, is  
filiform, twisted spirally, and lying flat, about  
half an inch in length; of a whitish colour, smooth,  
and scarcely diminishing at the head. It infests  
herrings, bleaks, and various other fish.

4. GORDIUS MEDINENSIS, the muscular hair-  
worm, is all over of a pale yellowish colour. It  
is a native of both Indies; frequent in the morn-  
ing dew, from whence it enters the naked feet of  
the slaves, and occasions a disease common in those  
countries, and to which children are very liable;  
occasioning severe itchings, and often exciting in-  
flammations and fevers. It infests the muscles of  
the arms and legs, whence it may be drawn out  
by a thread, tied round the head, but care must

be taken not to break it, as the remaining part will grow with redoubled vigour. Baths with infusions of bitter plants, and all vermifuges, destroy it.

(1.) GORDON, Alexander, M. A. an eminent Scots antiquary, an excellent draughtsman, and a good Greek scholar, who resided many years in Italy, visited most parts of that country, and travelled into France, Germany, &c. He was secretary to the Society for Encouragement of Learning, and afterwards to the Egyptian Club, composed of gentlemen who had visited Egypt, such as Lord Sandwich, Dr Shaw, Dr Pococke, &c. He succeeded Dr Stukely as secretary to the Antiquarian Society, which office he resigned in 1752 to Mr Joseph Ames. He went to Carolina with governor Glen, where, besides a grant of land, he had several offices, such as register of the province, &c.; and died a justice of the peace, leaving a handsome estate to his family. He published *Itinerarium Septentrionale*, or a Journey through most parts of the Counties of Scotland, in two parts with 66 copperplates, 1726, folio.

2. Supplement to the *Itinerarium*, 1732, folio. 3. The Lives of Pope Alexander VI. and his son Cæsar Borgia. 4. A complete History of the ancient Amphitheatres, 1736, 8vo. afterwards enlarged in a second edition. 5. An Essay towards explaining the hieroglyphical figures on the Coffin of the ancient Mummy belonging to Capt. William Lestocquer, 1737, folio, with cuts. 6. Twenty-six plates of all the Egyptian Mummies and other Egyptian Antiquities in England, 1739, fol.

(2.) GORDON, hon. George, or Lord George Gordon, 3d son of Cosmo George, D. of Gordon, by Catharine daughter of William E. of Aberdeen, was born at London, Dec. 19th. 1750, and K. George II. was his godfather. He early entered into the navy, but quitted it during the American war, in consequence of an altercation with E. Sandwich about promotion. He was elected M. P. for Ludgerthall, Wilts, in 1774; and during several sessions animadverted with great freedom and no small humour, on the speeches and proceedings of both ministry and opposition. An alarm having been excited by the repeal of certain penal statutes against the Roman catholics in 1779, lord George was chosen president of the Protestant Association at London; and on the 2d June 1780, went to the house of Commons, to present their petition against that rescissory act, attended by about 60,000 of the petitioners. The dreadful consequences of this imprudent measure are related under the article ENGLAND, § 101 and 102. Lord George was imprisoned in the tower, on the 9th June 1780; and tried for high treason, but acquitted on the 4th Feb. 1781; on which occasion there was a very general illumination in Scotland, and 4851. were subscribed to reimburse the expences of his trial. On the 4th

he was excommunicated by the Abp. of York for not appearing in court as a witness. In Feb. and June 1787 he was in the court of King's Bench, for publishing the Queen of France, the French and the Empress of Russia; and also a pamphlet entitled, *A Petition to*

*Lord G. Gordon from the Prisoners in praying that he would secure their liberty venting them from being sent to Botany Bay* petition, upon trial, was proved to be written by himself, for the purpose of criminal justice of England. Being on these charges, he, on the 25th June, went to Holland, where he turned Jew, and was circumcised; but, returning to England he was apprehended on the 7th Dec. 1788, and on the 28th Jan. 1788, was committed to imprisonment for 5 years, and to jail till he should find bail for his good in L.10,000. Not being able to find end of that period to the extent required as a sentence of imprisonment till July 1789, he presented a petition to the Assembly of France, and was visited by eminent revolutionists. He died Nov. 1789 a fever attended with delirium, in the 38th year of his age. As an author, his publications and miscellaneous, abounded with his were not destitute of argument; as a pulpit his language was animated, and his didactic. Of his eccentricities we shall say but his conversion from Christianity to the strictest sects of Presbyterian Secedism, was so very *outré* a measure, that indeed it was *real*, it can be accounted upon one supposition. But whatever thought of his *head*, it is but justice to say, that his beneficence to his fellow-men proved, that his *heart* was impregnated with the finest feelings of sensibility and humanity.

(3.) GORDON, James, a learned Jesuit flourished in the end of the 16th and the beginning of the 17th centuries. He was descended of a family of rank, and settling in France, he became a brewer at Bourdeaux and Paris. He died in 1640.

(4.) GORDON, Thomas, a Scots author of Kirkcudbright, famous for his translation of the *Political Writings*. He came young to Oxford in queen Ann's time, but in what time he is not now known. He first distinguished himself in the defence of Dr Hoadley in his *gorian controversy*: which recommended Mr Trenchard, in conjunction with whom he wrote the well known *Cato's Letters*, a series of important public subjects. This was followed by another periodical paper, the title of the *Independent Whig*; which continued some years after Mr Trenchard's death alone, against the hierarchy of the church but with more acrimony than was shown in *Cato's Letters*. At length Sir Robert Walpole retained him to defend his administration which end he wrote several pamphlets till the time of his death, July 28th 1750, he was commissioner of the wine licenses, as of which he had enjoyed many years. He was married. His second wife was the widow of his friend Trenchard, by whom he had children. He published English translations of Suetonius Tacitus, with additional discourses to which contain much useful matter. T

led, 1. *A Cordial for Low-spirits*, in 1 2. *The Pillars of Priedcraft and Or-*  
*ven*; in 2 vols. 8vo. were published at

1791, in geography, a parish of Scot-

wickshire, 7 miles long, and from 2  
 The air is salubrious; the surface is  
 soil partly light and sandy, partly  
 10fs. Above 200 black cattle, and fe-  
 of sheep are fed annually. The po-  
 1791, stated by the rev. Alex. Duncan,  
 t to Sir J. Sinclair was 912, and had  
 5 since 1755. Barley, corn, and tur-  
 chief produce. Agriculture is im-  
 om 10,000 to 12,000 bolls are annual-  
 the mills.

ON, EAST; } 2 villages in the above  
 ON WEST; } parish.

NA, a town of Naples, in the prov.  
 miles SW. of Molise.

NIA, in botany; a genus of the po-  
 er, belonging to the monadelphia class  
 The calyx is simple; the style five-cor-  
 the stigma quinquetid; the capsule  
 lar; the seeds two-fold with a leafy  
 is a tall and very straight tree, with  
 ramidal head. Its leaves are shaped  
 f the common bay, but serrated. It  
 lay, June and July. The flowers grow  
 s about 5 inches long, are monopeta-  
 succeeded by conic capsules with a  
 t. The stamina are headed with yel-  
 This tree retains its leaves all the year,  
 ily in wet places, and usually in water.

RE. *n. f.* [*gore*, Saxon; *gor*, Welsh,  
 et.] 1. Blood effused from the body.

A grilly wound,  
 ch forth gush'd a stream of *gore* blood

er goodly garment stain'd around,  
 deep sanguine dy'd the grassy ground.

*Spenser.*  
 's crimes the youth unhappy bore,  
 is father's eyes with guiltless *gore*.

*Dryden's En.*  
 ted or congealed.—

The bloody fact  
 ng'd; though here thou see him die,  
 dust and *gore*. *Milton's Par. Lost.*  
 id beard and knotted tresses stood,  
 is *gore*, and all his wounds ran blood.

*Denham.*  
 in globe-making. See GLOBE, § 1,

, in heraldry, one of the abatements,  
 ding to Gullim, denotes a coward.  
 consisting of two arch lines drawn  
 : sinister chief, and the other from  
 fe, both meeting in an acute angle  
 of the fess point. See HERALDRY.

ISLAND, an island in the South Pa-  
 discovered by Captain Cook. Lon.  
 at. 64. o. N.

E. v. a. [*geberian*, Saxon.] 1. To  
 e.—

io noble eye profane a tear  
 be *gor'd* with Mowbray's spear. *Shak.*  
 ART. II.

No weaker lion's by a stronger slain;  
 Nor from his larger tusks the forest boar  
 Commission takes his brother swine to *gore*.

*Tate's Jew.*  
 For arms his men long pikes and javans bore,  
 And poles with pointed steel their axes in battle  
*gore*.

2. To pierce with a horn —  
 Some tofs'd, some *gor'd*, some trampling down  
 he kill'd. *Dryden.*

He idly butting, feigns  
 His rival *gor'd* in every knotty trunk. *Thomf.*

(1.) GOREE, a small island of Africa, near  
 Cape de Verd, subject to the French. It is a small  
 spot not exceeding 1 m. in circumference, but im-  
 portant from its situation for trade, near Cape Verd;  
 whence it has been a bone of contention between  
 European nations. It was first possessed by the  
 Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the  
 English; but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch,  
 and in 1677 by the French, in whose possession it  
 remained till 1759, when it was reduced by com-  
 modore Keppel, but restored to the French in  
 1763. It was retaken by the British in the Ame-  
 rican war, but again restored at the peace of 1783.  
 Lon. 17. 25. E. Lat. 14. 40. N.

(2.) GOREE, an island of the Batavian republic,  
 in the dept. of Delit, near the mouth of the Mucle,  
 15 miles in circumference, and 2 miles N. of  
 Schowen. Lon. 20. 26. E. of Ferro. Lat. 41. 49. N.

(3.) GOREE, the capital of the above island, 6  
 miles S. of Heivoetsfluyt, and 8 S. of Briel. Lon.  
 3. 30. E. Lat. 41. 45. N.

(4.) GOREY, a borough and post town of Ire-  
 land, in Westford, otherwise called *Neashrough*;  
 18 miles N. of Wexford, and 45 S. of Dublin.  
 Lon. 6. 30. W. Lat. 52. 30. N.

(5.) GOREY MOUNTAINS, mountains of Ireland,  
 in the county of Donegal, 14 miles SW. of Derry.  
 GORGAST a town of Germany, in Branden-  
 burg, 4 miles W. of Cultrin.

(1.) \* GORGE. *n. f.* [*gorge*, Fr.] 1. The throat;  
 the swallow.—There were birds also made to fine-  
 ly, that they did not only deceive the sight with  
 their figures, but the hearing with their songs,  
 which the watery instruments did make their *gorge*  
 deliver. *Sidney*.—And now how abhorred in my  
 imagination it is! my *gorge* rises at it. *Shak. Hamlet*.  
 —Her delicate tenderness will find itself abused,  
 begin to heave the *gorge*, disbelieve and abhor the  
 Moor. *Shak. Othello*. 2. That which is gorged or  
 swallowed. Not in use.—

And all the way, most like a brutish beast,  
 He spewed up his *gorge*, that all did him detest.

*Shenker.*  
 (2.) GORGE, in architecture, the narrowest part  
 of the Tuscan and Doric capitals, lying between  
 the astragal, above the shaft of the pillar, and the  
 anulets.

(3.) GORGE, in fortification, the entrance of the  
 platform of any work. See FORTIFICATION.

\* To GORGE. *v. n.* [*gorger*, Fr.] 1. To fill up  
 to the throat; to glut; to satiate.—

Being with his presence gorged, *gor'd*, and  
 full.

He that makes his generation nestle,  
 To *gorge* his appetite. *Shak. K. Lear.*



*Gorge* with my blood thy barbarous appetite.  
*Dryden.*

—I desire that they will not *gorge* the lion either with nonsense or obscenity. *Addison.*—

Nor would his slaughter'd army now have lain  
On Africk's sands, dishonour'd with their wounds,  
To *gorge* the wolves and vultures of Numidia.

*Addison's Gato.*  
The giant, *gorg'd* with flesh, and wine, and blood,

Lay stretch'd at length, and snoring in his den.  
*Addison.*

2. To swallow: as, *the fish has gorged the boat.*  
(1.) \* **GORGED.** *adj.* [from *gorge*.] Having a gorge or throat.—

Look up a height, the shrill *gorg'd* lark so far  
Cannot be seen or heard. *Shakespeare.*

(2.) **GORGED**, in heraldry, the bearing of a crown, coronet, or the like, about the neck of a lion, a swan, &c. The term is also used when the gorge or neck of a peacock, swan, or the like bird, is of a different colour or metal from the rest.

\* **GORGEOUS.** *adj.* [from *gorgias*, old French. *Skinner.*] Fine; splendid; glittering in various colours; showy; magnificent.—

O, that deceit should dwell

In such a *gorgeous* palace! *Shak. Romeo and Jul.*  
As full of spirit as the month of May,

And *gorgeous* as the sun at Midsummer. *Hen. IV.*  
—He bad them look upon themselves and upon their enemies: themselves dreadful, their enemies *gorgeous* and brave. *Hayward.*—

The *gorgeous* East, with richest hand,  
Pours on her kings barbaric pearl and gold.

*Milton.*  
With *gorgeous* wings, the marks of sov'reign sway,

The two contending princes make their way.  
*Dryden's Virgil.*

\* **GORGEOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *gorgeous*.] Splendidly; magnificently; finely.—The duke, one solemn day, *gorgeously* clad in a suit all over spread with diamonds, lost one of them of good value. *Wotton.*

\* **GORGEOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *gorgeous*.] Splendour; magnificence; show.

(1.) \* **GORGET.** *n. f.* [from *gorge*.] The piece of armour that defends the throat.—

He with a palsy fumbling on his *gorget*,  
Shakes in and out the rivet. *Shakespeare.*

—He did oftentimes spend the night in the church alone praying, his head piece, *gorget*, and gauntlets lying by him. *Knolles.*—

See how his *gorget* peers above his gown,  
To tell the people in what danger he was.

*Ben Jonson.*  
About his neck a threefold *gorget*,

As rough as trebled leathern target. *Hudibras.*

(2.) A **GORGET** is a kind of breast-plate like a half moon, with the arms of the prince thereon; worn by the officers of foot. They are either gilt or silver, according to the colour of the buttons on the uniforms.

(3.) **GORGET**, or **GORGET**, in surgery, the concave or cannulated conductor, used in lithotomy. See **SURGERY**.

**GORGIAS**, a celebrated orator of Sicily, born at Leontium, about A. A. C. 417. According to

Quintilian, he was the first extemporator, but this is not credible. Men muken extempore, before they studied if statue of gold was erected to him at E

**GORGOGNONE**, a town of Na province of Basilicata; 15 miles E. of

(1.) \* **GORGON.** *n. f.* [20920.] A nsnaky hairs, of which the sight turned it to stone; any thing ugly or horrid.—

*Gorgons* and hydras, and chymera

Why didst thou not encounter m  
And try the virtue of that *gorgon* fi  
To stare me into statue.

(2.) The **GORGONS**, in antiquity and were three sisters, whose names we EURYALE, and MEPUA; the latter o mortal, but the two former were su to age nor death. They are described on their shoulders, with serpents heads, their hands were of brass, an of a prodigious size, so that they we terror to mankind. Pausanias says, t were the daughters of Phorbos, or Ph

whose death Medusa, his daughter, t the Libyans dwelling near the lake

The queen, being fond of hunting at the neighbouring countries quite was Perseus, having made war on them the queen, when he came to take a field of battle, he found the queen's) tremely beautiful, that he ordered he cut off, and carried it with him to those who could not behold it without a

Others represent them as a kind of m men, covered with hair, who lived i forests. Others, again, make them

fembling wild sheep, whose eyes had and fatal influence.

(1.) **GORGONA**, a small island of sea of Tuscany, and near that of Cor miles in circumference; remarkable quantities of anchovies taken near it. E. Lat. 43. 22. N.

(2.) **GORGONA**, a small island of th 18 miles W. of the coast of Peru, a miles in circumference. It has severa rivulets of excellent water, but is f constant rains. Lon. 79. 3. W. Lat. 3.

**GORGONIA**, in natural history, zoophytes, formerly called *ceratopl* English named *sea-fans*, *sea-feathers*, & Linnæus and Pallas consider them a nature in their growth, between ani getables; but Mr Ellis shows them to mals of the polype kind, growing up) form resembling a shrub, and in no p

They differ from the fresh water poly their qualities, and particularly in pr their own substance a hard and solid su many of the purposes of the bone in c

The surface of the *gorgonia* is compo of scales, so well adapted to each oth for defence from external injuries; i or, as some have called it, the *barbo* fits of proper muscles and tendons; the openings of their cells; for sendi

thence their polype suckers in search

g them in suddenly, and contracting  
er muscles of their starry cells, in order  
hese tender parts from danger; and also  
secretory ducts, to furnish and deposit  
matter that forms the stem and brain-  
ll as the base of the bone. Mollusks al-  
: there are ovaries in these animals, and  
ry probable that many of them are vi-  
See CORALLINES.

ORKA, an island of Abyssinia, in the lake  
15 miles NW. of Gondar, which has a  
lt by F. Pays, wherein the emperor re-  
nter.

JE, a town of France, in the dep. of  
13 miles W. of Lille.

WITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in  
7 of Reus, 1 mile NW. of Tschleitz.

RIAM, a kingdom of Africa, lying be-  
1. 21° and 29° E. and between Lat. 10°  
l.

RHAM, a township of the United States,  
land county and district of Maine, on  
f the Saco; 15 miles from Pepperel-  
d 130 N. by E. of Bolton; containing  
ns in 1795.

HEM. See GORCUM.

RITIA, GORITZ, or GORZ, a county  
ounded on the E., N., and S. by Car-  
on the W. by Maritime Austria. It  
corn, wine, silk, and fruits. The lan-  
clavonian.

RITIA, or } a strong town in the above  
RITZ. } country, with a castle; feat-  
Lifanzo, 20 miles NE. of Aquilcia, and  
ice. It was taken by the French in 1797,  
s military stores. Lon. 13. 43. E. Lat.

ZIA, a village of Maritime Austria, in  
in the isle of Pago.

ORKAI, a country of Asia, between  
d Oude.

РКАН, a town in the NE. part of the  
ntry; near Napaul, 200 m. N. of Benares.

ÆUS, Abraham, an eminent antiquary,  
ntwerp, in 1540. He collected the rings  
of the ancients, and published an ac-  
a prodigious number of them, in 1601,  
title, *Dactylotheca; sive Annulorum Si-*  
*quorum apud priores tum Græcos quam*  
*Ælus ex ferro, ære, argento, et auro, Præp-*

This was the first part of the work: the  
titled, *Variarum Gemmarum, quibus an-*  
*figuando uti solita, sculpturæ.* In 1608,  
hed his collection of medals: which,  
if we may believe the *Scaligerana*, it is  
lways to trust. He resided at Delft, and  
e in 1609. His collections of antiques  
by his heirs to the prince of Wales.

ATE, a town of the Cisalpine republic,  
p. of Montagna; on the W. bank of the  
io, opposite Lecco.

ITZ, a strong town of Germany, in Up-  
tia, subject to the elector of Saxony;  
the Neisse; 50 miles W. of Dresden,  
f. of Prague. Lon. 15. 15. E. Lat. 51.

Loch, a lake of Perthshire, 2½ miles  
Loch Bruiach, abounding with delicious

trouts, about 10 inches long, but very thick in  
proportion.

\* GORMAND. *n. f.* [*gourmand. Fr.*] A greedy  
eater; a ravenous luxurious feeder.

\* To GORMANDIZE. *v. n.* [from *gormand.*]  
To eat greedily; to feed ravenously.

\* GORMANDIZER. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A  
voracious eater.

GORMAZ, or ST ESTEVAN DE GORMAZ, a  
town of Spain in Old Castile, on the Duero, 6  
miles below Borgo d'Olma.

GORMES, a town of Germany in Austria, 5  
miles ENE. of Ibrnsprunn.

GORO, a port of Maritime Austria, seated on  
one of the mouths of the Po.

GORODITSCHÉ, three towns of Russia; 1. in  
the province of Kiow, 112 mile- SE. of Kiow: 2.  
in that of Penza, 32 miles E. of Penza: 3. in that  
of Tobolsk, 20 miles ESE. of Tobolsk.

GORODNIA, a town of Russia, in the pro-  
vince of Tver, 20 miles E. of Tver.

GORODNITSK, a town of Russia, in the  
province of Tchernigov, on the Snov, 32 miles  
NNE. of Tchernigov.

GORODOK, a town of Russia, in the govern-  
ment of Poletsk, 56 miles E. of Poletsk

GORON, a town of France, in the department  
of Mayenne, 9 miles NW. of Mayenne.

GORONTALE, or } a town on the E. coast of  
GORONTANO, } the island of Celebes.

GOROPIUS, John, M. D. a native of Brabant;  
author of a work, entitled, *Origines Antuerpianæ*,  
wherein, among other legendary stories, he at-  
tempts to prove that the Fiemish was the original  
language, spoken by Adam and Eve.

GORREUS, John, M. D. a physician of Paris,  
in the 16th century, who published a translation  
of *Nicander*. He was born in 1500. Being a pro-  
testant, he suffered much from religious persecu-  
tion; and his coach being one day suddenly seized  
by a party of soldiers, he was attacked with a de-  
lirium; and died in 1572.

\* GORSE. *n. f.* [*gorf, Saxon.*] Furz; a thick  
prickly shrub that bears yellow flowers in Winter.

GORT, a town of Ireland in the county of Gal-  
way, 16 m. SSE. of Galway, and 98 from Dublin.

GORTA, or ST MARIA LA GORTA, an island  
in the Pacific Ocean. Lon. 135. 0. W. Lat. 26.  
35. N.

GORTAHURK, a town of Ireland, in Done-  
gal, Ulster.

GORTERIA, in botany; a genus of the poly-  
gamia frustranea order, belonging to the syngen-  
nesia class of plants; and in the natural method  
ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. The re-  
ceptacle is naked; the pappus woolly; the flo-  
rets of the radius ligulated or plane; the calyx  
imbricated with spinous scales.

GORTIN, a village of Ireland in Tyrone.

GORTSCHITZ, a river of Germany, in Car-  
inthia, which runs into the Gurk, 3 miles S. of  
Eberstein.

GORWAY, a river of Wales in Carnarvon.

\* GORY. *adj.* [from *gore.*] 1. Covered with  
congealed blood.—

When two boars with rankling malice met.  
Their gory sides the fresh wounds fiercely fret.

Spenser.  
Wily

Why do'st thou shake thy *gory* locks at me? Thou can'st not say I did it. *Shak.*

2. Bloody; murderous; fatal. Not in use.—

The obligation of our blood forbids A *gory* emulation 'twixt us twain. *Shak.*

GORZ, or GORITZ. See GORITZ.

GORZE, a town of France, in the dept. of Moselle, and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine, 7½ miles SW. of Metz.

GORZEGNO, a town of the Piedmontese republic, in the dep. of Bormida, and late duchy of Montferrat; seated on the Bormida, 13 miles SE. of Alba, and 15 E. of Bene.

GORZKE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Magdeburg, 34 miles E. of Magdeburg.

GOS, a river of Germany, in Carinthia, which runs into the Malentheim.

GOSBECK, a town of Suffolk, near Needham. GOSCHGOSCHUENK, a town of the United States in Delaware, on the Ohio, much frequented by owls.

GOSCHUTZ, a town of Silesia, in the principality of Oels; 2 miles N. of Pestenbergr.

GOSE, a river of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Oekar, near Goslar.

GOSELBACH, a river of Upper Saxony, which runs into the Saale; near Merzburg.

GOSELBERG, a mountain of Stiria, 10 miles W. of Landsparg.

(1.) GOSFORD, a barony and decayed village of Scotland, in E. Lothian, 5 miles E. of Preston Pans, in Aberlady parish; anciently the property of the Aitchisons of Glencairney, the ancestors of Lord Viscount Gosford in Ireland.

(2.) GOSFORD, a town of England, in Oxfordshire, SE. of Woodstock.

(3.) GOSFORD CASTLE, an elegant seat of Lord V. Gosford, in Armagh, Ireland, 2 miles from Market-hill.

(4.) GOSFORD, NORTH, } two English villages  
(5.) GOSFORD, SOUTH, } in Northumberland, near Newcastle.

(1.) \* GOSHAWK. *n. f.* [*gof*, goose, and *ba-* *oo*; a hawk.] A hawk of a large kind.—

Such tread his awful visage on them cast; So seem poor doves at *goshawks* sight aghast. *Fairfax.*

(2.) GOSHAWK. See FALCO, N° 35.

(1.) GOSHEN, in ancient geography, a district of Egypt, which Joseph procured for his father and brethren. It was the most fruitful part of the country; and its name seems to be derived from the Hebrew, *Geshem*; which signifies "rain;" Calmet thinks that Goshen, which Joshua (x. 41. xi. 16. xv. 51.) makes part of the tribe of Judah, is the same land of Goshen, which was given to Jacob and his sons by Pharaoh. Gen. xlvii. 26. It is certain that this country lay between Palestine and the city of Tanais, and that the allotment of the Hebrews reached southward as far as the Nile. Josh. xiii. 3.

(2.) GOSHEN, a town of Connecticut in Litchfield county, 7 miles NNW. of Litchfield.

(3.) GOSHEN, a township of Massachusetts in Hampshire county, 14 miles N. of Northampton and 112 W. by N. of Boston, containing 681 citizens in 1795.

(4.) GOSHEN, a township of New York, in O-

range county, containing 2442. souls in 1790, whom 316 were electors.

(5.) GOSHEN, a town in the above town (N° 4.) containing about 350 inhabitants with an academy, court house and Presbyterian church. It is 58 miles N. of New York, NNE. of Philadelphia. Lon. 0. 52. E. of N. Y. Lat. 41. 24. N.

(6.) GOSHEN, a township of Pennsylvania in Chester county.

(7.) GOSHEN, a township of Vermont in Windsor county, W. of Salisbury.

GOSHGOSHINK, a Moravian settlement in Pennsylvania, on the Allegany, 15 miles W. of Fort Franklin.

GOSILIA, a river of Bosnia, which runs into the Sretza.

GOSLAR. See GOSSTAR.

(1.) \* GOSLING. *n. f.* [from *goose*, young goose; a goose not yet full grown] do you go nodding and wagging so like a if you were hipshot? says the goose to be *L'Estr.*—Nature hath instructed even a *goslings* to flick together, while the kite is flying over their heads. *Swift.* 2. A katkin tree and pines.

(2.) GOSLING, in geography, a town in Austria, 12 miles S. of Bavarian Waidhoben.

GOSNARTH, a town near Preston.

(1.) \* GOSPEL. *n. f.* [*godes spel*, or good tidings; *godes spel*; *festel*, *festel*, happy tidings, Eccl.] 1. God's word; book of the Christian revelation.—

Thus may the *gospel* to the rising sun Be spread; and flourish where it first begun.

—All the degrees whereof Scripture treat conditionate, receiving Christ as the *gospel* him, as Lord and Saviour; the former, and the latter, being the condition of scripture and the rejecting, or not receiving him; condition of the scripture reprobation. *F*

—How is a good Christian animated and by a steadfast belief of the promises of the *Bentley.* 2. Divinity; theology.

(2.) The GOSPEL, comprehends the life, actions, death, resurrection, after doctrine of Jesus Christ, recorded in the St Matthew. St Mark. St Luke, and St John are thence called EVANGELISTS. The church never acknowledged any more than four gospels as canonical. See BIBLE, §

\* To GOSPEL, *v. n.* [from the noun.] with sentiments of religion. This word *pare*, in whom I alone have found it, though so venerable in itself, with some irony: I suppose from the gospellers who been held in contempt.—

Are you so *gospel'd*?  
To pray for this good man, and for his  
Whose heavy hand hath bow'd you to it

\* GOSPELLER. *n. f.* [from *gospel*.] of the followers of *Wickliffe*, who first effected a reformation from popery, given the name of *gospellers* in reproach, from their professing and preach only the gospel.—

*spellers have had their golden days, den down our holy Roman faith.*

*Rocue.*  
I, a town of Sardinia, 24 miles S. of

PORT, a town of Hampshire, 79 London. It has a ferry over the c harbour to Portsmouth, and, great ally in time of war. Travellers pre- here, as cheaper and more commodi- Portsmouth. The mouth of the har- red by 4 forts, and a platform of a- non level with the water. Gosport ital for sick and wounded sailors, and l.

PORT, a town of New Hampshire, in 12 miles ESE. of Piscataqua.

POSSAMER. *n. f.* [*gossium*, low Lat.] of plants; the long white cobwebs the air in calm sunny weather, espe- the time of Autumn. *Hanner.*—

may bestride the *gossamour*,  
in the wanton Summer air,  
not fall, so light as vanity. *Sbak.*  
able gnats the horses were,  
nasses of *gossamere*. *Drayton.*

ny *gossamer* now flits no more,  
rons bask on the short sunny shore.

*Dryden.*  
SAMER is the name of a fine filmy sub- cobwebs, which is seen to float in the days in autumn, and is more observe- ble fields, and upon turze and other

This is probably formed by the fly- which, in traversing the air for food, hese threads from its arms which are by the dew, &c.

NS, a town of Asia in Thibet, on the he Dewah. Lon. 81. 24. E. of Ferro. N.

IN, Antony, regius professor of his- toric, in the univerity of Cam in and principal of the college of Du uthor of a Latin history of the ancient

INI, Julian, an Italian author, born in 17, he was made secretary to Ferdi- nand, viceroy of Sicily, and retained 20 years. He wrote several works in erse; and died at Milan, in 1527.

HERES, a town of the French republic, of Sambre and Meuse; and late coun- r, 5 miles from Charleroi.

IP. *n. f.* [from *god* and *iph*, relation, xon.] 1. One who answers for the tism.—

a *gossip's* feast and gaude with me, }  
ong and such nativity. *Sbak.*

irritening of George duke of Clarence,  
in the castle of Dublin, he made  
rl of Kildare and the earl of Ormond  
*Davies on Ireland.* 2. A tipling com-

metimes lurk I in a *gossip's* bowl,  
keness of a roasted crab,  
n she drinks against her lips I bob.

3. One that runs about tattling like women at a lying in.—

To do the office of a neighbour,  
And be a *gossip* at his labour. *Hudibras.*

'Tis sung in ev'ry street,  
The common chat of *gossips* when they meet.

*Dryden.*  
\* To GOSSIP. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To chat; to prate; to be merry.—

Go to a *gossip's* feast and gaude with me.  
—With all my heart I'll *gossip* at this feast. *Sbak.*

His mother was a votress of my order,  
And, in the spiced Indian air by night,  
Full often hath the *gossip* by my side. *Sbak.*

—The market and exchange must be left to their own ways of talking; and *gossips* not to be robbed of their ancient privilege. *Locke.*—He gives himself up to an idle *gossiping* conversation. *Law.*

2. To be a pot-companion.—  
Nor met with fortune, other than at feast,  
Full warm of blood, of mirth of *gossiping*. *Sbak.*

\* GOSSIPRED. *n. f.* [*gossipry*, from *gossip*.] —*Gossipred* or compaternity, by the canon law, is a spiritual affinity; and the juror, that was gossip to either of the parties, might, in former times, have been challenged as one not indifferent. *Davies.*

GOSSLAR, a large and ancient town of Lower Saxony, in the territory of Brunswick. It is a free imperial city, and it was here that gun powder was first invented. It is a large place, but the buildings are in the ancient taste. In 1728, St Stephen's fine church and 280 houses were burnt. It is seated on a mountain, near the Gose and near it are rich mines of iron. The inhabitants are famous for brewing excellent beer. Lon. 5. 37. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

GOSSNITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in Altenburg, 3 miles E. of Schmollen.

GOSSWEINSTEIN, or GOSSMANSTEIN, a town of Franconia, in Bamberg, 20 miles ESE. of Bamberg, and 23 NNE. of Nuremberg.

(1.) GOSSYPIUM, COTTON, a genus of the polyandra order, belonging to the monadelphia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order, *Cotumniferae*. The calyx is double, the exterior one trisid; the capsule quadrilocular; the seeds wrapt in cotton wool. There are 4 species, all natives of warm climates.

1. GOSSYPIUM ARBOREUM, the *tree cotton*, has an upright woody perennial stalk, branching 6 or 8 feet high; palmated, four or five-lobed smooth leaves; and yellow flowers, succeeded by large pods filled with seeds and cotton

2. GOSSYPIUM BARBADENSE, the *Barbadoes shrubby cotton*, has a shrubby stalk branching 4 or 5 feet high, three-lobed smooth leaves, glandulous underneath; and yellow flowers succeeded by oval pods, containing seeds and cotton.

3. GOSSYPIUM HERBACEUM the common herbaceous cotton, has an herbaceous smooth stalk two feet high, branching upwards; five-lobed smooth leaves; and yellow flowers from the ends of the branches, succeeded by roundish capsules full of seeds and cotton.

4. GOSSYPIUM HIRsutUM, the *hairy American cotton*, has hairy stalks branching laterally 2 or 3 feet high; palmated, three and five lo-  
bed

bed hairy leaves; and yellow flowers, succeeded by large oval pods furnished with seeds and cotton.

(II.) **GOSYPIUM, CULTURE OF THE.** The three last species are annual, but the first is perennial both in root and stalk. In warm countries these plants are cultivated in great quantities in fields for the sake of the cotton; but the **HERBACEUM** species (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) is most generally cultivated. The pods are sometimes as large as middling-sized apples, closely filled with the cotton surrounding the seed. When these plants are raised in this country, they must be continually kept in a warm stove, where they will produce seeds and cotton. They are propagated by seeds. See **COTTON**, N<sup>o</sup> 1, § i—vii. The American Islands produce cotton shrubs of various sizes, which rise and grow up without any culture; especially in low and marshy grounds. Their produce is of a pale red; some paler than others; but so short that it cannot be spun. None of this is brought to Europe, though it might be usefully employed in making hats. The little that is picked up, serves to make mattresses and pillows. The cotton shrubs, that supply our manufactures, require a dry and stony soil, and thrive best in grounds that have been tilled. The plant appears more flourishing in fresh lands than in those which are exhausted; but while it produces more wood, it bears less fruit. A western exposure is fittest for it. The culture begins in March and April, and continues during the first spring rains. Holes are made at 7 or 8 feet distance, and a few seeds thrown in. When they are 5 or 6 inches high, all the stems are pulled up, except 2 or 3 of the strongest. These are cropped twice before the end of August. This precaution is necessary, as the wood bears no fruit till after the second pruning; and, if the shrub was suffered to grow more than 4 feet high, the crop would not be greater, nor the fruit so easily gathered. The same method is pursued for 3 years; for so long the shrub may continue, if it cannot conveniently be renewed oftener with the prospect of an advantage that will compensate the trouble. This useful plant will not thrive if great attention is not paid to pluck up the weeds that grow about it. Frequent rains promote its growth; but they must not be incessant. Dry weather is particularly necessary in March and April, which is the time of gathering the cotton, to prevent it from being discoloured and spotted. When gathered in, the seeds must be picked out from the wool with which they are naturally mixed. This is done by a cotton mill; composed of two rods of hard wood, about 18 feet long, 18 lines in circumference, and fluted two lines deep. They are confined at both ends, so as to leave no more distance between them than is necessary for the seed to slip through. At one end is a little millstone, which, being put in motion by the foot, turns the rods in contrary directions. They separate the cotton, and throw out the seed contained in it. See **COTTON**, N<sup>o</sup> 1, § vii, 2.

**GOSTADT, JOSTADT, or JOSEPHSTADT**, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzgebürg, 8 miles S. of Wolkenstein.

**GOSTAVIN.** See **GOSTYNNEN**.

**GOSTENHOF**, a town of Germany, near Nuremberg.

(1.) \* **GOSTING.** *n. f.* [*rubia*.]

(2.) **GOSTING**, in botany. See **R**

(3.) **GOSTING**, in geography, a town of Austria, 2 miles ENE. of Zisterdorff.

**GOSTITZ**, a town of Silesia, in

**GOSTYNNEN, or GOSTAVIN**, a land, in the palatinate of Rawa, 36 miles W. of Rawa. Demetrius Czar of Muscovy in its citadel till his death.

**GOSZITZ**, a town of Upper Saxony, 3 miles W. of Ziegenbrück.

(1.) \* **GOT.** *pret.* [from the verb *got*.] Lartius writes, they fought together as *got* off. *Shak.*—

If you have strength Achilles' aid,  
Though foul Therites *got* thee, I  
Lov'd and esteem'd.

These regions and this realm my  
This mournful empire is the loser  
—When they began to reason about  
how the sea *got* thither, and away  
there they were perfectly in the dark.

(2.) \* **GOT.** *part. pass. of get.*—Suggested them for their valour in the  
a plot so well by them laid, more the  
victory of others *got* by good fortune  
ed upon any good reason. *Knolles.*—  
suasion in reasoning, when the first  
mission to your will is *got*, will n  
*Locke.*—If he behaves himself so well  
on us for his daily bread, can any  
he will do when he is *got* above the  
*but not.*—

Thou wert from Ætna's burning  
*Got* by fierce whirlwinds, and in t

(1.) **GOTHA**, a city of Germany, Upper Saxony, and capital of the duchy of **GOTHA**. This town had its name from who fortified it in their march to Italy only a village till surrounded with a shop of Mentz in 964. It is situated on the Leina, well built and strong. It has 2 handsome churches and a cathedral. Its chief trade is in dyer's wool; they have 3 crops, but the 3d grow cattle or ducal palace was rebuilt in 1574 by duke Ernest the Pious, who that and the town to be encompassed and ramparts; and gave it the name *Hein*, or the *Castle of Peace*, in opposition to the ancient name of *Grimmerstein*, or the *Furies*. It is situated on a neighbourly plain. In one of the apartments the collection of valuable rarities, and a noble library. It is 18 miles W. of Erfurt. *Lon.* 10. 30. N.

(2.) **GOTHA, or SAXE-GOTHA**, Germany in Upper Saxony. See **S**

(3.) **GOTHA**, a river of Sweden, which rises from lake *Wenne* in the North sea at *Gottenburg*.

**GOTHARD, ST.** one of the highest mountains of Switzerland. From the top, wh

or travellers, and a monastery for one of the most pleasing prospects. It is 8 miles from Altorf, and is the canton of Uri, on the confines of the Grisons, and Italy. Its ancient name according to Ptolemy and Strabo, was *ADULA*, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) Hence the modern name, Despreause, files it *Monte Adula*. The Rufs, the Rhone, the Aar, the and some inferior rivers rise in it. According to M. Micheli, its highest point is 2,750 above the level of the sea, though others say 2000. Considered in its utmost extent, besides St Gothard properly, the mountains of Crispian, Fourche, and Vogelsberg. Its top is covered with snow and ice. It has some mines of fine silver. This tremendous mountain was passed by the French army under general Moncey, consisting of 1000 men; who, pushing their advanced guard, drove the Austrians under general Kollowrat to Lake Maggiore.

**GOTTENBURG.** See **GOTTENBURG.**

**ELBA**, a river of Sweden, which runs into the Baltic at Gottenburg.

**GO**, *adj.* relating to the Goths. See **GO**, *Index*.

**GO**, the most southern province of Sweden, being a peninsula, encompassed on three sides by the Baltic Sea, or the channel at the entrance. It was long in the possession of the Danes, but was ceded to Sweden in 1658. It contains 48 towns, and is divided into 10 parishes.

**GO**, EAST, or **OSTROGOTHIA**, a province of Sweden, bounded on the E. by the Baltic Sea, on the W. by Smaland, W. by the Wetter lake, and on the S. by the Ricia and Sundermanland. It is about 100 miles long and 70 broad, and was formerly governed by its own monarchs. See **GO**. It is rich in grain, fruits, wood, minerals, and iron. Its chief towns are Nordkioping, Soderkioping, and Wadstena.

**GO**, SOUTH, a country of Sweden, divided into 3 provinces, viz. Schonen, Blekingen; which have undergone great vicissitudes; being sometimes subject to the Danes, and at other times recovered by the Swedes; till at last they were finally annexed to Sweden by Charles X, at the treaty of Altranstam in 1658.

**GO**, WEST, or **WESTROGOTHIA**, a province of Sweden, bounded on the E. by the Wetter Lake, and Smaland; S. by Smaland; W. by the Scagerac; and N. by the Baltic. It is about 115 miles long and 15 broad. It was anciently governed by its own monarchs, and is fertile in corn and fruits, and has extensive pastures. The rivers, lakes, and sea coast are very fertile. Iron, alum, &c. are manufactured by the natives. The chief towns are Gottenburg, Lidkioping, and Falkenberg.

**GO**, or **GOTTLAND**, an island of Sweden in the Baltic, 75 miles long, and now only 25 broad. It was formerly an independent kingdom. From its situation it has been called *The Eye of the Baltic*. The soil is fertile, and the hills abound with pastures, wood, and stone quarries. Corals, cornelians, agates, and beautiful petrifications are also found in it. In 1361, this island was ravaged by Valdemar III. king of Denmark. In 1403, Albert surrendered it to queen Margaret. King Eric, her successor, lived 3 years in it after his deposition, but in 1449 gave it up to Christian I. It was restored to Sweden, in 1645, by treaty. Wisby is the capital. Lon. from 18. 6. to 19. 6. E. Lat. from 56. 54. to 57. 56. N.

(1) **GOTHOFRED**, or **GODFREY**, Dionysius or Denis, an eminent lawyer, born of an illustrious family at Paris, in 1549. France being involved in confusion by the leaguers, he accepted of a professor's chair at Geneva, until he was employed by Henry IV.; but being afterwards stripped of his employments as a Huguenot, he retired to Heidelberg, from whence no offers could detach him. The disturbances in the Palatinate obliged him, in 1621, to take refuge in Straßburg, where he died in 1622. He wrote a great number of books; his principal work is the *Corpus Juris Civilis, cum notis*.

(2) **GOTHOFRED**, Theodore or Theodosius, son of Denis, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) was born at Geneva in 1580. As soon as he had finished his studies, he went to Paris; where he conformed to the Romish religion, and applied with indefatigable industry to the study of history, that of France particularly, wherein he became very eminent. In 1632, Lewis XIII. made him one of his historiographers, with a stipend of 3000 livres; and, in 1636, he was sent to Cologne, to assist at the treaty of peace negotiating there, on the part of France, by the cardinal of Lyons. This treaty being removed to Munster, Gothofred was sent thither, where he drew up Memoirs on the subject; and continued in that city, in the king's service, to his death in 1649. His principal work is his *Account of the Ceremonial of the Kings of France*.

(3) **GOTHOFRED**, James, brother of Theodore, was born at Geneva in 1587. Applying himself to the study of the law, he obtained the professor's chair there, was made counsellor of the city, and was several times employed in France, Germany, Piedmont, and Switzerland, to negotiate their affairs in the name of the republic. He died in 1562; and his chief work is his *Codex Theodosianus, cum perpetuis commentariis, &c.*

(4) **GOTHOFRED**, Denis, son of Theodore, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) was born at Paris in 1615. He studied history after his father's example; became an eminent in that department of knowledge; and obtained the reversion of his father's place of historiographer royal, from Lewis XIII. when he was but 25 years of age. He published his father's *Ceremonial of France*; finished his *Memoirs of Philip de Commines*; and was preparing a *History of Charles VIII.* when he died in 1631.

(5) **GOTHOFRED**, John, son of Denis, (N<sup>o</sup> 4.) succeeded his father in his office and wrote also on history and antiquities. He completed and published his father's *History of Charles VIII.*; and wrote a *Journal de Henry III.*; *Memoirs de la reine Marguerite*, &c. He died in 1732.

**GOTHS**,

**GOTHS**, a warlike nation, famous in the Roman history, who came originally out of SCANDINAVIA, the name given by the ancients to Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Finmark. According to the most probable accounts, they were the first inhabitants of those countries; and from thence sent colonies into the islands of the Baltic, the Cimbric Chersonesus, and the adjacent places. The time of their first settling in Scandinavia, and of their first peopling the abovementioned islands and Chersonesus, are equally uncertain; though the Gothic annals state the latter to have happened in the time of Serug the great grandfather of Abraham. This first migration of the Goths is said to have been conducted by their king Eric; in which all the ancient Gothic chronicles, as well as the Danish and Swedish ones agree. Their emigration is said to have happened many ages after; when, being overstocked with people, Berig, then king of the Goths, went out with a fleet in quest of new settlements. He landed in the country of the Ulmerugians, now Pomerania, drove out the ancient inhabitants, and divided their lands among his followers. He fell next upon the Vandals, whose country bordered on that of the Ulmerugians, and overcame them; but instead of forcing them to abandon their country, he only made them share their possessions with the Goths. The Goths, who settled in Pomerania and the adjacent parts of Germany, being greatly increased, they undertook a 2d migration in great numbers under Filimer the Great, their 5th prince after leaving Scandinavia; and taking their route eastward, entered Scythia; advanced to the Cimberian Bosphorus, and driving out the Cimberians, settled near the Palus Mæotis. Thence in process of time, being greatly increased in Scythia, they resolved to seek new settlements; and accordingly taking their route eastward, they traversed several countries, and at length returned into Germany. Their leader in this expedition was the celebrated Woden. See ODIN and WODEN. At what time Woden reigned in this country, is quite uncertain; but all historians agree, that he went in quest of new settlements with incredible numbers of people following him. He first entered Roxolonia, comprehending the countries of Prussia, Livonia, and great part of Muscovy: Thence he went by sea into the N. parts of Germany; and having reduced Saxony and Jutland, he at last settled in Sweden, where he reigned till his death, and became so famous that his name reached all countries, and he was by the northern nations worshipped as a god. He is said to have brought the Runic characters out of Asia, and to have taught the northern nations the art of poetry; whence he is styled the father of the Scaldi or Scalds, their poets, who described in verse the exploits of the great men of their nation, as the bards did among the Gauls and Britons. The Romans distinguished the Goths into two classes; the OSTROGOTHS and VISIGOTHS. Their names they received before they left Scandinavia, the *Visigoths* being softened by the Latins from *Westerogoths*, or those who inhabit the western part of Scandinavia, as the Ostrogoths were those who inhabited the eastern part of that country. Their history affords nothing of importance till

the time of their quarrelling with the Romans, which happened in the reign of Caracalla; that period, it becomes so closely interwoven with that of the Romans, that for the most particulars of it we must refer to the article ROMANS. After the destruction of the Roman Empire, the Heruli, the Ostrogoths, under Theodoric, came masters of the greatest part of Italy, and overcame and put to death Odoacer king of the Heruli in 494. They retained their dominion in this country till A. D. 553; when they were conquered by Narfes, Justinian's general. **LV.** The Visigoths settled in Spain in the reign of Honorius, where they founded a kingdom, which continued till the country was subdued by the Franks. See SPAIN. The Goths were famous for their hospitality and kindness to strangers, even before they embraced Christianity. It is said, that from their being eminently generous, they were called *Goths*, by the neighbouring nations; that name, according to Grotius and many other writers, being derived from the German *guten*, which signifies *good*. They encouraged the study of philosophy above all other sciences, and from among their philosophers, Polygam was only allowed but countenanced among the rest, every one being valued or respected according to the number of his wives. By so many wives, a man had an incredible number of children, but they kept but one at home, sending out the rest in quest of new settlements; and these swarms of people which over-ran so many countries. With them adultery was a capital and irremissibly punished with death. It prevailed among them when they were first known to the Romans only by the name of *Gethi* (the most ancient name); as appears from Menander, who was himself of that nation; from Horace, who greatly commends the modesty of their women. Their laws fell little short of those of the ancient Romans. Their government was monarchical; their religion was the same with that of the ancient Germans; and their dress is described by Apollonius in the following words: "They are clothed with high shoes made of hair, and reach to their ankles; their knees, thighs, and buttocks without any covering; their garments of various colours scarce reaching to the knee; they wear a cloak to cover the top of their arms; they wear a tunic with a red border; their belts are of leather; their shoulders are covered with iron plates; their ears are covered with iron locks; they use hooked lances and maces."

**GOTTELSBRUNN**, a town of Germany, 3 miles N. of Brugg.

\* **GOTTEN**. *part. pass. get.*—Wisdom is *gotten* for gold, *Job xxviii. 15.*—Few men when they are *gotten* into an office, apply their thoughts to the execution of it. *Temple.*

**GOTTENBURG**, or **GOTHENBORG**, a strong town of Sweden, in W. C. with a good harbour, at the mouth of the Göta; which is the best situated for commerce of any in Sweden, as it lies without the city. It occupies the site of an ancient town called *Ladise*, which was built by Gustavus V



lowed with considerable privileges, soon he great emporium for the trade of the provinces. Charles IX, when duke of S, having in 1604 laid the foundations of town in the island of Hisingen at no great from Lodefe, called it *Gotteborg*, (now *g.*) in honour of his duchy. Upon his to the throne, he erected in his new trading company; drew thither many s, particularly the Dutch, to whom he an exemption from all duties of export ort during 30 years; a corps of English ch troops, under the command of Wil- wart; and granted to the Calvinists esta- herein the free exercise of their religion, place in Sweden where this toleration was l. The town, being in 1611 reduced by the Danes, was rebuilt in the reign us Adolphus in its present situation, and a confirmation of its ancient rights, with t of several additional privileges. It is very singular situation. At a small dis- m the sea is a marshy plain, scarcely more a mile broad, watered by the *Gotha* and and almost entirely inclosed with high rocks, so bare and rugged, that they produce a single blade of grass, and ex- barren an appearance as the summits of st Alps. *Gottenburg* stands partly upon s, and partly in the plain; and is divid- these different situations, into the Upper er Town. The latter is entirely level, d by several canals in the manner of the owns; and its houses are all constructed s: the upper part hangs on the declivi- rows of buildings rise above each other ats of an amphitheatre. The whole is fortified; and its circumference is near exclusive of the suburbs, called *HAGA*, : towards the harbour. The streets are mly straight: a few of the houses are of ut most of them are constructed with ted red. The harbour is formed by two rocks, and is about a quarter of a mile h. Its entrance is defended by the fort *Elsborg*, which stands upon a small ad, and contains a garrison of 252 men. rg has a Royal Society of Sciences and s; upon the plan of that of *Uplal*.—Mr informed by a merchant who had re- years at *Gottenbry*, that, during that s population had increased considerably, it now contained about 30,000 inhabi- his flourishing state is attributed to the of its commerce, particularly its East mpany, and the success of the herring A British consul and several British mer- ide at *Gottenburg*: and a chapel, with a splin, is appropriated to their use. Lon. Lat. 57. 44. N.

**GOTTBERG**, a town of Upper Saxony, in s, 4 miles NW. of *Langen Salza*.

**GOTTESBERG**, a town of Silesia, in *Schweid- ules SSW. of Freyburg*, and 12 SW. of itz.

**GOTTINGEN**, a considerable town of cony in the duchy of *Brunswick*; formerly nperial, but now subject to the elector of . PART II.

**Hanover**. Here king *George II.* founded an uni- versity. It is seated on the *Leine*, in *Lon. 10. 5. E. Lat. 51. 32. N.*

(2.) **GOTTINGEN**, a town of Sweden, with a good harbour, on the borders of *W. Gothland*, near the mouth of the *Moludal*. It has 2 citadels, towards the land and sea. Being built of wood, it has often suffered by fire. It is a bishop's see and contains 13,000 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable trade by sea. It lies 28 miles SW. of *Stockholm*, and 164 N. of *Copenhagen*. Lon. 11. 34. E. Lat. 58. 29. N.

**GOTTLEBER**, *John Christopher*, a learned critic, born in 1733. His chief work is *Animad- versions on different portions of Plato*. He died in 1785.

**GOTTLEUVE**, a town of Upper Saxony, in *Meissen*, 6 miles SW. of *Konigstein*, and 8 S. of *Pirna*.

**GOTTLIEBEN**, a town of the Helvetic repub- lic, near the lake of *Constance*, where *John Huf- was confined in 1415*; 3 miles from *Constance*.

**GOTTLSTORF**, a town of Germany in *Auf- tria*, 5 miles SE. of *Altenmarkt*.

(1.) **GOTTOLENGO**, a district of the Cisal- pine republic, in the dep. of *Mela*, containing 1 town, several villages and harbours, and 2500 citizens, in 1797.

(2.) **GOTTOLENGO**, the capital of the above district.

**GOTTON**, 2 small towns of England; 1. in the *Isle of Wight*: 2. near *Taunton*, *Somersetsh.*

**GOTTORP**, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of *Sleswic*, capital of *Holstein Gottorp*, where the duke has a very fine palace. Lon. 9. 56. E. Lat. 54. 36. N.

**GOTTSBERG**. See **GOTTESBERG**.

**GOTTSCHED**, a German poet, born at *Kon- ingsberg*, who by his works contributed to spread a taste for literature in Germany. His dramatic productions, wherein his wife assisted him and shared his fame, banished from the German theatre those buffooneries, which formerly disgraced it. He died at *Leipfic* in 1766, 4 years after his wife.

**GOTTSCHEE**, a town of Germany in *Carni- ola*, 23 miles SSE. of *Laybach*, and 160 SSW. of *Vienna*.

**GOTTZENDORF**, a town of Germany, in *Austria*, 5 miles S. of *Aigen*.

**GOTZEL**, or **GOTSEL**, a town of Lower *Bavaria*, 36 miles E. of *Ratisbon*.

(1.) **GOVAN**, a parish of Scotland chiefly in *Lanarkshire*, with a small part in *Renfrewshire*; 5 miles long, from E. to W. and between 3 and 4 broad. The *Clyde* runs through its whole length, and often overflows its banks, which abound with free-stone. Agriculture is in a state of high im- provement, though the soil is not naturally fertile; being originally clay, till, barren sand, and heath; besides about 100 acres of moor. The usual crops are wheat, oats, barley, beans, pease, potatoes, and grass. The population in 1792, stated by the rev. J. Pollock, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 2518. The parish of *GORBALS* having been joined with this in 1755, when Dr *Webster* made up his lists of the population of Scotland, Mr Pollock states the total number of souls in both parishes at 8318, and the increase of both at 3,929.

The horses are mostly above the common size. There is one sheep farm, of 198 acres; 4 bleach-fields; 1 printing field, 8 mills, 3 for corn, 1 for stuff, 1 for paper, and 3 for other manufactures. On the N. boundary of this parish, the counties of Dunbarton, Lanark and Renfrew, the parishes of New Kirkpatrick and Renfrew, and the properties of 3 heritors, all meet in one point.

(2.) GOVAN, a village in the above parish, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) about one mile long, containing 224 families, in 1792.

GOVANDORE, a bay on the coast of Chili.

GOUANIA, in botany; a genus of the monœcia order, belonging to the polygamia class of plants. The calyx of the hermaphrodite is quinquefid; there is no corolla; there are 5 antheræ covered with an elastic calyptra or hood; the style trifid; the fruit, inferior to the receptacle of the flower, divisible into three seeds. The male is like the hermaphrodite, but wanting stigma and germen.

GOVARDO. See GAVARDO, N<sup>o</sup> 1 and 2.

\* GOUD *n. f.* Wood; a plant. *Dist.*

GOUDA, or TURGOW, a considerable town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Delft, and late prov. of S. Holland, remarkable for its stately church. It is sea ed on the river Yffel, 9 miles NE. of Rotterdam, and 22 S. of Amsterdam. Lon. 4. 37. E. Lat. 52. 2. N.

GOUDELIN, or GOUDOULE, Peter, a Gascon poet, born at Toulouse, in the 16th century, and reckoned the Homer of Gascony. His verses have much sprightliness, with a delicate simplicity, which to those who relish the Gascon language is enchanting. He died in 1629.

GOUDHURST, a town of Kent, 12 miles SW. of Maidstone, and 44 SE. of London. Lon. 0. 31. E. Lat. 51. 8. N.

GOUDIMEL, Claudius, a musician of the 16th century, who was put to death by the bigotted catholics at Lyons, for setting the psalms of Marot and Beza to music.

GOUDOZ, a town of Turkey in Natolia, 72 miles ENE. of Kintaja.

GOUDT, Henry, usually called *Count Goudt*, was born of a noble family at Utrecht, in 1570; and was a knight of the Palatinate. Being fond of painting and engraving, he applied himself diligently to drawing, and made a great proficiency therein. He then went to Rome, where he contracted an intimacy with Adam Elsheimer; studied his manner, and made his works models for imitation. Those pictures which Goudt himself painted were delicately touched, in colour and pencil resembling Elsheimer. On his return to Utrecht, a young woman who was in love with him, and desirous of fixing his affections upon herself, gave him in his drink a love philtre, which terminated in a very melancholy manner, by depriving him of his senses; and in this dreadful state he dragged on a miserable life to the age of 69, his death happening in 1639. It is remarkable, that though lost to every other subject when painting was spoken of he would discourse upon it in a very rational manner. He engraved 7 beautiful prints after the pictures of Elsheimer, which are well known to the curious, and are to be met with in most choice collections. He work-

ed with the graver only, in a very neat style produced a most powerful effect, not by ening the strokes, according to the usual method, but by crossing them with additional lines, equally neat, 5 or 6 times, one over another, the deep shadows. The weeds and other things in the fore ground in his admirable prints are very finely expressed. The 7 prints engraved above, are, 1. Ceres drinking from a cup. An old woman appears holding a key at the door of the cottage, and a boy talking by her laughing and pointing at the key, for which contempt he was metamorphosed into a frog. The powerful and striking of this engraving cannot be properly expressed. This print is also called the *forever*. 2. A flight into Egypt; a night scene, in which the moon and stars are introduced with great effect. 3. The angel with Tobit, who is drawn by his side. The back ground is a landscape with the weeds in the fore ground, and the tops of the trees in front, as well as the flowers and weeds hanging from them, are beautifully expressed. 4. The angel with Tobit, crossing a stream of water; The back ground, a landscape with Baucis and Philemon entertaining Jupiter and Mercury. 6. A landscape, called the *rising sun*, representing the dawn of day. The effect is beautiful. 7. The beheading of St John the Baptist, a very small upright oval print, which is the rarest.

\* GOVE. *n. f.* A mow. *Tuffer.*

\* To GOVE. *v. n.* To mow; to put to grass, or mow. An old word.—

Load safe, carry home, follow time! Gove just in the barn, it is out of despa

(1.) GOVEA, Antony, a Latin poet of the 16th century; author of Latin plays which have been admired. His editions of Terence display great judgment and accuracy. He died in 1613.

(2, 3.) GOVEA, Martial and Andrew, thren of Anthony, were also men of letters; the former was a grammarian and poet: he was employed by John III. king of Portugal to establish a college at Coimbra. He died in 1613.

(1.) \* To GOVERN. *v. a.* [*governer gubernar*, Latin.] 1. To rule as a chief; to manage. —This inconvenience is more hard to bear in the governor than the governed; as in a vital part is more incurable than in a mortal. *Spenser on Ireland.*—

Slaves to our passions we become,  
It grows impossible to govern men.

2. To regulate; to influence; to direct. —I am at present against war, though it puts it into my hands, and though such turbulent spirits as you are, govern all times of peace. *Davenant.*—The chief power he is to carry always in his eye, and by it is to govern all his counsels, designs, and actions. *Atterbury.* 3. To manage; to restrain.

Go after her, she's desp'rate; go  
Sba

4. [In grammar.] To have force with syntax: as, *amo governs* the accusative. Listen, children, unto me,  
And let this your lesson be,

language evermore  
 that govern go:efore. *Mauger's Gram.*  
 lot; to regulate the motions of a ship.  
 To GOVERN v. n. To keep superiority:  
 have with haughtiness.—

By that rule,  
 r wicked atoms may be working now  
 e bad counsel, that you still may govern.

*Dryden.*

VERNABLE. *adj.* [from govern.] Sub-  
 ject to authority; subject to rule; manageable.  
 extension of the former part of a man's  
 yet grown up to be headstrong, makes  
 governable and safe. *Locke.*

VERNANCE. *n. f.* [from govern.] 1. Go-  
 rule; management.—Jonathan took  
 nance upon him at that time, and rose up  
 of his brother Judas. *1 Mac. ix. 31. 2.*  
 as that of a guardian.—

he knew not, neither his own ill,  
 rough wife handling, and fair governance,  
 recurred to a better will. *Spenser.*

u! shall king Henry be a pupil still,  
 the surly Gloster's governance? *Shak.*

our; manners. Obsolete.—

ikeft is to fall into misgovernance

s regardless of his governance. *Spens.*

VERNANT. *n. f.* [gouvernante, Fren.]  
 ho has the care of young girls of quality.

e usual and proper word is governess.

VERNESS. *n. f.* [gouvern-ress, old Fr.  
 e.] 1. A female invested with authority.

The moon, the governess of floods,  
 her anger, washes all the air,  
 heumatick diseases do abound. *Shak.*

orefs; A woman that has the care of  
 tics.—He presented himself unto her, fall-  
 n upon both his knees, and holding up  
 s, as the old governess of Danae is paint-  
 the suddenly saw the golden shower.

s three younger children were taken from  
 net's in whose hands he put them. *Clarend.*

orefs; an instructress; a directress.—

fiction that severe governess of the life of  
 igs upon those souls she seizes on. *Mor-*  
*schelm.*

GOVERNMENT. *n. f.* [gouvernement,

1. Form of a community with respect  
 iposition of the supreme authority.—

m to be but two general kinds of govern-  
 he world: the one exercised according  
 bitrary commands and will of some single

the other according to certain orders  
 ntroduced by agreement or custom, and  
 e changed without the consent of many.

-No government can do any act to  
 lf: the supreme legislative power can-  
 e itself not to be absolute. *Locke. 2.*

ished state of legal authority.—

There they shall found

governments, and their great senate chuse  
 gh the twelve tribes, to rule by laws or-  
 in'd. *Milton.*

le he survives, in concord and content  
 amons live, by no division rent;

e great monarch's death dissolves the  
 verament. *Dryden.*

one knows, who has considered the na-

ture of government; that there must be in each  
 particular form of it an absolute unlimited power.

Adiion.—Where any one person or body of men  
 seize into their hands the power in the last resort,  
 there is properly no longer a government, but  
 what Aristotle and his followers call the abuse or  
 corruption of one. *Swift.* 3. Administration of  
 publick affairs.

Safety and equal government are things  
 Which subjects make as happy as their kings.

Those governments, which curb not evils,  
 cause;

And a rich knave's a libel on our laws. *Young.*

4. Regularity of behaviour. Not in use.—

You needs must learn, lord, to amend this  
 fault;

Though sometimes it shews greatness, courage,  
 blood,

Yet oftentimes it doth present harsh rage,  
 Defect of manners, want of government,

Pride, haughtiness, opinion, and disdain.

'Tis government that makes them seem divine;  
 The want thereof makes thee abominable.

5. Manageableness; compliance; obsequiousness.

Thy eyes windows fall,  
 Like death, when he shuts up the day of life;  
 Each part-depriv'd of supple government,  
 Shall stiff and stark, and cold appear, like death.

6. Management of the limbs or body. Obsolete.

Their god  
 Shot many a dart at me with fierce intent;  
 But I them warded all with wary government.

7. [In grammar.] Influence with regard to con-  
 struction.

(2.) GOVERNMENT is also used for a post or  
 office, which gives a person the power or right  
 to rule over a city, or a province, either supreme-  
 ly or by deputation.

(3.) GOVERNMENT is likewise used for the city,  
 country, or place, to which the power of govern-  
 ing is extended.

(4.) GOVERNMENT, CIVIL, was instituted for  
 the preservation and advancement of mens civil  
 interests, and for the better security of their lives,  
 liberties, and properties. The use and necessity  
 of government is such, that there never was an  
 age or country without some sort of civil authori-  
 ty; but as men are seldom unanimous in the means  
 of attaining their ends, so their differences in  
 opinion as to government has produced various  
 forms of it. According to Montesquieu, and most  
 other writers, they may in general be reduced to  
 three kinds. 1. The republican. 2. The mo-  
 narchical. 3. The despotic.—The first is that, in  
 which the people in a body, or only a part of the  
 people, have the sovereign power; the 2d, where  
 one alone governs, but by fixed established laws;  
 but, 3d. in the despotic government, one person  
 alone, without law and without rule, directs ev-  
 ery thing by his own will and caprice. See LAW.  
 On the subject of government at large, see Mon-  
 tesquieu's Spirit of Laws, l. 2. c. 1.; Locke, ii.  
 129, &c. 4to edit. 1768; Sidney on Government;

Sir Thomas Smith *de Repub. Angl.* and Acherly's *Britannic Constitution*. As to the Gothic government, its original and fruits, &c. see Montefquieu's *L'Esprit des Loix*, l. 11. c. 8.—With respect to the feudal policy, how it limited government, see *FEUDAL SYSTEM*, § 5, 7.

**GOVERNULO**, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dept. of Mincio, and ci devant duchy of Mantua, anciently called *Ambuletum*. On the 24th Aug. 1796, the French, under Bonaparte, defeated the Austrians under general Wurmsler, near this town, and took 1100 prisoners according to some accounts; but the rev. Mr Cruttwell states the battle to have happened in the beginning of September, and the loss of the Austrians at no less than "10,000 prisoners." (*New Univ. Gaz. Suppl.*) In April 1799, it was taken by the Austrians; but recovered with the rest of the Cisalpine republic, after the battle of Marengo in 1800. Governolo is seated at the junction of the Mincio and the Po, 12 miles SE. of Mantua, Lon. 10. 56. E. Lat. 45. 4. N.

\* **GOVERNOUR**. *n. f.* [*gouverneur*, French.] 1. One who has the supreme direction.—It must be confessed, that of Christ, working as a creator and a *governour* of the world by providence, all are partakers. *Hooker*.—They beget in us a great idea and veneration of the mighty author and *governour* of such stupendous bodies, and excite and elevate our minds to his adoration and praise. *Beatl.* 2. One who is invested with supreme authority in a state.—For the kingdom is the Lord's, and he is the *governour* among the nations. *Pf. xxii. 28.*—The magistrate cannot urge obedience upon such potent grounds as the minister, if so disposed, can urge disobedience; as, for instance, if my *governour* should command me to do a thing, or I must die, or forfeit my estate; and the minister steps in and tells me, that I offend God, and ruin my soul, if I obey that command, 'tis easy to see a greater force in this persuasion. *South.* 3. One who rules any place with delegated and temporary authority.—

To you, lord *governour*,

Remains the censure of this hellish villain.

*Shak. Othello.*

4. A tutor; one who has care of a young man.—

To Eltham will I, where the young king is,  
Being ordain'd his special *governour*;

And for his safety there I'll best devise. *Hen. VI.*

—The great work of a *governour* is to fashion the carriage, and form the mind; to settle in his pupil good habits, and the principles of virtue and wisdom. *Locke*.—During the minority of kings, the election of bishops, and other affairs of the church, must be left in the hands of their *governours* and courtiers. *Lesley.* 5. Pilot; regulator; manager.—Behold all the ships, which though they be so great, and are driven of fierce winds, yet they are turned about with a very small helm, whithersoever the *governour* listeth. *Ja. iii. 5.*

**GOUZEC**, a town of France, in the dept. of Finisterre, 4½ miles SE. of Chateaulin, and 10½ N. E. of Quimper.

**GOUGANE BARO**, a lake of Ireland, in the county of Cork, 10 miles N. of Bantry.

(1.) \* **GOUGE**. *n. f.* [French.] A chissel having

a round edge, for the cutting of such wood to be rounded or hollowed. *Moxon.*

(2.) A **GOUGE** is a round hollow chissel, to cut holes, channels, grooves, &c. in stone, &c.

(3.) **GOUGE**, Thomas, a dissenting clergyman of the 17th century, minister of St Sepulchre London. He was a man of uncommon piety, and a great promoter of useful knowledge. He bred above 300 schools in Wales. He died in 1687, and though he was a nonconformist, Absalon preached his funeral sermon.

(4.) **GOUGE**, William, the father of T. (Nº 3.) was born at Stratford-le-bow, but the established church. His works make a folio. It is remarked of him, that he was absent from morning and evening prayer years, and that he read 15 chapters in every day. He died in 1653.

\* **GOUJERES**. *n. f.* [from *gouje*, Fr. camp trull.] The French disease. *Hann.*

**GOUJET**, Claude Peter, a French author and compiler, born at Paris, in 1797. He published 1. A supplement to Moreau's Dictionary; 2. A supplement to Dupin's Bibliotheque of Ecclesiastical Writers; 3. An abridgement of the French Dictionary; 4. Bibliotheque Françoise, &c. He died in 1767. He had collected a library of 10,000 volumes.

**GOUJIM**, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira.

**GOVINDPOUR**. See **CALCUTTA**, § 5.

**GOULART**, Simon, a famous miniature painter, born at Senlis in 1543, and one of the most indefatigable writers of his time. He made considerable additions to the Catalogue of the French Academy, and composed a history of the truth composed by Illyricus; and acquired a great reputation by his works; the principal of which are, 1. A translation of Seneca; 2. A collection of memorable histories; 3. A translation of St Cyprian *De lapsis*; 4. Several devotional and moral treatises. He died at Geneva in 1627.

**GOULDSBOROUGH**, a town of the United States, in the district of Maine and 1 county, with a good harbour, 330 miles from Boston. Lon. 67. 53. W. Lat. 44. 25. N.

**GOULDSMITH**, Francis, an English author who flourished in the reign of Charles I. In other works, he translated *Sophompaneas*, a play of Grotius into English verse.

**GOULVIN**, a town of France, in the Finisterre, 4 miles N. of Lesvevin, and 10 miles from St Pol.

**GOUNONG API**. See **GONAPI**.

**GOUNVILLE**, John Heralde, a French author, born in 1625, originally only a vallet de chambre of Rouchefoucault, who advanced him to several high offices. He wrote *Memoirs*, containing important anecdotes of the French minister Mazarine and Colbert. He died in 1707.

**GOVON**, a town of the Piedmontese, in the dept. of the Sesia, 6 miles N. of Aosta.

**GOURA**, or **GURA**, a town of Poland, on the Vistula, 12 miles from Warsaw.

**GOVRA**, a town of Persia, in the province of Irak, 35 miles E. of Ispahan.

**GOURAINCOURT**, a town of France,

Meuse, 8 miles N. of Estain, and 15 un.

U, a town of France, in the dept. of Oasts, 8 miles S. of Lamballe, and 9 is.

U, a cape on the E. coast of Jersey, 4 lt Helier.

**GOURD.** *n. f.* [*gourde*, Fr.] 1. A fruit of some species are long, of- or bottle-shaped. *Miller.*—

li hañs, and from each bough and brake, t, and juiciest *gourd*, will pluck such e

ain our angel guest. *Milt. Par. Lof.*

is abound so much in oil, that a sweet one may be drawn from thence by they are of the four greater cold seeds, in emulsion. *Hill.* 2. A bottle (from

?) *Skinner.*—The large fruit so called ped hollow, for the purpose of con-

carrying wine, and other liquors: any leathern bottle grew to be called name, and so the word is used by

*inner.*

**GOURD,** in botany. See CUCURBITA.

**GOURD,** BITTER. See CUCUMIS.

**GOURD,** ETHIOPIAN SOUR. See ADANSO-

**GOURD TREE.** See CRESCENTIA.

**GOUT.** *n. f.* [from *gourd*] A swelling leg after a journey. *Ferriar's Dict.*

**GOURDON,** a town of France, in the dept. miles N. of Cahors, and 27 WNW.

Lon. 1. 24. E. Lat. 45. 43. N.

**GOURGUES,** Dominic DE, an illustrious French private gentleman of Gacony. The

ving inhumanly massacred a colony of who had settled in Florida, Gourgues

re revenge on them, an account of en under the article FLORIDA. On

e was received with acclamations by sen, but was forbid to appear at court. a invited him to command an English

the Spaniards, in 1593; but he died his way to England.

U, a town of France in the dept. of 4 miles NNW. of Fauet, and 27 W.

**GOURNAY,** a town of France, in the dept. fine, and late duchy Normandy, cele- s butter market. It is seated on the

les NW. of Paris. Lon. o. 36. W. N.

**GOURNAY,** Mary, Lady of. See JARS.

**GOURNET.** *n. f.* [*gounetus*.] A fish.

**GOURNICK,** a town of Scotland, in Renfrew- creek of the Clyde, near a copper es W. of Greenock.

**GOURNOURT,** a town of France in the of the Meuse, 7 miles E. of Gondre- 8. of Vancouleurs.

**GOURT,** a French protestant minister, born 1635. He left France on the revoca- dict of Nantz, and went to Holland, came professor of Greek and Theolo- ing. He died there, in 1704. He *ventarii Lingua Hebraica*, and several

(1.) \* **GOUT.** *n. f.* [*goutte*, French.] 1. The arthritis; a periodical disease attended with great pain.—The *gout* is a disease which may affect any

membraneous part, but commonly those which are at the greatest distance from the heart or the brain, where the motion of the fluid is the slowest,

the resistance, friction, and stricture of the solid parts the greatest, and the sensation of pain, by the dilaceration of the nervous fibres, extreme. *Arb.*

One that's sick o' th' *gout*, had rather Groan so in perplexity, than be cur'd By th' sure physician death. *Shak. Cymb.*

This very reverend lecher, quite worn out With rheumatism, and crippled with his *gout*, Forgets what he in youthful times has done And swings his own vices in his son. *Juv.*

2. A drop [*goutte*, French; *gutta*, Latin.] *Gut* for *drop* is still used in Scotland by physicians.—

I see thee still, And on the blade o' th' dudgeon *gouts* of blood, Which was not so before. *Shak. Macbeth.*

(2.) **GOUT.** See MEDICINE, *Index.* In the new system of medicine, the *gout* is considered as a

disease not arising from plethora, but from the very opposite cause, viz debility; and therefore to be cured by means the reverse of those formerly

too generally prescribed. The late Dr Brown cured the *gout* repeatedly, both in his own habit and those of his patients, by wine, spirits, op-

pium, and a full diet of animal food. See BRUN- NOLIAN SYSTEM, § 8.

(3.) \* **GOUT.** *n. f.* [French.] A taste. An affected cant word.—Catalogues serve for a direc- tion to any one that has a *gout* for the like studies. *Woodw. on Poss.*

(1.) \* **GOUTWORT.** *n. f.* [*gout* and *wort*, *podagraria*.] An herb. *Alm.*

(2.) **GOUTWORT.** See EGOPodium.

\* **GOUTY.** *adj.* [from *gout*.] 1. Afflicted or diseased with the *gout*.—There dies not above one of a thousand of the *gout*, although I believe that more die *gouty*. *Gravatt*—

Knots upon his *gouty* joints appear, And chalk is in his crippled fingers found. *Dryd. Perf.*

—Most commonly a *gouty* constitution is attended with great acuteness of parts, the nervous fibres, both in the brain and the other extremities being delicate. *Arbuth.* 2. Relating to the *gout*.—There are likewise other causes of blood spitting; one is the settlement of a *gouty* matter in the substance of the lungs. *Blackmore.*

**GOUVEA,** a town of Portugal, in Beira.

**GOUVERNANTE,** in botany, the Spanish name of a plant which the Indians in California use in decoction, as a sudorific drink for curing the venereal disease. It is a new species of *daphne*.

(See DAPHNE, § II.) It is a middle sized shrub, with angular and knotty branches, covered with an adhesive varnish; the lateral ones alternate, and near each other; the leaves small, petiolated,

bilobed, opposite, smooth above; indistinctly veined below; the blossoms axillary, sometimes ter- minating, pedunculated; solitary, but sometimes

in pairs. The calyx is quadrifid, egg shaped, the size of the corolla, placed beneath the fruit, deciduous. Corolla polypetalous; petals 4, small,

entire, egg-shaped, fixed on the receptacle: sta-

mina 8 fixed to the receptacle; the length of the corolla: threads channelled, concave on one side, convex on the other: wings veiled, anthera simple. Pistil, germ oblong, covered with 5 angles and 5 cells; seeds oblong; pericarpium covered with fine hairs. *Peyrouse's Voyage*, vol. 3d.

GOUX, a town of France in the dept. of Doubs, 5 miles NW. of Pontarlier, and 9 SE. of Ornans.

(1.) GOUYE, Thomas, an eminent French mathematician, born at Dieppe, in 1650. He was a member of the society of Jesuits. His chief work is *Mathematical and Philosophical Observations*, in 2 vols 8vo. He died at Paris in 1725.

(2.) GOUYE OF LONGUEMARE, another French author, who wrote various memoirs and dissertations to illustrate the history of France.

GOUZON, a town of France in the dept. of Creuse, 15 miles E. of Gueret.

(1.) GOWER, John, one of the most ancient English poets, was cotemporary with Chaucer, and his intimate friend. He studied the law, and was some time a member of the society of Lincoln's-inn. Some have asserted that he was a judge. In the first year of Henry IV. he became blind, which he laments in one of his Latin poems. He died in 1402; and was buried in St Mary Overie, which church he had rebuilt chiefly at his own expence, so that he must have lived in affluent circumstances. His tomb was magnificent, and curiously ornamented. It still remains, but has been repaired in later times. From the collar of SS round the neck of his effigies, which lies upon the tomb, it is supposed that he had been knighted. With regard to his poetical talents, it is sufficient to say, that he was admired at the time when he wrote. He wrote, 1. *Speculum meditantis*, in French, in ten books. There are two copies of this in the Bodleian library. 2. *Vox clamantis*, in Latin verse, in 7 books. Preserved also in the Bodleian library, and in that of All-souls. It is a chronicle of the insurrection of the commons in the reign of Richard II. 3. *Confessio amantis*; printed at Westminster by Caxton in 1493, Lond. 1532, 1545. It is a sort of poetical system of morality, interspersed with a variety of moral tales. 4. *De rege Henrico IV.*; printed in Chaucer's works. There are likewise several historical tracts, in MS. written by our author, which are to be found in different libraries; also some short poems printed in Chaucer's works.

(2.) GOWER, ST, or ST GOAR. See GOAR, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

GOWER'S ISLAND, an isle in the S. pacific ocean, which has no anchorage near it. Lon. 158. 56. E. Lat. 7. 55. S.

(1.) \* GOWN. *n. f.* [*gonna*, Italian; *gawn*, Welsh and Erle.] 1. A long upper garment.—They make garments either short, as cloaks, or, as gowns, long to the ground. *Abbot's Descript. of the World*.—If ever I laid a loole-bodied gown, sew me up in the skirts of it, and beat me to death with a bottom of brown thread; I laid a gown. *Shak.*—

In length of train descends her sweeping gown,  
And by her graceful walk the queen of love is known.  
*Dryd.*

2. A woman's upper garment.—I despise your new gown, 'till I see you dressed in it. *Pope.* 3.

The long habit of a man dedicated peace, as divinity, medicine, law.—The themselves are so mean in Irish counties, will not yield any competent maintenance honest minister, scarcely to buy him a gown on Ireland.—

Girt in his Gabin gown the hero  
Yet not superior to her sex's cares,  
The mode she fixes by the gown she  
Of silks and china the's the last appe  
In these great points she loads the com

4. The dress of peace.—

Hé Mars depos'd, and arms to gown yield;

Successful councils did him soon appear  
As fit for close intrigues as open field

(2.) *The Gown*, (§ 1. *def.* 1, 3.) is a sort of garment, worn over the ordina hanging down to the feet. It is fashionably for ecclesiastics and for laymen, they gave the name  *toga virilis*, i. e. gown, to a plain kind of gown which assumed when arrived at puberty. Particularly denominated *prætexta*. See *TEXTA*, &c. In some universities, wear a scarlet gown. In the Sorbonnors always are in gowns and caps. E wear gowns of two or more colours.

(3.) Gown is also taken in the general magistracy or the profession opposite arms. In this sense it was that Cicero *arma togæ*.

\* GOWNED, *adj.* [from gown.] I gown.—

A noble crew about them waited  
Of sage and sober peers, all gravely gown'd

In velvet white as snow the troops  
The seams with sparkling emeralds

\* GOWNMAN. *n. f.* [*gown* and *man*] devoted to the arts of peace; one whose habit is a gown.—

Let him with pedants  
Pore out his life amongst the lazy gown  
—Thus will that whole bench, in an  
be composed of mean, fawning gown  
dants upon the court for a morsel of bread

GOWRAN, a borough, and post town, in the county of Kilkenny, 3 Ballinabola castle, 8 E. of Kilkenny, 3 Dublin. It is governed by a portreev and town-clerk. Here are the ruin church, and the handsome seat of t Clifden. Lon. 7. 0. W. Lat. 52. 34.

(1.) GOWRIE, Earl of. See SCO

(2.) GOWRIE, CARSE OF, a fertile Perthshire, lying between Perth and along the north banks of the Tay, producing excellent crops. The great it is comprehended in the parish of ERROL, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

GOXHILL, two small towns; 1. shire, near Barton: 2. near Hornsey,

GOYAVA, a town of Africa, on the coast of the island. Lon. 61. 31. W. L

GOYAVES, a town of Guadaloupe

John VAN, painter of landscapes, pieces, was born at Leyden in 1596; visited by Isaac Nicolai, a good afterwards by Esaias Vanderwilde, rated landscape painter of his time. soon rose into general esteem; and more spread throughout Europe than of any other matter, as he possessed common readiness of hand and freedom. It was his practice to sketch the rivers and towns on the banks of rivers, the sea-ports in the Low Countries; and scenes of inland villages, where the scenes appeared picturesque. Those he affected as subjects for his landscapes; enriched with cattle, boats, and figures in the understood perspective, and the which enabled him to give his pictures an agreeable effect. He died in 1660.—His best pieces are generally his name and the year; and his high price will be for ever estimable. His pictures have a greyish cast, occasioned by a colour called *Haerlem blue*, then used, but now disused, as it is apt to lose that greyish tint. His best works are highly in most parts of Europe, and large prices, being ranked with the works of Teniers. They are not now easily to be had if undamaged, though his slighter works are sufficiently common.

GRABAW, a river in Derby and Lancashire, empties into Mersey.

GRABEN, a town of England, in Monmouthshire, near Abergavenny.

GRABEN, a sea port of Morocco, on the Atlantic, near Mozador.

GRABEN, an island of the Mediterranean, 4½ miles from Malta, and 24 miles from Sicily. It is supposed to be the island of Calpe, celebrated by Homer. It is furnished with high rocks, which render it not easy to be taken; yet it is very fertile in the middle. It had 6000 inhabitants in 1551, when the island was retaken by the Spaniards; but in 1559, it was retaken by the English, grand master of Malta. The possession of it along with Malta, in 1798, it was retaken by the British under Admiral Nelson, of the ship *Alexander*, on the 28th of August 1798.

GRABEN, an island of the Mediterranean, near Candia. Lon. 41. 31. E. of Ferro. N.

GRACIUS, a celebrated physician, born at Groningen, in Holland, in 1641. He studied at Prussia, and was educated in medicine. Here he acquired great honour by publishing *De Succo Pancreatico*. He also wrote pieces upon the organs of generation and female; upon which subject he was in controversy with Swammerdam. He died aged 32; and his works, with his letters, were published at Leyden in 1677,

GRABER, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Moravia, 17 miles WNW. of Leitmeritz.

GRABOW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lublin, 12 miles S. of Kalisz.

GRABAW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Belez, 28 miles NNW. of Belez.

(1.) \* To GRABBLE. *v. a.* To lie prostrate on the ground. *Sinforth.*

(2.) \* To GRABBLE. *v. n.* [probably corrupted from *grapple.*] To grope; to feel eagerly with the hands.—My blood chills about my heart at the thought of these rogues, with their bloody hands *grabbling* in my guts, and pulling out my very entrails. *Arbutnot's John Bull.*

GRABE, John Ernest, a very learned writer in the beginning of the 18th century, born at Königsberg in Prussia. He was educated in the Lutheran religion; but the reading of the fathers led him into doubts. He presented to the electoral consistory at Sambia in Prussia a memorial containing his doubts. The elector ordered 3 eminent divines to answer them. Their answers shook him in his resolution of embracing the Roman Catholic religion; and one of them, Spener, advised him to go to England. He went; and King William III. gave him a pension, which was continued by queen Anne. He was ordained a priest of the church of England, and honoured with the degree of D. D. by the university of Oxford; upon which occasion Dr George Smalridge pronounced two Latin orations, which were afterwards printed. He wrote, 1. *Specilegium S. S. Patrum, ut et Hæreticorum, sæculi post Christum natum*, 8vo. 2. An edition of the Septuagint, from the Alexandrian MS. in St James's library. 3. Notes on Justin, &c.; and other works, which are esteemed.

(1.) GRABEN, a town of Croatia

(2.) GRABEN, a town of Silesia, in Oels.

(1.) GRABERN, a town of Bohemia.

(2.) GRABERN, a town of Germany in Austria, 3 miles N. of Sonneberg.

GRABINETZ, a town of Maritime Austria, in Istria, 14 miles NE. of Pedana.

GRABO, a town of Sweden in E. Gothland, 11 miles SE. of Linköping.

GRABOW, a town of Germany in Mecklenburg, 22 miles S. of Schwerin.

GRACAY, a town of France, in the dept. of Cher, 12 miles NNW. of Issoudun, and 10 SW. of Vierzon.

GRACCHOPOLIS, or the city of Gracchus, the ancient name of Cracow, in Poland.

GRACCHURIS, a city of Castile in Spain, built by Sempronius Gracchus, formerly called Illurcia.

(1.) GRACCHUS, Sempronius, the father of Tiberius and Caius (N<sup>o</sup> 2, 3.) by Cornelia the daughter of Scipio. He was proconsul in Spain, subdued the Celtiberians, and rebuilt or repaired GRACCHURIS.

(2, 3.) GRACCHUS, Tiberius and Caius. Tiberius being tribune of the Roman people, demanded in their name, the execution of the Agrarian law; by which all persons possessing above 200 acres of land were to be deprived of the surplus, for the benefit of the poor citizens, amongst whom an equal distribution of them was to be made. Having carried his plan into execution by violent measures, he fell a victim to his zeal, being assassinated, A. A. C. 133. Caius his brother pursuing the same steps, was killed by the consul Opimius, A. A. C. 121. See ROME.

(1.) \* GRACE.



(1.) \* GRACE. *n. f.* [*grace*, French; *gratia*, Latin; *grace*, Este.] 1. Favour; kindness.—If the highest love in no base person may aspire to *grace*, then may I hope your beauty will not be without pity. *Sidney*.—

O momentary *grace* of mortal men,  
Which we more hunt for than the *grace* of God!  
*Shakespeare*.

Such as were popular,  
And well deserving, were advanc'd by *grace*.  
*Daniel*.

—Is this the reward and thanks I am to have for those many acts of *grace* I have lately pass'd?  
*King Charles*.—

Yet those remov'd,  
Such *grace* shall one just man find in his fight,  
That he relents, not to blot out mankind. *Milt*.  
—He receiv'd all the *graces* and degrees, the proctorship and the doctorship could be obtained there.  
*Clarendon*.—

Or each, or all, may win a lady's *grace*;  
Then either of you knights may well deserve  
A princess born. *Dryden's Fables*.

None of us, who now your *grace* implore,  
But held the rank of sov'reign queen before.  
*Dryden*.

Proffer'd service I repaid the fair,  
That of her *grace* she gave her maid to know  
The secret meaning of this moral show. *Dryden*.

2. Favourable influence of God on the human mind.—The *grace* of God, that passeth understanding, keep your hearts and minds. *Common Prayer*.—The evil of sin is that we are especially to pray against, most earnestly begging of God, that he will, by the power of his *grace*, preserve us from falling into sin. *Duty of Man*.—

Plevent *grace* descending had remov'd  
The stony from their hearts, and made new flesh  
Regenerate grow instead. *Milton*.

3. Virtue; effect of God's influence.—Within the church, in the public profession and external communion thereof, are contained persons truly good and sanctified, and hereafter saved; and together with them other persons void of all saving *grace*, and hereafter to be damned. *Pearson*.—

How Van wants *grace*, who never wanted wit.  
*Pope*.

4. Pardon; mercy.—  
Noble pity held  
His hand a while, and to their choice gave space  
Which they would prove, his valour or his *grace*.  
*Waller*.

Bow and sue for *grace*  
With suppliant knee. *Milton*.

5. Favour conferred.—  
I should therefore esteem it great favour and *grace*,  
Would you be so kind as to goin my place. *Prior*.

6. Privilege.—  
But to return and view the cheerful skies,  
To few great Jupiter imparts this *grace*. *Dryd*.

7. A goddess, by the heathens supposed to bestow beauty.—

This forehead, where your verse has laid  
The loves delighted and the *graces* play'd. *Prior*.

8. Behaviour, considered as decent or unbecoming.—The same words in Philoclea's mouth, as from one woman to another, so as there were no

other body by, might have had a better perchance have found a gentler reception.  
Have I reason or good *grace* in

9. Adventitious or artificial beauty; appearance.—

One lilac only, with a statlier g  
Presum'd to claim the oak's and c  
And, looking round him with a me  
Spread his exalted boughs to wave  
Her purple habit fits with such  
On her smoo shoulders, and so

—To write and speak correctly gives gains a favourable attention to what say. *Locke*. 10. Natural excellence.— me, that things of principal excellen thus bitten at by men whom God with *graces*, both of wit and learning purposes. *Hooker*.—

To some kind of men,  
Their *graces* serve them but as ene  
In his own *grace* he doth exalt h  
More than in your advancement.

The charming Lausus, full of y  
To Turnus only second in the gra  
Of manly mien, and features of th

11. Embellishment; recommendation  
Where justice grows, there grows  
er *grace*,  
The which doth quench the bra  
smart.

Set all things in their own pecul  
And know that order is the greatest  
The flow'r which lasts for little  
A short liv'd good and an uncertain

12. Single beauty.—  
I pass their form and every chan

13. Ornament; flower; highest perfe  
By their hands this *grace* of king  
If hell and treason hold their prom

14. Single or particular virtue.—  
The king becoming *graces*,  
As justice, verity, temp'rance, stat  
Devotion, patience, courage, fortit  
I have no relish of them. *Shakespeare*

—The *graces* of his religion prepare  
most useful discharge of every relation  
gers. 15. Virtue physical.—

O, mickle is the pow'rtul *grace* t  
In plants, herbs, stones, and their tr

16. The title of a duke or archbishop of the king, meaning the same as your clemency.—

Here come I from our princely g  
To know your griefs; to tell you fru  
That he will give you audience. *Sh*  
—High and mighty king, your *grace*  
your nobles here present, may be plea  
your ears. *Bacon's H. VII.*—Accord  
usual proceeding of your *grace*, and o  
with delinquents which are overtaken  
in simplicity, there was yielded unto h  
rate, patient, and full hearing, toget  
satisfactory answer to all his main  
White. 17. A short prayer before and

• soldiers use him as the *grace* before meat, alk at table, and their thanks at end. *Shak.* *grace* is saying after meat, do you and then take the chairs from behind the . *Scuff.*—  
n cheerful healths, your mistress shall  
ire place;  
hat's more rare, a poet shall say *grace*.

*Pope.*

**GRACE**, among divines, (§ 1. *def.* 2, 3.) is For the free love and favour of God, the spring and source of all the benefits re from him. 2. For the work of the lewring the soul after the image of God; usually guiding and strengthening the be- obey his will, to resist and mortify sin, come it.

**GRACE** at meals. See § 1. *def.* 17. The the moral obligation of this ceremony, om different passages of the New Testa- e so well known, that it is needless to em. Others have been drawn from the of different nations, of very remote anti- thenæus tells us, in his *Deipnosoph.* lib. ii he famous regulation made by Amphic- z of Athens, as to the use of wine, both ces and at home, he required that the

*Jupiter the Sustainer* should be decently rately pronounced. The same writer, in . 149. quotes Hermias, an author extant ne, who mentions a people in Egypt, in s of Naucratis, whose custom it was, af- had placed themselves in the usual pos- ating at the table, to rise again and kneel; e priest began to chant a *grace*, according d form amongst them; and when that ; they joined in the meal in a solemn fa- manner. Heliodorus has a passage in his s to the same purpose, that it was the of the Egyptian philosophers, to pour out and put up ejaculations before they sat meals. Porphyry, in his treatise *De ab- iv. p. 408*, gives a great character of the gymnosophists in Egypt for the strictness lives; and observes, that at the founding l before meals, which consisted only of ad, fruits, and herbs, they went to pray- ich being ended, the bell sounded again, fat down to eating. In general this was as usage among the ancient Greeks, de- yet older ages, according to Clement ndria. He mentions, that these people, ey met together to refresh themselves with : of the grape, sung a piece of music, in of the Hebrew psalms, which they call- sion. Livy, lib. xxxix. speaks of it as a ustom among the Romans, that they of- rifice and prayer to the gods at their id computations. But one of the fullest ies is given by Quæntilian, *Declam.* 301. *ensam*, says he, *ad quam cum venire capi- us invocamus*; “We approached the ta- supper together), and then invoked the The Jesuit Trigautius, in his very elegant ictive narrative of the expedition of their ries into China, B. i. p. 69. gives a similar of the Chinese, who “before partaking ntertainment, pour out wine upon the

X. PART II.

ground, as a thankful oblation to the Lord of hea- ven.” The Turks pray for a blessing on their meat; and many more instances might be pro- duced of nations who have constantly observed the like custom, in some way or other. The cele- brated Jewish historian Josephus, giving a detail of the rites and customs of the Essenes, who were confessedly the strictest and most pious professors of the Jewish religion, says “The priest begs a blessing before they presume to take any nourish- ment; and it is looked upon as a great sin to take or taste before; When the meal is over, the priest prays again; and the company with him bless and praise God as their preserver, and the donor of their life and nourishment.” Puffe, in his book *De vita contemplativa*, gives a similar ac- count of a body of men and women stricter than even the Essenes. From the Hebrew ritual it ap- pears, that the Jews had their hymns and psalms of thanksgiving, not only after eating their pass- over, but on a variety of other occasions, at and after meals, and even between their several cour- ses and dishes. Aristæus (as quoted by R. Eleazar,) says “Moses commands, that when the Jews are going to eat or drink, the company should im- mediately join in sacrifice or prayer.”

(4.) **GRACE**, or **GRACEFULNESS**, in the human character, is an agreeable attribute, inseparable from motion as opposed to rest, and as compre- hending speech, looks, gesture, and loco-motion. As some motions are homely, the opposite to graceful, it may be inquired, With what motions is this attribute connected? No man appears graceful in a mask; and therefore, laying aside the expressions of the countenance, the other mo- tions may be genteel, may be elegant, but of them- selves never are graceful. A motion adjusted in the most perfect manner to answer its end, is ele- gant; but still somewhat more is required to com- plete our idea of grace or gracefulnes. What this *more* may be, is the nice point. One thing is clear from what is said, that it must arise from the expressions of the countenance: and from what expressions so naturally as from those which indi- cate mental qualities, such as sweetness, benevo- lence, elevation, dignity? This promises to be a fair analysis; because of all objects mental quali- ties affect us the most; and the impression made by a graceful appearance, upon every spectator of taste, is too deep for any cause purely corporeal. The next step is, to examine what are the mental qualities, that, in conjunction with elegance of motion, produce a graceful appearance. Sweet- ness, cheerfulness, affability, are not separately sufficient, nor even in conjunction. Dignity alone, with elegant motion, produce a graceful appear- ance; but still more graceful with the aid of other qualities, those especially that are the most exalted. See **DIGNITY**, § 3. But this is not all. The most exalted virtues may be the lot of a person whose countenance has little expression; but such a person cannot be graceful. To produce this appearance, must be added, an expressive countenance, display- ing to every spectator of taste, with life and energy, every thing that passes in the mind. Collecting these circumstances together, grace may be de- fined, “that agreeable appearance, which arises from elegance of motion, and from a countenance

C C C

expressive

expressive of dignity." Expressions of other mental qualities are not essential to that appearance, but they heighten it greatly. Dancing affords great opportunity for displaying grace, and haranguing still more. See DANCING, DECLAMATION, and ORATORY. But in vain will a person attempt to be graceful who is deficient in amiable qualities. A man, it is true, may form an idea of qualities he is destitute of; and, by means of that idea, may endeavour to express these qualities by looks and gestures: but such studied expression will be too faint and obscure to be graceful.

(5.) GRACE, ACT OF, the appellation given to the act of parliament, 1696, c. 32, which allows prisoners for civil debts to be set at liberty, upon making oath that they have not wherewithal to support themselves in prison, unless they are allowed by the creditors on whose diligences they were imprisoned, within ten days after intimation made for that purpose.

(6.) GRACE, DAYS OF, three days immediately following the term of payment of a bill, within which the creditor must protest it, if payment is not obtained, in order to entitle him to recourse against the drawer.

(7.) GRACE, HERB OF, a species of RUTA.  
 \* To GRACE, v. a. [from the noun.] 1. To adorn; to dignify; to embellish; to recommend; to decorate.—This they study, this they practise, this they grace with a wanton superfluity of wit.  
*Hooker.*

I do not think a braver gentleman,  
 More dawning, or more bold is now alive,  
 To grace this latter age with noble deeds. *Shak.*  
 Little of this great world can I speak,  
 And therefore little shall I grace my cause,  
 In speaking for myself. *Shak. Othello.*  
 —There is due from the judge to the advocate some commendation and *gracing*, where causes are well handled. *Bacon.*

Rich crowns were on their royal scutcheons  
 plac'd,  
 With saphires, diamonds, and with rubies grac'd.  
*Dryden.*

By both his parents of descent divine;  
 Great Jove and Phœbus grac'd his nobler line.  
*Pope.*  
 Though triumphs were to generals only due,  
 Crowns were reserv'd to grace the soldiers too.  
*Pope.*

2. To dignify or raise by an act of favour.—  
 He writes  
 How happily he lives, how well belov'd,  
 And daily graced by the emperor. *Shak.*  
 —He might at his pleasure grace or disgrace whom  
 he would in court. *Knollys.*

Dispose all honours of the sword and gun,  
 Grace with a nod, and ruin with a frown.  
*Dryden.*

3. To favour.—  
 When the guests withdrew,  
 Their courteous host saluting all the crew,  
 Regardless pass'd her o'er, nor grac'd with kind  
 adieu. *Dryden.*

\* GRACE-CUP, n. f. [*grace* and *cup*.] The cup or health drunk after grace.—

The grace cup serv'd, the cloth away,  
 Jove thought it time to shew his play. *Prior.*

\* GRACED, adj. [from *grace*.] 1. Beautiful;

graceful. Not in use.—He saw this gent  
 of the properest and best graced men  
 saw, being of a middle age and a m  
*Sidney.* 2. Virtuous; regular; chaste.

Epicurism and lust  
 Make it more like a tavern or a bro  
 Than a grac'd palace. *Shak.*

(1.) GRACEDIEU, a town in Le  
 between Ashby de la Zouch and Lou

(2.) GRACEDIEU, a village in Mon  
 on the Trothy, SW. of Moenmouth.

\* GRACEFUL, adj. [from *grace*.]  
 with dignity.—

Amid' the troops, and like the le  
 High o'er the rest in arms the grac  
 rode.

Matchless his pen, victorious was  
 Bold in the lists, and graceful in the d  
 Yet graceful ease, and sweetness w  
 Might hide her faults, if belles bad fa

Graceful to fight, and elegant to  
 The great are vanquish'd, and th  
 taught.

\* GRACEFULLY, adv. [from *grac  
 gently; with pleasing dignity.—*

Through nature and through art  
 And gracefully her subject chang'd.  
 —Walking is the mode or manner of  
 a beast; but walking gracefully imply  
 or mode superadded to that action. *Wi*

(1.) \* GRACEFULNESS, n. f. [from  
 Elegance of manner; dignity with bea  
 His neck, his hands, his shoulde  
 breast,

Did next in gracefulness and beauty  
 To breathing figures. *Dry*

—He executed with so much gracefulli  
 ty, that he alone got money and reput  
*den's Dnfr.*—There is a secret gracefulness  
 which accompanies his writings, thoug  
 nels and sobriety of age be wanting. *Dry*  
*Præface.*

If hearers are amaz'd from whence  
 Proceeds that fund of wit and sense,  
 Which, though her modesty would  
 Breaks like the sun behind a cloud;  
 While gracefulness its art conceals.  
 And yet through ev'ry motion steals

(2.) GRACEFULNESS. See GRACE,  
 GRACE-HILL, a town of Ireland, in  
 settlement of the Moravians; 1½ m. fr

\* GRACELESS, adj. [from *grace*.]  
 grace; wicked; hopelessly corrupt; abu

This graceless man, for furtherance  
 Did court the handmaid of my lady de

Whose hap shall be to have h  
 Will not so graceless be, to be ingr

—In all manner of graceless and hope  
 ters, some are loit for want of advice,  
 for want of heed. *L'Esrange.*

Furnish'd for offence, he cross'd t  
 Betwixt the graceless villain and his g

(1.) \* GRACES, n. f. Good graces li  
 seldom used in the singular —

Den and delivery of her heart,  
 Her goods and chattels, and good g  
 And person, up to his embraces.

**GRACES, GRATIÆ, or CHARITES**, in theology, were fabulous deities, three who attended on Venus. Their names, Thalia, and Euphrosyne; i. e. *Shining*, and *gay*; or, according to some authors, Euphrosyne, and Egiale. They were some to be the daughters of Jupiter, one the daughter of Oceanus; and by Bacchus and Venus.—Some will have to have been four; and make them the three Hours, or rather with the three of the year. A marble in the king of Sicily represents the three Graces in the air, with a fourth seated and covered with a veil, with the words underneath, *Ad*.—But this group we may understand three Graces, and Venus, who was their daughter of Jupiter by Dione. They were always supposed to have hold of each other's hands, and never parted. They were represented to show that the Graces borrow from art, and that they have no other source than those of nature. Yet in the first ages they were represented naked, as appears from Pausanias (lib. vi. and ix.) who describes their statues. They were of wood, all but their feet, and hands, which were white. Their robe or gown was gilt; one of them held a rose, another a dye, and the third a myrtle.

**GRACES**, in geography, a village in Essex, Baddow.

**GRACIA DIOS**, [Span. i. e. *Thanks to God*.] Mexico, in the province of Honduras.

**GRACILE**, *adj.* [*gracilis*, Latin.] Slender;

**GRACILENT**, *adj.* [*gracilentus*, Lat.] Lean.

**GRACIA**, a muscle of the leg, so called from its shape. See **ANATOMY**, § 216.

**GRACILITY**, *n. f.* [*gracilitas*, Lat.] Slenderness.

**GRACIA**, one of the **AZORES**. It has inhabitants; produces wheat, wine, and abounds with black cattle. It exports cheese.

**GRACIOUS**, *adj.* [*gracieux*, Fr.] 1. Merciful.—Common sense and reason could not be pleased, nor consequently worshipped by a thing barbarous or cruel. *South*.—2. and *gracious*, and a lover of knowledge of the most amiable things. *Burton*.—3. Favourable; kind.—And the Lord showed favour unto them, and had compassion on them. *Isa. xlii. 23*.—

Unblam'd Ulysses' house,  
I finde receipt to *gracious*. *Chapman*.  
From now reveal

the beam of light; from now inspire  
me to sing, my hand to touch the lyre.

*Prior*.  
I am favoured.—Doctrine is much more  
valued *graciously* by example than by rule.

made us *gracious* before the kings of  
the earth they gave us food. 1 *Esdr. viii. 80*.  
Who was now general of the horse, was  
*gracious* to prince Rupert than Wilmot

had been. *Clarendon*. 4. Virtuous; good.—Kings  
are no less unhappy, their issue not being *gracious*  
than they are in losing them when they have ap-  
proved their virtues. *Shak. Winter's Tale*. 5. Ex-  
cellent. Obsolete.—The grievous abuse which  
hath been of councils, should rather cause men  
to study how so *graciously* a thing may again be re-  
duced to that first perfection. *Hooker*. 6. Grace-  
ful; becoming. Obsolete.—Our women's names  
are more *gracious* than their Rutilia, that is, red  
head. *Comden*.

\* **GRACIOUSLY**, *adv.* [from *gracious*.] 1.  
Kindly; with kind condescension.—His testimony  
was *graciously* confirmed, that it was the best of all  
my tragedies. *Dryden*.—

He heard my vows, and *graciously* decreed  
My grounds to be restor'd, my former flocks to  
feed.

—If her majesty would but *graciously* be pleased  
to think a hardship of this nature worthy her royal  
consideration. *Swift*. 2. In a pleasing manner.

\* **GRACIOUSNESS**, *n. f.* [from *gracious*.] 1.  
Kind condescension.—The *graciousness* and temper  
of this answer made no impression on them. *Clarendon*. 2. Pleasing manner.

**GRACULA**, the **GRACKLE**, in ornithology, a  
genus belonging to the order of *picæ*. The bill is  
convex, cultrated, and bare at the point; the  
tongue is not cloven, but is fleshy and sharpish;  
it has 3 toes before and one behind. See **PL. CLXIX**.  
*fig. 1*. There are 12 species. The most remark-  
able are the following:

1. **GRACULA BARITA**, the *boat-tailed grackle*, is  
about the size of a cuckoo. The bill is sharp,  
black, and an inch and a half in length; the  
general colour of the plumage is black, with a gloss  
of purple, especially on the upper parts; the legs  
and claws are black, the latter hooked. There is  
a singularity in the folding up of the tail-feathers,  
which, instead of forming a plain surface at top,  
sink into a hollow like a deep gutter. It always  
carries its tail expanded when on the ground, fold-  
ing it up in the above singular manner only when  
perched or flying. It inhabits Jamaica, and feeds  
on maize, beetles, and other insects, as well as  
on the fruit of the banana. It is likewise common  
in North America. They breed in swamps, and  
migrate in September.

2. **GRACULA CRISTATELLA**, the *Chinese star-  
ling*, is a little bigger than a blackbird. The bill  
is yellow or orange: and the general colour of the  
plumage blackish, with a tinge of blue: the legs  
are a dull yellow. These birds talk and whistle  
very well, and are common in China, where they  
are much esteemed; and the figures of them are  
seen frequently in Chinese paintings. Their food  
is rice, insects, worms, and such like.

3. **GRACULA QUISCUA**, the *purple jack-daw*,  
or *Barbadoes blackbird*, is about the size of a black-  
bird, and is black, but most beautifully and richly  
glossed with purple, especially on the head and  
neck. The female is wholly brown, but deepest  
on the wings and tail. This species inhabits Ja-  
maica, Carolina, Mexico, and other parts of North  
America. These birds generally feed on maize,  
whence they are named *maize-thieves*; but this is  
not their only food. In spring, soon after the  
maize seed is put into the ground, they scratch it

up again; and as soon as the leaf comes out, they take it up with their bills, root and all; but when it is ripe they do still more damage, for at that time they come by thousands, and are so bold, that if disturbed in one part of a field they only go to another. In New Jersey and Pennsylvania 3d. per dozen was once given for the dead birds, and by means of this premium they were nearly extirpated in 1750; when the persecution of them was abated on account of the great increase of worms which had taken place in the meadows, and which in the preceding year had left so little hay in New England as to occasion an importation from other parts. The grakles were therefore again tolerated, as it was observed that they fed on these worms till the maize was ripe. These birds build in trees. They pass the winter in swamps, which are quite overgrown with wood, only appearing in mild weather; and after the maize is got in, are content to feed on the aquatic tare-grass, and if pressed by hunger, buck wheat and oats, &c. they are said also to destroy that pernicious insect the BRUCHUS PISI. Their note is pretty agreeable; but their flesh is not good to eat.

4. GRACULA RELIGIOSA, the lesser grackle, or Indian hare, is about the size of a blackbird, the bill an inch and a half long, and of an orange colour. The general colour of the plumage is black, glossed with violet, purple, and green, in different reflections of light: on the quills is a bar of white; the feathers and legs are orange yellow, and the claws of a pale brown. This species, which is found in several parts of the East Indies, in the Isle of Hainan, and almost every isle beyond the Ganges, is remarkable for whistling, singing, and talking well, much better and more distinct than any of the parrot genus. Its food is of the vegetable kind. Those kept in this climate are observed to be very fond of cherries and grapes; if cherries are offered to one, and it does not immediately get them, it cries and whines like a child, till it has obtained them. It is very tame and familiar.

GRACULUS. See CORYUS, § III, N° 10.

GRADACCIO, a hill of Corsica, in the middle of the island; on which there are two lakes, where the chief rivers take their rise.

(1.) \* GRADATION. *n. f.* [*gradation*, French; *gradus*, Lat.] 1. Regular progress from one degree to another.—The desire of more and more rises by a natural *gradation* to most, and after that to all. *L'Esperance*. 2. Regular advance step by step.

From thence,

By cold *gradation*, and well balanc'd form,

We shall proceed with Angelo. *Shake-sp.*

—The psalmist very elegantly expresseth to us the several *gradations* by which men at last come to this horrid degree of impiety. *Tillot.* 3. Order; sequence; series:—

'Tis the curse of service;

Preferment goes by letter and affection,

Not, as of old, *gradation*, where each second Good heir to th' first. *Shak. Othello.*

4. Regular process of argument.—Certain it is, by a direct *gradation* of consequences from this principle of merit, that the obligation to gratitude

flows from, and is enjoined by, the first of nature. *Soub.*

(2.) GRADATION, in logic, (§ 1. *def.*) of reasoning, otherwise called *SORITES*.

(3.) GRADATION, in painting, a gradual sensible change of colour, by the dimming the tints and shades.

(4.) GRADATION, in rhetoric, the CLIMAX.

\* GRADATORY. *n. f.* [*gradus*, Lat.] from the cloisters into the church. *Asy.*

GRADECK, a town of Lithuania, in the province of Troki, 20 miles SSW. of Grodno.

GRADES, or GRADUS, a town of Prussia, 5 miles N. of Gurk, and 5 W. of Friedland.

GRADETZ, a town of the Helvetii, 6 miles E. of Sion.

\* GRADIENT. *adj.* [*gradiens*, Lat.] moving by steps.—Amongst those *gradations*, that iron spider is especially remarkable, which, being but of an ordinary bigness, moves up and down as if it had been alive. *H.*

GRADIGNA, a town of Maritima, in the Kingdom of Naples, 7 miles SSE. of Capo d'Istria.

GRADISCA, a town of Slavonia, on the Danube, 10 miles S. of Sissek.

(1.) GRADISKA, a town of Croatia, it was taken by the Turks in 1691. It is surrounded by mountains, and is seated on the Save, 20 miles W. of Belgrade, and 10 miles S. of Vienna. Lon. 18. 39. E. Lat. 45. 28.

(2.) GRADISKA, or GRADISCA, a town of Germany, in the circle of Austria, in the province of Friuli, and formerly included in the Kingdom of Hungary, but now in that of Goritz; built in 1473, to stop the inroads of the Turks. It was blockaded by the French under Bernadotte and Serrurier, on the 19th of August, and surrendered next day, though there were 5000 Austrians, (filed by Bonaparte) and 10 pieces of cannon, with 8 standards, and 5 miles S. of Goritz, 15 SE. of Udine, and 10 SSW. of Vienna. Lon. 13. 37. E. Lat. 46. 13.

(3.) GRADISKA, or GRADISCA, a town of Austria, formerly a county of Friuli, and now in that of Goritz. *Gradiska*, N° 2.) is the capital of the county.

(4.) GRADISKA, or GRADISCA, a village in Maritime Austria, and late Venetia, 10 miles WSW. of Udine. It was taken by the French, under general Guieux, in March, 1797, after a sharp engagement, in which the Austrians were defeated with the loss of 450 men, one general and 6 pieces of cannon, and the archduke Charles narrowly escaped taken prisoner.

(5.) GRADISKA, or GRADISCHE, a town of Austria, 1 mile from Windisch-Grätz.

GRADISTA, a town of European Bulgaria, near Servia, 40 miles S. of Vidin.

GRADLITZ, a town of Bohemia, in the province of Koniggratz, 12 miles N. of Koniggratz.

(1.) GRADO, a town of Spain, in the province of Asturias, 10 miles NW. of Oviedo.

(2.) GRADO, a podestaria or district of Austria, in the Dogado of Venice, including several lakes and islands.

ADO, an island on the S. coast of Friuli, in the above district. (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) Lon. 13. t. 45. 52. N.

ADO, a strong town in the above island, 6 miles E. by N. of Venice, containing 30 souls. It has an ancient cathedral, seated on the borders of the Dogad.

GRADUAL. *adv.* [*graduel*, Fr.] Pro-  
gress degrees; advancing step by step; from  
to another.—

Nobler birth  
tunes animate with *gradual* life,  
vibrating reason, all summ'd up in man.  
*Milton.*

I suppose a *gradual* natural progress of  
things, from great, things and persons  
downward, till at length, by many steps  
they come to be at greatest. *South.*

GRADUAL. *n. f.* [*gradus*, Latin.] An or-  
ps.—

See the *gradual* prostrate they ador'd,  
venerable kins'd, and thus the saint implor'd.  
*Dryden.*

DUALITY. *n. f.* [from *gradual*.] Re-  
gression.—This some ascribe unto the  
of the elements, others to the *graduality*  
of and light. *Brown.*

DUALITY. *adv.* [from *gradual*.] 1.  
ness; in regular progression.—When the  
eyes over the fixed stars, and eclipses them,  
it vanishes; not *gradually*, like that of the  
out all at once. *Newton's Opticks*.—The  
four being weans us *gradually* from our  
of life the nearer we approach towards  
fit. *Swift*.—Human creatures are able to  
of much greater density in diving, and of  
upon the tops of mountains, provided  
may be made *gradually*. *Arbutnot*. 2. In  
Human reason doth not only *gradually*,  
fically differ from the fantastic reason of  
*Irish*.

GRADUATE. *n. f.* [*gradué*, Fr. from  
Latin.] A man dignified with an acade-  
mic degree.—

*Graduates* I dislike the learned route,  
I use a female doctor for the gout.  
*Bramston.*

GRADUATE. See DEGREE, § 3.

GRADUATE. *v. a.* [*graduér*, French;  
Latin.] 1. To dignify with a degree in  
university.—John Tregonwel, *graduated* a  
and dubbed a knight, did good service.  
*Survey of Cornwall*.—Concerning columns  
adjuncts, architects make such a noise.  
terms of architraves, frizes, and cornices,  
ought to *graduate* a master of this art.

2. To mark with degrees.—The places  
marked where the spirits stood at the severest  
greatest heat, and according to these ob-  
servations he *graduates* his thermometers. *Derham*.  
use to a higher place in the scale of me-  
chanical term.—The tincture was capa-  
ble to smute or *graduate* as much silver as an  
ounce weight that gold. *Boyle*. 4. To heighten  
improve.—Not only vitriol is a cause of  
it, but the salts of natural bodies; and dy-  
e and *graduate* their colours with salts  
*Vulgar Errors*.

GRADUATION. *n. f.* [*graduation*, French;  
from *graduate*.] 1. Regular progression by suc-  
cession of degrees.—The *graduation* of the parts  
of the universe is likewise necessary to the per-  
fection of the whole. *Crew*. 2. Improvement; ex-  
altation of qualities.—Of greater repugnancy un-  
to reason is that which he delivers concerning its  
*graduation*, that heated in fire, and often extin-  
guished in oil of Mars or iron, the loadstone ac-  
quires an ability to extract a nail fastened in a wall.  
*Brown*. 3. The act of conferring academical de-  
grees.

GRADWEIN, a town of Stiria, 6 miles NW.  
of Graz.

(1.) GRÆCIA, Greece. See GREECE.

(2.) GRÆCIA, MAGNA, in ancient geography,  
part of the outermost coast of Italy, originally in-  
habited by Greeks. See ITALY.

GRÆCUS. See GREECE.

(1.) GRÆME, John, a Scottish poet, born at  
Carnwath in Lanarkshire, in 1748, whose posthu-  
mous poems have been much admired. His fa-  
ther was a farmer, and he was taught grammar at  
Lanark, under Mr R. Thomson, brother-in-law  
of the celebrated poet, and his progress was rapid.  
In 1766, he went to the University of Edinburgh,  
where he soon surpassed the most industrious, and  
spoke Latin with elegance and accuracy. He also  
acquired considerable knowledge in mathematics,  
natural philosophy, metaphysics, and the Belles  
Lettres. In 1769, he gave the first specimens of  
his poetical genius. In 1770, he was admitted  
into the theological class; but the fatal disease,  
which cut him off, now began to appear, in the  
form of a gradual decline, and soon ended in a  
deep consumption. He died July 26, 1772. His  
poems, consisting of 50 elegies and other miscella-  
neous pieces, were collected and printed at Edin-  
burgh in 1773, in 8vo, the expence being defrayed  
by his friends.

(2.) GRÆME. See GRAHAM.

GRÆMSAY, a small island and parish of Scot-  
land, in the county of Orkney, 1½ miles long and  
1 broad, united to the parish of Hoy. See HOY.  
The population of this island, in 1794, stated by  
the rev. Robert Sands, in his report to Sir J. Sin-  
clair, consisted of 36 families, and 160 souls.

GRAESATZ, a town of Hungary, in Croatia,  
30 miles S. of Bihacz.

GRÆVIUS, John George, one of the most  
learned writers in the 17th century. In the 24th  
year of his age, the elector of Brandenburg made  
him professor at Duisbourg. In 1658, he was in-  
vited to Deventer to succeed his former master  
Gronovius. In 1661, he was appointed professor  
of eloquence at Utrecht; and in 1673, professor  
of politics and history. He fixed here, and refu-  
sed several advantageous offers. He had the satis-  
faction to be sought after by divers princes, and  
to see several of them come from Germany to study  
under him. He died in 1703, aged 71. His *The-  
saurus antiquitatum et historiarum Italiae*, &c. and  
other works are well known.

GRAFABERG, a town of Austria, 5 miles SW.  
of Scrattenthal.

GRAFENDORF, a town of Austria, on the  
Beilach, 4 miles S. of St Polten.

GRA-



GRAFENHAYNCHEN, a town of Saxony, 11 m. SE. of Dessau, and 11 SW. of Wittenberg.

GRAFENSCHLAG, a town of Austria, 4 m. S. of Zwettl.

GRAFENWORTH, a town of Austria, 11 m. SW. of Sonneberg.

(1.) \* GRAFF. *n. f.* A ditch; a moat. See GRAVE.—Though the fortifications were not regular, yet the walls were good, and the *graff* broad and deep. *Clarendon.*

(2.) \* GRAFF. GRAFT. *n. f.* [*greffe*, French.] A small branch inserted into the stock of another tree, and nourished by its sap, but bearing its own fruit; a young cyon.—God gave unto man all kind of seeds and *graffs* of life; as the vegetative life of plants, the sensual of beasts, the rational of man, and the intellectual of angels. *Raleigh.*—It is likely, that as in fruit-trees the *graff* maketh a greater fruit, so in trees that bear no fruit it will make the greater leaves. *Bacon's Natural History.*—

'Tis usual now an inmate *graff* to see  
With insolence invade a foreign tree. *Dryden.*  
—If you cover the top with clay and horse-dung,  
in the same manner as you do a *graff*; it will help  
to heal the sooner. *Mortimer.*—

Now the cleft rind inserted *graffs* receives,  
And yields an offspring more than nature gives.

(1.) \* To GRAFF. To GRAFT. *v. a.* [*greffer*, French.] 1. To insert a cyon or branch of one tree into the stock of another.—

His growth is but a wild and fruitless plant;  
I'll cut his barren branches to the stock,  
And *graft* you on to bear. *Dryden's Don Seb.*  
With his pruning hook disjoin  
Unbearing branches from their head,  
And *graft* more happy in their stead. *Dryden.*

2. To propagate by insertion or inoculation.—  
Now let me *graft* my pears and prune the vine. *Dryden.*

3. To insert into a place or body to which it did not originally belong.—And they also, if they bide not still in unbelief, shall be *grafted* in; for God is able to *graft* them in again. *Romans.*

These are th' Italian names which fate will join  
With ours, and *graft* upon the Trojan line. *Dryden's Aeneid.*

4. To impregnate with an adscititious branch.—  
We've some old crab-trees here at home, that will not

Be *grafted* to your relish. *Shak. Coriolanus.*  
The noble isle doth want her proper limbs;  
Her royal stock *graft* with ignoble plants. *Shak.*

5. To join one thing so as to receive support from another.—This resolution against any peace with Spain is a new incident *grafted* upon the original quarrel, by the intrigues of a faction among us. *Swift.*—

May one kind grave unite each hapless name,  
And *graft* my love immortal on thy fame. *Pope.*

(2.) \* To GRAFF. *v. n.* To practise infition.—  
In March is good *grafting* the skilful do know,  
So long as the wind in the East do not blow:  
From moon being chang'd, 'till past bethe prime,  
For *grafting* and cropping is very good time.

*Tusser.*  
I have fruit in greater plenty the way is to

*graft*, not only upon young stocks, but upon the boughs of an old tree; for they bear great numbers of fruit; whereas, if you graft upon one stock, the tree can bear but one.

GRAFFENBERG, a town of Upper Carniola, 19 miles SE. of Layb.

GRAFFENDORFF, a town of Styria, 19 miles SW. of Sonneberg.

GRAFFENTHAL, a town of Saxony, 7 miles S. of Saalfeld.

GRAFFEN-TONNA, a town of Saxe-Gotha, 8 miles N. of Gotha.

GRAFFENWARK, a town of Carinthia, 19 miles S. of Layb.

GRAFIGNY, France, a French lady, the authoress of the celebrated *Peruvian Letters*, which have been translated into all the languages. She was born in 1693, and married to the Count of Lorraine's chamberlain; after whose death she retired to Paris with mademoiselle De Guise, where her talents were much admired. She died in 1758, aged 65.

GRAFT. See GRAFF, § 1, 2.

\* GRAFTER. *n. f.* [from *graft* or *grafting*] who propagates fruit by grafting.—I have seen, by the trials of the most skilful gardeners, that a man shall seldom fail to produce cherries born by his *graft* the same year as the infition is made.  *Evelyn.*

(1.) GRAFTING, *n. f.* or ENGRAFTING, in gardening, is the taking a shoot from one tree, and inserting it into another, in such a manner that both may unite closely and become one. The ancient writers on husbandry and agriculture, this operation is called INCISION, to distinguish it from inoculation or budding, which they call *serere oculus*.

(II.) GRAFTING, ACCOUNT OF THE USE, AND THEORY OF. Grafting hath been practised from the most remote antiquity; the origin and invention has been differently accounted for by naturalists. Theophrastus tells us, that he first saw a man who had swallowed a fruit whole, cast it into a cleft or cavity of a rotten tree; where, in some of the putrified parts of the wood, it budded, and when the tree was washed with the rains, it budded, and a shoot issued from within this tree another tree of a different kind. This led the husbandman to certain it, and from which soon afterwards arose the art of grafting. Pliny says, that a countryman, to make a pallisade in his grounds, that would endure the longer, he filled up and finished the bottom of the pallisade, by running it with the trunks of ivy. The effect was, that the stakes of the pallisades, which became engrafted into the trunks, and grew up like large trees; which suggested to him the art of engrafting. The use of grafting is to propagate any curious sorts of fruits so as to unite the kinds; which cannot be done by any other method: for as all the good fruits are accidentally obtained from seeds, so the seeds, when sown, will many of them die, and produce such fruit as is not worth cultivating; but when shoots are taken from trees that produce good fruit, these will never lose their kind, whatever be their stock, or from which they are grafted. The reason of



grafting is somewhat obscure; and had I been given the first hint, all our knowledge would never have led us to it. The effect is ordinarily attributed to the diversity of the ducts of the graft from those of the stock, whence the figure of the particles of the graft passing through them to the rest of the tree. I have, from some observations of Agricola, something new on this head. The stock, he thinks, is only to be considered as vegetable matter, which is to be filtered through the cion, and digested, and brought to maturity, as the time of growth in the vessels of the stock directs. A cion, therefore, of one kind, grafted on a tree of another, may be rather said to be in the tree it is grafted in, than to unite with it: for it is visible that the cion preserves its natural purity, though it be fed and nourished by a mere crab; which is, without doubt, proved by the difference of the vessels in the cion and those of the stock: so that grafting is justly compared to planting. In prosecution of this view of that ingenious author, it may be observed, that the natural juices of the earth, by filtration and comminution in passing through the cion, &c. before they arrive at the cion, are more subtle and arrive there half elaborated and digested; and so disposed for a more easy, plentiful, and perfect assimilation and nutrition; so that the cion must necessarily grow and thrive more rapidly, than if it were put immediately into the ground, there to live on coarser fare and less nourishment: and the fruit produced by the cion, after preparation in the cion, must be finer and more exalted, than if fed immediately from the stock perfectly prepared and altered juices of

**GRAFTING, CHANGES SAID TO BE PRODUCED BY.** Many have talked of changing the nature of the stock, or producing mixed fruits, by engrafting one upon another of the same class; but as the juices from the stock to the pulp of the graft, there is little hope of succeeding in this expectation by ever so many repeated attempts, if, after changing the graft and stock, you set the seed of the fruit produced by the graft in a good mould, it is possible that it may happen, and a new mixed plant may be produced. Thus the almond and peach may be grafted together, and by interchanging the stones of the peaches, and of the shells of the almonds, and by vibrations of the stem of the root here and there, alter their nature so that the coat or pulp of the almond may be changed to the nature of the peach, and the peach may have its kernel enlarged into a kind of almond. And on the same principle, the curious experiments may produce many such mixed kinds of fruits. M. Du Hamel has observed, that, in grafting, there is always found at the insertion of the graft, a change in the direction of the fibres, and a twisting or turning about of the vessels, which exactly imitates that in the formation of glands in animal bodies: and thence he concludes that a new sort of viscus being thus formed, it may be so far influenced by it, as to be directed on the new branch; but that no such

sudden and essential changes can be effected by those means, as many writers on agriculture pretend. He observes, however, that this anatomical observation would not have been sufficient to convince him of the falsity of these relations, had not experiment joined to confirm him in this opinion. He tried many grafts on different trees; and, for fear of error, repeated every experiment of consequence several times: but all served only to convince him of the truth of what he at first suspected. He grafted in the common way the peach upon the almond, the plum upon the apricot, the pear upon the apple, the quince, and the white thorn; one species of plum on other very different species, and upon the peach the apricot and the almond. All these succeeded alike: the species of the fruit was never altered; and in those which would not come to fruit, the leaves, the wood, and the flowers, were all the same with those of the tree from whence the graft was taken. Writers on agriculture have also mentioned a very different sort of grafting; namely, the setting of grafts of one tree upon stocks of a different genus; such as the grafting the pear upon the oak, the elm, the maple, or the plum, &c. M. Du Hamel tried a great number of those experiments carefully, and found every one of them unsuccessful; and the natural conclusion from this was, that there must be some natural alliance between the stocks and their grafts, otherwise the latter will either never grow at all, or very soon perish.

(IV.) **GRAFTING, CIRCUMSTANCES CONTRIBUTING TO PROMOTE OR PREVENT SUCCESS IN.** Notwithstanding the facility with which grafts generally take on good stocks, there are many accidents and uncertainties attending them in their different periods. Some perish immediately; some, after appearing healthy for many months, and some even for years. Of these last some die without the stock suffering any thing; others perish together with the stocks. It is certain, that the greater part of grafted trees do not live so long as they would have done in their natural state; yet this is no invariable rule: for there are some which evidently live the longer for this practice; nay, there are instances of grafts which, being placed on stocks naturally of short duration, live longer than when placed on those which are more robust and lasting. These irregularities have been but little considered, though they might be made productive of considerable advantages. One great requisite for the succeeding of any graft is, that it be in its own nature capable of so close and intimate an union with the substance of the stock, that it becomes as it were a natural branch of it. If all trees resembled one another in their structure and juices, the size and elasticity of their vessels, &c. probably the grafts of all trees would succeed upon one another; but this is not the case. Trees are composed of numerous arrangements of hollow fibres, and these are different and unequal in every species of tree. In order to the succeeding of a graft, it is plain that there must be a conformity in its vessels and juices with those of the stock. The more nearly they agree in this, probably the better they succeed; and the farther they differ, the worse. If there be some difference in the solid

parts of trees, there are evidently many more in the juices. The sap in some trees is white as milk, in others it is reddish, and in some as clear and limpid as water. In some, it is thin and very fluid; in others, thick and viscous. In the taste and smell of these juices there are also no less differences: some are sweet, some insipid, some bitter, some acrid, and some fetid: the quality of the sap thus makes a very great difference in the nature of trees; but its quantity, and derivation to the parts, is scarce less observable. Of this we have familiar instances in the willow and the box; one of which will produce longer shoots in one year than the other in 20. Another difference yet more striking, and indeed more essential in regard to the growth of grafts than all these, is the different season of the year at which trees shoot out their leaves, or ripen their flowers. The almond tree is in flower before other trees in general have opened their earliest buds; and when other trees are in flower, this is full of leaves, and has its fruit set before the mulberry begins to push out its earliest buttons. When we consider all these differences in trees, we are apt to wonder how it is possible for a branch of one to live upon another; and it becomes a much more perplexing question how any graft can succeed, than how such numbers come to miscarry. A graft of one pear upon another shall be seen to succeed presently as if upon its own tree; and in a fortnight will gain six inches in length, and so of some others. This must be owing to the great similarity between the stock and the graft in all respects; and a great contrariety or difference in the structure of parts will make as remarkable a difference on the other hand. An instance of this may be observed in the plum and the elm; which no art can ever make to succeed upon one another, whether the plum be grafted on the elm, or the elm upon the plum stock. These are examples of the extremes of easy growth, and of absolute decay; but there are many conjunctions of trees which seem of a middle nature between the two, and neither immediately perish, nor entirely succeed. Of these, such as were grafted in autumn usually remain green the whole winter without pushing; and those which are grafted in spring remain green a month or longer, but still without shooting. Some have also been known to make a few shoots the first, or even the 2d sap season after the operation; but all perish at the end of these times. Of this kind are the grafts of the pear tree upon the elm, the maple, and the hornbeam, and the mulberry upon the elm and fig, with many others. When we inquire into the cause of this, we find these grafts, though unnatural, have yet had a communication with the stock by means of a few small vessels, which has been sufficient to keep them green, or even to make them shoot a little, during the great ascent of the sap: But the far greater number of the fibres have had all the while no communication, and are found putrified, dried up, or covered with a putrid juice. This has evidently happened by means of the disproportion in size between the vessels of the stock and of the graft, and the great difference between their natural juices, which are obstacles sufficient to prevent either an union of the fibres or the introduc-

tion of new sap. The grafts of the plum, and of the plum on the almond grow very vigorously for the first year every appearance of succeeding entered always perish in the 2d. or 3d. year. A plum graft upon the plum stock also grows out very vigorously at first; but the stock immediately under the graft grows and perishes, the graft absorbing too many juices, and the graft necessarily perishes. The decay of the whole generally happens in the spring, plainly from the difference in the natural shooting of the two trees; the plum pushing very vigorously, and consequently pushing the stock of its juices, at a time when, according to its nature, the juices are but in their infancy in it, and the sap does not begin to rise. The grafts of the plum on the almond, from the same cause, furnished with an abundance of sap which they have at that time no use for, and consequently they as certainly perish by over-pletion, as the other of inanition. A graft of the plum on the plum stock grafted on the plum succeeds excellently, and lives longer than it would have done upon its own stock; the reason seems to be, that the tender tree, shoots with great vivacity, and produces more branches than the root is able to sustain. Thus the peach trees are full of dead wood; and often their large branches and sometimes their whole trunk decay. In the case of the plum, being a slow shooting tree, it communicates its virtue to the graft; and consequently sends out shoots which are robust and strong, and are no more in danger than the root is able to supply with nourishment. Consequently the tree is the more lasting.

(V.) GRAFTING, GENERAL DIRECTING. The grafts, or cions, when the grafting is effected, are young in the summer's growth, for they must be cut in less than one year, and such as grow on the trunk, and robust but moderate branches, such also as are firm and well ripened, may be chosen from healthful trees, and such that the middle part of each shoot is the best graft, cut at the time of grafting to be about 4 or 5 inches in length, or so as to have 4 or 5 joints, but should be preserved at full length till the time, and then prepared as follows: They should be cut from the trees in February, or in March, before the buds begin to swell, and should be much for shooting: in collecting them, they should be such as have not made lateral or side shoots, and if they are used as soon as they are collected, they should be laid in some dry earth in a warm box, or covered with some dry litter, and, if severe weather should prevail, they should be covered with dry litter.

(VI.) GRAFTING, SEASONS PROPER. The best season for performing the operation is February and March. When performed in February, it is generally most successful for cherries, plumbs, and pears; and in March, it is best adapted for apples.

(VII.) GRAFTING, TOOLS AND MANNER. These are, 1. A strong knife, for cutting off the heads of the stocks, pro-

tion of the graft; also a small hand saw for personal use in cutting off the heads of large grafts.

2. A common grafting knife, or strong open-knife, for cutting and shaping the grafts for insertion; also to slope and form the cion for the reception of the grafts.

3. A grafting chisel and small mallet for clefting large stocks in cleft-grafting, for the reception of the grafts.

4. A quantity of new bass strings for bandaging, for tying the grafted parts close, to secure the union, and promote their speedy union with the stock.

5. A quantity of grafting clay, which being closely round the grafts after their insertion and binding, to defend the parts from being scorched by the sun and winds, or too much dried by wet, or pinched by cold; for these reasons it ought to be closely surrounded with a coat of clay, in such a manner as effectually to guard them from all weathers, which would prove injurious to young grafts, and destroy their cement-property, so as to prevent the junction: therefore, a kind of stiff loamy mortar must be made of strong fat loam, or, in default thereof, of a sort of tough binding clay, either of which may be laid in a heap, adding thereto about  $\frac{1}{2}$  of horse dung free from litter, and a portion of great hay, mixing the whole well together, and adding a little water: then let the whole be beaten with a stick upon a floor, or other substance; and as it becomes too dry, apply more water, at every beating turning it over, always continuing to beat it well at top till it be perfectly flat; which must be repeated more or less according to the nature of the clay, but should be several times done the first day: next morning repeat the beating, still moistening it with water; and thus repeating the beating 6 or 8 times the first day for 2 or 3 days, or every other day at least for a week, it will be in proper order for use: observing, it should be prepared a week at least before it is used, but a month is better.

**GRAFTING, VARIOUS METHODS OF.** There are different methods of grafting practised; such as *Whip-grafting*, *Cleft-grafting*, *Crown-grafting*, *Wedge-grafting*, *Side-grafting*, *Root-grafting*, *Grafting by approach*, or *Inarching*: but the most commonly used; and Whip-grafting is the best of all, as being most expeditious and successful.

**Cleft-GRAFTING.** Cut the head of the stock horizontally, and pare the top smooth; cut one side sloping  $1\frac{1}{2}$  or 2 inches deep, and the lower part of the graft sloping the same way, making a sort of shoulder at top of the cion part. Then place it upon the sloped part of the stock, resting the shoulder upon the crown, and bind the parts close together with a string or band, bringing it in a neat manner several times round the stock and graft; then clay the whole near an inch thick on every side, from about an inch or more below the bottom of the cion to an inch over the top of the stock, finishing a whole coat of clay in a kind of oval form, rather longwise, up and down, close effectually about the cion, and every part of it, so no sun, wind, or wet may penetrate, to prevent which is the whole intention of claying. Observe this line it now and then, to see if it any where

cracks or falls off, and if it does, it must be instantly repaired with fresh clay.

2. **Cleft-GRAFTING** is so called, because the stock being large is cleft or slit down the middle for the reception of the graft; and is performed upon stocks from about one to two inches diameter. First, with a strong knife cut off the head of the stock; or if the stock is very large, it may be headed with a saw; and cut one side sloping upwards about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches to the top; then proceed with a strong knife or chisel, to cleave the stock at top, cross-way the slope, fixing the knife towards the back of the slope, and strike it with a mallet, so as to cleave the stock about two inches, or long enough to admit the graft, keeping it open with the chisel; this done, prepare the cion, cutting it to such length as to leave 4 or 5 eyes, the lower part of which being sloped on each side, like a wedge,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  or 2 inches long, making one side to a thin edge, the other much thicker, leaving the rind thereon, which side must be placed outward in the stock; the cion being thus formed, and the cleft in the stock being kept open with the chisel, place the graft therein at the back of the stock the thickest side outward, placing the whole cut part down into the cleft of the stock, making the rind of the stock and graft join exactly; then removing the grafting chisel, each side of the cleft will closely squeeze the graft, so as to hold it fast; it is then to be bound with a ligature of bass, and clayed over, as directed above, (see § 1.), leaving 3 or 4 eyes of the cions uncovered. If it be intended to graft any pretty large stocks or branches by this method, two or more grafts may be inserted in each.

1. In this case the head must be cut off horizontally, making no slope on the side, but smooth the top, then cleave it quite across, and place a graft on each side, as the stock may be cleft in two places, and insert two grafts in each cleft; they are thus to be tied and clayed. This method of grafting may be performed upon the branches of bearing trees, when intended either to renew the wood or change the sort of fruit. Towards the end of May, or the beginning of June, the junction of the graft and stock in either method will be effectually formed, and the graft begin to shoot, when the clay may be taken off, and in a fortnight or three weeks after the bandages likewise.

3. **Crown-GRAFTING** is commonly practised upon such stocks as are too large to cleave, and is often performed upon the large branches of apple and pear trees, &c. that already bear fruit, when it is intended to change the sorts, or renew the tree with fresh-bearing wood. It is termed *crown-grafting*, because the stock or branch being headed down, several grafts together are inserted at top all around betwixt the wood and bark, so as to give it a crown-like appearance. This kind of grafting should not be performed until March or early in April; for then the sap being in motion, renders the bark and wood of the stock much easier to be separated for the admission of the graft. The manner of performing it is this: First, cut off the head of the stock or branch with a saw horizontally, and pare the top smooth; then having the grafts, cut one side of each flat, and somewhat sloping, an inch and a half, forming a

sort of shoulder at top of the slope to rest upon the crown of the stock; and then raising the rind of the stock with a wedge, so as to admit the cion between that and the wood two inches down, place the graft with the flat side next the wood, thrusting it down far enough for the shoulder to rest upon the top of the stock; and in this manner may be put 3, 4, 5, or more grafts into one large stock or branch. When the grafts are thus inserted, let the whole be tied tight and well clayed; but leave 2 or 3 eyes of each graft uncovered and raise the clay an inch above the top of the stock, so as to throw the wet quickly off, without lodging about the grafted parts, which would ruin the whole. Crown-grafting may also be performed, by making several clefts in the crown of the stock, and inserting the grafts round the top of the clefts. The grafts will be pretty well united with the stock, and exhibit a state of growth, by the end of May or beginning of June, and the clay may then be taken away. The trees grafted by this method succeed extremely well; but, for the first two or three years, have this inconvenience attending them, that they are liable to be blown out of the stock by violent winds; which must be remedied by tying long sticks to the body of the stock or branch, and tying each graft up to one of the sticks.

4. *Root-GRAFTING* is performed by Whip-grafting cions (See § 6.) upon pieces of the root of any tree of the same genus, and planting the root where it is to remain. It will take root, draw nourishment, and feed the graft.

5. *SIDE-GRAFTING* is by inserting grafts into the sides of the branches without heading them down; and may be practised upon trees to fill up any vacancy, or for the purpose of variety, to have several sorts of apples, pears, plums, &c. upon the same tree. It is performed thus. Fix upon such parts of the branches where wood is wanted to furnish the head or any part of the tree; there slope off the bark and a little of the wood, and cut the lower end of the grafts to fit the part as near as possible; then join them to the branch, and tie them with bass, and clay them over.

6. *Whip-GRAFTING* is always performed upon small stocks, from about the size of a goose quill to half an inch or a little more or less in diameter, but the nearer the stock and graft approach in size the better. It is called *whip-grafting*, because the grafts and stocks being nearly of a size, are sloped on one side, to fit each other, and tied together in the manner of *whips*. The method is as follows: Cut off the head of the stock at some clear smooth part; then cut one side sloping upward, about 1½ or near 2 inches in length, and make a notch or small slit near the upper part of the slope downward about half an inch long, to receive the tongue of the cion; then prepare the cion, cutting it to 5 or 6 inches in length, forming the lower end also in a sloping manner, so as exactly to fit the sloped part of the stock, as if cut from the same place, that the rinds of both may join evenly in every part; and make a slit so as to form a sort of tongue to fit the slit made in the slope of the stock; then place the graft, inserting the tongue of it into the slit of the stock, applying the parts as evenly and close as

possible; and immediately tie the part and cover them with clay, as above directed. This sort of grafting may also be performed, if necessary, upon the young shoots of a tree, if intended to alter the sort; or have more than one sort on the same tree, the middle or end of May, the grafts united with the stock, as will be evident by the shooting of the graft; then the clay wholly taken away; but suffer the graft to remain some time longer, until they seem to swell and be too much constricted by the ligature; then take it wholly off.

7. *GRAFTING BY APPROACH*, or *WEDGED*, is when the stocks designed to be united in the tree from which you intend to take the graft, either grow so near, or can be placed together, that the branch or graft may approach the stock, without separating the tree, till after its union or junction with the stock; so that the graft being bent to the stock, they *approach* and form a sort of *approach* graft, or *wedged* graft, by the names. Being a sure method, it is only practised upon such trees as are made to succeed by any of the other methods. When intended to propagate any tree or shrub by this method of grafting, if the tree or shrub is of the hardy kind, and the full ground, a proper quantity of manure for stocks must be set round it; and of a proper height, the work of manure may be performed; or, if the branches designed to be grafted from is too high, in that case stocks must be planted in a slight stage must be erected around the due height to reach the branches, containing the stocks must be placed in a stage. This method of grafting is formed with the head of the stock, sometimes with the head left on till united with the stock; though by pressing the stock, the work is much easier and having no top, its whole effort is directed to the nourishment of the graft; stocks properly placed, either planted in pots or in pots around the tree to be then make the most convenient branch to the stock, and mark on the body of the parts where they will most easily unite, and in those parts of each branch cut away the bark and part of the wood to the proper length, and in the same way the stock in the proper place for the graft; then make a slit upwards in the stock so as to form a sort of tongue, as above directed, downwards in the stock to admit it; be then joined, slipping the tongue into the slit of the stock, making it in an exact manner, and tie them close with bass, and afterwards cover the joint with due quantity of clay, as in the other methods. After this, let a stout stake be fixed to the side of each graft; to which let the stock and graft be fastened, which will prevent their being disjoined in the operation being performed in spring, and in that position about a month will be united, and the graft may be

the mother tree. In doing this, be-  
erform it with a steady hand, so as not  
r break out the graft, sloping it off  
close to the stock; and if the head  
s was not cut down at the time of  
must now be done close to the graft,  
clay and bandage must also be cleared  
replaced with new, to remain a few  
r. If the grafts are not firmly united  
ock in the period above mentioned,  
emain another year till autumn, before  
e separated from the parent tree. By  
f grafting may be raised almost any  
or shrub, which is often done by way  
s, to ingraft a fruit-bearing branch of  
same any common stock of the same  
reby a new tree bearing fruit is raised  
nthis. This is sometimes practised u-  
and lemon trees, &c. by grafting bea-  
rs of a fruit tree upon any common  
! from the kernels of any of the same  
it, or into branches of each other, so  
oranges, lemons, and citrons, all on  
ec.

**FIG, NEW METHOD OF.** An anony-  
r, in a treatise published at Hamburg,  
*sanitates Hortensius Novae*, recommends  
od of grafting trees, so as to have very  
ramids of fruit upon them, which will  
eauty, flavour, and quantity, all that  
erwise produced. This, he says, he  
perienced, and gives the following men-  
ng it;—The trees are to be transplant-  
n, and all their branches cut off. Ear-  
llowing summer the young shoots are  
d off, and the buds are then to be en-  
d them in an inverted direction. This,  
da not only to the beauty of the pyra-  
also makes the branches more fruitful.  
be closely connected to the trunk, and  
ied in with the common ligature: they  
aced circularly round the tree, three  
h circle, and these circles at six inches  
n one another. The old trees may be  
this manner, the succets having been  
good in those of 20 years standing;  
ost eligible trees are those which are  
orous, and full of juice, and are not a-  
per or two thick. When these young  
ansplanted, they must be fenced round  
to defend them from the violence of  
and there must be no dung put to them  
e thoroughly rooted, for fear of rotting  
e the fibres strike. The buds ingrafted  
all, that the wounds made in the bark  
them, not being very large, may heal  
; and if the buds do not succeed, which  
ceived in a fortnight, there must be o-  
n their place. The wound made to re-  
buds must be a straight cut, parallel to  
n; and the piece of bark taken out must  
ards, that the rain may not get in at  
l. In the autumn of the same year,  
: a green and flourishing pyramid; and  
anner it will flower, and ripen its fruit

**AFTON, Richard,** an English histo-

rian, born at London, in the reign of Henry VIII.  
He published, 1. *An Abridgement of the Chronicles  
of England*; and, 2. *A Cosmick and large History  
of the Affairs of England and Kings of the James,  
abstracted from the Creation of the World.* He died  
in the reign of Q. Elizabeth.

(2.) **GRAFTON**, a town of England, in Gloucest-  
tershire, on the borders of Worcestershire, and near  
Bredon hill; from the side of which, in Feb. 1764,  
16 acres of land slipped down and covered a large  
field at the foot of the hill. This extraordinary  
occurrence is ascribed to the great rain which had  
fallen incessantly for some time before.

(3.) **GRAFTON**, a township of Massachusetts, in  
Worcester county, containing 900 citizens in 1795,  
3 miles E. of Worcester, and 40 SW. of Boston.

(4.) **GRAFTON**, an extensive county of New  
Hampshire, bounded on the E. by Maine District,  
S. by Strafford, Hillsborough and Cheshire coun-  
ties; W. by Vermont, and N. by Canada. It is  
divided into 30 townships and 17 locations; and  
contained 13,451 citizens and 21 slaves in 1797.

(5.) **GRAFTON**, a township of the above coun-  
ty, (N<sup>o</sup> 4.) containing 401 inhabitants in 1797;  
13 miles SE. of Dartmouth, and 19 SW. of Ply-  
mouth.

(6.) **GRAFTON**, or **GRAFTON ISLAND**, one of  
the Bashee islands in the E. Indian Sea. Lon. 139.  
o. W. Lat. 21. 4. N.

(7—15.) **GRAFTON** is also the name of 9 Eng-  
lish villages; viz. 1. in Cheshire, on the Dee NW.  
of Malpas; 2. in Bucks, near Leighton; 3. in  
Northamptonsh. NE. of Kettering; 4. in Oxford-  
sh. on the Isis; 5. in Shrewsbury; 6. and 7. EAST  
and WEST in Wilts; 8. in Worcesterhire near  
Bromsgrove; and 9. in Yorksh. SE. of Borough-  
bridge.

**GRAFUESKOI**, a fort of Russia, in the prov.  
of Kolivan, on the Irtysh.

**GRAGNANO**, a town of Italy, in the repub-  
lic of Lucca, 4 miles NE. of Lucca.

**GRAGNONA**, a town of the Cisalpine repub-  
lic, in the dept. of Crostolo, and late duchy of  
Modena.

(1.) **GRAHAM**, George, clock and watch ma-  
ker, the most ingenious and accurate artist in his  
time, was born in 1675. After his apprentice-  
ship, Mr Tompion received him into his family,  
purely on account of his merit; and treated him  
with a kind of parental affection as long as he lived.  
Beside his universally acknowledged skill in his  
profession, he was a complete mechanic and astro-  
nomer; the great mural arch in the observatory  
at Greenwich was made for Dr Halley, under his  
immediate inspection, and divided by his own hand;  
and from this incomparable original, the best for-  
eign instruments of the kind are copies made by  
English artists. The sector, by which Dr Bradley  
first discovered two new motions in the fixed stars,  
was of his invention and fabric; and when the  
French academicians were sent to the north to  
ascertain the figure of the earth, Mr Graham  
was thought the fittest person in Europe to sup-  
ply them with instruments: those who went to  
the south were not so well furnished. He was  
for many years a member of the Royal Society, to  
which he communicated several ingenious and

important discoveries; and regarded the advancement of science more than the accumulation of wealth. He died in 1751.

(2.) GRAHAM, James, Marquis of MONTROSE, a Scottish nobleman of the 17th century, who, in bravery and fidelity to his sovereign, may be compared to the greatest heroes of antiquity. He undertook, against almost every obstacle that could terrify a less enterprising genius, to reduce Scotland to the obedience of K. Charles I; and in a few months almost effectuated his design; but, for want of supplies, was forced to abandon his conquests. After the death of Charles I. he, with a few men, made a second attempt, but was immediately defeated by a numerous army. As he was leaving the kingdom in disguise, he was betrayed into the hands of his enemy, by Lord Aston his intimate friend. He was carried to his execution with every circumstance of indignity that wanton cruelty could invent; and hanged upon a gibbet 37 feet high, with the book of his exploits appended to his neck. He bore this reverse of fortune with his usual greatness of mind, and expressed a just scorn at the insults of his enemies. We meet with many instances of valour in this active period; but Montrose affords one of the few instances of heroism. He was executed May 21st, 1650. See ENGLAND, § 47, 48.

(3.) GRAHAM, James, M. D. a singular and most eccentric genius, born at Edinburgh, in 1747. He was the son of Mr W. Graham, saddler in Edinburgh. After finishing his studies at that university, he went first to London, and afterwards to America; where he figured with considerable credit, as a philanthropic physician, travelling for the benefit of mankind, to administer relief in the most desperate diseases, to patients whose cases had baffled the utmost exertions of the ordinary practitioners. Having the advantages of a good person, pleasant conversation, polite address, agreeable conversation and engaging manners, he easily got acquainted with many of the principal people in the N. American provinces, particularly in those of New England; where, by putting away in the public papers in a new and uncommon manner, partly by celebrating his medicines and medical skills, and partly by dispersing the products of his brain, in religious, political, medical dissertations, and accounts of extraordinary cures, he certainly made a considerable deal of money. About this time, he married a lady of New England, by whom he had one daughter, and both of whom he brought over to England. Several years after this, he fell acquainted with the celebrated Mrs Catherine Blackley, authoress of the history of England, and of various tracts in favour of British and American liberty. Mr Graham being a great admirer of her talents, had become very intimate with her for some time, when one day, having visited her, he experienced the truth of the proverb, "the more you know, the more you are to learn."

He next set out for the continent, and the lady would have been a great deal surprised, had she known that he had not the least objection to her company; but she was the first to break it, as she said, "I do not possess a perfect knowledge of your country, and I am not qualified to be your companion."

His usual assurance, told her, that the excursion had made him forget that circumstance; added, that he hoped he might still have of a near alliance with her, as he is brother, unmarried, who had a great deal to himself both in features and principles, even of the most delicate and virtues, are easily prevailed upon to be committed in consequence of the power of their own charms. The doctor, by his brother introduced, the match completed, and thus the fair historian began *amity Graham*. See MACAULAY. He might doubtless have settled with the ease in Boston, if he could have settled but whether he was influenced by the causes that broke out in New England, the commencement of the American war, that natural restlessness of disposition, never to have permitted him to settle in one place, certain it is, that, about 1770, he returned to Britain, and after making a circuit through England, (where, in his various publications, he made successful cures,) he visited his native city and was employed by many people of quality, among whom he made some cures, after they had consulted the physicians in vain. His fame at this time, that he might have settled contrary to with both profit and "honour in his life." Instead of this, however, and in spite of the entreaties of several people of high rank, he returned to London; where he soon after the most superb institution, that ever existed for the entertainment and gratification of the votaries of pleasure. Under the patronage of the Duke of Devonshire, who put their lives in danger, were willing to sacrifice to Venus. Dr James, he engaged to teach "the art of being happy, and of propagating a strong, beautiful, active, healthy, virtuous, and of being a being, that pains, indignity, and trouble, never disturb, but that of the pleasures, which bite, do not hurt, and cause no other, but they know not what it is." See also the *Magazine*, and other of his advertisements in the London papers, he allowed, that he had the power of being able of creating the most elegant pleasure that ever was known, and that of the public world, as *Novels*, and *Cyrenaica*. All the elements of the human mind, the elements of the firmament, and the powers of the mind, and were used in to any pleasure, that a man's fancy. It certainly was a great talent, and in the present condition of the world, of the mind, and the art of art, to be able to create, with the ease, that the world, as punishment, the true, and the pleasure, to the touch, and the pleasure, to the touch, and the pleasure, to the touch.

*Mabometan Paradise.* And to crown all, the oratory was called in, and the imagination excited to its highest pitch, by the most lush descriptions, (though in the most chaste language,) delivered by the Doctor himself, in his *Public Lecture on Generation*; which he read in the most elegant and graceful manner to very crowded audiences. It cannot be doubted, that an exhibition, pushed away in all the London towns in the most extravagant terms, must have procured a great deal of money from the votaries of the art; yet instead of making money by his lectures, he only run himself in debt, and incurred the immense expense attending them. This was the more surprising, as the Doctor, from whom living luxuriously, not only abstained from wine and spirits, and all strong liquors, but even from animal food, eating nothing but vegetables, and drinking nothing but cold water. Consistent with this abstinence, he recommended the same to others, in a *Sermon*, which he preached in the Tolbooth of Edinburgh, in 1783, and afterwards printed and sold for the benefit of his fellow-citizens that text, *All Flesh is Grass.* (Isaiah xl. 6.) The occasion of his imprisonment was this.—In the year 1783, while his Temple of Health was in the city, he paid a visit to his native city, and for the first time gave his fellow citizens a specimen of his rhetorical powers, by delivering his *Public Lecture on Generation*, a subject which the magistrates of Edinburgh considered as so improper for public discussion, that they exerted their authority to suppress it. Upon this our Doctor published a fresh advertisement, reflecting the keenest terms upon the city magistrates, and containing such striking personal scurrility against a respectable member of council, that the magistrates incarcerated him in the tolbooth. Upon his applying however to the Lords of Session for a bill of suspension, he got out of jail, and continued to deliver his execrable lecture, as long as public curiosity lasted. But though he doubtless collected money by this exhibition, he never afterwards recovered character in Scotland so as to be employed again in his medical capacity, by the people of rank;—not even by those to whom he had formerly been of signal service. During the winter session of 1784, he took it into his head to read the lectures of all the medical professors in the university of Edinburgh; as well as those of the late celebrated Dr John Brown, (see BROWN, J. A.) to whose erudition and abilities he paid very high compliments, although his system of medicine was diametrically opposite to his own. (See BAUKONIAN SYSTEM.) In 1785 and 1786, Dr Graham visited Newcastle, and various other places in England; but in the end of 1787, he returned to Edinburgh in a new and extraordinary character, viz. that of a teacher sent from God, to announce the MILLENNIUM, the 2d coming of Christ, and the final consummation of all things. The cause of this phrenzy some ascribed to his abominable manner of living; others to his having changed too suddenly to that, from former habits of dissipation; others to distress of circumstances, and others to the large quantities of æther, which is certain, that at this time he daily swallowed.

But whether all of these causes might not cooperate, certain it is, that the most fanatical enthusiasts in the darkest ages could not have published more ridiculous advertisements, than the Doctor at this time issued. He not only styled himself "*the servant of the Lord!*" O! W. L! (*i. e.* as he explained it, "Oh wonderful love!") but commenced a new chronological æra, dating his bills "the 1st, 2d, &c. days of the first month of the 1st year of the *New Jerusalem Church!*" But before the commencement of the 2d month, the servant of the Lord was most profanely confined by order of the magistrates, not indeed in the tolbooth as formerly, but in his own house. At last he was obliged to confess, that "he felt the devil, the world, and the flesh, too strong for him, and therefore he supposed that the Lord must look out for another fore-runner of his second coming." Amidst all the excentricities, however, of this singular character, it is but justice to mention, that on a variety of occasions he has given proofs of a benevolent and charitable disposition; and what is still more to his honour, he has upon all occasions, when he visited Edinburgh, paid the utmost attention and respect to his aged parents. It afforded indeed a singular contrast of character to observe him, at the very time he was giving public lectures, of such a nature, as, in the opinion of the magistrates, tended to excite all the young fellows in the city to those vices which youth are generally but too prone to, daily riding out in his coach with his parents, who were two of the most strict old-fashioned Calvinistic Presbyterians in the metropolis.—Amidst the various vicissitudes of Dr Graham's life, nothing was more fortunate for him, than that one of his medical treatises should have proved beneficial to a gentleman of fortune at Geneva; who, as a mark of his esteem and gratitude, sent him a bond, upon the bank of England, settling on him an annuity of L. 50 a-year for life. What this gentleman's disease was, or what the mode of cure recommended in the treatise, we have not heard; but amongst other excentric methods of cure recommended to his patients by the Doctor, one of the most extraordinary was, his *burying them alive up to the neck in earth* for 10 or 12 hours together. This method he practised himself, as well as recommended to his patients, but we have not heard any authentic accounts of a single cure made by this practice. On the contrary, his sister's husband, who had been afflicted with a kind of dropsical swelling over great part of his body, underwent the operation, but died soon after the experiment. The Dr's method of sleeping and cloathing himself was perhaps as different from the ordinary practice as his regimen of eating and drinking. He made it a point to wear no woollen clothes, nor any thing made of any animal substance: and he slept upon a hair mattress, without feather-bed or blankets, and with his windows open in all weathers and seasons. He alleged, and perhaps with some truth, that most of our diseases are occasioned by too much heat; and he carried his cooling regimen so far, that in 1787, he was in terms with the tack-man of the King's Park, for liberty to build a house



house upon the top of Arthur's Seat, in order to try how far he could bear the utmost degree of cold, that the climate of Edinburgh affords; but, though the tackman was willing, the noble proprietor could not be prevailed upon to give his consent, lest the multitude of the Doctor's patients and visitors should destroy the grass in the park. This singular genius died at Edinburgh, 23d June, 1794.

(3.) GRAHAM, Mrs Catherine M'Aulay. See MACAULAY.

(5.) GRAHAM, Sir John, of Abercorn, or Dundaff, one of the brave patriots who fought along with Wallace, against the English invaders under Edward I. He was killed at the battle of Falkirk, in 1298, where the following inscription (repeatedly renewed) is to be seen on his monument:

"*Mente manique potens, et VALLE fidus Achates,  
Condatur hic GRAMUS, bello interfectus ab Anglis,  
XXII. Julii, 1298.*"

Thus translated by one of our old Scots poets:

"Here lies Sir John the Graham, Wallace's true Achates,

"A hero stout and bold, fell'd by the English  
bawties."

(6.) GRAHAM, Sir Richard, lord viscount Preston, eldest son of Sir George Graham of Netherby, in Cumberland, Bart. was born in 1648. He was sent ambassador by Charles II. to Lewis XIV. and was master of the wardrobe and secretary of state under James II. But when the Revolution took place, he was tried and condemned, on an accusation of attempting the restoration of that prince; though he obtained a pardon by the queen's intercession. He spent the remainder of his days in retirement, and published an elegant translation of *Boetius on the consolation of philosophy*. He died in 1695.

GRAHAM'S DYKE. See ANTONINUS'S WALL.

GRAHAM'S MOOR, a moor of Scotland in Stirlingshire, 3 miles SE. of Falkirk, where the brave Sir John Graham was killed, and the patriotic Sir W. Wallace fought his way through the English army in 1298.

GRAHAMSTON, a village of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, near Glasgow, containing 896 inhabitants in 1791.

GRALE MONTES, in ancient geography, the name given by Pliny to that part of the Alps, which lies between France and Italy, and by which they pass out of Italy into the ci-devant province of Provence.

GRAIGEMANACH, a town of Ireland, in Kilkenny, on the Barrow, over which it has a bridge, 20 miles from the sea. The tide flows up to it.

GRAIGSTOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kilkenny and prov. of Leinster.

\* GRAIL. *n. f.* [from *grele*, Fr.] Small particles of any kind.—

Hereof this gentle knight unweeting was,  
And, lying down upon the sandy *grails*,  
Drank of the stream as clear as crystal *grails*. *Spens.*

(1.) GRAIN, John Baptist LE, counsellor and master of requests to Mary de Medicis queen of France, was born in 1565, and was much esteemed by Henry IV. He wrote a work entitled *De iudeis*, containing *The History of Henry the Great,*

and of *Lewis XIII.* from the beginning of to the death of the marshal d'Ancre. This history is reckoned to be wrote with fidelity, and the spirit of a true patriot; tains many things not to be found elsewhere vigorously defends the edict that had been ed to the reformed. He died at Paris in

(2.) \* GRAIN. *n. f.* [*graine*, Fr. *grano*, Italian, has all the following significations.]

1. A single seed of corn.—  
Look into the seeds of time,  
And say which *grain* will grow, and which  
not.

—His reasons are as two *grains* of wheat  
two bushels of chaff; *Shak. Merch. of Ven.*

Let them pronounce the steep Tarpeian  
Vagabond, exile, flaying, pent to living  
But with a *grain* a day, I would not  
Their mercy at the price of one fair we

—Many of the ears, being six inches long  
by *grains* in them, and none less than fo  
*timer.* 2. Corn.—

As it ebbs, the seedfman  
Upon the slime and ooze scatters his  
And shortly comes to harvest. *Ant.*

Pales no longer swell'd the teeming  
Nor Phœbus fed his oxen on the plow

—'Tis a rich soil, I grant you; but osted  
ed with weeds than *grain*. *Collier on*

The seed of any fruit. 4. Any minute  
any single body.—

Thou exist'st on many thousand grains  
That issue out of dust. *Shak. Meas.*

By intelligence  
And proofs as clear as founts in July.

We see each *grain* of gravel. *Shak. H.*

5. The smallest weight, of which in pl  
make a scruple, and in Troy weight a  
pennyweight, a grain so named becaus  
posed of equal weight with a grain of co  
ty is a precious diamond, whose *grains* as  
ble, twice double in their value. *Hobbs*

began at a known body, a barley-corn, 1  
whereof is therefore called a *grain*; whi  
being multiplied, to scruples, drachms, o  
pounds. *Holder.*—The trial being mad  
lead and lead, weighing severally seven  
in the air; the balance in the water wei  
ly 4 drachms and 41 *grains*, and abate  
weight in the air 2 drachms and 19 *gr*

balance kept the same depth in the wa  
His brain

Outweigh'd his rage but half a *grain*.

6. Any thing proverbially small.—For  
world before thee is as a little *grain* of th  
*Wisd.* xi. 22.—It is a sincerely pitiable  
temper, that neglects not to make use of  
of grace. *Hammond.*—The ungrateful p  
to himself, and subsists by the good nat  
thers, of which he himself has not the h  
*Soub.* 7. GRAIN of Allowance. Som  
dulged or remitted; something above  
the exact weight.—He, whose very be  
must be seen with *grains* of allowance,  
too mild, moderate, and forgiving,  
would always give some *grains* of allow  
sacred science of theology. *Watts on the*

of the fibres of wood, or other fir.—

by the conflux of meeting sap, found pine, and divert his grain and errant from his course of growth.

*Shakepeare.*

of the wood as modified by the fir.

each, the swimming alder, and the plane, and linden of a softer grain. *Dryden.* ly considered with respect to the form of the constituent particles.—The sea-horse, in the midst of the soliders uns a curled grain not to be found own.—Stones of a constitution so com-

grain so fine, that they bear a fine toward. 11. Dyed or stained substance. The red roses flush up in her cheeks, pure snow with goodly vermil stain, tion dy'd in grain. *Spenser.*

Over his lucid arms  
y vest of purple flow'd,  
han melibzean, or the grain  
worn by kings and heroes old. *Milton.*  
pensive nun, devote and pure,  
obe of darkest grain  
with majestic train. *Milton.*

The third, his feet  
l from either heel with feather'd mail,  
ur'd grain! *Milton's Paradise Lost.*  
r; disposition; inclination; humour  
rection of fibres.—

r minds, preoccupied with what  
r must do than with what you should do,  
u against the grain to voice him conful.

*Shakepeare.*

Hudibras, it is in vain,  
argue 'gainst the grain. *Hudibras.*  
ents, weary'd out with fruitless care,  
heir hopes of eating, and despair;  
nuch against the grain, forc'd to retire,  
s for supper, and provide a fire. *Dryd.*  
art; the bottom.—The one being trac-  
uild, the other stiff and impatient of a  
ey lived but in cunning concord, as  
ied together, but not united in grain.

14. The form of the surface with re-  
ghness and smoothness.—The smaller  
s of cutting substances are, the smaller  
scratches by which they continually  
ar away the glass until it be polished;  
never so small, they can wear away  
otherwise than by grating and scratch-  
reaking the protuberances; and there-  
it no otherwise than by breaking its  
o a very fine grain, so that the scratch-  
ings of the surface become too small  
s. *Newton's Opticks.*

15. See BARLEY, CORN, WHEAT, &c.  
IN, OILY. See SESAMUM.

GRAIN, SCARLET. See CACTUS, N° 1,  
N° 6; and QUERCUS, N° 4.

GRAIN WEIGHT (§ 2. def. 5.) of gold  
worth two-pence, and of silver out-  
thing.

GRAPE. See MALAGUETTA.

GRANGE, Andrew, a French physician  
pher of the Epicurean sect, born at

Caen in Normandy, in 1616. Among other works  
he published a curious treatise on fire, light, and  
colours. He died in 1676.

\* GRAINED. *adj.* [from grain.] Rough; made  
less smooth.—

Though now this grained face of mine be hid  
In sap consuming Winter's drizzled snow,  
Yet hath my night of life some memory. *Shak.*

(1.) GRAINGER, James, an English divine of the  
18th century, author of a valuable work entitled  
*The Biographical History of England*: in 4 vols 8vo.  
He was vicar of Shiplake in Oxfordshire, and was  
seized with an apoplectic fit, while administering  
the sacrament, April 14th, 1776, and died next  
morning.

(2.) GRAINGER, a new county of the United  
States in Tennessee, in Hamilton district.

(3.) GRAINGER FORT, a fort in Tennessee, on  
the N. side of the Holston, at its mouth.

(1.) \* GRAINS. *n. s.* [without a singular.] The  
husks of malt exhausted in brewing.—

Give them grains their fill,  
Husks, draft, to drink and swill. *Ben Jonson.*

(2.) \* GRAINS OF PARADISE. *n. s.* [*cardamomum*, Latin.] An Indian spice.

(3.) GRAINS OF PARADISE. See AMONUM, § 2.  
GRAINVILLE, a town of France in the dep.  
of the Lower Seine, 3 miles S. of Caux, and 13½  
N. of Caudebec.

\* GRAINY. *adj.* [from grain.] 1. Full of corn.  
2. Full of grains or kernels.

(1.) GRAITNEY, a parish of Scotland, in Dum-  
fries shire, lying along the Solway Frith, in the  
form of an oblong square, 6 miles long and 3 broad.  
The climate is temperate, the air healthful, and  
many of the natives long-lived; instances occurring  
of people dying at 100, 103, 110, and 111. The  
Eden, Esk, and Sark, uniting form the head of the  
Solway Frith and the S. boundary of the parish.  
The rivers and the coast abound with salmon, stur-  
geons, cod, flounders, trouts, pikes, &c. The  
soil is various, but fertile; mostly dry and sandy;  
with some mosses. The annual produce has been  
greatly increased by the inclosures and other im-  
provements made by the proprietors. Of 10,240  
acres, 2000 are annually under oats, 550 under  
barley, 200 in potatoes, 80 under wheat, pease,  
and beans, 60 in turnips, 15 under flax, 600 in  
meadow and sown grass, 6000 in pasture, and 735  
in moss. The total produce is valued at 18,241 l.

154. The exports are estimated at 7,8:01. The  
live stock, in 1793, was 286 horses, 40 sheep, 528  
swine, and 900 black cattle, valued at 7,342 l.  
Coals, wood, tar, salt, and slates, are imported to  
the amount of 10,190 l. The population, in  
1793, stood along with the above particulars, by  
the rev. J. Morgan, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair,  
was 1810; and the increase, since 1755, 759. In  
autumn 1792, natural tar was found in a hollow  
of a tree-stone quarry. The statute labour being  
commuted, the roads and bridges are good.

(2.) GRAITNEY GREEN, a village in the above  
parish, long famous for the clandestine marriages  
of young persons of fortune from England; per-  
formed according to the rites of the church of  
England, by a blacksmith, who is said to gain  
near 1,000 l. a-year by this encroachment on the  
clerical office.

(3.) **GRAITNEY HILL**, [supposed to have been originally named *Great-Know*,] a hill in the above parish, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) to which it gives name.

**GRAJUELA**, a town of Spain, in Murcia.

**GRAIUS MONS**, in ancient geography, the name given by Tacitus to the highest of the **GRAIÆ MONTES**; now called *Monte St Bernard*, famous for being passed, notwithstanding its tremendous height, and eternal snow, in May, 1800, by general Bonaparte, with 30,000 troops, and all their heavy artillery, &c. See **BERNARD**, N<sup>o</sup> 7.

**GRÄKLE**. See **GRACULA**.

**GRALLÆ**, in ornithology, an order of birds analogous to the *bruta* in the class of *mammalia*, in the Linnæan system. See **ZOOLOGY** and **ORNITHOLOGY**.

**GRAM**, a river of Denmark, which runs into the North Sea, 2 miles N. of Ripen.

**GRAMAFFETTEN**, a town of Germany, in Austria, 12 miles SW. of Freustadt.

**GRAMAT**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot; 8 miles SW. of St Cere and 22½ NNE. of Cahors. Lon. 19. 23. E. of Ferro. Lat. 44. 47. N.

**GRAMATA**, a town of Turkey, in Epirus.

**GRAMAYE**, John Baptist, a historian and poet, born at Antwerp, and provost of Arnheim. He travelled over Germany and Italy, but in going to Spain, was carried off by African corsairs to Algiers. He returned to the Netherlands, and died at Lubeck. He published, 1. *Africa illustrata, libri X.* in 1622; 4to. 2. *Diarium Algeriense*: 3. *Peregrinatio Belgica*: a curious work: 4. *Antiquitates Flandriæ*: fol. and, 5. *Historia Namurcensis*.

\* **GRAMERCY**. *interj.* [contracted from *grant me mercy*.] An obsolete expression of surprise.—

*Gramercy, sir, said he; but moté I weet*

*What strange adventure do ye now pursue?*

*Spenser.*

*Gramercy, lovely Lucius, what's the news?*

*Shakespeare.*

(1.) **GRAMINA**, **GRASSES**; one of the seven tribes or natural families, into which all vegetables are distributed by Linnæus in his *Philosophia Botanica*. They are defined to be plants which have very simple leaves, a jointed stem, a husky calyx termed *gluma*, and a single seed. This description includes the several sorts of corn as well as grasses. In Tournefort they constitute a part of the 15th class, termed *apetalæ*; and in Linnæus's sexual method, they are mostly contained in the 2d order of the 3d class, *triandria digynia*. This numerous and natural family of the grasses has engaged the attention and researches of several eminent botanists; particularly Ray, Monti, Micheli, and Linnæus. M. Monti, in his *Catalogus stirpium agri Bononiensis, gramina ac hujus modi affinia complectens*, printed at Bononia in 1719, divides the grasses from the disposition of their flowers, as Theophrastus and Ray had done before him into 3 sections or orders—These are, 1. Grasses having flowers collected in a spike. 2. Grasses having their flowers collected in a panicle or loose spike. 3. Plants that in their habit and external appearance are allied to the grasses. This class would have been natural if the author had not improperly introduced sweet-rush, juncus, and arrow-headed grass, into the 3d section. Monti enumerates

about 306 species of the grasses, w  
duces under Tournefort's genera; added three new genera. Schleichze  
*riflographia*, published like wise in  
the grasses, as Monti, from the disposi  
flowers, into the 5 following sections  
with flowers in a spike, as phalaris, and  
and frumentum. 2. Irregular grasses  
anthus and cornucopia. 3. Grasses  
growing in a simple panicle or loose s  
and millet. 4. Grasses with flowers  
a compound panicle, or diffused spike  
poa. 5. Plants by their habit nearly  
grasses, as cypress grass, scirpus, linu  
and scuchzeria. He has enumerated  
species, which he describes with amazi  
Micheli has divided the grasses into  
which contain in all 44 genera, and  
from the situation and number of the

(2.) **GRAMINA**, the 4th order in Linnæus's  
ments of a Natural Method, consistin  
merous and natural family of the g  
**BOTANY**, *Index*; and **GRASS**.

\* **GRAMINEOUS**. *adj.* [*graminis*]  
Grassy. *Gramineous* plants are such as  
leaf without a footstalk.

\* **GRAMINIVOROUS**. *adj.* [*graminis*  
Lat.] Grass-eating; living upon grass  
cients were versed chiefly in the dietetic  
among which the *graminivorous* kind h  
coloured choroides. *Sharp's Surgery*.

(1.) \* **GRAMMAR**. *n. f.* [*grammos*  
*grammatika*, Latin; *γραμματικὴ*.] 1. Th  
speaking correctly; the art which tea  
lations of words to each other.—To  
in the *grammar* and idioms of the te  
then as a rhetorician to make all their  
his eloquence. *Fell.*—We make a c  
dumb, whom we will not allow to sp  
the rules of *grammar*. *Dryden's Dis*  
speaking language, according to the *gra*  
of that language, do yet speak improper  
*Locke*. 2. Propriety or justness of spee  
according to grammar.—*Varium & m*  
*per femina*, is the sharpest satire tha  
made on woman; for the adjectives  
and *animal* must be understood to  
*grammar*. *Dryden*. 3. The book tha  
the various relations of words to one a

(2.) **GRAMMAR**, **ENGLISH**. See **ENG**  
**GUAGE**.

(3.) **GRAMMAR**, **PHILOSOPHIC**, or **U**  
"Grammar," says the rev. Mr Bruce,  
ed as an *art*, necessarily supposes the p  
istence of language; and as its design  
any language to those who are ignora  
must be adapted to the genius of that  
language of which it treats.—But *gram*  
sidered as a *science*, views language as  
significant of thought. Neglecting part  
arbitrary modifications introduced for  
beauty or elegance, it examines the  
relation between *words* and *ideas*; di  
between those particulars, which are  
language, and those which are *only*  
and thus furnishes a certain *standard*,  
different languages may be compared,  
several excellencies or defects pointed out

led *Philosophic or Universal Grammar.*  
See LANGUAGE.

**GRAMMAR SCHOOL.** *n. f.* A school in which learned languages are grammatically taught; thou hast most traiterously corrupted the realm in erecting a *grammar school.* Henry VI.—The ordinary way of Latin in a *grammar school* I cannot extol.

**GRAMMAR, UNIVERSAL.** See § 3.  
**GRAMMARIAN.** *n. f.* [*grammaticus*, Fr. *mar.*] One who teaches grammar; a man who disputes the ambiguous nature of words created among the *grammarians*. *Elements of Speech.*—They who have called the torture of *grammarians*, might also have called him the plague of translators. Dryden.

**GRAMMARIAN** was anciently a title of honour, and erudition, being given to persons learned in any art or faculty. But soon used as a term of reproach, to signify a meddling person, employed about words, but inattentive to the true beauties and delicacy of sentiment. The anatomists, called also *philologists*, must be confounded with the **GRAMMATISTS**, whose business was to teach children the first principles of language. Varro, Cicero, Meffala, Julius Cæsar, thought it no dishonour to be grammarians, who had many priviledges to them by the Roman emperors.

**GRAMMATICAL.** *adj.* [*grammaticus*, Fr. *is*, Lat.] Belonging to grammar.—A man of virtue still being set before their eyes, he taught them with far more diligent *grammatical* rules. *Silvery.*—I shall take notice of consonants, not from the *grammatical* rules of any language, but from the sounds framed by single articulations. *Helder.* 2 Taught by grammar.—I know more than the *grammatical* rules, unless born with a poetical genius. *Uresnoy.*

**GRAMMATICALLY.** *adv.* [from *grammaticus*] According to the rules or science of grammar; a sentence is distinguished into the subjects, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, and other parts of speech which compose it, then it is analysed *grammatically*. *Watts.*—As we teach them to speak properly, so it is rhetoric to instruct how to do it elegantly and *grammatically* true. *Baker*

**GRAMMATICASTER.** *n. f.* [Lat.] A mean man; a low grammarian.—I have not patience with the doubts, the remarks, and disputes of the French *grammaticasters*.

**GRAMMATIST.** *n. f.* a teacher of the first principles of grammar.

**GRAN.** a town of France, in the department, and ci-devant province of Auvergne, 5 miles SW. of Desse.

**GRANMONT,** a town of France, in the department of Vienne, and ci-devant prov. of Lorraine, famous for its abbey; 15 miles NE. of Vienne. Lon. 1. 30. E. Lat. 46. 1. N.

287. 11.

(1.) **GRAMMONT,** or **GEERSBERGH,** a town of the French republic, in the dep. of the Scheldt, and ci-devant prov. of Austrian Flanders, originally a fort built on a hill by the Gots, and thence called *Gottesberg*. Baldwin earl of Flanders purchased the lordship of one Gerard in 1068, built a town and called it after him *Gerardmont*, which has been since gradually corrupted to *Grammont*. It is seated on the Dender, which divides it into the Higher and Lower town; 10 miles S. of Oudenarde, 17 SE. of Ghent, and 20 W. of Brussels. Lon. 2. 59. E. Lat. 50. 47. N.

**GRAMPIAN HILLS,** a chain of mountains in Scotland, which run from E. to W. across the whole breadth of the kingdom. See ALPS, and SCOTTISH, and SCOTLAND.

**GRAMPIUS MOUNTAINS,** one of the above mountains, mentioned by Tacitus, where Calpurnius waited the approach of Agricola, and where the battle was fought so fatal to the brave Caledonians. It gives name to the whole ridge.

\* **GRAMPLE.** *n. f.* A crab-fish. *Linneus.*

**GRAMPOUND,** a town of England, in Cornwall, seated on the Valle, over which there is a bridge. The inhabitants have a considerable manufacture of gloves; and send 2 members to parliament. This town is supposed to be the *Grammoba* of the ancients, as it stands on the same river; and that on the building of the bridge, the name was changed into *Grandport*. It was made a borough by Edward III, and endowed with large priviledges, particularly freedom from toll through all Cornwall, a market on Saturday, and 3 fairs; which the burghers hold of the duchy of Cornwall in fee farm, at the rent of about 12 guineas. Its priviledges were confirmed by Henry VIII; but it did not send members to parliament till the reign of Edward VI. It is a corporation, and has a mayor, 8 magistrates, a recorder, and town clerk. The mayor is chosen annually the Tuesday before Michaelmas, and the members by the majority of the magistrates and freemen. There is a chapel of ease in the town; the parish church, being at Creed, about a quarter of a mile off. It is 45 N. SW. of Launceston, and 144 W. by S. of London. Lon. 4. 49. W. Lat. 50. 22. N.

(1.) \* **GRAMPUS.** *n. f.* A large fish of the cetaceous kind.

(2.) **GRAMPUS.** See DELPHINUS, N° II, § III, 1.

(1.) **GRAN,** a river of Hungary, which runs into the Danube, opposite the town of Gran.

(2.) **GRAN,** or **ESZTERGAN,** a large and strong town of Hungary, the see of an archbishop. It was taken by the Turks in 1540; but retaken in 1683, by the king of Poland, and prince Charles of Lorraine, after a siege of 5 days. It is seated at the conflux of the Danube and the Gran (N° 1.) 55 miles SE. of Presburg, and 82 ESE. of Vienna. Lon. 4. 49. E. Lat. 47. 46. N.

(1.) **GRANA,** a town of the Piedmontese republic, in the ci-devant duchy of Aosta, 12 miles ESE. of Aosta.

(2.) **GRANA,** a sea port town of Spain, in Galicia, 2 miles W. of Ferrol.

(1.) **GRANADA,** a province of Spain, which was long an independent kingdom. See SPAIN. It made a part of the ancient *Bætica*; and was inhabited by the *Bastuli*, the *Gitanis*, &c. It is

288

10

sometimes called *Upper Andalusia*. It is bounded on the S. and E. by the Mediterranean, on the W. and N. by Lower Andalusia, and on the NE. by Murcia. Its extent from W. to E. is 110 miles; but its greatest breadth exceeds not 30. The air is temperate and healthy; and though there are many mountains in the province, and some of them very high, yet they are almost every where covered with vines and fruit trees, together with laurel, myrtle, sweet basil, thyme, lavender, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which give an exquisite taste to the flesh of their sheep and cattle. A great deal of silk and sugar, flax and hemp, honey and wax, is also produced here; besides dates and acorns, superior to the finest nuts; good stone for building; several sorts of gems; sumch, used in dressing goat skins; and galls, of which a dye is made for leather. The valleys, with which the mountains are interspersed, are extremely beautiful and fertile. The inhabitants of some of the highest mountains are descendants of the Moors; and, though they are now Roman catholics, retain, in a great measure, their ancient customs, manners, and language. The principal rivers are the Xenil and Gandaluin. Great quantities of salt are made in this province, which, though neither so populous nor so well cultivated as when subdued to the Moors, yet is as much so as any in Spain. It was the last Spanish kingdom possessed by the Moors, and was not annexed to the crown of Castile until 1492.

(2.) GRANADA, the capital of the above province, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) is situated at the foot of the Sierra Nevada, or the Snowy Mountain, in a wholesome air and fruitful country, 123 miles S. of Madrid. It stands upon two hills separated by the Darro. The Xenil runs under the walls, and these two rivers are formed from the melting of the snow with which the mountain is constantly covered. The Darro is said to carry with it grains of gold; and its name, derived from *lat aurum*, may be alleged as a proof of this: the Xenil rolls with its stream little pieces of silver. When Charles V. came to Granada, in 1526, with the empress Isabella, the city presented him with a crown made of gold gathered from the Darro. The city is large and magnificent, containing a great number of very handsome public and private buildings. Its walls, which are adorned with many towers at equal distances, are said to be 10 miles in compass. Here are two castles; the one built by the Moors, and the other by Charles V. and Philip II. They both command a very fine prospect; and the first is so large, that it looks like a city by itself, and, it is said, has room to accommodate 40,000 people, exclusive of the royal palace, and the convent of St Francis. Here is also a court of inquisition; a royal tribunal; and an university, founded in 1521; with the see of an archbishop, who has a revenue of 20,000 ducats per annum. Many noblemen, clergymen, and wealthy citizens, reside in this city, of which the silk trade and manufacture is very great, and the arsenal is said to be the best furnished of any in Spain. The inhabitants, who are partly descended of the Moors, are well supplied with water. There are several fine squares, particularly that called the *Bexarambla* or *Plaza Mayor*, where the bull-fights are held;

and without the city is a large plain, full of villages, called *La Vega de Granada*. The Moors are said to regret nothing but to mourn all the losses they have sustained. The last Moorish ambassador who came obtained permission of the king to see G. shed tears on entering the Alhambra, not refrain from exclaiming, that their ancestors had deprived them and their that delightful country. See ALHAMBRA. It had formerly 20 gates; 1st, that which still remains; 2d. Bibalmazar, of conference, because, with the Moor place of resort, where they covered; 3d. Vivarambla, so called from its grand square which still bears that name; 4th. Racha, or the gate of provisions; 5th. or the gate of the hermits, which led to solitude; 6th. Bibmitre, or Biblacha; 7th. The mill gate; 8th. that of the it opened to the east; 9th. Bib Luxa of the Alhambra; 10th. Bib Adam, of the bones of Adam; 11th. Bib Cader of the nobles; the Moors kept this gate a long time, because it had been pressed by the enemies who should take the city, ter by it; 12th. Faxajauza, or of the mond trees; 13th. Bib Elecei, the Moor; Alacabar, the coast gate; 14th. Bib the gate of the Banners, now the Mag; 15th. that of the Darro; 16th. that of fayca; 17th. the gate of *Eccc Homo*; by the side of the Alhambra. There are less more monuments in Granada than other city in Spain. From the great inscriptions in and about the city, and the offices of the Alhambra and Generaliss, it supposed these people intended to make the great depository of their religious customs, and magnificence. There is which does not bear some marks of the but, notwithstanding this abundance of monuments, the reign of the Moors in Spain ried in confusion and obscurity. The of the Spaniards, their superstition; and they bore the Moors, have much contributed to this darkness; they have either destroyed or to be effaced by time, every thing bore the mark of mahometanism, insid preserving the monuments of antiquity, which same time were those of their own glory and the solidity of their constructions, than curiosity or a love of the arts, but those which still exist, although daily go From the hall of *Comices*, mentioned HAMBRA, there is a modern fair-cave one, which corresponded to the beauty, since, having been destroyed. At the gallery, a part of which is inclosed by railing: this is called *the prison of the wife of the last king of Granada* having prisoned there. The Gomels and Zemilias of distinction, bore false witness to virtue. This event happened as follows when Abdali the Little reigned in Granada. The principal families were divided against The Moors had carried their arms against and had been bravely repulsed. Abd

f in one of his pleasure houses for this when the Zegriz and Gomels, who were the secret enemies of the Abencerages, had an opportunity to represent themselves as subjects, who employed their influence in the favour of the people and deposed the sovereign. They secured Albin Hamez rich and powerful among them, of illustrious commerce with the queen, and witnesses who asserted they had a festival seen, at Generalif, under a large tree, Albin Hamez in the arms of the queen. The fury of Abdali may easily be conceived at the destruction of the Abencerages; the Zegriz, too prudent to allow the break forth, advised him not to let it be done by that numerous and powerful family, informed of their perfidy. It will be seen, they can unite and put themselves in the way of defence, revenge upon their heads the death of the crown. This advice was given; Abdali went to the Alhambra, leaving his guards to arm themselves, and order to attend. The Abencerages were by one, and beheaded as soon as they were in the hall of the lions, where there is still a fountain which was quickly filled with heads and blood. Thirty five heads were struck off, and all the Abencerages died in the same manner, had who had followed his master, and received in the hurry of the execution, the opportunity of withdrawing and giving to the rest of the unhappy family of Abdali. These immediately assembled in arms, crying out through the city "Treason! treason! Let the king die! Treason! treason! Let the king die!" and immediately put to death the Abencerages, with whom they were favourites, did in assisting them: 14,000 men were in arms, and proceeded towards the city, shouting all the way, Let the king die! His secret should have been discovered, and severely repenting of having heeded the pernicious counsels he had received, the castle gates to be shut; but they were not on fire. Muley Hacem, who had abdicated the throne in favour of his son, the tumult of the people, had one presented himself to appease the citizens; but he no sooner appeared, he was lifted up by the multitude nearest the castle, and cried out, "Behold our king, we will follow him; long live Muley Hacem;" and leaping down, he was surrounded by a strong guard, the Abencerages and other nobles, entered the castle, accompanied by above 100 soldiers. But they found the queen, with her women, and in the situation at the sudden revolution, of new not the cause. They asked for the queen, being informed he was in the hall, entered it furiously, and found him the Zegriz and the Gomels, and in a few hours killed upwards of 200 of them. The bodies of the beheaded Abencerages were laid upon black cloth, and carried to the Alhambra, where they were

by his great actions had gained the favour of the people, appeared the Abencerages; and having got information that the king had taken refuge in a mosque near the mountains, now called St Helena, went and brought him back to the castle of Alhambra. Abdali shut himself up in the castle, and refused to see the queen. Those who had accused her of adultery, however, persisted in their false accusation, and said, they would maintain, with arms in their hands, against all who should dare to contradict them, that the queen was guilty. She was imprisoned, and the day arising on which she was to be executed, when none among the Moors offering to defend her, some Christian knights presented themselves, and conquered her false accusers, so that she was immediately set at liberty. The taking of Granada soon followed this combat; Muza and the Abencerages having, it is said, facilitated the conquest of it by Ferdinand and Isabella. From the Alhambra we enter the Generalif by the low gate, which favoured the escape of Abdali when Ferdinand took Granada. Generalif signifies, in Arabic, *the bowl of pleasure*. It was built by Omar, who was so fond of music, that he retired to this palace, to enjoy that amusement. It is the most pleasant situation in the environs of Granada. It is built upon a very high mountain whence waters rush from every side, in torrents, and fall in beautiful cascades into the courts, gardens, and halls of that ancient palace. The gardens form an amphitheatre, and are full of trees, venerable from their antiquity. Two cypresses in particular are noted, called the Cypresses of the queen, because it was near them that the perfidious Gomels impeached the virtue of that princess and the honour of the Abencerages. Of this place, travellers observe, that the writers of romances have never imagined a scene equal to it. Granada was formerly called ILLIBERIA, and founded, says tradition, by Liberia, a great-granddaughter of Hercules, daughter of Hispan, and wife to Hesperus, a Grecian prince, and brother to Atalanta. Others maintain that it was founded by IBERUS, grandson of Tubal, and that it took the name of *Granada*, or *Grænata*, from Nata the daughter of Liberia; the word *Gar*, in the language of the time, signifying grotto; i. e. the grotto of Nata, because that princess studied astrology and natural history in this country. It is certain that such a person as Nata, or Nitayde, existed in the first ages of Granada; and that in the place where the Alhambra now stands, there was a temple dedicated to Nativala. Granada is said to have been founded A. A. C. 2300. In the time of the Romans it was a municipal colony. A description of Granada, in Latin, written in 1550, by George Hofschel, a merchant at Antwerp, who travelled into Spain, is to be found in the work, intitled *Civitates orbis terrarum*, printed at Cologne in 1576; with a good plan of the city of Granada. This city is 125 miles SW. of Murcia, and 183 S. of Madrid. Lon. 3. 30. W. Lat. 37. 17. N.

(3.) GRANADA, or GRENADA, one of the Caribbee islands. See GRENADA.

(4.) GRANADA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Nicaragua, seated on the lake Nicaragua, 70 miles from the S. Sea. It was taken twice by



the French buccaniers, and pillaged. The inhabitants carry on a great trade by means of the lake, which communicates with the N. Sea. Lon. 85. 10. W. Lat. 11. 8. N.

(5.) GRANADA, New, a province of S. America, in Terra Firma, about 75 miles in length, and as much in breadth. It is bounded on the N. by Carthage and St Martha, on the E. by Venezuela, on the S. by Popayan, and on the W. by Darien. It contains mines of gold, copper, and iron; horses, mules, good pastures, corn, and fruits. It belongs to the Spaniards, and Santa Fe de Bogota is the capital.

GRANADE. See GRENADE.

GRANADIER. See GRENADE.

GRANADILLOES, or GRENADES, dangerous islands of the Caribbees, in America, having St Vincent on the N. and Granada on the S. They were ceded to Britain by the treaty of peace in 1763, but have been since neglected. Lat. 18. 0. N.

(1.) GRANADO, a town of Spain in Seville, 15 miles N. of Ayamonte.

(2.) GRANADO. See GRANADO.

GRANAL, a town of Spain, in the province of Leon, 28 miles SE. of Leon.

(1.) GRANARD, or GRENARD, [Irish, *Grianard*, i. e. the height of the sun.] a borough and post town of Ireland, in Longford, Leinster; 52 miles from Dublin, 16 S. of Cavan, and 11 NE. of Longford. In this town annual prizes are given to the best performers on the Irish harp. It has a barrack for a company of foot; and before the Union with Great Britain, returned two members to parliament. It was formerly the residence of the chiefs of N. Tessa. It has fairs 3d May and 1st Oct. Lon. 7. 30. W. Lat. 53. 44. N.

(2.) GRANARD, MOAT OF, a remarkable hill thought to be artificial, and the site of a Danish fort; which commands from its summit a most extensive prospect into 6 or 7 different counties.

GRANARUOLO, a small town of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of Amonè, and ci-devant papal province of Romagna.

(1.) \* GRANARY. *n. f.* [*granarium*, Lat.] A storehouse for threshed corn.—Ants, by their labour and industry, contrive that corn will keep as dry in their nests as in our granaries. Addison.

The naked nations' cloathe,

And be th' exhaustless granary of a world.

Thomson's Spring.

(2.) A GRANARY, CAUTIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN ERRECTING. Sir Henry Wotton advises to make it look toward the north, because that quarter is the coolest and most temperate. Mr Worlidge observes, that the best granaries are built of brick, with quarters of timber wrought in the inside, to which the boards may be nailed, with which the inside of the granary must be lined so close to the beams, that there may be no room left for vermin. There may be many stories one above another, which should be near each other; because the shallower the corn lies, it is the better, and more easily turned. The two great cautions, to be observed in erecting granaries are, to make them sufficiently strong, and to expose them to the most drying winds.

(3.) A GRANARY, METHOD OF MANAGING

CORN IN. The method of ordering c parts of England, particularly in Kent. To separate it from dust and other in ter it is threshed, they toss it with one end to the other of a long and the lighter substances fall down in the room, and the corn only is carried or end to end of it. After this the corn, and then bringing it into the is spread about half a foot thick, about twice in a week; once it weep the screening it. This management about two months; after which a foot thick for two months more; time they turn it once a week, or two for be damp, and now and then for After about 5 or 6 months they raise feet thickness in the heaps, and then once or twice in a month, and screen then. After a year they lay it 2½ or and turn it once in 3 weeks or 4 screen it proportionably. When it years or more, they turn it once in 1 and screen it once a quarter; and however it is kept, the oftener the turning ing is repeated, the better the grain.

It is proper to leave 200 area of a yard very side of the heap of corn, and spaces, into which they turn and toss ten. In Kent they make two square end of the floor, and one round in the means of which they throw the corn upper into the lower rooms, and to turn and air it the better. Their fires with two partitions, to separate the corn, which falls into a bag, and wholly full this is thrown away, the pure corn remaining behind. Corn has been kept in our granaries 30 years; served, that the longer it is kept the yields in proportion to the corn, so and whiter the bread is, the superfluous only evaporating in the keeping. In Switzerland, they keep corn 80 year by these methods. The public granaries are 7, 8, or 9 stories high, having the midst of every floor to let down one to another. They are built so though every way surrounded with corn contracts no dampness, and the the convenience of coming up to their lading. The Russians preserve subterranean granaries of the figure of wide below and narrow at top; they plastered, and the top covered with take care to have the corn well dried laid into these storehouses, and often means of ovens; the summer dry was too short to effect it sufficiently. At wheat, barley, and rye, of a great part are there laid up in parcels of 20, 30 in a chamber, according to the size and thus they keep turning every day keep it sweet and fit for shipping. Storm has sometimes been of very consequences to these stores; all the corn of former years having been found spoiled by one night's thunder, that though



, fit for shipping or keeping, and properly use, yet in the morning it was found and sticking. In this case there is no re- turning of all such corn 3 or 4 times a month or longer; in which time it will be recovered, though sometimes not. If of thunder and lightning is only observed place in such corn as is not a year old, it sweated thoroughly in the straw before it is threshed out. The latter inconvenience is avoided by a timely care; but as to the latter that can be done is carefully to ex- aminers of the last year's corn after every storm, that if any of it have been so af- fected may be cured in time; for a neglect of it will utterly destroy it. According to Vir- gils, a granary should always be at the south- east, and have its openings only to the south, that the corn may not be exposed to the winds from the S. and W. which are very dangerous to it; whereas the contrary ones are necessary and wholesome to it, serving to dry it from all external humidity, from the sun's heat. There must also be openings in it to be set open in dry weather, partly to let in fresh air, and partly to let out the warm effluvia which are often emitted by the corn. The roofs of the granaries should always be of tiles, be- cause the worst seasons, when the other open- ings are not safe, there will always be a con- stant current for fresh air, and a way out for the bad air by their joinings, which are never close. In any windows to the south, great care should be taken to shut them up in moist weather, and against hot southern winds. There must ne- cessarily be a cellar, or any other damp place under the granary; for if these cases the corn will certainly be injured by the vapours, and be made damp in the end and ill tasted in the other.

**GRANARY, METHODS OF DESTROYING THAT INFEST GRAIN IN.** The pre- sence of grain from the ravages of insects may be prevented by timely and frequent screening, and turning; (See § 5.) as little or no incon- venience will follow corn or malt lodged dry, but the damage results from a neglect of these pre- cautions. For, whether the obvious damage arise from the weevil, the moth, or the beetle, that da- mages the grain at the time the vermin make their appearance under either of these species, they begin in this last state of existence, only pro- ceeding from their respective kinds of vermiculi; while they continue in that form do the

In this last, or insect state, they eat lit- tle; their principal business being to deposit their eggs. Their rich unerring instinct prompts them to do so in large collections of grain furnish food for themselves while in a vermicular state. It is the business of industry to prevent future ravages of these ravagers, by destroying them previous to their hatching; and this is best effected by frequent screening, and exposure to the winds of fresh air. By frequently turning the grain, the cohesion of their eggs is broken, and the nidus of these minute worms is destroyed, which on hatching collect together, and form numerous nests of a cobweb-like sub-

stance for their security. To these nests they at- tach, by an infinity of small threads, many grains of corn together, first for their protection, and then for their food. When their habitations are broken and separated by the screen, they fall thro' their small interstices, and may be easily removed from the granary with the dust. Those that es- cape an early screening will be destroyed by sub- sequent ones, while the grain is but little injured; and the corn will acquire thereby a superior puri- ty. But by inattention to this, and sometimes by receiving grain already infested into the granary, these vermin, particularly the weevil, will soon spread themselves in that state every where upon the surface, and darken the walls by their number. Under such circumstances hens, with new hatch- ed chickens, if turned on the heap, will traverse, without feeding (or very sparingly so) on the corn, wherever they spread; as they seem insatiable in the pursuit of these insects. When the numbers are reduced within reach, a hen will fly up against the walls, and brush them down with her wings, while her chickens seize them with the greatest avidity. This being repeated as often as they want food, the whole species will in a day or two be destroyed. Of the phalæna, or moth, and the small beetle, they seem equally voracious: on which account they may be deemed the most useful instruments in nature for eradicating these noxious and destruc- tive vermin.

(5) **A GRANARY, METHODS OF VENTILATING GRAIN IN.** M. Du Hamel and Dr Hales recom- mend various contrivances for blowing fresh air through corn laid up in granaries or ships, to pre- serve it sweet and dry, and to prevent its being de- voured by weevils or other insects. This may be done by nailing wooden bars or laths on the floor of the granary about an inch distant from each o- ther, when they are covered with hair cloth only; or at the distance of 2 or 3 inches, when coarse wire-work, or basket-work of osier is laid under the hair-cloth, or when an iron plate full of holes is laid upon them. These laths may be laid across other laths, nailed at the distance of 15 inches, and two or more deep, that there may be a free passage for the air under them. The under laths must come about six inches short of the wall of the granary at one end of them; on which end a board should be set edgeways, and sloping against the wall: by this disposition a large air-pipe is formed, which, having an open communication with all the interstices between and under the bars, will admit the passage of air below forcibly through a hole at the extremity of it, into all the corn in the granary, that will consequently carry off the moist exhalations of the corn. The ventilators for supplying fresh air may be fixed against the wall, on the inside or outside of the granary, or under the floor, or in the ceiling; but wherever they are fixed, the handle of the lever that works them must be out of the granary, otherwise the person who works them would be in danger of suffoca- tion, when the corn is fumed with burning brim- stone, as is sometimes done for destroying weevils. Small moveable ventilators will answer the pur- pose for ventilating corn in large bins in granaries, and may be easily moved from one bin to another.

If

If the granary or corn ship be very long, the main air-pipe may pass lengthwise along the middle of it, and convey air, on both sides, under the corn. In large granaries, large double ventilators, laid on each other, may be fixed at the middle and near the top of the granary, that they may be worked by a wind-mill fixed on the roof of the building, or by a water-mill. The air is to be conveyed from the ventilators through a large trunk or trunks, reaching down through the several floors to the bottom of the granary, with branching trunks to each floor, by means of which the air may be made to pass into a large trunk along the adjoining cross walls: from these trunks several lesser trunks, about 4 inches wide, are to branch off, at the distance of 3 or 4 feet from each other, which are to reach through the whole length of the granary, and their farther ends are to be closed: scams of one 10th or one 12th of an inch are to be left open at the four joinings of the boards, where they are nailed together, that the air may pass through them into the corn. In some of these lesser trunks there may be sliding shutters, to stop the passage of the air through those trunks which are not covered with corn; or to ventilate one part of the granary more briskly than others, as there may be occasion. There must also be wooden shutters, hung on hinges at their upper part, so as to shut close of themselves; these must be fixed to the openings in the walls of the granary on their outside; by these means they will readily open to give a free passage for the ventilating air, which ascends through the corn to pass off, but will instantly shut when the ventilation ceases, and thereby prevent any dampness of the external air from entering: to prevent this, the ventilation should be made only in the middle of dry days, unless the corn, when first put in, is cold and damp. In lesser granaries, where the ventilators must be worked by hand, if these granaries stand on saddles, so as to have their lowest floor at some distance from the ground, the ventilators may be fixed under the lowest floor, between the saddles, so as to be worked by men standing on the ground, without or within the granary. A very commodious and cheap ventilator may be made for small granaries, by making a ventilator of the door of the granary; which may be easily done by making a circular screen, of the size of a quarter of a circle, behind the door: but for this purpose, the door must open, not inwards but outwards of the granary, so that as it falls back, it may be worked to and fro in the screen; which must be exactly adapted to it in all parts of the circular side of the screen, as well as at the top and bottom. But there must be a stop at about 8 or 10 inches from the wall, to prevent the door from falling back further; that there may be room for a valve in the screen, to supply it with air; which air will be driven in by the door, through a hole made in the wall near the floor, into the main air-trunk, in which there must be another valve over the hole in the wall, to prevent the return of the air.

GRANATAN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Erzeburg, 12 miles NE. of Freyburg.

(1.) \* GRANATE. *n. f.* [from *granum*, Lat.] A kind of marble so called, because it is marked

with small variegations like grains. C  
GRANITE.

(2.) THE GRANATE, OR GARNET, is of fossils ranking among the siliceous car according to Magellan, analogous to gem them being composed of the siliceous, argill and calcareous earths, with a greater or portion of iron. The opaque and black contain about a fifth part of iron; but phanous ones only a fiftieth, according man. The garnets, properly so called, a greater quantity of siliceous earth than t and both are now justly ranked with the earths. The general properties of the according to Cronstedt, are as follows: 1. fusible as it contains less metallic matte more transparent or glassy in its texture. ed with salt of kelp, it may, on a piece coal, be converted into glass by the bl which cannot be done without flint. 2. transparent garnet may, without any add brought to a black opaque slag by the lam 4. It is never, as far as is hitherto known pure, or without some mixture of metal, ly iron, which may be extracted by the methods. The garnet matter during the lization, has either been formed in small quantities, or else has had the power of into crystals, though closely confined in substances: since garnets are generally fo pered in other solid stones, and sometimes harder ones, such as quartz and chert. informs us, that garnet is easily melted b of borax or the vegetable alkali. Acco Brunich, most of the garnets strike fire w Cronstedt observes, that the metallic calc mixed with other earthy substances, mal alteration in their fusibility; iron, for inst the argillaceous and micaceous earths, them fusible, though otherwise they are Hence there may be some reasons for call the garnet as a quartz impregnated w yet, on the whole, he thinks it will be call the garnet a stone of a different ord we have experiments sufficient to was reduce the number of earths. The garn is never found but in an indurated state divided into the garnet properly so cal shirl or cockle; though this perhaps is ow to the figure of their crystals than any t Wallerius makes the specific gravity of st from 3600 to 3900, and even 4400; Briff it 4100; and Cotes says, that the garnet hemia are 4360, those of Sweden bet Some make it no less than 5000. The steemed is the Syrian garnet; which is red, inclining to purple, very transpar less beautiful than the oriental amethyst according to Magellan, is the amethyst Pliny; and is found in Syria, Calcutta, C Camboya, and Ethiopia. The SORANT ancients was another kind of garnet of : lour inclining to yellow, called *vermeil* French, and *giacinto guarnacino* by the the former having the name of *rubino* a mong the last mentioned people. The *ranus* comes from Sorian or *Surian*, a Pegu, from whence these gems are

garnets have a yellow colour, in  
 they are called *HYACINTHUS*. Like other  
 divided into oriental and occidental  
 means only *more* or *less* valuable;  
 being always called *oriental*, where-  
 from. Some very fine ones are  
 found in India; they are also met with in  
 Pyrrha, in Silesia, S. Sapho, in the  
 Alps, in Switzerland, in Spain, and in  
 their colour is supposed to proceed  
 from, according to M. Saussure, even  
 small garnets attract the magnetic  
 force at a distance. In the focus of a good  
 the garnet melts into a brown mass,  
 acted by the magnet; which shows  
 its composition in a consider-  
 able degree. Some garnets, however, con-  
 tain tin. M. Magellan is of  
 the *lapis abazeticus* of Pliny, and an-  
 other which he mentions of a deep purple,  
 is garnet. 4. The cockle or snail.  
 The garnets abound so much with  
 iron, they are sometimes worked with profit  
 for iron metal; in which case no notice is  
 taken of the natural character of the stone, in the  
 as is done with clays and jaspers that  
 for in these the quantity of metal is  
 wanted, until at last they acquire the  
 of iron itself. The greatest part of  
 however, contain only from 6 to 12  
 per cent, which is too poor to be worked  
 with advantage as an ore of that me-  
 tal. Many of the garnet kind are to be tried  
 they contain, the iron ought to be  
 extracted by the common process; and  
 at the same time contains tin or  
 bismuth likewise be included in the iron.  
 extracted out of it, however, by a  
 process augmented; the lead and tin sweat-  
 from of drops, though always some-  
 what with iron. None of the garnet kind  
 is found in the form of an earth pro-  
 duce; though at Swappawari, in Lap-  
 land, is found a bole which has the same  
 as garnet; and the hornblende of  
 which is somewhat harder than this bole,  
 has the appearance of cockle.

**GRANITE PASTE.** See **GARNET**, § 4.  
**GRANITE**, in lithology, a genus of fossils,  
 which, under its English name **GRA-  
 NITE**. See also **GARNET**, § 1. and 2.  
 3. species, viz.  
**GRANITE CRASSUS**, the coarse grained  
 very hard stone, crystallizing in form  
 of balls, mostly of a reddish brown col-  
 our, and of a reddish brown and whitish  
 colour, in different parts of Sweden.  
**GRANITE CRYSTALLIZATUS**, the crystal-  
 line is reckoned among the precious  
 stones, in its colour and form, of its  
 value than any of them. Sometimes it is  
 of a dark colour; sometimes yellowish  
 sometimes brown, black or opaque.  
 It is both in lustre and hardness to the  
 equal of the sapphire, although it will  
 not scratch steel. The crystals are some-  
 times, but frequently assume rhombi-

dal, tetradecahedrai, and almost all other regular  
 forms.

- GRANBOROUGH**, a town of Warwickshire.
- (1.) **GRANBY**, Marquis of. See **MANNERS**.
- (2.) **GRANBY**, a township of Connecticut, in  
 Hartford county, 18 miles N. of Hartford, bor-  
 dering on Massachusetts.
- (3.) **GRANBY**, a township of Massachusetts, in  
 Hampshire county, 90 miles W. of Boston, con-  
 taining 596 citizens, in 1795.
- (4.) **GRANBY**, a town of S. Carolina, on the  
 Congaree.
- (5.) **GRANBY BAY**, a bay on the N. coast of  
 Hispaniola. Lon. 61. 25. W. Lat. 15. 42. N.
- GRANCEY**, a town of France, in the dept. of  
 Cote d'Or, 10½ miles N.W. of Is sur Tille.

(1.) \* **GRAND**. *adj.* [*grand*, French; *grandis*,  
 Latin.] Great; illustrious; high in power or dig-  
 nity.—God had planted, that is, made to grow  
 the trees of life and knowledge, plants only pro-  
 per and becoming the paradise and garden of so  
 grand a Lord. *Raleigh's Hist.* 2. Great; splen-  
 did; magnificent.—

A voice has flown  
 To re-enslave a grand design. *Young.*  
 3. Principal; chief.—

What cause  
 Mov'd our grand parents, in that happy state,  
 Favcur'd of heav'n to highly, to fall off  
 From their Creator. *Milton.*

4. Eminent; superiour: very frequently in an ill  
 sense.—

Our grand foe, Satan. *Milton.*  
 So climb this first grand thief into God's fold.  
*Milton.*

5. Noble; sublime; lofty; conceived or expressed  
 with great dignity. 6. It is used to signify ascent  
 or descent of consanguinity.

(1.) **GRAND**, in geography, a town of France,  
 in the dept. of Volges, 9 miles W. Neufchateau.

(2.) **GRAND**, Anthony LE, a Cartesian philoso-  
 pher of the 17th century, author of several works,  
 the best of which is entitled, A Sacred History  
 from the Creation to the time of Constantine the  
 Great, 8vo.

(4.) **GRAND**, Joachim LE, a French political  
 author, born in 1653. He was a man of general  
 knowledge, and was much esteemed at the court  
 of Lewis XIV. He died at Paris in 1733.

(5.) **GRAND**, Mark Antony LE, a celebrated  
 French poet and actor. He was author of several  
 comedies, which were published in 4 vols 12mo.  
 He died at Paris in 1723.

(6.) **GRAND ASSIZE.** See **ASSIZE**, § 2.

(7.) **GRAND DISTRESS**, (*distressio magna*) in  
 English law, a writ of distress, so called on ac-  
 count of its extent, which reaches to all the goods  
 and chattels of the party within the county. This  
 writ lies in two cases: either when the tenant or  
 defendant is attached and appears not, but makes  
 default; or where the tenant or defendant hath  
 once appeared, and after makes default. On  
 such occasions, this writ lies by common law, in  
 lieu of a petit cape.

(8.) **GRAND GUSTO**, among painters, a term  
 used to express that there is something in the pic-  
 ture very great and extraordinary, calculated to  
 surprise, please, and instruct. Where this is found,  
 they

they say, the painter was a man of *grand gusto*; and they use the words *sublime* and *marvellous*, when they speak of a picture, in much the same sense.

(9.) GRAND JURY, } &c. See JURY, LAR-  
(10.) GRAND LARCENY, } CENY, &c.

\* GRANDAM. *n. f.* [*grand* and *dam* or *dame*.]

1. Grandmother; my father's or mother's mother.

I meeting him, will tell him that my lady  
Was fairer than his *grandam* and as chaste

As may be in the world. *Spok. Troil. and Cref.*  
—We have our forefathers and great *grandames*

all before us, as they were in Chaucer's days.  
*Dryden.*

Thy tygers heart belies thy angel face:  
Too well thou shew'st thy pedigree from stone:  
Thy *grandame's* was the first by Pyrrha thrown.

2. An old withered woman.—  
The women

Cry'd, one and all, the suppliant should have  
right,

And to the *grandame* hag adjudg'd the knight.  
*Dryden.*

GRAND ANSE, or JEREMIE, a town in the W.  
part of Hispaniola.

\* GRANDAUGHTER. *n. f.* [*grand* and *daughter*.]

The daughter of a son or daughter.

GRAND BAY, a bay on the S. of Newfoundland.

GRANDBY, a town in Nottinghamshire, SE.  
of Bingham. It has a fair Nov. 1.

GRAND-CHAMP, a town of France in the dept.  
of Morbihan, 7 miles NNW. of Vannes.

\* GRANDCHILD. *n. f.* [*grand* and *child*.] The

son or daughter of my son or daughter; one in  
the second degree of descent.—Augustus Cæsar,  
out of indignation against his daughters and Agrippa  
his *grandchild*, would say that they were not his  
seed, but imposthumes broken from him. *Bacon.*

These hymns may work on future wits, and so  
May great *grandchildren* of thy praises grow.

*Donne.*  
—He hoped his majesty did believe, that he would  
never make the least scruple to obey the *grand-*

*child* of K. James. *Clarendon.*—

Fair daughter, and thou son and *grandchild*  
both!

He 'scaping, with his gods and reliques fled,  
And tow'rd's the shore his little *grandchild* led.

*Milton.*  
*Denham.*

GRANDCOUR, a town of the Helvetic republic,  
in Bern, 10 miles W. of Friburg.

GRANDCOURT, a town of France, in the dept.  
of the Lower Seine, 15 miles E. of Dieppe, and

4. N. of Neufchatel.

(1.) GRANDE, a river of Africa, the S. branch  
of the NIGER. It runs into the Western Ocean.

(2, 3.) GRANDE, two rivers of S. America; 1.  
in Peru, near Cayanta, whose sands are rich in  
gold; 2. in Brazil. Both run into the Atlantic.

(4.) GRANDE, a town of Norway, in the diocese  
of Drontheim, 28 miles W. of Drontheim.

(1.) \* GRANDEE. *n. f.* [*grand*, Fr.; *grandis*,  
Lat.] A man of great rank, power, or digni-  
ty.—They had some sharper and some milder dif-  
ferences which might easily happen in such an inter-  
view of *grandees*, both vehement on the parts  
which they swayed. *Wotton.*—When a prince or

*grandee* manifests a liking to such a th-  
nally set about to make themselves

for such things. *South*—Some parts of  
monarchy are rather for ornament th-  
they furnish out viceroalties for 11

and posts of honour for the noble fan-

(2.) GRANDEE, in Spain, is used;

denote the prime lords of the court  
the king has once given leave to be c-

presence: There are some *grandees* f-

made by the king's saying simply,  
Others are *grandees* by descent; n-

king's saying, *Be covered for thyself*.  
These last are reputed far above

Some have 3 or 4 *grandeeships* in the

GRANDEESHIP, *n. f.* the pr-

GRANDEE. See last article.

GRANDENTZ. See GRAUDEN;

GRANDE-PRE. See GRANDPRE.

(1.) GRANDE RIVIERE, a river in

(2.) GRANDE RIVIERE, a town o-

on the above river, 20 miles SW. of Fe-

GRANDESHAGEN, a town of

Pomerania, 2 miles NW. of Greiffel-

GRANDET, a French biographer

much esteemed for the purity of his li-

born in 1646, and died in 1724, aged

\* GRANDEVITY. *n. f.* [from

Latin.] Great age; length of life. *D.*

\* GRANDEVOUS. *adj.* [*grand*

Long lived; of great age. *Diff.*

(1.) \* GRANDEUR. *n. f.* [French.

splendour of appearance; magister

magistrate or great officer, he looks

all approaches by the multiplied

attendance, by the distance of cen-

*grandeur*. *South*. 2. Elevation of sen-

guage, or mien.

(2.) GRANDEUR. See SUBLIMITY

(1.) \* GRANDFATHER. *n. f.* [*grand*

The father of my father or mother

above my father or mother in the scale

One was saying that his great *gran-*

*grandfather*, and father died at sea:

that heard him, an' I were as you, I

come at sea. Why, saith he, who

great grandfather, and *grandfather*,

die? He answered, where but in the

answered, an' I were as you, I would

in bed. *Bacon.*—Our grandchildren's

rags hung up in Westminster Hall, 3

hundred millions, whereof they are

arrears, and boast that their *gran-*

rich and great. *Swift.*

(2.) GRANDFATHERS, in geogra-

large mountains in the SE. corner o-

in which the head waters of French

Catabaw rivers take rise.

GRANDGOR, or GLENGORE, a r-

ly used in Scotland for the pos. I

*Trans.* N° 469. sect. 5. there is a cõ-

clamation of K. James IV. ordering

this disease, or who had attended all

forthwith to repair to an island in

Forth. If the grandgor was the p-

distemper came into Europe at the sic-

in 1495, it must have made a rap-

have caused such an alarm at Edinbu-

**ANDIFICK.** *adj.* [*grandis* and *facio*, Making great. *Dich*

**ANDINOUS.** *adj.* [*grando*, Latin.] Full confining of hail. *Di?*

**AND ISLAND,** the name of 3 islands in N. : viz. 1st. in the mouth of Lake Ontario, 2 to Britain, 20 miles long and 4 broad; N. side of Lake Superior; and 3. in the 4 miles N. of Fort Erie, about 6 miles 3 broad.

**AND ISLES,** 2 large islands in Lake Cham- ch about 9 miles long. They belong to of Vermont, and form two townships.

**ANDITY.** *n. f.* [from *grandis*, Latin.] 1; grandeur; magnificence. An old word. ets excel in *grandity* and gravity, smooth- propriety, in quickness and briefness. *Remains.*

**AND LAKE,** a lake of N America, in New k, near St John's river, 30 miles long, 10 broad, and in some places 40 fathoms

**ANDLUCE,** a town of France in the dep. 14 miles SE. of Mans.

**AND MANAN,** an island of the Atlantic, on der of the United States, 6 miles SE. of ello.

**AND MONT.** See GRAMMONT, N° 1.

**AND MOTHER.** *n. f.* [*grand* and *mother.*] er's or mother's mother.—Thy *grand- is*, and thy mother Eunice. 2 *Tim.* i. 5.

**AND DOLA,** a town of Portugal in Estreina- miles SE. of Setuval.

**AND DPRE,** a town of France, in the dep. ies, and late prov. of Champagne; feat- Aire, 33 miles E. of Rheims. On the . 1794, the French under Dumouriez. ated near this town by the allied army

D. of Brunwick, and forced back to ould; on the 16th the Prussians entered ; but on the 30th they were driven out in. Kellerman, after losing 3000 men in pidemical fever and dysentery.

**AND DRIEUX,** a town of France in the dep. , 10½ miles NW. of Langogne.

**AND RIVER,** or RIO GRANDE, a river hich runs into the Atlantic, in Lou. . Lat. 11. 0. N.

**AND RIVER,** a river of N. America, s NW. into Lake Erie, 80 miles SW. : Ile.

**AND SIRE.** *n. f.* [*grand* and *fire.*] 1. Grand-

est thou, that I will leave my kingly one,

my *grandfire* and my father fat? *Shak.* *grandfire*, and his brother, to whom fame rom two conquer'd parts o' th' world, ir name. *Denham.*

ce wreaths his *grandfire* knew to reap e toil and military sweat. *Prior.*

cestor, poetically.—

should a man, whose blood is warm hin,

his *grandfire* cut in alabaster? *Shak.*

the portal, carv'd in cedar wood, n their ranks, their godlike *grandfires* d. *Dryden.*

PART II.

So mimick ancient wits at best,  
As apes our *grandfires* in their doublets dress. *Pope.*

\* **GRANDSON.** *n. f.* [*grand* and *son.*] The son of a son or daughter.—

Almighty Jove augment your wealthy store,  
Give much to you, and to his *grandsons* more. *Dryden.*

—Grandfathers in private families are not much observed to have great influence on their *grandsons*, and, I believe, they have much less among princes. *Swift.*

**GRAND-SONE,** a town of France, in the dept. of Doubs, 4 miles E. of Besançon.

**GRANDS SEAUX,** or GREAT SEALS, a nation of N. American Indians, who inhabit the country S. of the Missouri. They have about 300 warriors.

(1.) **GRANDVILLE,** a town of France in the dept. of the Channel, and ci-devant prov. of Normandy, partly seated on a plain, partly on a rock; forming an oval peninsula and surrounded with walls and 2 gates. It has a harbour capable of containing 60 ships, and contains about 2,500 citizens. It is 12 miles NW. of Avranches, 15 S. by E. of Coutances, and 18½ W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 32. W. Lat. 48. 50. N.

(2.) **GRANDVILLE,** a town of France in the dep. of Meuse, 3 miles SW. of Longwy.

**GRAND VILLIER,** a town of France, in the dep. of Oise, 14 miles NNW. of Beauvais.

**GRANEN,** a town of Spain in Arragon, 13 miles S. of Huesca.

**GRANENA,** a town of Spain, in Catalonia, 10 miles S. of Lerida.

**GRANEVSKIA,** a fort of Russia, on the Volga, in the province of Saratov.

**GRANEWOLDEN,** a town of Norway, 26 miles S. of Christiania.

(1.) \* **GRANGE.** *n. f.* [*grange*, French.] A farm: generally a farm with a house at a distance from neighbours.—One, when he had got the inheritance of an unlucky old *grange*, would needs sell it; and, to draw buyers, proclaimed the virtues of it: nothing ever thrived on it, saith he; the trees were all blasted, the swine died of the measles, the cattle of the murrain, and the sheep of the rot; nothing was ever reared there, not a duckling or a goose. *Ben Jonson's Discov.*—At the moated *grange* resides this dejected Mariana. *Shak.*

The loose unletter'd hinds,  
When for their teeming flocks and *granges* full  
In wanton dance they praise the bounteous Pan.

*Milton.*  
—If the church was of their own foundation, they might chuse, the incumbent being once dead, whether they would put any other therein; unless, perhaps, the said church had people belonging to it; for then they must still maintain a curate: and of this sort were their *granges* and priories. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) **GRANGE** [from *granum*, Lat. grain.] is also an ancient term for a barn, or place wherein to lay up and thresh corn. Hence also **GRANGER**, or *grangier*, a *grange*-keeper or farmer.

(3.) **GRANGE** is also used for an inn.

(4.) **GRANGE**, Joseph Chancel de LA, a French

F F F author

author born in 1703, celebrated for his talents and misfortunes; which last he drew upon himself by publishing a severe philippic against Philip D. of Orleans. He wrote several tragedies of great merit. He died in 1785, aged 82.

(5.) GRANGE, M. DE LA, a learned and judicious French critic, born at Paris in 1738. He published a translation of Lucretius; and his translation of Seneca was published after his death, in 1775.

(6.) GRANGE, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, so named from *Grange*, a farm, (See N° 1.) 6 miles long from N. to S. and 5 miles broad. It contains about 16,000 acres, of which little more than 4000 are in tillage. The church is 4 miles E. of Keith, 10 N. of Huntly, 12 S. of Portsoy, and 16 SW. of Banff. The Isla runs along the S. side of it. The parish being hilly, the climate is cold and moist. About  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the soil is fertile; the rest is mostly a poor clay upon till, or moor. The produce is oats, barley, pease, turnips, potatoes and flax. The population, in 1791, stated by the rev. Francis Forbes in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1572, and had decreased 225, since 1755. The number of horses was 452, of sheep 2582, and of black cattle 1843. The roads are bad. Improvements in agriculture had been introduced by the late lord Findlater, but are retarded by high rents, short leases, and severe services; as well as by oppressive mill multures, till of late that they were commuted. Mr Forbes says, the people also complain much of the excise and distillery laws as unequal and oppressive. Notwithstanding all these disadvantages, the parish produces more grain than supplies the inhabitants, except in very bad seasons. In 1768, the crop after it was cut down, was almost entirely swept away by an overflowing of the Isla. Linen yarn and coarse linens are the only manufactures. About 25,000 bolls of lime are also made annually, as the parish abounds in lime-stone.

(7.) GRANGE, a town of France, in the dept. of Vosges, 5 miles ESE. of Bruyeres.

(8.) GRANGE, a town of Sweden, in the province of Dal-carlia, 30 miles S. of Fablun.

(9.—20.) GRANGE is also the name of 12 English villages: viz. 1. in Cheshire, on the Dee; 2. in Cumberland, near Keswick; 3. in Dorsetsh. near Wareham; 4. NE. of Durham; 5. in Gloucestersh. 6. in Hampshire, NE. of Itching-stoke; 7. in Herefordsh. near Brompton-Brian; 8. in Kent, 1 mile from Gillingham; 9. in Lancashire, with a port for small vessels; 10. N. of Lincoln; 11. in Northumberland, SW. of Morpeth; and 12. in ditto, near Pontiland.

(21.—25.) GRANGE, is also the name of 5 small towns in Ireland: viz. 1. in Antrim; 2. and 3. in Meath; 4. in Sligo; and 5. in Tyrone.

(26.) GRANGE, CAPE LA, a cape on the N. side of Hispaniola.

(27.) GRANGES LE BOURG, a town of France, in the dept. of Upper Saone;  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles SSE. of Joux.

(28.) GRANGER, or GRAINGER, James, M. D. a Scots physician born at Dunfermline, about 1723. He published a translation of Tibullus, several medical tracts, a poem on the Sugar Cané, and other

poetical pieces. He died in the West Indies, where he had chiefly practised, in 1767.

(29.) GRANGER. See GRANGE, N° 2.

GRANGES, a town of France in the Lot and Garonne; 6 miles E. of Tonnes.

GRANGNANO, a town of Naples, in the Stato Citra, 15 miles W. of Salerno.

GRANHULT, a town of Sweden in 35 miles NW. of Calmar.

GRANI, [from *grann*, Irish, a bear] ancient writers, mustaches or whiskers. Roman Catholics give as a reason why they refused to the laity, *Quia barbati, & non*

*beati granos, dum poculum inter epulas sum*

*liquore pilos inficiunt, quam ori infundunt.*

GRANICUS, a small river near the Bosphorus in Lesser Asia, remarkable for the victory gained by Alexander the Great over Darius.

—Authors disagree about the number of the Persians, though all agree that they were vastly more numerous than the Greeks and Orosius tell us, that the Persian army consisted of 800,000 foot and 20,000 horse.

Others tell us, that they were only 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse. The Macedonian army exceeded 30,000 foot and 5000 horse. The

cavalry lined the banks of the Granicus, to oppose Alexander wherever he should attempt a passage; and the foot were posted in

front of the cavalry on an easy ascent. Parmenio was ordered to allow his troops some time to refresh themselves; but he replied, that having crossed the Hellespont, it would be

impossible for him and his troops to be so long in a rivulet. Accordingly a proper place for the river was no sooner found, than he ordered a strong detachment of horse to

follow him, and he himself followed with the right wing, commanded in person; the trumpets in

time sounding, and loud shouts of joy burst through the whole army. The Persians

such showers of arrows against the detachment of Macedonian horse, as caused some confusion, several of their horses being killed or

wounded near the bank a most bloody combat ensued; the Macedonians attacked the Persians pushing them back to the river. Alexander, who observed that

they were in, took the command of the Macedonian cavalry, after an obstinate resistance gave ground. However, Spithrodates, brother of Ionia, and son in law to Darius, still held his ground, and did all that lay in

his power to bring them back to the charge. Alexander advanced full gallop to engage him, and was

slightly wounded at the first encounter. Spithrodates having thrown his javelin with

both hands advanced sword in hand to meet him, who ran him through with his pike

and his arm to discharge a blow with his battle-ax, that he beat off his head with his battle-ax, that he beat off his head and slightly wounded him through the

As he was ready to repeat the blow, C



Roke of his scymitar cut off Rosacea's head, thus in all probability saved the life of his son. The Macedonians then, animated by example of their king, attacked the Persians with new vigour, who soon after betook themselves to flight. Alexander immediately charged enemy's foot with all his forces, who had now led the river. The Persians, disheartened at defeat of their cavalry, made no great resistance. The Greek mercenaries retired in good order to a neighbouring hill, whence they sent messengers to Alexander desiring leave to march off un molested. But he, instead of coming to a parley with them, rushed furiously into the middle of his main body; where his horse was killed under him, and he himself in great danger of being cut in pieces. The Greeks defended themselves with incredible valour for a long time, but were at almost entirely cut off. In this battle the Persians said to have lost 20,000 foot and 2,500 horse, and the Macedonians only 55 foot and 60 horse.

(2.) GRANITE, *n. f.* [*granit*, Fr. from *granus*, Lat. because consisting as it were of grains, small distinct particles.] A stone composed of coarse and very large concretions, rudely connected together; of great hardness, giving fire to steel; not fermenting with acids, and imperfectly calcinable in a great fire. The hard like granite with black spots, commonly called *or-stone*, forms a very firm, and though rude, yet beautifully variegated mass. It is found in immense strata in Ireland, but not used there. Cornwall it is found in prodigious masses, and brought to London, for the steps of public buildings. Hard red granite, variegated with black and white, now called *oriental granite*, is valuable for its extreme hardness and beauty, and capable of a most elegant polish. *Hill on Fossils*.—*Alabaster*, marble of divers colours, both simple and mixed, the opulites, porphyry, and the *mise*. *Woodward*.—There are still great pillars of *granite*, and other fragments of this ancient temple. *Addison on Italy*.

(1.) GRANITE, in natural history, is a distinct genus of stones. See § 1. Of this genus there are three species: 1. The hard white granite, (§ 1.) is a very valuable kind, consisting of a beautiful congeries of very variously constructed and differently coloured particles, not diffused among or running one to another, but each pure and distinct, though firmly adhering to which ever of the others it comes in contact with, and forming a very firm mass. 2. The hard red granite variegated with black and white, is common in Egypt and Arabia. This species is also found in many parts of Europe. There are fine tables, &c. equal to the best oriental granite, at Mount Edgumbe in Devonshire, which are wrought from stone found in that county. It is also found in other counties of England. 3. The pale whitish granite, variegated with black and yellow. This is sometimes found in strata, but more frequently in loose nodules, and is used for paving the streets. Some of these kinds of stones are found in almost every country, and in many places they are found of immense bigness. The largest mass of this kind in the known world, being as an unconnected stone, is found near the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, and of which we

have the following description in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. 68. p. 101, given by Mr Anderson in a letter to Sir John Pringle. "The stone is so remarkable, that it is called by the people here the *Tower of Babel*, and by some the *Pearl Diamond*. It either takes the last name from a place near which it is situated, or it gives name to the tract of cultivated land called the *Pearl*. It lies upon the top of a ridge of low hills, beyond a large plain, about 30 miles from the Cape Town; beyond which, at a little distance, is a range of hills of a much greater height. It is of an oblong shape, and lies N. and S. The South end is highest; the E. and W. sides are steep and high; the top is rounded, and slopes away gradually to the N. end, so that you can ascend it by that way, and enjoy a most extensive prospect of the whole country. I could not precisely determine its circumference, but it took us above half an hour to walk round it; and by making every allowance for the rugged way, and stopping a little, I think the most moderate computation must make it exceed half a mile. The same difficulty occurred with respect to knowing its height; but I think, that, at the S. end, it is nearly equal to half its length.—I am uncertain whether it ought to be considered as the top of the hill, or a detached stone, because there is no positive proof of either, unless we were to dig about its base; but it would certainly impress every beholder, at first sight, with the idea of its being one stone, not only from its figure, but because it is really one solid uniform mass from top to bottom, without any interruption. It has indeed a few fissures, which do not reach deeper than 4 or 5 feet; and near its north end a stratum of a more compact stone runs across, which is not above 12 or 14 inches thick, with its surface divided into little squares, or oblongs, disposed obliquely. This stratum is perpendicular. Its surface is also so smooth, that it does not appear to have formerly been joined to, or separated from, any other part by violence, but enjoys the exact situation where it was originally placed; and has undergone little change from being exposed for so many successive ages to the calcining power of a very hot climate."—A part of this stone being examined by Sir William Hamilton, he determined it to be a granite, and of the same nature with the tops of some of the Alps; and supposes both to have been elevated by volcanic explosions.

(3.) GRANITE, in Lithology, a genus of stones of the order of petrae, belonging to the class of saxa. The principal constituent parts of this stone are felspar or rhombic quartz, mica, and quartz. These ingredients constitute the hardest sort of granite, and that most anciently known. That into which schoerl enters is more subject to decomposition. They never have any particular texture or regular form, but consist of enormous shapeless masses extremely hard. In the finer granites the quartz is transparent; in others generally white or grey, violet or brown. The felspar is generally the most copious ingredient, and of a white, yellow, red, black, or brown colour. The mica is also grey, brown, yellow, green, red, violet, or black; and commonly the least copious. The schoerl is generally black, and



abounds in the granites that contain it. Hence the colour of the granites depends principally on that of the spar or schoerl. The red granites consist commonly of white quartz, red felt-spar, and grey mica; the grey ones of white quartz, grey or violet felt-spar, and black mica. The black granites commonly contain schoerl instead of felt-spar, and the green usually contain green quartz. On exposing granite to the flame of a blow-pipe, the component ingredients separate from one another. Mr Gerhard, having melted some in a crucible, found the felt-spar run into a transparent glass; below it the mica lay in form of a black slag, the quartz remaining unaltered. It melted somewhat better when all the three were powdered, and mixed together; though even then the quartz was still discernible by a magnifying glass. Hence we may explain the reason why grains of a white colour are sometimes found in volcanic lavas. The mixture of mica prevents the flux or quartz from spilling or cracking; and hence its infusibility and use in furnace-building. Granites are seldom slaty or laminated. In those of a close texture, the quartz and schoerl predominate. They take a good polish; for which reason the Egyptians formerly, and the Italians still work them into large pieces of ornamental architecture, for which they are extremely fit, as not being liable to decay in the air. Faber, in his letters from Italy, mentions a kind of stone named GRANITONE, composed of felt-spar and mica: a substance of this kind, which moulders in the air, is found in Finland; which is said to contain salt-petre, and sometimes common salt. In that country it is called *rapakivi*. Wallerius describes 18 species of granites, besides many others akin to this genus. Those described by Cronstedt are, 1. Loose or friable, which comes from France, and is used at the brass-works for casting that metal in. 2. Hard or compact, of which there are two varieties, red and grey. The former is met with of two kinds; viz. fine-grained from Swappari in Lapland, or coarse-grained from the province of Dalarna in Sweden. The grey, with other colours, is met with on the coast round Stockholm and Norland in Sweden.

GRANITELLO, a genus of stones of the order of petra, belonging to the class of saxa. There are 2 species, 1. That composed of distinct particles, found in several of the mountainous parts of Sweden. In some of these there is a predominance of quartzose particles, in others of micaceous; in which last case the stone is slaty, and easily split. 2. That composed of convoluted particles. It is met with of different colours, as whitish, grey, greenish, and reddish. Both these kinds of stone are used in building furnaces, on account of the powerful resistance they make to the fire; but the latter is preferable to the other, on account of its containing a little of a refractory clayish substance. It is likewise of great use in mills, where the fellow is a coarse sand stone.

GRANITONE. See GRANITE, § 3.

\* GRANIVOROUS, *adj.* [*granum* and *voro*, Lat.] Eating grain; living upon grain.—*Granivorous* birds, as a crane, upon the first peck of their bills, can distinguish the qualities of hard bodies, which the sense of men discerns not without mas-

tication. *Brown*.—Panick affords a de-nourishment, both for *granivorous* birds a kind. *Arbutnot*.

GRANNA, a town of Sweden, in Sma miles NNE. of Johnkioping.

\* GRANNAM, *n. f.* [for *grandam*.] mother. Only used in burlesque works.

Of my kind *grannam* told me, T<sup>h</sup> warning.

GRANOLLERS, a town of Spain, in nia, 18 miles NNE. of Barcelona.

GRANSEE, a town of Germany, in Burg, 30 miles NNW. of Berlin.

GRANSKEVITZ, a town of Upper, in Pomerania, 12 miles NW. of Rugen.

GRANSO, an island in the Baltic, on coast of Sweden. Lon. 16. 36. E. of Ferro 57. 46. N.

(1.) GRANSON, a town of the Helvetic in Neuchatel. It was besieged in 1476, by the bold duke of Burgundy; and after a brave defence surrendered at discretion, when Chabroussly massacred the garrison; but he was after defeated with an army of 50,000 only 10,000 Swiss. It lies 16 miles SW. of chatel. Lon. 6. 30. E. Lat. 46. 50. N.

(2.) GRANSON, a ci-devant bailiwick of Switzerland, of which the above town (N<sup>o</sup> 1) is the capital, between Lake Neuchatel and Moudon.

(1.) GRANT, Francis, Lord Culcairn, eminent lawyer and judge in Scotland, descended from a younger branch of the Grants of Culcairn. He was born about 1660, and having entered for the bar, made a distinguished figure at the bar, by opposing the old lawyers, who argued on the inability of the Convention to make any disposition of the crown, which he showed in favour of the revolution, commended him to an extensive practice, which he acquired to much honour, that the union between the two kingdoms was not without application, created a baronet, with a view of securing his rank in that measure; and soon after created lord of session. The same good qualities, commended him to this honourable office, which he discharged with the highest reputation for 20 years with the highest reputation, when after an illness which lasted but three months he expired without agony on March 16th 1731. In the *Biographia Britannica*, it is recorded of him, "That as an advocate he was indefatigable in the management of business; but at the same time that he spared no pains, he would use no violence. He had so high an idea of the dignity of the office, that he held it equally criminal to use any meanest means of coming at justice, or to use of any arts to elude it. In respect to his private character, though he was modest and frugal, and his practice, yet he was far from being austere. His private charities were very considerable, and grew in proportion with his profits. He never suffered a just cause to be lost through a want of money. He was such an enemy to oppression, that he never denied his assistance to any man who laboured under it; and with respect to the study of all professions in Scotland, he served as a pattern without a leg. Whenever he sat as lord of

f causes was remarkably full, for his being equally established for knowledge y, there were none who had a good their own pretensions, but were desling them before him, and not many t sit down satisfied with his decision. sentences were reversed, and when it was commonly owing to himself; mature reflection, or upon new real at the re-hearing, he saw any jult ktering his judgment, he made no scruring it; being persuaded, that it was as well as more just, to follow truth, port opinion: and his conduct in this ead of lessening, raised his reputation. ot, however, with all this great stock lge, experience, and probity, trust matters of blood, or venture to decide cases on the lives of his fellow-crea- ch was the reason that, though often could never be prevailed upon to act in the judiciary court.—In his private was as amiable as he was estimable in He was charitable without ostentation, in his friendships, and beneficent to any thing to do with him. He was etly just, but so free from avarice, that iding him more intent on the business to him by others than on his own, icriels the care of placing out his mo- o prevent his postponing, as he was uel kind of affairs, when securities of- wined the circumstances of them to be form of cases, and to procured his n his own concerns as if they had been lient. He was so true a lover of learn- much addicted to his studies, that, ding the multiplicity of his business : bar, and his great attention to his a judge, he found time to write v- es on very different and important sub- e political, which were remarkably and highly serviceable to the govern- is of a more extensive nature, such as *law, religion, and education*, which ited to George II. when prince of whose command his then secretary, Molyneux, wrote him a letter of which were many gracious expres- ll in relation to the piece as to its ap- posed, besides these, many discour- ry subjects, for the exercise of his own nd for the better discovery of truth; no farther than his own closet, and iple of modesty were not communi- o his most intimate friends.”

MR. Patrick, Lord Prestongrange, a- ent lawyer and judge in Scotland. burgh, in 1698. In 1754, he was : bench. He wrote several tracts a- bellion in 1745, and died at Edinburgh d 64.

GRANT. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. The ng or bestowing. 2. The thing grant- a boon.—

Courtiers jussle for a grant,  
they break their friendship plead their  
Dryden.

3. [In law.] A gift in writing of such a thing as cannot aptly be passed or conveyed by word only; as rents, reversions, services, advowsons in gross, commons in gross, tithes, &c. or made by such persons as cannot give but by deed, as the king, and all bodies politick; which differences be often in speech neglected, and then is taken generally for every gift whatsoever, made of any thing by any person; and he that granteth it is named the grantor, and he to whom it is made the grantee. A thing is said to be in *grant* which cannot be assigned without deed. *Cowel.*—All the land is the queen's, unless there be some *grant* of any part thereof, to be shewed from her majesty. *Spenser.*—Not only the laws of this kingdom but of other places, and the Roman laws, provide that the prince should not be deceived in his *grants*. *Davenant.* 4. Concession; admission of something in dispute.—But of this so large a *grant*, we are content not to take advantage. *Hooker.*—

This *grant* destroys all you have urg'd before.  
Dryden.

\* To GRANT. *v. a.* [from *garantir*, Fr. *Janius* and *Skinner*; perhaps, as *Minsheu* thinks, from *gratis*, or rather from *gratia*, or *gratificor*.] 1. To admit that which is not yet proved; to allow; to yield; to concede.—They gather out of Scripture general rules to be followed in making laws; and so, in effect, they plainly *grant*, that we ourselves may lawfully make laws for the church. *Hooker.*—I take it for *granted*, that though the Greek word which we translate *sanct*, be in itself as applicable to things as persons; yet in this article it signifieth not holy things, but holy ones. *Pearson.*—

*Grant* that the fates have firm'd, by their decree,  
The Trojan race to reign in Italy. *Dryden.*  
Suppose, which yet I *grant* not, thy desire  
A moment elder than my rival fire,  
Can chance of seeing first thy title prove?  
Dryden.

—If he be one indifferent as to the present rebellion, they may take it for *granted* his complaint is the rage of a disappointed man. *Addison.* 2. To bestow something which cannot be claimed of right.—The God of Israel *grant* thee thy petition that thou hast asked of him. 1 *Samuel* xvii.—Then hath God also to the gentiles *granted* repentance unto life. *Acts* xiii. 18.—

Didst thou not kill this king?  
—I grant ye.  
—Do'st grant me, hedgehog? then *grant* me too,  
Thou may'st be damned for that wicked deed.  
*Sbak.*

He heard, and *granted* half his prayer;  
The rest the winds dispers'd. *Pope.*

GRANTA, a river of England, which runs into the Cam at Cambridge.

\* GRANTABLE. *adj.* [from *grant*.] That which may be granted.—The office of the bishop's chancellor was *grantable* for life. *Ayliffe.*

\* GRANTEE. *n. s.* [from *grant*.] He to whom any grant is made.—To smooth the way for popery in Mary's time, the *grantees* were confirmed by the pope in the possession of the abby-lands. *Swift.*

**GRANTHAM**, a populous town of Lincolnshire, which has good inns of great resort, on the road, from London to York. It is supposed to have been a Roman town, from the remains of a castle formerly dug up in it. It is governed by an alderman and 12 justices of the peace, a recorder, a coroner, an escheator, and 12 common councillors. It has a fine large church with a stone spire, one of the loftiest in England; being 300 feet high; and, by a deception of the sight, it seems to lean to one side. Granttham has a good free school, where Sir Isaac Newton received his first education, besides two charity schools. It is a borough, and sends 2 members to parliament. It is seated on the Witham, 38 miles S. of Lincoln, and 110 N. of London. Lon.  $\circ$ . 36. W. Lat. 52. 59. N.

**GRANTLEY**, a town in York, SW. of Rippen.  
**\* GRANTOR**. *n. f.* [from *grant*.] He by whom any grant is made.—*A duplex querela* shall not be granted under pain of suspension of the grantor from the execution of his office. *Ayliffe*.

(1.) **GRANVILLE**, George, lord **LANSDOWNE**, was descended from a very ancient family, derived from Rollo the first duke of Normandy. At 11 years of age he was sent to Trinity college in Cambridge, where he remained 5 years; but at the age of 13 was admitted M. A. having, before he was 12, spoken a set of verses of his own composition to the duchess of York at his college, when she visited the University of Cambridge. In 1696, his comedy called *The Gallants* was acted at the theatre royal in Lincoln-inn fields, as his tragedy called *Heroic Love* was in 1638. In 1702 he translated into English the *second Olympian of Demosthenes*. He was M. P. for the county of Cornwall in 1710; afterwards secretary of war, comptroller of the household, then treasurer, and one of the privy council. In 1711; he was created baron Lansdowne. On the accession of K. George I. in 1714, he was removed from his treasurer's place; and in 1715 entered his protest against the bills for attainting lord Bolingbroke and the duke of Ormond. He entered deeply into the scheme for raising an insurrection in the W. of England; and was committed to the Tower, where he continued two years. In 1719, he made a speech in the house of Lords, against the bill to prevent occasional conformity. In 1722, he withdrew to France, and continued abroad near 10 years. At his return in 1732, he published a fine edition of his works in 2 vols quarto. He died in 1735, leaving no male issue.

(2.) **GRANVILLE**. See **GRANDVILLE**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

(3.) **GRANVILLE**, a fertile county of N. Carolina, in Hillsbury district, bounded on the SE. by Warren county, S. by Wake, SW. and W. by Orange, and N. by Virginia. It contained 6,819 citizens, and 4,163 slaves, in 1795. William-borough is the capital.

(4.) **GRANVILLE**, a town in Kentucky.

(5.) **GRANVILLE**, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county, 14 miles W. of Springfield, containing 1979 inhabitants, in 1795.

(6.) **GRANVILLE**, a township of New York, in Washington county, containing 2240 inhabitants in 1795.

(7.) **GRANVILLE**, a township of New York, in Annapolis county.

**\* GRANULARY**. *adj.* [from *granum* and compact; resembling a small grain. Small coal, with sulphur and nitre, properly mixed, tempered, and formed into granules, do make up that powder which is used in guns. *Brozon's Vulgar Errors*.

(1.) **\* To GRANULATE**. *v. n.* [from *granum*, Latin.] To be formed into grains.—The juice of grapes, inspissated with sugar, is called *granulated sugar*. *Spratt*.

(2.) **\* To GRANULATE**. *v. a.* 1. To reduce into small masses or granules. 2. To raise the asperities.—I have observed, in many cases, before its entrance into the gullet, much dilated, and thick set, or as it were, *granulated* with a multitude of glandules, each of which was provided with its excretory vessel.

**GRANULATED**, *part. pass.* that has undergone granulation. See the next article.

(1.) **\* GRANULATION**. *n. f.* [from *granulate*.] 1. The act of melting metal into cold water, so as it may congeal into small grains: It is done through a colander, or a sieve. Gunpowder and some salts are likewise granulated, from their resemblance to gunpowder. 2. The act of shooting or breaking into small masses.—Tents in wounds, by the growth of the little *granulations* of the process of time harden them, and in this manner produce a fistula. *Sharp's Surgery*.

(2.) **GRANULATION**, in chemistry, is a process by which metallic substances are reduced into small roundish particles, to facilitate their combination with other substances. This consists only in pouring the melted metal into a vessel filled with water, which mean time to be agitated with a broad melted copper, however, which is agitated with great violence on the contact of the metal. Precautions are to be observed. If the metal works at Bristol, copper is granulated with great danger of explosion, by letting it fall into a large cistern of cold water covered with a brass plate. In the middle of the plate is a small vessel, whose capacity does not exceed a spoonful, perforated with many small holes through which the copper passes. As the cold water passes through the cistern, if the metal is allowed to grow hot the copper will fall to the bottom and run into flat plates instead of granules. Lead or tin may be granulated by pouring when melted into a box; the interior of which is rubbed with powdered charcoal. The box strongly shaken till the grains become solid. Metals are granulated, because the brittleness renders them incapable of being drawn out, and because filing is long and tedious, which renders the metal impure by an admixture of iron from the file.

**\* GRANULE**. *n. f.* [from *granum*.] A small compact particle.—With an microscope, where the naked eye did not discern it, the assisted eye could discern it.

e blue, and some yellow. *Boyle on*

LOUS. *adj* [from *granule*.] Full of

a village in Kilkenny, Ireland.

W, a town of Germany in Bran-  
cken SE. of Prenslow.

APPE. *n. f.* [*grappe*, French; *krappe*,  
the fruit of the vine, growing in clus-  
t from which wine is expressed.—  
It not glean thy vineyard, neither  
th'er every *grape* of thy vineyard;  
we them for the poor and stranger.

con for thy sake

the no mention make;

action by thee fell,

at, I lov'd thee well.

*Concky.*

the vines in early flow'r desery'd,

is discolour'd on the sunny side. *Pope.*

E, the fruit of the vine. See VINE,

VINE; also CURRANT and RAISIN.

RAPE HYACINTH, or GRAPE Flow-  
lower.

E HYACINTH. See HYACINTHUS.

E, MANGROVE. } Two species of

E, SEA-SIDE. } POLYGONUM.

*n. f. plur.* in the manege, a term used  
arrests or mangy tumours that hap-  
pen's legs.

LOT, in artillery, is a combination of  
ut into a thick canvas bag, and cord-  
together, so as to form a kind of cy-  
e diameter is equal to that of the ball  
e cannon. The number of shot in a  
according to the service or size of the  
service nine is always the number;  
it is increased to any number or six,  
ce and a quarter in weight to three  
ds. In sea-service the bottoms and  
e of iron, whereas those used by land

ITONE. *n. f.* [*grape* and *stone*.] The  
contained in the grape.—

obedient nature knows his will,

rapestone, or a hair can kill *Prior.*

HICAL. *adj* [*grape*.] Well delineat-

with a needle, or bodkin, or knife;

when the fruit or trees are young;

grow, so the letters will grow more

optical. *Bacon's Natural History.*

HICALLY. *adv.* [from *graphical*] In a

manner; with good description or de-

The hyena odorata, or civet cat, is

d graphically described by Castells.

gar Errors.

METER, a mathematical instrument,

lled a Semicircle; the use of which is

by angle whose vertex is at the centre

nent in any plane (though it is most

ozonal, or nearly so), and to find

egrees it contains.

APNEL. *n. f.* [*grape*, French.] 1.

ior belonging to a little vessel. 2. A

on with which in fight one ship fastens

NELS, or GRAPPLINGS, (§ 1. def. 1.)

are fitted with 4 or 5 flukes or claws, and com-  
monly used to ride a boat or other small vessel.

\* GRAPPLE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Con-  
test hand to hand, in which the combatants seize  
each other: the wrestlers hold.—

As when earth's son, Antæus strove  
With Jove's Alcides, and, oft foil'd, still rose  
Fresh from his fall, and fiercer *grapple* join'd,  
Throttled at length in th' air, expir'd and fell.

*Milton.*

Or did his genius

Know mine the stronger demon, fear'd the *grap-  
ple*,

And, looking round him, found this nook of fate,

To skulk behind my sword? *Dryd. Don Sebast.*

2. Close fight.—In the *grapple* I boarded them:  
on the instant they got clear of our ship, so I alone  
became their prisoner. *Hamlet.* 3. Iron instru-  
ment by which one ship fastens on another.—

But Cymon soon his crooked *grapples* cast,  
Which with tenacious hold his foes embrac'd.

*Dryden.*

(1.) \* To GRAPPLE. *v. n.* [*grabbelen*, Dutch;  
*krappeln*, German] 1. To contend by seizing each  
other, as wrestlers.—They must be also practis'd  
in all the locks and gripes of wrestling, as need  
may often be in fight to tugg or *grapple*, and to  
close. *Milton.*—

Living virtue, all achievements past,

Meets envy, still to *grapple* with at last. *Waller.*

—Does he think that he can *grapple* with divine  
vengeance, and endure the everlasting burnings?  
*Soub.*—

Antæus here and stern Alcides strive,

And both the *grappling* statues seem to live. *Add.*

2. To contest in close fight.—

I'll in my standard bear the arms of York,

To *grapple* with the house of Lancaster. *Shak.*

Sometimes, from fighting squadrons of each

fleet,

Two *grappling* Ætnas on the ocean meet,

And English fires with Belgian flames contend.

*Dryden.*

(2.) To GRAPPLE. *v. a.* 1. To fasten; to fix;

to join indissolubly. Now obsolete.

*Grapple* your minds to sternage of the navy,

And leave your England as dead midnight still.

*Shakespeare's Henry V.*

That business

*Grapples* you to the heart and love of us. *Shak.*

2. To seize; to lay fast hold of.—For Hippagines,  
vessels for the transporting of horse, we are indebted  
to the Salaminians; for *grappling* hooks to A-  
nacharfis. *Hevln.*

\* GRAPPLEMENT. *n. f.* [from *grapple*.] Close

fight; hostile embrace. Not in use.—

They catching hold of him, as down he lent,

Him backward overthrew, and down him stay'd

With their rude hands and grievously *grapplement*.

*Spenser.*

(1.) GRAPPLING. See GRAPNEL, § 2.

(2.) Fire-GRAPPLING, an instrument nearly re-  
sembling the Grapnel, (See GRAPNEL, § 2.) but

differing in the construction of its flukes, which

are furnished with strong barbs on their points.

These machines are usually fixed on the yard-arms

of a ship, to grapple any adversary whom she in-  
tends

tends

tends to board. They are more particularly useful in FIRE-SHIPS for the purposes described under that article.

GRAS, Antony Le, a French writer, born in 1691. He published translations of Cornelius Nepos, and of the works of the primitive fathers, into French. He died in 1761, aged 70.

GRASHOLM, one of the small Orkney Isles, half a mile S. of Shapinshay.

(1.) \* GRASHOPPER. *n. f.* [*grafs* and *hop*.] A small insect that hops in the summer grafs. The *cicada* of the Latins is often by the poets translated *grasshopper*, but improperly.—

Her waggon spokes made of long spinners legs,

The cover of the wings of grasshoppers. *Shak.*  
—*Grasshoppers* eat up the green of whole countries. *Bacon.*—

Where silver lakes with verdant shadows crown'd,

Disperse a grateful chilness all around ;  
The *grasshopper* avoids th' untainted air,  
Nor in the midst of Summer ventures there. *Addison.*

—The women were of such an enormous stature, that we appeared as *grasshoppers* before them. *Spectator.*

(2.) GRASHOPPER, or more properly GRASSHOPPER, in entomology. See GRYLUS.

\* GRASIER. See GRAZIER.

GRASKA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Braclaw, 50 miles SW. of Braclaw.

GRASMARK, a town of Sweden, in the province of Warmeland, 42 miles N. of Carlstadt.

GRASON, an island in the gulf of Bothnia, near the coast of Sweden, 15 miles long and 2 broad. Long. 18. 20. E. Lat. 60. 22. N.

\* GRASP. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The gripe or seizure of the hand.—

Nor wanted in his *grasp*  
What seem'd both spear and shield. *Milton.*

This hand and sword have been acquainted well ;

It would have come before into my *grasp*,  
To kill the ravisher. *Dryd. Don Sebastian.*

—The left arm is a little defaced, though one may see it held something in its *grasp* formerly. *Addison.*

2. Possession ; hold.—

I would not be the villain that thou think'st  
For the whole space that's in the tyrant's *grasp*,  
And the rich East to boot. *Shak. Macbeth.*

3. Power of seizing.—

Within the direful *grasp*  
Of savage hunger, or of savage heat. *Milton.*

—They look'd upon it as their own, and had it even within their *grasp*. *Clarendon.*

(1.) \* To GRASP. *v. a.* [*graspare*, Italian.] 1. To hold in the hand ; to gripe.—O fool that I am, that thought I could *grasp* water and bind the wind. *Sidney.*—

In his right hand

*Grasping* ten thousand thunders which he sent  
Before him, such as in their souls infix'd  
Plagues. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

Kings, by *grasping* more than they can hold,  
First made their subjects, by oppression, bold.

*Denham.*

Doom, as they please, my empire no  
I'll *grasp* my sceptre with my dying  
*Dryd. Indian*

2. To seize ; to catch at.—This *grasp* militia of the kingdom into their own I desired the Summer before. *Clarendon.*

For what are men who *grasp* at praise  
But bubbles on the rapid stream of

(2.) \* To GRASP. *v. n.* 1. To endeavour to seize ; to try at.—So endorbitant are the desires of men, that *grasp* at all, and can form no scheme happiness with less. *Swift.* 2. To strive ; to grapple. Not now in use.—

See, his face is black, and full of  
His hands abroad display'd, as one  
And tugg'd for life. *Shak.*

3. To gripe ; to encroach.—

Like a miser 'midst his  
Who *grasps* and *grasps* 'till he can ho

\* GRASPER. *n. f.* [from *grasp*.] grasps, seizes, or catches at.

(1.) \* GRASS. *n. f.* [*grax*, Saxon.] common herbage of the field on which cattle herb with long narrow leaves.—Ye are as the heifer at *grass*, and bellow as he

11.—The beef being young, and one was thin, light, and moist, and not of to endure the salt. *Temple.*—

You'll be no more your former  
But for a blooming nymph will pass  
Just fifteen, coming Summer's *grass*

(II.) GRASS, in botany, is defined to having simple leaves, a stem generally tubular, a husky calyx, called *GLUM* seed single. Hence wheat, oats, barley properly grasses, while clover and similar plants are not grasses, though so called by that name. Of *grass* the leaf for cattle, the small seeds for birds, and grain chiefly for man. And it is observed nature has so provided, that cattle (seldom eat the flower intended to procure unless compelled by hunger. For the the different sorts of grain and grasses, BANDRY, and the names of the genera der.

(III.) GRASSES, CULMIFEROUS, divided into two general classes for the purpose farmer, that it might be of use for him to, viz. 1st, Those which, like the common kinds of corn, run chiefly to seed leaves gradually decaying as these towards perfection, and becoming total or falling off entirely when the seed Rye-grass belongs to this class in the first To it likewise may be assigned the v dogs-tail grass, and fine bent grass. 2

whose leaves continue to advance even seed-stalks are formed, and retain their and succulence during the whole season case with the fescue and poa tribes whose leaves are as green and succulent seeds are ripe and the flower-stalks for any other time. "It is wonderful,"

der.

der.

der.

der.

der.

der.

der.

der.

der.





GRASSES.

Plate C

*Mountain Hair Grass.*

*Meadow Fox Tail Grass.*

*Floes Fesae Grass.*

*Annual Meadow Grass.*

*Fine Root*

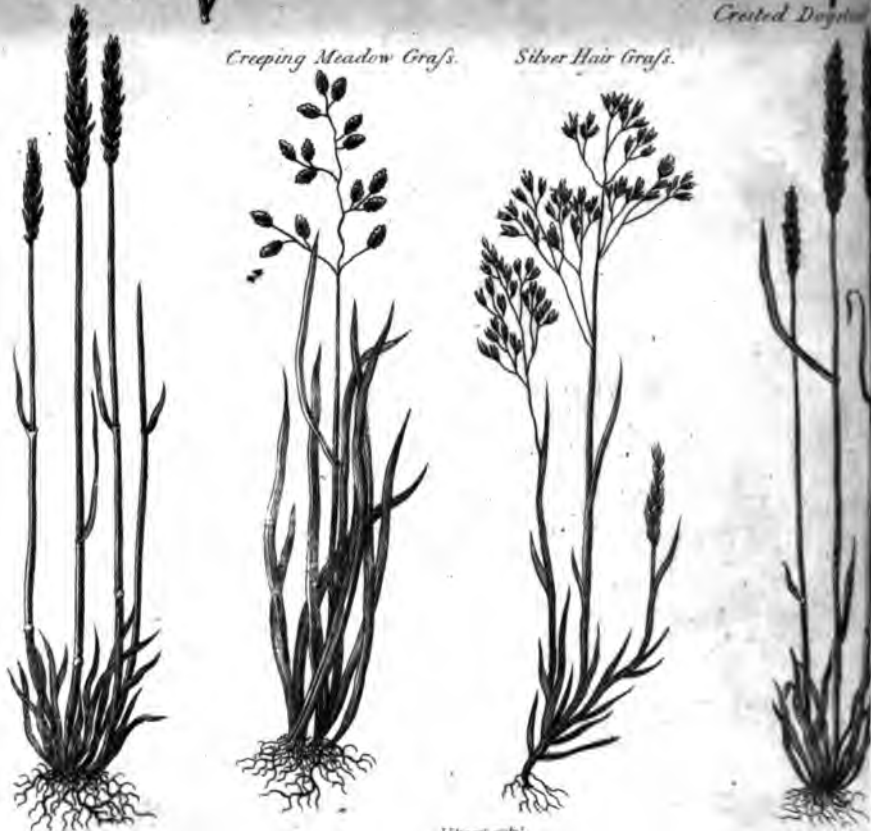


*Vernal Grass.*

*Crested Dogtail*

*Creeping Meadow Grass.*

*Silver Hair Grass.*





rks, to see how long mankind has ne-  
 make a proper advantage of plants of  
 ortance, and which, in almost every  
 e the chief food of cattle. The farmer,  
 of distinguishing and selecting grasses  
 kills his pastures either with weeds, or  
 proper grasses; when by making a right  
 ter some trials, he might be sure of the  
 and in the greatest abundance that his  
 s of. At present, if a farmer wants to  
 his land to grass, what does he do? He  
 es his seeds indiscriminately from his  
 ay-rick, or sends to his next neighbour  
 ly. By these means, besides a certain  
 all sorts of rubbish, which must neces-  
 sarily, if he chances to have a large pro-  
 portion of good seeds, it is not unlikely but that  
 weeds for dry land may come from moist,  
 grow naturally, and the contrary. This  
 lovely method of proceeding, as one  
 man could not possibly prevail univ-  
 ersally: he is as safe to all grasses except the darnel  
 which is known in some few counties by  
 the name of *Suffolk grass*; and this latter in-  
 deed, I believe, more to the soil than  
 to the husbandman. Now, would the  
 pains of separating once in his  
 sowing, or a pint of the different kinds of  
 seeds, and take care to sow them separately,  
 at the time he would have wherewithal to  
 run properly, according to the nature  
 and might at the same time spread  
 separately over the nation, by supply-  
 ing shops. The number of grasses fit for  
 use, I believe, small; perhaps half a do-  
 zenscore are all he need to cultivate;  
 and all the trouble would be of such a talk,  
 that the benefit, must be obvious to every  
 man's sight. Would not any one be  
 as wild who should sow wheat, barley,  
 pease, beans, vetches, buck-wheat,  
 and weeds of all sorts together? yet how  
 absurd to do what is equivalent in  
 grasses? Does it not import the farmer  
 to have hay and grass in plenty? and will  
 he be equally on all sorts of food? We  
 contrary. Horses will scarcely eat hay  
 so well enough for oxen and cows.  
 Linnæus, are particularly fond of one  
 grass, and fatten upon it faster than any  
 other. And may they not do the  
 same? How shall we know till we have  
 made trials relating to *Nat. Hist.* As most  
 men know scarce any of the grasses by name,  
 without such knowledge little improve-  
 ment made in this branch of husbandry,  
 Plate CLXIX. given figures of those  
 which have been recommended as the most  
 useful.

1. ANNUAL MEADOW, *Poa annua*.  
 Linnæus (says Mr Stillingfleet) makes the  
 grass grow every where by way sides,  
 and found common. It is called in some  
 parts of *Suffolk grass*. I have seen whole fields  
 of it in *Suffolk*, without any mixture of o-  
 ther; and, as some of the best salt butter  
 of *London* comes from that county, it  
 is thought to be the best grass for the dairy. I

PART II.

have seen a whole park in *Suffolk* covered with  
 this grass; but whether it affords good venison, I  
 cannot tell, having never tasted of any from it.  
 I should rather think not, and that the best pas-  
 ture for sheep is also the best for deer. However,  
 this wants trial. I remarked on *Malvern hill*  
 something particular in relation to this grass. A  
 walk that was made there, for the convenience of  
 the water-drinkers, in less than a year was cover-  
 ed in many places with it, though I could not  
 find one single plant of it besides in any part of  
 the hill. This was no doubt owing to the fre-  
 quent treading, which above all things makes this  
 grass flourish; and therefore it is evident that roll-  
 ing must be very serviceable to it. It has been  
 objected, that this grass is not free from bents,  
 by which word is meant the flowering stems. I  
 answer, that this is most certainly true, and that  
 there is no grass without them. But the flowers  
 and stems do not grow so soon brown as those of  
 other grasses; and being much shorter, they do not  
 cover the radical leaves so much; and therefore  
 this grass affords a more agreeable turf without  
 mowing, than any other whatever that I know of."  
 The seeds of this species drop off before they are  
 dry, and, to appearance, before they are ripe. The  
 utmost care is therefore necessary in gathering the  
 blades, without which, very few of the seeds will  
 be saved. It ripens from the middle of April, to  
 so late, it is believed, as the end of October; but  
 mostly disappears in the middle of the summer.  
 It grows in any soil and situation, but rather af-  
 fects the shade."

2. GRASS, BULBOUS FOXTAIL, *Alopecurus bul-  
 bosus*, is recommended by Dr Anderson, in his  
*Essay on Agriculture*, &c. as promising on some  
 occasions to afford a valuable pasture grass. It  
 seems chiefly, he observes, to delight in a moist  
 soil, and therefore promises to be only fit for a  
 meadow pasture grass. The quality, that first re-  
 commended it to his notice, was the unusual firm-  
 ness that its matted roots gave to the surface of  
 the ground, naturally soft and moist, in which  
 it grew; which seemed to promise that it might  
 be of use upon such soils, chiefly in preventing  
 them from being much poached by the feet of  
 cattle which might pasture upon them. Moist  
 soils especially are so much hurt by poaching, that  
 any thing that promises to be of use in preventing  
 it deserves to be attended to.

3. GRASS, COCK'S TAIL, OR FEATHER, *Stipa  
 pennata*. See STIPA.

4. GRASS, CREEPING MEADOW, *Poa compressa*,  
 according to Dr Anderson, seems to be the  
 most valuable grass of any of this genus. Its  
 leaves are firm and succulent, of a dark Saxou  
 green colour, and grow so close upon one an-  
 other, as to form the richest pile of pasture grass.  
 The flower stalks, if suffered to grow, appear in  
 sufficient quantities; but the growth of these does  
 not prevent the growth of the leaves, both advan-  
 cing together during the whole summer; and  
 when the stalks fade, the leaves continue as green  
 as before. Its leaves are much larger and more  
 abundant than the common meadow grass, *poa  
 trivialis*; and therefore it better deserves to be  
 cultivated.

5. GRASS,

5. GRASS, CREEPING SOFT, *Holcus lanatus*. See HOLCUS.

6. GRASS, CRESTED DOG'S-TAIL, *Cynofurus cristatus*. Mr Stillingfleet imagines this grass to be proper for parks, from his having known one, where it abounds, that is famous for excellent venison. He recommends it also, from experience, as good for sheep; the best mutton he ever tasted, next to that which comes from hills where the purple and sheep's fescue, the fine bent, and the silver hair grasses abound, having been from sheep fed with it. He adds, that it makes a very fine turf upon dry sandy or chalky soils; but unless swept over with the scyth, its flowering stems will look brown; which is the case of all grasses which are not fed on by variety of animals. For that some animals will eat the flowering stems is evident by commons, where scarcely any parts of grasses appear but the radical leaves. This grass is said to be the easiest of the whole group to collect a quantity of seeds from. It flowers in June, and is ripe in July.

7. GRASS, FINE BENT, *Agrostis canicularis*, is recommended by Mr Stillingfleet, from his having always found it in great plenty on the best sheep pastures, in the different counties of England that are remarkable for good mutton. This grass flowers and ripens its seed the latest of them all. It seems to be lost the former part of the year, but vegetates luxuriantly towards the autumn. It appears to be fond of moist ground. It retains its seed till full ripe; flowers the latter end of July, and is ripe the latter end of August. The same may be said of the MOUNTAIN and SILVER HAIR GRASSES.

8. GRASS, FLOTE, or FLOATING FESCUE, *Festuca fluitans*. See FESTUCA, N° 2. It is surprising that the seeds of this plant, which are used as nutritious food in Sweden, Germany, &c. have hitherto been neglected in Britain, as they are so easily collected and cleaned. There is a clamminess on the ear of the flote fescue, when the seeds are ripe, that tastes like honey; and for this reason perhaps they are called *manna seeds*. Linnæus, in his *Flora Suevica*, (art. 95.) says, that the bran of this grass will cure horses troubled with botts, if kept from drinking for some hours. Concerning this grass we have the following information by Mr Stillingfleet. "Mr Dean, a very sensible farmer at Rulcomb, Berkshire, assured me that a field, always lying under water, of about 4 acres, was covered with a kind of grass, that maintained 5 farm horses in good heart from April to the end of harvest, without giving them any other kind of food, and that it yielded more than they could eat. He, at my desire, brought me some of the grass, which proved to be the flote fescue with a mixture of the marsh bent; whether this last contributes much towards furnishing so good pasture for horses, I cannot say. They both throw out roots at the joints of the stalks, and therefore are likely to grow to a great length. In the index of dubious plants at the end of Ray's Synopsis, there is mention made of a grass under the name of *gramen caninum supinum longissimum*, growing not far from Salisbury, 24 feet long. This must by its length be a grass with a creeping stalk; and that there is a grass in Wiltshire growing in wa-

tery meadows, so valuable, that an acre from 10l. to 12l., I have been informed by persons. These circumstances incline me it must be the flote fescue; but whatever be, it certainly must deserve to be inquired.

9. GRASS, GREAT MEADOW, *Poa* seems to approach in many respects to that of the purple fescue; only that its leaves are, and not near so long; being only about 10 or 16 inches at their greatest length. It produces few seed stalks and many leaves, an abiding plant. It affects chiefly the drier of meadows, though it is to be found in good pastures. It is very retentive of its greenness, and may therefore be suffered to remain till its stalks are quite dry. It blossoms in the latter end of June, and its seeds are ripe in July.

10. GRASS, MEADOW FOXTAIL, *Setaria pratensis*. Linnæus says, this is a proper sown on grounds that have been drained. Mr Stillingfleet was informed, that the best that comes to London is from the meadows where this grass abounds. It is scarce in many parts of land, particularly Herefordshire, Berkshire, and Norfolk. It might be gathered at almost any time of the year from hay ricks, as it does not shed its seeds without rubbing, which is the case with few grasses. It is amongst the most grateful to cattle. It is ripe about the end of July.

11. GRASS, MOUNTAIN HAIR, *Aira*. See N° 7. and AIRA.

12. GRASS, NEW AMERICAN. A grass from America, named *Agrostis esurans*, some time ago much advertised and extolled, possessing the most wonderful qualities, seeds of it were sold at the enormous rate of 10s. the bushel. But we have not heard that it has answered expectation. On the contrary, Mr Anderson in his *Bee*, (Vol. i. p. 38.) says, "it has upon trial been found to be good for nothing. Of the seeds sown, few of them germinated: but enow of plants made their appearance, to ascertain, that the grass, in its quality, is among the poorest of the tribe. That it is an annual plant, and altogether unfitable to the farmer."

13. GRASS, PURPLE FESCUE, *Festuca*. See FESTUCA, N° 3.

14. GRASS, RYE, *Hordeum murinum*. This is properly the SECALE VILLOSUM. The darnel, *Lolium perenne*, is also, in some parts of England, improperly called *rye grass*.

15. GRASS, SILVER HAIR, *Aira*. See N° 7. and AIRA.

16. GRASS, SHEEP'S FESCUE, *Festuca*. See FESTUCA, N° 2. This is perhaps the most valuable grass of all. It is observed to thrive in lands of all qualities and in all parts of meadows. It does not part with its greenness till some time after they are ripe, and is very dry. It makes the thickest and closest sward of them, and sends up but few flower stalks in proportion to its leaves. It flowers in the latter end of July.

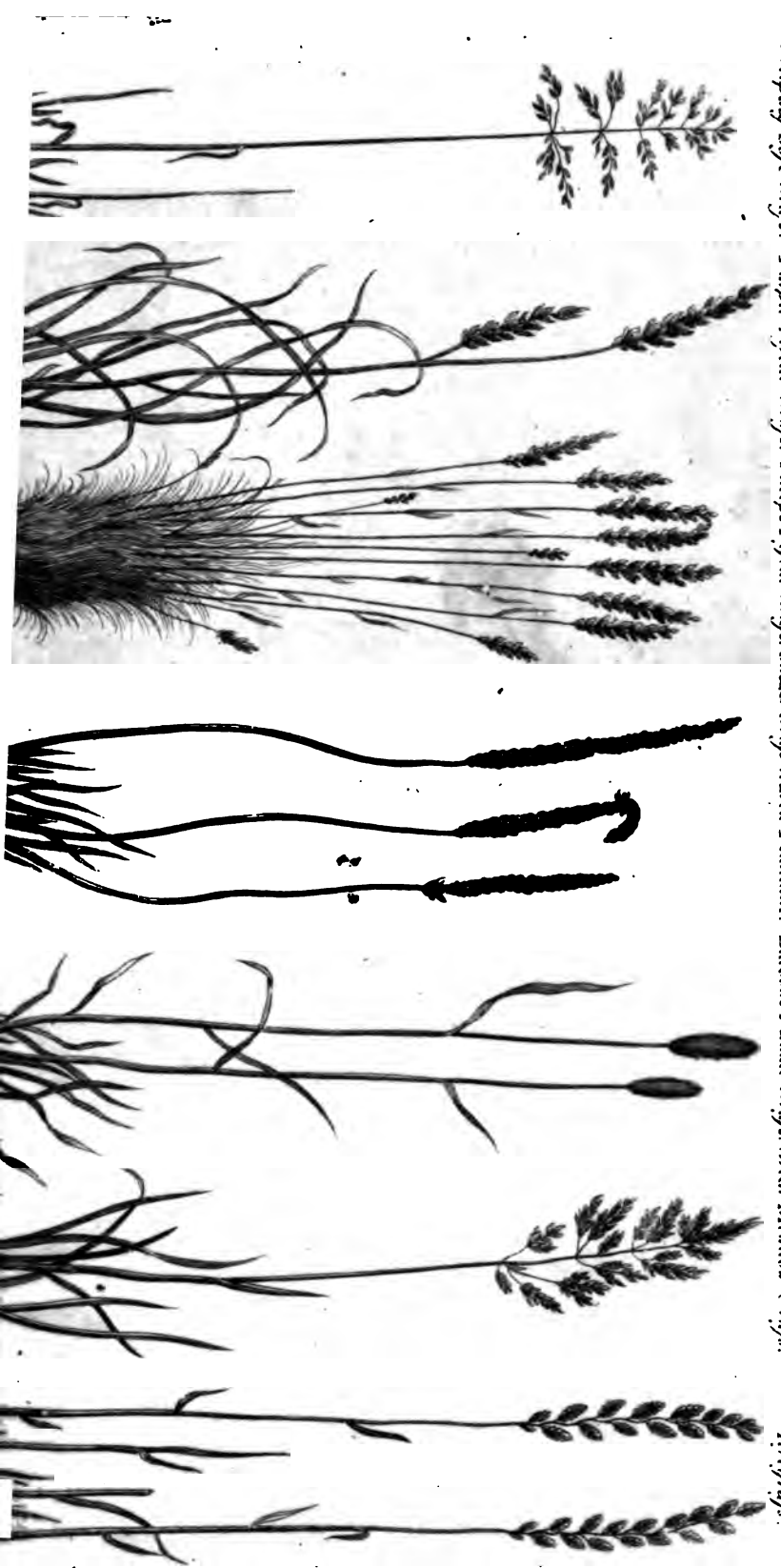
17. GRASS, VERNAL, *Antioxanthum*. This grows very commonly on dry hills, and on sound rich meadow land. It is one

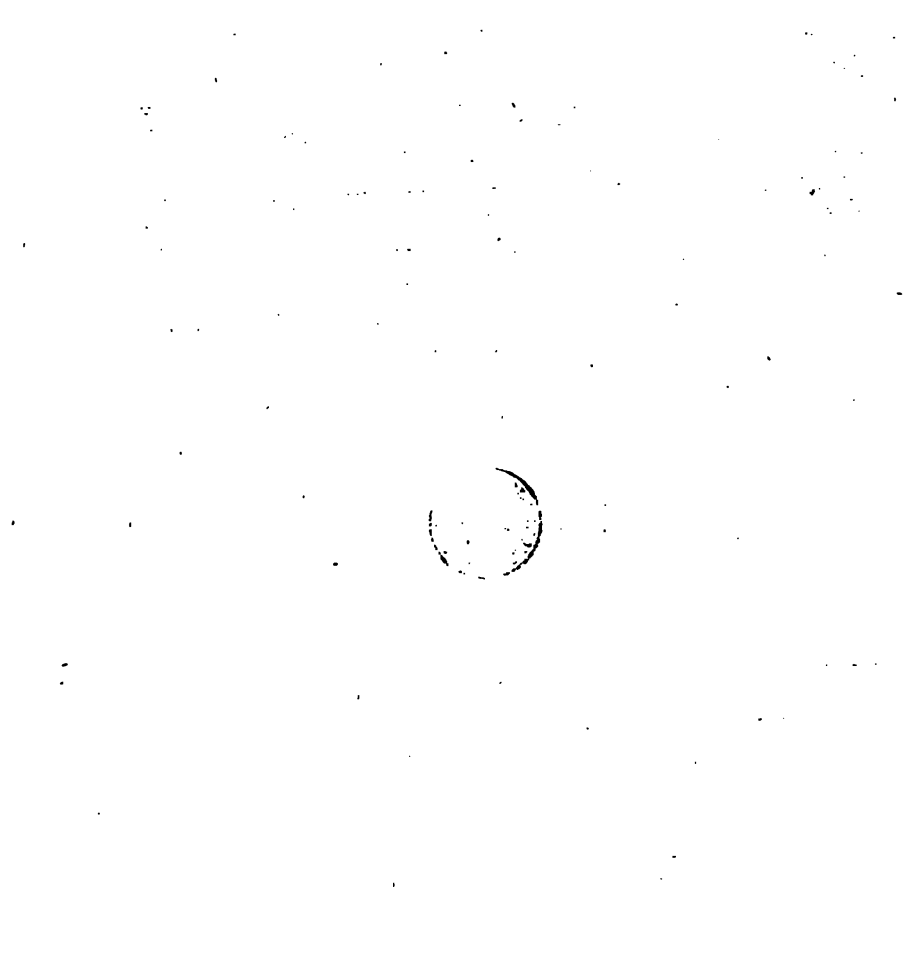
GRASSES.

Plate CLXX

*Creeping Soft Grass.* *Purple Ryegrass.* *Sheeps Fescue.* *Small Creeping leaved Plantain.* *Bulbous fascial Grass.* *Great Meadow Grass.*

*Ryegrass.*





as we have; and from its being found on  
of pastures as sheep are food of, and  
nce excellent mutton comes, it is most  
e a good grass for sheep pastures. It  
teful odour to hay. In one respect, it  
y to gather, as it sheds its seeds upon  
ubbing. A correspondent of the Bath  
owever, mentions a difficulty that oc-  
illecting them, owing to its being sur-  
with taller grasses at the time of its ripen-  
eing almost hid among them. If it be  
ilily watched when nearly ripe, he ob-  
d gathered within a few days after it  
maturity, great part of the seed will be  
twisted elastic awns, which adhere to  
list them out of their receptacles with  
motion from the wind, even while the  
ear remain quite erect. It is found  
the moist parts of meadows; very little  
y pastures. It flowers about the begin-  
y, and is ripe about the middle of June.

\* GRASS OF PARNASSUS. *n. f.* [*par-*  
*in.*] A plant.—This plant is called *par-*  
*mount Parnassus*, where it was sup-  
row; and because the cattle feed on it,  
l the name of grass, though the plant  
emblance to the grass kind. *Miller.*

ASS OF PARNASSUS. See PARNASSIA.  
LASS, ORCHESTON. See ORCHESTON.  
GRASS VETCH. See LATYHRUS.

GRASS WALKS are made, for the most  
by sowing grass seeds, but by laying  
l indeed the turfs from a fine common  
re much preferable to sown grass; but  
r plats are to be made by sowing, the  
to procure the seed from those pastures  
e is naturally fine and clear; or else  
e of keeping it from spiry or benty grass  
ry great, and it will scarce ever look  
—To sow grass walks, the ground must  
ig; and when it has been dressed and  
it must be carefully raked over, and all  
nd stones taken off, and then covered  
ch thick with good mould. The seed  
wn pretty thick, that it may come up  
short; it must then be raked over again,  
he seed, that if the weather should be  
may not be blown away. Where grass  
gardens, either for lawns or walks,  
ld always be a good quantity of the  
oil or Dutch clover sown with it; for  
ake a fine turf much sooner than any o-  
grass, and will retain a better verdure  
ther of the grass tribe. To keep grass  
home, and in good order, sow in au-  
seed over any places that are not well  
where the grass is dead; but nothing  
grass so much as mowing and constant  
When turf is laid in gardens, it is a ge-  
ice to cover the surface of the ground  
turf, either with sand or very poor earth,  
keep the grass fine, by preventing its  
o rank. This is proper for very rich  
ut not for middling, or poor land; for  
is practised in such places, the grass  
wear out and decay in patches. When  
from a common or down, such ought  
as is free from weeds: and when it

is designed to remain for years without renew-  
ings, a dressing should be laid upon it every other  
year, either of very rotten Jung, athe-, or, where  
it can easily be procured, rotten tan; but these  
dressings should be laid on early in the winter, that  
the rain may wash them into the ground, other-  
wise they occasion the grass to burn, when the  
warmth of the summer begins. When grass is thus  
dressed and well rolled and mowed, it may be kept  
very beautiful for many years; but where it is not  
dressed, or fed with sheep, it will rarely continue  
handsome more than eight or ten years.

(VIII.) GRASS WRACK. See ZOSTERA.

\* To GRASS. *v. n.* [from the noun.] To breed  
grass; to become pasture.—

Land arable, driven, or worn to the proof,  
With oats ye may sow it, the sooner to grass,  
More soon to be pasture, to bring it to pass.

*Tupper.*

(1.) GRASSE, a town of France, in the dept.  
of Aude, and late province of Languedoc, seated  
on the Orbieu, at the foot of Mount Courbiere;  
14 miles SE. of Carcassone, and 18 SW. of Nar-  
bonne.

(2.) GRASSE, a town of France, in the dept.  
of Var, and ci-devant province of Provence. It  
is seated on a hill, 15 miles WSW. of Nice, and  
9 WNW. of Antibes. Lon. 6. 56. E. Lat. 43. 42. N.

GRASSELLA, a town of France, in the dept.  
of Aude, 21 miles SW. of Narbonne, and 24  
NNW. of Perpignan. Lon. 20. 17. E. of Ferro.  
Lat. 43. 5. N.

GRASSENA, a town of the Piedmontese re-  
public, in the dep. of Sesia, and late duchy of A-  
osta; 18 miles E. of Aosta.

GRASSETORTH, a town of Austria.

GRASSHOPPER. See GRYLUS

\* GRASSINESS. *n. f.* [from *grassy*.] The state  
of abounding in grass.

(1.) GRASSMERE, a lofty mountain of Cum-  
berland, near Buttermere.

(2.) GRASSMERE, a village of Northumberland,  
between Kendal and Newick, seated on a pro-  
montory, that projects far into the lake N<sup>o</sup> 3.

(3.) GRASSMERE WATER, a beautiful lake in  
Westmoreland, near Ambleside and Rydal. Its  
banks are formed into small bays, by bold pro-  
jecting eminences, some of rock and some of turf.

\* GRASS-PLOT. *n. f.* [*grass* and *plot*.] A small  
level covered with short grass.—

Here on this *grass-plot* in this very place,  
Come and sport. *Shak. Tempest.*

—The part of your garden next your house should  
be a parterre for flowers, or *grass-plots* bordered  
with flowers. *Temple.*—They are much valued by  
our modern planters to adorn their walks and  
*grass-plots*. *Mortimer.*

\* GRASS-POLY. *n. f.* A species of WILLOW-  
WORT.

\* GRASSY. *adj.* [from *grass*.] Covered with  
grass; abounding with grass.—

Ne did he leave the mountains bare unseem,  
Nor the rank *grassy* fens delights untry'd. *Spens.*  
Kais'd of *grassy* turf

Their table was, and mossy seats had round.

*Milton.*

The most in fields, like herded beasts, lie down.  
To dews obnoxious, on the *grassy* floor. *Dryd.*

GRASWINCKEL, a learned Dutch civilian, born at Delft, in 1600. He was a man of taste, and published several works, wherein he distinguished himself in the belles lettres, as well as in law. He died at Mechlin, in 1666.

GRATAROLUS, William, a learned physician of the 16th century, born at Bergamo in Italy. He taught medicine with reputation at Padua, but having embraced the Protestant religion, he retired to Switzerland, where he was made professor of physic. He died at Basil in 1568, aged 52. He wrote several curious works in Latin; amongst which are, 1. The manner of preserving and improving the memory. 2. Of preserving in health travellers, men of letters, magistrates, and studious persons, &c.

GRATCHI, a town of Russia, in the country of the Cossacs, 20 miles NW. of Tzaritzin.

(1.) \* GRATE. *n. f.* [*crates*, Lat.] 1. A partition made with bars placed near to one another, or crossing each other: such as in cloysters or prisons.—I have grated upon my friends for three reprieves for you, and your couch fellow Nim: or else you had looked through the *grates*, like a geminy of baboons. *Shak.*—

Out at a little *grate* his eyes he cast  
Upon those bord'ring hills, and open plain.

*Daniel.*

—A fan has on it a nunnery of lively black eyed vestals, who are endeavouring to creep out at the *grates*. *Addison.* 2. The range of bars within which fires are made.—My dear is of opinion that an old fashioned *grate* consumes coals, but gives no heat. *SpeBator.*

(2.) GRATES FOR FIRES. (§ 1. *def.* 2.) are composed of ribs of iron placed at small distances from one another, so that the air may have sufficient access to the fuel, and the accumulation of the ashes, which would choke the fire, may be prevented. Grates seem peculiarly adapted to the use of pit coal, which requires a greater quantity of air to make it burn freely than other kinds of fuel. The hearths of the Britons seem to have been fixed in the centre of their halls, as is yet practised in some parts of Scotland, where the fire is nearly in the middle of the house, and the family sit all around it. Their fire place was perhaps nothing more than a large stone, depressed a little below the level of the ground, and thereby adapted to receive the ashes. About a century ago, it was only the floor of the room, with the addition of a bank of clay. But it was now changed among the gentlemen for a portable fire-pan, raised upon low supporters, and fitted with a circular grating of bars. Such were in use among the Gauls in the first century, and among the Welsh in the tenth.

(1.) \* To GRATE. *v. a.* [*gratter*, Fr.] 1. To rub or wear any thing by the attrition of a rough body.—

Thereat the fiend his gnashing teeth did *grate*.  
*Spenser.*

Blind oblivion swallow'd cities up,  
And mighty states characterlets are *grated*  
To dusty nothing. *Shak Troilus and Cressida.*  
—If the particles of the putty were not made to stick fast in the pitch, they would, by rolling up and down, *grate* and fret the object metal, and

fill it full of little holes. *Newton's Optick.*  
—offend by any thing harsh or vexatious.—

Thereat enraged, soon he gan uplift  
Grinding his teeth, and *grating* his gn

—They have been partial in the gospel and chosen out those softer and more *grates*, which would less *grate* and disturb the *Decay of Piety.*—

Just resentment and hard usage cost  
Th' unwilling word and *grating* as it  
Take it, for 'tis thy due. *Dryden's*

—This habit of writing and discouraging I unfortunately differ from almost the wisdom, and am apt to *grate* the ears of whom I could wish, was acquired during my apprenticeship in London. *Swift.* 3. To form a collision of asperities or hard bodies.—

The *grating* shock of wrathful iron  
*Shak. A*

On a sudden open fly,  
With impetuous recoil and jarring in  
Th' infernal doors, and on their hinges  
Harsh thunder, that the lowest bottom  
Of Erebus. *Milton's Par*

(1.) \* To GRATE. *v. n.* 1. To try as to injure or offend; to offend, as by flattery or importunity.—

Wherein have you been galled by  
What peer hath been suborn'd to *grate*  
That you should seal this lawless blood  
Of forg'd rebellion with a seal divine.

—I have *grated* upon my good friends for reprieves for you, or else you had looked through the *grates*. *Shak.*—Paradoxing is of great use, the faculty must be so tenderly managed as to *grate* upon the truth and reason.

*L'Esrange.*—This *grated* harder upon the ears of men. *South.*—I never heard him make any complaint, in a case that would have *grated* on some men's patience, and have filled them with discontent. *Lacke.* 2. To make a surface as that of a rough body drawn over another, are not so nice as to cast away a sharp edge, because the edge of it may sometimes *grate*.

\* GRATEFUL. *adj.* [*gratus*, Lat.] Having a due sense of benefits; willing to acknowledge and to repay benefits.—

A *grateful* mind  
By owing owes not, but still pays.

—When some degree of health was given, he exerted all his strength in a return of gratitude to the author of it. *Fell.*—

Years of service past,  
From *grateful* souls exact reward at last.

2. Pleasing; acceptable; delightful; and whatsoever is ingrate at first, is made so by custom; but whatsoever is too pleasing grows quickly to satiety. *Bacon's Nat*

—A man will endure the pain of hunger and thirst, and refuse such meats and drinks which are *grateful* to his appetite, if he be persuaded that they will endanger his health. *Wilkins.*—

is the more *grateful* to strangers, in refusing to be a frontier town, and bordering upon several nations, many languages are understood. *Brown's Travels.*—

golden fruits on loaded branches shine,  
*grateful* clusters swell with floods of wine.

*Pope.*

**GRATEFULLY.** *adv.* [from *grateful*.] 1. Ignis to acknowledge and repay benedue sense of obligation.—

2. new wak'd, thus *gratefully* reply'd.

*Milton.*

gh remains for household charge beside,  
 and tender children to sustain,  
*gratefully* to feed his dumb deserving train.

*Dryden's Virgil.*

prus long by men and gods obey'd,  
 era toil she *gratefully* repaid. *Granville.*  
 aising manner.—Study detains the mind  
 etual occurrence of something new,  
 gratefully strike the imagination. *Watts.*

**GRATEFULNESS.** *n. f.* [from *grateful*.]  
 ide; duty to benefactors. Now oblo-  
 aconian knight having sometime served  
 more *gratefulness* than good courage de-  
 n. *Sidney.*—

ngs beforehand, ties of *gratefulness*,  
 ind of glory ringing in our ears. *Herbert.*  
 of being acceptable; pleasantness.

**GLEY,** a town of England, in Hamp-  
 the SE. side of Quarley-hill, between  
 and Salisbury, where, in 926, king A-  
 eld a grand council of the nobles.

**GRATER.** *n. f.* [*gratoir*, Fr. from *grate*.]  
 coarse file with which soft bodies are  
 powder.—

ler handed touch a nettle,  
 stings you for your pains,  
 p it like a man of mettle,  
 soft as silk remains.

is with common natures,

hem gently they rebel,  
 be rough as nutmeg graters,  
 e rogues obey you well.

*A. Hill.*

**GRATES,** a cape on the E. of Newfoundland.

**GRATIAN,** the son of Valentinian I. by  
 wife, was associated in the empire by his  
 Amiens in 365, and succeeded him in  
 rince equally extolled for his wit, elo-  
 modesty, chastity, and zeal against here-  
 associated Theodosius with him in the em-  
 advanced the poet Ausonius to the confu-  
 : made a great slaughter of the Germans  
 urg. (See ARGENTORA,) and hence was  
 l *Alemannicus*. He was the first emperor  
 sed the title of *Pontifex Maximus*, on ac-  
 its being a Pagan dignity. He was assas-  
 y Andragathius in 375, in the 24th year  
 c.

**GRATIAN,** a British soldier in the Roman  
 ho was crowned emperor by the legions  
 1, about A. D. 407, but was murdered  
 within 4 months. See ENGLAND, § 12.

**GRATIAN,** a famous Benedictine monk, in  
 century, born at Chiufi. He was em-  
 cer 24 years in composing a work, entit-  
 rum, or *Concordantia Discordantium Ca-*  
 ecuse he there endeavoured to reconcile  
 ns which seemed contradictory to each o-  
 his work was published in 1151. As he  
 tly mistaken, in taking one canon of one  
 or one passage of one father, for another,

and has often cited false decretals, several authors  
 have endeavoured to correct his faults; and chiefly  
 Anthony Augustine, in his excellent work, intit-  
 led, *De emendatione Gratiani*. To the decretals  
 of Gratian, the popes principally owed the great  
 authority they exercised in the 13th and following  
 centuries.

**GRATIANI,** Jerome, an Italian dramatic writ-  
 ter of the 16th century, who, among other pieces,  
 wrote a tragedy, called *Cromwell*, which was  
 much esteemed.

\* **GRATIFICATION.** *n. f.* [*gratificatio*, Lat.]  
 1. The act of pleasing.—They are incapable of  
 any design above the present *gratification* of their  
 palates. *South.* 2. Pleasure; delight.—How hard-  
 ly is his will brought to change all its desires and  
 aversions, and to renounce those *gratifications* in  
 which he has been long uied to place his happiness.  
*Rogers.* 3. Reward; recompence. A low word.

\* **To GRATIFY.** *v. a.* [*gratificor*, Latin.] 1.  
 To indulge; to grant by compliance.—

You steer between the country and the court,  
 Nor *gratify* whate'er the great desire,  
 Nor grudging give what publick needs require.

*Dryden.*

2. To delight; to please; to humour; to soothe.—

But pride stood ready to prevent the blow;

For who would die to *gratify* : foe? *Dryd. Fab.*

The captive generals to his car are ty'd;

The joyful citizens tumultuous tide

Echoing his glory, *gratify* his pride. *Prior.* }

—A palled appetite is humorous, and must be

*gratified* with sauces rather than food. *Tatler.*—

At once they *gratify* their scent and taste.

While frequent cups prolong the rich repast.

*Pope.*

A thousand little impertinencies are very *grati-*  
*fy*ing to curiosity, though not improving to the  
 understanding. *Addison.*—3. To requite with a  
 gratification: as, I'll *gratify* you for this trouble.

\* **GRATINGLY.** *adv.* [from *grate*.] Harshly;  
 offensively.

**GRATINGS,** in a ship, are small edges of sawed  
 plank, framed one into another like a lattice or  
 prison grate, lying on the upper deck, between  
 the main mast and fore-mast, serving for a defence  
 in a close fight, and also for the coolness, light,  
 and conveniency of the ship's company.

**GRATIOLA,** HEDGE HYSSOP: A genus of the  
 monogynia order, belonging to the diandria class  
 of plants; and ranking according to the natural  
 method in the 40th order, *Personate*. The corolla  
 is irregular; there are two barren stamina; the  
 capsule is bilocular; the calyx has seven leaves,  
 with the two exterior ones patulous. There are  
 four species; the most remarkable of which is the

**GRATIOLA OFFICINALIS,** the common hedge  
 hyssop, grows naturally on the Alps and other  
 mountainous parts of Europe. It has a thick,  
 fleshy, fibrous, creeping root, which propagates  
 very much, when planted in a proper soil and si-  
 tuation. From this arise several upright square  
 stalks, garnished with narrow spear-shaped leaves,  
 placed opposite. The flowers are produced on  
 the side of the stalks at each joint: they are shaped  
 like those of the fox-glove, but are small, and of  
 a pale yellowish colour.—This herb has an emetic  
 and purgative virtue; to answer which intentions,



it was formerly used by the common people in England; but was never much prescribed by the physicians, and at last fell totally into disuse. It is the subject of a dissertation by Dr James Kofrzewski of Warsaw, in Poland; who gives some remarkable accounts of its effects in mania and obstinate venereal cases. It was given in powder, or in extract, to the quantity of half a drachm of the first, and a whole drachm of the second, at each dose. From the cases he relates the author draws the following conclusions: 1. The gratiola may be given with safety both to male and female patients. 2. In all disorders proceeding from a superabundance of serum in the fluids, it appears to be a most effectual remedy. 3. In consequence of this, it is had recourse to with very great advantage in melancholy and mania arising from that state of the system. 4. It powerfully promotes purging, vomiting, sweat, and urine; and is therefore much superior to any of the usual evacuating medicines, most of which prove only active in promoting one of these discharges at once. 5. The most obstinate cases of gonorrhœa, fluor albus, and venereal ulcers, are cured by the powder.—In some instances it has induced salivation; but whether it can always be made to produce that effect, is not yet altogether certain. 6. The powder prepared from the extract, and exhibited with sugar, does not induce vomiting; and, on the contrary, the powder of the root always promotes that evacuation.

(1.) GRATIOSA, one of the AZORES. See GRACIOSA. It is about 10 miles long and 8 broad. It has several towns and forts. La Plata is the capital. Lon. 10. 12. W. of Ferro. Lat. 39. 2. N.

(2.) GRATIOSA, or GRACIOSA, one of the Canary islands. See CANARY, § 9. Lon. 13. 7. W. Lat. 29. 15. N.

\* GRATIS. *adv.* [Latin.] For nothing; without a recompence.—

The people cry you mock'd them; and, of late,  
When horn was given them *gratis*, you repin'd.

*Shakespeare.*

—They sold themselves; but thou, like a kind fellow, gav'st thyself away *gratis*, and I thank thee for thee. *Shak.*—The taking of use, though he judged lawful, yet never approved by practice, but lent still *gratis* both to friends and strangers. *Fell.*—Kindred are no welcome clients, where relation gives them a title to have advice *gratis*. *L'Esrange.*—I scorned to take my degree at Utrecht or Leyden, though offered it *gratis* by those universities. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) \* GRATITUDE. *n. f.* [*gratitudo*, low Latin.] 1. Duty to benefactors.—

Forbid

That our renowned Rome, whose *gratitude*  
Tow'ards her deserving children is enroll'd,

Should now eat up her own! *Shak. Coriol.*

Suspicious thoughts his penive mind employ,  
A fullen *gratitude*, and clouded joy. *Harte.*

2. Desire to return benefits.—

The debt immense of endless *gratitude*. *Milt.*

—*Gratitude* is properly a virtue, disposing the mind to an inward sense and an outward acknowledgment of a benefit received, together with a readiness to return the same, or the like. *Soutb.*

(2.) GRATITUDE, in ethics, is a fixing the mind to an inward sense and acknowledgment of benefits received. Ingratitude, Mr Paley observes, checketh voluntary beneficence; hence that of a grateful temper is a considerable importance. A 2d reason for cultivating this temper is; That the person which is touched with the kindness of a benefactor, is capable of being affected with the sense of that affection, and of becoming, and of being, the source of the most exalted virtue. The love of God is the blindest gratitude: It is a mistake to imagine, that this virtue is omitted in the commandment; for every precept, which commands "to love God, because he first loved us," supposes the principle of gratitude, and its proper object.

(3.) GRATITUDE, INSTANCE OF. Fiescobald, a Florentine merchant, had gained a great fortune, of which he was liberal and generous. One day a young stranger applied to him for charity. Fiescobald asked him his name, and of what country? "I am," said he, "a native of England; my name is Cromwell, and my father-in-law is a great man. I left my country to seek my fortune, and came with the French army that went to Gattilion, where I was a page to a foreigner, who carried his pike and burgonet." Fiescobald, pitying his necessities, clothed him, and took him into his house till he had recovered his strength by better diet; and, at his request, mounted him upon a good horse, with a quantity of gold in his pocket. Cromwell returned to his native land; where he got into the service of a nobleman, Woolsey; and after his death, he was introduced so effectually into the favour of Henry the 8th, that he made him a baron, viscount, E. of Hereford, and last lord high chancellor. Mean time, Cromwell, by repeated losses, was reduced to poverty, some English merchants being indebted to him for the sum of 15,000 ducats, became to London for payment. In pursuit of this affair, he was suddenly met with the lord chancellor as he was going to court; who immediately alighted from his horse, and alighted him, and asked him, "If he was not Sir Thomas Fiescobald?" "Yes, Sir," said he, "I am your most humble servant." "My servant," said the lord chancellor, "No; you are my special favourite, and relieved me in my wants, laid the foundation of my greatness, and, as such, I receive you as my special favourite, and since the affairs of my sovereign will not admit a longer conference, I beg you will sit down with me this day with your company at my house, and dine with me." Fiescobald was astonished at this great man should be that acknowledge his obligations, but, recollecting his own situation, and carriage, he concludes it to be better to go, and therefore went to his house. He came soon after; and taking his hand, the lord high chancellor, turns to the lord high admiral, and says, "This is the gentleman who first contributed to my advancement." He told them the whole story; led him into his dining room, and placed him next to him.

company being gone, the Chancellor : affair had brought him to England? gave him the true state of his circum- : which Cromwell replied, " I am for- : misfortunes, and I will make them as : as I can; but, as men ought to be : they are kind, it is fit I should repay : owe you." Then leading him into his : first took out 16 ducats, and delivering : rescobald, said, " My friend, here is : you lent me at Florence, with ten : laid out for my apparel, and ten more : se; but as you might have made advan- : se money in trade, take these four bags, : which is 400 ducats." He next caused : e him the names of his debtors, and the : owed; which he transmitted to one of : s, with a charge to find out the men, : them to pay him in 15 days under the : his displeasure; and thus in a short : ntre sum was paid. All this time Sig- : bald was entertained in the Chancellor's : o proposed to him to continue in Eng- : offered him the loan of 60,000 ducats : s if he would trade here: but he desired : to Florence, which he did, with extra- : avours from Lord Cromwell. *Hackwell's* : s. c. 10. p. 436.

UUS of Falisci, a Latin poet, cotempo- : Ovid, the author of a poem entitled : s, or the *Manner of hunting with dogs*. : edition is that of Leyden, 12mo, with : d notes of Janus Ulitius: 1645, 8vo.

TUITOUS. *adj.* [*gratuitus*, Latin; *gra-* : 1. Voluntary; granted without claim or : ve mistake the *gratuitous* blessings of hea- : e fruits of our own industry. *L'Esbran.* : d without proof.—The second motive : to introduce this *gratuitous* declination : the same poet gives us. *Ray.*

TUITOUSLY. *adv.* [from *gratuitous*.] : it claim or merit. 2. Without proof.— : now whence came this obliquity of di- : rch they *gratuitously* tack to matter : scribe will and choice to these particles. : *bil. Princ.*

TUITY. *n. s.* [*gratuité*, Fr. from *gra-* : A present or acknowledgment; a free : ey might have pretended to comply with : nd dismissed him with a small *gratuity*. : *the Od.*—He used every year to present : is almanack, upon the score of some lit- : y we gave him. *Swift.*

GRATULATE. *v. a.* [*gratular*, Latin.] : gratulate; to salute with declarations of

to gratify the good Andronicus, : ratulate his safe return to Rome, : ople will accept whom he admires. *Shak.*

Whither away so fast?  
So farther than the Tower,  
To salute the gentle princes there. *Shake-sp.*  
: nature could behold so dire a crime,  
: late at least my native clime,  
: ach a land, which such a monster bore,  
: idistant from our Thracian shore. *Dryd.*  
: dare joy for; to mention with expressions

Yet give thy jealous subjects leave to doubt,  
Who this thy 'scape from rumour gratulate,  
No less than if from peril; and devout,  
Do beg thy care unto thy after state. *Ben Jon.*

\* GRATULATION. *n. s.* [from *gratulatione*, Lat.] Salutations made by expressing joy; expres- : sion of joy.—They are the first *gratulations* where- : with our Lord and Saviour was joyfully received : at his entrance into the world, by such as in their : hearts, arms, and bowels embraced him. *Hooker.*

The earth  
Gave signs of *gratulation*, and each hill. *Milt.*  
—Your enjoyments, according to the standard of : a Christian desire, require no addition: I shall : turn my wishes into *gratulations*, and, congratu- : lating their fulness, only with their continuance. : *South.*

\* GRATULATORY. *adj.* [from *gratulate*.] : Congratulatory; expressing congratulation.

(1.) GRATZ, or GRAZ, a handsome town of : Germany, capital of Stiria, with a castle seated on : a high rock, an university, a great number of pa- : laces, and a fine arsenal. The castle communi- : cates with the river by means of a deep well. : The empress-dowager Mary Theresa, was obliged : to retire hither during the war of 1741 and 1742. : It was taken by the French in March, 1797. It is : seated on the Muer. Lon. 16 5. E. Lat. 47. 4. N.

(2.) GRATZ, a town of Silesia, in the principa- : lity of Troppau, seated on the Mora, 4 miles S. : of Troppau.

GRATZARNITZA, a town of European Tur- : key, in Bosnia, 36 miles ENE. of Serajo.

GRATZEN, a town of Bohemia, in the circle : of Bechin; 17 miles NE. of Rosenberg.

GRAVASELE, a town of Naples, in the pro- : vince of Basilicata; 15 miles E. of Venosa.

GRAUDENTZ, or GRUDZIANDS, a town of : Polish Prussia, in the palatinate of Culm, with a : castle, seated on the Vistula, 14 miles NNE. of : Culm, 30 N. of Thorn, and 110 NW. of Warsaw. : Lon. 18. 51. E. Lat. 53. 36. N.

(1.) \* GRAVE. *adj.* [*grave*, Fr. *gravis*, Latin.] : 1. Solemn; serious; sober; not gay; not light or : trifling.—

To th' more mature,  
A glass that featur'd them; and to the grave,  
A child that guided dotards. *Shak. Cymb.*

We should have else desir'd  
Your good advice, which still hath been both  
*grave*

And prosperous, in this day's council. *Shak.*  
—That *grave* awfulness, as in your best breed of : mastives, or elegancy and prettiness, as in your : lesser dogs, are modes of beauty. *More against A-* : *theism*.—Even the *grave* and serious characters are : distinguished by their several sorts of gravity. *Dry-* : *den's Fables, Preface*.—

Youth on silent wings is flown;  
*Graver* years come rolling on. *Prior*

To laugh, were want of goodness and of grace;  
And to be *grave*, exceeds all power of face. *Pope*

Folly-painting humour, *grave* himself,  
Calls laughter forth. *Thomson.*

—They have as much reason to pretend to, and : as much necessity to aspire after, the highest ac- : complishments of a Christian and solid virtue, as : the *gravest* and wisest among Christian philoso- : phers.

phers. *Law.* 2. Of weight; not futile; credible. Little used.—The Roman state was of all others the most celebrated for their virtue, as the *grave* of their own writers, and of strangers, do bear them witness. *Greav's Cosm.* 3. Not showy; not tawdry: as, a *grave* suit of cloaths. 4. Not sharp of sound; not acute.—Accent, in the Greek names and usage, seems to have regarded the tone of the voice; the acute accent raising the voice, in some syllables, to a higher, *i. e.* more acute pitch or tone, and the *grave* depressing it lower, and both having some emphasis, *i. e.* more vigorous pronunciation. *Holder.*

(2.) GRAVE, in grammar, a species of accent opposite to acute. The grave accent is expressed thus ('); and shows, that the voice is to be depressed, and the syllable over which it is placed pronounced in a low deep tone.

(3.) GRAVE, in music, is applied to a sound which is in a low or deep tone. The thicker the chord or string, the more grave the tone or note, and the smaller the acuter. Notes are supposed to be the more grave, in proportion as the vibrations of the chord are less quick.

(4.) GRAVE, in the Italian music, serves to denote the slowest movement.

(5.) \* GRAVE, a final syllable in the names of places, is from the Saxon *graf*, a grove or cave. *Gibson's Camden.*

(6, i.) GRAVE, in geography, a strong city of the Batavian republic, in the dept. of the Dommel and Scheldt, and ci-devant province of Dutch Brabant; with a fort, seated in a marshy country on the S. side of the Meuse. In 1323, John III, D. of Brabant, obtained it from Otho, lord of Cuyck. It was taken by the French, under Pichegru, Dec. 28, 1794, by capitulation; after a bombardment of 10 weeks, during which hardly one house escaped. It lies 8 miles S. of Nimeguen, 20 E. of Bois-le-duc, and 34 SE. of Utrecht. Lon. 5. 45. E. Lat. 51. 46. N.

(ii.) GRAVE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Alps, 16 miles NW. of Briançon.

(7, i.) \* GRAVE. *n. f.* [*graf*, Sax.] The place in the ground in which the dead are repositd.—

Now it is the time of night,

That the *graves*, all gaping wide,

Every one lets forth his spright,

In the church-way paths to glide. *Shak.*

Thou wilt not leave me in the loathsome *grave*. *Milton.*

To walk upon the *graves* of our dead masters,

Is our own security. *Denham's Sophy.*

—A flood of waters would overwhelm all those fragments which the earth broke into, and bury in one common *grave* all the inhabitants of the earth. *Burnet.*—They were wont once a-year to meet at the *graves* of the martyrs; there solemnly to recite their sufferings and triumphs, to praise their virtues, to bless God for their pious examples, for their holy lives and their happy deaths. *Nelson.*

(ii.) GRAVES, among the Jews were generally out of the city, though there are instances of their interring the dead in towns. Frequent mention is made of graves upon mountains, in highways, in gardens, and private houses; so that nothing on this head seems to have been determined. The

same may be observed with respect to the Thebans had a law that every pe built a house should provide a burial-ground who had distinguished themselves were buried in the public forum. The mo custom was, however, to bury out of chiefly by the highway side. The Ro forbidden by the law of the XII tables burn the dead in the city; but some ha pulchres in Rome, though they paid a indulgence.

(1.) \* To GRAVE. *v. a.* *preter. grav* pass. *graven.* [*graver*, Fr. *grave*.] 1. To carve a figure or inscription in any stance.—

Cornice with bossy sculptures *grav*—Later vows, oaths, or leagues can out those former *gravings* or characters, just and lawful oaths were made upon *K. Charles.*—

Thy sum of duty let two words c O! may they *graven* in that heart Be humble and be just.

2. To carve or form.—What profiteth image, that the maker thereof hath *Hab. ii. 18.* 3. To copy paintings upon metal, in order to be impressed on *grav*ers can and ought to imitate the bo colours by the degrees of the lights and 'tis impossible to give much strength to *grave*, after the works of the schools, imitating in some sort the colour of th *Dryden's Dufres.* 4. [From *grave*.] T Not in use.—

There's more gold:

Do you damn others, and let this dam And ditches *grave* you all! *Shak.*

5. To clean, caulk, and sheath a ship. *A*

(2.) \* To GRAVE. *v. n.* To write or on hard substances.—Thou shalt make pure gold, and *grave* upon it. *Ex. xxxi*

\* GRAVE-CLOATHS. *n. f.* [*grave* and The dress of the dead.—

But of such subtle substance and That like a ghost he seem'd, whose *gr* were unbound.

—And he that was dead came forth, bo and foot with *grave-cloaths.* *John xi. 4*

GRAVEDONA, or } a town of the GRAVEDONO, } republic, in th Lario, and ci-devant duchy of Milan; the W. bank of Lake Como, 42 miles N.

(1.) \* GRAVEL. *n. f.* [*gravier*, Fr. Dutch; *gravel*, Armoric.] 1. Hard s consisting of very small pebble stones, consists of flints of all the usual sizes and of the several sorts of pebbles; sometim few pyritæ, and other mineral bodies, o intermixed, and common sand. *Woodes* armour, all gilt, was so well-handled, th ed like a glittering sand and *gravel*, w with silver rivers. *Sidney.*—

Proofs as clear as suns in July, We see each grain of *gravel.* *Shak. Ha*

—Providence permitted not the earth to self in base *gravels* and pebbles, instead ries of stones. *Morc.*—

ep, and yet so clear, we might behold  
*gravel* bottom, and that bottom gold. *Dryd.*  
 per garden at Kensington was at first no-  
 a *gravel* pit. *Spe&*.—*Gravel* walks are  
 uit-trees. *M&rt. H&sb.* 2. [*Gravelle*, Fr.]  
 iter concreted in the kidneys.—If the  
 rittle it will often crumble, and pass in  
 of *gravel*: if the stone is too big to pass,  
 ethod is to come to a sort of a compo-  
 ruce with it. *Arbutnot.*

RAVEL, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) in natural history  
 ning, a congeries of pebbles, which,  
 h a stiff loam, makes lasting and elegant  
 lks; an ornament peculiar to our gar-  
 which gives them an advantage over  
 ther nations.

AVSL, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) in medicine. See  
 E, *Index*; and ALKALI.

RAVEL WALKS. To make these proper-  
 stom should be laid with lime rubbish,  
 stones, or any other hard matter, for  
 ches thick, to keep weeds from growing  
 and over this the gravel is to be laid 6  
 s thick. This should be laid rounding  
 e middle, by which means the larger  
 e run off to the sides, and may be raked  
 r the gravel should never be screened  
 is laid on. It is an error to lay these  
 round, which not only makes them un-  
 alk upon, but takes off from their appa-  
 lth. One inch in 5 feet is a sufficient rise  
 ddle; so that a walk of 20 feet wide  
 only 4 inches higher at the middle than  
 es, and so in proportion. As soon as  
 is laid, it should be raked, and the large  
 own back again; then the whole should  
 both lengthwise and crosswise; and the  
 ho draws the roller should wear shoes  
 heels, that he may make no holes; be-  
 es made in a new walk are not easily re-  
 The walks should always be rolled 3 or  
 4 very hard showers, after which they  
 more firmly than otherwise they could  
 ade to do. Gravel, with some loam a-  
 inds more firmly than the rawer kinds;  
 gravel is naturally very harsh and sharp,  
 r to add a mixture of loam to it. The  
 il for walks is such as abounds with  
 und pebbles, which, being mixed with  
 im, are bound so firmly together, that  
 ever afterwards injured either by wet or  
 er. These are not so liable to be turn-  
 the feet in walking, as the more irregu-  
 rd pebbles, and remain much more firm-  
 places after rolling.

RAVEL. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To  
 ver with gravel.—Moss groweth upon  
 ecially such as lie cold, and upon the  
 in divers terrasses; and again, if they  
 rodden, or if they were at the first *gra-*  
*icon.* 2. To stick in the sand.—William  
 rror, when he invaded this island, chan-  
 arrival to be *gravelled*; and one of his  
 so fast in the sand, that he fell to the  
*Landen.* 3. To puzzle; to stop; to put  
 to embarrass.—I would kiss before I  
 say, you were better to speak first, and  
 were *gravelled* for lack of matter you  
 C. PART II.

might take occasion to kiss. *Shak.*—The disease it-  
 self will *gravel* him to judge of it; nor can there  
 be any prediction made of it, it is so sharp. *Howel.*  
 —What work do our imaginations make with e-  
 ternity and immensity? And how are we *gravelled*  
 by their cutting dilemmas? *Glanville's Scephts.*—

Mat, who was here a little *gravelled*,  
 Tost up his nose, and would have cavill'd. *Prior.*  
 4. [In horsemanship.] To hurt the foot with gra-  
 vel confined by the shoe.

\* GRAVELESS. *adj.* [from *grave*.] Wanting a  
 tomb; unburied.—

My brave Egyptians all,  
 By the discarding of this pelleted storm,  
 Lie *graveless*. *Shak. Ant. and Cleopatra.*

GRAVELINES, a very strong town of the  
 French republic, in the dep. of the North, and  
 ci-devant French Flanders, with a castle and har-  
 bour. It was ceded to France by the treaty of the  
 Pyrenees, and is seated in a marshy country on the  
 river Aa, near the sea, 12 miles E. of Calais. Lon.  
 2. 13 E. Lat. 50. 59. N.

\* GRAVELLY. *adj.* [*graveleux*, French; from  
*gravel*.] Full of gravel; abounding with gravel;  
 consisting of gravel.—There are some natural  
 spring, waters that will inlapidate wood; so that  
 you shall see one piece of wood, whereof the part  
 above the water shall continue wood, and the part  
 under the water shall be turned into a *gravelly*  
 stone. *Bacon's N. Hist.*—If you live in a consump-  
 tive air, make choice of the more open, high, dry,  
 and *gravelly* part of it. *Harvey on Consumptions.*

GRAVELLY LAND, or SOIL, that abounding  
 with gravel or sand, which easily admits of heat  
 and moisture; and the more stony such lands  
 are, the more barren they prove, in general;  
 though not always; for there are gravelly lands  
 in different places in Scotland pretty fertile, which  
 have proved barren upon removing the stones, and  
 recovered their fertility, when the stones and gra-  
 vel were restored.

GRAVELOT, an eminent French engraver,  
 born at Paris in 1699. He resided 13 years in Eng-  
 land. The finest editions of the French poets were  
 ornamented by his works. He died at Paris in 1773.

GRAVELOTTE, a town of France, in the dep.  
 of Moselle; 4 m. N. of Gorze, and 6 SW. of Metz.

\* GRAVELY. *adv.* [from *grave*.] 1. Solemnly;  
 seriously; soberly; without lightness or mirth.—  
 Thou stand'st

*Gravelly* in doubt when to hold them wise. *Milt.*  
 —A girl longs to tell her confidant that she hopes  
 to be married in a little time, and asks her very  
*gravelly* what she would have her to do. *Spe&*.—

Wisdom's above suspecting wiles;  
 The queen of learning *gravelly* smiles. *Swift.*

—A formal story was very *gravelly* carried to his  
 excellence, by some zealous members. *Swift.*—

Is't not enough the blockhead scarce can read,  
 But must he wisely look, and *gravelly* plead?

*Young.*  
 2. Without gaudiness or show.

GRAVEN, a town of Norway, 24 miles SW.  
 of Bergen.

(1.) GRAVENAC, a county of Suabia.  
 (2.) GRAVENAC, the capital of the county,  
 (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) 30 miles W. of Ulm. Lon. 9. 28. E. Lat.  
 48. 22. N.

H h h h GRAVENAC,

GRAVENAU, a town of Lower Bavaria, 20 miles N. of Passau, and 36 ESE. of Ratibon.

\* GRAVENESS. *n. f.* [from *grave*.] Seriousness; solemnity and sobriety of behaviour.—  
You no less becomes

The light and careless livery that it wears,  
Then settled age his fables, and his weeds  
Importing health and *graveness*. *Hamlet.*

But yet beware of counsels when too full;  
Numbers make long disputes and *graveness* dull.  
*Denham.*

GRAVENHORST, a town of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, 4 miles NE. of Rheine.

GRAVENMÄCHEREN, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Forets, and late duchy of Luxemburg. It has an ancient monument about 1500 years old. This town was sacked and burnt by the marquis of Brandenburg, in 1551. It is 25 miles ENE. of Luxemburg, and 12 SW. of Treves.

GRAVENWERT, a town of Lower Bavaria, 25 m. N. of Amberg, and 42 ENE. of Nuremberg.

\* GRAVEOLENT. *adj.* [*graveolens*, Latin.] Strong scented. *DiB.*

(1.) \* GRAVER. *comp.* of *grave*. See GRAVE.

(2.) \* GRAVER. *n. f.* [*graveur*, Fr. from *grave*.] 1. One whose business is to inscribe or carve upon hard substances; one who copies pictures upon wood or metal to be impressed on paper.—If he makes a design to be graved, he is to remember that the *gravers* dispose not their colours as the painters do; and that, by consequence, he must take occasion to find the reason of his design in the natural shadows of the figures, which he has disposed to cause the effect. *Dryden's Duff.* 2. The file or tool used in graving.—With all the care wherewith I tried upon it the known ways of softening *gravers*, I could not soften this. *Boyle.*—

The tollsome hours in different labour slide,  
Some work the *file*, and some the *graver* guide.

*Gay's Fan.*

(3.) GRAVER. See GRAVING, § II, 1, 2.

GRAVEROL, a learned French advocate, born at Nismes, in 1635. He was author of *The Sorberiana*, and several other works. He died in 1694.

(1.) GRAVESANDE, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dept. of Delft, and late province of S. Holland; 6 miles WSW. of Delft, and 4 from the coast. It was anciently the chief residence of the Counts of Holland.

(2.) GRAVESANDE, William James, LL. D. and F. R. S. an eminent mathematician, born of an ancient family at Delft in Holland, in 1688. He studied the civil law at Leyden, but mathematical learning was his favourite amusement. When he had taken his degree in 1707, he settled at the Hague, and practised at the bar, in which situation he cultivated an acquaintance with learned men; with a society of whom, he published a periodical review, intitled *Le Journal Litteraire*, which was continued without interruption from 1713 to 1742, when he died. The most considerable of his works are, 1. *A Treatise on Perspective*: 2. An introduction to the Newtonian philosophy, or a treatise on the elements of physics confirmed by experiments: 3. A treatise on the elements of algebra, for the use of young students: and, 4. A course of logic and metaphysics. The ministers of the republic consulted him on many occasions,

and his skill in calculation was often of use to them; as well as his address in deciphering secret correspondence of their enemies. He was sent by the States to congratulate George I. on his accession; and on his return appointed professor of mathematics and astronomy at Leyden, where he was the first that introduced the Newtonian philosophy. He was intimated with Sir Isaac Newton, as well as his doctrine.

(1.) GRAVESEND, a town of Eng. Kent, situated on the banks of the Thames, 23 miles from London; and has a battery mounted with cannon, to command the river, directly opposite to Tilbury fort. This town was plundered and burnt by the French and Spaniards in the reign of Richard II. penance which, the king vested it and with the sole privilege of carrying passage water to London at 4s. the whole fare, head, which was confirmed by Henry V. now the fare is 9d. a head in the tilt boat in the wherry. The former must not take above 40 passengers, the latter only 8. ply here at the landing of people from London to carry them to Rochester, at 1s. This town and Milton were incorporated by Elizabeth, and granted some peculiar privileges. Great quantities of garden stuffs are brought to London, and other places, where the air of Gravesend is preferred to that of Bath. outward bound ships are obliged to anchor at Gravesend till they have been visited by the ward officers; and for this purpose a block house fires a musket: but the ward bound all pass by without notice, put waiters on board, if they are not sufficient. As those outward bound general provisions here, the place abounds with provisions. The town being burnt down in 1727, was granted by the parliament in 1731, to the corporation of Gravesend, to rebuild a new church. In 1624, one Mr Pinnock gave 1000 l. for building-houses, besides one for a master to employ the poor; and there is a charity school for 24 boys, who are both taught and clothed. The town-house was erected in 1764; and an act was passed for paving and lighting the streets.

(2, 3.) GRAVESEND, a township and parish in the County of New York, in King's County, Long Island, 12 miles N. by E. of the city.

(4.) GRAVESEND, a sea port town of the island of Jersey, situated on the SW. side of the island, seated on a bay.

(5.) GRAVESEND, a village in Hertfordshire, 12 miles N. of St. Albans.

GRAVESON, a town of France in the Mouths of the Rhone, 5 miles NE. of Arles.  
\* GRAVEST. *superl.* of *grave*. See GRAVE.  
\* GRAVE-STONE. *n. f.* [*grave* and *stone*.] A stone that is laid over the grave; the monument.

Timon, presently prepare thy  
Lye where the light foam of the sea  
Thy *grave-stone* daily. *Sbc.*

GRAVID, *adj.* Big with child. *Ab.*  
It is surprising that Dr Johnson should have used this adjective, when he inserts its ab-

\* GRAVIDITY. *n. f.* [*gravidus*, Latin.] Pregnancy; state of being with child.—Women who are not always the forementioned

hose the signs of *gravity* and obstruc-  
ard to be distinguished in the beginning.

**DONA.** See GRAVEDONA.

**METER, n. f.** [from *gravis*, weighty,  
to measure.] an instrument or glass  
by Citizen Guyton Morveau, entirely  
principles of Nicholson's Hydrometer.  
**METER and HYDROSTATICS.**

**AVINA,** a town of Naples, in the  
ari, with a bishop's see, 9 miles W. of  
nd 32 SW. of Br. Lon. 17. o. E.  
N.

**AVINA,** John Vincent, an eminent  
illustrious lawyer of Italy, born at  
1664. He was professor of the canon  
college of Sapienza at Rome; where  
1718. His works are both curious and  
chief of them is, *De otu et progressu*  
*s.* They were printed in 4to at Leip-  
s., with notes by Mascovius.

**AVINA,** Peter, an Italian poet, born at  
nd much esteemed by gen. Gonsalvo,  
s, and Prosper Colonna. He wrote,  
oman style, Discourses on Matters re-  
e Law and to the Belles Lettres, as well  
He died in 1525, aged 75.

**VING. n. f.** [from *grave*.] Carved  
iful to work in gold; also to grave any  
*graving*, and to find out every device  
be put to him. 2 *Coro* ii. 14.

**AVITATE. v. n.** [from *gravis*, Lat.]  
the centre of attraction —  
who have nature's steps with care  
u'd,

ter is with active force endu'd,  
its parts magn-tick pow'r exert,  
ach other *gravitate*, assert. *Blackmore.*  
tle matter must be of the same sub-  
all other matter, and as much as is  
led within a particular body must *gru-*  
y with that body. *Bentley.*

**AVITATION. n. f.** [from *gravitate*.]  
ing to the centre.—The most confide-  
merion belonging to terrestrial bodies  
ral action of *gravitation*, whereby all  
ies, in the vicinity of the earth, do  
efs towards its centre. *Bentley.*—  
the loose mountain trembles from on

*avitation* cease, if you go by? *Pope.*

**VITATION,** in natural philosophy, is  
istinguished from **GRAVITY**. Thus  
his takes *gravity* for that force where-  
ould fall to the earth; but gravitation  
diminished by the centrifugal force.  
**AVIAN PHILOSOPHY.**

**AVITY. n. f.** [from *gravis*, Lat. *gravite*,  
ght; heaviness; tendency to the cen-  
quality by which all heavy bodies tend  
centre, accelerating their motion the  
approach towards it, true philosophy  
o be unsoleable by any hypothesis,  
f it into the immediate will of the  
all bodies, considered within the con-  
fluid, there is a twofold *gravity*, true,  
and vulgar or comparative: abso-  
is the whole force by which any bo-

dy tends downwards; but the relative or vulgar  
is the excess of *gravity* in one body above the speci-  
fic *gravity* of the fluid, whereby it tends downwards  
more than the ambient fluid doth. *Quincy.*—Bodies  
do swim or sink in different liquors, according to  
the tenacity or *gravit* of those liquors which are to  
support them. *Brown's Vulg. Err.*—Though this  
increase of density may at great distances be ex-  
ceeding slow, yet if the elastick tone of this medi-  
um be exceeding great, it may suffice to impel  
bodies fr m the denser parts of the medium to-  
wards the rarer, with all that power which we  
call *gravity*. *New. Opt.* 2. Atrociousness; weight  
of guilt.—No man could ever have thought this  
reasnable, that had intended thereby only to  
punish the injury committed, according to the  
*gravity* of the fact. *Hooker.*—3. Seriousness; solemn-  
nity.—There is not a white hair on your face but  
should have his effect of *gravity*. *Shak. Hen. IV.*

Our youths and wild:ers shall no whit appear,  
But all be buried in his *gravity*. *Shak. Jul. Cesar.*  
—For the advocates and council that plead, pa-  
tience and *gravity* of hearing is an essential part  
of justice. *Bacon.*—

Great Cato there, for *gravity* renown'd.

*Dryden.*

—The emperors often jested on their rivals or  
predecessors, but their mints still maintained their  
*gravity*. *Addison.*—He will tell you with great  
*gravity*, that it is a dangerous thing for a man  
that has been used to get money, ever to leave it  
off. *Law.*

(2.) **GRAVITY, or GRAVITATION,** (for they are  
most commonly used synonymously.) signifies ei-  
ther the force by which bodies are pressed towards  
the surface of the earth, or the manifest effect of  
that force; in which last sense the word has the  
same signification with *weight* or *heaviness*. Con-  
cerning gravity in the first sense of the word, or  
that active power by which all bodies are impelled  
towards the earth, there have been great disputes.  
Many eminent philosophers, and among the rest  
Sir Isaac Newton himself, have considered it as  
the first of all second causes; an *incorporeal* or *spi-*  
*ritual substance*, which never can be perceived any  
other way than by its effects: an universal property  
of matter, &c. Others have attempted to ex-  
plain the phenomena of gravitation by the action  
of a very subtle etherial fluid; and to this expla-  
nation Sir Isaac, in the latter part of his life, seems  
not to have been averse. He has even given a con-  
jecture concerning the matter in which this fluid  
might occasion these phenomena. But for a full  
account of the discoveries of this great philosopher  
concerning the laws of gravitation, the conjectures  
made by him and others concerning its cause; the  
various objections that have been made to his  
doctrine, and the state of the dispute at present,  
see the articles **ASTRONOMY, ATMOSPHERE, AT-**  
**TRACTION, EARTH, ELECTRICITY, FIRE, LIGHT,**  
**NEWTONIAN PHILOSOPHY, REPULSION, PLE-**  
**NUM, VACUUM, &c.**

(3.) **GRAVITY, SPECIFIC,** denotes the weight  
belonging to an equal bulk of every different sub-  
stance. Thus the exact weight of a cubic inch of  
gold, compared with a cubic inch of water, tin,  
lead, &c. is called its *specific gravity*. See **HYDRO-**  
**TATICS,** and **SPECIFIC GRAVITY.**

H h h h GRAULHET.



GRAULHET, a town of France, in the dep. of Tarn, 9 miles NE. of Lavaur, and 25 NW. of Castres.

(1.) GRAUNT, Edward, an eminent English grammarian of the 16th century. He was head master of Westminster school, and published a work entitled, *Græce Linguae Specilegium, et Institutio Græce Grammaticæ*. He died in 1601.

(2.) GRAUNT, John, F. R. S. author of a curious and celebrated book, entitled, *Natural and Political Observations made upon the Bills of Mortality*. He was a haberdasher, but gave up his trade, and all public employments, on account of his religion. He was educated a puritan; afterwards professed himself a Socinian; but at last declared himself a Roman Catholic. He died in 1674.

GRAUSZYSZKI, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Wilna; 28 miles SE. of Wilna.

\* GRAVY. *n. f.* The ferous juice that runs from flesh not much dried by the fire.—Meat we love half raw, with the blood trickling down from it, delicately terming it the *gravy*, which in truth looks more like an ichorous or raw bloody matter. *Harv. on Consump.*—There may be a stronger broth made of vegetables than of any *gravy* soup. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) \* GRAY. *adj.* [*græg*, Saxon; *grau*, Dan. *grauu*, Dutch.] 1. White with a mixture of black.—

They left me then, when the gray headed even,  
Like a sad votarist in palmer's weed,  
Rose from the hindmost wheels of Phœbus' wain.

*Milton.*

—These gray and dun colours may be also produced by mixing whites and blacks, and by consequence differ from perfect whites, not in species of colours, but only in degree of luminousness. *Newton's Optics.* 2. White or hoary with old age.—Living creatures generally do change their hair with age, turning to be gray; as is seen in men, though some earlier and some later; in horses, that are dappled and turn white; in old squirrels that turn grisly, and many others. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Thou hast neither forsaken me now I am become gray headed, nor suffered me to forsake thee in the late days of temptation. *Walton.*—

Anon

Gray headed men and grave, with warriors  
mix'd,

Assemble.

*Milton's Par. Lost.*

—The restoration of gray hairs to juvenility, and renewing the exhausted marrow, may be effected. *Glanville.*—

Gray headed infant! and in vain grown old!  
Art thou to learn that in another's gold  
Lie charms resistless?

*Dryden's Juv.*

—We most of us are grown gray headed in our dear master's service. *Speltator.*—

Her gray hair'd synods damning books unread,  
And Bacon trembling for his brazen head.

*Pope.*

3. Dark like the opening or close of day; of the colour of ashes.—Our women's names are more gracious than their Cæcilia, that is, gray eyed. *Ganden.*—

The gray ey'd morn smiles on the frowning  
night,

Chequering the eastern clouds with streaks of  
light.

*Shak.*

'Till say yon gray is not the morning  
'Tis but the pale reflex of Cynthia's brow

Soon as the gray ey'd morning breaks  
And in the doubtful day the woodcock

*Gay*

(4.) \* GRAY. *n. f.* A gray colour.—  
Down sunk the sun, the closing hoar  
Came onward, mantled o'er with dust

(3.) GRAY, or GREY. § 1. *def. 1.* See § 3, and DYING, Part III, Sect. II. In age they make several sorts of grays; as dappled or blackened gray, which has spots dispersed here and there. The dappled which has spots of a darker colour than of the body. The light or silver gray there is but a small mixture of black; as lead or iron gray, which has but a small of white. And the brownish or sandy gray, where there are bay-coloured hairs with the black.

(4.) GRAY, in geography, a town in the dep. of Upper Saone, and in Franche Compte. It is a trading place seated on the Saone, 25 miles NE. of Dijon. 5. 41. E. Lat. 47. 30. N.

(5.) GRAY, or GRAY ABBEY, a town in the county of Down, 89 miles from London, famous for its linen manufacture.

(6, 7.) GRAY, a post town and town in the United States, in the district of Maine, in Cumberland county; 15 miles N. by W. of Portland, and 140 from Boston. The population was 577.

(8.) GRAY, Lady Jane. See GREY.

(9.) GRAY, Mary of Lednec. See BELMONT.

(10.) GRAY, Thomas, an admired English lawyer, was the youngest and only surviving son of a reputable citizen of London, and was born in 1716. He was educated at Eton, where he contracted a friendship with Mr Houshold, and with Mr Richard West, son of the chancellor of Ireland. Mr West and Gray were both intended for the bar; but Gray was diverted from that pursuit by an invitation to accompany Mr Walpole in his travels; which he accepted without any determined plan of a future life. During his travels, he wrote a great number of letters to Mr West and to his parents, which are printed with his poems; and when he returned, finding himself in narrow circumstances, with a mind not disposed for active employment, he retired to Cambridge, and devoted himself to study. Soon after his return, his father died; and the melancholy impressed on his mind by this event may be traced in his admirable poem *written in a country church-yard*, which is supposed to have been begun at this time. The pulse of his sorrow for the death of his father, and his birth to a very tender sonnet in English, which is a model of Petrarch; and also to a sublime ode in hexameters, written in genuine majesty, with which he intended to begin his books *De Principiis cogitandi*. From the year 1742, to his death, his principal residence was at Cambridge; from which he was absent any considerable time, except in 1759 and 1762; when, on the opening



useum, he took lodgings in Southamp-  
n order to have recourse to the Harleian  
MSS. there deposited, from which he  
erally curious extracts, amounting in all  
able-sized folio, at present in the hands  
Walpole. About 1747, Mr Mason, the  
Mr Gray's poems, was introduced to  
Mason had written some imitations of  
juvenile poems, *viz.* A Monody on the  
Mr Pope, and two pieces intitled *Il-  
ind Il Pacifico* on the peace of Aix-la-  
; and Mr Gray revised them. This laid  
sation of an intimacy which continued  
interruption till Mr Gray's death. About  
; Gray had put his last hand to his cele-  
*egy written in a country church-yard*, and  
nunicated it to his friend Mr Walpole,  
ood taste was too much charmed with  
er him to withhold the sight of it from  
itance. Accordingly it was shown about  
time in MS. and received with all the  
it to justly merited. At last the publisher  
f the magazines having obtained a sur-  
copy of it, Mr Gray wrote to Mr Wal-  
iring that he would put his own MS. in-  
nds of Mr Doddsley, and order him to  
nmediately. This was the most popular  
r author's publications. It ran through  
sitions in a very short time; and was  
nslated into Latin by Messrs Anky and  
and by Mr Lloyd. From 1759 to 1762,  
ally resided in London. In July 1768,  
; Grafton wrote him, that his majesty had  
sed to offer to him the professorship of Mo-  
ory in the university of Cambridge, then  
This place was valuable, the salary being  
year; and was the more acceptable to  
that it was given him without solicitation.  
indeed remarkably disinterested in all his  
Though his income, before this addi-  
; very small, he never read or wrote with  
of making his labours useful to himself.  
be said to have been one of those few  
s in the annals of literature, who are de-  
self interest, and at the same time atten-  
onomy; and also was one of those very  
omists, who possess that talent, untinct-  
th the slightest stain of avarice. When  
mstances were at the lowest, he gave a  
sums in private charity, as would have  
dit to an ampler purse. He seems early  
have had an intention of publishing an  
f Strabo; for his papers contain a great  
of notes and geographical disquisitions on  
or, particularly with respect to that part  
which comprehends Persia and India.  
fatigable pains which he took with the  
of Plato, and the number of critical and  
ry observations which he has left upon  
very part of his works, plainly indicate,  
nan in Europe was better prepared to re-  
d illustrate that philosopher than Mr Gray.  
work, on which he bestowed uncommon  
as the *Antologia*. In an interleaved copy  
slection of Greek epigrams, he has tran-  
sferred additional ones, which he selected  
enave reading; has inserted a great num-  
critical notes and emendations, and sub-

joined a copious index. But whether he intended  
this performance for the press or not, is uncer-  
tain. The only work, which he meditated upon  
with this direct view from the beginning, was a  
*history of English poetry*, upon a plan sketched out  
by Mr Pope. He has mentioned this himself in  
an advertisement to those three fine imitations  
of Norse and Welch poetry, which he gave the  
world in the last edition of his poems. But after  
he had made some preparations for the execution  
of this design, being informed, that Mr Warton,  
of Trinity College, Oxford, was engaged in a  
work of the same kind, he relinquished the under-  
taking; and soon after, on that gentleman's de-  
siring a sight of his plan, our author readily sent  
him a copy of it. Mr Gray had acquired a great  
knowledge of Gothic architecture. He had seen  
and studied in his youth, while abroad, the Ro-  
man proportions, both in ancient times, and in  
the works of Palladio. In his later years he ap-  
plied himself to consider those stupendous struc-  
tures of more modern date that adorn our own  
country; which, if they have not the same grace,  
have undoubtedly equal dignity. He endeavoured  
to trace this mode of building from the time  
it commenced through its various changes, till it  
arrived at its perfection in the reign of Henry VIII.  
and ended in that of Elizabeth. Thus he arrived  
at so very extraordinary a pitch of sagacity, as to  
be able to pronounce at first sight, on the precise  
time when every particular part of any of our  
cathedrals was erected. But the favourite study  
of Mr Gray for the last ten years of his life was  
natural history, which he then rather resumed  
than began; as by the instructions of his uncle  
Antrobus, he was a considerable botanist at 15.  
The marginal notes which he has left on Linnæus  
and other writers on the vegetable, animal, and  
fossile kingdoms, are very numerous; but the  
most considerable are on Hudson's *Flora Anglica*,  
and the 10th edition of the *Systema Naturæ*.  
While employed on zoology, he read Aristotle's  
treatise on that subject with great care, and ex-  
plained many difficult passages of that obscure an-  
cient, by the lights he had received from modern  
naturalists. He died in 1771; and an edition of  
his poems, with memoirs of his life and writings,  
were published in 4to, in 1775, by Mr Mason.  
Mr Gray's character, has been drawn by the Rev.  
Mr Temple, rector of Mamhead in Devonshire,  
in a letter to Mr Boswell. "Perhaps (says Mr  
Temple) he was the most learned man in Europe.  
He was equally acquainted with the elegant and  
profound parts of science, and that not superfi-  
cially but thoroughly. He knew every branch of  
history, both natural and civil; had read all the  
original historians of England, France, and Italy;  
and was a great antiquarian. Criticism, meta-  
physics, morals, politics, made a principal part  
of his plan of study; voyages and travels of all  
sorts were his favourite amusement; and he had  
a fine taste in painting, prints, architecture, and  
gardening. With such a fund of knowledge, his  
conversation must have been equally instructing  
and entertaining; but he was also a good man, a  
well bred man, a man of virtue and humanity.  
There is no character without some speck, some  
imperfection; and I think the greatest defect in  
his

his was an affectation in delicacy, or rather effeminacy, and a visible fastidiousness, or contempt and disdain of his inferiors in science. He also had, in some degree, that weakness which disgusted Voltaire so much in Mr Congreve." (See CONGREGVE.) "Perhaps it may be said: What signifies so much knowledge, when it produces so little? Is it worth taking so much pains to leave no memorial but a few poems? But let it be considered, that Mr Gray was, to others, at least innocently employed; to himself, certainly beneficially. His time passed agreeably; he was every day making some new acquisition in science; his mind was enlarged, his heart softened, and his virtue strengthened; the world and mankind were shown to him without a mask; and he was taught to consider every thing as trifling, and unworthy the attention of a wise man, except the pursuit of knowledge, and the practice of virtue in that state wherein God hath placed us."

(11.) \* GRAY. *n. f.* A badger. *Ainsworth.*

GRAY ABBEY. See GRAY, N<sup>o</sup> 5.

\* GRAYBEARD. *n. f.* [*gray and beard.*] An old man: in contempt.—

Youngling, thou canst not love so dear as I.  
—*Graybeard*, thy love doth freeze. *Shak.*

Have I in conquest stretch mine arm so far,  
To be afraid to tell *graybeards* the truth?

*Shakespeare.*

(1.) \* GRAYLING. *n. f.* [*thymallus.*] The umber, a fish.—The *grayling* lives in such rivers as the trout does, and is usually taken with the baits, and after the same manner: he is of a fine shape, his flesh white, and his teeth, those little ones that he has, are in his throat. He is not so general a fish as the trout, nor so good to eat. *Walton's Angler.*

(2.) GRAYLING, in ichthyology, a species of SALMO. In angling for this fish your hook must be armed upon the shanks with a very narrow plate of lead, which should be slenderest at the bent of the hook, that the bait (a large grasshopper, with the uppermost wing pulled off) may come over to it the more easily. At the point let there be a cad-bait in a continual motion. The jag-tail, which is a worm of a pale flesh-colour, with a yellow tag on its tail, is an excellent bait for the grayling in March and April.

\* GRAYNESS. *n. f.* [from *gray.*] The quality of being gray.

GRAYS, or GRAYS-THURROCK, a town of England in Essex, on the banks of the Thames, opposite Dartford. It has a market on Thursday, and lies 12½ miles SE. of Rufford, and 24 E. of London. Lon. *o.* 24. E. Lat. 51. 26. N.

GRAY'S TOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Tipperary, and province of Munster.

GRAZ, or GRATZ. See GRATZ, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

GRAZALEMA, a town of Spain in Granada, 8 miles W. of Ronda.

(1.) \* To GRAZE. *v. a.* [from *grass.*] 1. To tend grazing cattle; to set cattle to feed on grass.

Jacob *graz'd* his uncle Laban's sheep. *Shak.*

O happy man, faith he, that, lo! I see

*Grazing* his cattle in those pleasant fields,

If he but know his good! *Dan. Civil War.*

2. To feed upon.—

I was at first as other beasts, that  
The trodden herb, of abject thoughts

Their steeds around,  
Free from their harness, *graze* the flower

—Some *graze* their land 'till Christmas  
longer. *Mori.*—

This Neptune gave him, when heg  
His scaly flocks that *graze* the war

The lambs with wolves shall *graze*  
dant mead.

3. To supply with grass.—He hath a  
barn to repair, and a field or two to  
cows, with a garden and orchard. *Shak.*

(2.) \* To GRAZE. *v. n.* 1. To eat  
feed on grass.—The greatest of my pride  
my ewes *graze*, and my lambs suck. *Shak.*  
where you will, you shall not house wit

Leaving in the fields his *grazing* co  
He sought himself some hospitable ho

The more ignoble throug  
Attend their stately steps, and slow

long.

2. To supply grass.—Physicians advise  
tients to remove into airs which are pl  
paigns, but *grazing*, and not overgrown  
*Bacon.*—The sewers must be kept so as

may not stay too long in the Spring: to  
ground continueth the wet, whereby it  
*graze* to purpose that year. *Bacon.*—A

of *grazing* ground is that near the sea,  
commonly very rich land. *Mori. Hist.*  
move on devouring.—As every state is

the other that was oppressed, so the  
tually *grazed.* *Bacon.* 4. [From *razer*  
To touch lightly.—

Mark then a bounding valour in o

That being dead, like to the bullets,

Breaks out into a second course of m

Killing in relapse of mortality. *Shak.*

GRAZE LE BOIS, a town of France, in  
of Maine, 6 miles E. of Maine and 9 of

\* GRAZER. *n. f.* [from *graze.*]

grazes or feeds on grass.—

His flock daily crops

Their verdant dinner from the moss,

Sufficient: after them the cackling g

Close *grazer*, finds wherewith to eat

GRAZIE, an isle of Maritime Aust  
district of Dorso Duro, near Venice an  
gio. It has a church with elegant pair

\* GRAZIER. *n. f.* [from *graze.*]

feeds cattle.—All *graziers* prefer their  
meaner pastures to better. *Bacon.*—Ge

which filled the husbandman's barns, th  
folds, and the tradesman's shop. *Hovel.*

fusion increased when he found the  
father to be a *grazier.* *SpeB.*—Of agric

desolation made in the country by engr  
*ziers*, and the great yearly importatio

from England, are lamentable instances u  
discouragement it lies. *Swift.*

GRAZZINI, Antony Francis, furna  
ca, a native of Florence, and one of the

## G R E

( 615 )

## G R E

ny della Crusca. See ACADEMY, §  
He wrote 6 Comedies and several  
ied in 1583.  
EASE. *n. f.* [*graisse*, French.] 1. The  
he fat; the oily or unctuous part of

*Grease*, that's sweaten  
murth'rer's gibbet, throw  
ime.

*Sbak. Macbeth.*  
it a spot of *grease* they use a coal u-  
aper. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

sp'ft, with sacrifice of oxen slain,  
se wealth, and bribe the god of gain  
ee flocks and herds, with large en-

xpect them from a bullock's *grease*.  
*Dryd. Juv.*

foul with *grease*, binds his obscene  
*Dryd.*

anship.] A swelling and gourdiness  
which happens to a horse after a jour-  
anding long in the stable.

SE, § 1. *def.* 2. See FARRJERY, Part  
I.

ASE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To  
oint with *grease*. 2. To bribe; to  
presents.—

Envy not the store  
as'd advocate that grinds the poor.

*Dryd. Perf.*  
INESS. *n. f.* [from *grease*.] Oiliness;  
on the most of these stones, after they  
e appears always, as it were, a kind  
or unctuousity. *Boyle.*

LY. *adj.* [from *grease*.] 1. Oily; fat;

gments, scraps, the bite and *greasy* re-  
reaten faith.

with *grease*.—  
*Sbak.*

Even the lewd rabble  
their roaring throats, and grumbled

ave hugg'd the *greasy* rogues; they  
ed me.

, and see that they be big-boned, and  
*greasy*, well curled close wool. *Mort.*  
of body; bulky; in reproach.—Let's  
ther against this *greasy* knight. *Sbak.*

EAT. *adj.* [*great*, Sax.; *groot*, Dut.]  
milk or number.—Judas one of the  
, and with him a *great* multitude with  
aves. *Mat. xxvi. 47.*—All these cities  
with high walls, gates, and bars, be-  
lled towns, a *great* many. *Deut. iii. 5.*

mental air diffus'd  
to the uttermost convex

eat round.

od created the *great* whales. *Milton.*  
xon horrible, on all sides round,  
eat furnace flam'd. *Milton.*

The tallest pine  
Norwegian hills, to be the mast

*great* admiral. *Milton.*  
y quality in a high degree.—There  
1 *great* fear. *Pf. xiv. 5.*

ow'r was *great*. *Milton.*

*Great* triumph and rejoicing was in heav'n.

*Milton.*  
Charms such as thine, inimitably *great*  
He only could express. *Broome.*

3. Having number or bulk, relative or compara-  
tive.—The idea of so much is positive and clear:  
the idea of *greater* is also clear, but it is but a  
comparative idea. *Locke.*—4. Considerable in ex-  
tent or duration.—Thou hast spoken of thy ser-  
vants house for a *great* while to come. 2 *Pa. vii. 19.*  
5. Important; weighty.—

Make sure  
Her favours to thee, and the *great* oath take  
With which the blessed gods assurance make.

*Chapman.*  
Many  
Have broke their backs with laying manors on  
them,

For this great journey. *Sbak. Hen. VIII.*  
What is low raise and support,  
That to the height of this *great* argument  
I may assert eternal Providence,  
And vindicate the ways of God to men. *Milt.*

On some *great* charge employ'd  
He seem'd, or fix'd in cogitation deep. *Milton.*

By experience of this *great* event,  
In arms not worse. *Milton.*

After silence then,  
And summons read, the *great* consult began.

*Milton.*  
—And though this be a *great* truth, if it be impar-  
tially considered, yet it is also a *great* paradox to  
men of corrupt minds and vitious practices. *Tillot.*

6. Chief; principal.—  
Hear the king's pleasure, cardinal, who com-  
mands you  
To render up the *great* seal presently. *Sbak.*

7. Venerable; adorable; awful.—  
Thou first art wort God's *great* authentick  
will,  
Interpreter, through highest heav'n to bring.

*Milton.*  
8. Wonderful; marvellous.—  
*Great* things, and full of wonder. *Milton.*

9. Of high rank; of large power.—  
Such men as he be never at heart's ease,  
Whilst they behold a *greater* than themselves.

*Sbak. Julius Caesar.*  
Worthiest by being good,  
Far more than *great* or high. *Milton.*

Of all the *great*, how few  
Are just to heav'n, and to their promise true!

*Pope's Odyssey.*  
Misfortune made the throne her seat,  
And none could be unhappy but the *great*.

*Rouev.*  
Despise the farce of state.  
The sober follies of the wife and *great*. *Pope.*

The marble tombs that raise on high,  
Whose dead in vaulted arches lie;  
These, all the poor remains of state,  
Adorn the rich, or praise the *great*. *Parnel.*

10. General; extensive in consequence or influ-  
ence.—  
Prolifick humour soft'ning all her globe,  
Fermented the *great* mother to conceive. *Milt.*

11. Illustrions; eminent; noble; excellent.—O  
Lord

Lord, thou art *great*, and thy name is *great* in might. *Jer. x. 6.*—

The *great* Creator thus reply'd, *Milton.*  
The *great* Son return'd

Victorious with his faints. *Milton.*

Fair angel, thy desire that tends to know

The works of God, thereby to glorify

The *great* work-master, tends to no excess

That reaches blame. *Milton.*

*Great* are thy works Jehovah, infinite

Thy pow'r! what thought can measure thee, or tongue

Relate thee! *greater* now in thy return,

Than from the giant angels: thee that day

Thy thunder magnified, but to create

Is *greater* than created to destroy. *Milton.*

The *great* luminary,

Aloof the vulgar constellations thick,

That from his lordly eye keep distance due,

Dispenses light from far. *Milton.*

Here Cæsar grac'd with both Minervas shone,

Cæsar, the world's *great* master, and his own.

*Pope.*

Scipio,

*Great* in triumphs, in retirement *great.* *Pope.*

12. Grand of aspect; of elevated mien.—

Such Dido was; with such becoming state,

Amidst the crowd, she walks serenely *great.*

*Dryd. Virg.*

13. Magnanimous; generous; high minded.—In

her every thing was goodly and stately; yet so,

that it might seem that *great* mindedness was but

the ancient-bearer to the humbleness. *Sidney.*—

14. Opulent; sumptuous; magnificent.—

Not Babylon,

Nor *great* Alcaïro, such magnificence

Equall'd in all their glories. *Milton.*

—He disdain'd not to appear at *great* tables and

festival entertainments. *Atterb.* 15. Intellectually

*great*; sublime.—

This new created world, how good, how fair,

Answering his great idea. *Milton.*

16. Swelling; proud.—Solyman perceived that

Vienna was not to be won with words, nor the

defendants to be discouraged with *great* looks;

wherefore he began to batter the walls. *Knolles.*

17. Familiar; much acquainted. A low word.

—Those that would not censure, or speak ill of a

man immediately, will talk more boldly of those

that are *great* with them, and thereby wound

their honour. *Bacon.* 18. Pregnant; teeming.—

His eyes sometimes even *great* with tears. *Sidney.*

Their bellies *great*

With swelling vanity, bring forth deceit. *Sandys.*

This fly, for most he stings in heat of day,

From cattle *great* with young keep thou away.

*Moy's Virg.*

19. It is added in every step of ascending or descending

consanguinity: as *great* grandson is the

grandson of my grandson.—I dare not yet affirm

for the antiquity of our language, that our *great-*

*great-great* grandfathers tongue came out of Persia.

*Camden's Remains.*—What we call *great great*

grandfather they called forthafader. *Camden's Remains.*—

Their holyday-cloaths go from father to

son, and are seldom worn out till the 2d or 3d

generation; so that is it common enough to see a

countryman in the doublet and breeches of his

*great* grandfather. *Addison.* 20. Har-

grievous. A proverbial expression.—

matter to live lovingly with good meek persons. *Taylor's Devotion.*

(2.) GREAT is also a title appropriate to certain princes, as, the *great* Turk, the

*great* cham of Tartary, the *great* prince, &c.

(3.) GREAT is also a surname bestowed upon several kings and emperors, as, Alexander

Cyrus the *great*; Charles the *great* *great*, &c.

(4.) \* GREAT, *n. f.* [from the adjective] whole; the gross; the whole in a

part. To let out thy harvest by *great*. Let this by experience lead thee that

By *great* will deceive thee with thy

out, By day will dispatch. —It were behoveful, for the strength

that no ships should be builded by thee, by daily experience they are found to

imperfect. *Raleigh.*— He did at length so many slain fight

And lost the tale, and took them to

—Carpenters build an house by the *great* agreed for the sum of money. *Mexon*

one day in a week for lovers, and into *great* for any gentlewoman who is true

*Addison.* (5.) A GREAT MANY, a very un- though common phrase, to be found in

authors. See DICTIONARY, § 4. GREAT BANK OF NEWFOUNDLAND

is a fishing bank on the coast of Newfoundland

tending from N. to S. but nearly of a shape. It is separated from the island

by a broad channel of deep water. It is Lon. 49. 45. and 54. 45. W. and betw

o. and 50. 24. N. GREAT BARRINGTON, a town in Massachusetts in Berkshire county, 150 m

Boston, and 20 E. by S. of Hudson, in GREAT BEAR LAKE, a water in the

of N. America, which runs W. into the River, near the Arctic circle. Its mouth

is 1000 yards wide. \* GREATBELLIED. *adj.* [*great* and *bellied*]

teeming.— *Greatbellied* women, That had not half a week to go. *Bl*

In the old time of war, would shake

—A *greatbellied* woman, walking thrity in the day time, had her child stir

her womb, and carried half a turkie. *Wilkins.*

GREAT BRITAIN. See BRITAIN, and SCOTLAND. The long projected

tween Great Britain and Ireland, was proposed in the last Irish parliament, w

a majority in the parliaments of both in 1800; It took place on new years

day the first meeting of the Imperial parliament on the 22d of January 1801. See GREAT DISMAL SWAMP. See DIS

\* To GREATEN. *v. a.* [from *great*]

to enlarge; to magnify. A word little  
r they fought to *greaten* themselves in  
using strangers for the commanders of  
t, the Turks by degrees beat them out  
goodly countries. *Raleigh*.—A favour-  
:is is to please his king, a minister's to  
exalt him. *Ken*.

ER TONE, in music. See TONE.  
FAMING, a river of New York, which  
mountains near the source of the Onca-  
ns NW. by W. into Lake Ontario, 10  
of Black river.

THEARTED. *adj.* [*great and heart.*]  
ed; undejected.—The earl, as *great-*  
ie, declared that he neither cared for  
ip, nor feared his hatred. *Clarendon*.

EAT ISLAND, an island of Ireland, in  
miles long, and from 1 to 3 broad, 8  
Cork.

EAT ISLAND, an island of New Hamp-  
catagua harbour.

ATLY. *adv.* [from *great.*] 1. In a  
e.—

row I will *greatly* multiply. *Milton*.  
illustriously.—

ondon, empress of the northern clime,  
gh fate thou *greatly* didst expire. *Dryd.*  
imously; generously; bravely.—

: are these bold intrepid sons of war,  
:atly turn their backs upon the foe,  
heir general send a brave defiance?

*Addison's Cato.*

MAN'S BAY, a bay of Ireland, on the  
Galway, 6 miles N. of Arran.

ATNESS. *n. f.* [from *great.*] 1. Large-  
ntity or number. 2. Comparative

We can have no positive idea of any  
iration, which is not made up of and  
ate to repeated numbers of feet or  
lays or years, and whereby we judge  
*tness* of these sort of quantities. *Locke*.  
nt good does not, according to the  
has, or is acknowledged to have, cause  
to that *greatness*, as all pain causes de-  
o itself; because the absence of good is  
a pain, as the presence of pain is. *Locke*.  
gree of any quality.—Zeal, in duties,  
proportioned to the *greatness* of the re-  
the certainty. *Rogers*. 4. High place;  
ower; influence; empire.—The most  
ery is lodged most easily in the groy-  
ty; for their ordinary conceit draw-  
ling to *greatness*, and then have they  
discern the right degrees of duty. *Sid-*

el, a long farewell to all my *greatness*.  
*Shak.*

So many  
o *greatness* dedicate themselves. *Shak.*  
your *greatness* not to give the law  
realms; but beaten, to withdraw.

*Dryden.*

oaching *greatness* met him with her  
rms  
r and future state;  
k her from his arms. *Dryden.*

cles raised the Athenians to their *great-*  
PART. II.

*ness* at sea, which he thought to be the true and  
constant interest of that commonwealth. *Swift*.  
3. Swelling pride; affected state.—My lord would  
have you know, that it is not of pride or *greatness*  
that he cometh not aboard your ships. *Bacon*. 6.  
Merit; magnanimity; nobleness of mind.—

*Greatness* of mind and nobleness their feat  
Build in her loveliest. *Milton*.

7. Grandeur; state; magnificence.—  
*Greatness* with Timon dwells in such draught,  
As brings all Brobdignag before your thought.

*Pope.*

GREAT RIDGE, a ridge of the ALLEGANY  
mountains between the Savannah and the Alata-  
maha.

GREAT SKELIG, an island of Ireland on the  
coast of Kerry, in Munster.

\* GREAVE. *n. f.* [*graf, Saxon.*] A grove.  
*Spenser*.—

Yet when there haps a honey-fall,  
We'll lick the firupt leaves,

And tell the bees that theirs is gall  
To that upon the *greaves*. *M. Drayton.*

(1.) GREAVES, John, an eminent physician  
and antiquary, the eldest son of John Greaves rec-  
tor of Colemore, near Alresford in Hampshire.  
He was born in 1602, and educated at Balliol Col-  
lege in Oxford, from which he removed to Mer-  
ton. He was afterwards chosen professor of geo-  
metry, in Gresham college. His ardent thirst of  
knowledge led him to travel into several parts of  
Europe, where he eagerly seized every opportu-  
nity of improving it. His next voyage was into  
the eastern countries; where nothing remarkable  
in the heavens, earth, or even subterraneous pla-  
ces seems to have escaped his observation. He,  
with indefatigable industry, and even at the peril  
of his life, collected a considerable number of A-  
rabic, Persian, and Greek MSS. for Abp. Laud.  
Of these he well knew the value, as he was a mas-  
ter of the languages in which they were written.  
He also collected for that prelate many oriental  
gems and coins. He took a more accurate sur-  
vey of the pyramids than any traveller who went  
before him. On his return from the East, he vi-  
sited several parts of Italy a second time. During  
his stay at Rome, he made a particular inquiry in-  
to the true state of the ancient weights and mea-  
sures. Soon after he finished his 2d voyage, he  
was chosen Savilian professor of astronomy at Ox-  
ford, for which he was eminently qualified. His  
books relating to oriental learning, his *Pyramido-*  
*graphia*, or a description of the pyramids in E-  
gypt, his *Epochæ Celebriores*, and other curious  
and useful pieces, of which Mr Ward has given  
us a catalogue, shew him to have been a great  
man. Those which he intended to publish would  
have shown him to be a greater; but he was stop-  
ped in his great career by death in 1652.

(2.) \* GREAVES. *n. f.* [from *gréves, Fr.*] Ar-  
mour for the legs; a sort of boots. It wants the  
singular number.—He had *greaves* of brass upon  
his legs. 1 Sam. xvii. 6.—

A shield make for him, and a helm, fair  
*greaves*, and curets such

As may renown thy workmanship, and honour  
him as much. *Chapman.*

GREBE. See COLYMBUS, N<sup>o</sup> 2, 3, and 12.

GREBENSTEIN, a town of Hesse Cassel, 12 m. NW. of Cassel, and 16 NNE. of Naumburg.

GREBIN, a town of Prussia, in Pomerania, 6 miles SE. of Dantzic.

GRECIAN. See GREER.

GRECINUS, Julius, a Roman Senator and a man of letters, born at Prejus, in the reign of Augustus. He was a man of exemplary virtue, and was put to death by Caligula, for refusing to accuse an innocent man who had incurred that tyrant's displeasure.

\* GRECISM. *n. f.* [*gracismus*, Lat.] An idiom of the Greek language.

GREEDINO, a town of Franconia, in the bishopric of Aichstadt, 13 miles NE. of Aichstadt.

\* GREE. *n. f.* [*gré*, French; probably from *gratia*.] Good will; favour; good graces.—

And falling her before on lowly knee,  
To her makes present of his service seen,  
Which she accepts with thank: and goodly gree.

*Spenser.*

(1. 1.) GREECE, in many respects, one of the most deservedly celebrated countries in the world, was anciently bounded on the N. by Macedonia and the river Strymon, on the W. by the Ionian sea; on the S. by the Mediterranean; on the E. by the Egean sea and Archipelago. It extended from the Strymon, by which it was parted from Thraee, to the promontory of Tenarus, the southernmost point of the Peloponnesus, now the Morea, about 6° 20' of latitude, or nearly 440 English miles, and in breadth from E. to W. about 350 miles.

(2.) GREECE, ANCIENT NAMES OF THE INHABITANTS OF. The general names by which the inhabitants of this country were known to the ancients were those of *Graioi*, or *Graicoi*, from whence the name of *Greece* is plainly derived. These names are thought to come from *GRÆCUS*, the father, or (according to some) the son, of Thessalus, who gave name to Thessaly; but some modern critics derive it from *Raga*, the same with *Reu*, the son of Peleg, by the transposition of a letter to soften the sound.—These names were afterwards changed for *ACHÆI* or *ACHIVI*, and *HELLENES*, the first, as is supposed, from *Achæus*, the son of Xuthus, the son of Hellen, and father of Ion; or, according to the fable, the son of Jupiter: the other from Hellen, above-mentioned, the son of Deucalion, and father of Dorus, from whom came the *Dores*, afterwards a famous nation among the Greeks.—Another name by which the Greeks were known in some parts of the country, was that of *PELAGI*, which the Arcadians, the most ancient people in Greece, deduced from their pretended founder *Pelafgus*, who is said to have got such footing in Peloponnesus, that the whole peninsula from him was called *PELAGIA*. But the most ancient name of all is universally allowed to have been that of *IONES*, which the Greeks themselves derived from *Ion* the son of Xuthus; or, as the fable hath it, of *Apollo*, by *Creusa* the daughter of *Erechtheus* the grandson of *Deucalion*. *Josephus*, however, affirms, that their original is of much older date; and that *JAVAN*, the son of *Japhet*, and grandson of *Noah*, was the first who peopled these countries; which *Bochart* has also rendered very pro-

bable. It is true, indeed, that among the themselves, only the Athenians and such as sprung from them, were called *Jones*; is also plain beyond exception, that other gave this name to all the inhabitants of Greece.

(3.) GREECE, ANCIENT SAVAGE STATE. The inhabitants of Greece in the first according to their own historians, appear to have been savages scarce a degree removed from the brute. They lived indifferently on every fruit, and the root that came in their way; and lay either in the open fields, or at best sheltered themselves in caves, and hollow trees: while the country remained one uncultivated desert.—The improvement they made in their way of living, was the exchanging of their old food for the more wholesome acorns, building huts for themselves to sleep in, and covering their bodies with the skins of beasts. For all this, it seems, they were helden to *Pelafgus* above mentioned (6) by some to be *PELEG* spoken of in Scripture who was highly revered by them on that account. This reformation in their way of living, however, it seems wrought none in their manners. On the contrary, they who had nothing to do but a hole to sleep in, began now to rob one another of these slender acquisitions in process of time, put them under a necessity of joining themselves into companies under a head, that they might either more safely defend their neighbours, or preserve what they had. Laws they had none except that of the law of nature, that those only lived in safety who inhabited the most barren and craggy places; and hence for a long time had no settled inhabitants, the weakest being always turned out by the strongest. Their gigantic size and strength, if we believe *Plutarch*, added so much to their pride and cruelty, that they seemed to glory in committing the greatest acts of violence and bloodshed on those that unhappily fell into their hands.

(4.) GREECE, ANCIENT STATES AND DOMS OF. The next advance towards civilization was their forming themselves into regular states, to cultivate the lands, and build towns for their safety. Their original barbarity and mutual violence prevented them from uniting into one nation, or even into any considerable commonwealth, and hence the great number of states into which Greece was originally divided. The most considerable of these small principalities mentioned in the following: In *Peloponnesus* were *Sicyon*, *Argos*, and *Messenia*, *Achaia*, *Arcadia*, and *Laconia*. In *Grecia Propria* part of Greece which lay without *Peloponnesus* were those of *Attica*, *Megara*, *Boeotia*, *Epichnemidia*, *Doris*, *Phocis*, *Locris*, and *Ætolia*. In *Epirus* were the *Molopiloichi*, *Cassiopæi*, *Dryopes*, *Chaocæi*, *protii*, *Almeni*, and *Acarnani*. In *Thessaly* those of *Thessaliotis*, *Estiotis*, *Pelagiotis*, and *Phthia*. All these were at one time or other severally governed by kings of the same name, though we only find the names of many mentioned in the histories of the more considerable kingdoms of *Sparta*, *Attica*, *Thebes*.

(5.) GREECE, GENERAL HISTORY OF THE SIEGE OF TROY. The cretion

however, for some time, did not much suffer; the inhabitants of the new kingdom were not destroyed one another with-

Attica was the only place in any degree secure from these incursions, because it was naturally the seat of every thing that could invite an enemy; but those cities suffered much which were situated on the sea-coasts; they were in continual danger of being plundered by sea or land: for pirates at that time infested all those seas than robbers do. And this was one main cause why the ancient cities of Greece were situated at a considerable distance from the shore; but, as all their safety consisted in the help they could make against an invader, they were under a necessity of going armed, and being ever on their guard. The chief arising from these continual robberies was, that they occasioned a great part of the lands to lie uncultivated; the people only planted and sowed as much as was barely necessary for their support; there was so great a neglect of agriculture, that there could be little room for any discoveries in the liberal arts and trades. Hence, when other nations, such as the Jews, Egyptians, Midianites, Phœnicians, had improved themselves to a very high degree in every useful art, the Greeks seem to have been utter barbarians, the most renowned Grecian heroes, Hercules, Theseus, &c. performed exploits which, however exaggerated by tradition, no doubt had a foundation in truth. The Greeks are of opinion, that the Grecian heroes were entirely fictitious, and their exploits deceptions of the Hebrew worthies, such as Samson, &c. Yet, considering the excess of barbarity which at that time prevailed throughout Greece, it seems not at all improbable that some persons of extraordinary courage might undertake the adventures, and travel about like the rovers of the sea, and fight errant in quest of adventures.

GREECE, GENERAL HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT. The history of Greece from the time of the Trojan war, in which we find the Greeks united against Troy, for the particulars of that war, see TROY. Their success in this war, which ended about A. A. C. 1184, cost them vast numbers of their bravest warriors, and great numbers of the survivors being obliged to return; and many of those who returned, either by ill fortune, or being ordered, or driven out of their country, it is probable however, that their having been a long time in Asia, might contrivance the Greeks somewhat sooner than otherwise would have been; and accordingly, we find their history somewhat improved, and as it were beginning to emerge from its infancy. The continual wars, indeed, in which they were engaged among themselves, no long time, prevented them from making considerable progress in those arts in which afterwards made so great improvement. The Greeks, which indeed never ceased to be preserved their liberty, ren-

dered them brave, and skilled in the military art, above all other nations; but at the same time they effectually prevented them from making permanent conquests, and confined them within the bounds of their own country; while the different states were one way or other so equally balanced, that scarce one of them was able perfectly to subdue another. The Spartans, however, having, with great difficulty, reduced the kingdom of Messene, and added its territories to their own, became the leading people in Greece. Their superiority was long disputed by Athens; but the Peloponnesian war at last determined that point in favour of the Spartans, when the city of Athens was taken, and its walls demolished by Lysander the Spartan general. See ATTICA, § 13. By the battle of Leuctra, the Spartans lost that superiority which they had maintained for 500 years, and which now devolved on the Thebans. After the death of Epaminondas, the celebrated Theban general, however, as no person was found possessed of his abilities, the Thebans were again obliged to yield the superiority to the Spartans. But by this time the Greeks had become acquainted with the luxuries and elegancies of life; and all the rigour of their original laws could not prevent them from valuing these as highly as other people. This did not indeed abate their valour, but it heightened their mutual animosities; at the same time that, for the sake of a more easy and comfortable life, they became more disposed to submit to a master. The Persians, whose power they had long dreaded, and who were unable to resist them by force of arms, at last found out, by the advice of Alcibiades, the proper method of reducing the Grecian power; namely, by assisting them by turns, and supplying one state with money to fight against another, till they should all be so much reduced, that they might become an easy prey. Thus the Greeks were weakened, though the Persians did not reap any benefit from their weakness. Philip of Macedon entered into the same political views; and partly by intrigue, partly by force, got himself declared Generalissimo of Greece. His successor Alexander the Great completed their subjection; and by destroying the city of Thebes, and exterminating its inhabitants, struck such a terror throughout Greece, that he was as fully obeyed by all the states as by any of the rest of his subjects.

(7.) GREECE, HISTORY OF, TILL ITS SUBJUGATION BY THE TURKS. During the absence of Alexander in Persia the Greeks attempted to shake off the Macedonian yoke, but were quelled by his general Antipater. The news of Alexander's death was to them a matter of the utmost joy; but their mutual animosities prevented them from joining in any solid plan for the recovery of their liberties, and hence they continued to be oppressed by Alexander's successors, or other tyrants, till Aratus, the Achæan, about 268 B. C. formed a design of setting his country free from these oppressors. He persuaded a number of the small republics to enter into a league for their own defence, which was called the *Achæan league*; and notwithstanding that the republics, taken singly, had very little strength, they not only maintained their independence, but soon became formidable when un-



This association continued to become daily more and more powerful; but received a severe check from Cleomenes III. king of Sparta, which obliged them to call in Antigonus to their assistance. This prince overcame Cleomenes at the battle of Sellasia, and afterwards made himself master of Sparta. Thus he became a more formidable enemy than the one he had conquered, and the recovery of the Grecian liberties was incomplete. Soon after this, the Greeks began to feel the weight of a power more formidable than any which they had yet experienced; namely, that of the Romans. That insidious and haughty republic first inter-meddled with the Grecian affairs, under pretence of setting them at liberty from the oppression of Philip VI. of Macedon. This, by a proper union among themselves, they might have accomplished; but in this they acted as though they had been infatuated; receiving with the utmost joy the decree of the Roman consul, who declared them free; without considering, that he who had thus given them liberty, might take it away at his pleasure. This lesson, however, they were soon taught, by the total reduction of their country to a Roman province; yet this can scarce be called a misfortune, when we look back to their history, and consider their outrages upon one another; nor can we sympathize with them for the loss of that liberty, which they only made use of to fill their country with slaughter and bloodshed. After their conquest by the Romans, they made no united effort to recover their liberty. They continued in quiet subjection till the beginning of the 15th century. About that time, they began to suffer under the tyranny of the Turks, and their sufferings were completed by the taking of Constantinople in 1453. Since that time, they have groaned under the yoke of a most despotic government; so that all traces of their former valour, ingenuity, and learning, are now in a manner totally extinct. Whether the exertions of Passwan Oglou, or those of the French shall tend to revive their ancient spirit, time must determine.

(8.) GREECE, PRESENT STATE OF. Modern Greece, now called EUROPEAN TURKEY, and by the Turks RUMELIA, comprehends Macedonia; Albania, now called ARNAUT; Epirus; Thessaly, now JANA; Achaia, now LIVADIA; the Peloponnesus, now MOREA; together with the islands on its coast, and in the Archipelago. The continent of Greece is seated betwixt 36° and 43° lat. N. and between 19° and 26° lon. E. of London. On the N. it is bounded by Bulgaria and Servia, from which it is divided by a ridge of mountains; on the S. by the Mediterranean sea; on the E. by Romania and the Archipelago; and on the W. by the Adriatic. Its length is above 400 miles, and its utmost breadth about 350. The air is extremely temperate and healthy; and the soil fruitful, though badly cultivated; yielding corn, wine, delicious fruits, and abounding with cattle, fowls, and venison. See GREEKS, § 5, 8, and 10.

(11.) \* GREECE. *n. f.* [corrupted from *degrees*. It is written likewise *greece* or *gizee*.] A slight of steps. Obsolete.—

Ev'ry *greece* of fortune  
Is smother'd by that below. *Shak.*  
—After the procession, the king himself remaining

seated in the quire, the lord archbishop, *greece* of the quire, made a long oration. *Henry VII.*

GREECESTER, a small town of En Northumberland, N. o. Otterburn.

\* GREEDILY. *adv.* [from *greedy*.] Ravenously; voraciously; with keen desire.—

*Greedy* she engorg'd without restraint.

He swallow'd it as *greedy*

As parched earth drinks rain.

Ev'n deadly plants, and herbs of poison  
Wild hunger seeks; and to prolong our  
We *greedy* devour our certain death.

\* GREEDINESS. *n. f.* [from *greedy*.] Greediness; voracity; hunger; eagerness of desire.—

Fox in stealth, wolf in *greediness*.

—Thither with all *greediness* of ambition  
gone, and there they intend to sup. *Shak.*  
*ter's Tale.*—

If thou wert the wolf, thy *greediness*  
sift thee. *Shakespeare*

I with the same *greediness* did seek.

As water when I thirst, to swallow *Greedy*

\* GREEDY. *adj.* [*gradig*, Sax. *greotig*, Dutch.] 1. Ravenous; voracious

—As a lion that is *greedy* of his prey. *Ph.*  
—Be not unsatiable in any dainty thing  
*greedy* upon meats. *Ecclesiast.* xxxvii. 29.—  
the *greedy* ravens to be Elias's caterers,  
him food. *King Charles.* 2. Eager; voracious.  
It is now commonly taken  
sense.—

*Greedy* to know, as is the mind of

Their cause of death, swift to the first

—The ways of every one that is *greedy* of

Stern look'd the fiend, as frustrated

Not half suffic'd, and *greedy* yet to kill

While the reaper fills his *greedy* barn

And binds the golden sheaves in brit

—How fearful would he be of all *greedy*

just ways of raising their fortune? *Low*

(1.) GREEK, or GRECIAN, *adj.* Be

Greece.

(2.) GREEK BIBLES. See BIBLE, § V

(3.) GREEK CHURCH, is that part of  
an church which is established in Greece  
likewise to some other parts of Turkey.  
It is so called, in contradistinction from  
Romish church; also the *Eastern church*  
tion from the *Western*. The Roman  
Greek church the *Greek schism*; because  
do not allow the authority of the pope  
pend wholly, as to matters of religio  
own patriarchs. They have treated th  
matics ever since the *revolt*, as they ca  
patriarch Photius.

(4.) The GREEK LANGUAGE, as pres  
writings of the celebrated authors of  
Homer, Hesiod, Demosthenes, Arist  
Xenophon, &c. has a great variety of  
expressions, suitable to the genius an  
of a polite and learned people, who  
for arts and sciences. In it, proper na  
nificative; which is the reason that t

borrow so many terms from it. When invention, instrument, machine, or the discovered, recourse is generally had to for a name to it; the facility where-  
 by are there compounded, affording such expressive of its use; such are, barometer, er, microscope, telescope, &c. But of es, medicine most abounds with such a diaphoretic, diagnosis, diarrhœa, hæ-, hydrophobia, phthisis, atrophy, &c. he copiousness and significance of the herein it excels most, if not all, other; it has also 3 numbers, viz. a singular, plural; a number of tenses in its verbs, takes a variety in discourse, prevents a ynefs that always accompanies too great unity, and renders that language peculiar for all kinds of verse. The use of the s, of the aorists and preterite, together compound words already mentioned, peculiar force and brevity, without ab- from its peripicuity. It is difficult to precise difference between the modern nt Greek; which consists in the term- of the nouns, pronouns, verbs, &c. not hat obtains between some of the dialects alian or Spanish. There are also in the Greek many new words, not to be met re ancient. We may therefore distinguish of the Greek tongue: the first of which he time when Constantinople became the of the Roman empire; the second lasted t period to the taking of Constantinople urks; and the third from that time to

**GREEK MONKS and NUNS**, of whatever or- sider St Basil as their founder and common ind esteem it the highest crime to deviate aft from his constitutions. There are fe- atiful convents with churches, in which ks perform divine serv. e day and night. the monks are *Cenobites*, or live together, e same habit, eat at the same table, e the same exercises and employments.

**GREEK ORDERS**, in architecture, are the onic, and Corinthian; in contradistinction wo Latin orders, the Tuscan and Compo- e ARCHITECTURE, *Index*.

**GREEKS**, the people of Greece.

**GREEKS, CHARACTER OF THE MODERN.** dern Greeks are said to be very covetous, tical, treacherous, great pederasts, and at e time revengeful to the highest degree; r superstitious. They are so much despised urks, that these do not value even a Greek ns Mahometan. Yet Baron De Tott says, enty Greeks, who were natives of Mace- lefated eighty Turkish soldiers; and that ling of the exploits of Alexander, the Troy, &c. See his *Memoirs*, volume 2d. urks are remarkable for their taciturney never use any unnecessary words: but eks, on the contrary, are very talkative ly. The Turks generally practise what igion enjoins, but the Greeks do not; and usery puts them upon a thousand mean d scandalous practices, authorised by bad ; and perpetuated from father to son. The

Greek women have fine features and beautiful complexions: their countenances still very much resemble those of the ancient Greek statues.

(9.) **GREEKS, HISTORY OF THE.** See ATTICA, CONSTANTINOPLE, GREECE, § 5—7, SPARTA, THEBES, &c.

(10.) **GREEKS, RELIGION AND CLERGY OF THE.** Christianity was planted in Greece soon after the death of our Saviour, and flourished there for many ages in great purity; but since the Greeks became subject to the Turkish yoke, they have sunk into the most deplorable ignorance, in consequence of the slavery and thraldom under which they groan, and their religion is now greatly corrupted. It is indeed little better than a heap of ridiculous ceremonies and absurdities. The head of the Greek church is the patriarch of Constantinople; who is chosen by the neighbouring archbishops and metropolitans, and confirmed by the emperor or grand visir. He is a person of dignity, being the head and director of the eastern church. The other patriarchs are those of Jerusalem, Antioch, and Alexandria. Mr Tournefort tells us, that the patriarchates are now generally set to sale, and bestowed upon those who are the highest bidders. The patriarchs, metropolitans, archbishops, and bishops, are always chosen from among the Caloyers or Greek monks. Before the patriarchs receive their patents and the castan, which is a vest of linsy-woolsey, or some other stuff, presented by the grand signior to ambassadors and other persons newly invested with some considerable dignity, they are obliged to make large presents to the vizir, &c. The income of the patriarch of Constantinople is said to amount to no less than 120,000 guilders, of which he pays the one half by way of annual tribute to the Ottoman Porte, adding 6000 guilders as a present at the feast of Bairam. The next person to a bishop among the clergy is an archimandrite, who is the director of one or more convents, which are called *mandren*; then come the abbot, the arch-priest, the priest, the deacon, the under deacon, the chanter, and the lecturer. The secular clergy are subjected to no rules, and never rise higher than high priest. They are allowed to marry once; but it must be with a virgin, and before they are ordained. They have neither glebe nor tythes, but depend on the perquisites that arise from their office; and they seldom preach but in Lent. The Greeks have few nunneries; but many convents of monks, who are all priests, and, students excepted, obliged to follow some handicraft employment, and lead a very austere life. The Greeks deny the supremacy of the pope, and abhor the worship of images; but have many pictures of saints in their churches, whom they pray to as mediators. Their fasts are very severe. They believe also in the doctrine of transubstantiation, and that the Holy Ghost does not proceed from the Son. They admit not of purgatory, says Mr Thevenot: but yet they allow a third place, where they say the blessed remain, in expectation of the day of judgment. At mass they consecrate with leavened bread; and both priests and laymen communicate under both kinds, and women and children as well as men. When they carry the sacrament to the sick, they do not prostrate themselves before it, nor expose it

it to be adored: nor do they carry it in procession, or have any particular feast in honour of it. Baptism is performed among them by plunging the whole body of the child thrice into water. Immediately after baptism, they give it confirmation and the communion; and seven days after that, it undergoes the ceremony of ablution. When a priest is married, among other ceremonies, the bridegroom and bride drink each two glasses of wine; then the glass is given to the priest, who merrily drinks off the rest of the wine, and breaking the glass, says, So may the bridegroom break the virginity of the bride.

(1, i.) \* GREEN. *adj.* [*grun*, German; *groen*, Dutch.] 1. Having a colour formed commonly by compounding blue and yellow; of the colour of the leaves of trees or herbs. The green colour is said to be most favourable to the sight.—The general colour of plants is *green*, which is a colour that no flower is of: there is a greenish primrose, but it is pale, and scarce a *green*. *Bacon's N. Hist.*  
Groves for ever *green*. *Pope.*

2. Pale; sickly: from whence we call the maid's disease the *green sickness*, or *chlorosis*. Like it is *Sappho's*  $\chi\lambda\alpha\sigma\gamma\omicron\tau\omicron\upsilon\sigma\epsilon\upsilon\sigma$ .—

Was the hope drunk  
Wherein you dress'd yourself? Hath it slept since?  
And wakes it now to look so *green* and pale  
And what it did so freely? *Shak. Macbeth.*  
—There's never any of these demure boys come to any proof: they fall into a kind of male *green sickness*. *Shak. Henry IV.*—

'Till the *green sickness* and love's force betray'd  
To death's remorseless arms th' unhappy maid.  
*Garth.*

3. Flourishing; fresh; undecayed: from trees in Spring.—If I have any where said a *green* old age, I have Virgil's authority; *Sed cruda deo viridisque senectus*. *Dryden.* 4. New; fresh: as, a *green* wound.—

The door is open, fir; there lies your way:  
You may be jogging while your boots are *green*.  
*Shakespeare.*

Griefs are *green*;  
And all thy friends, which thou must make thy friends,  
Have but their stings and teeth newly ta'en out.  
*Shak. Henry IV.*

In a vault,  
Where bloody Tybalt, yet but *green* in earth,  
Lies festering in his blood. *Shak. Rom. and Jul.*  
—A man that studieth revenge keepeth his own wounds *green*, which otherwise would heal and do well. *Bacon.*—I might dilate on the temper of the people, the power, arts, and interest of the contrary party, but those are invidious topics, too *green* in our remembrance. *Dryden.* 5. Not dry.—If a spark of error have thus far prevailed falling even where the wood was *green*, and farthest off from any inclination unto furious attempts; must not the peril thereof be greater in men, whose minds are of themselves as dry fuel, apt beforehand unto tumults? *Hooker.*—

Being an olive tree  
Which late he fell'd; and being *green*, must be  
Made lighter for his manage. *Chapman.*

—Of fragility the cause is an impotency intended, and therefore stone is more brittle than metal, and so dry wood is more fragile than *Bacon's N. H.*—If you but consider a piece of wood burning in a chimney, you will discern, in the disbanded parts of it, the elements. *Boyle.*—The *green* do often heat and the ripe, so heated, give fire to the *Mort. Husb.* 6. Not roasted; half raw: this head we may rank those words which have different ideas, by a sort of an unaccounted fetched analogy, or distant resemblance, that has introduced between one thing and another, as when we say the meat is *green*, when roasted. *Watt's Log.* 7. Unripe; immature because fruits are *green* before they are ripe.

My salad days,  
When I was *green* in judgment, cold in blood.

O charming youth, in the first op'ning  
So many graces in so *green* an age.

You'll find a difference  
Between the promise of his *greener* day  
And these he masters now. *Shak. King's Lear.*

—If you would fat *green* geese, shut them up  
they are about a month old. *Mort. Husb.*

Stubble geese at Michaelmas are seen  
Upon the spit, next May produces *green*.  
*King's Lear.*

(ii.) \* GREEN. *n. f.* 1. The green colour of different shades.—

Her mother bath intended,  
That, quaint in *green*, she shall be looked

But with your presence cheer'd, they  
mourn;  
And walks wear fresher *green* at your return.

—Cinnabar, illuminated by this beam, appears the same red colour as in day light; and it is  
'lens you intercept the *green* making as making rays, its redness will become more and lively. *Newton's Optics.*—Let us but mix the two colours of yellow and blue: if they mingled together in any considerable proportion they make a *green*. *Watt's Logick.* 2. A plain.—

For this down-trodden equity, we tread  
In warlike march these *greens* before you

O'er the smooth enamell'd *green*,  
Where no print of step hath been,  
Follow me as I sing.

The young *Æmilia*, fairer to be seen  
Than the fair lilly on the flow'ry *green*.

3. Leaves; branches; wreaths.—  
With *greens* and flow'rs recruit their  
hives,

And seek fresh forage to sustain their lives  
Ev'ry brow with cheerful *green* is cropp'd  
The feasts are doubled, and the bowls go round.

The fragrant *greens* I seek, my brows to crown

(iii.) GREEN is one of the original primary colours, exhibited by the refraction of the white light. See CHROMATICS, § 7; and COLOURS (iv.) G

n, among painters and dyers. See KING, *Index*; and DYING, *Part III*.

REN, in geography, a river of Ken- rifies in Mercer county, has a gentle is navigable for about 150 miles to

, a river of Vermont, which rises in , and runs into the Connecticut, and in Massachusetts.

, a post town in the district of Maine, e of the Androscoggin, 31 miles W. town, and 39 N. of Portland.

REN, two townships of Pennsylvania, and Washington counties.

REEN, five English villages: viz. two shire; and one each in Lancashire, and, and Suffex.

EN, Matthew, an English poet of the , born in 1697. He held an office in use. His poem entitled *The Spleen* (kins) is characterised by wit and oridied in 1737, aged 41.

EN. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To make word.—

Great Spring before the year; and fruits and blossoms d  
veetness on the self-same bough.

*Thomson's Spring.*

E, a town of Denmark, in N. Jut- s NNE. of Arhuus.

-BRIAR, a fertile and extensive coun- ty, surrounded by those of Bath, Ran- on, Kanhaway, Botetourt, and Mont- is 100 miles long and 45 broad. It 1790, along with Kanhaway, (which a part of it,) 5706 citizens, and 309

-BRIAR, a river of the United States, SW. course, and falls into the Kan- t. 38° N.

ROOM. *n. f.* [*cytifo genista*, Latin.] A

IGH, a township of New York, in y; containing 164 electors, 1278 ci- 22 slaves, in 1795.

IV, a small town in Hertfordshire.

SH, a township of New York, in Ren-

TLE, a flourishing town of Pennsylv- akin county. It has a Presbyterian man Lutheran churches. It is 12 f. of Chamberburg and 156 W. by phia. Lon 2. 33. W. of that city.

NCLOTH. *n. f.* A board or court of the counting-house of the king's the taking cognizance of all matters t and justice within the king's court- correcting all the servants that shall —For the *greencloth* law, take it in se, I have no opinion of it. *Bacon.*

ICLOTH, BOARD OF, is composed toward and officers under him, who is court has power to maintain the verge, or jurisdiction of the court- is every way about 200 yards from

the last gate of the palace where his majesty re- sides. It takes its name from a green cloth spread over the board where they sit. Without a warrant first obtained from this court, none of the king's servants can be arrested for debt.

(3.) GREEN-CLOTH, CLERKS OF THE, were two officers of the board of green cloth, who appoint- ed the diet of the king and his household; and kept all records, ledgers, and papers relating there- to; made up bills, parcels, and debentures for salaries, and provisions and necessaries for the of- ficers of the buttery, pantry, cellar, &c. They also waited upon foreign princes when entertained by his majesty. But this was abolished in 1782.

(1.) GREENE, Edward Burnaby, an English poet of considerable merit, who published trans- lations of Anacreon and Pindar, with several origi- nal poems and plays. He died in 1788.

(2.) GREENE, a county of Georgia, bounded on the E. by Wilkes and S. by Washington counties; and on the W. and N. by the Oconee. It con- tained 4028 citizens, and 1377 slaves, in 1795. Greenborough is the capital.

(3.) GREENE, a county of Kentucky, bounded by Hardin and Jefferson counties on the E. the state of Tennessee on the S. the Mississippi on the W. and the Ohio on the N.

(4.) GREENE, a township of New York, in Tioga county, on the E. side of the Chenengo.

(5.) GREENE, a county of Tennessee, in Wash- ington district, containing, in 1795, 7287 citizens, and 454 slaves.

\* GREENEYED. *adj.* [*green* and *eye*.] Having eyes coloured with green.—

Doubtful thoughts, and rash embrac'd despair,  
And shudd'ring fear, and *greeney'd* jealousy.

*Shak.*

(1.) GREENFIELD, a township of Massachu- setts, in Hampshire county, on the W. coast of the Connecticut, containing 1498 citizens in 1790.

(2.) GREENFIELD, a flourishing town in the a- bove township, 4 miles N. of Deerfield, and 114 W. by N. of Boston.

(3.) GREENFIELD, a town of New York, in Sa- ratoga county. It had 380 electors in 1795.

(4, 5.) GREENFIELD, two villages of England, in Lincolnshire and Oxfordshire.

(1.) \* GREENFINCH. *n. f.* [*chloris*.] A kind of bird.—The chaffinch, *greenfinch*, dormouse, and other small birds, are injurious to some fruits. *Mortimer.*

(2.) GREEN-FINCH, in ornithology, the English name of the greenish *Tringilla*, with the wings and tail variegated with yellow. See FRINGILLA, N° 12.

(1.) \* GREENFISH. *n. f.* [*qfellus*, Lat.] A kind of fish. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) GREEN-FISH. See ONISCUS.

\* GREENGAGE. *n. f.* A species of plum.

(1.) GREENHOLM, one of the Orkney isles, 1½ miles SW. of Eda.

(2.) GREENHOLM, one of the Shetland islands, 10 miles NNW. of Lerwick.

(1.) \* GREENHOUSE. *n. f.* [*green* and *house*.] A house in which tender plants are sheltered from the weather.—If the season prove exceeding pier- cing, which you may know by the freezing of a moistened cloth set in your *greenhouse*, kindle some charcoal.

charcoal.  *Evelyn's Kalendar.*—Sometimes our road led us into several hollow apartments among the rocks and mountains, that look like so many natural *greenhouses*, as being always shaded with a great variety of trees and shrubs that never lose their verdure.  *Addison.*—A kitchen garden is a more pleasing sight than the finest orangery or artificial *greenhouse*.  *Spectator.*

(2.) A GREEN-HOUSE, or CONSERVATORY, is a house in a garden, contrived for sheltering and preserving the most curious and tender exotic plants, which in our climate will not bear to be exposed to the open air, especially during the winter season. These are generally large and beautiful structures, equally ornamental and useful. Their length must be proportioned to the number of plants intended to be preserved in them, and cannot therefore be reduced to rule; but their depth should never be greater than their height in the clear; which, in small or middling houses, may be 16 or 18 feet, but in large ones from 20 to 24 feet; and the length of the windows should reach from about one foot and a half above the pavement, and within the same distance of the ceiling, which will admit of a cornice round the building over the heads of the windows. Their breadth cannot be in proportion to their length; for if in the largest buildings they are more than 7 or 7½ feet broad, they will be extremely inconvenient. The piers between the windows must be as narrow as may be to support the building; for which reason they should either be of stone or of hard burnt bricks. If the piers are made of stone, they should be 30 inches wide in front, and sloped off behind to about 18 inches, by which means there will be no corners to take off the rays of the sun. If they are of brick, they will require to be at least 3 feet in front, but they should be in the same manner sloped off behind. Over the greenhouse may be rooms for drying and preserving seeds, roots, &c. and behind it a place for tools and other purposes; and both those behind, and the rooms above, will be of great use in keeping off the frosts, so that the wall between them need not be of more than two bricks and a half in thickness. The floor of the greenhouse, which should be laid either with Bremen squares, Purbeck stone, or flat tiles, must be raised two feet above the surface of the adjoining ground, or if the situation be damp, at least 3 feet; and if the whole is arched with low brick arches under the floor, they will be of great service in preventing damp; and under the floor, about two feet from the front, it will be advisable to make a flue of ten inches wide and two feet deep; this should be carried the whole length of the house, and then returned back along the hinder part, and there be carried up into funnels adjoining to the tool-house, by which the smoke may be carried off. The fire-place may be contrived at one end of the house, and the door at which the fuel is put in, as also the ash-grate, may be contrived to open into the tool house, and the fuel being laid in the same place, the whole will be out of sight. Bradley advises, that the front of green houses, in the colder parts of England, be built in a sweep or semicircle, so that one part or other of it may receive the sun's rays all day. The use of fires must,

however, be very sparing in this place one winter in 3 or 4 will require them if only when the weather is very severe frost cannot well be kept out any other is an expedient that is good to have in as it may save a whole house of plants side of the windows, in front of the glass there should be good strong shutters, hinges, to fold back close to the piers, may not obstruct the rays of the sun. part of the house should be either laid stucco or plastered with mortar, and white in order to prevent the frosty air from passing through the walls. When the green wainscotted, the walls should be plastered with lime and hair behind the wainscot, to keep out the cold; and the wainscot, as well as the ceiling and every part within the house, should be painted white, to reflect the sun's rays. There should be a number of tressels with forms of wood, to support the pots of plants; these should be placed hindmost, the lowest within of the windows; and the rows of plants should rise gradually, so that the heads of the plants should be entirely above the sills; and between them there should be a space of at least 12 inches for the convenience of watering the plants, and for the free circulation of the air. The place should be filled with phorbiums, cereuses, and other succulent plants among orange trees, and other common house plants, is always destructive of making them receive an improper sort of light, which plants of that kind imbibe very freely. These should therefore be placed in two wings at each end of the green-house; which, if well managed, will be a great beauty, as well as of use to the main house. These wings may be made capable of containing a hot-bed of tanner's bark, or other warmth also by more flues, and may be made to contain a hot-bed of tanner's bark, many of the tender plants, natives of warm climates. Whilst the front of the greenhouse is facing the SE. and the other the SW. By this the heat of the sun is reflected from one wing to the other all day, and the main green-house is guarded from cold winds. These two wings may be so contrived as to maintain plants of different degrees of heat, which may be easily effected by the situation of the fire-place, and the manner of conducting the flues: the wing facing the SE. is the most proper for the warmest plants, and may be divided in the middle by a wall of glass, with glass doors opening from one wing to the other. In each of these there should be a fire-place, with flues carried up against the wall, through which the smoke should be carried to pass as many times the length of the wing as the height will admit of the number of flues; the longer that the smoke is in passing the more heat will be given to the house with a less quantity of fuel. The other wing, facing the SW. should be divided and furnished with flues in the same manner; and thus different degrees of heat may be obtained, according to the seasons. Particular sorts of plants that are to be preserved in these there are no shades behind these wings should not be less than three bricks thick.

k part, having sloping roofs, which are covered with tiles or slates, should be lined with reeds, under the covering. The sloping glasses of the houses should be made to slide and take off, that they may be drawn down more or less warm weather to admit air to the plants; and upright glasses in front may be so contrived as every other may open as doors upon hinges, the alternate glasses may be divided into two: the upper part of each should be so contrived as to be drawn down like sashes, so that either of them may be used to admit air, in a greater or less quantity as there may be occasion. As to the management of the plants, Mortimer recommends watering the mould about them from time to time, sprinkling a little fresh mould in them, and a little warm dung on that; as also to water them when the leaves begin to wither and curl, and to water them, which would make them fade and dry; and to take off such leaves as wither and dry.

**GREENISH.** *adj.* [from *green*.] Somewhat tending to green.—

With goodly *greenish* locks, all loose, unty'd,  
Which had been a bride. *Spenser.*

In this order the green of all vegetables seems to be, partly by reason of the intenueness of their cells, and partly because, when they wither, some of them turn to a *greenish* yellow. *Newton.*

1.) **GREEN ISLAND**, an island of England, on the coast of Dorsetshire, near Poole.

2.) **GREEN ISLAND**, the name of two isles in Ireland; 1. in Carlingford Bay: 2. on the coast of Donaghadee: both included in Down county.

3.) **GREEN ISLAND**, an isle on the coast of Holland, 12 miles ENE. of Cape Graiton.

4.) **GREEN ISLAND**, an island on the W. end of Jamaica. It has a harbour with good anchorage.

5.) **GREEN ISLAND**, one of the VIRGIN ISLES.

6.) **GREENLAND**, a general name given to the most easterly parts of America, stretching towards the north pole, and comprehending some islands to the N. of Europe, lying in very high latitudes. This country is divided into West and East Greenland.

**GREENLAND, EAST**, was long considered as a part of the continent of West Greenland, but is now discovered to be an assemblage of islands lying between  $76^{\circ} 46'$  and  $80^{\circ} 30'$  lat. N. and between  $9^{\circ}$  and  $20^{\circ}$  lon. E. It was discovered by Hugh Willoughby in 1553, who called it **GREENLAND**; supposing it to be a part of the **EUROPEAN** continent. In 1595, it was again visited by William Barentz and John Cornelius, two Dutchmen, who pretended to be the original discoverers, and called the country **SPITZBERGEN**, from the sharp mountains, from the many sharp-pointed and rocky mountains with which it abounds. They alleged that the coast discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby was some other country; which accordingly the Hollanders delineated on their maps and charts by the name of *Willoughby Land*; whereas in fact no such land ever existed; and it was before the voyage of these Dutchmen, Stephen Barrows, an English shipmaster, had coasted along a desolate country from Lat.  $78^{\circ}$  to  $80^{\circ} 11'$ , which was undoubtedly Spitzbergen. The

sea in the neighbourhood of the islands of Spitzbergen abounds very much with whales. It is the common resort of the whale-fishing ships from different countries, and the country itself is frequently visited by these ships; but till the late voyage of Capt. Phipps, by order of his Majesty, the situation of it was erroneously laid down. It was imagined that the land stretched to the northward as far as  $82^{\circ}$  N. lat. but Capt. Phipps found the most northerly point of land, called *Seven Islands*, not to exceed  $8^{\circ} 30'$ . Towards the E. he saw other lands at a distance, so that Spitzbergen plainly appeared to be surrounded by water on that side, and not joined to the continent of Asia, as former navigators had supposed. He also explored the N. and W. coasts, but was prevented by the ice from sailing so far N. as he wished. The coast appeared neither habitable nor accessible. It is formed of high, barren, black rocks, without the least marks of vegetation; in many places bare and pointed; in others covered with snow, appearing even above the clouds. The valleys between the high cliffs were filled with snow and ice. "This prospect," says Capt. Phipps, "would have suggested the idea of perpetual winter, had not the mildness of the weather, the smooth water, bright sun shine, and constant day-light, given a cheerfulness and novelty to the whole of this romantic scene." The current ran along this coast half a knot an hour north. The height of one mountain seen here was found by geometrical mensuration to be  $1503\frac{1}{2}$ , or  $15037\frac{1}{2}$  feet. By a barometer constructed after De Luc's method, the height was found to be  $1588\frac{1}{2}$  feet. On this occasion Capt. Phipps remarks, "I cannot account for the great difference between the geometrical measure and the barometrical according to M. de Luc's calculation, which amounts to  $84\frac{1}{2}$  feet. I have no reason to doubt the accuracy of Dr Irving's observations, which were made with great care. As to the geometrical measure, the agreement of so many triangles, each of which must have discovered even the smallest error, is the most satisfactory proof of its correctness. Since my return I have tried both the theodolite and barometer, to discover whether there was any fault in either; and find them, upon trial, as I had always done before, very accurate." There is good anchorage in Schmeerenburgh harbour, lying in Lat.  $74^{\circ} 44'$  N. Lon.  $9^{\circ} 50' 45''$  E. in 13 fathom, sandy bottom, near the shore, and well sheltered from all winds. Close to this harbour is an island called *Amsterdam Island*, where the Dutch used formerly to boil their whale-oil; and the remains of some conveniency erected by them for that purpose are still visible. The Dutch ships still resort to this place for the latter season of the whale-fishery. The stone about this place is chiefly a kind of marble, which dissolves easily in the marine acid. There were no appearances of minerals of any kind, nor any signs of ancient or modern volcanoes. No insects, or any species of reptiles, were seen, not even the common earth worm. There were no springs or rivers; but plenty of water was produced from the snow which melted on the mountains. The most remarkable views which these dreary regions present are those called ICEBERGS. They are large



bodies of ice filling the valleys between the high mountains. Their face towards the sea is nearly perpendicular, and of a very lively light green colour. One was about 300 feet high, with a cascade of water issuing from it. The black mountains on each side, the white snow, and greenish coloured ice, composed a very beautiful and romantic picture. Large pieces frequently broke off from the icebergs, and fell with great noise into the water. One piece was observed to have floated out into the bay, and grounded in 24 fathoms; it was 50 feet high above the surface of the water, and of the same beautiful colour with the iceberg from which it had separated. These islands are totally uninhabited, though it doth not appear but that human creatures could subsist on them, notwithstanding their vicinity to the pole. Eight English sailors, who were accidentally left here by a whale-fishing ship, survived the winter, and were brought home next season. The Dutch then attempted to settle a colony on Amsterdam island above mentioned; but all the people perished, not through the severity of the climate, but of the scurvy, owing to the want of those remedies which are now happily discovered, and which are found to be so effectual in preventing and curing that dreadful disease.—The late account also of six Russian sailors who staid four years in this inhospitable country, affords a decisive proof, that a colony might be settled on East Greenland, provided the doing so could answer any good purpose.

II. GREENLAND, WEST, is now determined by our latest maps to be a part of the continent of America. That part of it, which the Europeans have any knowledge of, is bounded on the W. by Baffin's Bay, on the S. by Davis's Straits, and on the E. by the northern part of the Atlantic Ocean. It is very mountainous, and some parts of it are so high, that they can be discerned 30 leagues off at sea. The inland mountains, hills, and rocks, are covered with perpetual snow; but the low lands on the sea side are clothed with verdure in summer. The coast abounds with inlets, bays, and large rivers; and is surrounded with a vast number of islands of different dimensions. In many places, however, on the E. coast especially, the shore is inaccessible by reason of the floating mountains of ice. The principal river, called *Baal*, falls into the sea in Lat. 64° where the first Danish lodge was built in 1721; and has been navigated above 40 miles up the country.

(2.) GREENLAND, ACCOUNT OF THE FIRST SETTLEMENT AT. West Greenland was first peopled by Europeans in the 8th century, when a company of Icelanders, headed by one Eric Raude, or Roux, a Norwegian, were by accident driven on the coast. On his return he represented the country in such a favourable light, that some families followed him thither, where they soon became a thriving colony, and bestowed on their new habitation the name of GROENLAND, or *Greenland*, on account of its verdant appearance. This colony was converted to Christianity by Bp. Arnald, a missionary from Norway, sent thither by the celebrated OLAF, or OLAVUS, the first Norwegian monarch who embraced the true religion, about A. D. 1203. The Greenland settle-

ment continued to increase and thrive in protection; and in a short time the coast was provided with many towns, churches, bishops, &c. under the jurisdiction of Drontheim. A considerable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway, a regular intercourse maintained till 1492, when Andreas the last bishop was sent over. In the time all correspondence was cut off, and the knowledge of Greenland has been buried in obscurity. This strange and abrupt cessation of all intercourse has been attributed to various causes, but the most probable is the following:—The first colony, from its first settlement, had been peopled by the natives, a barbarous and savage people, agreeing in customs, garb, and appearance to the ESQUIMAUX. The nation, called the *LINGS*, exterminated the Iceland settlers, who had inhabited the western district, in the 14th century, so that when their brethren of the eastern colony came to their assistance, they found nothing but some cattle and flocks of sheep remaining about the country. They themselves afterwards experienced the same fate, and were destroyed by these Schrellings, whose descendants still inhabit the western parts of Greenland. From tradition say, that the houses and whose ruins still appear, were inhabited by a colony of strangers, whom their ancestors drove out. There may be still however, some descendants of the ancient Iceland colony remaining in the eastern district, though they cannot be visited on account of the stupendous mountains which are usually covered with snow, which divide the western parts of Greenland; while they have been rendered inaccessible by sea, by the vast quantities of ice driven from East Greenland. Mr. Cruttwell says, "the colony was found to be still existing in 1540." One would imagine that there must have been some considerable alteration in the coast of Greenland since the 15th century, so that the coast of Greenland is now become almost totally inaccessible, though formerly visited with very little. It is also natural to ask, by what means the people of the eastern colony surmounted the above-mentioned obstacles when they were in need of the assistance of their western friends; how they returned to their own country; and in what manner the historians learned the success of their expedition? Concerning all this we have very little satisfactory information. All that can be learned from the most authentic records is, that Greenland was divided into two districts, called *West Bygd* and *East Bygd*: that the western division consisted of 4 parishes and 100 villages: that the eastern district was still more flourishing, as being peopled by Iceland, sooner settled, and more frequented by shipping from Norway. There are also several accounts, though most of them romantically attested, which render it probable that the eastern colony still subsists, who, at present, or other, may have given the imperfect information above mentioned. This colony comprehended extensive parishes, 190 villages, a bishopric, and two monasteries. The present inhabitants of the western district are entirely ignorant of the eastern part, from which they are divided by high mountains and deserts, and still more



apprehensions: for they believe the eastern  
 ders to be a cruel, barbarous people,  
 try and eat all strangers who fall into  
 ds.

REENLAND, ACCOUNTS OF OTHER AT-  
 TO COLONIZE. About 1570, several  
 e sent successively by the kings of Den-  
 discover the eastern district; but they  
 died. Among these adventurers, Mag-  
 isen, or Helmion, after having surmounted  
 gers, got sight of the land; which, how-  
 could not approach. At his return, he  
 l that the ship was wrecked in the middle  
 use by rocks of loadstone at the bottom of  
 n 1576, Capt. Martin Frobisher was sent  
 same errand by Q. Elizabeth. He like-  
 iced the land; but could not reach it, and  
 returned to England; yet not before he  
 l sixty leagues in the strait which still  
 name, and landed on several islands,  
 had some communication with the na-  
 e had likewise taken possession of the  
 the name of Q. Elizabeth; and brought  
 e pieces of heavy black stone, from which  
 rs of London extracted a proportion of  
 the ensuing spring, he undertook a ad-  
 : the head of a small squadron, equipped  
 blic expence; entered the straits a ad-  
 covered upon an island a gold and silver  
 lowed names upon different bays, islands,  
 lands; and brought away a lading of  
 her with two natives, a male and a female,  
 e English kidnapped. Encouraged by  
 fs, another armament was fitted out un-  
 al Frobisher, consisting of 15 sail, with  
 able number of soldiers, miners, smel-  
 enters, and bakers, to remain all the  
 ir the mines in a wooden fort, the dif-  
 ces of which they carried out in the  
 . They met with boisterous weather,  
 ble fogs, and violent currents upon the  
 Greenland, which retarded their op-  
 until the season was far advanced. Part  
 rooden fort was lost at sea; and they  
 r provisions nor fuel sufficient for the  
 The admiral therefore determined to re-  
 ned large quantities out of a new mine,  
 s much ore as he could procure; of this  
 hey gave the name of *the Countess of Sus-*  
 likewise built a house of stone and lime,  
 ; and here, to conciliate the affection  
 ves, they left a quantity of small mor-  
 knives, beads, looking-glasses, leaden  
 and other toys, together with several  
 read. They buried the timber of the  
 it could be easily found next year; and  
 , pease, and other grain, by way of ex-  
 to know what the country would pro-  
 ving taken these precautions, they fail-  
 beginning of September; and after a  
 rmy passage, arrived in England: but  
 lefiga was never prosecuted. Christian  
 Denmark, being desirous of discovering  
 reenland settlement, sent three ships  
 der Capt. Godske Lindenow; who is  
 : reached the E. coast of Greenland,  
 traded with the savage inhabitants,  
 y are still found in the western district,

but saw no signs of a civilized people. Had he  
 actually landed in the eastern division, he must  
 have perceived some remains of the ancient col-  
 ony, even in the ruins of their convents and villa-  
 ges. Lindenow kidnaped two of the natives,  
 who were conveyed to Copenhagen; and the same  
 cruel fraud was practised by other two ships which  
 sailed into Davis's Straits, where they discovered  
 divers fine harbours and delightful meadows co-  
 vered with verdure. In some places they are said  
 to have found a considerable quantity of ore, eve-  
 ry hundred pounds of which yielded 26 oz. of sil-  
 ver. Admiral Lindenow made another voyage to  
 the coast of Greenland in 1606, directing his course  
 to the W. of Cape Farewell. He coasted along  
 Davis's Straits; and having made some observations  
 on the face of the country, the harbours and islands,  
 returned to Denmark. Carsten Richards, being  
 detached with two ships on the same observation,  
 descried the high land on the E. side of Greenland;  
 but was hindered by the ice from approaching the  
 shore. Other expeditions have been planned and  
 executed with the same bad success, by a Danish  
 company of merchants. Two ships returned from  
 W. Greenland, loaded with yellow sand, supposed  
 to contain a large proportion of gold. This being  
 assayed by the goldsmiths of Copenhagen, was con-  
 demned as useless, and thrown overboard: but  
 from a small quantity of this sand, which was re-  
 served as a curiosity, an expert chemist afterwards  
 extracted a quantity of pure gold. The captain,  
 who brought home this adventure, was so chagri-  
 ned at his disappointment, that he died of grief,  
 without having left any directions concerning the  
 place where the sand had been discovered. In  
 1654, Henry Moller, a rich Dane, equipped a  
 vessel under the command of David de Nelles,  
 who sailed to the W. coast of Greenland, from  
 which he carried off three women of the country.  
 Other efforts have been made, by order of the  
 Danish king for the discovery of the old Iceland  
 colony in Greenland; but all of them miscarried,  
 and people began to look upon such expeditions  
 as chimerical. At length the Greenland com-  
 pany at Bergen in Norway, transported a colony  
 to the W. coast, about Lat. 64°, which sailed  
 in 1712, accompanied by the Rev. Hans Egede,  
 to whose ability and accuracy, we are indebted  
 for the best and most authentic account of mo-  
 dern Greenland. He endeavoured to reach the  
 eastern district, by coasting southwards, and ad-  
 vanced as far as the States Promontory; but the  
 season of the year and the continual storms, obli-  
 ged him to return. In 1724, a ship equipped by  
 the company, failed on this discovery, with a view  
 to land on the East side opposite to Iceland; but  
 the vast shoals of ice, which barricaded that part  
 of the coast, rendered this scheme impracticable.  
 In 1728, Christian VI. caused horses to be trans-  
 ported to Greenland, in hopes that the settlers  
 might travel over land to the eastern district; but  
 the icy mountains were impassable. Lieutenant  
 Richards, in a ship, which had wintered near the  
 new Danish colony, attempted, in his return to  
 Denmark, to land on the eastern shore; but all  
 his endeavours proved abortive. Mr Egede says,  
 that the only practicable method of reaching that  
 part of the country, will be to coast north-about

in small vessels, between the great flakes of ice and the shore; as the Greenlanders have declared, that the currents continually rushing from the bays and inlets, and running SW. along the shore, hinder the ice from adhering to the land; so that there is always a channel open, through which vessels of small burden might pass, especially if lodges were built at convenient distances on the shore, for the direction of the adventurers.

(4.) GREENLAND, CLIMATE AND GENERAL APPEARANCE OF. That part of the country which is now visited and settled by the Danes and Norwegians, lies between 64° and 68° lat. N.; and thus far it is said the climate is temperate. In summer, which continues from the end of May to the middle of Sept. the weather is warm and comfortable, while the wind blows easterly; though even at this time storms often rage with incredible violence; and in calm weather, the coasts are infested with fogs that are equally disagreeable and unhealthy. Near the shore, and in the bays and inlets, the low land is clothed with the most charming verdure; but the inland mountains are perpetually covered with ice and snow. To the N. of Lat. 68°, the cold is prodigiously intense; and towards the end of August, all the coast is covered with ice, which never thaws till April or May, and sometimes not till the end of June. Nothing can exhibit a more grand and dazzling appearance, than those prodigious masses of ice that surround the coast in various forms, reflecting a multitude of colours from the sun-beams, in calm weather; but when the wind blows, and the waves rise in vast billows, the violent shocks of these pieces of ice, dashing against one another fill the mind with horror. Greenland is seldom visited with thunder and lightning, but the *Aurora Borealis* is very frequent and bright. At the time of new and full moon, the tide rises and falls upon this coast about three fathoms; and it is remarkable, that the springs and fountains on shore rise and fall with the flux and reflux of the ocean.

(5.) GREENLAND, INHABITANTS AND DISEASES OF. This country is but thinly inhabited. The people who now inhabit the western coast of Greenland, and who, without doubt, are the descendants of the ancient *Schrellings*, who exterminated the first Iceland colony, (see § ii.) bear a near resemblance to the Samoiedes and Laplanders in their persons, complexions and way of life. They are stout, brawny, and inclined to corpulency; with broad faces, flat noses, and thick lips, black hair and eyes, and a yellowish tawny complexion. They are for the most part vigorous and healthy, but short-lived; few of them reaching the grand climacteric; and many dying in infancy, and youth. They are subject to a weakness in the eyes, occasioned by the piercing winds and the glare of the snow. The leprosy is known among them, but is not contagious. Those that dwell in the northern parts are tormented with dysenteries, rheums, pulmonary disorders, boils, and epilepsies. The small-pox being imported from Copenhagen, in 1734, made terrible havock among these poor people, who are utterly destitute of any knowledge of the medical art, and depend entirely for assistance upon their *angskuts* or conjurers.

(6.) GREENLAND, LANGUAGE AND RELIGION OF THE NATIVES OF. All the Greenlanders hitherto discovered speak the same language, different dialects prevail in different parts of the country. It abounds with double consonants, and is so guttural, that the pronunciation of words is not to be learned except by those who have been accustomed to it from their infancy. The letters C, D, F, Q, and X, are not in their alphabet. Like the North American inhabitants of Kamtschatka, they have a great number of long polysyllables. Their words, as well as verbs, are inflected at the end by the terminations, without the help of prepositions; but their language being defective, they have adopted many words from the Norwegian, notwithstanding the endeavours of the Danish missionaries, they have no great reason to be given for their profelytes among the natives. They pay great respect to the Danes, whom they regard as their masters, and hear the truths of the Christian religion expounded without doubt or scruple; but they are not without a great incredulity of their teachers, but at the same time they are not without understanding them. They believe in the immortality of the soul; as well as in the existence of a spirit whom they call *Torngarfik*, but which they have formed the most ridiculous notion of. The *Angskuts*, who are supposed to be his ministers, differ concerning the principles of his existence; some affirming that he is without shape; others, that he has the shape of a man; others, that he has a large human body, and one arm; while others affirm that he is no larger than a man's finger, with many other notions. They have also a peculiar kind of magic, by which they believe all the elements to be composed of spirits, from among which each of the elements is supplied with a familiar, named *Angskut*, who is always ready when summoned for assistance.

(7.) GREENLAND, MANNERS, CHARACTER AND CUSTOMS OF THE NATIVES OF. In the country the people dwell in huts built of stone or turf, on one side are the windows, covered with the skins of seals or rein-deer. These huts are seldom more than two feet above the surface of the ground, the rest of them being sunk in the earth to defend them against wind and cold. Several families dwell in one of these houses, possessing each a separate apartment, before which is a hearth with a lamp placed on a trevise, over which hangs a kettle: above is a rack or shelf on which the clothes are dried. They burn train oil lamps; and instead of wick, they use moss, which fully answers the purpose. These fires are not only sufficient to heat the house, but likewise produce such a heat, that the house is like a bagnio. The door is never open, as little cold air as possible may be admitted. The house within is lined with old skins, and round with benches for the convenience of the natives. In summer they dwell in tents made of poles fixed in a conical form, covered with deer's skins, and on the outside of the tent, dressed so that the rain cannot penetrate. In their dispositions the Greenlanders are phlegmatic, indolent, and slow of app

ry quiet, orderly, and good-natured. In affection, they seem to equal the natives warmest climates. Two of them were carried and brought to Denmark; but though d by the king and court, to the utmost, quite unhappy; and one of them always upon seeing an infant in its mother's arms, it was concluded, that he had left a wife young child in Greenland. They live peaceably together, and having every thing in common, without strife, envy, or animosity. They are bold, but slovenly to a degree almost beyond tentots. They never wash themselves with water; but lick their paws like the cat, and then rub their faces with them. They eat after their custom without washing their dishes; devour the rich devour them; and even lick the sweat, they scrape off from their faces with their hands. The women wash themselves with their urine, which they imagine makes their hair black; and in winter, go out immediately after the liquor freeze upon their skin. They strip their victuals off the ground, and devour the flesh with avidity. In times of scarcity they subsist on pieces of old skin, reeds, sea weeds, root called *tugloronet*, dressed with train oil. The intestines of rein deer, the entrails of tridges, and all sorts of offals, are counted as among these savages; and of the scrapings of skins they make pan-cakes. At first, they not taste the Danish provisions without abhorrence; but now they are become extremely fond of bread and butter, though they still retain a passion for tobacco and spirituous liquors; in particular they differ from almost all savages of the earth. The Greenlanders content themselves with one wife; who is valued, as among other savage nations, to do the drudgery, and may be corrected, or even sold, by the husband at pleasure. Heroes, warriors, and extraordinary personages, are indulged with a plurality of wives. Their young were generally chaste and bashful; but at some of their feasts, in the midst of their jollity, a man with his neighbour's wife behind a curtain of skins; and all the guests, thus coupled, in their turns. The women think themselves happy if an angekut or prophet will thus reward them with his caresses. These people marry within the prohibited degrees of consanguinity, nor is it counted decent in a couple to who have been educated in the same family. They have a number of ridiculous superstitious customs. While a woman is in labour, they hold a chamber-pot over her head, as a charm to hasten the delivery. When the child is born, the mother licks and slappers it all over to render it, as she imagines, more strong and

**GREENLAND, METHODS OF HUNTING AND FISHING.** The Greenlanders are constantly employed either in fishing or hunting. At sea they hunt the whales, morseas, seals, fish for eating, and sea fowls. On shore they hunt the rein-deer and great parts of the country. They drive these rein-deer, which feed in large herds, into a narrow strait, where they kill them with arrows. Their bows are made of fir tree, wound about with the

twisted sinews of animals: the string is of the same stuff, or of seal skin: the arrow is a full fathom in length, pointed with a bearded iron, or a sharp bone; but those with which they kill birds are blunt, that they may not tear the flesh. Sea fowls they kill with lances, which they throw to a great distance with surprising dexterity. Their manner of catching whales is quite different from that practised by the Europeans. About 50 persons, men and women, set out in one long boat, which is called a *kone boat*, from *kone* a woman, because it is rowed by females only. When they find a whale, they strike him with harpoons, to which are fastened long lines some seals skins blown up like bladders. These, by floating on the surface, not only discover the back of the whale, but hinder him from diving under water for any length of time. They continue to pursue him until he loses strength, when they pierce him with spears and lances till he expires. On this occasion they are clad in their spring coats consisting of one piece, with gloves, boots, and caps of seal-skin so closely laced and sewed that they keep out water. Thus accoutred, they leap into the sea; and begin to slice off the fat, even under water, before the whale is dead.—They have many different ways of killing seals; namely, by striking them with a small harpoon equipped also with an air-bag; by watching them when they come to breathe at the air-holes in the ice, and striking them with spears; by approaching them in the disguise of their own species, that is, covered with a seal-skin, creeping upon the ice, and moving the head from side to side as the seals are accustomed to do. By this stratagem the Greenlander moves towards the unsuspecting seal, and kills him with a spear. The Greenlanders angle with lines made of whale bone cut very small, by means of which they succeed wonderfully. The Greenland canoe, like that used in Nova Zembla and Hudson's bay, is about three fathoms in length, pointed at both ends, and three quarters of a yard in breadth. It is composed of thin rafts fastened together with the sinews of animals. It is covered with dressed seal-skins both below and above, in such a manner that only a circular hole is left in the middle, large enough to admit the body of one man. Into this the Greenlander thrusts himself up to the waist, and fastens the skin so tight about him that no water can enter. Thus secured, and armed with a paddle broad at both ends, he will venture out to sea in the most stormy weather to catch seals and sea fowl; and if he is overset, he can easily raise himself by means of his paddle. A Greenlander in one of these canoes, which was brought with him to Copenhagen, outfitted a pinnace of 16 oars, manned with choice mariners.—The *kone-boat* is made of the same materials, but more durable; and so large, that it will contain 50 persons with all their tackle, baggage, and provisions. She is fitted with a mast, which carries a triangular sail made of the membranes and entrails of seals, and is managed without the help of braces and bowlings. These *kones* are flat bottomed, and sometimes 60 feet in length. The men think it beneath them to take notice of them; and therefore they are left to the conduct of the women, who indeed are obliged to do all the

drudgery.

drudgery, including even the building and repairing their houses, while the men employ themselves wholly in preparing their hunting implements and fishing tackle.

(9.) GREENLAND, MINERALS OF. Greenland is thought to contain many mines of metal, though none of them are wrought. To the southward of the Danish colony are some appearances of a mine of copper. Mr Egede received a lump of ore from one of the natives; and here he found calamine of a yellow colour. He sent a considerable quantity of sand of a yellow colour, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, to the Bergen company. They probably found their account in this present; for they desired him by a letter to procure as much of that sand as possible; but he was never able to find the place where he saw the first specimen. It was one of the smallest among a great number of small islands; and the mark he had set up was blown down by a violent storm. Possibly this might be the same mineral of which Captain Frobisher brought so much to England. This country produces rock crystals both red and white, and whole mountains of the ASBESTOS or *incombustible flax*. Around the colony, which is called *Good Hope*, they find a kind of bastard marble of various colours, which the natives form into bowls, lamps, pots, &c.

(10.) GREENLAND, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISH, &c. OF. The animals which abound most in Greenland are, rein-deer, foxes, hares, dogs, and white bears. The hares are white, and very fat; the foxes are white, greyish, and bluish; and smaller than those of Denmark and Norway. The natives keep a great number of dogs, which are large, white, or speckled, and rough, with upright ears. They are timorous and stupid; and neither bay, nor bark, but sometimes howl dimly. The natives yoke them in sledges; which, though heavy laden, they will draw on the ice at the rate of 70 miles in a short winter's day. These poor animals are very ill rewarded for their service: being left to provide for themselves, except when their masters happen to catch a great number of seals, when they are regaled with the blood and entrails. Greenland is frequented by great numbers of ravens, eagles of a prodigious size, falcons, and other birds of prey; besides a kind of linnets, which warble very melodiously. Whales, sword fish, porpoises, sea cows, sea wolves, &c. abound on the coasts; also holybuts, turbot, cod, haddocks, &c. The dubious animals also, called *mermaids*, *sea serpents*, and *krakens*, said to be found on the coast of Norway, are said likewise to dwell in these seas. Mr Egede assures us, that, in 1734, the sea serpent was seen off the new Danish colony, and raised its head-mast high above the surface of the water. See KRAKEN, MERMAID, and SERPENT.

(11.) GREENLAND, SOIL AND PRODUCE OF. The soil varies like that of all other mountainous countries. The hills are barren, being frozen throughout the whole year; but the valleys and low grounds, especially near the sea, are rich and fruitful. The ancient Norwegian chronicles inform us, that Greenland formerly produced a great number of cattle; that considerable quantities of butter and cheese were exported to Nor-

way, and, on account of their peculiarity, set apart for the king's use; that of the country yielded excellent wheat; large oaks were found here, which came as big as apples. Some of these oaks in the southern parts, and in many marks of ploughed land are easily perceived; but, however, the country is destitute of sheep and cattle, though in many places it is excellent pasture; and, if properly cultivated perhaps yield grain also. Mr Egede found barley near a bay adjoining to the Danes. It sprang up so fast, that by the end of the summer it was in full ear; but being nipped by a frost, never arrived at maturity. Turnips and cabbages of an excellent taste and flavour are also here. The sides of the mountains near the coast are clothed with wild thyme, which diffuses a fragrance to a great distance. The best wheat is very common in this country, and others not described by botanists. The fruits of Greenland are juniper berries, raspberries, bil-berries, and bramble-berries. It has been said of the fertility of Greenland, that it never must be understood of that part between lat. 60° and 65°. The most parts are totally destitute of herbs and grass, even of grass.

(12.) GREENLAND, TRADE TO, AND RESPECTING IT. A joint stock of 40,000 £ statute to be raised by subscribers, who incorporated for 14 years from the first of 1693, under the name of the GREENLAND COMPANY. They were empowered to take care of catching whales, &c. into and from Greenland and the Greenland seas; and to make regulations for the government of the persons employed in their ships, &c. Stat. 4 and 5 Will. III. The Company was farther encouraged by an Act in 1696; but partly by unskillful management, and partly by real losses, it was necessary to break up, before the expiration of the term assigned to it, ending in 1707. A person who will adventure to Greenland fishing, shall have all the privileges granted to the Greenland company, by 1 Anne, cap. 10. thus the trade was again laid open. Act for the regulation of the Greenland fishery, 1713. Any person who may import whale-fins, oil, &c. of fish taken in the Greenland seas, without paying any duty, &c. stat. 10 Geo. I. cap. 16. And shiped in the Greenland fishery are to be laden, provided with boats, so many fishing lines, harping irons, &c. and be allowed to proceed; and on their return shall be allowed a bounty, for whale-fins, &c. 16 Geo. II, cap. 33. The bounty was increased, but has been lately diminished since this diminution the trade has increased. See WHALE-FISHERY.

(11.) GREENLAND, a town of England, in Hampshire, and parish of Hambledon.

(11.) GREENLAND, a town of New Hampshire, in Rockingham county, near the coast, and 10 miles from Portsmouth, containing 634 citizens.

GREENLANDERS, the natives of Greenland. See GREENLAND, N° I, § 5—7; also GREENLAND, § 11.

(1.) GREENLAW, [from Green and

cal hill.] a parish of Scotland, in Berwickshire, it 7½ miles long from N. to S. and 2 broad average. The surface on the N. is mountainous, on the W. mossy. The climate and soil very various. One half of the parish is inclosed; two thirds of it are arable. The air is healthy and except on the hills, mild. Agriculture, fowls, and the breed of cattle are much improved. Wheat, barley, oats, pease, turnips, peas, clover and rye-grass are produced in it. The population in 1785, stated by the W. Simson, in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 1210, and had increased 315, within 30 years following. The number of horses, in 1792, was 145 sheep 2,500, and of black cattle 850. Mr Simson proposes to add to the improvement of the land, by inclosing and cultivating the lower parts of hills and planting trees on the higher.

**GREENLAW**, a town in the above parish, 2½ miles WSW. of Berwick, 20 W. of Edinburgh, 36 SE. of Edinburgh, and 80 from Glasgow. The population in 1785, was about 1,200. Greenlaw has fairs on the 22d May and last day in Oct.

**GREENLEIGHTON**, a village of Northumberland, 10 W. of Morpeth.

**GREENLY**. *adv.* [from *green*.] 1. With a green colour. 2. Newly; freshly. 3. Immature. 4. Wanly; timidly. Not in use.—Kate, do not look *greenly*, nor gasp out my eloquence; I have I cunning in protestation. *Shak.*

**GREEN MOUNTAINS**, a range of mountains, in the United States chiefly in that of Vermont, extending NNE. and SSW. and dividing the waters which run eastward into the Connecticut from which flow W. into Lake Champlain, Lake Erie, and Hudson's River.

**GREENNESS**. *n. f.* [from *green*.] 1. The quality of being green; viridity; viridness.—A man grew such a sort of trees, as either excellent for fruit, stateliness of growth, continual freshness, or poetical fancies have made at any time famous. *Sidney*.—In a meadow, though the grass and greenness delights, yet the variety of flowers doth heighten and beautify. *Ben Jonson*.—Reason, which discourses on what it finds by phantasy, can consider greenness by itself, or in coldness, singly and alone by itself. 2. Immaturity; unripeness.—This prince, though yet the errors in his nature were excused by the greenness of his youth, which took all the life upon itself, loved a private man's wife. 3. Freshness; vigour.—Take the picture of a man in the greenness and vivacity of his youth, and in the latter date and declension of his drooping years, and you will scarce know it to belong to the same person. *South*. 4. Newness.

**GREENOCK**, [from *Grianeg*, Gael. *i. e.* sunny bay.] a parish of Scotland, in the NW. of Renfrewshire, extending 4½ miles along the side of the Frith of Clyde, in the form of the letter D, but with the curvature more protracted; its surface is mostly hilly, rising in a gradual ascent from a level strip along the shore, to 800 feet above the sea level, 2 miles SE. of Greenock, and appearing like a sweep of a large circle.

The coast is shelvy, rough and stony; and the lands with sea ware. The soil near the coast

is light and gravelly, of the ascent various; earth, clay, till, mofs, &c. The hills afford beautiful and extensive prospects, which might be still farther embellished by plantations. The population, in 1755, was only 1886, but it has since increased greatly. See § 4.

(2.) **GREENOCK**, a sea-port town of Scotland, in Renfrewshire, and one of the ports of Glasgow, 22 miles W. of that city. It is the best built town on all the coast; the chief resort of the herring fishery, and otherwise a place of great trade. The harbour was made by Sir John Shaw of Greenock, whose ancestors built the church; and the family had here a castle. This town is a borough of barony, erected in 1757, and is governed by a council of 9 feuars, 2 of whom are bailies. Its trade increased rapidly between 1784 and 1791. In 1784, the tonnage of shipping, British and foreign, amounted only to 2,626 tons inwards, and 15,389 outwards. But in 1791, it had increased to 58,838 tons inwards, and 50,381 outwards. From 5th Jan. 1791, to 5th Jan. 1792, there were entered at this port, 45,054 barrels of herrings; besides large quantities sold for home consumption. The chief imports are rum, sugar, cotton, mahogany, grain, naval stores, pot-ash, oil, timber, fruits, wines, &c. The exports are all kinds of British goods, coals and herrings. The chief manufactures are corlage, sail-cloth, soap, candles, shoes, saddlery, and fugar. Ship-building is also carried on. One vessel of 1100 tons was launched in 1791. Greenock has fairs in July and Nov. Lon. 4. 29. W. Lat. 55. 54. N.

(3.) **GREENOCK, BAY OF**, a bay of Scotland, on the coast of Renfrewshire, formerly called the Bay of St Lawrence. The Frith of Clyde here expands into a fine basin 4 miles wide, and landlocked on all sides.

(4.) **GREENOCK, NEW PARISH OF**, a parish of Scotland, disjoined from the old parish (Nº 1) about 1740, and comprehending the town (Nº 2.) with its suburbs, and the village of *Crawfurd-dike* adjoining on the E.; altogether above a mile along the Frith of Clyde in length, but hardly ½ of a mile in breadth. The population in 1755 stated by Dr Webster, was 1972, and that of both old and new parishes only 3858. But in Jan. 1792, by the rev. Arch. Reid's report to Sir J. Sinclair, it amounted to 14,499, besides above 700 persons on board coasting vessels; whence the increase in both parishes, within 37 years, was not less than 11,142.

**GREENOGH**, a town of Ireland, in Cork.  
**GREENORE POINT**, a cape of Ireland, on the coast of Wickford. Lon. 6. 13. W. Lat. 52. 16. N.

(1.) **GREENSBOROUGH**, a post town of Georgia, capital of Greene county, 30 miles from Lexington, and 78 W. by S. of Augusta.

(2.) **GREENSBOROUGH**, a town of Maryland, in Caroline county, 7 miles N. of Danton, and 22 SE. by E. of Chester.

(3.) **GREENSBOROUGH**, a township of Vermont, in Orleans county, adjoining to Maiden on the NW. and to Wheelock on the SE.

**GREENSBURG**, a post town of Pennsylvania, capital of Westmoreland county, containing about

about 600 citizens in 1795. It is 31 miles SE. by E. of Pittsburg, and 270 W. by N. of Philadelphia. Lon. 4. 23. E. of that city. Lat. 40. 18. N.

(1.) \* GREENSICKNESS. *n. f.* [*green* and *sickness*.] The disease of maids, so called from the paleness which it produces.—Sour eructations, and a craving appetite, especially of terrestrial and absorbent substances, are the case of girls in the *greensickness*. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) GREEN-SICKNESS. See MEDICINE, *Index*. GREEN-SILVER, the name of an ancient custom within the manor of Writtel in the county of Essex in England, which is, that every tenant whose fore door opens to Greenbury, shall pay an halfpenny yearly to the lord, by the name of GREEN-SILVER.

(1.) GREENSTED, a village of England, in Essex, near Chipping-Ongar, remarkable for its ancient church, built before the Norman conquest; the walls of which are formed of the solid trunks of trees placed in rows, which seem capable of still lasting for ages.

(2.) GREENSTED, a town in Northumberland. (1.) GREENSVILLE, a county of Virginia, bounded on the W., N. and E. by Brunswick, Southampton, and Suffex counties, and on the S. by N. Carolina. It is 24 miles long and 20 broad; and contained 2742 citizens and 3620 slaves, in 1795.

(2.) GREENSVILLE. See GREENVILLE. \* GREENSWARD. } *n. f.* [*green* and *ward*: \* GREENSWORD. } of the same original with *swath*] The turf on which grass grows.—

This the prettiest low-born lads that ever Ran on the *greensward*. *Shak.*

After break their fast On *greensward* ground, a cool and grateful taste. *Dryden.*

—In shallow soils all is gravel within a few inches; and sometimes in low ground a thin *greensward*, and sloughy underneath; which last turns all into a bog. *Swift.*

(1.) GREENVILLE, a county of S. Carolina, in Washington district, bounded on the E. by Spartanburg, and S. by Pendleton counties; W. by Georgia and N. by Carolina; and containing 5,897 citizens in 1795, and 606 slaves.

(2.) GREENVILLE, or GREENSVILLE, a town of S. Carolina, in Darlington county, and capital of Cheraws district, 135 miles N. by E. of Charlestown, and 776 SW. by S. of Philadelphia. Lon. 4. 29. W. of that city. Lat. 34. 34. N.

(3.) GREENVILLE, a post town of N. Carolina, the capital of Pitt county; 23 miles from Washington, 53 SW. of Edenton, 444 of Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 19. W. of that city. Lat. 35. 35. N.

(4.) GREENVILLE, a post town of Tennessee, in Greene county, 653 miles SW. of Philadelphia.

(5.) GREENVILLE, a fort and settlement of the United States, in the north western territory; 6 miles NW. of Fort Jefferson.

(6.) GREENVILLE BAY, a town and port of entry on the E. side of the island of Grenada.

GREEN WAX is used where estates are delivered to the sheriffs out of the exchequer, under the seal of that court, made in green wax, to be levied in the several counties. It is mentioned in the 43d stat. Ed. III. c. 9. and 7 Hen. IV. c. 4.

(1.) \* GREENWEED. *n. f.* [*green* and *weed*.] Dyers weed.

(2.) GREENWEED. See GENISTA, N.

(1.) GREENWICH, a town of England pleasantly situated on the bank of the river, 5 miles E. of London. It had former palace, built by Humphry duke of Gloucester, enlarged by Henry VII. and completed by Henry VIII. The latter often chose this town for his place of residence; as did also Q. Mary II. who were born in it. D. Hussey built a tower on the top of the steep hill, which was finished by Henry VII. afterwards demolished, and a royal observatory erected in its place by Charles II. furnished with mathematical instruments for astronomical observations, and a deep dry well for observing the stars in the day-time. The palace afterwards neglected, king Charles II. (who had bought the park, walled it about and planted it down, and began another, of which he saw the first wing magnificently finished by king William III. in 1694, granted it, 1000 acres of ground to be converted into a hospital for old and disabled seamen, the children of those who lost their lives in the sea, and for the encouragement of navigation, which cost king Charles 36,000 £. the first wing of the hospital towards the river. The front to the Thames consists of 100 of stone buildings, with the ranger's house in the centre of the area, but detached from the hospital. These buildings connect each other, and have their tops crowned with ballustrades. The buildings which face the river are in a more elegant style; and have domes at the top, which are 120 feet high, supported by 10 columns. Under one of these is the hall, which is finely painted by Sir James Thornhill, contains many royal portraits; and under the chapel, which was destroyed by fire, is the fire broke out in the hospital on the 2d of July, and totally consumed the dome at the top of the building, with the chapel, and the most elegant in the world, the great hall, and 8 wards containing the lodgings of 600 pensioners. The dome was rebuilt in 1785; but the reparation of the whole was not yet completed. On the sides of the hospital which opens to these buildings from the river, is placed a large terrestrial and celestial globe, in which the stars are gilt; and in the centre of the area is a statue of George II. About 200 disabled seamen are maintained in this hospital. Besides private benefactions, to the value of near L. 60,000, the British parliament settled upon it the earl of Derwent's estate, to the value of L. 6000 per ann. for the support of the school for the sons of sailors; for the support of which, every seaman in the royal navy, and in the merchant service, also pays 6d. which is stopped out of their pay, and in at the six penny receiver's office in London. On this account, a seaman, who can produce an authentic certificate of his being dis-



fit for service, by defending any ship, his Majesty's British subjects, or in ship from the enemy, may be admitted into hospital, and receive the same benefit as if he had been in his Majesty's service. Besides the seamen and widows orphans, about 100 boys, the sons of the royal navy, are bred up for the service of the royal navy here are no out-pensioners as at Chelmsford; the mariners have a weekly allowance weighing 16 oz. each; 3 lb. of beef, 1 pint of pease, 1½ lb. of cheese, and 14 quarts of beer, and 1s. a-week money: the tobacco money of the boatmen, 6d. a week each, that of their mates and that of the other officers in proportion to their rank: besides which, each common sailor receives once in two years, a suit of blue cloth, 3 pair of stockings, 2 pair of shoes, 10 shirts, and 2 night caps. Outfit is given for showing the hall, only 3d. is allowed to the person that shows rest makes an excellent fund for the maintenance of not less than 20 poor boys, orphans that have been either slain or disabled in service of their country. The park is enclosed with deer, and affords as much vapour to its size, as any in the kingdom; the views from the Observatory and the hill are beautiful beyond imagination, and the former. The projection of these hills, that one does not look down upon a falling slope or flat inclosures, but at the tops of branching trees, which are in clumps out of deep hollows and wooded dells. The cattle which feed on which appear in breaks among them, are in a region of fairy land. A thousand openings among the branches of the trees upon little picturesque views of the forest, which, when illumined by the sun, is most pleasing beyond the power of fancy. This is the foreground of the landscape: here, the eye falls on that noble structure, the eye falls on that noble structure, in the midst of an amphitheatre when the two reaches of the river make a full serpentine which forms the Isle of Thanet present the floating millions of the sea. To the left appears a fine tract of land leading to the capital, which there is a prospect. The parish church of Greenwich, by the commissioners for erecting new churches, is a very handsome structure dedicated to St Alphage, Abp. of Canterbury, and is thought to have been slain by the Danes in the spot where the church now stands. A college at the end of the town, fronted by the sea, for the maintenance of 20 decayed seamen, 12 out of Greenwich, and 8 chosen from Spottisburgh and Castle-Norfolk. This is called *the duke of Norfolk's*, though it was founded and endowed by Henry earl of Northampton the duke of Norfolk's brother, and by him committed to the service of the Mercers company. To this belongs a chapel, in which the earl's tomb, which, as well as his monument, had hither several years ago from the

PART II.

chapel of Dover castle. The pensioners, besides meat, drink, and lodging, are allowed 18d. a-week, with a gown every year, linen once in two years, and hats once in 4. In 1560, Mr Lambard, author of *The Preambulation of Kent*, also built an hospital, called *Queen Elizabeth's College*, said to be the first erected by an English Protestant. There are likewise two charity schools in this parish. The Thames is here very broad, and the channel deep; and at very high tides the water is salt. This is the chief harbour for the king's yachts. The town contains about 1500 houses; and a market on Wed. and Sat. was instituted in 1737; the direction of which is in the governors of the royal hospital, to which the profits arising from it were to be appropriated. The English astronomers reckon their longitude from Greenwich.

(2.) GREENWICH, a township of Connecticut, in Fairfield county, 40 miles E. of New York, and 50 W. of Newhaven.

(3.) GREENWICH, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county, containing 1045 citizens in 1790; 20 miles E. of Northampton, and 75 W. of Boston.

(4-6.) GREENWICH, 3 towns of New Jersey: viz. 1. in Cumberland county, on the Cohanzy, 15 miles SE. of Salem, and 66 S. by W. of Philadelphia: 2. in Gloucester county, on the E. bank of the Delaware; 3 miles N. by E. of Woodbury, and 6 SE. of Philadelphia; and, 3. in Sussex county, on the Delaware, 31 miles SW. of Newton, containing 1971 citizens and 64 slaves.

(1.) \* GREENWOOD. *n. f.* [*green* and *wood*.] A wood considered as it appears in the Spring or Summer. It is sometimes used as one word.—Among wild herbs under the *greenwood* shade. *Fairfax*.—

It happened on a Summer's holiday,  
That to the *greenwood* shade he took his way;  
For Cymon humn'd the church. *Dryden*.

(2, 3.) GREENWOOD, two townships of Pennsylvania: 1. in Cumberland, and 2. in Mifflin counties.

(4.) GREENWOOD, an extensive forest of Connecticut, in Litchfield county.

(1.) \* To GREET. *v. a.* [*grator*, Lat. *gretari*, Saxon.] 1. To address at meeting.—

I think if men, which in these places live,  
Durst look in themselves, and themselves retrieve,  
They would like strangers greet themselves.

*Donne*.

I would gladly go,  
To greet my Patras with such news below. *Dryden*.

2. To address in whatever manner.—

My noble partner  
You greet with present grace, and great prediction;

To me you speak not. *Shak. Macbeth*.  
Now, Thomas Mowbray, do I turn to thee,  
And mark my greeting well; for what I speak,  
My body shall make good. *Shak. Richard II*.

3. To salute in kindness or respect.—

My lord, the Mayor of London comes to greet you.

—God bless your grace with health and happy days. *Shak*.

Now the herald lark  
Left his ground nest, high tow'ring to descry



The morn's approach, and greet her with his song. *Milton.*

Once had the early matrons run

To greet her of a lovely son. *Milton.*

The sea's our own; and now all nations greet,

With bending sails, each vessel of our fleet. *Waller.*

Thus pale they meet, their eyes with fury burn;

None greets; for none the greeting will return;

But in dumb furlinets, each arm'd with care,

His foe profess, as brother of the war. *Dryd.*

4. To congratulate.—

His lady, seeing all that channel from far,

Approach in haste to greet his victorie. *Spenser.*

5. To pay compliments at a distance.—

The king's a-bed,

And sent great larges to your officers;

This diamond he greets your wife withal,

By the name of most kind hostels. *Shak. Macb.*

6. To meet, as those who go to pay congratulations. Not much in use.—

Your haste

Is now urg'd on you.

—We will greet the time. *Shak. K. Lear.*

(2.) \* To GREET. *v. n.* To meet and salute.—

There greet in silence, as the dead are wont,

And sleep in peace. *Shak.*

Such was that face on which I dwelt with joy,

Ere Greece assembled stem'd the tides to Troy;

But parting then for that detested shore,

Our eyes, unhappy! never greeted more. *Pope's Odyssey.*

\* GREETER. *n. f.* [from the verb.] He who greets.

\* GREETING. *n. f.* [from *greet*.] Salutation

at meeting, or compliments at a distance.—

I from him

Give you all greetings, that a king, as friend,

Can send his brother. *Shak. Winter's Tale.*

\* GREEZE. *n. f.* [Otherwise written *greece*.

See GREECE, or GRIEZE, or GRICE; from *de-grees*.] A flight of steps; a step.

GREFFENSTAIN, a town of Austria, on the

Danube, 6 miles NW. of Closter-Newburg.

\* GREGAL. *adj.* [*greg, gregis, Lat.*] Belonging to a flock. *Dict.*

\* GREGARIOUS. *adj.* [*gregarius, Lat.*] Going

in flocks or herds, like sheep or partridges.—

No birds of prey are gregarious. *Ray on the Great.*

GREGOIE, an island of Africa, in the Ja-

quin, on the Gold Coast, where the Europeans

have factories; 3 miles from the sea.

GREGORIA, a town of New Mexico.

(1.) GREGORIAN CALENDAR, that which

shows the new and full moon, with the time of

Easter, and the moveable feasts depending there-

on, by means of epacts disposed through the fev-

eral months of the Gregorian year. See CHRO-

NOLOGY, *Sett. V.* and KALENDAR.

(2.) GREGORIAN STYLE, the New Style, now

used, which succeeded the Julian Syle, in Britain

in 1752.

(3.) GREGORIAN TELESCOPE. See OPTICS,

*Index.*

(4.) GREGORIAN YEAR. See CHRONOLOGY,

§ 49.

(1.) GREGORIO, St, an island of Maritima

Austria, in the prov. of Quarara, 3 miles less

half a mile broad. The natives deal chief-

ly in sheep, of which there are 2,500 on the island.

(2.) GREGORIO, St, a village of Maritima

tria, in the Paduano, near Padua.

GREGORIUS, Georgius Florentinus, or

GORY of Tours. See GREGORY, N° 19.

(1—15.) GREGORY, the name of 15

of Rome. See ITALY. Of these we have

only mention of the most eminent in letter

GREGORY I, furnished the GREAT, P

Rome, was born at Rome, of a patrician

A. D. 544. He discovered such abilities in

exercise of the senatorial employments, that

peror Justin the younger appointed him pre

Rome. Pope Pelagius II. sent him nuncio to

Constantinople, to demand succours against the

barbarians. When he thought of enjoying a

life, he was elected Pope by the clergy, the

and the people of Rome, A. D. 590. Being

learning and diligence in instructing the

both by writing and preaching, he had a ver-

py talent in winning over princes in favour

temporal as well as spiritual interest of the

He undertook the conversion of the English

sent over some monks of his order, under

rection of Augustin their abbot. With respect

to the chastity of churchmen, he was very

asserting that a man who had ever known

man ought not to be admitted to the

and he always caused the candidates for it

examined on that point. He likewise exerted

himself against such as were found guilty of crime.

However, he flattered the emperor Phocas,

his hands were yet reeking with the blood of

ritius, and of his three children, who had

been butchered in his sight. He likewise flattered

nehaud, a very wicked queen of France,

accused of destroying the noble monuments of

ancient Roman magnificence, that those who

visited the city might not attend more to the

trifling arches than to holy things; and burnt a

multitude of heathen books, Livy in particular. He

died A. D. 604. His *Dialogues*, a work stuffed with

incredible stories under the name of *miracles*,

three of his *Letters to Phocas*, are extant.

GREGORY XIII, was a native of Bologna

and succeeded Pius V, in 1572. He was

deeply versed in the canon and civil law of

his time. He ornamented Rome with many

buildings and several fountains. He con-

firm'd Gratian's Decretals, and wrote learned

works on them. But his chief merit lies in bringing

about the reform of the Kalendar, which was

effected under his orders by Lewis Lilio, a Roman

canon. See CHRONOLOGY, *Index*. A short

time before he died he received ambassadors from

Spain, acknowledging the authority of the

See CHRONOLOGY, *Index*. He died in 1585, aged 83.

GREGORY XV. was also a native of Bologna

and descended of an ancient family. His

name was Alexander Ludovisio. He was elected

Pope in 1621, and was author of several works of

particularity one intitled, *Epistola ad Romanum*,

SCHAH ABBAS; published *cum notis*

*sonis*, in 1627, 8vo.

(16.) GREGORY, K. of Scots. See SCOT-

(17.)

**GREGORY, Theodore**, surnamed *Thauron* account of his miracles, was the scholar; and was elected bishop of Neocaesarea; about A. D. 240, during the reign of Diocletian. He assisted at the council of Antioch, with Paulus Samosatenus; and died in his diocese, where there were but 17 churches when he was ordained. Of his works till extant, A. gratulatory oration to Origen; an epistle; and some other pieces.

**GREGORY, Basil**, of Nyssa, one of the fathers of the church, and author of the Nicene Creed, born in Cappadocia about A. D. 331. He was bishop of Nyssa in 372, and banished by the emperor Valens for adhering to the Nicene Creed. He was afterwards, however, by the bishops in several important affairs. He wrote, Commentaries on the scriptures; Sermons on the mysteries; Dogmatical treatises; Paenegyrics; Letters on church discipline; works. His style is very allegorical and

**GREGORY, George Florentius**, bishop of Tours, one of the most illustrious bishops and centers of the 6th century, was descended from a noble family in Auvergne. He was the nephew of Gallus, Bp. of Clermont; and wished himself so much by his learning that in 573 he was chosen Bp. of Tours. He went to Rome to visit the tombs of St. Peter and St. Paul, where he contracted a friendship with Pope Gregory the Great, and died in 595. He was zealous with regard to miracles. He wrote the history of France. 2. The lives of the saints and other works. The best edition is by F. Rumart, in 1699.

**GREGORY, Nazianzen**, surnamed *Nazianzen*; from a town of Cappadocia, of which his bishop, was born, A. D. 324, at Arianze near it, and was one of the most illustrious of the Greek church in the 4th century. He was made bishop of Constantinople; finding his election contested by Theophrastus of Alexandria, he voluntarily resigned about 382, in the general council of Constantinople. His works are extant, printed at Paris in 1609. His style is said to be that of the most celebrated orators of Greece.

**GREGORY, David**, Esq. of Kinardie, in Perthshire, was the son of the rev. John Gregory of Drumoak, and elder brother (N<sup>o</sup> 23.) the celebrated inventor of the reflecting telescope. He was born in 1627, and went to the university of Edinburgh, where, in his apprenticeship to a mercantile house in London, succeeding to the estate of Kinardie, he preferred science to commerce, and even studied medicine for some time. In this branch of science he acquired proficiency, that he not only indulged in it, but came to be consulted by the nobility and gentry, though even from a distance. He was the first person in Scotland who had a barometer; and having attention to the changes in it, he was

frequently able to prognosticate the changes in the weather. Hence he came to be suspected by the superstitious as a conjurer; and a deputation was actually sent him by the presbytery upon the subject; but he soon removed their suspicions, so that no trial for witchcraft took place. About 1700, he removed to Aberdeen, and during the war with France, in the reign of Q. Anne, invented an improvement in artillery, by which the shot of great guns could be rendered much more destructive to the enemy. By the assistance of a watchmaker, he made a model of this engine, which was submitted to the inspection of Sir Isaac Newton; but the philanthropic baronet disapproved of all inventions for the destruction of the human race, and the model was never more heard of. He was twice married, and had 32 children; of whom 3 sons became eminent in science; being all professors in universities; viz. David at Oxford, (N<sup>o</sup> 22.) James at Edinburgh, and Charles at St. Andrews. He died at Aberdeen, in 1720, aged 93.

(22.) **GREGORY, David**, F. R. S. Savilian professor of astronomy at Oxford, whom Dr Smith has termed *subtilissimi ingenii mathematicus*, was the eldest son of the above Mr Gregory. (N<sup>o</sup> 21.) He was born at Aberdeen in 1661, and received the earlier parts of his education in that city. He completed his studies at Edinburgh; and, being possessed of the mathematical papers of his uncle, soon distinguished himself likewise as the heir of his genius. In the 23d year of his age, he was elected professor of mathematics in the university of Edinburgh; and published, in the same year, *Exercitatio Geometrica de dimensione figurarum, sive specimen methodi generalis dixerunt quatuor figuras*, Edinburgh; 1684; 4to. He saw very early the excellence of the Newtonian philosophy; and had the merit of being the first who introduced it into the schools by his public lectures at Edinburgh. "He had (says Mr Whiston) already caused several of his scholars to keep acts, as we call them, upon several branches of the Newtonian philosophy; whilst we at Cambridge, poor wretches, were ignominiously studying the fictitious hypothesis of the Cartesians." In 1691, on the report of Dr Bernard's intention of resigning the Savilian professorship of astronomy at Oxford, David Gregory went to London; and being patronized by Sir Isaac Newton, and warmly befriended by Mr Flamsteed, he obtained the vacant professorship, for which Dr Halley was a competitor. This rivalry, however, instead of animosity, laid the foundation of friendship between these eminent men; and Halley soon after became the colleague of Gregory, by obtaining the professorship of geometry in the same university. Soon after his arrival in London, Mr Gregory had been elected F. R. S. and, previously to his election into the Savilian professorship, had the degree of M. D. conferred on him by the university of Oxford. In 1693, he published in the *Philos. Trans.* a resolution of the Florentine problem *de Tessidine velisemi quadrilateri*; and he continued to communicate to the public, from time to time, many ingenious mathematical papers by the same channel. In 1695, he printed at Oxford *Cateptrae et Dioptricae Sphaericae Elementa*; a work which contains

the substance of some of his public lectures at Edinburgh. This valuable treatise was republished first with additions by Dr William Brown, with the recommendation of Mr Jones and Dr Desaguliers; and afterwards by the latter, with an appendix containing an account of the Gregorian and Newtonian telescopes, together with Mr Hadley's tables for the construction of both those instruments. In the end of this treatise, there is an observation which shows, that what is generally believed to be a discovery of a much later date, the construction of achromatic telescopes, which has been carried to great perfection by Mr Dollond and Mr Ramsden, had occurred to the mind of David Gregory, from the reflection on the admirable contrivance of nature in combining the different humours of the eye. See *Catopt. et Dioptr. Sphaer. Elem.* Oxon. 1695, p. 98. In 1702, our author published at Oxford, *Astronomiæ Physicæ et Geometricæ Elementa*; a work which is accounted his master-piece. It is founded on the Newtonian doctrines, and was esteemed by Sir Isaac Newton himself as a most excellent explanation and defence of his philosophy. In 1703, he published a folio edition of Euclid in Greek and Latin. In this work, although it contains all the treatises attributed to Euclid, Dr Gregory has been careful to point out such as he found reason, from internal evidence, to be the productions of some inferior geometrician. Dr Gregory engaged, soon after, with his colleague Halley, in the publication of Apollonius's Conics, but he had not proceeded far in this undertaking when he died, in the 49th year of his age, at Maidenhead in Berkshire, A. D. 1710. To the genius and abilities of David Gregory, the most celebrated mathematicians of the age, Sir Isaac Newton, Dr Halley, and Dr Keill, have given ample testimonies. Besides those works published in his lifetime, he left in MS. *A Short Treatise of the Nature and Arithmetic of Logarithms*, which is printed at the end of Dr Keill's translation of Commandine's Euclid; and a *Treatise of Practical Geometry*, which was afterwards translated, and published in 1745, by Mr Maclaurin. He married, in 1605, Elizabeth, the daughter of Mr Oliphant of Langtown. By this lady he had four sons, of whom, the eldest, David, was appointed regius professor of modern history at Oxford by king George I. and died in 1767, in an advanced age, after enjoying for many years the dignity of dean of Christ church in that university.

(23.) GREGORY, James, F. R. S. one of the most eminent mathematicians of the 17th century, was the 2d son of the rev. Mr Gregory, and brother to David (N<sup>o</sup> 21.) and was born at Aberdeen in 1638. His mother was a daughter of Mr David Anderson of Finzaugh, a gentleman who possessed a singular turn for mathematics. This mathematical genius would seem to have been hereditary in the family. Alexander Anderson, cousin german of David, was professor of mathematics at Paris, and published there in 1612, *Supplementum Apollonii redintegrati, &c.* The mother of James Gregory inherited the genius of her family; and observing in her son, while yet a child, a strong propensity to mathematics, she instructed him herself in the elements of that science. He received his e-

ducation in the languages at Aberdeen, and through the usual course of academical study the Marischal college. At the age of 14 he finished his treatise, entitled, *Optica Promissa abditæ radiorum reflexorum et refractorum geometrice enucleatâ; cui subnectitur appendix utilissimorum astronomiæ problematum resolutionum bibens*; London, 1663; a work of great merit in which he gave the world an invention of his own, and one of the most valuable of the modern discoveries, the construction of the reflecting telescope. This discovery attracted the attention of the mathematicians, who were soon convinced of its great importance to the sciences of optics and astronomy. The manner of placing the specula upon the same axis appearing to Sir Isaac Newton to be attended with the disadvantage of losing the central rays of the larger speculum, proposed an improvement on the instrument, giving an oblique position to the smaller speculum, and placing the eye-glass in the side of the tube. But the Newtonian construction of the instrument has been long abandoned for the Galilean or Gregorian, which is now universally employed where the instrument is of a moderate size, though Mr Herschel has preferred the Newtonian form for the construction of those immense telescopes, which of late years he has so successfully employed in observing the heavens. The university of Padua being then in high reputation for mathematical studies, James Gregory went thither soon after the publication of his first work, and fixing his residence there for some years, published in 1667, *Vera Circulæ et Hyperbolæ constructio*; in which he propounded another discovery of his own, the invention of an infinitely verging series for the areas of the circle and hyperbole. To this treatise, when republished in 1668, he added a new work, intitled, *Genera pars universalis, inserviens quantitatione curvarum transmutationi et mensuræ*; in which he is supposed to have shown, for the first time, a method of the transmutation of curves. These works attracted the notice, and the correspondence, of the greatest mathematicians of the age. Not Huygens, Halley, and Wallis; and this being soon after chosen F. R. S. of London, contributed to enrich the Philosophical Transactions by many valuable papers. Through this connection he carried on a dispute with Mr Huygens, mentioned by his treatise on the quadrature of the circle and hyperbole, to which that able mathematician had started some objections. Of this controversy, it is sufficient to say, that, in the opinion of Leibnitz, (who however allows Mr Gregory the highest merit,) Mr Huygens has pointed out, though not errors, some considerable defects in the treatise above mentioned, and that much simpler method of attaining the end in view. In 1668, Mr Gregory published at London *Exercitationes Geometricæ*, which contributed to extend his reputation. About this time he was elected professor of mathematics in the university of St Andrew's; an office which he held five years. During his residence there, he married in 1669, Mary, the daughter of George James, a celebrated painter, whom Mr Walpole has set out the Vandyke of Scotland. In 1674, he was

thematical chair in the university of  
This place he had held for little more  
when, in October 1675, being em-  
owing the satellites of Jupiter through  
b some of his pupils, he was sudden-  
h total blindness, and died a few days  
early age of 37. He was a man of  
id penetrating genius. His temper  
e been warm, as appears from his dis-  
fr Huygens; and, conscious perhaps  
merits as a discoverer, he seems to  
alous of losing any portion of his re-  
the improvements of others upon his

GOAY, John, M. D. professor of me-  
: university of Edinburgh, was the son  
: Gregory, professor of medicine in  
ge Aberdeen, and grandson of the a-  
N<sup>o</sup> 23. His father was first married  
: Forbes, daughter of Sir John Forbes  
usk; by whom he had six children,  
and died in infancy. He married after-  
Chalmers, only daughter of the rev.  
ilmers, principal of King's college, by  
had two sons and a daughter. John,  
t of the three, was born at Aberdeen,  
4. Losing his father in the 7th year  
the care of his education devolved on  
ther, Principal Chalmers, and on his  
er, Dr James Gregory, who, upon the  
of their father, a short time before his  
been appointed to succeed him in the  
p of Medicine in King's college. He  
eght much in his infant years, and du-  
ble course of his studies, to the atten-  
ousin, the celebrated Dr Reid, of the  
f Glasgow. The rudiments of his clas-  
ion he received at the grammar school  
n; and, under the eye of his grandfa-  
mpleted, in King's college, his studies  
1 and Greek languages, and in the sci-  
ics, mathematics, and natural philo-  
sics master in philosophy and in mathe-  
Mr Thomas Gordon, professor of phi-  
King's college. In 1742, Mr Gregory  
inburgh, where the school of medicine  
sing to that celebrity which has since  
bly distinguished it. Here he attended  
ical lectures of the elder Dr Monro, of  
on the theory of medicine, and of Dr  
on the practice. He heard likewise  
ons of Dr Alston on the materia medica  
y, and of Dr Plummer on chemistry.  
al Society of Edinburgh, instituted for  
cussion of all questions relative to me-  
philosophy, had begun to meet in 1737.  
iety Mr Gregory was a member in 1748,  
e when Dr Mark Akenfide, his fellow  
id intimate companion, was a member  
: institution. In 1745, our author went  
and attended the lectures of those ce-  
roessors Gaubius, Albinus, and Van  
hile at this place he had the honour of  
om the King's college of Aberdeen, an  
degree of M. D. and soon after, on his  
a Holland, was elected professor of phi-  
that university. In this capacity he  
es in 1747, 1748, and 1749, on mathe-

matics, and on experimental and moral philoso-  
phy. In the end of 1749, however, he resigned  
his professorship of philosophy, his views being  
turned chiefly to the practice of physic. Previ-  
ously, however, to his settling as a physician at  
Aberdeen, he went for a few months to the Con-  
tinent. Some time after his return to Scotland,  
Dr Gregory married, in 1752, Elisabeth, daughter  
of William Lord Forbes; a young lady who, to  
the exterior endowments of great beauty and en-  
gaging manners, joined a very superior under-  
standing. With her he received a handsome addi-  
tion to his fortune; and during their union, which  
was only 9 years, enjoyed the highest portion of  
domestic happiness. Of her character it is enough  
to say, that her husband, in that admired work,  
*A Father's Legacy to his daughters*, the last proof  
of his affection for them, declares, that, "while  
he endeavours to point out what they should be,  
he draws but a very faint and imperfect picture of  
what their mother was." The field of medical  
practice at Aberdeen being at that time in a great  
measure pre-occupied by his elder brother, Dr  
James Gregory, and others, our author went to  
London in 1754; and being already known as a  
man of genius, he found an easy introduction to  
many persons of distinction, both in the literary  
and polite world. The late George Lord Lyttle-  
ton was his friend and patron. An attachment,  
founded on a striking similarity of manners, taste,  
and disposition, grew up into a firm and perma-  
nent friendship; and to that nobleman, to whom  
Dr Gregory was wont to communicate all his li-  
terary productions, the world is indebted for the  
publication of the *Comparative View of the State  
and Faculties of Man*, which made him first known  
as an author. He likewise enjoyed the friendship  
of the late Edward Montague, Esq. and of his  
lady, the celebrated champion of the Fame of  
Shakespeare against the cavils and calumnies of  
Voltaire. In 1754, Dr Gregory was chosen F. R. S.  
of London. In that city his professional talents  
would doubtless have procured him a very exten-  
sive practice; but the death of his brother, Dr  
James Gregory, in November, 1755, occasioning  
a vacancy in King's college, Aberdeen, which he  
was solicited to fill, he returned to his native  
country in 1756. Here our author remained till  
the end of 1764, when he changed his place of re-  
sidence for Edinburgh, where, in 1766, on the re-  
signation of Dr Rutherford, he succeeded as pro-  
fessor of the practice of physic; and was appoint-  
ed first physician to his majesty for Scotland, on  
the death of Dr Whytt. On his first establish-  
ment in the university of Edinburgh, Dr Gregory  
gave lectures on the practice of physic, in 1767,  
1768, and 1769. Afterwards, by agreement with  
Dr Cullen, professor of the theory of physic, these  
two eminent men gave alternate courses of the  
theory and the practice. As a public speaker, Dr  
Gregory's manner was simple, natural, and ani-  
mated. As his subject in a great degree precluded  
the graces of oratory, he expressed his ideas with  
uncommon perspicuity, and in a style happily at-  
tempered between the formality of studied com-  
position and the ease of conversation. The only  
lectures which he committed fully to writing,  
were those introductory discourses which he read  
at

at the beginning of his annual course, and which are published under the title of *Lectures on the Duties and Qualifications of a Physician*. Of these, which were written with no view to publication, many copies were taken by his pupils, and some from the original M. S., which he freely lent for their perusal. These lectures were first published in 1770, and afterwards in an enlarged and more perfect form in 1772; when he also published, *Elements of the Practice of Physic, for the use of Students*; a work intended solely for his own pupils, and to be used by himself as a text-book to be commented upon in his course of lectures. In his lectures, Dr Gregory never attempted to mislead the student by flattering views of the perfection of the science, but was rather anxious to point out its defects; wisely judging, that a sense of the imperfections of a science is the first step towards its improvement. With this view he exposed the fallaciousness of the several theories and hypotheses, which have had the most extensive currency, and perpetually inculcated the danger of systematizing with limited experience, or an imperfect knowledge of facts. Yet in the work last mentioned, he did not entirely neglect the systematic arrangements of other authors. These, however, he warned his pupils, that he had not adopted from any conviction of the rectitude of those theories to which they referred, but only as affording that degree of method, and regularity of plan, which is the best help to the study of any science. Considering a rational theory of physic to be as yet a desideratum, it was his object to communicate to his pupils the greatest portion of practical knowledge, as the only basis on which such a theory could ever be reared. Thus desirous of establishing the science of medicine upon the solid foundation of practice and experience; and knowing that many things asserted as facts by medical writers have been assumed on a very careless observation, while confirming a favourite theory; and that, on the other hand, many real and important facts have, from the same spirit of system, been explained away and discredited; he constantly endeavoured, both by his precept and example, to inculcate to his pupils the necessity of extreme caution either in admitting or in denying medical facts, or what are commonly given as such. To the desire of enforcing this necessary caution is owing that multitude of queries respecting matters of fact, as well as matters of opinion, which occurs in the *Elements of the Practice of Physic*. Dr Gregory, soon after the death of his wife, and, as he himself says, "for the amusement of his solitary hours," employed himself in the composition of that admirable tract, intitled, *A Father's Legacy to his Daughters*; a work which, though never intended by its author for the public eye, it would have been an unwarrantable diminution of his fame, and a capricious refusal of a general benefit to mankind, to have limited to the sole purpose for which it was originally designed. It was, therefore, with great propriety, published after the author's death by his eldest son. This work gives a most amiable display of the piety and goodness of his heart, and his consummate knowledge of human nature. It manifests such solicitude for their welfare, as strongly recommends the advice

which he gives. He speaks of the fem the most honourable terms, and labours in its estimation, whilst he plainly, yet gently, points out the errors into which ladies are apt to fall. It is particularly in what high and honourable terms he the Holy Scriptures, of Christian war faithful ministers; how warmly he rec to his daughters the serious and devo of God in public and private. He dw on that temper and behaviour, which a cularly suited to their education, rank cumstances; and recommends that gent nevolence, and modesty, which adorn t ter of the ladies, and do particular baso sex. His advices, with regard to love, and marriage, are peculiarly wise and They show what careful observation hel on female domestic conduct, and on the effects of possessing or wanting the in qualities which he recommends. Then thing peculiarly curious, animated, and his directions to them, how to judge of nifest an honourable passion in, and to other sex; and in the very accurate and tinction which he makes between true delicacy. Nothing can be more strik fecting, nothing more likely to give hi advices their desired effect, than the resp affectionate manner in which he mentio their mother, and the irreparable los and they sustained by her early death. in this tract, the professor shines with lustre as a husband and father, and it is adapted to promote domestic happine letters were evidently written under the of an early death, which Dr Gregory h to apprehend from a constitution subje gout, which had begun to appear at int ervals even from his 18th year. His mot whom he inherited that disease, died in 1770, while sitting at table. Dr Gre prognosticated for himself a similar dea vent of which, among his friends, he oft but had no apprehension of the nearness proach. In the beginning of 1772, in tion with his son, Dr James Gregory, remarking, that having for the 3 prece had no return of a fit, he might make hi with a pretty severe attack at that scak ceived the observation with some degree as he felt himself then in his usual state. The prediction, however, was too tru ying gone to bed on the 9th Feb. 1773 apparent disorder, he was found dead in ing. His death had been instantaneous, bably in his sleep; for there was not th discomposure of limb or of feature,—a p thanassa. Dr Gregory, in his person, d erably above the middle size. His fram was compacted with symmetry, but not gance. His limbs were not active; b somewhat in his gait; and his countena a fullness of feature and a heaviness of no external indication of superior abilitie otherwife when he engaged in conversal features then became animated, and hi expressive. He had a warmth of tone

ve a pleasing interest to every thing  
 cred: But, united with this anima-  
 as a gentleness and simplicity of man-  
 with little attention to the exterior  
 l forms of politeness, was more en-  
 the most finished address. His con-  
 ved with ease; and, when in com-  
 erary men, without affecting a dis-  
 edre, he was liberal of the stores of  
 e possessed a large share of the social  
 nt affections, which, in the exercise  
 on, appeared in many nameless, but  
 tentions to those under his care;  
 eding from an extended principle of  
 ere not spared to the circumstances  
 e patient. To many of his pupils,  
 rom all who had an interest in their  
 ras of importance to enjoy the coun-  
 e so universally esteemed. Through-  
 nd an easy introduction to an enlar-  
 ent society; and they experienced in  
 who was ever ready to assist them  
 sel and patronage. The same spirit  
 py endeared him to his intimate  
 g whom may be ranked most of the  
 iti of his time.—Some time after his  
 storship of the Theory of Medicine  
 l upon his eldest son, Dr James Gre-  
 as since succeeded to the practical  
 filled by that other eminent professor

's SOUND, a strait between the islands  
 : and Inismain, on the W. coast of

OWN, a town of New Jersey, in  
 nty, 6 miles NE. of Princeton.

UD, a ridiculous mode of spelling the  
 and, adopted and persisted in by  
 lopédists, for which we cannot find  
 shadow of authority in any good au-  
 thorary. See GRAY-HOUND.

FFENBERG, a town of Germany,  
 178, 4 m. N. of New Angermund.

FENBERG, a town of Saxony, in Po-  
 files NNW. of Plate.

NHAGEN, a town of Pomerania,  
 f Cultrin, and 12 S. of Old Stettin.

FFENSEE, a town of the Helvetic  
 Zurich; 6 miles E. of Zurich. It

1444.  
 FFEN-SEE, a lake of the Helvetic re-  
 urich, 5 miles E. of Zurich.

FFENSTEIN, a town of Germany,  
 of the Upper Rhine; 7 miles NNW.  
 and 34 N. of Mentz.

FENSTEIN, a town of Silesia.

FALD, a town of Swedish Pomer-  
 rik. It has an university, founded  
 lies 15 miles SE. of Stralsund. Lon.  
 Ferro. Lat. 54. 4. N.

amuel Carlowitz, a late eminent na-  
 the Russian service, born at Inver-  
 ishire. The rev. Mr Andrew Ro-  
 ster of that parish, gives the following  
 of this Scoto-Russian admiral. "The  
 1. Greig was a native of this town,  
 d under the present School-master,  
 m early period of life into the British

service. While in the navy of Great Britain, he  
 distinguished himself at the defeat of Conflans by  
 Adm. Hawke, the taking of the Havannah, and  
 several other engagements in that successful war.  
 After the peace of 1763, he entered into the Rus-  
 sian service; and there at the battle of Chio, con-  
 tributed principally, by his advice and exertions  
 to the destruction of the whole Turkish fleet.  
 Sensible of his great professional merit, her imper-  
 rial majesty promoted him, (though a foreigner)  
 to the chief command of the Russian navy, which  
 he raised to a degree of respectability and import-  
 ance it never before had attained. In reward of  
 his great services, the empress bestowed on him  
 many honourable marks of distinction, and an  
 estate in Livonia, which his family now enjoy.  
 In the last war between the Russians and Turks,  
 which last were joined by the Swedes, he, in the  
 Baltic, defeated the Swedish fleet; and had not a  
 part of his squadron, through cowardice, refused  
 to come into action, he probably had captured or  
 sunk the whole of them. Soon after this, he was  
 seized with a fever, and died at Revel, on the  
 26th Oct. 1788. He was no less illustrious for  
 courage and naval skill, than for piety, benevo-  
 lence and every private virtue." *Sir J. Sinclair's*  
*Stat. Acc. IX. 510.*

GREILLENSTAIN, a town of Germany in  
 Austria, a mile W. of Horn.

GREIN, a town of Austria, on the N. side of  
 the Danube, 24 m. W. of Ips, and 62 of Vienna.

GREITZ, or GREWITZ, a town of Upper  
 Saxony, in the Vogtland, 12 m. SW. of Zwickau.

GREKSAKER, a town of Sweden in West-  
 manland, 48 miles W. of Stroemsholm.

\* GREMIAL. *adj.* [*gremium*, Latin.] Per-  
 taining to the lap. *Dist.*

GREMSA. See GRAMESAY.

(1.) GRENADA, one of the Caribbee islands.  
 It is the last of the Windward Caribbees; and lies  
 30 leagues N. of New Andalusia, on the continent.  
 According to some, it is 24 leagues in compass;  
 according to others, only 22. It is 28 m. long,  
 and in some places 15 broad. The chief port,  
 formerly called *Louis*, now *St George's*, stands on  
 the W. side of the island, in the middle of a large  
 bay, with a sandy bottom. It is said that 1000  
 barks, from 300 to 400 tons, may ride secure from  
 storms; and that 100 ships, of 1000 tons each,  
 may be moored in the harbour. A large round  
 basin, which is parted from it by a bank of sand,  
 would contain a considerable number of ships, if  
 the bank was cut through: but by reason of it  
 the large ships are obliged to pass within 80 paces  
 of one of the mountains lying at the mouth of the  
 harbour; the other lying about half a mile distant.  
 The island abounds with game, fish, and very  
 fine timber. A lake on a high mountain, about  
 the middle of the island, supplies it with streams  
 of fresh water. Several bays and harbours lie  
 round the island, some of which might be fortified  
 to great advantage; so that it is very convenient  
 for shipping, not being subject to hurricanes. The  
 soil is capable of producing tobacco, sugar, indigo,  
 pease, and millet. In 1638, M. Poincy, a  
 Frenchman, attempted to make a settlement in  
 Grenada; but was driven off by the Caribbeans,  
 who resorted to this island in greater numbers  
 than



than to the neighbouring ones. In 1650, M. Parquet, governor of Martinico, carried over from that island 200 men, furnished with presents to reconcile the savages, and with arms to subdue them, in case they should prove intractable. The savages are said to have been frightened into submission by the number of the Frenchmen: but, according to some French writers, the chief not only welcomed the new-comers, but, in consideration of some knives, hatchets, scissars, and other toys, yielded to Parquet the sovereignty of the island, reserving to themselves their own habitations. The Abbe Raynal informs us, that these first French colonists, *imagining* they had purchased the island by these trifles, assumed the sovereignty, and soon acted as tyrants. The Caribs, unable to contend with them by force, took their usual method of murdering all those whom they found in a defenceless state. This produced a war; and the French settlers having received a reinforcement of 300 men from Martinico, forced the savages to retire to a mountain; from whence, after exhausting all their arrows, they rolled down great logs of wood on their enemies. Here they were joined by other savages from the neighbouring islands, and again attacked the French, but were defeated anew; and were at last driven to such desperation, that 40 of them, who had escaped from the slaughter, jumped from a precipice into the sea, where they all perished, rather than fall into the hands of their enemies. From thence the rock was called *le Morne des Sautours*, or "the hill of the leapers;" which name it still retains. The French then destroyed the habitations and all the provisions of the savages; but fresh supplies of Caribbeans arriving, the war was renewed with great vigour, and great numbers of the French were killed. Upon this they resolved totally to exterminate the natives; and having accordingly attacked the savages unawares, they inhumanly put to death the women and children, as well as the men; burning all their boats and canoes, to cut off all communication between the few survivors and the neighbouring islands. Notwithstanding all these barbarous precautions, however, the Caribbees proved the irreconcilable enemies of the French; and their frequent insurrections at last obliged Parquet to sell all his property in the island to the Count de Cerillac in 1657. The new proprietor, who purchased Parquet's property for 30,000 crowns, sent thither a person of brutal manners to govern the island. He behaved with such insupportable tyranny, that most of the colonists retired to Martinico; and the few who remained condemned him to death after a formal trial. In the whole court of justice that tried this miscreant, there was only one man (called *Archangel*) who could write. A farrier was the person who impeached: and he, instead of the signatures, sealed with a horse-shoe; and Archangel, who performed the office of clerk, wrote round it these words in French, "Mark of M. de la Brie, counsei for the court." It was apprehended that the court of France would not ratify a sentence passed with such unusual formalities; and therefore most of the judges of the governor's crimes, and witnesses of his execution, disappeared. Only those remained whose obscurity

screened them from the pursuit of the an estimate, taken in 1700, there were no more than 251 white people, 53 or mulattoes, and 525 slaves. The slaves were reduced to 64 horses and 569 hogs. The whole culture consisted of 3750 sugar and 52 of indigo.—The island had in 1664 to the French West India 100,000 livres. This unfavourable state was changed in 1714, owing to the condition of Martinico. The richest that island were sent to the Spanish on their way touched at Grenada to take ments. The privateering traders, took this navigation, taught the people the value of their soil, which was cultivated. Some traders furnished planters with slaves and utensils to erect plantations. An open account was kept between the two colonies. Grenada paid its debts gradually by its rich produce. The balance was on the point of being cleared by the war in 1744 interrupted the commerce between the two islands, and stopp'd the progress of the sugar plantations. They were supplied by the culture of coffee, which succeeded during the hostilities with activity. The peace of 1748 revived all the former sources of wealth, and opened all the former sources of commerce. In 1753, the population of Grenada consisted of 175 white people, 175 free negroes, and 175 slaves. The cattle amounted to 2968 horses, 2456 horned cattle, 3278 sheep, 803 hogs, 331 hogs. The cultivation rose to 8000 plantations, 2,725,600 coffee trees, 150 banana trees, and 800 cotton plants. The colony consisted of 5,740,450 trenches of cassava, 143 squares of yams. The colony made a rapid progress in the excellence of its produce. In 1762 the island was taken by the British. One of the mountains at the George's harbour was strongly fortified, but the British have made a good defence, but were obliged to give up firing a gun; and by the treaty of 1763 the island was ceded to Britain. The management of the island, from that event, the Abbe Raynal has the following marks.—"This long train of evils, arising from the on and mismanagement of his country, has thrown Grenada into the hands of those who are in possession of this conquest of 1763.—England has not made a good use of it. In the first enthusiasm of conquest, of which the highest opinion was formed, every one was eager to purchase estates there. They sold for more than their real value. This caprice, of the old colonists who were induced to the island, sent about L. 1,553,000 out of the country. This imprudence has been followed by the new proprietors, misled, by national pride, have substituted new tenants those of their predecessors. They have altered the mode of living among the negroes, who from their being more attached to their customs, have revolted. It hath been so



and out troops, and to shed blood. The colony was filled with suspicions. The men who had laid themselves under a necessity of using violent methods, were afraid of being massacred in their own plantations. They have declined, or been totally interrupted. Amity has at length been restored. The number of slaves has been increased as far as possible, and the produce has been raised to the level of what it was under the French government. The plantations will still be improved by the neighbourhood of a dozen of islands, called the **PRENADILLOES**, that are dependant on the island. (See that article.) In 1779, the conquest of this island was accomplished by D'Estaing, French admiral. Immediately after his conquest of St Lucia, he set sail for Grenada with M. de la Motte, he set sail for Grenada with a fleet of 26 sail of the line and 12 frigates, on board 10,000 land forces. Here he arrived on the 2d of July; and landed 3000 troops, Irish, being part of the brigade composed of 6000 men of Ireland in the service of France. They were conducted by Count Dillon, who distributed them in such a manner as to surround the island and harbour. To oppose these, Lord M'Cartney, the governor, had only about 1500 men, and 300 or 400 armed inhabitants; but his all resistance was evidently vain, he determined nevertheless to make an honourable and stout defence. The preparations he made were so judicious, that D'Estaing himself to be present at the first attack on the entrenchments was unsuccessful. The 2d continued two days when the garrison were obliged to yield to the immense disparity of numbers who assaulted them, after having killed or wounded 300 of the enemy. Having thus made themselves masters of the intrenchments on the hill, they turned the cannon of them towards the town which lay under it; on which the governor offered a capitulation. The terms, however, so extraordinary and unprecedented, that the governor and inhabitants agreed in rejecting them; and determined rather to surrender upon any conditions, than upon those which D'Estaing offered so extravagant. On this occasion D'Estaing is said to have behaved in a very haughty and imperious manner; indulging his soldiers also in the most unwarrantable liberties, and in which they had proceeded much farther, had they not been restrained by the Irish troops in the French fleet. In the mean time admiral Byron, who had been conveying the homeward bound West India fleet, hastened to St Vincent, in hopes of being able to intercept it; but being informed, by the way, of a descent had been made at Grenada, he changed his course, hoping that Lord M'Cartney would be able to hold out till his arrival. On the 6th of July he came in sight of the French fleet; without regarding D'Estaing's superiority of ships of the line and as many frigates, determined if possible to force him to a close engagement. The French commander, however, was not confident of his own prowess as to run the risk of an encounter of this kind; and having already

achieved his conquest, had no other view than to preserve it. His designs were facilitated by the good condition of his fleet; which, being more lately come out of port than that of the British, sailed faster, so that he was thus enabled to keep at what distance he pleased. The engagement began about eight in the morning, when admiral Barrington with his own and two other ships got up to the van of the enemy, which they attacked with the greatest spirit. As the other ships of his division, however, were not able to get up to his assistance, these three ships were necessarily obliged to encounter a vast superiority, and of consequence suffered exceedingly. The battle was carried on from beginning to end in the same unequal manner; nor were the British commanders, with their utmost efforts, able to bring the French to a close engagement. Thus captains Collingwood, Edwards, and Cornwallis, stood the fire of the whole French fleet for some time. Captain Fanshawe of the *Monmouth*, a 64 gun ship, threw himself singly in the way of the enemy's van; and admiral Rowley and captain Butchart fought at the same disadvantage: so that finding it impossible to continue the engagement with any probability of success, a general cessation of firing took place about noon. It recommenced in the same manner about 3 P. M. and lasted, with different interruptions, till evening. During this action some of the British ships had forced their way into St George's harbour, not imagining that the enemy were already in possession of the island. They were soon undeceived, however, by perceiving the French colours flying ashore, and the guns and batter's firing at them. This discovery put an end to the design which had brought on the engagement; and as it was now high time to think of providing for the safety of the British transports, which were in danger from the number of the enemy's frigates, the engagement was finally discontinued. During this action some of admiral Byron's ships had suffered extremely. The *Lion* of 64 guns, captain Cornwallis, was found incapable of rejoining the fleet which were plying to windward; and was therefore obliged to bear away alone before the wind. Two other ships lay far astern in a very distressed situation; but no attempt was made to take them, nor did the French admiral show the least inclination to renew the engagement. Grenada was restored to Great Britain by the peace in 1763. George's town, or St George's, is the residence of the governor; and the governor, gen. Matthew, made a present to the citizens of a clock and bells in 1700. The garrison then consisted of artillery, two regiments of Europeans, and one of blacks. As there are several small islands subject to the laws enacted in Grenada, they each elect a person to represent them in the general assembly, which is always held in St George's. As none of the Grenadines have a harbour fit for large vessels, the produce of them is conveyed in small vessels to St George's, from whence it is exported to the different parts of Europe, Africa, America, &c. From the number of vessels that arrive there yearly from different places, and from its being the seat of the Legislature, it has become so populous, that two news papers are published in it. Although it

the peace of 1763, all the French inhabitants who inclined to remain in the island, became invested with the privileges of British subjects; and although these privileges were confirmed in 1768, yet the treatment which they experienced from the British settlers, proved so extremely oppressive, that they at last broke out into a formidable insurrection. On the 2d March 1795, the old French inhabitants, being joined by the mulattoes under Fedon, seized the towns of Grenville and Gonyave, plundered the former, murdered 11 of the English inhabitants, and took the rest prisoners. On the 5th, 130 troops were sent against the rebels, but were obliged to retreat. The most barbarous massacres now took place on both sides; and gen. Lindsey, finding himself unable to quell the insurrection, put an end to his own life. On the 16th April, gen. Nichols, arriving from Martinico, assumed the command, and various engagements took place, wherein sometimes the insurgents and sometimes the British had the advantage. In this distracted state the island continued till Dec. 1795, when the French landed a body of troops, who joined the rebels, and reduced great part of the island; but on the 10th June 1796, the French commandant, Josley, surrendered all the French posts by capitulation to the British under gen. Abercrombie; and Fedon and his associates escaped into the woods, after having murdered all their prisoners. The British obtained complete possession on the 19th June; since which tranquillity has been restored. Lon. 61 40. W. Lat. 12. 0. N.

(2.—3.) GRENADA. See GRANADA.

(1.) GRENADÉ, a town of France, in the dept. of Landes, 7 miles E. of St Sever.

(2.) GRENADÉ, a town of France, in the dept. of Upper Garonne, 12 miles NNE. of Toulouse.

(3.) \* GRENADÉ, *n. f.* [from *pomum granatum*, Lat.] A little hollow globe or ball of iron, or other metal, about two inches and a half in diameter, which, being filled with fine powder, is set on fire by means of a small fuse fastened to the touch hole: as soon as it is kindled, the case flies into many shatters, much to the damage of all that stand near. *Harris.*

(4.) GRENADES, or GRENADES, are thrown by the grenadiers into those places where the men stand thick, particularly into trenches and other lodgements made by the enemy. They were invented about 1594. The author of *the Military Dictionary* has the following remark on the use of grenades: "Grenades have unaccountably sunk into disuse, but I am persuaded there is nothing more proper than to have grenades to throw among the enemy who have jumped into the ditch. During the siege of Cassel, under Count de La Lippe, in the campaign of 1762, a young engineer undertook to carry one of the outworks with a much smaller detachment than one which had been repulsed, and succeeded with ease from the use of grenades; which is a proof that they should not be neglected, either in the attack or defence of posts." The word GRANADO takes its rise from hence, that the shell is filled with grains of powder as a pomegranate is with kernels.

(1.) \* GRENADIER, *n. f.* [*grenadier*, French, from *grenade*.] A tall foot soldier, of whom there

is one company in every regiment: such being employed to throw grenades.—

Peace allays the shepherd's fear

Of wearing cap of *grenadier*.

(2.) GRENADIERS are armed with a firelock, a bayonet, and a pouch full of grenades. They wear high caps, are generally tall and brisk fellows, and are always upon all attacks. Every battalion of foot generally a company of them; or else 2 or 3 grenadiers belong to each company of the line, which, on division, are drawn out as a company of themselves. They always have the right of the battalion.

GRENADILLA. See EBONY, § II.

GRENADILLOES, or } See GRANADA.

GRENADINES. } These islands

3 to 8 leagues each in circumference, but to be all destitute of water, except the *riacou*, wherein one spring has been discovered by digging, which is kept locked up by the governor. The capital of that island is *HELEN*, which has a church. See GRANADA, N.

\* GRENADO, *n. f.* See GRENADE.

Yet to express a Scot, to play that

Not all those mouth *grenados* can suff

—You may as well try to quench a fire with *nado* with a shell of fair water as hope to *Watts.*

GRENAILLE, a name given by the writers to a preparation of copper, of Chinese use as a red colour in some of the china, particularly for that colour which is called *oil-red* or *red in oil*. The china ware with this is very dear. The manner in which to procure the preparation is thus: The China no such thing as silver coined, but they use in commerce bars or masses of these they pay and receive in large barges among a nation so full of fraud as the Chinese is no wonder that these are often adulterated with too great an alloy of copper. They use, however, in this state in common payments. On some occasions, however, such as the payment of taxes and contributions, on which they require their silver pure and fine: on such occasions they have recourse to people, whose business it is to refine the silver, and separate it from the lead it contains. This they do in furnaces for the purpose, and with very convenient apparatus. While the copper is in fusion, they take a brush, and dip the end of it in water; then, by the handle of the brush, they sprinkle the water by degrees upon the melted copper; a scale of lead forms itself by this means on the surface of the matter, which they take off while the copper is in fusion, and immediately throw it into a large vessel of cold water, it forms a powder which is called the *grenaille*; then they repeat the operation every time they in this manner separate the copper; and this furnishes them with as much *grenaille* as they have occasion for.

GRENAN, Benignus, professor of poetry at Harcourt, was born at Noyers, in Burgundy, 1681. He was the intimate friend of prior Boileau, but his rival in poetry and eloquence.

oems in a pure stile, and his sentiments are  
it. He died at Paris in 1723.

**NANT**, a town of France, in the dept.  
er Marne, 10 miles SSE. of Langres.

**NCHEN**, a town of the Helvetic republic,  
Valais, 25 miles E. of Sion.

**NOBLE**, a large, populous, and ancient  
France, in the dept. of Here, and ci-de-  
v. of Dauphiny, anciently called **Accu-  
COLONIA**. See that article. It contains  
number of handsome structures, particu-  
rches and ci-devant convents. The leather  
ges made here are highly esteemed. It is  
in the Here, over which there are 2 bridges  
into a large street on the other side of the  
Lon. 5. 49. E. Lat 45. 12. N.

**NVILLE**, the capital of the island of Gre-  
It was plundered, and partly burnt by the  
rgents, on the 2d March 1795. See **GRE-  
N° 1**.

**PPIN**, a town of Germany, in the electo-  
Saxony, 2 miles NNW of Bitterfeld.

**S, CAPE AU**, a promontory of N. Ame-  
the E. side of the Mississippi, in the North  
1 Territory.

**SHAM**, Sir Thomas, an opulent mer-  
1 London, descended from an ancient fa-  
Norfolk. He was born in 1519. His fa-  
s king's agent at Antwerp, for taking up  
of the merchants. Being appointed to the  
fice, he, in 1551, removed to that city  
family. This employment was suspended  
cession of Q. Mary, but, on proper re-  
tion, was restored to him again. Q. E-  
knighted him, and made him her agent  
n parts. About this time, he built a large  
house on the W. side of Bishopsgate Street,  
med **GRESHAM COLLEGE**. His father had  
d building a house or exchange for the mer-  
o meet in, instead of walking in the open  
but Sir Thomas went beyond his father:  
rd, if the citizens would provide a proper  
f ground, to build a house at his own ex-  
which being accepted, he fulfilled his pro-  
per the plan of the exchange at Antwerp.  
29th of Jan. 1570, when the new edifice  
ned, the queen came and dined with the  
; and caused a herald with a trumpet to  
it by the name of the *Royal Exchange*.  
ance also of a promise to endow a college  
rofession of the seven liberal sciences, he  
testamentary disposition of his house in  
for that purpose. See **COLLEGE**, § II.  
He left several other benefactions, and  
1579. He had a mind every way suited  
ortune, generous and benign: ready to  
good actions, and encourage them in o-  
le was a great friend and patron of the  
d martyrologist, John Fox. He was well  
ed with the ancient and several modern  
s; he had a very comprehensive know-  
all affairs relating to commerce, foreign  
estic; and his success was equal to it,  
emed the highest commoner in England,  
c. He transacted queen Elizabeth's mer-  
fairs so constantly, that he was called  
*merchant*; and his house was sometimes

appointed for the reception of foreign princes u-  
pon their first arrival in London.

**GRESHAM COLLEGE**. See **COLLEGE**, § II N° 1.

**GRESHOLM**, an isle of Denmark, in the Scag-  
gerack, 4 miles NNE. of Lefloe isle.

**GRESSEN**, a town of Poland, in Samogitia,  
20 miles NNE. of Mednik.

**GRESSET**, John Baptist Lewis, one of the  
most lively of the French poets, born at Amiens,  
in 1709. His *Poésies* is reckoned the best of his  
productions. He died in 1777.

**GRESTEN**, a town of Austria, 9 miles NE.  
of Bavaria Wadhofer.

**GRETA**, a river of Yorkshire, which runs in-  
to the Tees, near Morton.

**GRETE**, a river of Westmoreland, which runs  
into the Lune, 2 miles S. of Kirby Lonsdale.

**GRETNA GREEN**. See **GRAFTNEY**, N° 2.

**GRETSVIL**, or **GROBE**, a town of West-  
phalia, on the borders of L. Frisland, 10 miles  
NNW. of Emden.

**GRETTELSBERG**. See **GREVELSBERG**.

**GREVE AU LANCHAN**, a bay on the NW.  
coast of the island of Jersey.

**GREVEN**, a town of Westphalia, in the bi-  
shopric of Munster, 8 miles N. of Munster.

**GREVENBROICH**, a town of the French re-  
public, in the dept. of Roer, and ci-devant duchy  
of Juliers, 10 miles NNE. of Juliers.

**GREVENSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in the  
circle of the Lower Rhine, and duchy of West-  
phalia, 16 miles W. of Brünn.

**GREVERAD**, a town of Germany, in the cir-  
cle of Westphalia, and duchy of Berg, 1 mile N.  
W. of Solingen.

**GREVILLE**, Fulke, lord Brook, a poet and  
miscellaneous writer, born in 1554, and descend-  
ed from the noble families of Beauchamps of Po-  
wick and Willoughby de Brook. In company  
with his cousin Sir Phillip Sidney, he began his e-  
ducation at a school in Shrewsbury: thence he went  
to Oxford, and afterwards to Cambridge. He  
next visited foreign courts, and thus added to his  
knowledge of the ancient languages a perfect know-  
ledge of the modern. On his return to England,  
he was introduced to Q. Elizabeth by his uncle  
Robert Greville; and by means of Sir Henry Sid-  
ney, lord pretident of Wales, was nominated to  
some lucrative employments in that principality.  
In 1581, when the French commissioners, who  
came to treat about the queen's marriage with  
the duke of Anjou, were entertained with tilts  
and tournaments, Mr Greville, who was one of  
the challengers, so signalized himself, as to "win  
the reputation of a most valiant knight." He con-  
tinued a constant attendant at court, and a fa-  
vourite with the queen to the end of her reign;  
during which he obtained the office of treasurer  
of marine causes, a grant of the manor of Wedg-  
nock, and the honour of knight-hood. In her reign  
he was several times elected M. P. for Warwick-  
shire, and from the journals seems to have been a  
man of business, as his name often appears in  
committees. On the accession of K. James I. he  
was installed knight of the Bath; and soon after  
obtained a grant of the ruinous castles of Warwick,  
which he repaired at a considerable expence. In

1614, he was made under-treasurer, chancellor of the exchequer, one of the privy council, and gentleman of the bed-chamber; and in 1620, he was raised to the dignity of baron. He was also privy-counsellor to K. Charles I. in the beginning of whose reign, he founded a history lecture in Cambridge. Having thus attained the age of 74, thro' a life of continued prosperity, universally admired as a gentleman and a scholar, he fell by the hands of an assassin, one of his own domestics, who immediately stabbed himself with the same weapon with which he had murdered his master. This fellow's name was Haywood; and the cause is said to have been a severe reprimand, for his presumption in upbraiding his master for not providing for him after his death. He had been witness to lord Brook's will, and knew the contents. Some say he stabbed him with a knife in the back, others with a sword. This affair happened at Brook-house, in Holborne. Lord Brook was buried with great pomp in St Mary's church at Warwick, in his own vault, over which he had erected a monument of black and white marble, ordering at his death the following inscription to be engraved upon the tomb: "Fulke Greville, servant to Q. Elizabeth, counsellor to K. James, and friend to Sir Philip Sidney. *Trophæum Peccati*." He wrote several works in verse and prose, among which are, 1. Two tragedies, Alabam and Mithras. 2. A Treatise of Human Learning, &c. in verse, folio. 3. The Life of Sir Philip Sidney. 4. An Inquisition upon Fame and Honour, in 86 stanzas. 5. *Gaellia*, a collection of 109 songs. 6. His Remains, consisting of political and philosophical poems.

GREVILLERS, a town of France, in the dept. of the Straits of Calais, near 2 miles W. of Baupaume.

GREVIUS. See GRÆVIUS.

GREUSSEN, a town of Upper Saxony, in Schwartzburg, 16 miles N. of Eriurt.

\* GREUT. *n. f.* A kind of fossil body.—A sort of tin ore with its *grewt*; that is, a congeries of crystals, or sparks of spar, of the bigness of hay salt, and of a brown shining colour immersed therein. *Grew's Museum.*

(1.) GREW, Nehemiah, a learned English writer, of the 17th century, who had a considerable practice as a physician in London, and succeeded Mr Oldenburgh in the office of secretary to the Royal Society. In this capacity, pursuant to an order of council, he drew up a catalogue of the natural and artificial rarities belonging to the society, under the title of *Museum Regalis Societatis*, &c. 1681. He also wrote, besides several pieces in the Philosophical Transactions, 1. The Comparative Anatomy of the Stomach and Guts, fol. 2. The Anatomy of Plants, fol. 3. *Tractatus de salis Cathartici natura et usu.* 4. *Cosmologia Sacra*, or a Discourse of the Universe as it is the Creature and Kingdom of God, folio. He died suddenly in 1721.

(2.) \* GREW. The preterite of *grew*.—

The pleasant talk he fails not to renew;

Soft and more soft at ev'ry touch it *grew*. *Drvd.*

GREWESMUEHLEN, or } a town of Meck-  
GREWESMUHLEN, } lenburgh, 14 miles  
W. of Wismar.

GREWIA, in botany, a genus of the gynandria order, belonging to the gynandria plants; and in the natural method ranking the 37th order, *Columnifera*. The calyx taphyllous; there are 5 petals, each with a riferous scale at the base; the berry is quadrangular. There are two species, viz.

1. GREWIA AFRICANA, with oval spear-ferrated leaves, is a native of Senegal in from whence its seeds were brought by Mission. In this country it rises with a shrub 5 or 6 feet high, sending out many lateral with a brown hairy bark, and garnish spear-shaped ferrated leaves; but the plant flower in Britain. This species is tender must be kept constantly in a warm bed. In summer, they require a large share of air, and should have water three or four week in warm weather; but in winter they be sparingly watered. The negroes of highly value a decoction of the bark, and a never-failing remedy against venereal cost.

2. GREWIA OCCIDENTALIS, with oval leaves. It is a native of the Cape of Good and grows to the height of 10 or 12 feet stem and branches greatly resemble those small leaved elm, the bark being smooth the same colour with that when young leaves are also very like those of the elm, off in autumn. The flowers are produced along the young branches from the wing leaves, and are of a bright purple colour species, though a native of a warm climate bear the open air in this country; only to be sheltered in a green-house during winter may be propagated by cuttings or layers in pots filled with soft loamy earth.

(1.) \* GREY. *adj.* [*gris*, French. Properly written *gray*.] See GRAY.—The ruffian, Sir, whose life I spared at suit of beard. *Shak. King Lear*.—

Our green youth copies what grey is  
When venerable age commands the sin

(2.) GREY, Lady Jane, a most illustrious unfortunate lady, descended of the blood England by both parents, was the eldest of Henry Grey marquis of Dorset, and the daughter of Charles Brandon lord St Mary the dowager of Lewis XII. king of who was the youngest daughter of Henry king of England. She was born in 1537, gate, her father's seat in Leicester-shire. covered an early propensity to all kinds ture; and having a fine genius, impropr the tuition of Mr Elmer, she made a w sing progress in the languages, arts, and She understood perfectly both kinds of pl and could express herself very properly and Greek; and Sir Thomas Chaloner (in Memorials, Vol. III. p. 93.) says, that well versed in Hebrew, Chaldee, Arabic and Italian. He adds, that "she played instrumental music, writ a curious hand, excellent at the needle;" and that she nised her musical instruments with a vofitely sweet, assisted by all the graces could bestow. In 1553, the dukes of St

Northumberland, who were now, after the fall of the Northumberland, arrived at the height of power, began on the decline of king Edward's health, to think how to prevent that reverse of fortune which, as things then stood, they foresaw must happen upon his death. To obtain this end, no other remedy was judged sufficient but a change in the succession of the crown, and transferring it into their own families, by rendering Lady Jane Grey. Those most excellent and amiable qualities, which had rendered her dear to all who had the happiness to know her, joined to her near affinity to the king, subjected her to become the chief tool of an ambition not her own. With this view she was married to lord Guildford Dudley, 4th son of the duke of Northumberland, without discovering to her the real design of the match; which was celebrated with great pomp in the end of May; and was so much to the king's satisfaction, that he contributed bounteously to the expense of it from the royal wardrobe. Edward VI. died in July following; and Lady Jane, with infinite reluctance, overpowered by the solicitations of her ambitious friends, allowed herself to be proclaimed queen of England, on the strength of a deed extorted from that prince by her father in law the duke of Northumberland, which set aside the succession of queen Mary, queen Elizabeth, and Mary queen of Scots. Her regal pageantry continued but a few days. Queen Mary's hereditary right prevailed; and the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey and her husband were committed to the Tower, and on the 13th Nov. arraigned and found guilty of high treason. On the 12th February following they were both beheaded on Tower hill. Her magnanimity in this dreadful scene was astonishing. Immediately before her execution, she addressed herself to the weeping multitude with amazing composure and coherence; and died in charity with that wretched world which she had so much reason to execrate. Thus did the pious Mary begin her reign with the murder of an innocent young creature of 18; who for simplicity of manners, purity of heart, and extensive learning, was hardly ever equalled in any age or country. But, alas! Jane was an obstinate heretic! Fleckenham, Mary's chaplain, visited her in the tower and tried to convert her to the catholic faith, but found her by far his superior in argument. Her writings are, 1. Four Latin Epistles; three to Bullinger, and one to her sister lady Catharine. The last was written the night before her execution, in a blank leaf of a Greek Testament: a circumstance which seems to have led Dr Watkins, in his *Biog. Diſt.* to say, it was written "in the Greek language." These letters are printed in a work entitled *Epistole Helveticæ Reformatōribus, vel ad eos scriptæ*, &c. Tiguri, 1742, 8vo. 2. Her Conference with Fleckenham. *Ballard.* 3. A letter to Dr Harding, her father's chaplain. Printed in the *Phoenix*, vol. ii. p. 28. 4. A Prayer for her own use during her confinement. In Fox's *Acts and Monuments.* 5. Four Latin verses; written in prison with a pin. They are as follows:

*Non aliena putes, homini quæ obtingere possunt:  
Sors hodierna mihi, tunc erit illa tibi.*

Jane Dudley.

*Deo juvante, nil nocet labor malus:*

*Et non juvante, nil juvat labor gravis.*

*Post tenebras spero lucem.*

6. Her Speech on the Scaffold. *Ballard.* It began thus: "My Lords, and you good Christian people who come to see me die; I am under law, and by that law, as a never erring judge, am condemned to die: not for any thing I have offended the queen's majesty; for I will wash my hands guiltless thereof, and deliver to my God my soul as pure from such trespass as innocence from injustice; but only for that I consented to that thing I was enforced unto, constraint making it law believe I did that which I never understood. &c.—Hollinghed, Sir Richard Baker, Bale, an Fox, tell us that she wrote several other things but do not mention where they are to be found.

(3.) GREY, Richard, D. D. a learned English divine, born in 1693, and educated at Oxford where he took the degree of M. A. in 1719. He obtained the rectories of Kilcote in Leicestershire and Hindon in Northamptonshire with other benefices. He published many sermons and religious tracts; besides the following: 1. *Memoria Technica*, or a New Method of Artificial Memory; which the first edition was printed in 1730. and 4th in 1756: 2. *A System of English Ecclesiastical Law*, 8vo, 1741: 3. *The miserable and distracted State of Religion in England, upon the Downfall of the Church established*; 8vo, 1736: 4. *A new and easy Method of Learning Hebrew without points*; 1738: 5. *Historia Josephi*, and 6. *Paradigmata Verborum*, 1739: 7. *Liber Jobi*, 174: 8. *Answer to Warburton's Remarks*, 1744: *Novus Methodus Hebraicæ Disſendi*, &c. 1751: and 10. *A Translation of Mr H. Browne's poem, I Animi immortalitate*. He was married; and died Feb. 28, 1771, aged 78, leaving several daughters.

(4.) GREY, Zachary, LL. D. an English divine born in 1687. He studied and graduated at Cambridge. He was vicar of St Giles's and St Peter in Cambridge, and was author of about 30 different works; particularly *An Answer to Neale's History of the Puritans*; 3 vols 8vo. His edition of *Hudibras*, 1744, was satirized by Warburton and Henry Fielding. He died in 1766, aged 79.

GREY FRIARS. See FRANCISCANS.

(1.) \* GREY-HOUND. *n. f.* [*grigbound*, Saxon] A tall fleet dog that chafes in fight.—First may trusty greyhound transform himself into a tyger. *Sidney.*—

So, on the downs we see, near Wilton fair  
A haſt'ned hare from greedy greyhounds go.

*Sidney*

Th' impatient greyhound, ſlapt from his  
Bounds o'er the glebe to catch the fearful hare.

*Dryden*

(2.) GREY-HOUND. See CANIS, § I, vi. N<sup>o</sup> 7; and (2.) 11, 23. Among a litter of grey-hound puppies, the best are always those which are lightest. These will make the nimblest dogs as they grow up. The grey-hound is best for open countries where there is little covert. In these places there will sometimes be a course after a hare two or three miles or more, and both the dog and the game in fight all the while. It is generally supposed that the grey-hound bitch will be

the dog in running: but this seems to be an error; for the dog is both longer made, and considerably stronger, than the bitch of the same kind. In breeding these dogs, the bitch is principally to be regarded; for it is found by experience, that the best dog and a bad bitch will not get so good puppies, as an indifferent dog with a good bitch. The dog and bitch should be as nearly as possible of the same age; and for breeding perfect dogs, they should not be more than 4 years old. An old bitch may be used with a young dog, but the puppies of a young bitch and an old dog will never be good for any thing. The general food for a grey-hound is chippings or raspings of bread, with soft bones and gristles; and those chippings ought always to be soaked in beef or mutton broth. The proper exercise is courting him 3 times a-week, and rewarding him with blood; which will animate him in the highest degree, and encourage him to prosecute his game. But the hare also should always have fair play. She should have *the laze*, as it is called; that is, have leave to run about 12 score yards before the dog is slipped at her, that he may have some difficulty in the course, and not pick up the game too easily. If he kills the hare, he must never be suffered to tear her; but she must be taken from him, his mouth cleaned of the wool, and the liver and lights given him by way of encouragement. Then he is to be led home, and his feet washed with butter and beer, and about an hour after he is to be fed. When the dog is to be taken out to course, he should have nothing in the morning but a toast and butter, and then he is to be kennelled till taken out to the field. The kennelling these dogs is of great use, always giving them spirit and nimbleness when they are let loose. The best way of managing a fine grey-hound is, never to let him stir out of the kennel, except when feeding, walking, or courting.

GREYLÄCH, a town of Germany in Carniola, 8 miles N. of Rudolfswert.

GREY LEAGUE. See GRISONS.

GREYSAU, a town of Silesia; in Nieffe.

GREZ, or GREZ EN BOUERE, a town of France, in the department of Maine,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles ENE. of Chateau Gontier.

GREZELS, a town of France in the dep. of Lot, 8 miles N. of Moncuq.

GREZZANA, or ) a town of the Veronese, in

GREZZANO, { Maritime Austria, according to the division of that province between the emperor and the Cisalpine republic, made by the treaty of Campo Formio, in 1797: but by the late conquest of the Veronese, by the French and Cisalpines under Gen. Brune in Dec. 1800, and subsequent annexation of the whole province, it is now in the Cisalpine republic. This town is 12 miles N. of Verona, and 2 of Breonio; and is seated near the *Bridge of Beja*, a remarkable bridge formed by Nature, which connects two hills together. Its arch is 50 Veronese feet broad, and no less than 114 feet high.

GRIAS, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those of which the order is doubtful. The corolla is tetrapetalous; the calyx quadrifid; the stigma sessile and cruciform; the fruit is a plum with an eight-furrowed kernel. There is but one species, viz.

GRIAS CAULIFLORA, the anchovy-pea, a native of Jamaica. The leaves are nearly oval, and about three feet long. It has a straight stem, upon the upper part of which come forth the branches. The fruit is large, and contains a stone with 8 furrows. These fruits are eaten by the inhabitants.

GRIAZNUCHA, a town of Russia in the gov. of Saratov, 40 miles SSW. of Saratov.

GRIAZOVETZ, a town of Russia in the gov. of Vologda. Lon. 53. 30. E. of Ferro. Lat. 58. 16. N.

GRIBALDUS, Matthew, a learned civilian of Padua, who left Italy in the 16th century, in order to make a public profession of the Protestant religion. After having been for some time professor of the civil law at Tubingen, he was obliged to leave it, having imbibed some doubts respecting the doctrine of the Trinity: but he was seized at Bonn, where he would have met with very severe treatment, had he not pretended to renounce his opinions; but as he relapsed again, he would certainly have been put to death, had he not died of the plague in 1664. He wrote *De methodo et ratione studendi in juri civili*; and several other works, which are esteemed.

GRIBNER, Michael Henry, a learned civilian of Germany, born at Leipzig in 1682. After writing some time in the Journal of Leipzig, he was made professor of law at Wittemberg; whence he passed to Dresden, and was at last recalled to Leipzig to succeed M. Mencke. He died in 1726. Besides several academical dissertations, he wrote, 1. *Principia processus judicarii*; 2. *Principia juris prudentiae naturalis*, a small work much esteemed; 3. *Opuscula juris publici et privati*.

GRICANE, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, 20 miles N. of Jassi.

\* GRICE, *n. s.* 1. A little pig. *Gouldman*— 2. A step or greese.—

No, not a grice:

This is a step to love. *Shak. Twelfth Night*.

\* To GRIDE, *v. n.* [*gridare*, Ital.] To cut; to make way by cutting. A word elegant, but not in use.—

His poignant spear he thrust with puissant fury,  
That through his thigh the mortal steel did gride. *Spenser*.

So fore

The griding sword, with discontinuous wound,  
Pass'd through him! *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

\* GRIDELIN, *adj.* A colour mixed of white and red.—

The ladies dress'd in rich lymars were seen,  
Of Florence fatten, flower'd with white and green,  
And for a shade betwixt the bloomy gridelin.

*Dryden's Fables*.

\* GRIDIRON, *n. s.* [*grind*, Islandick, a grate, and *iron*.] A portable grate on which meat is laid to be broiled upon the fire.—He had added two bars to the gridiron. *Spektator*.

(1.) \* GRIEF, *n. s.* [from *grieve*; *griff*, Wel. probably from the English.] 1. Sorrow; trouble for something past.—

I will instruct my sorrows to be proud;  
For grief is proud, and makes his owner stout.

*Shak.*

—Wringing of the hands, knocking the breast, and but



emonies of sorrow, the pomp and of-  
f an effeminate *grief*, which speak not  
ic greatness of the misery as the small-  
mind. *South.*—The mother was so af-  
ic loss of a fine boy, who was her only  
ic died for *grief* of it. *Addison.* 2. *Grie-*  
ic rm. [*Grief*, Fr.] Not in use.—  
icious for redress of all these *griefs*,  
ill set this foot of mine as far  
goes farthest. *Shak.*

The king hath sent to know  
ure of your *griefs*, and whereupon  
ijure from the breast of civil peace  
ld hostility? *Shak. Henry IV.*  
:iseafe. Obsolete.

IEF. The influence of this passion on  
s very great. Its effects resemble in se-  
nces those of fear, with, however, some  
owing perhaps to its being in general  
uration. *Grief* diminishes the bodily  
; general, and particularly the force of  
and circulation; as appears by the fre-  
s and deep respirations which attend it,  
n to be necessary exertions, in order to  
the passage of the blood through the  
diminishes perspiration, obstructs the  
discharge, produces paleness of the skin,  
ratous complaints, and scirrhous of the  
parts. It aggravates the scurvy, and  
nity of putrid and contagious distempers;  
as people more apt to receive the infec-  
em. When it comes on suddenly, and  
degree, it causes a palpitation of the  
l renders the pulse irregular. Blindness,  
and sudden death, have followed the  
this sensation. Its effects of changing  
r of the hair are well known. Opiates,  
oses, are good cordials in this case.

UM, in botany; a genus of the penta-  
ler, belonging to the decandria class of  
The calyx is quinquefid; there are 5 pe-  
filaments persisting; and 5 monopel-  
l-cases.

JAW, a town of Germany, in Austria,  
NE. of Steyregg.

JBACH, a town of Austria, 2 miles N.  
id.

JBURG, a town of Germany in Stiria.

JPACH, a town of Germany, in Auf-  
iles NE. of Waidhofen.

PIHEL, a fort of Germany, in Stiria.

ISON, Constantia, a native of the coun-  
keny in Ireland, was one of the most  
omen on record, though she was born  
parents, and died at the age of 27, in  
he was an excellent Greek and Latin  
and understood history, divinity, philo-  
id mathematics. She proved her skill in  
her dedication of the Dublin edition of  
o lord Carteret, and by that of Terence  
; to whom she also addressed a Greek

She wrote many elegant English poems,  
which were inserted by Mrs Barber a-  
r own. When lord Carteret was lord  
t of Ireland, he obtained a patent for Mr  
to be the king's printer; and to reward  
nmon merit of his wife, caused her life  
luced in it.

GRIESBACH, a town of Germany, in Lower  
Bavaria, 14 miles W. of Passau.

GRIESKIRCHEN, a town of Austria, 6 miles  
SW. of Efferding, and 104 W. of Vienna.

GRIET, a town of the French republic, in the  
dep. of the Roer, and ci-devant duchy of Cleves,  
4 miles E. of Cleves.

\* GRIEVANCE. *n. f.* [from *grief*.] 1. A state  
of uneasiness. Out of use. 2. The cause of un-  
easiness. Used of such causes as are the effects of  
human conduct.—What remedy can be found a-  
gainst *grievances*, but to bring religion into coun-  
tenance, and encourage those who, from the hope  
of future reward, and dread of future punishment,  
will be moved to justice and integrity? *Swift.*

(1.) \* To GRIEVE. *v. a.* [*grever*, French;  
*griever*, Flemish; *gravis*, Latin.] 1. To afflict;  
to hurt.—For he doth not afflict willingly, nor  
*grieve* the children of men. *Luke* iii. 33.—Forty  
years long was I *grieved* with this generation.  
*Psalms.*—It repented the Lord that he had made  
man on the earth, and it *grieved* him at his heart.  
*Gen.* vi. 6.—

*Griev'd* at the thought, he vow'd his whole  
endeavour

Should be to close those breaches. *Roaue.*  
2. To make sorrowful.—When one man kills a-  
nother, thinking that he killeth a wild beast;  
if the same man remembreth afterwards what he  
hath done, and is not *grieved* for the fact, in this  
case he hath sinned; because his not grieving is of-  
fensive unto God, though the fact were merely  
besides his will. *Perkins.*

(2.) \* To GRIEVE. *v. n.* To be in pain for  
something past; to mourn; to sorrow, as for the  
death of friends. It has sometimes *at* and some-  
times *for* before the cause of grief: perhaps *at* is  
proper before our misfortunes, and *for* before our  
faults.—Do not you *grieve at* this. *Shak.*—

How didst thou *grieve* then, Adam, to behold  
The end of all thy offspring, end so sad? *Milton.*

With equal mind what happens let us bear;  
Nor joy nor *grieve* too much for things beyond  
our care. *Dryden.*

\* GRIEVINGLY. *adv.* [from *grieve*.] In sor-  
row; sorrowfully.—

*Grievingly*, I think,

The peace between the French and us not values  
The cost that did conclude it. *Shak.*

\* GRIEVOUS. *adj.* [*gravis*, Latin; or from  
*To grieve*.] 1. Afflictive; painful; hard to be  
born.—To the flesh, as the apostle himself grant-  
eth, all affliction is naturally *grievous*. *Hooker*—  
Correction is *grievous* unto him that forsaketh the  
way, and he that hateth reproof shall die. *Prov.*  
xv. 10. 2. Such as causes sorrow.—To own a  
great but *grievous* truth, though they quicken and  
sharpen the invention, they corrupt the temper.  
*Watts.* 3. Expressing a great degree of uneasi-  
ness.—He durst not disobey, but sent *grievous*  
complaints to the parliament of the usage he was  
forced to submit to. *Clarendon.* 4. Atrocious;  
heavy.—

It was a *grievous* fault,

And grievously hath Cæsar answer'd it. *Shak.*  
—Crying sins I call those, which are so heinous,  
and in their kind so *grievous*, that they hasten  
God's judgments and call down for speedy ven-  
geance



geance upon the sinner. *Perkins.* 5. Sometimes used adverbially in low language.—

He cannot come, my lord; he's *grievous* sick. *Shak.*

\* **GRIEVOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *grievous.*] 1. Painfully; with pain.—

Wide was the wound, and a large lukewarm flood,

Red as the rose, thence gushed *grievously.* *Spens.* 2. With discontent; with ill-will.—Gritus perceiving how *grievously* the matter was taken, with the danger he was in, began to doubt. *Knolles.* 3. Calamitously; miserably.—I see how a number of souls are, for want of right information, oftentimes grievously vexed. *Hooker.* 4. Vexatiously; to a great degree of uneasiness.—Houses built in plains are apt to be *grievously* annoyed with mire and dirt. *Ray.*

\* **GRIEVOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *grievous.*] Sorrow; pain; calamity.—They fled from the swords, from the drawn sword, and from the bent bow, and from the *grievousness* of war. *Isaiab* xxi. 15.

GRIFALCO, 2 towns of Naples; viz. 1. in Calabria Ultra, 4 miles N. of Squillace; 2. in Otranto, 17 miles SE. of Otranto.

GRIFFE, a fort of Maritime Austria, in Dalmatia, near Spalatro.

GRIFFEN, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, 4 miles N. of Wolckenmark.

GRIFFENHAKEN, a town of Prussian Pomerania, in the duchy of Stettin, on the Oder. Lon. 54. 42. E. Lat. 53. 25. N.

(1.) \* **GRIFFIN.** } *n. f.* [This should rather  
(1.) \* **GRIFFON.** } be written *gryphon*, or *gryphon*; *gryps*, *γρυψ*; but it is generally written *griffon*.] A fabled animal said to be generated between the lion and eagle, and to have the head and paws of the lion, and the wings of the eagle.—Of all bearings among these winged creatures, the *griffin* is the most ancient. *Peacbam*—Aristeus, a poet of Proconesus, affirmed, that near the encircled nations *griffins* defended the mines of gold. *Brown.*

(2.) *The* **GRIFFON**, **GRYPHUS**, by the ancients, was supposed to have 4 legs, wings, and a beak; the upper part representing an eagle, and the lower a lion: and to watch over gold mines, hidden treasures, &c. This imaginary animal was consecrated to the sun; and the ancient painters represented the chariot of the sun as drawn by griffons. *M. Spanheim* observes the same of those of Jupiter and Nemesis. The griffon is commonly seen on ancient arms; and is born in coat-armour. Guillim blazons it rampant; alleging, that any very fierce animal may be blazoned as well as the lion. *Sylvester*, *Morgan*, and others, use the terms *segrillant* instead of rampant. The griffon is also an ornament of architecture in constant use among the Greeks, and was copied from them, with the other elegancies of architectural enrichments, by the Romans. See **SPHYNX**.

(3.) *The* **GRIFFON** in Scripture is that species of the eagle called in Latin *offisraga*, the *olprey*; and פֶּרַס, of the verb פָּרַס, *paras* to break. See **FALCO**, N° 9, 13.

\* **GRIG.** *n. f.* [*kricke*, Bavarian, a little duck.] 1. It seems originally to have signified any thing below the natural size. 2. A small eel. 3. A

merry creature. [Supposed from the *Graculus festivus*, Latin.]

Hard is her heart as flint or stone,  
She laughs to see me pale;

And merry as a *grig* is grown,  
And brisk as bottled ale.

GRIGNAN, a town of France, in the ment of Drome, 18 miles SSE. of Mout

GRIGNOL, a town of France, in the ment of Dordogne; 10 miles SSW. of B

GRIGNOLS, a town of France, in the ment of Gironde, 9 miles SE. of Bazas.

\* **To GRILL.** *v. n.* [*grille*, a grate, broil on a grate or gridiron.

\* **GRILLADE.** *n. f.* [from *grill.*] A broiled on the gridiron.

\* **To GRILLY.** *v. a.* [from *grill.*] To signifies, as it seems, to harass; to hurt now say, to roast a man, for to tease him.

For while we wrangle here and jar,  
W<sup>3</sup> are grilled all at Temple-bar.

\* **GRIM.** *adj.* [*grimma*, Saxon.] 1. countenance of terour; horrible; hideousful.—

The innocent prey in haste he does  
Which quit from death, yet quakes in ev  
With change of fear to see the lion look

*Grim* Saturn yet remains  
Bound in those gloomy caves with a  
chains.

Thou hast a *grim* appearance, and  
Bears a command in't.

Their dear causes  
Would to the bleeding and the *grim* ab  
Excite the mortified man.

What if the breath that kindled the  
fires,  
Awak'd should blow them into seven

Expert to turn the sway  
Of battle, open when and where to ch  
The ridges of *grim* war.

He that dares to die,  
May laugh at the *grim* face of law, and  
The cruel wrinkle of a tyrant brow.

Their swarthy hosts would darken  
plains,  
Doubling the native horrou of the war  
And making death more *grim*.

2. Ugly; ill-looking.—

Strait stood up to him  
Divine Ulysses; who with lookes exceed  
and *grim*,

This better check gave. *C*  
*Grim* visage'd war hath smooth'd his  
front.

—Venus was like her mother; for her  
but *grim*. *Shak.*

\* **GRIMACE.** *n. f.* [French; from *grim* distortion of the countenance from habit, tion, or insolence.—

He had not spar'd to shew his piques  
Against th' haranguer's politicks,  
With smart remarks of lecting faces,  
And annotations of *grimaces*!

—The favourable opinion and good word  
comes oftentimes at a very easy rate; and

re looks and affected whims, set off with devotional postures and grimaces, and a little arts of dissimulation, cunning to wonders. *South.*—The buffoon ape, *aces* and gambols, carried it from the d. *L'Espr.*—The French nation is addicted to *grinaces*. *Speffator.* 2. Air of affectation. in a vizzard, to avoid *grimace*, all freedom, but to see the face. *Granv.* II. DI. Francis, an eminent painter, called *Bolognese*, was born at Bologna in 1588, he became a disciple of Annibal Caracci, which proved an honour to that illustrious master. From the school of Annibal he went to his studies at Rome, and improved himself until his superior talents recommended him to Innocent X. who afforded him immediate promotion. He exerted his genius in his palace of Cavallo, and in the Vatican. His merit attracted the attention of the public, and increased the number of his friends; among whom were Pamphilio, and the principal nobility of Rome. His reputation reached cardinal Mazarin, who sent for him, settled a large pension on him, and employed him for three years in painting his palace and the Louvre, by the order of Louis XIII. The troubles of the state, and the calumnies raised against the cardinal, whose warmly espoused, put him so much in debt, that his friends advised him to retire to Jesuits. He did so, and painted a design for the exposition of the sacrament during the jubilee, according to the custom of Rome. He was highly relished at Paris, and the king ordered him to paint such another for the Louvre. Grimaldi after that returned to Rome, and found his patron Innocent XII. but his successors Alexander VII. and Alexander VIII. honoured him equally with their patronage, and found him variety of employment. He was amiable in his manners, generous of soul, respectful to the great without affectation, and charitable to the poor. The solace of his benevolence may serve to comfort the man. A Sicilian gentleman, who came from Messina with his daughter during the dearth of that country, was reduced to the want of that bread. As he lived over against Grimaldi, he was soon informed of it; and in the evening, knocking at the Sicilian's door, he made himself known, tossed in a bag of gold. The thing happening more raised the Sicilian's curiosity to know the donor. Discovering him at last, by hiding behind the door, he fell down on his knees, and the hand that had relieved him. Grimaldi refused, offered him his house, and continued to assist him till his death. He died of a dropy in 1680, and left a considerable fortune to his children. The genius of Grimaldi directed to landscape. His colouring is strong; his drawing plain and delicate; his situations are unpleasant; and the leafing of his trees is sometimes, indeed, his colouring appears too green; but those landscapes, painted in the manner of the Caracci, are models for all those who admire the school: and he designed his figures in

PART II.

an elegant taste. The pictures of this master are very rare, especially those of his best time; and when they are to be purchased, they afford large prices. Of his children, the youngest, named Alexander, proved a good painter, in the same style and taste with his father, though very far inferior to him: some of the pictures of Alexander, however, are either artfully, or injudiciously, ascribed to Francis.

\* GRIMALKIN. *n. f.* [*gris*, French, grey, and *malin*, or little *Moll.*] Grey little woman; the name of an old cat.—

*Grimalkin*, to domestick vermin sworn

An everlasting foe, with watchful eye  
Lies nightly brooding o'er a chinky gap,  
Protending her fell claws, to thoughtless mice  
Sure ruin. *Philips.*

GRIMAUD, a town of France, in the dep. of Var, 12 miles S. of Frejus.

(1.) GRIMBERG, GRIMBURG, or GRIMPERG, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Sarre and Moselle, and ci-devant electorate of Treves, 16 miles SE. of Treves

(2.) GRIMBERG, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Marck, 12 miles W. of Dortmund.

GRIMBERGEN, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Dyle, and ci-devant province of Austrian Brabant, with a castle and abbey; one mile from the canal between Brussels and Antwerp, and 6 miles N. of Brussels. Lon. 4. 27. E. Lat. 50. 57. N.

GRIMBURG. See GRIMBERG, N° 1.

GRIMBUSTERHOLM, one of the ORKNEY islands, near the coast of Pomona.

\* GRIME. *n. f.* [from *grim*.] Dirt deeply insinuated; sullying blackness not easily cleansed.—Swart, like my face, but her face nothing to clean kept; for why? she sweats: a man may go over shoes in the *grime* of it. *Shaks. Comedy of Errors.*—Collow is the word by which they denote black *grime* of burnt coals or wood. *Woodward on Foss.*

\* To GRIME. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To dirt; to sully deeply.—

My face I'll *grime* with filth,

Blanket my locks, elf all my hair in knots. *Shaks.*

\* GRIMLY. *adv.* [from *grim*.] 1. Horribly; hideously; terribly.—

We've landed in ill time: the skies look *grimly*,

And threaten present blusters. *Shaks. Winter's T.*

So Pluto, seiz'd of Proserpine, convey'd

To hell's tremendous gloom th' affrighted maid;

There *grimly* smil'd, pleas'd with the beauteous prize,

Nor envy'd Jove his sunshine and his skies.

*Addison's Cato.*

2. Sourly; sullenly.—

The augurs

Say they know not; they cannot tell; look *grimly*,  
And dare not speak their knowledge. *Shaks.*

GRIMM, or } a town of Upper Saxony, in  
GRIMMA, } Leipzick. It has a castle, three churches and a college. Its chief trade is in linnen, flannels, thread, beer, and wood. It is 15 miles ESE. of Leipzick, and 42 WNW. of Dresden.

GRIMMEN, or GRIMM, a town of Pomerania, 14 miles S. of Stralsund. Lon. 13. 27. E. Lat. 54. 12. N.

GRIMMING, a mountain of Germany, situated

N a n u

posed

posed to be the highest in Stiria, 16 miles W. of Rottenmann.

\* GRIMNESS, *n. f.* [from *grim*.] Horror; frightfulness of visage.

GRIMNITZ, a town of Brandenburg, 1 mile NW. of Joachimsthal.

GRIMCLOW, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Podolia, 46 miles NNW. of Kaminiac.

GRIMPERG. See GRIMBERG, N° 1.

GRIMSAY. See GRÆMSAY.

GRIMSBY, a large sea port town of England, in Lincolnshire, 169 miles from London; said to be the second, if not the first, corporation in England. It had anciently 3 convents and a castle. It is governed by a mayor, high steward, recorder, 12 aldermen, 12 common council men, 2 bailiffs, 2 coroners, and a town clerk. It has several streets of good houses, and a church that looks like a cathedral. It was a place of great trade before its harbour was choaked up; yet the road before it is a good station for ships that wait for a wind to get out to sea. Its chief trade is in coals and salt brought by the Humber.

GRIMSEL, one of the Helvetic Alps.

GRIMSTA, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland, 28 miles NE. of Uddevalla.

(1.) \* GRIN, *n. f.* [from the verb.] The act of closing the teeth and shewing them.—

He laughs at him: in's face too.

—O you mistake him; 'twas more a humble grin,  
The fawning joy of courtiers and of dogs.

*Dryden.*

—The muscles were so drawn together on each side of his face, that he shewed twenty teeth at a grin. *Addison.*—Deists are effectually beaten in all their combats at the weapons of men, that is, reason and arguments; and they would now attack our religion with the talents of a vile animal, that is, grin and grimace. *Watts on the Mind.*—

What lords are those saluting with a grin?

One is just out, and one is lately in. *Young.*

(2.) \* GRIN, *n. f.* [*gryn, grene, Sax.*] A snare; a trap.—

Like a bird that hasteth to his gryn,

Not knowing the perile. *Cibaucer.*

—The grin shall take him by the heel, and the robber shall prevail against him. *Job xviii. 9.*

\* To GRIN, *v. n.* [*grennias, Sax. grinnen, grinden*, Dutch, undoubtedly of the same origin with *To grind*, as we now say *to grind the teeth*; *grincer*, Fr.] 1. To set the teeth together and withdraw the lips either in anger or in mirth.—

Death, death! oh, amiable, lovely death!

Come grin on me, and I will think thou smil'st.

*Shakefp.*

What valour were it, when a cur doth grin,

For one to trust his hand between his teeth,

When he might spurn him with his foot away?

*Shakefp.*

—It was no unpleasant entertainment to me to see the various methods with which they have attacked me; some with piteous moans and outcries, others grinning, and only shewing their teeth. *Stillingfleet.*—

A lion's hide he wears;

About his shoulders hangs the shaggy skin;

The teeth and gaping jaws severely grin.

*Dryden's Æneid.*

They neither could defend, nor can  
But grin'd their teeth, and cast a help

Madness, we fancy, gave an ill turn'd  
To grinning laughter, and to frantick

Fools grin on fools, and Stoicks sup  
Without one sigh, the pleasures of a

2. To fix the teeth as in anguish.—I like grinning honour as Sir Walter hath: give which if I can save, so; if not, honour look'd for, and there's an end. *Shakefp. H.*

GRINADIL, one of the HERBARDIS.

(1.) GRIND, a town of the French rep the department of Eifel, and late duchy of 20 miles NNE. of Coblenz.

(2.) GRIND, an island near the coast of Ferro, 19 miles NNW. of Harlingen. Lon. 21. Ferro. Lat. 13. 18. N.

(1.) \* To GRIND, *v. a. preter. I ground* pass. *ground*. [*grindan, gegrunden, ground*]

1. To reduce any thing to powder by fine comminute by attrition.—And whatsoever on this stone, shall be broken; but on who it shall fall, it will grind him to powder.

He that will have a cake out of the wheel needs tarry the grinding. *Shak. Troilus and*

What relation or affinity is there between body and cogitation, any more than greatest? Is a small drop of rain any wiser ocean? Or do we grind inanimate corn into

and rational meal? *Bentley's Serm. 1. T*

en or smooth by rubbing on something hard

Meeting with time, slack thing, said

Thy fithe is dull; what it, for shame!

No marvel, sir, he did reply,

If it at length deserve some blame;

But where one man would have me grin

Twenty to one too sharp do find it.

Against a stump his task the monster

And in the sharpen'd edge new vigour

*Dryden.*

3. To rub one against another.—

So up he let him rise; who with grin

And count'nance stern, upstanding, gas

His grated teeth for great disdain.

—Harsh sounds, as of a saw when it is set

and the grinding of one stone against another

a shivering or horror in the body, and set

on edge. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—That the

animals grinds the substances which it rec

evident from the dissection of animals, wh

swallowed metals, which have been found

ed on the side next the stomach. *Arbut.*

4. To harass; to oppress.—Some merch

tradesmen, under colour of furnishing th

with necessaries, may not grind them

always keep them in poverty. *Baron's*

*Villiers.*—Another way the Spaniards ha

to grind the Neapolitans, and yet to tak

odium from themselves. *Addison. 5. In*

lowing lines, I know not whether it be

raptly uted for grinding, cutting.—

Not knowing 'twas my labour, I see

Of sudden shootings and of grinding p

My throws came thicker, and my cries

GRIND. *v. n.* 1. To perform the act  
; to move a mill.—

Fetter'd they send thee  
common prison, there to grind  
he slaves and asses. *Milton's Agonistes.*  
loved as in the act of grinding.—

Shrinking frowns star,  
ary foam works o'er my grinding jaws.

AL, a town near Burlington, Yorksh.  
ELVALD, a town of the Helvetic re-  
e canton of Bern, 3 miles SSE. of Thun.

DER. *n. f.* [from *grind.*] 1. One that  
; that works in a mill. 2. The instru-  
ding —

art a solid rock, to fear unknown,  
ler than the grinder's nether stone.

Now exhort  
Is to exercise the pointed steel  
ard rock, and give a wheely form  
xpected grinder.

Philips.  
ubas, Sax.] The back teeth; the dou-  
The teeth are in men of three kinds:  
e fore teeth; broad, as the back-teeth,  
all the molar-teeth, or grinders; and  
th, or canine, which are between both.

ural History.—  
the raging lions confounds,  
ing lion with his javelin wounds;  
their whelps, their grinders breaks; so

old hunter starve for want of prey.

Sandys.  
teeth or grinders, in Latin *molares*, are  
nd broad a-top, and withal somewhat  
ugged, that, by their knobs and little  
ey may the better retain, grind, and  
e aliments. *Ray on the Creation.*—Na-  
great deal of labour to transmute ve-  
o animal substances; therefore herbi-  
als, which don't ruminant, have strong  
d chew much. *Arbut.* 4. The teeth,  
contempt.—

who at sight of supper, open'd wide  
before, and whetted grinders try'd.

Dryden's *Juv.*  
Both he brought;  
h'd them, and betwix't his grinders  
ght.

Dryden.  
NDING, *n. f.* or TRITURATION, the  
ing or comminuting a solid body, and  
into powder. See LEVIGATION, and  
ITION. The painters colours are grind-  
ible or porphyry, either with oil or

INDING is also used for rubbing or wear-  
regular parts of the surface of a body,  
ing it to the destined figure, whether  
, concave, or the like. The grinding  
ng of glass is a considerable art; for  
GLASS-MAKING, *See* XIII.; and, for  
optical glasses, see OPTICS.

INDING, in cutlery, the operation of  
edge-tools. This operation, as usually  
attended with no small inconvenience,  
reduction of heat by friction. The  
ced is so great, that hard tools are of-

ten softened and spoiled by the steel becoming ig-  
nited, during the grinding. To prevent this ef-  
fect, the grind-stone is partly immersed in a trough  
of water; but in this case the rotation of the stone  
must be moderate, and the work of course, flow,  
else the water will be thrown off by the centrifugal  
force. When the water is applied from above  
by a cock, the quantity is too small to counteract  
the heat and preserve the necessary low tempera-  
ture. It has even been found, that the edge or  
point of a hard tool ground under water will be  
softened, if it be not held so as to meet the stream,  
sparks being often produced even under water.  
To remedy this inconvenience, Mr Nicholson  
made the following experiments. He procured a  
Newcastle grind-stone of a fine grit, 10 inches in  
diameter, and a mahogany block, to be used with  
emery on it; both mounted on an axis, to be ap-  
plied between the centres of a strong lathe. Both  
were of the same diameter, and turned truly cy-  
lindrical. The face of the mahogany block was  
grooved obliquely in opposite directions, to afford  
a lodgement for the emery: The face of the stone  
was smooth, and a trough with water was placed  
below it. The wooden cylinder was faced with  
oil and emery. The tool to be ground was a file,  
from which it was intended to grind off all the  
teeth. The velocity of the rotation produced  
by the lathe was so great as to turn the ap-  
paratus about five revolutions in a second. Yet  
the stone operated but slowly, and the trough was  
quickly exhausted; so that the workman was ob-  
liged to slacken the velocity on account of the  
heat. The emery cylinder cut rather faster. But  
although the friction was made to operate succes-  
sively and by frequent changes on the whole sur-  
face of the file, it soon became too hot to be held;  
and when a cloth was used to defend the work-  
man's hand, the work not only went on awkward-  
ly, but the heat increased to such a degree, that  
the oil was decomposed and emitted an empyreu-  
matic smell. The stone was then allowed to dry,  
and the file tried upon its face. It almost instan-  
tly became blue, and very soon after, red-hot.

Both the cylinders were then covered with tallow,  
by holding the end of a candle to each while turn-  
ing round, and emery was sprinkled on the wooden  
one. The file was then applied to the grind-stone  
while in rapid motion. At first the friction was  
hardly observable, but very soon afterwards, the  
zone of tallow pressed by the file became melted,  
and the stone cut very rapidly. Yet the file was  
for a long time hardly heated at all; and when at  
last it began to feel warm, its temperature was in-  
stantly lowered by removing it to another zone of  
the cylinder. The same effects were produced on  
the wooden cylinder. This is easily explained up-  
on the modern theory of heat. When oil was  
used on the wooden cylinder, the heat produced  
by the friction was employed in raising the tempe-  
rature of the file and the oil; but when tallow  
was used instead of the oil, the greatest part of the  
heat was exhausted in melting this substance. From  
the increased capacity of the tallow when fused,  
the heat was absorbed and became latent, instead  
of raising the temperature: and when the melted  
tallow began to grow hot, together with the file,  
the temperature was easily reduced by employing

the heat on another zone of tallow. Mr Nicholson used these two cylinders in a considerable quantity of work with great satisfaction. This discovery bids fair to be of great utility.

\* GRINDLESTONE. GRINDSTONE. *n. f.* [from *grind* and *stone*.] The stone on which edged instruments are sharpened.—

Such a light and mettal'd dance  
Saw you never yet in France;  
—And by the lead men, for the nonce,  
That turn round like *grindstones*. *Ben Jonson*.  
—Literature is the *grindstone* to sharpen the counters, and to whet their natural faculties. *Hamm*.  
—Smiths that make hinges brighten them, yet seldom file them; but grind them on a *grindstone* till bright. *Moxon*.

(1.) GRINDON, a river of Northumberland, which runs into the sea near Berwick.

(2.) GRINDON, a town in Staffordshire.

(3.) GRINDON, a village in Durham.

(4.) GRINDON RIGG, a village in Northumberland, 9 miles N. of Wooller, memorable for a battle fought near it in 1558, in which the Scots were defeated by the English under the earl of Northumberland and his brother.

\* GRINDSTONE. See GRINDLESTONE.

\* GRINNER. *n. f.* [from *grin*.] He that grins. The frightful *grinner*.

Be the winner. *Addison's Speech*.

\* GRINNINGLY. *adv.* [from *grin*.] With a grinning laugh.

(1.) GRINSTED, EAST, a town in Wiltshire near Salisbury, 29 miles from London, seated on a hill, near the borders of Surry, and Ashdown forest. It has a handsome church, which was rebuilt after having been burnt down in 1683. On the 12th Nov. 1785, the beautiful tower having fallen to decay, fell down, and part lighting on the church very considerably damaged it. An hospital in the reign of king James I. for 31 poor people of this town was built and endowed with 30*l.* a year. It is a borough by prescription, governed by a bailiff and his brethren; has sent burgesses to parliament ever since the first of Edward II, who are elected by about 35 burgage holders: had a charter for a monthly market from Henry VII and is generally the place for the assizes. The returning officer here is the bailiff, who is chosen by a jury of burgage-holders. Its market is on Thursday, and its fairs, which are well frequented, are on July 13 and Dec. 11; which last is a great market for Welsh runts, that are bought up here by the Kentish and Sussex farmers, and for fat hogs and other cattle.

(2.) GRINSTED, WEST, a borough in Sussex, above 10 miles SW. of EAST GRINSTED, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) 18 N. of Lewes, and 29 S. of London. The county assizes are sometimes held in it. Lon. o. 2. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

\* GRIP. *n. f.* A small ditch. *Ainsworth*.

(1.) \* GRIPPE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Grasp; hold: seizure of the hand or paw.—

Therefore still on high  
He over him did hold his cruel claws,  
Threat'ning with greedy *grippe* to do him deadly *Spens*.

They put a barren sceptre in my *grippe*,  
Thence to be wrench'd with an unlineal hand.  
*Shakespeare's Macbeth*.

Should I

Slaver with lips, as common as the skin  
That mount the Capitol; join *gripes* with  
Made hardy with hourly falsehood as with

*Shak*

He gave me his hand,

And, with a feeble *gripe*, says, dear, my  
Command my service. *Shakespeare's Hamlet*  
I fell; and with my weight the helmet  
Was drawn along, which yet my *gripes*

*Dry*

2. Squeeze; pressure.—

Fir'd with this thought, at once he  
The breast;

'Tis true, the harden'd breast resists the  
And the cold lips return a kiss unripe.

3. Oppression; crushing power.—

I take my cause

Out of the *gripes* of cruel men, and give  
To a most noble judge the king my matter

4. Affliction; pinching distress.—

Adam, at the news

Heart struck with chilling *gripes* of sorrow  
That all his senses bound!

Can't thou bear cold and hunger? *Milton's Paradise Lost*

limbs,  
Fram'd for the tender offices of love,  
Endure the bitter *gripes* of smarting poverty

5. [In the plural.] Belly-ach; colick.—In this  
dice the choler is wanting; and the intense  
a great sourness and *gripes*, with windiness.

(2.) GRIPES, (*gripes*, *def. 5.*) in medicine, a  
cholic or painful disorder of the lower bowels,  
occasioned by some sharp pungent matter  
ting the parts, or by wind pent up in the  
tines. See MEDICINE. Index.

(1.) \* To GRIPPE. *v. a.* [*gripan*, Goth.  
Saxon; *gripan*, Dutch; *gripp*, Scottish.]  
hold with the fingers closed; to grasp; to  
with the fingers.—

He that speaks doth *gripe* the hearer's  
Whilst he that hears makes fearful ado  
With wrinkl'd brows. *Shaksp. King Lear*

2. To hold hard.—

He seized the shining bough with *grippe*  
And rent away with ease the ling'ring gold

3. [*Griper*, Fr.] To catch eagerly; to seize

You took occasion to be quickly woe  
To *gripe* the general (way into) your hands

4. To close; to clutch.—

Unlucky Welfed! thy unfeeling mate  
The more thou ticklest, *gripes* his hand

5. To pinch, to press; to squeeze.—

A wond'rous way is for this lady woe  
From lion's claws to pluck the *griped* prey

And first the dame came rushing thro  
wood;

And next the famish'd bounds that foug  
food,

And *grip'd* her flanks, and oft essay'd th  
in blood. *Dryden's*

6. To give a pain in the bowels.—

Thus full of counsel to the den the w  
*Grip'd* all the way, and longing for a vent

(2.) \* To GRIPPE. *v. n.* 1. To feel the  
to have the belly-ach.—Many people would  
reason, prefer the *griping* of an hungry

which are a feast to others. *Locke*.—The bulk, figure, texture, and motion as a power to produce the sensations and sometimes of acute pains or *grip-ocete*. 2. To pinch; to catch at motion.—It is mean revenue, by being seat-worth of times growing upon him, that had great ones, by *gripping*, made it grew stark beggars. *Fell*.

† *n. f.* [from *gripe*.] Oppressor; usurper.—Others pretend zeal, and yet usurers, *grippers*, monsters of men, *Burton on Melanchols*.

LABEN, a town of Germany, in the lower Rhine, 3 miles N. of Erfurt. *NGLY. adv.* [from *gripping*.] With ut.—Clysters help, lest the medicine ut, and work *grippingly*. *Bacon's Na-*

3. *n. f.* A greedy snatcher; a gripping r.

ALM, a town of Sweden, in the Su-25 miles N. of Stockholm.

ALD. See GRIFFWALD.

AMBER. *n. f.* Used by *Milton* for am-

sts of chase, or fowl of game, quill, or from the spit, or boil'd, steam'd. *Milton's Paradise Reg.*

*n. f.* [See GRIFF, as it should be step, or scale of steps.—

speak like ourself; and lay a sentence, a *griff* or step, may help their lovers favour. *Shakespeare's Otello*.

3, a superstition greatly in vogue a- goes in the interior parts of Africa.

According to Le Mire, are certain eters mixed with magical figures re Marabuts or priests upon paper.

is, that they are nothing else than alcoran in Arabic; but this is denied

who brought over one of these *grifgris* and showed it to a number of per-

skilled in oriental learning. None d find the least trace of any character

oud. Yet, after all, this might be e badness of the hand writing; and

provably of the Man'ingo language, characters are an attempt to imitate

The poorest negro never goes to war *grifgris*, as a char against wounds;

es inefficual, the priest transfers the e immorality of his conduct. These

*grifgris* against all kinds of dangers, r of all desires and appetites; by vir-

the possessors may obtain or avoid y like or dislike. They defend them

enemies, diseases, pains, and misfor- preserve health, long life, wealth, hon-

orit, according to the Marabuts. No world are more honoured and reve-

ople than these impostors are by the r are any people in the world more

l by their priests than these negroes is being frequently sold at 3 slaves

men. The *grifgris* intended for the : in the form of a cross, reaching from

to the neck behind, and from ear to

ear; nor are the arms and shoulders neglected. Sometimes they are planted in their bonnets in the form of horns; at other times, they are made cut like serpents, lizards, or some other animals, out of a kind of pasteboard, &c. There are not wanting Europeans, and otherwise intelligent seamen and merchants, who are in some degree infected with this weakness of the country, and believe that the negro forcerers have an actual communication with the devil; and that they are filled with the malignant influence of that evil spirit, when they see them distort their features and muscles, make horrid grimaces, and at last imitate all the appearance of epileptics.

GRISIGNANO, or } a populous town and dis-  
GRISIGNONA, } trict of Maritime Aus-  
tria, in Istria, on the N. side of the Quieto, 9 m. E. of Capo.

\* GRISKIN. *n. f.* [*grifgin*, roast meat, Irish.] The vertebrae of a hog broiled.

GRISLEA, in botany: A genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the octandria class of plants: and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Calycantbeme*. The calyx is quadrid; and there are four petals, one from each incisure of it. The filaments are very long, ascending or running upwards; the capsule is globose, superior, unilocular, and polyspermous.

GRISLEHAMN, or } New, a sea port of  
(1.) GRISLEHAVEN, } Sweden, in the prov. of Upland 50 miles NNE. of Stockholm.

(2.) GRISLEHAVEN, \* Old, a seaport of Sweden in Upland 45 miles NNE of Stockholm.

\* GRISLY. *adj.* [*griflu*, Sax.] Dreadful; horrible; hideous; frightful; terrible.—

His *grifly* locks, long grown and unbound,  
Disordered hung about his shoulders round. *Spens.*

Where I was wont to seek the honey bee,  
The *grifly* toadstool grown there might I see. *Spens.*

My *grifly* countenance made others fly;  
None durst come near, for fear of sudden death.

*Shaksp. Henry VI.*  
Back step'd those two fair angels, half amaz'd  
So sudden to behold the *grifly* king;  
Yet thus, unmov'd with fear, accost him soon.

*Milton.*

For that damn'd magician, let him be girt  
With all the *grifly* legions that troop  
Under the footy flag of Acheron. *Milton.*

The beauteous form of fight  
Is chang'd, and war appears a *grifly* fight. *Dryd.*

In vision thou shalt see his *grifly* face,  
The king of terrors, raging in thy race. *Dryd.*

Thus the *grifly* spectre spoke again. *Dryden.*  
Close by each other laid, they press'd the  
ground,

Their manly bosoms pierc'd, with many a *grif-*  
*ly* wound. *Dryden.*

So rushes on his foe the *grifly* bear. *Addison.*  
GRISON, one of the GRENADILLOPS.

(1.) GRISONS, a people situated among the Alps, and long allies of the Swiss, but now united with the Helvetic republic. Their country is bounded on the N. by the ci-devant counties of Sargans and Bludenz, the canton of Glaris, and the principality of Lichtenstein; on the S. by that part of the Cisalpine republic, which comprehends the ci-devant Italian bailiwicks, Chiavenna, and the

Valetline;



Valtelline; on the E. by the late territories of Venice and Milan, now included in the Cisalpine departments; and on the W. by some of the Italian bailiwics, and the canton of Uri. It was divided into three leagues, viz. the *Grison* or GREY LEAGUE, the LEAGUE OF THE HOUSE OF GOD, and that of the TEN JURISDICTIONS; which united formed one republic. The two first lie toward the S. and the third towards the N. The length of the whole is about 70 miles, and the breadth about 60. The inhabitants are said to have been named *Grisons*, from the grey coats they wore in former times. This country, lying among the Alps, is very mountainous; but the mountains yield good pasture for the cattle, sheep, and goats, with some rye and barley: in the vallies there is plenty of grain, pulse, fruits, and wine. It abounds also with hogs and wild fowl; but there is a scarcity of fish and salt, and their horses are mostly purchased of foreigners. The principal rivers are the Rhine, the Inn, and the Adda. It has also several lakes, most of which lie on the tops of the hills. The language of the Grisons is either a corrupt Italian or the German.

(2.) GRISONS, CONSTITUTION OF THE. The present constitution of the Grisons is the same with that of the HELVETIC REPUBLIC, to which it is joined. But its late constitution was very democratic. Each of the leagues was subdivided into several lesser communities, which were so many democracies; every male above 16 having a share in the government of the community, and a vote in the election of magistrates. Deputies from the several communities constituted the general diet of the Grison leagues, which met annually, and alternately at the capital of each league; but they could conclude nothing without the consent of their constituents. Each of the Leagues was subdivided into a certain number of communities, which were a sort of republics, exercising every branch of sovereignty, except that of making peace or war, sending embassies, concluding alliances, and enacting laws relating to the whole country, which belonged to the provincial diets of the several leagues. The particular diets were composed of a deputy from each community; and both in them and the communities every thing was, and we suppose still is determined by a majority of votes. In the communities, every male above 14 had a vote. Besides the annual provincial diets for choosing the chiefs and other officers, and deliberating on the affairs of the respective leagues, there were general diets for what concerned all the three leagues or the whole body. In both these, the representatives could do nothing of themselves, but were tied down to the instructions of their principals. There was a general seal for all the three leagues; and each particular league had a separate seal. Besides the stated times of meeting, extraordinary diets were sometimes summoned, when either the domestic affairs of the state or any foreign minister required it. In the general diets, the Grey League had 28 votes; that of the House of God, 23; and that of the Ten Jurisdictions, 15. These leagues, at different times, have entered into close alliances with the neighbouring cantons and their associates. The bailiwics belonging in common to the three leagues were those

of the Valteline, Chiavenna, and Bormio united to the Cisalpine republic, Meyenlans, and Jennis; the officers of which nominated successively by the several communities every two years. The yearly revenue of the Grisons from their bailiwics amount about 13,500 florins. The public revenues there are but small, though there are many persons in the country that are rich. In extraordinary emergency, they tax them in proportion to the necessity of the service people's abilities. They have no regular but a well-disciplined militia; and upon can bring a body of 30,000 fighting men; but their chief security arises from narrow passes and high mountains by which surrounded.

(3.) GRISONS, GENERAL HISTORY. This country was anciently a part of Rhaetia; after the extinction of the Roman empire in the west, it was some time subject to its own or those of Swabia. Then the bishop and other petty princes, dependent on the emperors of Germany, became masters of it; at last, by the extinction of some, by voluntary grants, and force, it got rid of its lords, and was erected into three distinct republics. This country, as well as the whole Switzerland, has suffered much during the war, having been repeatedly and successively run by the French and Austrians. As the country will be resumed under the articles REVENUE and WAR, it is only necessary here to mention that the Austrians were driven out of it in 1799, by the French under Gen. Massena; in 5 days took 10,000 prisoners, 40 pieces of cannon, and 20 standards, with great quantities of munition and stores: that on the 10th of August following the Grison leagues were united to the HELVETIC REPUBLIC, except the Valtellina, Chiavenna, and Bormio, which had been united to the CISALPINE, at their own desire; in that in Summer 1799, this country was again over-run by the Austrians; and that in July Feldkirch and Coire were taken, and the whole country recovered by the French under Gen. Courbe.

(4.) GRISONS, LATE JURISPRUDENCE. Of the jurisprudence, &c. of the Grisons the following account is given by Mr Cox in *Travels in Switzerland*. "Throughout the leagues the Roman law prevails, modified by municipal customs. The courts of justice in each community are composed of the chief magistrate who presides, and a certain number of judges chosen by the people: they have no regular salaries, but receive for their attendance a fee arising in some communities from the expenses of the process, which are defrayed by the convicted in others from a share of the fines. The power of pardoning or diminishing the penalty, and of receiving a composition in this mode of proceeding supposes what is absurd in theory as it is contrary to experience; judges will incline to mercy when it is the most rest to convict; or will impartially inflict punishment, even when injurious to their own advantage.—The prisoners are examined



ently tortured for the purpose of forcing, when the judges either divide the nit the punishment for a composition. ricks a criminal trial is a kind of festivity, for whom a good repast is pro- experience of the prisoner if convicted; e' following allusion, in Garth's Dis- plied with more wit than truth to our vice, is literally fulfilled:—

wretches die, that jurymen may *dine*." rillments, however, are extremely umstance arising not from a want of e penal statutes, or from a propensity the judges; but because the latter advantages from fining than executing

In a word, to use the expression of ick is as true at present as it was in Many crimes go unpunished, if the commit them have either great cre- money." It is remarkable, that tor- frequently applied, and for smaller de- in these independant republics, than t provinces. The infliction of it de- ly upon the arbitrary will of the judges: whom may order it for an offence capital, nor even punishable by cor- ties. Thus it is not uncommon, in unities where fines are divided among, to torture women of loose conduct, ose of compelling them to confess with have been connected; for as such punishable by fines, the more per- victed, the larger share of money is among the judges for the trouble of ince. Even in the districts where the d to the community, torture is often only inflicted, because, when the pri- found guilty, the expences of the pro- on the public, and the judges receive nent. Even in the civil courts most ecided by bribing the judges; and ap- ple communities, wherein they are ad- cely serve any other end than to en- ere of corruption; Coire, and a few , are excepted from this general re- is fortunate for the Grisons, that this l iniquitous system has been abolished evolution.

ONS, RELIGION AND CHURCH GO- OF THE. "The religion of the Gri- sr Coxe) is divided into catholic and The doctrines of the reformation were d about 1524, and received at Fläsch ige in the Ten Jurisdictions upon the Sargans; from thence they were ex- layensfeld and Malantz, and soon after- gh the whole valley of Pretigau. The is spread with such celerity, that be- e the 16th century they were embraced e league of the Ten Jurisdictions (ex- of the community of Alvenew), the of the House of God, and a few com- the Grey League. The difference of ly excited a civil war between the two ll at the first introduction of the re- as at the beginning of the troubles in e. In the latter instance, the two in arms; but the Catholics being over-

powered by the Protestants, matters were ami- cably adjusted. Since that period all religious concerns have been regulated with perfect cordia- lity. According to the general consent of the three leagues, each community being absolute within its little territory, has the power of ap- pointing its own particular worship, and the inha- bitants are free to follow either the Catholic or Reformed persuasion. In the administration of civil affairs religion has no interference: the deputies of the general diet may be members of either com- munion, as chosen by the communities which they represent. By this moderate and tolerating prin- ciple, all religious dissensions have been suppressed, and the most perfect amity subsists between the two sects. In spiritual concerns, the Catholics for the most part are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Coire. For the affairs of the Reformed churches, each league is divided into a certain number of districts, the ministers whereof assemble twice every year: these assemblies are called *collo- quia*. Each colloquium has its president, and each league a superintendant called a *dean*. The supreme authority in spiritual concerns is vested in the synod, which is composed of three deans, and the clergy of each league; the synod assembles every year alternately in each of the three leagues. Candidates for holy orders are examined before the synod. The necessary qualifications for ad- mission into the church ought to be the know- ledge of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin; but this rule is not strictly adhered to; many being ordain- ed without the least acquaintance with either of those languages. Formerly Latin was solely used, as well in the debates of the synod as for the pur- pose of examining the candidates; but at present that tongue grows more and more into disuse, and German is employed in its stead. The number of reformed parishes in the whole three leagues amounts to 135, in the following proportion:— In the Grey League 46, in that of God's House 53, and in the League of Ten Jurisdictions 36. The ministers of these churches enjoy but very small salaries. The richest benefices do not per- haps yield more than L. 20, or at most L. 25 *per annum*, and the poorest sometimes scarcely L. 6. This scanty income is attended with many incon- veniences. It obliges the clergy who have fami- lies to follow some branch of traffic, to the neglect of their ecclesiastical studies, and to the degrada- tion of their professional character. Another incon- venience is superadded to the narrowness of their in- come. In most communities the ministers, though confirmed by the synod, are chosen by the people of the parish, and are solely dependent on their bounty. For these reasons, the candidates for holy orders are generally extremely ignorant. They cannot support that expence which is re- quisite to pursue their studies; they are not ani- mated with the expectation of a decent compe- tence; and, from the dependent mode of their election, are not encouraged to deserve their pro- motion by a consistent dignity of character.

GRISSAUNT, William, an eminent English Physician, Astronomer, and Mathematician of the 14th century. Being, from the ignorance and superstition of the times, suspected of magic, he retired to France, gave up mathematics, and ap- plied

plied solely to medicine. His son was elected pope, and took the name of Urban V.

\* GRIST. *n. f.* [*griff*, Saxon.] 1. Corn to be ground.—

Get *griff* to the mill to have plenty in store,  
Left miller lack water. *Tusser's Husb.*

A mighty trade this lusty miller drove;

Much *griff* from Cambridge to his lot did fall,  
And all the corn they us'd at scholar's hall.

*Miller of Tromp.*

2. Supply; provision.—

Matter, as wise logicians say,

Cannot without a form subsist;

And form, say I, as well as they,

Must fail, if matter brings no *griff*. *Swift.*

3. GRIST to Mill, is profit; gain.—The computation of degrees, in all matrimonial causes, is wont to be made according to the rules of that law, because it brings *griff* to the mill. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

\* GRISTLE. *n. f.* [*gristle*, Saxon.] A cartilage; a part of the body next in hardness to a bone.—No living creatures, that have shells very hard, as oysters, crabs, lobsters, and especially the tortoise, have bones within them, but only little *gristles*. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—Left the asperity or hardness of cartilages should hurt the œsophagus or gullet, which is tender and of a skinny substance, or hinder the swallowing of our meat, therefore the annular *gristles* of the windpipe are not made round, or intire circles; but where the gullet touches the windpipe, there, to fill up the circle, is only a soft membrane, which may easily give way to the dilatation of the gullet. *Ray on the Creation.*

\* GRISTLY. *adj.* [from *gristle*.] Cartilaginous; made of gristle.—At last they spit out pieces of their lungs; it may be small *gristly* bits, that are eaten off from the lung pipes. *Harvey.*—She has made the back-bone of several vertebræ, as being more fit to bend, more tough, and less in danger of breaking, than if they were all one intire bone without these *gristly* junctures. *More against Atheism.*—Fins are made of *gristly* spokes, or rays connected by membranes; so that they may be contracted or extended like women's fans. *Ray on the Creation.*—They have a louder and stronger note than other birds of the same bigness, which have only a *gristly* windpipe. *Grew.*

Each pipe, distinguish'd by its *gristly* rings,

To cherish life aerial pasture brings. *Blackmore.*

GRISTO, a town of Pomerania, one mile SSW. of Cammin.

GRISTOW, an island of Saxony, in the Drenow, between Cammen and the isle of Wollin.

GRISWOLD, PORT. See GROTON, N° 1.

(1.) \* GRIT. *n. f.* [*gritta*, *grout*, Saxon.] 1. The coarse part of meal. 2. Oats husked, or coarsely ground. 3. Sand; rough hard particles, —Silexian bole, crackling a little betwixt the teeth, yet without the least particle of *grit*, feels as smooth as soap. *Grew.*

The sturdy pear tree here

Will rise luxuriant, and with toughest root

Pierce the obstructing *grit* and resistive marle.

*Phillips.*

4. *Grits* are fossils found in minute masses, forming together a kind of powder; the several

particles of which are of no determin'd but seem the rudely broken fragments masses; not to be dissolved or disintegrated but retaining their figure, and not coherent masses. One sort is a fine, dull looking, which, if whetted with saltwater, into a paste, dries almost immediately, and con- to a hard stony mass, such as is not ex- wards disintegrated by water. This is the *peteolanus* of the ancients, mixed among ments used in buildings sunk into the sea France and Italy an ingredient in the plasters, under the name of *pozzolana* common on the sides of hills in Italy. species, which is a coarse, beautifully *grit*, is the *chrysocolla* of the ancients, w used in soldering gold, long supposed a It serves the purpose of soldering met than borax. The ferruginous black *grit*, is the black shining sand employed over writing, found on the shores of *on Fossils.*

(2.) GRIT, ARGILLACEOUS, a genus laceous earths. Its texture is more or less equable, and rough to the touch. It does fire with steel, nor effervesce with acids fresh broken and breathed upon, it is earthy smell. Mr Kirwan mentions two one from Hollington near Uttoxeter, of a or whitish grey, and about the specific g 2288. Another, from Kneperly in 2000 is of the specific gravity of 2568; and is as to be used for fire stones. According from the *grit* stone is of greater or less mostly of a grey, and sometimes of a colour, composed of a siliceous and m sand, but rarely of a sparry kind; with smaller particles closely compacted by a ceous cement. It gives some sparks with indissoluble for the most part in acids, as able in a strong fire. It is used for and whetstones; and sometimes for filters and for building.

\* GRITINESS. *n. f.* [from *grit*.] Gritiness; the quality of abounding in *grit*.— earth he could find no sand by the me nor any *gritiness*. *Mort. Husb.*

\* GRITTY. *adj.* [from *grit*.] Full of h ticles; consisting of *grit*.—I could not dit unevenness of the surface of the powder, little shadows let fall from the *gritty* thereof. *Newton's Opt.*

GRITZGALLEN, a town of Courlan SSW. of Scelburg.

GRIVE, John De LA, an eminent Fre grapher, born at Sedan, in 1689. He among other works, *The Topography* which is reckoned very accurate. He died

GRIVENSKOI, a town of Russia, in

\* GRIZELIN. *adj.* more properly See GRIDELIN.—The Burgundy, wh *grizelin* or pale red, of all others, is su pen in our climate. *Temple.*

GRIZOLLES, a town of France i Car-nue, 15 miles SSE. of Sarrazen, a of Toulouze.

GRIZY, a town of France in the dep and Oise, 5 miles NW. of Pont Oise.

**GRIZZLE.** *n. f.* [from *gris*, gray; *grisaille*, a mixture of white and black; gray.—] A dissembling cub! what wilt thou be, me has fow'd a *grizzle* on thy face?

*Shak.*

**GRIZZLED.** *adj.* [from *grizzle*.] Interth gray.—To the boy Cæsar send this ad. *Shak.*

his beard was *grizzled*: no.

as I have seen it in his life. *Shak.*

His hair just *grizzled*,  
green old age.

*Dryden.*

*grizzled* locks, which nature did provide  
ous growth, their asses ears to hide.

*Dryden's Juv.*

**GRIZLY.** *adj.* [from *gris*, gray, French.] gray.—Living creatures generally do  
ir hair with age, turned to be gray and  
is seen in men, though some earlier,  
; in horses that are dappled, and turn  
d in old squirrels, that turn *grizly*.

X, an isle in the Atlantic, on the W.  
ance, and in the dep. of Morbihan, 4

and 1½ broad; 18 miles NNW. of  
Lon. 14. 9. E. Ferro. Lat. 74. 37. N.

AN. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Breath  
h noise and difficulty, from pain, faint-  
ariness.—

las, poor country,

ghs and *groans*, and shrieks that rend  
air,

e, not mark'd!

*Shak Macbeth.*

o slaughter, and to slaughter leave;  
from hence their dying *groans* receive.

*Dryden.*

aching bosoms wear a visage gay,  
ed *groans* frequent the ball and play.

*Young.*

rse dead sound.—

hects of fire, such bursts of horrid  
der,

ms of roaring wind and rain, I never  
er to have heard. *Shak. King Lear.*

LOAN. *v. n.* [*granan*, Saxon; *gronen*,  
To breathe with a hoarse noise, as in  
ny.—

Many an heir

fair edifices, for my wars,

ard *groan* and drop. *Shak. Coriol.*

n from out of the city, and the foul  
ded crieth out. *Job xxiv. 12.*—Repent-

ning for anguish of spirit. *Wisd. v. 3.*  
shall the world go on,

malignant, to bad men benign,  
own weight *groaning*. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

can so peculiarly gratify the noble dis-  
humanity, as for one man to see ano-

ch himself as to sigh his griefs and  
ins. *South.*

he blazing pile his parent lay,  
l brother *groan'd* his life away. *Pope.*

NFUL. *adj.* [*groan* and *full*.] Sad;  
Not used.—

he kept it with so puissant wrest,  
e again it did aloft rebound,

against his mother earth a *groansful*  
l. *Spenser.*

PART II.

(1.) \* **GROAT.** *n. f.* [*groat*, Dutch; *grosso*,  
Italian.] 1. A piece valued at four pence. 2.  
A proverbial name for a small sum.—

My mother was wont

To call them woollen vassals, things created

To buy and sell with *groats*. *Shak.*

I dare lay a *groat*,

A tertian ague is at least your lot. *Dryden.*

—Imagine a person of quality to marry a woman  
much his inferior, and without a *groat* to her  
fortune. *Swift.* 3. **GROATS.** Oats that have the  
hulls taken off. *Ainsworth.*

(2.) **GROAT.** (§ 1. *def.* 1.) Other nations, as  
the Dutch, Polanders, Saxons, Bohemians, French,  
&c. have likewise their *groats*, *groote*, *groches*,  
*gros*, &c. In the Saxon times, no silver coin  
bigger than a penny was struck in England, nor  
after the conquest, till Edward III. who, about  
the year 1351, coined *grosses*, i. e. *groats*, or great  
pieces, which went for 4d. a piece: and so the  
matter stood till the reign of Henry VIII. who, in  
1504, first coined shillings.

**GROAT'S HOUSE.** See JOHN O' GROAT'S HOUSE.

**GROBBENDONCK**, a town of the French  
republic, in the dept. of Deux Nattes, and late  
prov. of Austrian Brabant; 10 miles E. of Ant-  
werp.

**GROBINEN**, a town in the duchy of Cour-  
land, 28 miles SSW. of Goldingen.

**GROBOVCPOLE**, a town of Russia, in the  
prov. of Ekaterinenburg; 40 miles W. of Ekateri-  
nenburg.

(1.) \* **GROCER.** *n. f.* [This should be written  
*groffer*, from *grofs*, a large quantity; a *grocer*  
originally being one who dealt by wholesale; or  
from *grossus*, a fig, which their present state seems  
to favour.]—A *grocer* is a man who buys and sells  
tea, sugar, and plumbs and spices for gain. *Harris's*  
*Logick.*—

Bnt still the offspring of your brain shall prove  
The *grocer's* care, and brave the rage of Jove.

*Garth.*

(2.) **GROCERS** anciently were such persons as  
*engrossed* all merchandize that was vendible; but  
now they are incorporated, and make one of the  
companies of the city of London.

\* **GROCERY.** *n. f.* [from *grocer*.] Grocers ware,  
such as tea; sugar; raisins; spice.—His troops be-  
ing now in a country where they were not expect-  
ed, met with many cart loads of wine, *grocery*,  
and tobacco. *Clarendon.*

**GROCYN**, William, a learned English divine,  
of the 15th century, born at Bristol, in 1442. He  
held a disputation at Oxford before K. Richard III,  
who rewarded him liberally. In 1485, he was  
made a prebendary of Lincoln. In 1488, he tra-  
velled into Italy, and studied Greek under Politian  
and Demetrius Chalcondylas, though he had ac-  
quired that language before. Upon his return he  
taught it, and introduced the true pronunciation  
of it into England. He was the friend and patron  
of Erasmus. He died at Maidstone, in 1522, of the  
palsy, aged 80. His works are mentioned by Bayle.  
His Latin Epistle to Aldus Manutius is prefixed  
to Linacre's translation of Proclus de Sphæra.  
Ven. 1494.

**GRODECK**, a town of Poland, in the palati-  
nate of Bielsk; 40 miles SW. of Bielsk.

partly  
it is an  
merly  
ish syna  
Linen, w  
factured  
tuted, a n  
g  
n  
Lou. 24. 25. E. 2

of Silesia, in Niesse.  
town of Lithuania, in the  
ted partly on an eminence,  
rrounded with hills. Near  
ch the diets of Poland for-  
as 11 churches and a Jew-  
s about 7000 inhabitants.  
d cotton goods are manu-  
te king Augustus III. insti-  
ny in it; but the towp is  
h seated on the Niemen, 64  
a, and 140 NE. of Warsaw.  
3. 28. N.

GROEMS, a town of Holstein, 10 miles S. of Cismar.

GROENDALE, a town of the French republic, in the department of Dyle, and ci-devant province of Austrian Brabant, on the Iliche, 6 miles SE. of Brussels.

GROENLAND. See GREENLAND, N° 1, 1; § 1.  
\* GROGERAM. } n. f. [*gros grain*, Fr. *grosso-*  
\* GROGRAM. } *granus*, low Lat. *Answorth.*]  
\* GROGRAN. } Stuff woven with large wool and a rough pile.—

Certes they're neatly cloth'd: I of this mind am,

Your only wearing is your *grogeram*. *Donne*.—Natalia affords great store of chanelots and *grograms*. *Sandys*.—Some men will say this habit of John's was neither of camel's skin nor any coarse texture of its hair, but rather some finer weave of camelot, *rogram*, or the like. *Brown*.—The natural sweetness and innocence of her behaviour shot me through and through, and did more execution upon me in *rogram*, than the greatest beauty in town had ever done in brocade. *Addis. Spect.*

Plain goody would no longer down;

'Twas madam in her *rogram* gown. *Swift*.

GROHNDE, a town of Germany, in Calenberg, on the Weser; near which a bloody battle was fought in 1421. A monument is erected in memory of it. It lies 9 miles S. of Hameln.

(1.) \* GROIN. n. f. [Of uncertain derivation.] The part next the thigh.—

Antiplexus, a sonne of Priam, threw  
His lance at Ajax thro' the preafic, which went  
by him, and flew

On Leucus, wife Ulyffes' friend: His *groine* it  
smote. *Chapman*.

The fatal dart arrives,  
And thro' the border of his buckler drives;  
Pafs'd thro' and pierc'd his *groin*; the deadly  
wound

Cast from his chariot, roll'd him on the ground.  
*Dryden*.

(2.) GROIN. In the *Philos. Transf.* vol. lxxvii. p. 459. we have an account of a remarkable case, where a peg of wood was extracted from the groin of a young woman of 21, after it had remained 16 years in the stomach and intestines, having been accidentally swallowed when she was about five years of age.

(3.) GROIN, among builders, is the angular curve made by the intersection of two semi-cylinders or arches; and is either regular or irregular. A *regular* groin is when the intersecting arches, whether semicircular or semielliptical, are of the same diameters and heights. An *irregular* groin is where

one of the arches is semicircular, and the semielliptical.

GROINARD, an isle of Scotland, on coast of Ross-shire; 6 miles SE. of Udrigh.

GROLL, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Rhine, late county of Zutphen, and ci-devant prov. of Dutch Guelderland, seated on the Slinghe, and is strongly fortified. The French took it in 1672, and destroyed the edifications. It lies 19 miles E. of Zutphen, 19 SSW. of Oldenzeel. Lou. 24. 10. E. 0. Lat. 52. 8. N.

GROMI, a town of Russia, in the govt. of Irkutsch, 112 miles N. of Balagauskoi.

GROMING, a town of Germany, in the (1.) \* GROMWELL. n. f. [*litbasperman* Gromill or graymill. A plant. *Miller*.  
(2.) GROMWELL. See LITHOSPERMUM.

GRONAW, a town of Germany, in the govt. of Munster, 25 miles NW. of Munster.

GRONENBACH, or GRUNENBACH, a town of Germany in Suabia, belonging to the abbot of Kempten; 13 miles NNW. of Kempten.

GRONES, a cape on the NW. coast of the island of St. Helier.

GRONESSE, a fort in the island of Jersey, 10 miles NW. of St. Helier.

GRONEY, a river of Wales, which runs into the Uik, in Brecknockshire.

(1.) GRONINGEN, the most northerly of the ci-devant Seven United Provinces, was bounded on the N. by the German ocean; on the S. by the late county of Drenthe; on the E. by the principality of Munster, and the principality of East Frisia; and on the W. by the province of Groningen, from which it was separated by the Ems. Its greatest length from SE. to NW. was 47 miles; its breadth was very unequal, the east being about 35 miles. It has rich pastures, large herds of cattle, plenty of sea and fresh fish, and of turf, with some forests and corn. There are several rivers in it; the principal are the Hunse, the Eems, and the Fivel; and a great number of canals and dykes. The city consisted of the deputies of the town of Groningen, and the Ommeland, or circumjacent parishes; and held their assemblies always in the city. The province had anciently governors, who bore the title of *burg-graves*; but their power being limited, the people enjoyed great privileges. After the death of Charles V. it became subject to the Bp. of Utrecht; but Charles V. took it off his yoke at last, and recovered its liberty in 1536, it submitted to Charles V. and in 1648 it was ceded to the union of Utrecht. The colleges were much the same here as in the other provinces, consisting of the provincial states, council of state, provincial tribunal, and chamber of accounts. Six deputies were sent to the states-general. Of the clergy there were 160 ministers, who formed three classes, whose annual synod was held, by the Bp. of Groningen and Appingedam. It is now in the Batavian republic, and department of Eems. See EEMS, N° 1.

(2.) GRONINGEN, a strong city of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Eems, and late county of the above province, (N° 1.) is situated 10 miles from the German ocean, at the confluence of several rivulets, which form the Hunse and Fivel. Ships of considerable burden can get up to the city.

(3.) GRONINGEN, a strong city of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Eems, and late county of the above province, (N° 1.) is situated 10 miles from the German ocean, at the confluence of several rivulets, which form the Hunse and Fivel. Ships of considerable burden can get up to the city.

ence of which it enjoys a good trade in  
 ice. Its university was founded in 1615,  
 endowed out of the revenues of the  
 manasteries. The city, which was for-  
 of the Hanse towns, is large and popu-  
 the seat of the high colleges, and con-  
 spacious market-places, and 27 streets;  
 are many fine houses, besides churches  
 public structures. By the Fivel and the  
 is a communication with Westphalia.  
 made such a gallant resistance against  
 of Munster, that he is said to have lost  
 n before it. Rodolphus Agricola and  
 wo of the most learned men of their  
 born here. Under the jurisdiction of  
 a considerable district, called the *Gorecht*.

E. Lat. 53. 11. N.  
 ININGEN MARK, a town of Germany,  
 y of Wurtemberg, on the Glems, 36  
 Rastadt, and 7 NNW. of Stuttgart.  
 OVIÀ, in botany: A genus of the m-  
 der, belonging to the pentandria class  
 and in the natural method ranking un-  
 h order, *Cucurbitaceæ*. There are five  
 stamens inserted into a campanulated  
 berry is dry, monospermous, and in-

NOVIUS, John Frederic, a very learn-  
 was born at Hamburg in 1613; and  
 velled through Germany, Italy, and  
 is made professor of polite learning at  
 and afterwards at Leyden, where he  
 1. He published, 1. *Diatribe in Statii,*  
*e Sestertis*. 3. Correct editions of Se-  
 us, Livy, Pliny's Natural History, Ta-  
 is Gellius, Phædrus, &c. with notes;  
 works.

NOVIUS, James, son of the preceding,  
 learned man, was educated first at Ley-  
 vent over to England, where he visited  
 ities, consulted the curious MSS. and  
 acquaintance with several learned men.  
 sen by the grand duke to be professor  
 a considerable salary. He returned  
 id, after he had resided two years in  
 nd consulted the MSS. in the Medicæan  
 1679, he was invited by the curators  
 ersity to a professorship; and his in-  
 ation was so highly approved of, that  
 s added 400 florins to his stipend, and  
 it to his death in 1716. His principal  
*The treasure of Greek antiquities*, in 13  
 and a great number of dissertations,  
 s of ancient authors. He was compa-  
 ioppos for the virulence of his style;  
 rity, with which he treated other great  
 iffered from him, exposed him to just

FELD, a town and ci-devant county  
 s, in the circle of Westphalia, now an-  
 e French republic, and included in the  
 of the Lower Meuse. The town is 4  
 f Mæstricht.

OOM. *n. f.* [*gram*, Dutch.] 1. A boy;  
 servant.—

alled she a *groom*, that forth him led  
 odly lodge. *Spenser.*

From Egypt's kings ambassadours they come;  
 Them many a squire attends, and many a *groom*.

Think then, my soul! that death is but a *groom*  
 Which brings a taper to the outward room.

—In the time of Edward VI. lived Sternhold, whom  
 king Henry his father had made *groom* of his cham-  
 ber, for turning of certain of David's psalms into  
 verse. *Peacbam.*—

Would'st thou be touch'd  
 By the presuming hands of saucy *grooms*? *Dryd.*  
 Am! the fold he rages, nor the sheep  
 Their shepherds, nor the *grooms* their bulls can  
 keep. *Dryden.*

2. A young man.—  
 I presume for to intreat this *groom*,  
 And silly maid, from danger to redeem. *Fairf.*

3. A man newly married.—  
 By this the brides are wak'd, their *grooms* are  
 dress'd;

All Rhodensis summon'd to the nuptial feast. *Dryd.*  
 (2.) *GROOM* is also applied to several superior  
 officers belonging to the king's household, as  
 groom of the chamber, groom of the stole. See  
 STOLE, and WARDROBE.

(3.) *GROOM* is more particularly used for a ser-  
 vant appointed to attend on horses in the stable.

GROOMSPORT BAY, a bay of Ireland, on  
 the coast of the county of Down.

GROOSENROT, a town of Germany, in  
 Hulslein, 32 miles NNE. of Oldenburg.

(1.) \* *GROOVE. n. f.* [from *grave*.] 1. A deep  
 cavern, or hollow in mines.—He might, to avoid  
 idleness, work in a *groove* or mine-pit thereabouts,  
 which at that time was little esteemed. *Boyle.* 2.  
 A channel or hollow cut with a tool.—The screw-  
 plate is a kind of steel well temper'd, with several  
 holes in it, each less than the other; and in those  
 holes are threads grooved inwards, which *grooves*  
 fit the respective taps that belong to them. *Moxon.*

(2.) *GROOVE*, among miners, is the shaft or pit  
 sunk into the earth, sometimes in the vein, and  
 sometimes not.

(3.) *GROOVE*, among joiners, the channel made  
 by their plough in the edge of a moulding, style,  
 or rail, to put their pannels in, in wainscoting.

\* *To GROOVE. v. a.* [from the noun.] To cut  
 hollow.—Of the box every joint was well *grooved*.  
*Swift.*

(1.) \* *To GROPE. v. n.* [*grapan*, Sax.] To feel  
 where one cannot see.—

My sea-gown scarf about me, in the dark  
*Grop'd* I, to find out them. *Shak. Hamlet.*  
 —We *grobe* for the wall like the blind, and we  
*grobe* as if we had no eyes. *Jf. lix. 10.*—

They meet with darkness in the clearest light;  
 And *grobe* at noon, as if involv'd with night.

—A boy was *groping* for cels, and laid his hand  
 upon a snake. *L'Est.*—This, no doubt, is better  
 for men than that they should in the dark *grobe*  
 after knowledge; as St Paul tells us all nations  
 did after God. *Locke.*—

He heard us in our course,  
 And with his out-stretch'd arms around him  
*grop'd*. *Addison.*

O' truth divine! enlighten'd by thy ray,  
I grope and guess no more, but see my way.

*Arbutnot.*

(1.) \* *To GROPE*, *v. n.* To search by feeling in the dark; to feel without being able to see.—How vigilant to grope mens thoughts, and to pick out somewhat whereof they might complain. *Hayward*.—They have left our endeavours to grope them out by twilight, and by darkness almost to discover that, whose existence is evidenced by light. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.—

But Strephon, cautious, never meant

The bottom of the pan to grope. *Sauist.*

GROPENSTEIN, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, one mile N. of Welach.

\* GROPER, *n. f.* [from *grope*.] One that searches in the dark.

GROPPER, John, an able polemical writer, born in Westphalia. He published *Enchiridion Christianæ Religionis*, and several other works. He died in 1559.

(1.) GROS, a liquid measure, used by the French Chemists, equal to 59.0703 grains.

(2.) GROS. See GROSS, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

GROSCA, an island in the Baltic Sea. Lon. 47. 0. E. of Ferro. Lat. 44. 39. N.

GROSE, Francis, Esq. F. A. S. an eminent English antiquary, the son of Francis Grose, Esq. jeweller, of Richmond, who fitted up the coronation crown of king George II. He was born in 1731, and was left an independent fortune; but had not a disposition to preserve it. He wrote, 1. *The Antiquities of England and Wales*, in 8 vols. 4to. and 8vo, which he began in 1773, and completed in 1787; containing 589 views, besides 40 plans, &c. 2. *The Antiquities of Scotland*, 2 vols. 4to. and 8vo, containing 190 views with a map: 3. *The Antiquities of Ireland*, 2 vols. 4to. and 8vo: 4. *A Treatise on Ancient Armour and Weapons*, 4to. 1785; with a supplement in 1789: 5. *A Classical Dictionary of the Vulgar Tongue*; 8vo. 1785: 6. *Military Antiquities*; 2 vols. 4to. 1786—88: 7. *The History of Dover Castle*; 4to. 1786: 8. *A Provincial Glossary, with a collection of Local Proverbs and Popular Superstitions*; 8vo. 1788: 9. *A Guide to Health, Beauty, Honour, and Riches*; 8vo. 10. *Rules for Drawing Caricatures*; 8vo. 1788: 11. *The Ohio; a collection of Essays*; 8vo. In summer, 1789, he set out on a tour in Scotland, and began to communicate his observations in folio numbers, with 4 plates each, in 1790. Before he had completed this work, he went to Dublin, with the intention of executing a similar work, with views and descriptions of the antiquities of Ireland, executed in the same elegant manner with those of Great Britain: but being seized with an apoplectic fit, at the house of Mr Hone in Dublin, he died on the 12th May, 1791, aged about 60. He had a great talent for drawing, which peculiarly qualified him for executing the works in which he engaged; and, being of an agreeable, humorous, and communicative disposition, he was much esteemed in the extensive circle of his friends. He visited almost every part of the three kingdoms, and was every where well received. His humour was of that genuine kind, which exhilarates without offending either against virtue or good manners.

Yet a case of distress never failed to draw sympathy from his heart, and, where it was needed, from his purse. He married a lady at Canterbury by whom he had several children; of whom Daniel Grose, after serving several campaigns in America, was appointed Deputy Governor of settlement at Botany Bay, in 1790.

GROSEN, a town of Courland, 28 miles Goldingen.

GROSLEY, Peter John, a French author, compiler, born at Troyes in 1718. He finished the French *Encyclopedie*, and in the *Dictionnaire Historique*. He died at Troyes in 1785.

GROSON, a town of France, in the d. Jura, 3 miles SW. of Arbois, and 3 N. of P.

GROSONE, a town of Corsica, 3 miles Bastia.

(1.) \* GROSS, *adj.* [*grat*, French; *gross* Lian; *crassus*, Latin.] 1. Thick; bulky.—

The crows and choughs that wing the way air,

Shew scarce so gross as beetles. *Shak. K.*

—There are two gross volumes concerning power of popes. *Baker on Learning*, 2. 8 fol; unseemly; enormous.—He ripely considered how gross a thing it were for men of his wife and grave men, to live with such a multitude and to be tenants at will under them. *Hooker*.—They can say that in doctrine, in discipline, prayers, and in sacraments, the church of Rome hath very foul and gross corruptions. *Hooker* hath the natural understanding, even so dry whole nations, been darkened, that they not discerned, no, not gross iniquity to be *Hooker*.—There is a vain and imprudent, their estates, which, though it does not do like gross sins, yet disorders the heart, supports it with sensuality and dulness. *Lowell*.—Intellectually coarse; palpable; impure; un-

To all sense 'tis gross,

You love my son; invention is aim'd,

Against the proclamation of thy passions,

To say thou do'st not. *Shak.*

Examples gross as earth exhort me.

Belial came last, than whom a spirit

lewd

Fell not from heaven, or more gross to k

Vice for itself. *Milt. Pa.*

—Is not religion so perfectly good in itself, all, in its Authour, that, without the grossness, we cannot but admire it? *Spruit* a gross mistake of some men, to think that wants only and imperfections do naturally us to be beneficent. *Smairidge*.—

But she dares never boast the present

So gross the cheat, it is beyond her power

4. Inelegant; disproportionate in bulk.—

The sun's oppressive ray the role at h

Of beauty blating, gives the gloomy hu

And feature gross. *Thom.*

5. Dense; not refined; not attenuated; n

—It is manifested, that when the eye fix

the finer medium, and the object is in the

things shew greater; but contrariwise, w

eye is placed in the grosser medium, and

ject in the finer. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Of elements,  
 er feeds the purer; earth the sea,  
 l the sea feed air. *Milt. Par. Lost.*  
 umes are merry, *grosser* fumes are sad;  
 the reasonable soul run mad. *Dryden.*  
 k the mists in *grosser* air below,  
 eir pinions in the painted bow. *Pope.*  
 dull.—  
 loth then the subtle sense excel,  
 are they that drown her in the blood?

*Davies.*  
 clear dream and solemn vision,  
 of things that no *gross* ear can hear.

*Milton.*  
 n give more delight and knowledge by  
 ting of the question with perspicuity  
 than others by talking of it in *gross*  
 or whole hours together. *Watts.* 7.  
 ough; opposite to delicate.—Fine and  
 lptures are helped with nearness, and  
 stance. *Wotton's Architect.* 8. Thick;  
 —His stature was of just height and all  
 ate dimensions, avoiding the extremes  
 l meager. *Fell.*

*Gross.* *n. f.* [from the adjective.] 1. The  
 ; the main force.—

elgians hop'd, that with disorder'd haste  
 p cut keels upon the sands might run;  
 with caution leisurely were past,  
 umerous *gross* might charge us one by

*Dryd.*  
 asults are of opinion, that, in a battle,  
 discharge upon the *gross* of the enemy,  
 eiling your piece at any particular per-

*Freob.*—The *gross* of the people can  
 ther prospect in the changes and revo-

of publick blessings. *Addis.* 2. The  
 whole not divided into its several parts.  
 general inducements are used to make  
 our cause in *gross*. *Hooker.*—There was

in *gross*, that the soul was immortal.  
*escrip. of the World.*—There is confess-

is, the acknowledging our sins to God;  
 ay be either general or particular: The  
 when we only confess in *gross* that we

the particular, when we mention the  
 s and acts of our sins. *Duty of Man.*—  
 Remember, son,

a general: other wars require you;  
 he Saxon *gross* begins to move. *Dryd.*

standing the decay and loss of sundry  
 manufactures, yet, in the *gross*, we ship

e third part more of the manufactures,  
 l and tin, than we did twenty years past.

*rade.* 3. Not individual; but a body  
 —He hath ribbons of all the colours i' th'  
 they come to him by the *gross*. *Shak.*—

not instantly raise up the *gross*  
 hree thousand ducats. *Shak.*  
 the united design of many persons to

one figure: after they have separated  
 in many petty divisions, they rejoin

into a *gross*. *Dryd.* 4. The chief part;  
 mass.—Comets, out of question, have  
 nder and effect over the *gross* and mass  
*Bacon's Essay.*—The articulate sounds  
 onfused, though the *gross* of the found

. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 5. The number of

twelve dozen. [*Grosse*, French.]—It is made up  
 only of that simple idea of an unite repeated; and  
 repetitions of this kind, joined together, make  
 those distinct simple modes of a dozen, a *gross*,  
 and a million. *Locke.*

(3.) *GROSS*, a foreign money, in divers coun-  
 tries, answering to our groat.

(4.) *GROSS*, [*GROSSUS*,] in our ancient law writ-  
 ters, denotes a thing absolute, and not depending  
 on another. Thus, *villain in gross*, *villanus in*  
*grosso*, was a servant, who did not belong to the  
 land, but immediately to the person of the lord;  
 or a servile person not appendant or annexed to  
 the land or manor, and to go along with the te-  
 nures as appurtenant to it; but like other personal  
 goods and chattels of his lord, at his lord's plea-  
 sure and disposal.

(5.) *GROSS*, *ADVOWSON* IN. See *ADVOWSON*.

(6.) *GROSS WEIGHT*, the weight of merchan-  
 dizes and goods, with their dust and dross, as also  
 of the bag, cask, chest, &c. wherein they are con-  
 tained; out of which *gross* weight, allowance is  
 to be made of tare and tret.

(1.) *GROSSA*, a town of Germany, in Austria,  
 3 miles S. of Baden.

(2.) *GROSSA*, an island of Maritime Austria, in  
 the Adriatic, near the coast of Dalmatia, 6 miles  
 long and 1 broad, according to Mr Cruttwell;  
 but Dr Oppenheim says, it is no less than 30 miles  
 in length, 4 in breadth, and 60 in circumference,  
 and comprehends 13 villages.

*GROSS-BEAK*. See *LOXIA*.

*GROSSBOROUGH*, a town of Ireland, in the coun-  
 ty of Monaghan, and province of Ulster.

*GROSSBOTWAR*, a town of Suabia, in the  
 duchy of Wurtemberg, 10 miles SSE. Heilbronn,  
 and 13 NNE. of Stuttgart.

*GROSSEL-FINGEN*, a town of Suabia, in  
 the county of Hohen-zollern, 7 miles E. of Hohen-  
 zollern.

*GROSSETA*, or *GROSSETO*, a town of Tus-  
 cany, 14 miles ESE. of Piombino.

*GROSSETESTE*, Robert, Bp. of Lincoln, a  
 learned English divine of the 13th century, born  
 about A. A. 1175. He was the author of many  
 works, was a good Greek scholar, and esteemed a  
 man of a clear intellect.

*GROSSEUVRE*, a town of France, in the dept.  
 of Eure. 6 miles S. of Evreux.

\* *GROSSLY*. *adv.* [from *gross*.] 1. Bulkily;  
 in bulky parts; coarsely: as, *this matter is grossly*  
*pulverized*. 2. Without subtilty; without art;  
 without delicacy; without refinement; coarsely;  
 palpably.—Such kind of ceremonies as have been  
 so *grossly* and shamefully abused in the church of  
 Rome, where they remain, are scandalous. *Hooker.*

Treason and murder ever keep together,  
 As two yoke devils sworn to others purpose;  
 Working so *grossly* in a natural cause,  
 That admiration did not whoop at them. *Shak.*

And thine eyes  
 See it so *grossly* shown in thy behaviour,  
 That in their kind they speak it. *Shak.*

What! are we cuckolds ere we have deserv'd  
 it?

—Speak not *grossly*. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*

—What I have said has been forced from me, by  
 seeing a noble sort of poetry so happily restored  
 by



by one man, and so *grossly* copied by almost all the rest. *Dryden*.—If I speak of light and rays as endued with colours, I would be understood to speak not philosophically and properly, but *grossly*, and according to such conceptions as vulgar people would be apt to frame. *Newton's Opticks*.—While it is so difficult to learn the springs and motives of some facts, it is no wonder they should be so *grossly* misrepresented to the public by curious inquisitive heads. *Swift*.

\* GROSSNESS. *n. f.* [from *gross*.] 1. Coarseness; not subtilty; thicknes; spissitude; density; greatnes of parts.—

The purpose is perspicuous even as substance, Whose *grossness* little characters sum up. *Shak.*

And I will purge that mortal *grossness* so,

That thou shalt like an airy spirit go. *Shak.*

—The cause of the epilepsy from the stomach is the *grossness* of the vapours which rise and enter into the cells of the brain. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

Then all this earthy *grossness* quit;

Attir'd with stars we shall for ever sit,

Triumphing over death. *Milton.*

—This being the first colour which vapours begin to reflect, it ought to be the colour of the finest and most transparent skies, in which vapours are not arrived at that *grossness* requisite to reflect other colours. *Newton's Opt.*—

For envy'd wit, like Sol eclips'd, was known  
Th' opposing body's *grossness*, not its own.

*Pope.*

2. Inelegant fatness; unwieldy corpulence.—Wife men, that be over fat and fleshy, go to sojourn abroad at the temperate diet of some sober man; and so, by little and little, eat away the *grossness* that is in them. *Afcham*. 3. Want of refinement; want of delicacy; intellectual coarseness.—I was three or four times in the thought they were not fairies; and yet the guiltiness of my mind drove the *grossness* of the foppery into a received belief that they were fairies. *Shak.*—Whatever beauties it may want, 'tis free at least from the *grossness* of those faults I mention'd. *Dryd.*—What a *grossness* is there in the mind of that man, who thinks to reach a lady's heart by wounding her ears! *Clarissa*.

GROSS-SALZE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Magdeburg, famous for its salt works, 12 miles S. of Magdeburg.

GROSSTESTE, Claude, a French protestant divine, who came to London, on the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He was minister of the Savoy. He wrote a treatise on the Inspiration of the Sacred Books, and several sermons. He died in 1713.

GROSSULLARIA. See RIBES.

GROSSWIG, a town of Saxony, 4 miles SW. of Schmiedelburg. Amber is found near it.

GROSSZIG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt-Deffau, 19 miles SW. of Deffau.

\* GROT. *n. f.* [*grotte*, French; *grotta*, Ital.] A cave; a cavern for coolness and pleasure.—

In the remotest wood and lonely *grot*,  
Certain to meet that worst of evils, thought.

*Prior.*

Awful see the Egerian *grot*.

*Pope.*

(1.) \* GROTESQUE. *adj.* [*grotesque*, French;

*grottesco*, Italian.] Distorted of figure; unwildly formed.—

The champaign head

Of a steep wilderness, whose hairy side  
With thicket overgrown, *grotesque* and  
Access deny'd. *Milton's*

—There is yet a lower sort of poetry and which is out of nature; for a farce is the try which *grotesque* is in a picture: the and actions of a farce are all unnatural manners false, that is, not confiding with raacters of mankind: *grotesque* is the blance of this. *Dryden's Duressnoy*.

An hideous figure of their foes they  
Nor lines, nor looks, nor shades, nor  
true,

And this *grotesque* design expos'd to  
view.

Palladian walls, Venetian doors,  
*Grottesco* roofs, and stucco floors.

(2.) GROTESQUE, or GROTESK, in sculpture painting, something whimsical, extravagant, monstrous; consisting either of things that ly imaginary or so distorted, as to raise in ridicule. The word owes its derivati gures of this kind, being anciently used adorn the *grotto* wherein the tombs of persons were inclosed. Such was that whose grotto was discovered near Rome years ago.

(1.) GROTIUS, Hugo, or more properly DE GROOT, one of the greatest men was born at Delft in 1583. He made progress in his studies, that at 15 he had attain knowledge in philosophy, divinity, and and a yet greater proficiency in polite l as appeared by the commentary he had that age on Martianus Capella. In 1591 accompanied the Dutch ambassador in and was honoured with several marks by Henry IV. He took his degree of L that kingdom; and at his return to his country, pleaded at the bar before he was of age. He was not 24 when he was attorney general. In 1613 he settled at dam, and was nominated syndic of that did not accept of the office, till a protest made him that he should not be removed This prudent precaution he took from his ing, that the quarrels of the divines on the of grace, which had already given rise factions in the state, would occasion re in the chief cities. The same year he was England, on account of the divisions that between the traders of the two nations right of fishing in the northern seas; but obtain no satisfaction. He was afterward England, to persuade the king and the divines to favour the Arminians; and he veral conferences with K. James I. on t ject. On his return to Holland, his at to Barneveldt involved him in great trouble was seized, and sentenced to perpetual i ment in 1619, and to forfeit all his goods. But after having been treated with gour for above a year and a half in his com he was delivered by the advice and art

having observed that his keepers had sed themselves with searching and exact trunk full of foul linen, which used at Gorkum, but now let it pass with it, she advised him to bore holes in it his being stifled, and then to get into mplied with this advice, and was cardend's house in Gorkum; where dreslike a mason, and taking a rule and passed through the market-place, and o a boat went to Valvet in Brabant. He himself known to some Arminians, carriage to Antwerp. At first there n of prosecuting his wife, who staid in and some judges were of opinion that o be kept there in her husband's stead: ie was released by a plurality of voices, ally applauded for her behaviour. He l into France, where he met with a ception from that court, and Lewis d a pension upon him. Having resided ears, he returned to Holland, on his very kind letter from Frederic Henry range; but his enemies renewing their , he went to Hamburgh; where, in hristina of Sweden made him her counent him ambassador into France. Afischarged the duties of this office ars, he returned to give an account to a of his embassy; when he took Holway, and received many honours at . He was introduced to her at Stockthere begged that she would grant his that he might return to Holland. This l with difficulty; and the queen gave marks of her esteem, though he had ies at her court too. As he was reeship in which he embarked was cast e coast of Pomerania; and being sick, d his journey by land; but he was forat Rostock, where he died on the 28th

His body was carried to Delft, to be the sepulchre of his ancestors. Notg the embassies in which he was emcomposed a great number of excellent principal of which are, 1. *De jure bel-* which is esteemed a master-piece: 2. in the truth of the Christian religion: staries on the holy scriptures; 4. The annals of Holland: and 5. A great letters: All written in Latin.

TIUS, Peter, the 2d son of Hugh, (N<sup>o</sup> able lawyer and an acute philologist. 1678.

TIUS, William, brother to Hugh, was lawyer, and wrote several books on ce. He died in 1662.

TON, a township of Connecticut in on county, bounded on the W. by the d on the S. by Fisher's Island. It conarishes, and had 3,946 citizens in 1795. ends FORT GRISWOLD, which defends : of New London.

TON, a town in the above township New London city. It was burnt by l, on the 6th Sept. 1781, and suffered amount of 23,217 l.

ROTON, a town and township of Mas-

sachusetts in Middlesex county, containing 1840 citizens, in 1795. The town is 35 miles NW. by W. of Boston, and 341 from Philadelphia. Lon. 3. 31. E. of that city. Lat. 42. 38. N.

(5.) GROTON, a small town of England, in Suffolk, between Sudbury and Hadley.

GROTSCAW, or } a town of European Tur-  
(1.) GROTSKAW, } key in the province of Serbia, where a battle was fought between the Germans and Turks, in 1739, in which the Germans were forced to retreat with loss. Lon. 21. 0. E. Lat. 45. 0. N.

(2.) GROTSKAW, a province of Silesia.

(3.) GROTSKAW, a strong town, capital of the above province, seated in a fruitful plain. Lon. 17. 35. E. Lat. 50. 42. N.

(1.) GROTTA, a trading town of the Cisalpine republic, on the Adda, in the dep. of the Upper Po, abounding in honey and flax.

(2.) GROTTA. See GROTTO, § 2, 6.

(3.) GROTTA FERRATA. See FRESCATI.

(4.) GROTTA MENARDA, a town of Naples in Principato Ultra, 12 miles ESE. of Benevento.

(5.) GROTTA ST LORIA, a town of Naples in the prov. of Capitanata, 12 miles W. of Manfredonia.

GROTTAGLI, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Otranto, 9 miles of Tarento.

GROTTGAU, or } a town and territory of Si-  
GROTTKAU, } lesia, in the principality of Neisse, seated on the river Neisse, 14 miles N. of Neisse. Lon. 35. 19. E. of Ferro. Lat. 53. 41. N.

(1.) \* GROTTO. *n. f.* [*grotte*, French; *grotta*, Italian.] A cavern or cave made for coolness. It is not used properly of a dark horrid cavern.—

Their careleis chiefs to the cool *grottos* run,  
The bow'rs of kings, to shade them from the sun.  
*Dryden.*

—This was found at the entry of the *grotto* in the Peak. *Woodward.*

(2.) GROTTO, or GROTTA, in natural history, a large deep cavern or den in a mountain or rock. The word is formed, according to Menage, &c. from the Latin *crypta*. Du Cange observes, that *grotta* was used in the same sense in the corrupt Latin. The ancient anchorites retired into dens and grottos, to apply themselves the more attentively to meditation. ELDEN HOLE, OKEY-HOLE, PEAKE'S HOLE, and POOL'S HOLE, are famous among the natural caverns or grottos of England. See these articles. In grottos are frequently found crystals of the rock, stalactites, and other natural conglaciations, and those of an amazing beauty. M. Homberg conjectures, from several circumstances, that the marble pillars in the grotto of Antiparos vegetate or grow. That author looks on this grotto as a garden, whereof the pieces of marble are the plants; and endeavours to show, that they could only be produced by some vegetative principle. See ANTIPAROS. At Foligno in Italy is another grotto, consisting of pillars and orders of architecture of marble, with their ornaments, &c. scarcely inferior to those of art; but they all grow downwards: so that if this too be a garden, the plants are turned upside down.

(3.) GROTTO, (§ 1.) is also used for a little artificial edifice in a garden, in imitation of a natural grotto. The outides of these grottos are usually

and, dissolve it in a drampan, to every ounce of which add two drams of the finest vermilion: when you have stirred them well together, and have chosen your twigs and branches, peeled and dried, take a pencil and paint the branches all over whilst the composition is warm; afterwards shape them in imitation of natural coral. This done, hold the branches over a gentle coal fire, till all is smooth and even as if polished. In the same manner white coral may be prepared with white lead, and black coral with lamp black. A grotto may be built with little expence, of glass, cinders, pebbles, pieces of large flint, shells, moss, stones, counterfeit coral, pieces of chalk, &c. all bound or cemented together with the above described cement.

(4.) GROTTO, in geography, a district of Maritime Austria, in Friuli, in the territory of Carnia, on the Julian Alps.

(5.) GROTTO DEL CANI, a little cavern near Pozzuoli, 12 miles from Naples, the steams whereof are of a mephitical or noxious quality; whence also it is called *bocca venenosa*, the poisonous mouth. See MEFHITIS. "Two miles from Naples (says Dr Mead), just by the Lago de Agnanno, is a celebrated mofeta, commonly called *la Grotta del Cani*, and equally destructive to all within the reach of its vapours. It is a small grotto about 8 feet high, 12 long, and 6 broad; from the ground arises a thin, subtle, warm fume, visible enough to a discerning eye, which does not spring up in little parcels here and there, but in one continued stream, covering the whole surface of the bottom of the cave; having this remarkable difference from common vapours, that it does not like smoke disperse into the air, but quickly after its rise falls back again, and returns to the earth; the colour of the sides of the grotto being the measure of its ascent: for so far it is of a darkish green, but higher only common earth. And as I myself found no inconvenience by standing in it, so no animal is able to stand in it, but they all die in it."

owing to the contracture of the arteries, which promotes the contraction of the vessels, and the retarded circulation; the blood, which remains in the vesicles, may be sufficient to distend the vessels, and produce a *deliquium animi*: the lake of Agnanno has a greater virtue in it than other lakes, in that it is of a poisonous nature, and that it destroyed the elasticity of the vessels of the lungs to occasioned sudden death. It is said that this steam is nothing else but the same which has been known from time immemorial hath been known in that place in very great quantities, which cannot yet be investigated by modern discoveries concerning it. It proves pernicious when taken in great quantity, by rarefying the blood, and hence the best method of remedying it is to be apparently killed by fixed air, and a great degree of cold all over the body, which condense the blood as much as possible, the reason why the dogs recede from the lake Agnanno as about 100 paces, is that they are not able to stand in the steam. See BLOOD, § 3, and DAMPS.

(6.) GROTTO, or GROTTA, a tetraeneous cavern near the city of Braccano in Italy, is thus described: "The *grotta del serpi* is a cavern which will hold two persons. It is perforated by several small apertures, somewhat in the manner of a comb, of which, at the beginning of the stream, issues a numerous brood of serpents of various colours, but all free from a poisonous quality. In this cavern there are several persons, paralytics, arthritics, rheumatics, quite naked; where they sit for several days, and are cured of their diseases by the force of the steam which issues from the cavern."

an elm growing hard by laden with them. The discovery of this cave was by the cure of a person going from Rome to some baths near this place. Losing his way, and being benighted, he entered upon this cave. Finding it very warm, he pulled off his clothes; and being weary and dry, had the good fortune not to feel the serpents about him till they had wrought his cure.

1.) GROTO, MILKY, *Crypta Lactea*, a mile distant from the ancient village of Betlehem, is so to have been thus denominated on occasion of the blessed Virgin, who let fall some drops of milk in giving suck to Jesus in this grotto. And as it has been commonly supposed, that the floor of this cavern has the virtue of restoring milk to women that are grown dry, and even of curing the same. Accordingly, they are always digging in the earth is sold at a good rate to such as have faith enough to give credit to the fable. An house has been built on the place, and a church built by it.

ROTTOLA, a town of Naples, in the province of Basilicata, 4 miles SW. of Matera.

ROVA, a town of Africa, on the Grain Coast, 100 miles NW. of Cape Palmas.

2.) GROVE, Henry, a learned and ingenious mystical divine, born at Taunton in Somersetshire, in 1683. Having obtained a sufficient knowledge of classical literature, he went through a course of academical learning, under the rev. Mr. Rowen of Taunton, who had a flourishing academy. He then removed to London, and studied under the rev. Mr. Rowe, to whom he was nearly related. Here he contracted a friendship with several persons of merit, and particularly with Dr. Johnson, which continued till his death, though they were of different opinions in several points of divinity controverted among divines. After two years spent under Mr. Rowe, he returned into the country, and began to preach with great reputation and judgment, a lively imagination, and a rational and amiable representation of Christianity, uttered in a sweet and well governed voice, rendered him generally admired; and the spirit of piety which prevailed in his sermons procured him the esteem and friendship of Mrs. Singer, afterwards Mrs. Rowe, which she expressed in a fine eulogy in death, addressed to Mr. Grove. Soon after beginning to preach, he married; and on the recommendation of Mr. Warren, succeeded him in the academy of Taunton. This obliging him to reside there, he preached for 18 years to two small congregations in the neighbourhood; and though his salary was both less than 20l. a year, and he had a large family, he went through it cheerfully. In 1708, he published a piece, intitled, *The Regulations of Directions*, drawn up for the use of his parish. About the same time, he entered into a controversy by letter with Dr. Samuel Clarke: they not being able to convince each other, the controversy was dropped with expressions of great mutual respect. He next wrote several papers printed in the *Spectator*, viz. Numbers 588. 601. 626. 635. These were republished, by the direction of Dr. Johnson, in the *Evidences of the Christian Religion*, by Joseph Addison, Esq. In 1711, Mr. James, his partner in the academy, dying, he succeeded him in his pastoral charge at Taunton.

3.) GROVE, n. s. [from *grave*.] A walk covered by trees meeting above.—

Fulwood, near Taunton, and engaged his nephew to undertake the other parts of Mr. James's work as tutor; and in this situation Mr. Grove continued till his death, which happened in 1738. His great concern with his pupils, was to inspire and cherish in them a prevailing love of truth, virtue, liberty, and genuine religion, without violent attachments or prejudices in favour of any party of Christians. He represented truth and virtue in a most engaging light; and though his income, both as a tutor and a minister, was insufficient to support his family, without breaking into his paternal estate, he knew not how to refuse the call of charity. Besides the above pieces, he wrote, 1. An Essay towards a Demonstration of the Soul's Immortality. 2. An Essay on the Terms of Christian Communion. 3. The Evidence of our Saviour's Resurrection considered. 4. Some Thoughts concerning the Proof of a Future State from Reason. 5. A Discourse concerning the Nature and Design of the Lord's Supper. 6. Wisdom the first spring of Action in the Deity. 7. A Discourse on Saving Faith. 8. Miscellanies in prose and verse. 9. Many Sermons, &c. After his decease, his posthumous works were published by subscription, in 4 vols 8vo, with the names of near 700 subscribers, among whom were some of the best judges of merit in the established church.

I look'd toward Birnam, and anon methought  
The wood began to move;  
Within this three mile may you see it coming;  
I say, a moving *grove*. *Shakespeare's Macbeth.*  
Fortunate fields, and *groves*, and flow'ry vales;  
Thrice happy isles! *Milton.*  
She left the flow'ry field, and waving *grove*.  
*Blackmore.*

Banish'd from courts and love,  
Abandon'd truth seeks shelter in the *grove*.  
*Granville.*  
Can fierce passions vex his breast,  
While every gale is peace, and every *grove*  
Is melody? *Thomson's Spring.*

(3.) GROVE, in gardening, a small wood impervious to the rays of the sun. Groves are not only great ornaments to gardens; but also afford great relief against the violent heats of the sun, affording shade to walk under in the hottest parts of the day, when the other parts of the garden are useless; so that every garden is defective which has not shade. Groves are of two sorts, viz. either open or close. Open groves are such as have large shady trees, which stand at such distances, as that their branches approach so near each other as to prevent the rays of the sun from penetrating through them. Close groves have frequently large trees standing in them; but the ground under these are filled with shrubs or underwood: so that the walks which are in them are private, and screened from winds; by which means they are rendered agreeable for walking, at those times when the air is either too hot or too cold in other parts of the garden. These are often contrived so as to bound the open groves, and frequently to hide the walls or other inclosures of the garden; and when they are properly laid out, with dry

P p p p walks

walks winding through them, and on the sides of these sweet smelling shrubs and flowers irregularly planted, they have a charming effect.

(4.) GROVES have been in all ages held in great veneration. The προσευχαι, and high-places of the Jews, whither they resorted for the purposes of devotion, were probably situated in groves: See Joshua xxiv. 26. The προσευχαι in Alexandria, mentioned by Philo, had groves about them because he complains that the Alexandrians, in a tumult against the Jews, cut down the trees of their προσευχαι. The ancient Romans had a sort of groves near several of their temples, which were consecrated to some god, and called *luci*, by Anziphrasis, a *non lucendo*, as being shady and dark. The veneration which the ancient DRUIDS had for groves is well known.

\* To GROVEL. *v. n.* [*grifile*, Islandick, flat on the face. It may perhaps come by gradual corruption from *ground fell*.] 1. To lie prone; to creep low on the ground.—

The steel head passage wrought,  
And through his shoulder pierc'd; wherewith  
to ground

He *groveling* tell, all gored in his gushing wound.

What see'st thou there? king Henry's diadem,  
Inchas'd with all the honours of the world!

If so, gaze on, and *grovel* on thy face,

Until thy head be circled with the same. *Shak.*

Oke mast and beech, and cornell fruit they eat,  
*Groveling* like twine on earth, in fowlest sort.

Now they lie

*Groveling* and prostrate on yon lake of fire.

Upon thy belly *groveling* thou shalt go. *Milt.*

—Let us conclude that all painters ought to require this part of excellence: not to do it, is to want courage, and not dare to shew themselves:

'tis to creep and *grovel* on the ground. *Dryden's*

*Dufresnoy*. 2. To be mean; to be without dignity or elevation.—

I must disclaim whate'er he can express;

His *groveling* sense will show my passion less.

—Several thoughts may be natural which are low and *groveling*. *Spektor.*

(1.) \* GROUND. *n. f.* [*grund*, Sax *grondt*,

Danish.]: 1. The earth, considered as superficially extended, and therefore related to tillage, travel, habitation, or almost any action. The main mass of terrene matter is never called the *ground*.

We never distinguish the terraqueous globe into *ground* and water, but into *earth*, or land, and water;

again, we never say under *earth*, but under *ground*.—Israel shall go on dry *ground* through the sea. *Exodus. xiv. 26.*—

Man to till the *ground*

None was, and from the earth a dewy mist

Went up, and water'd all the *ground*. *Milton.*

From the other hill

To their fix'd station, all in bright array,

The cherubim descend, on the *ground*

Gliding meteorous. *Milton.*

A black bituminous gurge

Boils up from under *ground*. *Milton.*

And yet so nimbly he would bound.

As if he scorn'd to touch the *ground*. *H*

2. The earth as distinguished from air or

—I have made man and beast upon the

*Jeremiab.*—There was a dew upon all the

*Judges vi. 40.*—

They summ'd their wings, and fix'd

air sublime,

With clang despis'd the *ground*.

Too late young Turnus the delusion

Far on the sea, still making from the *ground*

*Dryden's*

3. Land; country.—

The water breaks its bounds,

And overflows the level *grounds*. *H*

4. Region; territory.—

On heav'nly *ground* they stood, and the

shore

They view'd the vast immeasurable abode

With these came they, who from the

d'ring flood

Of old Euphrates to the brook that part

Egypt from Syrian *ground*, had general

Of Baalim and Astartoth. *Milton's Paradise Lost*

5. Estate; possession.—

Uneasy still within these narrow bounds

Thy next design is on thy neighbour's *ground*

His crop invites, to full perfection grown

Thy own seems thin, because it is thy *ground*

*Dryden's*

6. Land occupied.—

The sea o'erflow'd my *ground*.

And my best Flanders mare was drown'd

7. The floor or level of the place.—What

should I smite thee to the *ground*? *1 Sam.*

—Dagon was fallen on his face to the *ground*

*1 Sam. v. 4.*—A multitude fit on the *ground*

*xv. 35.*—Some part of the month of June, the

water of this lake descends under *ground*, there

are many great holes at the bottom. *Brown's Travels*

8. Dregs; lees; faeces; that which settles at the

bottom of liquors.—Set by them cyder, or

four drink, or *grounds*. *Mort.*—Some infirm

having had particular success in stopping gapes

from the use of the *grounds* of strong beer,

mix'd up with bread or oatmeal. *Sharp's Surgery*

The first stratum of paint upon which the figure

afterwards painted.—We see the limner to

with a rude draught, and the painter to

*grounds* with darksome colours. *Hakewill's*

solid bodies, sensible to the feeling and dis-

placed on light and transparent *grounds*.

Example, the heavens, the clouds and water

every other thing which is in motion, and

different objects; they ought to be more

and more distinguishable, than that with

they are encompassed. *Dryden's Dufresnoy*

The fundamental substance; that by which

additional or accidental parts are supported

Over his head

A well-wrought heaven of silk and gold

spread,

Azure their *ground*, the sun in gold shone

—Indeed it was but just that the finest sim-

ture should be drawn upon the most durable

*Pope.*—

is wrought into the soul, let virtues shine,  
and eternal, as the work divine. *Young*,  
plain song; the tune on which descants

Get a prayer book in your hand,  
and between two churchmen, good my  
d;  
that ground I'll build a holy descant.

*Shak. Richard III.*  
aint; first traces of an invention; that  
as occasion to the rest.—

igh jealousy of state th' invention found,  
e reciv'd upon the former ground;  
ay the tyrant had reserv'd to fly,  
g hate, now serv'd to bring two lovers  
h. *Dryden.*

rest principles of knowledge.—The con-  
easily be known, if the fore grounds be  
y heaven in. *Preface to Accidence.*—  
statefemen, or of them they which can  
d,

their occupation find the grounds. *Donne.*  
ounds are already laid whereby that is un-  
dly refused; for having granted that  
sufficient grace, yet when he co-operates  
ually, he doth it not irresistibly. *Ham-*  
fter evening repasts, 'till bed time, their  
will be best taken up in the easy grounds  
is, and the story of scripture. *Milton on*

14. The funda- ental cause; the true  
iginal principle.—He desired the stew-  
him particularly the ground and event  
cident. *Sidney.*—Making happiness the  
his unhappiness, and good news the ar-  
his sorrow. *Sidney.*—The use and be-  
od laws all that live under them may  
delight and comfort, albiet the grounds  
original causes from whence they have  
unknown. *Hooker.*—In the solution of  
izer's objection, my method shall be, to  
in the first place, the main grounds and  
upon which he buildeth. *White.*—

Thou could'st not have discern'd  
the serpent, speaking as he spake,  
nd of enmity between us known. *Milt.*  
either of them ever think fit to make  
ular relation of the grounds of their pro-  
or the causes of their misadventures.

l judgment is the ground of writing well.  
*Roscommon.*  
once giv'n from her, and plac'd in you,  
leave no ground I ever would be true.

*Dryden.*  
easy to imagine how any such tradition  
so early, and spread so universally, if  
not a real ground for it. *Wilkins.*—If it  
, ought we not to conclude that there  
und and reason for these fears, and that  
h not planted them in us to no purpose.  
-Thus it appears, that suits at law are  
in themselves, but may lawfully be used,  
no unlawfulness in the ground and way  
ment. *Kettlewell.*—Upon that prince's  
hough the grounds of our quarrel with  
d received no manner of addition, yet  
bought fit to alter his sentiments. *Swift.*  
raculous increase of the professors of

Christianity was without any visible grounds and  
causes, and contrary to all human probability and  
appearance. *Atterbury.* 15. The field or place of  
action —

Here was thy end decreed, when these men  
rose;

And ev'n with theirs this act thy death did bring,  
Or hasten'd at the least upon this ground. *Daniel.*  
16. The space occupied by an army as they fight,  
advance, or retire.—At length the left wing of the  
Arcadians began to lose ground. *Sidney.*—

Heartless they fought, and quitted soon their  
ground,

While our's with easy victory were crown'd.  
*Dryden.*

—He has lost ground at the latter end of the day,  
by pursuing his point too far, like the prince of  
Conde at the battle of Seneffe. *Dryden's Fables,*  
*Preface.* 17. The intervening space between the  
flyer and pursuer.—

Ev'ning mist,  
Ris'n from a river, o'er the marsh glides,  
And gathers ground fast at the labourer's heels,  
Homeward returning. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

—Superiors think it a detraction from their merit  
to see another get ground upon them, and over-  
take them in the pursuits of glory. *Spectator.*—

Even whilst we speak our conqueror comes on,  
And gathers ground upon us every moment.  
*Addison.*

18. The state in which one is with respect to op-  
ponents or competitors.—

Had'st thou sway'd as kings should do,  
Giving no ground unto the house of York,  
They never then had sprung. *Shak. Henry VI.*  
If they get ground and vantage of the king,  
Then join you with them like a rib of steel,  
To make them stronger. *Shak. Henry IV.*

—He will stand his ground against all the attacks  
that can be made upon his probity. *Atterbury.*—  
Whatever ground we may have gotten upon our  
enemies, we have gotten none upon our vices, the  
worst enemies of the two: but are even subdued  
and led captive by the one, while we triumph so  
gloriously over the others. *Atterbury.* 19. State  
of progress or recession.—I have known so many  
great examples of this cure, and heard of its being  
so familiar in Austria, that I wonder it has gained  
no more ground in other places. *Temple.*—The  
squirrel is perpetually turning the wheel in her  
cage: she runs apace, and wearies herself with  
her continual motion, and gets no ground. *Dryden.*

20. The foil to set a thing off.—  
Like bright metal on a fullen ground,  
My reformation glittering o'er my fault,  
Shall shew more goodly, and attract more eyes,  
Than that which hath no foil to set it off. *Shak.*

(2.) GROUND, in etching, denotes a gummous  
composition smeared over the surface of the metal  
to be etched, to prevent the aquafortis from eat-  
ing except in such places where this ground is cut  
through with the point of a needle. See ETCHING.

(3.) GROUND, in painting, (§ 1. def. 9.) is pro-  
perly understood of such parts of the piece, as have  
nothing painted on them, but retain the original  
colour upon which the other colours are applied  
to make the representations. A building is said to  
serve as a good ground to a figure when the figure is  
painted

painted on the building. The ground behind a picture in miniature, is commonly blue or crimson imitating a curtain of satin or velvet.

(4.) \* **GROUND.** The preterite and part. pass. of *grind*.—

How dull and rugged, ere 'tis *ground*

And polish'd, looks a diamond. *Hudibras.*

(5.) \* **GROUND** is much used in composition for that which is next the ground, or near the ground.

\* **To-GROUND.** *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To fix on the ground. 2. To found, as upon cause, reason, or principle.—Wisdom *groundeth* her laws upon an infallible rule of comparison. *Hooker.*—The church of England, walking in the good and old way of the orthodoxal primitive fathers, *groundeth* the religious observation of the Lord's-day, and of other Christian holidays, upon the natural equity, and not upon the letter of the fourth commandment. *White.*—It may serve us to *ground* conjectures more approaching to the truth than we have hitherto met with. *Boyle.*—

If your own actions on your will you *ground*,

Mine shall hereafter know no other bound. *Dryd.*

—Some eminent spirit, having signalized his valour, becomes to have influence on the people, to grow their leader in warlike expeditions; and this is *grounded* upon the principles of nature and common reason, which, where prudence and courage are required, rather incite us to fly to a single person than a multitude. *Sapient.*—3. To settle in firm principles or rudiments of knowledge.—Being rooted and *grounded* in love. *Eph. iii. 17.*

**GROUND ANGLING**, fishing under water without a boat, only with a plumb of lead, or a bullet, placed about 9 inches from the hook; which is better, because it will roll on the ground. This method of fishing is most proper in cold weather, when the fish swim very low. The morning and evening are the chief seasons for the ground-line in fishing for trout; but if the day prove cloudy, or the water muddy, you may fish at ground all day.

\* **GROUND-ASH.** *n. f.* A saplin of ash taken from the ground; not a branch cut from a tree.—

A lance of tough *ground-ash* the Trojan threw,

Rough in the rind, and knotted as it grew. *Dryd.*

—Some cut the young ashes off about an inch above the ground, which causes them to make very large straight shoots, which they call *ground-ash*. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

\* **GROUND-BAIT.** *n. f.* [from *ground* and *bait*.] A bait made of barley or malt boiled; which, being thrown into the place where you design to angle, sinks to the bottom, and draws the fish to it.—Take the depth of the place, where you mean after to cast your *ground-bait*, and to fish. *Walton's Angler.*

\* **GROUNDLEDLY.** *adv.* [from *grounded*.] Upon firm principles.—He hath given the first hint of speaking *groundedly*, and to the purpose, upon this subject. *Glanville.*

\* **GROUND-FLOOR.** *n. f.* [from *ground* and *floor*.] The lower story of a house.

(1.) \* **GROUND IVY.** *n. f.* *Ledera terrestris*, Lat. Alehoof, or tunhoof.—Alehoof or *ground ivy* is, in my opinion, of the most excellent use and virtue of any plants among us. *Temple.*

(2.) **GROUND-IVY**, in botany. See **GLECK**

\* **GROUNDLESS.** *adj.* [from *ground*.] of reason; wanting ground.—

But when vain doubt and *groundless* fear  
Do that dear foolish bosom tear.

—We have great reason to look upon the pretensions which the Roman church makes miracles as *groundless*, and to reject her various fabulous accounts of them. *Atterbury.*—They who distinguish themselves by their zeal against the present establishment, should be careful to pay such a reverence for religion, as may show *groundless* that reproach is which is cast upon them, of being averse to our national *Freeholder.*

\* **GROUNDLESSLY.** *adv.* [from *groundless*.] Without reason; without cause; without reason.—Divers persons have produced their words by spirit of vitriol, or juice of lemons; but *groundlessly* ascribed the effect to some quality of those two liquors. *Boyle on Colours.*

\* **GROUNDLESSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *groundless*.] Want of just reason.—He durst not utter words either of my book or sermons, lest he should have discovered the notorious *groundlessness* of his calumny. *Tillotson.*

\* **GROUNDLING.** *n. f.* [from *ground*.] which keeps at the bottom of the water; one of the low vulgar. *Hanmer.*—It offends the soul, to hear a robustious perriwig-pate low tear a passion to tatters, to very rag, to the ears of the *groundlings*. *Shakespeare's Hamlet.*

\* **GROUNDLY.** *adv.* [from *ground*.] In principles; solidity; not superficially. No use.—A man, *groundly* learned already, may much profit himself, in using by epitome to other men's works, for his own memory like to shorter room. *Ascham.*

**GROUND-NUTS.** See **ARACHIS.**

\* **GROUND-OAK.** *n. f.* [from *ground* and *oak*.] The planting of oaks were more in use for the woods, it would spoil the coopers trade in making of hoops, either of hazel or ash; but one hoop made of the young shoots of a *ground-oak*, would outlast six of the best ash. *Mortimer.*

(1.) \* **GROUND-PINE.** *n. f.* [*clavaria piperis*, L.] A plant.—The whole plant has a very strong smell, resembling that of resin; whence its name *ground-pine*. It grows on dry and barren ground, and in some places on the ditch banks by sides. *Hill's Mat. Med.*

(2.) **GROUND-PINE**, in botany. See **TRUC**

\* **GROUND-PLATE.** *n. f.* [In architecture.] The outermost pieces of timber lying on or near the ground, and framed into one another with ties and tenons. In these also are mortises to receive the tenons of the joists, the struts and girders; and sometimes the trimmers of the stair case and chimney-way, and the binding of the roof. *Harris.*—In the orthographical scheme, should be a true delineation, if it be a building, of the several sizes of the *ground-plates*, summers, and beams. *Mortimer.*

\* **GROUND-PLOT.** *n. f.* 1. The ground which any building is placed.—Wretched *ground-plot*, where can't thou find any small *ground-plot* for hope to dwell upon? *Sidney.*—



*Plot* square five hives of bees contains; of industry and virtuous gains. *Harte*.  
 graphy of a building.

**D-RENT. n. f.** Rent paid for the pri-  
 viding on another man's ground.—A  
 , and thirty-three five sevenths deep,  
 in a *ground rent* of 5 pounds. *Arbut.*  
 : was neither granted him, nor giv'n ;  
 iture's, and the *ground rent* due to  
 'n

**D-ROOM. n. f.** A room on the level  
 ound.—I beseeched him, hereafter to  
 a *ground room*; for that otherwise it  
 possible for an artifit of any other kind  
 him. *Tasler*.

**OUNDSSEL. n. f.** [*grund* and *file*, the  
 , perhaps from *sella*, Lat.] The tim-  
 d pavement next the ground.—The  
 ne hath every one of its lights rabbet-  
 tside about half an inch into the frame;  
 : rabbits, but that on the *groundsel*,  
 square; but the rabbit on the *ground-*  
 downwards; that rain or snow may  
 fall off. *Moxon's Mechanical Exercises*.

**OUNDSEL. n. f.** [*senecio*, Lat.] A plant.  
**NDSEL.** See **BACCHARIS**, & **SENECIO**.  
**TACKLE, n. f.** a ship's anchors, cables,  
 general whatever is necessary to make  
 at anchor.

**NDWORK. n. f.** [*ground* and *work*.] 1.  
 ; the first stratum; the first part of  
 that to which the rest is additional.—  
 there is in heav'n's expanded plain,  
 when the skies are clear, is seen below,  
 als by the name of milky way;

*ndwork* is of stars. *Dryden's Fables*.  
 : part of an undertaking; the funda-  
 The main skill and *groundwork* will be  
 hem such lectures and explanations,  
 opportunity, as may lead and draw  
 ling obedience. *Milton*. 3. First prin-  
 cipal reason.—The *groundwork* thereof  
 lets true and certain, however they  
 orance disguise the same, or through  
 yer's *State of Ireland*.—The morals is  
 ments of the poet, as being the *ground-*  
 instruction. *Dryden*.

**ROUP. n. f.** [*groupe*, French; *gruppo*,  
 crowd; a cluster; a hurdle; a number  
 gether.—In a picture, besides the prin-  
 s which compose it, and are placed in  
 it, there are less *groups* or knots of  
 posed at proper distances, which are  
 piece, and seem to carry on the same  
 more inferior manner. *Dryden's Dufres*.  
 doubt but the poet had here in view  
 of *Zetus*, in the famous *group* of figures  
 sents the two brothers binding *Dircę*  
 s of a mad bull. *Addison*.—  
 ould try your graving tools.

ious *group* of fools. *Swift*.  
**UP, n.** in painting and sculpture, is an  
 of two or more figures of men, beasts,  
 ie like, which have some apparent re-  
 ch other. See **PAINTING**.

**ROUP. v. a.** [*groupper*, French.] To put  
 d; to huddle together.—The difficulty  
 ing and disposing, or as the painters

term it, in *grouping* such a multitude of different  
 objects, preserving still the justice and conformity  
 of style and colouring. *Prior*.

**GROUP ISLANDS, or } a cluster of islands lately**  
**The GROUPS, } discovered in the South**  
**Sea.** They lie in about S. Lat. 18. 12. and W.  
 Long. 142. 42. They are long narrow slips of  
 land, ranging in all directions, some of them ten  
 miles or upwards in length, but not more than a  
 quarter of a mile broad. They abound in trees,  
 particularly those of the cocoa nut. They are in-  
 habited by well made people, of a brown com-  
 plexion. Most of them carried in their hands a  
 slender pole about 14 feet in length, pointed like  
 a spear; they had likewise something shaped like  
 a paddle, about four feet long: Their canoes  
 were of different sizes, carrying from three to six  
 or seven people, and some of them hoisted a sail.

(1.) **GROUSE. n. f.** A kind of fowl; a heath-  
 cock.—

The squires in scorn will fly the house  
 For better game, and look for *grouse*. *Swift*.

(2.) **GROUSE, or GROWSE.** See **TETRAO**.  
**GROUT. n. f.** [*grut*, Saxon. In Scotland  
 they call it *grouts*.] 1. Coarse meal; pollard.—  
 King Hardicnute, 'midst Danes and Saxons rout,  
 Carous'd in nut-brown ale, and din'd on *grout*:  
 Which dish its pristine honour still retains.

And when each prince is crown'd in splendour  
 reigns. *King*.

2. That which purges off.—  
 Sweet honey some condense, some purge the  
*grout*;

The rest, in cells apart, the liquid nectar shout.  
*Dryden*.

3. A kind of wild apple. [*Agriomelum*, Latin.]  
**GROUTHEAD, or GREATHEAD, Robert,** a  
 learned bishop of Lincoln, born at Stow in Lin-  
 colnshire, or Stradbrook in Suffolk, in the end  
 of the 12th century. His parents were so poor,  
 that when a boy he was obliged to do the mean-  
 est offices, and even to beg his bread; till the  
 mayor of Lincoln, struck with his appearance and  
 the quickness of his answers to certain questions,  
 took him into his family, and put him to school.  
 Here his ardent love of learning, and admirable  
 capacity for acquiring it, soon appeared, and pro-  
 cured him many patrons, who enabled him to pro-  
 secute his studies, first at Cambridge, afterwards at  
 Oxford, and at last at Paris. In these three  
 famous seats of learning, he spent many years in  
 the most indefatigable pursuit of knowledge, and  
 became one of the best and most universal scholars  
 of the age. He was master not only of the French  
 and Latin, but also of the Greek and Hebrew lan-  
 guages, which was a very rare accomplishment  
 in those times. Roger Bacon, who was intimate-  
 ly acquainted with him, says that he spent much  
 of his time for almost 40 years in the study of  
 geometry, astronomy, optics, and other branches  
 of mathematical learning, in all which he very  
 much excelled. Theology was his favourite study,  
 in which he read lectures at Oxford with great  
 applause. In the mean time, he obtained several  
 preferments in the church, and was at length elec-  
 ted and consecrated Bp. of Lincoln, A. D. 1235.  
 In this station he soon became very famous, by  
 the purity of his manners, the popularity of his  
 preaching,

preaching, the vigour of his discipline, and the boldness with which he reprov'd the vices and oppos'd the arbitrary mandates of the court of Rome; of this last we shall give one example. Pope Innocent IV. had granted to one of his own nephews, named *Frederick*, who was but a child, a provision to the first canon's place in the church of Lincoln that should become vacant; and sent a bull to the Apb. of Canterbury, and Innocent, then papal legate in England, commanding them to see the provision made effectual; which they transmitted to the Bp. of Lincoln. But that brave and virtuous prelate boldly refused to obey this unreasonable mandate, and sent an answer to the papal bull containing the following severe reproaches against his holiness for abusing his power: "If we except the sins of Lucifer and Antichrist, there neither is nor can be a greater crime, nor any thing more contrary to the doctrine of the gospel, or more odious and abominable in the sight of Jesus Christ, than to ruin and destroy the souls of men, by depriving them of the spiritual aid and ministry of their pastors. This crime is committed by those who command the benefices intended for the support of able pastors, to be bestowed on those who are incapable of performing the duties of the pastoral office. It is impossible therefore that the holy apostolic see, which received its authority from the Lord Jesus Christ, for edification, and not for destruction, can be guilty of such a crime, or any thing approaching to such a crime, so hateful to God and so hurtful to men. For this would be a most manifest corruption and abuse of its authority, which would forfeit all its glory, and plunge it into the pains of hell." Upon reading this letter, his holiness became frantic with rage, and threatened to make the bishop an object of terror and astonishment to the whole world. "How dare (said he) this old, deaf, dotting fool, disobey my commands? Is not his master the king of England my subject, or rather my slave? Cannot he cast him into prison, and crush him in a moment?" But the cardinals brought the pope to think more calmly, and to take no notice of this letter. "Let us not (said they) raise a tumult in the church without necessity, and precipitate that revolt and separation from us, which, we know, must one day take place." Remarkable words, when we reflect when and by whom they were spoken! The bishop did not long survive this noble stand against the gross corruptions and tyranny of the church of Rome. He fell sick at his castle of Bugden that same year; and sensible that his death was drawing near, he called his clergy into his apartment, and made a long discourse to them, to prove that the reigning pope Innocent IV. was *Antichrist*. With this exertion his strength was so much exhausted, that he expired soon after, Oct. 9. 1253. A contemporary historian says, "He was a free and bold reprimander of the pope and the king; an admonisher of the prelates; a corrector of the monks; an instructor of the clergy a supporter of the studious; a censurer of the incontinent; a scourge and terror to the court of Rome; a diligent searcher of the scriptures; and a frequent preacher to the people. At his table he was hospitable, polite, and cheerful. In the

church he was contrite, devout, and sole in performing all the duties of his office venerable, active, and indefatigable." *trious Roger Bacon*, who had the best opportunities of forming a true judgment of the his learning, by perusing his works, and frequently conversing with him, hath given noutable testimony in his favour. *Grouthead Bp. of Lincoln*, and his fr *Adam de Maritico*, are the two most les in the world, and excel all the rest of both in divine and human knowledge; excellent prelate was a very voluminous and composed a prodigious number of a great variety of subjects in philosophy nity, a catalogue of which is given by

**GROUVILLE**, a small town in the Jersey, 3 miles E. of St Helier.

**GROUWE**, a town of the Batavian in the department of the Meuse, and prov. of Dutch Flanders, 5 miles NE. of

(1.) \* **To GROW**. *v. n.* preter. *grop*. *past. grown*. [*growan*, Saxon; *groya*, *r.* To vegetate; to have vegetable motion create by vegetation.—It is not the grass fruit that nourisheth man; but it is the which preserveth them. *Wisd.* xvi. 25.—seth the grass to *grow* for the cattle, and the service of man. *Pf.* civ. 14. 2. To be ced by vegetation.—In this country *grow* dance of that wood, which since is brought Europe to die red colours. *Abbat*.—*It grows* in the fields, at the first is like tennis-ball, and white; and after grows mushroom colour, and full of light dust.]

But say, where *grows* the tree? how far?

In colder regions men compose  
Poison with art; but here it *grows*.

Thousetow'rs of oak o'er fertile plains  
And visit mountains where they *ooce* &

3. To shoot in any particular form.—

Children, like tender oiers, take th  
And as they first are fashion'd, always  
*Dryd*

4. To increase in stature.—

I long with all my heart to see the p  
I hope he is much *grown* since last I sa  
*Shak.*

—The poor man had nothing, save one li  
lamb, which he had bought and reared  
it *grew* up together with him and with  
ren. 2 *Sam.* xii. 3. 5. To come to  
from infancy: commonly followed by  
the prince *groweth* up fast to be a man,  
a sweet and excellent disposition. *Bacon*  
*to Villiers*.—The main thing to be consi  
every action of a child, is how it will bec  
when he is bigger, and whether it will  
when he is *grown* up. *Locke*.—We are br  
to the world children, ignorant and u  
and we *grow* up in vanity and folly. *Wal*  
issue, as plants from a soil, or as bran  
the main trunk.—They will seem not  
him, but *growing* out of him. *Dryden's*  
*cation*. 7. To increase in bulk; to beco  
er, or more numerous.—Bones, after ful

me at a stay: as for nails they *grow* con-  
sily. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

Then their numbers swell,

and *grow* upon us. *Denham.*

visions *grow* upon us, by neglect of practick  
: as every age degenerated from primitive  
they advanced in nice enquiries. *Decay of*

8. To improve; to make progress.—

in grace, and in the knowledge of our Lord

aviour Jesus Christ. *2 Pet. iii. 18.*—He then

led his best of legacies, his blessings; most

ately exhorting the young *growing* hopes

family. *Fell.*—As he *grew* forward in years

trained up to learning, under one Prona-

who taught the Pelasgick letter invented

ons. *Pope's Essay on Homer. 9.* To advance

state.—

ature, as it *grows* again towards earth,

union'd for the journey dull and heavy.

*Shak.*

by doubted whereunto this would *grow*.

24.—The king, by this time, was *grown*

an height of reputation for cunning and

that every accident and event that went

laid and imputed to his foresight. *Bacon.*

but when to ripen'd manhood he shall *grow*,

greedy sailer shall the seas forgo. *Dryd.*

to come by degrees; to reach any state gra-

—After they *grew* to rest upon number,

competent than vast, they *grew* to advan-

of place, cunning diversions, and the like;

they *grew* more skilful in the ordering of

battles. *Bacon.*—Verse, or the other harmony

me, I have so long studied and practis'd, that

are *grown* into a habit, and become familiar

to. *Dryden's Fables, Preface.*—The trespassers

people are *grown* up to heaven, and their sins

of beyond all restraints of law and authority.

11. To come forward; to gather ground.

the seeing the end of their government nigh,

ambitious practice *growing* up, which may

trouble to the next governor, will not at-

redress. *Spenser on Ireland.*—It was now the

beginning of October, and Winter began to *grow*

in: great rain, with terrible thunder and

hail, and mighty tempests, then fell abund-

antly. *Knolles. 12.* To be changed from one state

to another; to become either better or worse; to

—

A good man's fortune may *grow* out at heels.

*Shak.*

ipio Natica feared lest, if the dread of that

if were taken away, the Romans would *grow*

to idleness or civil dissension. *Abbot.*—

Hence, hence, and to some barbarous climate

fly,

which only brutes in human form does yield,

and man *grows* wild in nature's common field,

*Dryden.*

The nymph *grew* pale, and in a mortal fright,

sent with the labour of so long a flight.

*Dryden.*

Patient of command

time he *grew*; and *growing* us'd to hand,

waited at his master's board for food. *Dryd.*

he may trade and be busy, and *grow* poor by

unless we regulate our expences. *Locke.*—

will *grow* a thing contemptible, unless you

supply the loss of beauty with more durable

qualities. *Swift.*—Delos, by being reckoned a  
sacred place, *grew* to be a free port, where na-  
tions warring traded, as in a neutral country,  
*Arbutnot on Coins.*—

By degrees the vain, deluded elf,

*Grew* out of humour with his former self. *Harte.*

13. To proceed as from a cause or reason.—What

will *grow* out of such errors, as masked under the

cloak of divine authority, impossible it is that ever

the wit of man should imagine, 'till time have

brought forth the fruits of them. *Hooker.*—Shall

we set light by that custom of reading, from

whence so precious a benefit hath *grown*? *Hooker.*

—Take heed now that ye fail not to do this:

why should damage *grow* to the hurt of the king.

*Ex. iv. 22.*—Hence *grows* that necessary distinc-

tion of the saints on earth and the saints in heaven;

the first belonging to the militant, the second to

the triumphant church. *Pearson.*—The want of

trade in Ireland proceeds from the want of people;

and this is not *grown* from any ill qualities of the

climate or air, but chiefly from so many wars.

*Temple. 14.* To accrue; to be forthcoming.—

Ev'n just the sum that I do owe to you,

Is *growing* to me by Antipholia. *Shak.*

15. To adhere; to stick together.—

Honour and policy, like unfever'd friends,

I, th' war do *grow* together. *Shak.*

—The frog's mouth *grows* up, and he continues

so for at least six months without eating. *Walton.*

—In burnings and scaldings the fingers would

many times *grow* to the breast, and the arms to

the sides, were they not hindered. *Wise man's Sur-*

*gery. 16.* To swell: a sea term.—Mariners are

used to the tumbling and rolling of ships from side

to side, when the sea is never so little *grown*.

*Raleigh. 17.* The general idea given by this word

is procession or passage from one state to another.

It is always change, but not always increase; for

a thing may *grow* less, as well as *grow* greater.

2. To GROW, v. a. To plant; to raise. This

verb seems not to have been in use as an *active*

verb, when Dr Johnson compiled his dictionary;

nor does such use of it appear indeed to be sanc-

tioned by any good classical authority; though

within these few years some of the best modern

writers on agriculture use it in this sense; *to grow*

*corn* or *grain* being quite the current expression,

for what former authors would have called *raising*

it. This innovation on the English language,

appears to have arisen, not from *affiliation*, like

most of our other modern corruptions of style, but

from *ignorance* of the difference between an *active*

or *transitive* verb, and a *neuter* or *intransitive* one.

\* GROWER, n. f. [from *grow*.] An increaser.

It will *grow* to a great bigness, being the quickest

*grower* of any kind of elm. *Mort. Hayb.*

\* To GROWL, v. n. [*grown*, Flemish.] 1. To

snarl or murmur like an angry cur.—

They roam amid' the fury of their heart,

And *growl* their horrid loves. *Tobinson's Spring.*

—Dogs in this country are of the size of common

mastiffs, and by nature never bark, but *growl*

when they are provoked. *Ellis's Voyage. 2.* To

murmur; to grumble.—Othello, neighbours—how

he would roar about a foolish handkerchief! and

then he would *growl* so manfully. *Gay.*

\* GROWN. The participle of *grow*. 1.

Advanced

2. Product; production; thing produced; act of producing—

Forbidding every bleak unkindly fog

To touch the prosperous *growth* of this tall wood. *Milton.*

Our little world, the image of the great,

Of her own *growth* hath all that nature craves,  
And all that's rare, as tribute from the waves. *Waller.*

—The trade of a country arises from the native *growths* of the soil or seas. *Temple*—I had thought, for the honour of our nation, that the knight's tale was of English *growth*, and Chaucer's own. *Dryd.*

3. Increase in number, bulk, or frequency.—What I have tried, or thought, or heard upon this subject, may go a great way in preventing the *growth* of this disease, where it is but new. *Temple.* 4. Increase of stature; advance to maturity.—

They say my son of York

Has almost overtaken him in his *growth*.

*Shak. Rich. III.*

The stag, now conscious of his fatal *growth*,

To some dark covert his retreat had made.

*Denham.*

—Though an animal arrives at its full *growth* at a certain age, perhaps it never comes to its full bulk 'till the last period of life. *Arbutn on Aliva.*

—If parents should be daily calling upon God in a solemn deliberate manner, altering and extending their intercessions, as the state and *growth* of their children required, such devotion would have a mighty influence upon the rest of their lives. *Laau.* 5. Improvement; advancement.—It grieved David's religious mind to consider the *growth* of his own estate and dignity, the affairs of religion continuing still in the former manner. *Hooker.*

(2.) GROWTH, the gradual increase of bulk and stature that takes place in animals or vegetables, to a certain period. The increase of bulk in human bodies, as have no life, owing to ornamentation, and the increase of stature, owing to the growth of the bones, and the increase of the soft parts, and the increase of the blood, and the increase of the fluids, and the increase of the organs, and the increase of the system, and the increase of the whole.

17; counting of the bread, water; but his limbs soon became able, and his body beginning grew up in so extraordinary age of 5 years he measured 4 months after, he was four feet at six, 5 feet, and bulky in proportion was so rapid, that every measure required to be made longer and not preceded by any sickness with any pain in the groin or age of 5 years his voice changed to appear, and at six he had 30; in short all the unquietness were visible in him. It was country but this child was, in a condition of begetting or induced the refusal of the part his mother to keep him from conversation with children of his wit was riper than is common the age of 5 or 6, yet its proportion to that of his body.

still retained something child bulk and stature, he resembled which at first sight produced contrast. His voice was strong great strength rendered him labour of the country. At 5, good distance 3 measures of when turned of six, he could shoulders and carry loads of way off; and these exercised him as often as the curious to by some liberality. Some people think that he should giant. A mountebank was parents for him, and flattered of putting him in a way of mischief. But all his hopes were suddenly broken, and he died.

maturity. In some places of the East girls have children at 9 years of age. Instances of extraordinary growth are wrought. It seems at first view astonishing that children of such early and prodigious growth do not become giants; but when we consider the signs of puberty appear so much earlier than they ought, it seems evident that they grow more than usually rapidly, as in hot climates; and accordingly, instead of becoming giants, always die apparently of old age, long before the term of human life.

WTHEAD. } *n. f.* [from *grofs* or *great*  
WTNOL. } *head: capito, Latjn.*] 1.  
fish. *Ainsw.* 2. An idle lazy fellow.

leeping one hour refresheth his song,  
not Hob *groathead* for sleeping too

*Tusser.*  
[E, a river of Spain, in Galicia, which  
ie Bay of Biscay, at Corunna.

DANSKY, a town of Croatia, 5 miles  
ovi.

NGEN, a town of Germany, in the  
urtemberg, 10 miles NE. of Tubingen,  
.. of Stuttgart.

O. See PORTO GRUARO.

RUB. *n. f.* [from *grubbing*, or mining.]  
worm that eats holes in bodies.—There  
ce between a *grub* and a butterfly, and  
utterly was a *grub*. *Shak. Coriolanus*.—  
New creatures wife,

3 mafs at first, and short of thighs;  
oting out with legs, and imp'd with  
;s,  
s proceed to bees with pointed stings.

*Dryden.*  
The *grub*,  
serv'd, invades the vital core;  
s tenant! and her secret cave  
hourly, preying on the pulp

*Philips.*  
hick man; a dwarf. In contempt.—  
ne, a short clownish *grub*, would bear  
carcase of an ox, yet never tugged  
screw.

s, in zoology, is the English name of  
le worms, produced from the eggs of  
and which at length are transformed  
insects of the same species with their  
re ERUCA, § 1.

VB. *v. a.* [*graban*, preter. *grob* to dig,  
To dig up; to destroy by digging; to  
the ground; to eradicate by throwing  
he soil.—A foolish heir caus'd all the  
hedges about his vineyard to be *grub-*  
*str.*—

Forest land,  
ence the surly ploughman *grubs* the  
l. *Dryden.*  
*bing* up of woods and trees may  
ful, upon the account of their un-  
*Mortimer*.—As for the thick woods,  
nly Virgil but Homer mentions, they  
them *grubbed* up, since the promon-  
n cultivated and inhabited. *Addison*.

PART. II.

GRUBBING, in agriculture, the digging or  
pulling up the stubs and roots of trees. When  
the roots are large, this is a very troublesome and  
laborious task; but Mr Mortimer shows how it  
may be accomplished, in such a manner as to save  
great expence, by a very simple and easy method.  
He proposes a strong iron hook to be made about  
2 feet 4 inches long, with a large iron ring fasten-  
ed to the upper part of it. This hook must be  
put into a hole in the side of the root, to which  
it must be fastened; and a lever being put into the  
ring, 3 men, by means of this lever, may wring  
out the root, and twist the sap-roots asunder.  
Stubs of trees may also be taken up with the same  
hook, in which work it will save a great deal of  
labour, though not so much as in the other; be-  
cause the stubs must be first cleft with wedges,  
before the hook can enter the sides of them, to  
wrench them out by pieces.

\* To GRUBBLE. *v. n.* [*grubelen*, German;  
from *grub*.] To feel in the dark.—

Thou hast a colour;  
Now let me rowl and *grubble* thee:  
Blind men say white feels smooth, and black  
feels rough:

Thou hast a rugged skin; I do not like thee.

*Dryden.*  
GRUBE, a town of Germany, in the duchy of  
Holstein, 12 miles NNE. of Cismar.

GRUBEN, a town of Silesia in Neisse.

(1.) GRUBENHAGEN, a principality of Brun-  
swick, belonging to his majesty as elector of Hano-  
ver. It is partly fertile, but the greater part is  
mountainous, and, besides feeding a great number  
of sheep and black cattle, abounds with mines of  
silver, copper, lead, iron, sulphur, calamine,  
and zinc; quarries of marble, slates, lime-stone,  
alabaster, and jasper of different kinds. It has al-  
so some mines of gold, but these are not rich.  
The forests abound with oak, beech, firs, elms,  
&c. The inhabitants are Lutherans, and carry  
on linen manufactures. Eimbeck is the capital.

(2.) GRUBENHAGEN, a town and castle in the  
above principality, 6 miles NW. of Nordheim, 7  
SSW. of Eimbeck, and 45 S. of Hanover. Lon-  
9. 36. E. Lat. 51. 49. N.

\* GRUBSTREET. *n. f.* Originally the name  
of a street near Moorfields in London, much in-  
habited by writers of small histories, dictionaries,  
and temporary poems; whence any mean produc-  
tion is called *grubstreet*.—

και Ιθακη μι' ειδλα, μι' αλγη σικρα  
Λοσσασις' ην υδωσ ινασσηαι.

—The first part, though calculated only for the  
meridian of *grubstreet*, was yet taken notice of by  
the better sort. *Arbutnot*.—

I'd sooner ballads write, and *grubstreet* lays.

*Gay.*  
GRUCIUS, Nicolas, a French author, of the  
16th century, born at Rouen, and nobly descend-  
ed. He is said to have been the first who lectured  
on Aristotle in Greek. He wrote several works;  
the chief of which are 1. A treatise *De Comitibus*  
*Romanorum*: 2. Tracts against Sigonius: and, 4.  
A Translation of Castanedo's History of the Indies.  
He died at Rochelle, in 1572.

GRUCKFELDT, a town of Germany, in Ca-  
riutbia,

rinthia, with a fort on the Save. Lon. 15. 45. E. Lat. 46. 7. N.

GRUDACK, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Lemberg, 28 miles SW. of Lemberg.

GRUDECK, three towns of Poland: viz. 1. in the palatinate of Braclaw, 28 miles E. of Braclaw: 2. in that of Kiow, 50 miles WNW. of Bialaerkiow: and, 3. in that of Podolia, 32 miles W. of Kaminiac.

GRUDEIANDS. See GRAUDENTZ.

\* GRUDGE. *n. s.* [from the verb.] 1. Old quarrel; inveterate malevolence; sullen malice.—Many countries about her were full of wars, which, for old grudges to Corinth, were thought still would conclude there. *Sidney*.—

Two household's, both alike in dignity,  
From ancient grudge break to new mutiny,  
Where civil blood makes civil hands unclean.

*Shakest.*

Let me go in to see the generals:  
There is some grudge between 'em; 'tis not meet  
They be alone.

*Shak. Julius Cæsar.*

Deep fester'd hate:

A grudge in both, time out of mind, begun,  
And mutually bequeath'd from sire to son.

*Tate's Juvenal.*

2. Anger; ill-will.—

The god of wit, to shew his grudge,  
Clapt his ears upon the judge.

*Swift.*

3. Unwillingness to benefit.—

Those to whom you have

With grudge preferr'd me. *Ben Jonf. Catiline.*

4. Envy; odium; invidious censure. 5. Remorse of conscience. *Ainsworth.* 6. Some little commotion, or forerunner of a disease. *Ainsworth.*

(1.) \* To GRUDGE. *v. a.* [from *gruger*, according to *Skinner*, which in French is to grind or eat. In this sense we say of one who resents any thing secretly, *he chews it.* *Grugnach*, in Welsh, is to murmur; to grumble. *Grunigh*, in Scotland, denotes a grumbling morose countenance.] 1. To envy; to see any advantage of another with discontent.—What means this baptising me from your counsels? Do you love your sorrow so well, as to grudge me part of it? *Sidney*.—

'Tis not in thee

To grudge my pleasures, to cut off my train.

*Shak. K. Lear.*

He struggles into birth, and cries for aid;

Then helpless in his mother's lap is laid:

He creeps, he walks; and, issuing into man,

Grudges their life from whence his own began.

*Dryden.*

These clamours with disdain he heard,

Much grudg'd the praise, but more the rob'd  
reward.

*Dryden.*

—Do not, as some men, run upon the tilt, and taste of the sediments of a grudging uncommunicative disposition. *Spec.*—Let us consider the in-exhausted treasures of the ocean; and though some have grudged the great share that it takes of the surface of the earth, yet we shall propose this too, as a conspicuous mark and character of the wisdom of God. *Bentley*.—I have often heard the Presbyterians say they did not grudge us our employments. *Swift.* 2. To give or take unwillingly.

Let me at least a funeral marriage crave,  
Nor grudge my cold embraces in the grave. *Dryd.*

—They have grudged those contributions have set our country at the head of all the ments of Europe. *Addison.*

(2.) \* To GRUDGE. *v. n.* 3. To murmur; to repine.—They knew the force of that curse, whereunto idolatry maketh subject there cause why the guilty sustaining it should grudge or complain of injustice. *1 Pet.* We do not grudge or repine at our port are contented with those circumstances; providence of God hath made to be our lot 2. To be unwilling; to be reluctant.—Make they go with as great grudging to serve in jesty's ships, as if it were to be slaves in *Res. Raleigh*.—

You steer betwixt the country and the  
Nor gratify whate'er the great desire,  
Nor grudging give what publick needs

*Dryden.*

3. To be envious.—Grudge not one another, brethren, lest ye be condemned. *Ja*

4. To wish in secret. A low word.—

E'en in the most sincere advice he gave

He had a grudging still to be a knave.

5. To give or have any uneasy remnant. not whether the word in this sense be *grugeons*, or remains; *grugeons* being the corn that remains after the fine meal has the sieve.—

My Dolabella,

Hast thou not still some grudgings of the

\* GRUDGINGLY. *adv.* [from *grudge* willingly; malignantly; reluctantly.—

Like harpies they could scent a plenteous

Then to be sure they never fail'd their

The rest was form, and bare attendance

Then drank and eat, grudgingly obey'd

GRUDOCZICZE, a town of Poland Russia, 24 miles WSW. of Halitsch.

GRUDOLO, a town of Naples, in the of Abruzzo Citra, 14 miles SE. of Solina

GRUE, Thomas, a French writer, in his translations of English works into French, among these were Rofs's History of all, and Rogers's Gate opened to the knowledge of Paganism. He died about the end of the century.

(1.) GRUEB, a town of Austria, 5 miles of Horn.

(2.) GRUEB, a town of Stiria, 6 miles of Voithberg.

\* GRUEL. *n. s.* [*gruan*, *gruelle*, French made by boiling oatmeal in water; an mixture made by boiling ingredients in

Finger of birth-strangl'd babe,

Ditch-deliver'd by a drab;

Make the gruel thick and slab. *Shak.*

Was ever Tartar fierce or cruel?

Upon the strength of water gruel?

—Gruel made of grain, broths, mak much hopped, posset-drinks, and in general ever relaxeth. *Arbutnot.*

\* GRUFF. *adj.* [*gruff*, Dutch.] Sour harsh of manners.—

Around the fiend, in hideous order

Foul bawling infamy and bold debate

Gruff discontent, thro' ignorance mist

ellation of honour was such an one the  
one the stocky. *Addison.*

FLY. *adv.* [from *gruff*.] Harshly; rug-  
ghly.—

orn of Mars high on a chariot stood,  
h'd in arms, and *gruffly* look'd the god.

*Dryden.*

RUGGEDNESS. *n. f.* [from *gruff*.] Ruggedness  
ardness of look or voice.

GRUFF, a river of Scotland, in Rosa-shire,  
over a precipice in the parish of Ed-  
co yards in perpendicular height.

ALF'S, [from *grus*, a crane.] the 14th  
anus's Fragments of a Natural Method.  
y. *Luce.*

GRUB, a town of Bohemia, in the circle  
ratz, 19 miles E. of Geyersberg.

GRUBERG, a town of Upper Saxony,  
ia, 4 miles S. of Sangerhausen.

GRUB, *adj.* [contracted from *grumble*.] Sour;  
e. A low word.—Nie looked sour and  
would not open his mouth. *Arbutnot.*

GRUBACH, a river of Upper Saxony,  
into the Saal, 4 m. NE. of Weissenfels.

GRUBACH, a town of the French repub-  
dep. of the Rhine and Nahe, and late  
grave, 23 miles N. of Deux Ponts,

of Lutereck.

GRUBACH, a town of Upper Saxony, in  
viate of Meissen, 2 miles S. of Wildorf.

GRUBACH, UNDER, } two towns of Ger-  
GRUBACH, UPPER, } many, in the circle

er Rhine, and bishopric of Spire, the  
iles, and the latter 4, SW. of Bruchsal.

GRUMBLE. *v. n.* [from *grummelen*, *grommen*,  
To murmur with discontent.—

A bridegroom,  
ling groom, and that the girl shall find.

*Shakefp.*

umblest and railst every hour on Achil-  
ou art as full of envy at his greatness as

curst Philistian stands on th' other side,  
rg aloud, and smiles 'twixt rage and

le. *Cowley.*

all but one, will depart *grumbling*, be-  
miss of what they think their due. *South.*

ice has allotted man a competency: all  
superfluous; and there will be *grum-*

out end, if we reckon that we want this,  
have it not. *L'Estrange.*

re, not using half his store,  
mbles that he has no more. *Prior.*

wl; to gnarl.—

on, though he sees the toils are set,  
ch'd with raging hunger, scours away;

the face of danger all the day;  
, with sullen pleasure, *grumbles* o'er his

y. *Dryden.*

ce a hoarse rattle.—  
*grumbling* thunder join thy voice.

*Motteux.*

Like a storm  
thers black upon the frowning sky,  
mbles in the wind. *Rowe's Royal Convert.*

Vapours foul  
the mountain's brow, and shake the woods

umbling wave below. *Thomson's Winter.*

\* GRUMBLER. *n. f.* [from *grumble*.] One that  
grumbles; a murmurer; a discontented man.—

The half-pence are good half-pence, and I will  
stand by it: if I made them of silver, it would be  
the same thing to the *grumbler*. *Swift.*

\* GRUMBLING. *n. f.* [from *grumble*.] A mur-  
muring through discontent; a grudge.—

I have seiv'd

Without or grudge or *grumbings*. *Shak. Temp.*

\* GRUME. *n. f.* [from *grumeau*, Fr. *grumus*, Lat.]  
A thick viscid consistence of a fluid; as the white  
of an egg; or clot like cold blood. *Quincy.*

\* GRUMLY. *adv.* [from *grum*.] Sullenly; mo-  
rosely.

(1.) \* GRUMMEL. *n. f.* [*Lithospermum*, Latin.]  
An herb.

(2.) GRUMMEL. See LITHOSPERMUM.

GRUMO, a town of Naples, in the province  
of Bari, 3½ miles SSW. of Bidetto.

(1.) \* GRUMOUS. *adj.* [from *grume*.] Thick;  
clotted.—The blood, when let, was black, *gru-*

*mous*, the red part without a due consistence, the  
serum saline, and of a yellowish green. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) GRUMOUS BLOOD, by its viscosity and stag-  
nating in the capillary vessels, produces disorders.

\* GRUMOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *grumous*.]  
Thickness of a coagulated liquor.—The cause may  
be referred either to the coagulation of the serum,

or *grumousness* of the blood. *Wifeman.*

(1.) GRUNAU, a town of Lower Saxony, in  
the duchy of Lauenburg, 18 m. NNE. of Mollen.

(2.) GRUNAU, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

(1.) GRUNBERG, a town of Germany, in Up-  
per Hesse, 10 miles E. of Greiffen, and 28 W. of  
Fulda. The French kings of the Merovingian  
race, and Charlemagne, held their courts in it.

(2.) GRUNBERG, a town of Silesia, in Glogau,  
surrounded with vineyards; 12 miles N. of Frey-  
stadt, and 24 NW. of Great Glogau. It has a  
manufacture of cloth.

GRUND, or } a town of Brunswick, in the  
GRUNDE, } Hartz Forest, 12 miles SW. of  
Goslar. Lon. 13. 35. E. Lat. 52. 10. N.

GRUNDEL SEE, a lake of Germany, in Stiria,

(1.) GRUNDLBACH, a river of Franconia,  
which runs into the Rednitz, 3 miles S. of Erlang.

(2.) GRUNDLBACH, a town of Franconia, in Nu-  
remberg, 4 m. S. of Erlang, and 6 N. of Nuremberg.

GRUNEBERG, a town of Brandenburg.

GRUNER, John Frederic, an eminent German  
author, born at Cobourg, in 1723. He published

1. *Miscellanea Sacra*; 2. An introduction to Ro-  
man Antiquities; 3. Critical Remarks on the Clas-  
sics; and, 4. A new edition of Cœlius Sædullius,

with commentaries. He died in 1778.

GRUNFEID. See GRUNSFELD.

GRUNHAYN, a town of Saxony, in Erzge-  
burg, 15 miles S. of Chemnitz, and 46 WSW. of  
Dresden.

GRUNHOFF, a town of Courland.

(1.) GRUNINGEN, a town of the Helvetic re-  
public, capital of a ci devant bailiwick, in Zurich;  
12 miles E. of Zurich. It has a castle on a rock,  
which has an extensive prospect. Lon. 8. 43. E.

Lat. 47. 14. N.

(2.) GRUNINGEN, a town of Germany, in Hal-  
berstadt, on the Boden, 15 miles E. of Halber-  
stadt. Lon. 11. 41. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.



GRUN-SEE, a lake of Bavaria.

\* GRUNSEL. *n. f.* [More usually *groundfil*, unless Milton intended to preserve the Sax. *grund*.] The groundfil; the lower part of the building.—

Never came one

Who mourn'd in earnest, when the captive ark  
Maim'd his brute image, head and hands lopp'd  
off

In his own temple, on the *grundel* edge.

Where he fell flat, and sham'd his worshippers.

*Milton.*

GRUNSFELD, a town in Franconia, in the bishopric of Wurzburg, 6 miles NNW. of Merгентheim.

GRUNSTADT, a town of Germany, in the late county of Leiningen, now included in the French republic, and department of Mont Tonnerre; 28 miles S. of Mentz.

(1.) \* GRUNT. *n. f.* [from the verb.] The noise of a hog.—

Swine's snouts, swine's bodies, took they,  
bristles, *grunts*. *Chapman.*

Ran cow and calf, and family of hogs,

In panick horror of pursuing dogs;

With many a deadly *grunt* and doleful squeak,

Poor swine, as if their pretty hearts would break.

*Dryden.*

From hence were heard

The *grunts* of bristled boars, and groans of bears,  
And herds of howling wolves. *Dryden's Æn.*

(2.) GRUNT, in geography, a town of Austria, near Gundersdorf.

\* To GRUNT. To GRUNTLE. *v. n.* [*grunnie*, Latin.] To murmur like a hog.—

And neigh, and bark, and *grunt*, and roar and  
burr.

Like horse, hound, hog, bear, fire at every  
turn. *Shakespeare.*

Lament, ye swine! in *gruntings* spend your  
grief;

For you, like me, have lost your sole relief. *Gay.*

Thy brinded boars may slumber undismay'd,

Or *grunt* secure beneath the chestnut shade. *Tickel.*

The scolding quean to louder notes doth rise,

To her full pipes the *grunting* hog replies;

The *grunting* hogs alarm the neighbours round.

*Swift.*

\* GRUNTER. *n. f.* [from *grunt*.] 1. He that grunts. 2. A kind of fish. [*grunus*.]

\* GRUNTLING. *n. f.* [from *grunt*.] A young hog.

GRUPPO, or TURNED SHAKE, a musical grace, defined by Playford to consist in the alternate prolation of two tones in juxtaposition to each other, with a close on the note immediately beneath the lower of them.

(1.) GRJUS, in antiquity, a dance performed yearly by the young Athenians around the temple of Apollo, on the day of the Delia. The motions and figures of this dance were very intricate, and variously interwoven; some of them being intended to express the windings of the labyrinth where-in the Minotaur was killed by Theseus.

(2.) GRUS, in astronomy, a southern constellation, not visible in our latitude. The number of stars in this constellation, according to Mr Sharp's Catalogue, is 13.

(3.) GRUS, in ornithology. See ARDEA, N° 3.

GRUSUE, a town of Norway, 6 m. N. of

\* GRUTCH. *n. f.* [from the verb.] Ill-will.—

In it he melted leaden bullets,

To shoot at foes, and sometimes pullet

To whom he bore so fell a *grutch*,

He ne'er gave quarter t' any such. *B.*

\* To GRUTCH. *v. n.* [corrupted for the rhyme from *grudge*.] To envy; to repine discontented. Not used.—

The poor at the enclosure doth *grate*  
Because of abuses that fall,

Lest some men should have but too  
And some again nothing at all. *Taylor.*

But what we're born for we must be

Our frail condition it is such,

That what to all may happen here,

If't chance to me I must not *grutch*. *B.*

GRUTEN, a town of Germany, in the Westphalia and duchy of Berg, 3 m. of Medman.

GRUTER, James, a learned philologist of the most laborious writers of his age, born at Antwerp in 1560. He was bred when his father and mother, being perished the Protestant religion by the dukes of governers of the Netherlands, carried to England. He imbibed the elements of from his mother, who was one of the most ed women of the age, and besides French and English, was a complete mistress of and well skilled in Greek. He studied bridge, afterwards at Leyden, and at last himself wholly to polite literature, although much he became professor in the university of Heidelberg; near which city he died. He wrote many works; the principal are a large collection of ancient inscriptions, *fastus criticus*, 3. *Deliciae poetarum Galliarum, & Belgarum*, &c.

GRUTLIN, a plain of the Helvetic near the Lake of the Four Cantons, in the of Uri, famous for being the scene of the liberation of the 3 first cantons, in defence of liberty. A. D. 1307.

GRUYERES, } a town, and ci-devant  
GRUYERS, } and bailiwick, of the  
GRUYIRES, } republic, in the c  
Friburg, famous for cheese; which is exported considerable amount to France, Germany, &c. A dangerous insurrection broke out in 1781, which threatened the destruction of Friburg, before it was quelled by the of troops from Bern. It lies 15 miles S. of Lon. 7. 23. E. Lat. 46. 35. N.

GRUYNINGEN, a town of the Ba public, in the dept. of the Meuse, and prov. of Zealand, and in the isle of S. B.

GRUZINO, a town of Russia, in the Novgorod, 40 miles N. of Novgorod.

(1.) \* GRY. *n. f.* [220.] Any thing of less as, the paring of the nails. *Dry.*

(2.) GRAY, a measure containing one line. A line is one-tenth of a digit, or one tenth of a foot, and a philosophical third of a pendulum, whose diadromes, in the latitude of 45 degrees, are to one second of time, or one 60th of a



GRYLLUS.

Plate C

Fig. 1.  
Locust.



Mole Cricket.



Fig. 2.

Gryllus.



Fig. 3.

Gymnomus Electricus.



Fig. 6.  
Gymnomus



GUILLOTINE.

Fig. 4.



Fig. 5.



J. Steward delin.

A, a river of New Spain, in Chiapa.  
 TE, a town of Sweden in Westman-  
 lands WNW. of Stroemsholm.

NBERG, or } a town of Upper Sax-  
 NBURG, } ony, in Erzgebürg, 6  
 reyburg.

LUS, the son of Xenophon, who slew  
 the Theban general EPAMINONDAS,  
 and himself at the battle of Mantinea,  
 371. Xenophon, who was sacrificing  
 at the altar of his death, instantly threw  
 out upon being farther informed, that  
 he was slain by the enemy's general, immediate-

LYUS, in entomology, a genus of insects,  
 of the order of hemiptera, comprehending  
 the locusts, and grass hoppers. The  
 characters are these: The head is inflexed,  
 furnished with palpi; the wings are  
 setaceous, and furnished with palpi; the  
 membrane of the species are setaceous; in  
 the male; The wings are directed towards  
 the sides of the body; the membrane  
 is folded up, so as to be concealed  
 under the elytra. All the feet are armed with two  
 claws, the hind ones are formed for leaping.  
 The elytra are subdivided into five different sections,  
 viz. the *Acridæ*, *Bullæ*, *Achetæ*, *Tet-*  
*Locustæ*. All the GRYLUS, except  
 the *Achetæ*, devour other insects, live u-

The *Achetæ* feed chiefly upon the  
 leaves of the *Stigonæ* and *Locustæ* upon the leaves.  
 ACHETA are distinguished by two  
 segments above the extremity of their ab-  
 domens, having 3 stemmata; and by the tarsus  
 consisting of 3 articulations. This family  
 includes the *Cricket*, on account of the  
 noise which the insect makes. There are 28 species  
 mentioned in the new edition of the *Systema*  
 which the most remarkable are the

ACHETA CAMPESTRIS, the  
 common cricket, and the DOMESTICUS (Nº 2.) are  
 of the same species, differing only  
 in their habits; the latter being paler col-  
 oured, and having more of a yellow cast, and  
 more of a brown. The antennæ are  
 nearly equal to the body, and nearly equal to the bo-

The head is large, and round, with  
 three smaller ones of a light yellow  
 colour on the edge of the depres-  
 sion of which originate the an-  
 tennæ. The thorax is broad and short. In the  
 elytra are longer than the body, vein-  
 ed, wrinkled on the upper part, crossed  
 over, and enfolding part of the ab-  
 domen, projecting at an angle on the sides: They  
 have a pale coloured band. In  
 the elytra leave one third of the ab-  
 domen, and scarcely cross each other;  
 all over of one colour, veined and  
 wrinkled; nor do they wrap round so much  
 underneath. The female, more-  
 over, at the extremity of its body a hard  
 point, as long as the abdomen, thicker at  
 the base, composed of two sheaths, which encom-  
 pass the ovipositor: This implement serves the in-  
 strument to deposit its eggs in the ground.  
 The male and female have two pointed soft

appendices at the extremity of the abdomen,  
 their hinder feet are much larger and longer than  
 the rest, and serve them for leaping. Towards  
 sunset is the time the *field gryllus*, or CRICKET,  
 likes best to appear out of his subterraneous habi-  
 tation. In White's *Natural History of Selbourne*,  
 (Letter 46.) a very pleasing account is given of the  
 manners and economy of these insects; which,  
 however, "are so shy and cautious, (he observes,)  
 that it is no easy matter to get a sight of them;  
 for, feeling a person's footsteps as he advances,  
 they stop short in the midst of their song, and re-  
 tire backward nimbly into their burrows, where  
 they lurk till all suspicion of danger is over. At  
 first it was attempted to dig them out with a spade,  
 but without any great success; for either the bot-  
 tom of the hole was inaccessible from its termina-  
 ting under a great stone; or else, in breaking up  
 the ground, the poor insect was inadvertently  
 squeezed to death. Out of one so bruised a mul-  
 titude of eggs were taken, which were long and  
 narrow, of a yellow colour, and covered with a  
 very tough skin. More gentle means were then  
 used, and proved successful: a pliant stalk of  
 grass, gently insinuated into the caverns, will probe  
 their windings to the bottom, and quickly bring  
 out the inhabitant; and thus the humane inquirer  
 may gratify his curiosity without injuring the ob-  
 ject of it. It is remarkable, that though these in-  
 sects are furnished with long legs behind, and  
 brawny thighs for leaping, like grasshoppers; yet  
 when driven from their holes they show no activi-  
 ty, but crawl along in a shiftless manner, so as  
 easily to be taken: and again, though provided  
 with a curious apparatus of wings, yet they never  
 exert them when there seems to be the greatest  
 occasion. The males only make that shrilling  
 noise, perhaps out of rivalry and emulation, as is  
 the case with many animals which exert some  
 sprightly note during their breeding time: it is rais-  
 ed by a brisk friction of one wing against the o-  
 ther. They are solitary beings, living singly male  
 or female, but there must be a time when the sexes  
 have some intercourse, and then the wings may  
 be useful perhaps during night. When the males  
 meet they fight fiercely, as our author found by  
 some which he put into the crevices of a dry stone  
 wall, where he wanted to have made them settle.  
 For though they seemed distressed by being taken  
 out of their knowledge, yet the first that got pos-  
 session of the chinks would seize on any that were  
 obtruded upon them with a vast row of serrated  
 fangs. With their strong jaws, toothed like the  
 shears of a lobster's claws, they perforate and  
 round their curious regular cells, having no fore  
 claws to dig, like the mole cricket. When taken  
 in the hand, they never offered to defend them-  
 selves, though armed with such formidable wea-  
 pons. Of such herbs as grow before the mouths  
 of their burrows they eat indiscriminately; and  
 on a little platform, which they make just by,  
 they drop their dung; and never, in the day  
 time, seem to stir more than two or three inches  
 from home. Sitting in the entrance of their cav-  
 erns, they chirp all night as well as day from the  
 middle of May to the middle of July: in hot wea-  
 ther, when they are most vigorous, they make the  
 hills echo; and in the stiller hours of darkness,  
 may



may be heard at a considerable distance. In the beginning of the season their notes are more faint and inward; but become louder as the summer advances, and so die away again by degrees. The shrilling of the *field cricket*, though sharp and stridulous, yet delights some hearers, filling their minds with ideas of every thing that is rural, and joyous. About the 10th of March, the crickets appear at the mouths of their cells, which they then open and shape very elegantly. All that ever I have seen at that season were in their pupa state, and had only the rudiments of wings, lying under a skin or coat, which must be cast before the insect can arrive at its perfect state; from whence I should suppose that the old ones of last year do not always survive the winter. In August their holes begin to be obliterated, and the insects are seen no more till spring. Not many summers ago I endeavoured to transplant a colony to the terrace in my garden, by boring deep holes in the sloping turf. The new inhabitants staid some time, and fed and sung; but wandered away by degrees, and were heard at a farther distance every morning; so that it appears that on this emergency they made use of their wings in attempting to return to the spot from which they were taken. One of these crickets, when confined in a paper cage and set in the sun, and supplied with plants moistened with water, will feed and thrive, and become so merry and loud as to be irksome in the same room where a person is sitting: if the plants are not wetted, it will die."

2. *Gryllus Acheta Domesticus*, the *Domestic*, or *Hearth cricket*, does not require to be sought after abroad for examination, nor is shy like the other sort: it resides altogether within our dwellings, intruding itself upon our notice whether we incline or not. It delights in new built houses; being, like the spider, pleased with the moisture of the walls. The softness of the mortar enables them to burrow and mine between the joints of the bricks or stones, and to open communications from one room to another. They are particularly fond of kitchens and bakers ovens, on account of their perpetual warmth. "Tender insects, (says Mr Whyte) that live abroad, either enjoy only the short period of one summer, or else doze away the cold uncomfortable months in profound slumbers; but these, residing as it were in a torrid zone, are always alert and merry: a good Christmas fire is to them like the heat of the dog-days. Though they are frequently heard by day, yet is their natural time of motion only in the night. As soon as it grows dusk, the chirping increases, and they come running forth, and are from the size of a flea to that of their full stature. As one should suppose, from the burning atmosphere which they inhabit, they are a thirsty race, and show a great propensity for liquids, being found frequently drowned in pans of water, milk, broth, or the like. Whatever is moist they affect; and therefore often gnaw holes in wet woollen stockings and aprons that are hung to the fire. These crickets are not only very thirsty, but very voracious; for they will eat the scummings of pots, yeast, salt, and crumbs of bread, and any kitchen offal and sweepings. In the summer we have observed them to fly, when it became

dusk, out of the windows, and over the bounding roofs. This feat of activity is for the sudden manner in which they leave their haunts, as it does for the method which they come to houses where they were known before. It is remarkable, that many of insects seem never to use their wings; but they have a mind to shift their quarters and new colonies. When in the air they move *latu undoso*," in waves or curves, like woodpeckers, opening and shutting their wings at a stroke, and so are always rising or sinking. When they increase to a great degree, as they once in the house where I am now writing become noisome pests, flying into the candle dashing into people's faces; but may be killed by gunpowder discharged into their crevices and crannies. In families, at such times, they are like Pharaoh's plague of frogs,—'in their chambers, and upon their beds, and in their dens, and in their kneading-troughs.' Their noise is occasioned by a brisk attrition of wings. Cats catch hearth crickets, and play with them as they do with mice, devouring them. Crickets may be destroyed, like wasps, with a glass half filled with beer, or any liquid, and their haunts; for being always eager to get out, they will crowd in till the bottles are full. A popular prejudice, however, frequently prevents their being driven away and destroyed: as people imagine that their presence brings a curse of luck to the house while they are in it, and it would be hazardous to destroy them.

ii. *Gryllus Acheta Gryllotalpa*, the *mole cricket*, is of a very unpleasing form, and head, in proportion to the size of its body, small and oblong, with a long thick palpus, and long antennæ as slender as threads. Behind the antennæ are situated the eyes, and between two eyes are seen three stemmata or lesser eyes mounting to five in all, set in one line transverse. The thorax forms a kind of cuirass, oblong, most cylindrical, which appears as it were a helmet. The elytra, which are short, reach to the middle of the abdomen, are crossed on the other, and have large black or brown fibres. The wings terminate in a point, not only than the elytra, but even than the abdomen. This latter is soft, and ends in two or three appendices of some length. But what attracts the chief singularity of this insect are its fore feet, that are very large and flat, with long legs, ending outwardly in a large serrated and inwardly in 2 only; between which are situated, and often concealed, the tarsus. The whole animal is of a brown dusky color, and haunts moist meadows, and frequents the banks and banks of streams, performing its functions in a swampy wet soil. With a fore feet curiously adapted to the purpose, it rows and works under ground like the mole, raising a ridge as it proceeds, but seldom rising up hillocks. As mole crickets often increase by the sides of canals, they are an unwelcome guest to the gardener, raising up ridges and rendering the subterraneous progress, and rendering the progress unsightly. If they take to the kitchen they occasion great damage among the

s, by destroying whole beds of cabbages, legumes and flowers. When dug out they are very slow and helpless, and make no use of their wings by day; but at night they come abroad, and make long excursions. In fine weather, about the middle of April, at the close of winter they begin to solace themselves with a low, jarring note, continued for a long time without interruption, and not unlike the chattering of the fern-owl, or goat sucker, but more inward. At the beginning of May they lay their eggs, Mr White informs us, who was once an eye-witness: "for a gardener at an house where he was on a visit, happening to be mowing on the bank of that month, by the side of a canal, his scythe struck too deep, pared off a large piece of earth, and laid open to view a curious scene of domestic economy. There were many caverns and winding passages leading to a kind of chamber, the floor of which was smoothed and rounded, and about the size of a moderate snuff-box. Within this secret nursery were deposited near 100 eggs of a dirty yellow colour, and enveloped in a tough skin, but too hard to be excluded to contain any rudiments of young, and full of a viscous substance. The eggs lay in shallow rows, and within the influence of the sun, and the soft under a little heap of fresh mowed mould, that which is raised by ants.—When mole-crickets fly, the move " *curfu undulo*," rising and falling in curves, like the other species mentioned in the text. In different parts of this kingdom people call them PEN-CRICKETS, *churr-swarms* and *evens*, all very opposite names."

**GRYLLI ACRIDÆ**, *Truxalides* of Fabricius, a CRICKET family properly so called; of which the characters are these. The head is of a conical form, and longer than the thorax; and the antennæ are ensiform, or sword shaped. Of this genus there are 8 species, none of them found in America.

**GRYLLI BULLÆ**, or *Acrydia* of Fabricius: these are distinguished by a kind of crest or elevation on the thorax; their antennæ are shorter than the thorax, and filiform; and their palpi are equal. The chief and most obvious distinction of this genus is the form of its thorax, which is prolonged, forming the whole body, and decreases to the extremity of the abdomen. This prolongation of the thorax stands instead of elytra, of which this genus is destitute. It has only wings under this section of the thorax. Linnæus mentions a species in the thorax; which, however, is often wanting. This species is every where to be met with in the fields, in woods, &c. There are 11 species, inhabitants of Europe and America. Among these the

**GRYLLUS BULLA BIPUNCTATUS** is of a dark brown colour; sometimes besprinkled with spots of a lighter hue.

**GRYLLI LOCUSTÆ**, (the *Grylli* of Fabricius) or LOCUSTS *unarmed at the tail*. This family is distinguished by having the tail purple, about the setæ of the *Acetæ*, or the tube of the *Tettigonia*; their antennæ are filiform, and shorter than the abdomen; they have 3 stemmata, and 3 joints to the tarsi. To part of this description, however, there is an exception in the

**GRYLLUS LOCUSTA GROSSUS**, the antennæ of which are of a cylindrical form. According to Mr Barbut, "few species vary so much in size and colours. Some of these insects are twice as long as others; the antennæ in most are filiform, but in this particular species cylindrical, composed of about 24 articulations, and but one fourth of the length of the body. As to colour, the small individuals are nearly quite red, spotted with black, with the under part of the body only of a greenish yellow. The larger subjects are all over of a greenish hue, the under part being of a deeper yellow; only the inside of the hinder thighs is red. But what characterises this species is, the form of the thorax, which has, above, a longitudinal elevation, attended by one on each side, the middle whereof drawing nigh to the first, forms a kind of X. Moreover, between the claws that terminate the feet, there are small sponges, but larger in this species than the rest. This species is to be met with every-where in the country. The larvæ or caterpillars very much resemble the perfect insects, and commonly dwell under ground." Of this tribe 118 other species are enumerated in the *Systema Naturæ*, natives of different parts of the globe; besides a considerable number which it is not yet ascertained, whether they are distinct species, or only synonyms or varieties of some of the others. The distinction of *Locusts* into families, (as characterised in § 17, v.) is extremely proper; and the difference of organisation, on which it is founded, has been observed to be adapted to the mode and the places in which the insects lay their eggs. But by taking the wings into consideration, there might have been formed three tribes or divisions, instead of two, upon the same natural foundation. Thus, according to the observations of the Abbé Pouchet, (in his *Journal de Physique* for 1787, p 224.) those which have their abdomen furnished with the tube or dart above mentioned, lay their eggs in a stiff sort of earth which that instrument perforates. During the operation, the dart opens; and being hollow and grooved on each side within, the egg slides down along the grooves, and is deposited in the hole. Of those which have the tail simple, *i. e.* which have *no dart*, some have long wings, and some very short. The long winged sort lay their eggs on the bare ground, and have no use for a perforating instrument; but they cover them with a glutinous substance, which fixes them to the soil, and prevents their being injured either by wind or wetness. Those, again, which have short wings, deposit their eggs in the sand; and to make the holes for this purpose, they have the power of elongating and retracting their abdominal rings, and can turn their body as on a pivot; in which operation long wings would have been a material impediment. The annals of most warm countries are filled with accounts of the devastations produced by locusts, which sometimes appear in clouds of vast extent. They seldom visit Europe in such swarms as formerly; yet in the warmer parts of it they are still formidable. Those which have at uncertain intervals visited Europe are supposed to have come from Africa; they are a large species about three inches long. The head and horns are of a brownish

coldness of our climate, and the humidity of our soil, are very unfavourable to their production; so that, as they are only animals of a year's continuance, they all perished without leaving a young generation to succeed them. When the locusts take their flight, it is said they have a leader at their head, whose flight they observe, and pay a strict regard to all his motions. They appear at a distance like a black cloud, which, as it approaches, gathers upon the horizon, and almost hides the light of day. It often happens, that the husbandman sees this imminent calamity pass away without doing him any mischief; and the whole swarm proceeds onward to settle upon some less fortunate country. In those places, however, where they alight, they destroy every green thing, stripping the trees of their leaves, as well as devouring the corn and grass. In the tropical climates they are not so pernicious, as in the more southern parts of Europe. In the first, the power of vegetation is so strong, that an interval of three or four days repairs the damage; but in Europe this cannot be done till next year. Besides, in their long flights to this part of the world, they are famished by the length of their journey, and are therefore more voracious wherever they happen to settle. But as much damage is occasioned by what they destroy, as by what they devour. Their bite is thought to contaminate the plant, and either to destroy or greatly to weaken its vegetation. To use the expression of the husbandmen, they burn wherever they touch, and leave the marks of their devastation for 3 or 4 years thereafter. When dead, they infect the air in such a manner that the stench is insupportable. Orosius tells us, that in the year of the world 3800, Africa was infested with a multitude of locusts. After having eaten up every thing that was green,

and gardens, which they filled with large quantities of heat like combustible matter, in order to put fire on the approach of the locusts to no purpose; for the trenches were dug up, and the fires put out by the swarms that succeeded each other, after one of these was in motion. The young just hatched came to glean off the young branches, and the trees. Having lived near a month, they arrived at their full growth, and their worm-like state by which they prepare themselves for this purpose, their hinder part to some degree of a stone, when immediately they begin their motion used on this occasion, and first appear, and soon after the whole transformation was completed in 8 minutes, after which they remain while in a languishing condition, till the sun and air had hardened and dried up the moisture that remained off their former sloughs, they then recover their former greediness, with an increase of strength and agility. But they continue in this state before they are fed. After laying their eggs, they march northward, and probably to the sea. In that country, however, the fertility of the soil and warmth generally render the depredation of little consequence; besides that the insects concur to diminish their numbers, naturally herbivorous, they often devour other, and the victor devours the prey, too, of serpents and carnivorous birds. They



on wild herbs, without preying upon cultivated lands, or making their way. The peasants look on them with in-while they are frisking about in the field, any measure to destroy them till the dance, and the favourable moment to evil is elapsed. Their yearly number considerable, as the males are far more than the females. If an equal proportion allowed only for ten years, their number be so great as to destroy the whole vestment. Beasts and birds would starve for subsistence, and even mankind would prey to their ravenous appetites. In increase was so great from the multitudes, that all La Mancha and Portugal red with them and totally ravaged. of famine were spread even farther, and the fruitful provinces of Andalusia, and Valencia. The amours of these are objects of surprise and astonishment. Their union is such that it is difficult to separate them. When this separation is after having lasted some hours, they are parted, that the male retires immediately for refreshment, where, losing the limbs, he soon perishes, and becomes prey to the fish; having given life to his offspring at the expence of his own. The female, indeed, though not without violent struggles, the remainder of her days in some society, busy in forming a retreat under a stone, where she can secure her eggs, of which she lays about 40, screening them by her own body from the intemperature of the air, as well as from the immediate danger of the plough, or the fatal blow of which would destroy the hopes of a rising generation. The female in building this cell is equally surprised under part of her body, nature has provided with a round smooth instrument, 8 lines in length, which at its head is as big as a writhing tooth, at its tail as a hard point, hollow at the root of a viper, but only to be seen. At the root of this vehicle there is a kind of bladder, containing a matter, of the same colour, but without viscosity or tenacity of that of the silk-worm, by an experiment, made for the purpose, infusion in vinegar, for several days, it produces the same effect. The orifice of the bladder is exactly with the instrument which is used to extract the glutinous matter. It is hid under the skin of the belly, and its interior surface is the moveable parts of the belly, and the mechanism of its motions, forming the most adroit texture for every part of its operations, the disposal of this ingredient at pleasure, the fluid, which has 3 very essential properties, being indissoluble in water, it prevents being drowned; next, it resists the heat of the sun, otherwise the structure would destroy its inhabitants; lastly, it resists the frost of winter, so as to preserve necessary warmth within. For greater security a retreat is always contrived in a soil, for though a million of locusts were in a cultivated field, not one would de-

PART II.

posit her eggs there; but wherever they meet a barren and lonesome situation, there they are sure to repair and lay their eggs. These locusts seem to devour, not so much from a ravenous appetite, as from a rage of destroying every thing that comes in their way. It is not surprising, that they should be fond of the most juicy plants and fruits, such as melons, and all manner of garden fruits and herbs, and feed also upon aromatic plants, such as lavender, thyme, rosemary, &c. which are so common in Spain, that they serve to heat ovens; but it is very singular, that they equally eat mustard seed, onions, and garlic; may even hemlock, and the most rank and poisonous plants, such as the thorn apple and deadly nightshade. They even prey upon crowfoot, whose causticity burns the very hides of beasts; and such is their universal taste, that they do not prefer the innocent mallow to the bitter furze, or rue to wormwood, consuming all alike, without predilection or favour, with this remarkable circumstance, that during the four years they committed such havoc in Estremadura, the love-apple, or *Lycopersicon solanum* of Linnæus, was the only plant that escaped their rapacious tooth, and claimed a respect to its root, leaves, flowers, and fruit. Naturalists may search for their motives, which I am at a loss to discover; the more as I saw millions of them light on a field near Almaden, and devour the woolen and linen garments of the peasants, which were lying to dry on the ground. The curate of the village, a man of veracity, at whose house I was, assured me, that a tremendous body of them entered the church, and devoured the silk garments that adorned the images of the saints, not sparing even the varnish on the altars. The better to discover the nature of such a phenomenon, I examined the stomach of the locust, but only found one thin and soft membrane, with which, and the liquor it contains, it destroys and dissolves all kinds of substances, equally with the most caustic and venomous plants; extracting from them a sufficient and salutary nourishment. Out of curiosity to know the nature of so formidable a creature, I was urged to examine all its parts with the utmost exactness: its head is of the size of a pea, though longer; its forehead pointing downwards like the handsome Andalusian horse; its mouth large and open; its eyes black and rolling, added to a timid aspect not unlike a hare. With such a dastardly countenance, who would imagine this creature to be the scourge of mankind! In its two jaws it has 4 incisive teeth, whose sharp points traverse each other like scissars, their mechanism being such as to gripe or to cut. Thus armed, what can resist a legion of such enemies? After devouring the vegetable kingdom, were they, in proportion to their strength and numbers, to become carnivorous like wasps, they would be able to destroy whole flocks of sheep, even to the dogs and shepherds; just as we are told of ants in America, that will overcome the fiercest serpents. The locust spends the months of April, May, and June, in the place of its birth; at the end of June its wings have a fine rose colour, and its body is strong. Being then in their prime, they assemble for the last time, and burn with a desire to propagate their species: this is

R R R

ubcccc

first direction of this formidable column is always against the wind, which if not too strong, the column will extend about a couple of leagues. The locusts then make a halt, when the most dreadful havoc begins; their sense of smell being so delicate, they can find at that distance a corn field or a garden, and after demolishing it, rise again in pursuit of another: this may be said to be done in an instant. Each seems to have, as it were, four arms and two feet; the males climb up the plants, as sailors do the shrouds of a ship, and nip off the tenderest buds, which fall to the females below. Many old people assured me, when so much mischief was done in 1754, it was the third time in their remembrance, and that they always are found in the pasture grounds of Extremadura, from whence they spread into the other provinces of Spain. They are certainly indigenous, being of a different shape from those of the North or the Levant, as is evident on comparing them with such in the cabinets of natural history. The locust of Spain is the only one that has rose coloured wings: besides, it is impossible they can come from any other part. From the north it is clear they do not, by the observations of so many ages; from the south they cannot, without crossing the sea, which is hardly possible by the shortness of their flight: and like birds of passage, they would be known. I once saw a cloud of them go over Malaga, and move towards the sea, and pass over it, for about a quarter of a league, to the great joy of the inhabitants, who concluded they would soon be drowned; but, to their disappointment, they suddenly veered about towards the coast, and pitched upon an uncultivated space surrounded with vineyards, which they soon after quitted. When once they appear, let the number demolished be ever so great, the proportion

stomach; and behind that, a wrinkled and furrowed within side there is still a third! so that it with some probability, that all the genus chew the cud, as they so ruminant animals in their internal

(1.) GRYNÆUS, Simon, a learned son of a peasant of Suabia, born in Hohenzollern, in 1493. He resided at Vienna and afterwards in 1523. Being a protestant he much persecution, and in 1531 England; where he received from Sir Thomas More, to whom Erasmus recommended him. He was a learned great service to the commonwealth was the first who published the *De Republica* in Greek. He also published and Plato's works, with some of Proclus. He died at Basil, in 1531.

(2.) GRYNÆUS, Thomas, nephew (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) was born at Syringen in Helvetia. He was equally learned and amiable sons also eminent in literature.

GRYNAU, a town of the Helvetia, in the canton of Glaris, seated on the Rhine, 3 miles W. of Uznach.

GRYPHITES, in natural history, an oblong fossil shell, with a pointed head, and becoming gradually wide towards the tail, where it ends in a circular or beak of this is very hooked. They are frequently found in oolite in many countries. There are several species; some extremely rounded at the back, others less so; and the thickness of the shell, in some they are composed, are in some thinner, in others thicker and larger,

ry good printer, but that Gryphus  
ible printer and corrector. He died  
63d year: and his business was car-  
putation by his son, Anthony Gry-  
of the most beautiful books of Sebaf-  
s, is a Latin Bible: it was printed  
in the largest types that had then  
2 vols folio.

2. See GRIFFON, § 2; and *Plate*

ARDE, a town of Norway, in the  
thein; 76 m. SE. of Bronthelm.  
a county of Virginia, bounded on  
d E. by Wythe, Montgomery, and  
ies; and on the S. by N. Carolina.  
ND, a town of Austria, 5 miles W.

town of Arabia, 16 m. S. of Lohela.  
a town of France, in the dep. of  
ite, 8 miles SE. of Marenes.

town of Cuba, 36 m. SW. of Bayamo.  
A, a village of Mexico near Mount  
was destroyed by a volcano in that  
760.

a sea port of Peru, between Callao,  
St Martin.

NGA, or } a town of Mexico, in  
LINGO, } the prov. of Tlascala,  
out 600 inhabitants, of whom 100

ALAJARA, or GUADALAXARA, a  
n, in the prov. of New Castile, and  
ala, seated on the Herares; con-  
ches, and 14 convents, but hardly  
its. It is 22 miles NE. of Madrid.  
Lat. 40. 36. N.

ALAJARA, or GUADALAXARA a  
province of Mexico, in the audi-

LAJARA, or GUADALAXARA, the  
above province (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) with a  
eated on a plain, near the Baranja:  
of Mexico. Lon. 104. 49. W. Lat.

LAJARA, or GREAT RIVER, a river  
ich rises in the mountains of To-  
re above city; (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) and after  
600 miles, falls into the S. Pacific  
. 22° N. It has stupendous falls  
S. of the city, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

VIAR, a river of Spain, which rises  
of Arragon and New Castile, and,  
rvel in Arragon, crosses the king-  
a, passes the town of that name,  
falls into the Mediterranean sea, a  
encia.

XARA. See GUADALAJARA.

ANAR, a town of Spain, in Estre-  
les S. of Sierena.

AZAR, a town of Spain, in the  
dova; 12 miles SW. of Cordova.  
A, a town of Spain in New Castile,  
Madrid.

ALOUBE, a handsome town of  
adura, with a celebrated convent,  
is magnificent, and is immensely  
ted on the river (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) 45 miles  
Lon. 3. 59. E. Lat. 39. 15. N.

(2.) GUADALOUBE, a river of Spain, in Estre-  
madura.

(3.) GUADALOUBE, one of the CARIBBEE or  
LEEWARDS islands, lying about mid-way between  
Antigua and Martinico. It is 45 miles long, 38  
broad, and, being of an irregular figure, is about  
240 miles in circumference. It is divided into  
two parts by a small arm of the sea, which is not  
above 6 miles long, and from 15 to 40 fathoms  
broad. This canal, named the *Salt River*, is na-  
vigable, but only carries vessels of 50 tons burden.  
That part of the island, which gives its name to the  
whole is, towards the centre, full of craggy rocks,  
where the cold is so intense, that nothing will  
grow upon them but fern, and some useless shrubs  
covered with mois. On the top of these rocks a  
mountain called *la Souffriere*, or the *Brimstone*  
*Mountain*, rises to an immense height. It exhales,  
through various openings, a thick black smoke,  
intermixed with sparks that are visible by night.  
From all these hills flow numberless springs, which  
fertilize the plains below, and moderate the burn-  
ing heat of the climate by a refreshing stream, so  
celebrated, that the galleons which formerly used  
to touch at the Windward Islands, had orders to  
renew their provision with this pure and salubri-  
ous water. Such is that part of the island pro-  
perly called *Guadaloupe*. That which is common-  
ly called *Grande Terre* has not been so much fa-  
voured by nature. It is indeed less rugged, but  
it wants springs and rivers. The soil is not so fer-  
tile nor the climate so wholesome. No European  
nation had taken possession of this island, when  
550 Frenchmen arrived there from Dieppe on the  
28 June 1635. Their provisions were so ill chosen,  
that they were spoiled in the passage, and were  
all exhausted, in two months. St Christopher's  
refused to spare them any; and their first attempts  
in husbandry could not as yet afford any thing.  
No resource was left but from the savages; but  
the superfluities of a people, who cultivate little,  
and never laid up stores, could not be great. The  
new comers came to a resolution to plunder them;  
and hostilities commenced on the 16th Jan. 1636.  
The Caribs, not thinking themselves in a condi-  
tion openly to resist an enemy, who had so much  
the advantage from the superiority of their arms,  
destroyed their own provisions and plantations,  
and retired to Grande Terre, and the neighbour-  
ing islands. From thence the most desperate came  
over to Guadaloupe, and concealing themselves  
in the forests, they shot with their poisoned ar-  
rows all the Frenchmen who were hunting or  
fishing. During night, they burned the houses  
and destroyed the plantations of their unjust  
spoilers. A dreadful famine was the consequence.  
The colonists were reduced to graze in the fields,  
and to dig up dead bodies for their subsistence.  
At last the government of Aubert brought about  
a peace with the savages, at the end of 1640. The  
remembrance of the hardships they had suffered  
proved a powerful incitement to cultivate all ar-  
ticles of immediate necessity; and afterwards in-  
duced an attention to those of luxury consumed  
in the mother country. Those, who had escaped  
the calamities they had drawn upon themselves,  
were soon joined by some colonists from St Chris-  
topher's, and from Europe. But still the prosper-

city of Guadalupe was impeded by obstacles arising from its situation. The facility with which the pirates from the neighbouring islands could carry off their cattle, their slaves, and their crops, distressed them greatly. Intestine broils, arising from jealousies of authority, often disturbed the quiet of the planters. And the adventurers, who went over to the windward islands, disdain a land that was fitter for agriculture than for naval expeditions, were easily drawn to Martinico by the convenient roads it abounds with. In 1700 the number of inhabitants amounted only to 3825 white people, 325 savages, free negroes, and mulattoes; and 6725 slaves, many of whom were Caribs. There were only 60 small plantations of sugar, and 66 of indigo, cocoa, and cotton. The cattle amounted to 1620 horses and mules, and 3699 head of horned cattle. This was the fruit of 60 years labour. But at the end of 1735, the colony was peopled with 9,643 whites, and 41,140 slaves. The saleable commodities were the produce of 334 sugar plantations, 15 plots of indigo, 46,840 stems of cocoa, 11,700 of tobacco, 2,257,725 of coffee, 12,748,447 of cotton. For provisions, it had 29 squares of rice or maize, 1219 of potatoes, 2,028,520 banana trees, and 33,577,950 trenches of cassava. The cattle consisted of 4946 horses, 2924 mules, 125 asses, 13,716 head of horned cattle, 11,162 sheep and goats, 2444 hogs. Such was the state of Guadalupe when it was conquered by the British in April 1759. The British, informed of the advantage the French made of their trade with the colonies, sent large quantities of goods to the conquered island, and thus overstocked the market, and sunk the prices of European commodities. The colonists bought them at low prices, and obtained long credit. To this credit, was soon added another arising from speculation: 18,721 negroes were carried thither, to hasten the growth and enhance the value of the plantations. But all hopes of advantage from the new conquest were frustrated, Guadalupe with its dependencies being restored by the treaty of peace in 1763. By the survey in 1767, this island, including those of Descada, St Bartholomew, Marigalante, and Saints, contained 11,863 white people; 752 free blacks and mulattoes, 72,761 slaves; in all 85,376 souls. The number of cattle was 5060 horses, 4854 mules, 111 asses, 17,378 horned cattle, 14,895 sheep and goats, and 2669 hogs: The number of plantations was 1983. The sugar works employed 414 mills. The annual produce of Guadalupe, and the adjacent islands, was estimated many years ago at 46 millions of pounds of sugar, 22 millions of coffee, 320,000 lb. of cotton and 8000 of cocoa: besides logwood, ginger, rum, skins, &c. This island was taken by the British in April 1764: but retaken by the French under Victor Hugues, in Feb. 1795. Lon. from 43. 24 to 44. 15. W. of Ferro. Lat. from 15. 55. to 16. 37. N.

(14.) GUADALOUPE, an island on the coast of Caribbia. Lon. 118. 0. W. Lat. 29. 5. N.

GUADALQUIVER, one of the most famous rivers of Spain, rises in Andalusia, near the confines of Granada, and running quite through Andalusia, by the towns of Baiza, Andaxar, Cordova, Seville, falls at last into the Bay of Cadiz.

(1.) GUADARAMA, a river of Spain Castile.

(2.) GUADARAMA, a town of Spain, above river, 18 miles NW. of Madrid; in cheefe. Lon. 3. 48. W. Lat. 41. 45. N.

GUADIANA, a large river of Spain rises in New Castile, and, passing across mountains, falls down to the lakes called *Guadiana*; from whence it runs to Calatrada, Merida, and Badajoz in Extrem Spain; and after having run for some distance into Portugal, it separates Algarve, daluna, and falls into the bay of Cadiz, Castro Marino and Agramonte.

GUADIX, a town of Spain, in Granada a bishop's see. It was taken from the Moors in 1253, who afterwards retook it, but the Spaniards again got possession of it in 1489. Lon. 3. 5. W. Lat. 37. 5. N.

GUADRAMIRO, a town of Spain, in Galicia, the capital of Comarqua, containing 1000 people: 4 m. N. of Little Comarqua.

(1.) \* GUAIACUM. *n. f.* *Guaiacum*. A resinous and aperient. It is excellent in many cases, and was once famous for curing the venereal disease, which it still does singly in some climates, but with us we find it useless. It has a resin of it, improperly called *guaiacum Hill*.

(II.) GUAIACUM, in botany, *LIGNUM Pockwood*; a genus of the monogynia class, belonging to the decandria class of plants, the natural method ranking under the 14th order, *Gruinales*. The calyx is quinquefid and the petals 5, and inserted into the calyx; the fruit is angulated, and trilobular or quinquelobular.

1. GUAIACUM AFRUM, with many branched leaves, is a native of the Cape of Good Hope. The plants retain their leaves all the year. This species is to be propagated by layers, and all the winter in a good green-house.

2. GUAIACUM OFFICINALE, the common vitæ used in medicine, is a native of the India Islands and the warmer parts of America. There it becomes a large tree, having a thick, brownish bark, not very thick. The wood is firm, solid, ponderous, very resinous, and of a yellow colour in the middle, and of a bitter, resinous taste. The smaller branches have a reddish bark, and are garnished with small flowers, which are produced in clusters at the ends of the branches, and are composed of oval corolla of a fine blue colour. This species may be propagated by seeds, which must be sown in the countries where it naturally grows, or in pots, and in a good hot-bed, where they will come up in 4 or 5 weeks. While young, they may be kept in a bed of tan-bark under a frame during the winter, but in autumn they must be removed to a bark stove, where they should continue until they are fit for use. The wood of this species is of great use in medicine and in the mechanical arts. It is compact and heavy as to sink in water. The bark is often of a pale yellowish colour.

It is blacker, or of a deep brown. Sometimes marbled with different colours. It is so hard to break the tools used in felling it; and is therefore seldom used as firewood, but is of great use to the sugar-planters for making wheels and staves to the mills. It is also often made into bowls, staves, and other utensils. It is brought over to Britain in large pieces of 4 or 500 weight each; and from its hardness and beauty is in great demand for various articles of turnery ware. The wood, gum, bark, fruit, and even the flowers of the tree, possess medicinal virtues; but only the resin, particularly the wood and resin, are now of general use in Europe. The wood has little or no smell, except when heated, or while rasping, when a slight aromatic one is perceived. When wet, it impresses a mild acrimony, biting the nose and fauces. Its pungency resides in its resinous matter, which it gives out in some degree to the air by boiling, but spirit extracts it wholly. Of the bark there are two kinds; one smooth, the other unequal on the surface: they are both weaker than the wood; though in a recent state, they are strongly cathartic. The gum, or resin, is obtained by wounding the bark in different parts of the tree, or by what has been called *jaggung*. It exudes copiously from the wounds, though gradually; and when a quantity is found accumulated on the several wounded trees, hardened by exposure to the sun, it is gathered and packed in all kegs for exportation. This resin is of a friable texture, of a deep greenish colour, and sometimes of a reddish hue; it has a pungent acrid taste but little or no smell, unless heated. The tree also yields a spontaneous exudation from the bark, which is called the *native gum*, and is brought to us in small irregular pieces, of a bright nipe-lucid appearance; it differs from the former in being much purer. In the choice of the wood, that which is the freshest, most ponderous, and darkest coloured, is the best; the largest pieces are to be preferred too; and the best method is to split them as wanted, for the finer parts are apt to scale when the raspings or chips are kept. In rasping the resin, prefer those pieces which have parts of the bark adhering to them, and that easily separate therefrom by a quick blow. The resin is sometimes mixed with the gum of the manchineal tree; but this is easily detected by dissolving a little in spirit of wine or rum. The true gum imparts a whitish or milky tinge, but the manchineal gives a greenish cast. Mouch advises a few drops of *spirit. nitri dulc.* to be added to the spiritous solution, and then to be diluted with water, by which the gum will be precipitated in a blue powder; and the adulteration will appear floating in white fæces, &c. Guaiacum was first introduced into Europe as a remedy for the venereal disease, in 1508. It was attended with great success in slight affections, but failed where the disease was deep seated; and was at length superseded by mercury, which it now only serves occasionally as an adjuvant in the *decottum lignorum*, of which guaiacum is the chief ingredient. It is esteemed a warm stimulating medicine; strengthening the stomach and other viscera, and remarkably promoting the urinary and cuticular discharges: hence, in cutaneous desquations, and other disorders proceeding

from obstructions of the excretory glands, and where sluggish serous humours abound, it is useful; rheumatic and other pains have often been relieved by it. It is also laxative. The resin is the most active principle in the drugs compounded with it. The resin is extracted from the wood in part by water, but much more perfectly by spirits. The watery extract, kept in the shops, proves considerably weaker than that made with spirit. This last extract is of the same quality with the native resin, and differs from that brought to us only in being purer. The gum or extracts are given from a few grains to a scruple or half a dram, which last dose proves for the most part considerably purgative. The official preparations of guaiacum are an extract of the wood, a solution of the gum in rectified spirit of wine, a solution in volatile spirit, and an empyreumatic oil distilled from the wood. The resin dissolved in rum, or combined with water, by mucilage or the yolk of an egg, or in form of the volatile tincture or elixir, is employed in gout and chronic rheumatism. The tincture or elixir has been given to the extent of half an ounce twice a-day, and is sometimes usefully combined with laudanum.

3. *GUAIACUM SANCTUM*, with many pairs of obtuse lobes, hath many small lobes placed along the mid rib by pairs of a darker green colour than those of the foregoing sort. The flowers are produced in loose bunches towards the end of the branches, and are of a fine blue colour, with petals fringed on the edges. This species is also a native of the West India islands, where it is called *bastard lignum vite*. It may be propagated like the last.

\* *GUAIAVA*. See *GUAVA*.

*GUAIRA*, a prov. of S. America, in Paraguay.

*GUALATA*, a kingdom of Africa.

*GUALDO*, a town of Italy, in Ancona, 8 miles NW. of Nocera. It was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1751. Lon. 12. 43. E. Lat. 43. 6. N.

(1.) *GUALEOR*, } or *Gosualier*, a province of  
(1.) *GUALIOR*, } Asia, situated in the middle of Indostan.

(2.) *GUALIOR*, or *GUALEOR*, a large town of the above province, with a celebrated fortress of great strength. By the nearest rout, it is upwards of 800 miles from Calcutta, and 910 by the ordinary one; and about 280 from the British frontiers. In the ancient division of the empire it is classed in the Soubah of Agra, and is often mentioned in history. In the year 1008, and during the two following centuries, it was thrice reduced by famine. It must in all ages have been deemed a military post of consequence, both from its situation in respect to the capital, and from the peculiarity of its site. It stands on the principal road from Agra to Malwa, Guzerat, and the Deccan; near the place where it enters the hilly tract which advances from Bundelcund, Malwa, and Agimere, along the banks of the Jumnah. From all these circumstances, together with its natural and acquired advantages as a fortress, the possession of it was deemed of the utmost importance by the emperors of Indostan. Its palace was used as a state prison as early as 1317, and continued to be such until the downfall of the empire. On the dismemberment of the empire, Gualeor appears to have

have fallen to the lot of a rajah of the Jat tribe; who assumed the government of the district in which it is situated, under the title of Rana of Gohud. Since that period it has changed masters more than once; the Mahrattas, whose dominions extend to the neighbourhood of it, having sometimes possessed it, and at other times the Rana: but the means of transfer were always either famine or treachery, nothing like a siege having ever been attempted. Gualcor was in the possession of Madajee Scindia, a Mahratta chief, in 1779, when the council-general of Bengal concluded an alliance with the Rana; in consequence of which, 4 battalions of sepoy, of 500 men each, and some pieces of artillery, were sent to his assistance, his district being over-run by the Mahrattas, and himself almost shut up in his fort of Gohud. The grand object of his alliance was to penetrate into Scindia's country, and to draw Scindia himself from the western side of India, where he was attending the motions of gen. Godard, then employed in the reduction of Guzerat; it being Mr Hastings's idea, that when Scindia found his own dominions in danger, he would detach himself from the confederacy, of which he was the principal member, and thus leave matters open for an accommodation with the court of Poonah. Major William Popham was appointed to the command of the little army sent to the Rana's assistance; and being very successful, in clearing his country of the enemy, and driving them out of one of their own most valuable districts, was advised by Mr Hastings to attempt the reduction of the fort. Captain Jonathan Scott, then Persian interpreter to major Popham, in a letter to his brother, major John Scott, thus describes the fort and the occasion of its capture: "The fort of Gualcor stands on a vast rock of about four miles in length, but narrow, and of unequal breadth, and nearly flat at the top. The sides are so steep as to appear almost perpendicular in every part; for where it was not naturally so, it has been scraped away; and the height from the plain below is from 200 to 300 feet. The rampart conforms to the edge of the precipice all round; and the only entrance to it is by steps running up the side of the rock, defended on the side next the country by a wall and bastions, and farther guarded by 7 stone gateways, at certain distances from each other. The area within is full of noble buildings, reservoirs of water, wells, and cultivated land; so that it is really a little district in itself. At the NW. foot of the mountain is the town, pretty large, and well built; the houses all of stone. To have besieged this place would be vain, for nothing but a surprize or blockade could have carried it. A tribe of banditti from the district of the Rana had been accustomed to rob about this town, and once in the dead of night had climbed up the rock and got into the fort. This intelligence they had communicated to the Rana, who often thought of availing himself of it, but was fearful of undertaking an enterprize of such moment with his own troops. At length he informed major Popham of it, who sent a party of the robbers to conduct some of his own spies to the spot." They accordingly climbed up in the night of the 3d of August, found the guards asleep, and thus, meeting with little resist-

ance, in the space of two hours, this important and astonishing fortress was completely reduced, with the loss of only 1 man killed and 20 wounded. On the side of the enemy, Bapoge, the governor, was killed, and most of the principal officers wounded. Thus fell the strongest fortress in Indostan, garrisoned by a chosen body of 1200 men, on the 4th Aug. 1780; and which, before the capture of it by the British, was promised by the princes of Indostan, to be impregnable. In 1783, Madajee Scindia besieged this fortress, then possessed by the Rana of Gohud, with an army of 70,000 men, and effected the reduction by the treachery of one of the Rana's officers, who executed the plan of admission of a party of Scindia's troops: These were immediately supported by another party, who attacked an opposite quarter, and got admission also. Gualcor is 8 miles from Reypour, 80 S. of Agra, and 130 from the Ganges. Lon. 78. 26. E. Lat. 26. 14. N.

GUALTEIRI, or } a town of the Cisalpine re-  
GUALTERO, } public, in the dept. of Cos-  
tolo, and late duchy of Reggio, 13 miles N. of Reggio.

GUAM, or GUAHAN, the largest of the LADRONE islands. It is about 120 miles in circumference; and is the only one among the innumerable islands in the South Sea, which has a town built in the European style, with a regular fort, a church, and civilized inhabitants. The air is excellent, the water good, and the garden stuff and fruits are exquisite; the flocks of Buffins, goats, hogs, and all kinds of poultry are innumerable. There is no port in which scorbutic fevers can be more speedily restored, or find better or more plentiful refreshments, than in this, tho' it did not originally enjoy this abundance. When first discovered by Magellan in 1521, with the other eight principal islands that lie N. of it, they were all crowded with inhabitants, but afforded no refreshment to navigators, except fish, bananas, coconuts and bread-fruit; and even these could not be procured but by force, amidst the showers of arrows and lances of the natives. The Spaniards carried thither from America the first stock of cattle, swine, plants, seeds, fruits, and garden stuffs which are all now found in such abundance. The Ladron islands were covered with inhabitants when they were discovered. See LADRONE. Guam alone contained upon its coasts more than 20,000 people. These men were ferocious savages and bold thieves; but so incapable of supporting the yoke of civilization, that the Spaniards have seen them almost annihilated within two centuries. These fierce islanders, after having long defended, by cruel wars, the right of living like wild beasts, being at last obliged to yield to the Spanish arms, took the resolution of administering poisons to their women, to procure abortions, and to render them sterile, that they might not bring into the world beings that were not free, according to the ideas that they had of liberty. This desperate resolution was persisted in with so much obstinacy in the 9 Ladron islands, that their population, which at the time of the discovery consisted of more than 60,000 souls, does not now exceed 900 in the whole archipelago. About 30 or 40 years ago, the remains of the original natives were collected and established

the island of Guam. The principal settlement, which the Spaniards call *San Juan*, is situated about twelve miles NE. of the place, on the shore, at the foot of a beautiful well-watered country, smaller settlements of Indians round the shore, composed of 5 or 6 families cultivate fruits and grain, and engage in fishing. The centre of the island is uncleared. The trees are fit for canoes and boats. The forests are very thick, and the Spaniards at first cleared certain portions to turn them into savannahs for feed; they sow these spots with grass seeds, and digenous plants fit for pasturage. The woods being shaded on all sides, prevent the sun from the great heat of noon. The multiplied astonishingly, and having must be shot when wanted, or taged. The woods are also full of wild fowls. The flesh of all these animals is excellent. In the savannahs and forests, a multitude of pigeons, paroquets, and other birds, &c. Among the indigenous plants remarkable are, the cocoa-nut and sugar-cane. The woods also abound with oranges, plantanes, citrons, lemons, and other fruits. The thorny china orange with red flowers, as many of these trees are in flower, they perfume the air with a pleasant smell, and delight the eye with the most beautiful colours. The rivers of Guam, which run in rivulets or torrents, abound in fish; Turtle grow here as large as in the West Indies, but are not eaten either by the Spaniards. The crops cultivated are, indigo, cotton, cocoa, and sugar-cane; the former is of astonishing fertility; it is a plant of 12 feet high, bearing 8 or 9 to 10 inches long, well filled with the pulp of mangoes. The former is one of the finest fruits in the world; it was brought from Manilla, and is now brought to Guam from Manilla, and is from Acapulco. The land rises gradually from the shore towards the centre by a plain, but is not very mountainous. It is said, that the soil is equally rich over the whole island, except in the north, which forms a peninsula almost entirely barren. But the rest abounds with rice in the interior part of the country, Ensenada, many springs of fine water are in basins of pure water, which, beneath thick trees, preserve a most agreeable temperature, in spite of the heat of the climate. The inhabitants are such as they were discovered by Magellan; of short stature, rather dark, and in general dirty, though much improved by the Spaniards. The women are handsome, well proportioned, and of a reddish colour. Both sexes have become gentle, honest, and the men drink freely of the wine of the country. They are fond of music, dancing, and sports. Lon. 7. 50. W. Lat. 13. 0. S. **GUAM**, a district of Peru.

**GUAMANCA**, or } a province of Peru, which  
(1.) **GUAMANGA**, } begins 240 miles NE. of Lima, and extends along the centre of the Cordilleras. The air is temperate; the soil fertile; and the mines abound with gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, loadstone, and sulphur.

(2.) **GUAMANGA**, the capital of the above province, with a bishop's see. It is remarkable for its manufactures. The houses are all built of stone and covered with slates. Lon. 7. 50. W. Lat. 13. 0. S.

**GUAMAN-VILLAS**, a fertile district of Peru, in Lima, 21 miles from Guamanga.

**GUANAHAMI**, or *Cat Island*, one of the **Bahamas**, memorable for having been the first part of the New World, discovered by **COLUMBUS**, in 1492.

**GUANANDO**, a town of Peru, which was destroyed by an earthquake, in Feb. 1797.

**GUANA-PATINA**, a volcano of Peru, in the valley of Quilea, near Arequipa. An eruption from it, in 1600, attended with an earthquake, laid Arequipa in ruins.

**GUANCABELICA**. See **GUANZABELICA**.  
**GUANCHACO**, a sea port of Peru, 6 miles N. of Truxillo. Lat. 8. 6. S.

**GUANCHES**. See **CANARY**, § 9.  
**GUANDAGNANO**, a town of Maritime Austria, in Friuli, 29 miles NW. of Friuli.

**GUANUCO**, a rich and handsome town of S. America, capital of a district of the same name, in the audience of Lima. Lon. 72. 55. W. Lat. 9. 55. S.

**GUANZABELICA**, a town of S. America in Peru, and in the audience of Lima. It abounds in mines of quicksilver. Lon. 71. 59. W. Lat. 12. 40. S.

**GUARA**, a town of Peru, between Truxillo and Lima.

(1.) \* **GUARANTEE**. *n. f.* [*garant*, French.] A power who undertakes to see stipulations performed.—God, the great *guarantee* for the peace of mankind, where laws cannot secure it, may think it the concern of his providence. *South*.—A prince distinguished by being a patron of Protestants, and *guarantee* of the Westphalian treaty. *Addis. on the War*.—An oath is a promise made to God, and God is our superior, superior to kings. And he is also the *guarantee* and avenger of all breach of faith and injustice. *Lesley*.

(2.) **GUARANTEE**, or **WARRANTEE**, in law, a term signifying him whom the warranter undertakes to indemnify or secure from damage. See **WARRANTY**.

(3.) **GUARANTEE**, or } in matters of polity, the  
**GUARANTY**, } engagement of neutral states, whereby they plight their faith that certain treaties shall be inviolably observed, or that they will make war against the aggressor.

\* **To GUARRANTY**. *v. a.* [*garantir*, French.] To undertake to secure the performance of any articles.

**GUARCHI**, a fertile district of Peru, 18 miles E. of Lima, extending 120 miles along the Cordillera.

(1.) \* **GUARD**. *n. f.* [*garde*, French; *ward*, Teutonick.] 1. A man, or body of men, whose business is to watch by way of defence or preven-



er, had their *guards* and spies, after the practice of tyrants. *Swift*. 2. A state of caution; a state of vigilance.—The great alteration which he made in the state ecclesiastical, caused him to stand upon his *guard* at home. *Davies*.—Femery puts a man off his *guard*. *L'Est*.—It is wisdom to keep ourselves upon a *guard*. *L'Est*.—

Now he stood collected and prepar'd;

For malice and revenge had put him on his *guard*. *Dryden*.

—Others are cooped in close by the strict *guards* of those whose interest it is to keep them ignorant. *L'Est*.—Men are always upon their *guard* against an appearance of design. *Smalridge*. 3. Limitation; anticipation of objection; caution of expression.—They have expressed themselves with as few *guards* and restrictions as I. *Atterb*. 4. An ornamental hem, lace, or border. Obsolete. 5. Part of the hilt of a sword.

(2.) **GUARD**, in a general sense, signifies the defence or preservation of any thing; the act of observing what passes, to prevent surprise; or the care used to prevent any thing from happening contrary to our intentions or inclinations.

(3.) **GUARD**, in fencing, a posture proper to defend the body from the sword of the antagonist.

(4.) **GUARD**, in the military art, is a duty performed by a body of men, to secure an army or place from being surprised by an enemy. In garrison the guards are relieved every day: hence every soldier mounts guard once every day in time of peace, and much oftener in time of war. See **HONOURS**.

(5.) **GUARD, ADVANCED, OF VAN-GUARD**. See **ADVANCE-GUARD**.

(6.) **GUARD, ARTILLERY**. See **ARTILLERY**, No 2.

(7.) **GUARD, ARTILLERY QUARTER**. is fre-

in good order; where, at drawn up, the small guard respective posts: then the for their guards, who are: of the captain of the mounts in garrison at the governor pleases.

(14.) **GUARD, PIQUET**, foot, always in readiness; horses are generally saddled. The foot draw up at lion, frequently at the bear afterwards return to their themselves in readiness to to resist in case of an attack ready.

(15.) **GUARD, PROVOST** guard that attends the prisoner to prevent desertion, &c. See **PROVOST**.

(16.) **GUARD, QUARTER** commanded by a subaltern officer of each battalion, 222 feet regiment.

(17.) **GUARD, REAR**, which brings up the rear composed of all the old guards. The rear-guard of a part about 500 paces behind guard going out upon a guard in their retreat. The corporal's guard placed in the keep good order.

(18.) **GUARD, STAND** a corporal, out of each mount on foot in the front the distance of 20 feet from the main street.

gow. The first regiment is at present commanded by 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 3 majors, 23 captains, 1 captain lieutenant, 31 lieutenants, and 24 ensigns; and contains 3 battalions. The 2d. regiment has 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 3 majors, 14 captains, 1 captain lieutenant, 18 lieutenants, 16 ensigns; and contains only 2 battalions. The 3d. regiment is the same as the 2d.

**II. GUARDS, HORSE,** in Britain, are gentlemen chosen for their bravery, to be entrusted with the guard of the king's person; and were formerly divided into 4 troops named numerically. The 1st. troop was raised in 1660, and the command given to lord Gerard; the 2d. in 1661, and the command given to Sir Philip Howard; the 3d. in 1693, and the command given to earl Feverham; the 4th. in 1792, and the command given to earl Newburgh. Each troop had 1 colonel, 2 lieutenant-colonels, 1 cornet and major, 1 guidon and major, 2 exempts and captains, 4 brigadiers and lieutenants, 1 adjutant, 4 sub-brigadiers and cornets, and private men. But the 4 troops are now turned into 2 regiments of life-guards.

**I. GUARDS, HORSE GRENADIER,** are divided into 2 troops. The 1st. troop was raised in 1693, and the command given to lieutenant-general Cholmondeley; the 2d. in 1702, and the command given to lord Forbes. Each troop has 1 colonel, 1 lieutenant-colonel, 1 guidon or major, 3 exempts, 3 captains, 3 lieutenants, 1 adjutant, 3 cornets, 60 private men.

**III. GUARD, YEOMEN OF THE,** were first raised by Henry VII. in 1485. They are a kind of pompadour foot-guards to the king's person; and are generally called by a nickname the *Beef-Eaters*. They were anciently 250 men of the first rank under the king; and of larger stature than ordinary, each being required to be 6 feet high. At present there are but 100 in constant duty, and 70 more not on duty; and when any one of the 100 dies, his place is supplied out of the 70. They go dressed after the manner of king Henry VIII's time. Their first commander or captain was the earl of Oxford, and their pay is 2s. 6d. per day.

**11.) GUARDS, EXTRAORDINARY,** or detachments, are only commanded on particular occasions; either for the security of the camp, to cover foragers, or for convoys, escorts, or expeditions.

**12.) GUARDS, ORDINARY,** such as are fixed in the campaign, and relieved daily.

**13.) GUARDS, THE LATE FRENCH,** were divided into those within, and those without, the king. The first were the *gardes du corps*, or body-guards; which consisted of 4 companies, the 1st of which was anciently Scots. See § 24. The 2d. without were the *Gens d'Armes*, light horse, squeteers, and two other regiments, the one of which was French and the other Swiss.

**14.) GUARDS, THE SCOTS,** a celebrated band, which formed the 1st. company of the ancient *des du corps* of France. During the ancient intercourse between France and Scotland, the Scots often distinguished themselves in the service of the French. On this foundation the company of the guards, and that of Scots gendarmes, were instituted by Charles VII. of France; by whom the first standing-army in Europe was formed, in 1418. See GENDARMES, § 3. Valour, honour, and fidelity, must have been very conspicuous features in the national character of the Scots, when so great and civilized a people as the French could be induced to choose a body of them, foreigners as they were, to guard the persons of their sovereigns. Of the particular occasion and reasons of this predilection, we have a recital by Lewis XII. After setting forth the services which the Scots had performed for Charles VII. in expelling the English out of France, and reducing the kingdom to his obedience, he adds—"Since which reduction, and for the service of the Scots upon that occasion, and for the great loyalty and virtue which he found in them, he selected 200 of them for the guard of his person, of whom he made 100 men at arms, and 100 life-guards: And the 100 men at arms are the 100 lances of our ancient ordinances; and the life-guard men are those of our guard, who still are near and about our person." (*Seyfil's Hist. of Louis XII.*) As to their fidelity in this honourable station, Claud Seyfil says, "The French have so ancient a friendship and alliance with the Scots, that of 400 men appointed for the king's life-guard, there are 100 of the said nation who are the nearest to his person, and in the night keep the keys of the apartment where he sleeps. There are, moreover, 100 complete lances and 200 yeomen of the said nation, besides several that are dispersed through the companies: And for so long a time as they have served in France, never hath there been one of them found that hath committed or done any fault against the kings or their state; and they make use of them as of their own subjects." The ancient privileges of the Scottish life-guards were very honourable; especially of the 24 first. The author of the *Ancient Alliance*, says, "On high holidays, at the ceremony of the royal touch, the erection of knights of the king's order, the reception of extraordinary ambassadors, and the public entries of cities, there must be six of their number next to the king's person, three on each side; and the body of the king must be carried by these only, wheresoever ceremony requires. They have the keeping of the keys of the king's lodging at night, the keeping of the choir of the chapel, the keeping of the boats where the king passes the rivers; and they have the honour of bearing the white silk fringe in their arms, which in France is the *couronne couleur*. The keys of all the cities where the king makes his entry are given to their captain, in waiting or out of waiting. He has the privilege, in waiting or out of waiting, at ceremonies, such as coronations, marriages, and funerals of the kings, and at the baptism and marriage of their children, to take duty upon him. The coronation robe belongs to him; and this company, by the death or change of a captain, never changes its rank, as do the three others." This company's first commander, who is recorded as a person of great valour and military accomplishments, was Robert Patillock, a native of Dundee; and the band continued in great reputation till 1578. From that period, the Scots guards were less attended to, and their privileges came to be invaded. In 1612, they remonstrated to Louis XIII. on the injustice they had suffered, and set before him the services they had rendered to the crown of France. Attempts were made to

and fidelity, must have been very conspicuous features in the national character of the Scots, when so great and civilized a people as the French could be induced to choose a body of them, foreigners as they were, to guard the persons of their sovereigns. Of the particular occasion and reasons of this predilection, we have a recital by Lewis XII. After setting forth the services which the Scots had performed for Charles VII. in expelling the English out of France, and reducing the kingdom to his obedience, he adds—"Since which reduction, and for the service of the Scots upon that occasion, and for the great loyalty and virtue which he found in them, he selected 200 of them for the guard of his person, of whom he made 100 men at arms, and 100 life-guards: And the 100 men at arms are the 100 lances of our ancient ordinances; and the life-guard men are those of our guard, who still are near and about our person." (*Seyfil's Hist. of Louis XII.*) As to their fidelity in this honourable station, Claud Seyfil says, "The French have so ancient a friendship and alliance with the Scots, that of 400 men appointed for the king's life-guard, there are 100 of the said nation who are the nearest to his person, and in the night keep the keys of the apartment where he sleeps. There are, moreover, 100 complete lances and 200 yeomen of the said nation, besides several that are dispersed through the companies: And for so long a time as they have served in France, never hath there been one of them found that hath committed or done any fault against the kings or their state; and they make use of them as of their own subjects." The ancient privileges of the Scottish life-guards were very honourable; especially of the 24 first. The author of the *Ancient Alliance*, says, "On high holidays, at the ceremony of the royal touch, the erection of knights of the king's order, the reception of extraordinary ambassadors, and the public entries of cities, there must be six of their number next to the king's person, three on each side; and the body of the king must be carried by these only, wheresoever ceremony requires. They have the keeping of the keys of the king's lodging at night, the keeping of the choir of the chapel, the keeping of the boats where the king passes the rivers; and they have the honour of bearing the white silk fringe in their arms, which in France is the *couronne couleur*. The keys of all the cities where the king makes his entry are given to their captain, in waiting or out of waiting. He has the privilege, in waiting or out of waiting, at ceremonies, such as coronations, marriages, and funerals of the kings, and at the baptism and marriage of their children, to take duty upon him. The coronation robe belongs to him; and this company, by the death or change of a captain, never changes its rank, as do the three others." This company's first commander, who is recorded as a person of great valour and military accomplishments, was Robert Patillock, a native of Dundee; and the band continued in great reputation till 1578. From that period, the Scots guards were less attended to, and their privileges came to be invaded. In 1612, they remonstrated to Louis XIII. on the injustice they had suffered, and set before him the services they had rendered to the crown of France. Attempts were made to

re-establish them on their ancient foundation; but no negotiation for this purpose was effectual. The troops of France grew jealous of the honours paid them: the death of Francis II. and the return of Q. Mary to Scotland, at a time when they had much to hope, were unfortunate circumstances to them: the change of religion in Scotland, was an additional blow: and the accession of James VI. to the throne of England, diminished altogether the interests of France and Scotland. The Scots guards of France had therefore, latterly, no connection with Scotland but the name.

(1.) \* *To GUARD*, *v. a.* [*garder*, Fr. from our word *ward*, the *w* being changed by the French into *g*; as *Gales* for *Wales*.] 1. To watch by way of defence and security. 2. To protect; to defend.

Naked the graces *guarded* you from all Dangers abroad, and now your thunder shall.

*Miller.*

Your pow'r you never use, but for defence, *To guard* your own or other's innocence. *Dryd.* Fix'd on defence, the Trojans are not slow

*To guard* their shore from an expected foe. *Dryd.*—The port of Genoa is very ill *guarded* against the storms. *Addison on Italy.* 3. To preserve by caution.—One would take care to *guard* one's self against this particular imperfection, because it is that which our nature very strongly inclines us to. *Addison's Spectator.* 4. To provide against objections.—Homer has *guarded* every circumstance with as much caution as if he had been aware of the objection. *Broome on Odyssey.* 5. To adorn with lists, laces, or ornamental borders. Obsolete.

Give him a livery

More *guarded* than his fellows. *Shakspeare.* See a fellow

In a long motely, *guarded* with yellow. *Shakspeare.*

(2.) \* *To GUARD*, *v. n.* To be in state of caution or defence.—There are cases, in which a man must *guard*, if he intends to keep fair with the world, and turn the penny. *Colley.*—To *guard* against such mistakes, it is necessary to acquaint ourselves a little with words. *Hart's Lexicon.*

(1.) GUARDIA, a town of Spain on the W. coast of Galicia, 15 miles WSW. of Tuy.

(2.) GUARDIA, or GUARDIA, a strong city of Portugal, in the province of Beira, and bishop's see, containing 2000 inhabitants, a cathedral, and 4 churches. It is 10 miles S.W. of Almeida, and 133 E. of Lisbon. Lon. 6. 57. W. Lat. 40. 22. N.

GUARDIA, a cape of Africa, on the E. extremity of Aden, at the entrance of the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb. Lon. 52. 5. E. Lat. 11. 40. N.

\* GUARDIAN, *v. n.* [*from guard*.] State of wind up. *Newton.*

And if so tender, fair, and happy,

Run from your *guardians* to the forty below  
Of such a kind as this. *Shakspeare, Othello.*

GUARDIA-MAR, a seaport town of Spain, in Valentia, on the Segura, 17 miles SSW. of Alcala. Lon. 1. 10. E. of Terrent. Lat. 38. 7. N.

GUARDAGLIA, a town of Romagna, in Romagna.

GUARDASUOLA, a town of Parma, 12 miles S. of Parma.

GUARDAVALLE, a town of Naples, in Calabria, 12 miles S. of Squillace.

GUARDIAN, *v. n.* appointed to row the boats, or to manage the ships of war which are laid up

in any harbour, &c. to observe that they keep a good looking-out, calling to the boat as she passes, and not suffering her to come on board, without having previously communicated the watch-word of the night.

\* GUARDER *n. s.* One who guards.

(1.) GUARDIA, or GUARDA. See G N° 2.

(2, 3.) GUARDIA, two towns of Naples; the prov. of Basilicata, 15 miles SSE. of Pa. 2. in Calabria Ultra, 15 miles W. of Bagin.

(4, 5.) GUARDIA, two towns of Spain; the province of Alva, 15 miles S. of Vitor; in New Castile, 22 miles ESE. of Toledo.

(6.) GUARDIA ALFEREZ, a town of Naples the province of Molise, 21 miles NE. of N. Lon. 14. 56. E. Lat. 41. 49. N.

(7.) GUARDIA GIARDINO, a town of Naples the province of Molise, 15 miles NW. of N.

GUARDIAGHELE, a town of Naples, bruzzo Citra, 10 miles SSE. of Chieti.

GUARDIALLOBARD, a town of Naples Principato Ultra, 6 miles N. of Cozza.

(1.) \* GUARDIAN, *n. s.* Personating the of a kind protector or superintendent.—My ing patrols protects me unseen, like my angel; and thuns my gratitude like a fair is beautiful by stealth, and conceals the she bestows the gift. *Dryden's Ded. to Cato*

Thus shall mankind his *guardian* care  
The promis'd father of the future age.

Mean while Minerva, in her *guardian*  
Shoots from the stary vaults thro' fields

(2.) \* GUARDIAN, *n. s.* [*from guardian*.] 1. One that has the care of an orphan; it is to supply the want of parents.—I am her, as I have just cause, being her *guardian*. *Shakspeare, Much Ado*—

When perjur'd *guardians*, proud and out of joint,

Chok up the streets, too narrow for the

—Hocus, with two other of the *guardians*, it their duty to take care of the care of three girls. *Arbuckle.* 2. One to whom and preservation of any thing is committed.

I gave you all,  
Mute you my *guardians*, my depreat

But kept a reservation to be found  
With such a number. *Shakspeare.*

—It then becomes the common general have truth at heart, and more especially who are the appointed *guardians* of the faith, to be up on the watch against false

*to have.* 3. A repository or storehouse.  
Where is Duncan's body?

—Carried to Colmar, &c.  
The fixed reverence of his present  
And *guardian* of their bones. *Shakspeare.*

(3.) GUARDIAN, in law, 1. a person one who has the custody and care of persons as have not sufficient due to care of themselves, and their estates, and effects. The *guardian* is entitled to the profits of the minor's lands, and to account for the same, at the end of a within a reasonable time, and to convert

money, unless the minor is near of age, at such things himself; and to pay in: money in his hands, that might have ed out; in which case it will be pre- the guardian made use of it himself. ain the lands of the heir, without ma- tion of any thing thereon, and to keep in: if he commits waste on the lands, ure of the guardianship: 3 Edward I. persons, as guardians, hold over any it the consent of the person who is, they shall be adjudged trespassers, accountable: 6 Ann. c. 17. xviii.

DIAN OF THE CINQUE PORTS. See

EDIAN OF THE SPIRITUALITIES. He spiritual jurisdiction of any diocese is during the vacancy of the see. He r guardian in law, or *jure magistratus*, thop is of any diocese wthin his pro- aridian by delegation, as he whom the r vicar-general doth for the time de-

IANSHIP. *n. f.* [from *guardian*.] The iardian.—The curate stretched his pa- cure of souls, to a kind of tutelary over goods and chattels. *L'Espr.*— ue, not only in losses and indignities rself, but also in the case of trust, re offered to others who are commit- care and *guardianship*. *Kittlowell.*— ie first who established the particu- us, assigning to himself the *guardian-* laws, and chief commands in war.

ARA, a river of Spain which rises in , runs through the provinces of La Etremaadura; then enters Portugal W. of Badajoz, and after running province of Alentejo, falls into the veen Ayamonte and Castromarin.

LESS. *adj.* [from *guard*.] Without

ie *guardless* herd, their keeper slain, yger in the Lybian plain. *Waller.* nd, *guardless* and undefended, mult een a double incitement. *South.*

RDO, a town of Spain, in the pro- n, 40 miles ENE. of Leon.

ARDO. See GOVARDO, N° 1, and 2.

ARDSHIP. *n. f.* [from *guard*.] 1.

es'd am I, by such a man led! use wise and careful *guardship* site fatigue and hardship. *Swift.* d *ship*.] A king's ship to guard the

ARD-SHIP, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is a vessel of d to superintend the marine in a har- and to see that the ships which are not d have their proper watchward kept ding her guard-boats around them e- She is also to receive seamen who are the time of war.

, in botany; a genus of the monogy- belonging to the octandria class of e calyx is quadrifid; the petals four; n cylindrical, having the antheræ in its

mouth; the capsule is quadrilocular and quadri- valvular; the seeds solitary.

GUARGALA, or GUPGUELA, a town of A- frica, and capital of a small kingdom of the same name, in Biledulgerid, S. of Mount Atlas. Lon. 9. 55. E. Lat. 28. 0. N.

GUARIBA, in natural history, a species of monkey found in the West Indies. See SIMIA.

(1.) GUARINI, Guarino, a native of Verona, descended of an illustrious family, famous for having been the first who taught Greek after the restoration of letters. He had acquired that language at Constantinople. He died in 1460.

(2.) GUARINI, John Baptist, a celebrated Ita- lian poet, grandson to the preceding (N° 1.) born at Ferrara, in 1537. He was secretary to Alphon- so D. of Ferrara, who intrusted him with several important commissions. After the death of that prince, he was successively secretary to Vincent de Gonzaga, to Ferdinand de Medicis grand D. of Tuscany, and to Francis Maria de Feltri duke of Urbino. He was well acquainted with polite literature; and acquired immortal reputation by his Italian poems, especially by his *Pastor Fido*, the most admired of all his works, and of which there have been innumerable editions and transla- tions. He died in 1611.

GUARMA, or } a sea port of Peru, with a GUARMOY, } good harbour, about 130 miles NW. of Lima. Lon. 77. 49. W. Lat. 10. 10. S.

GUASCO, a river of S. America in Chili.

GUASTALIA, or } a strong town of the Cisal- GUASTEELLA, } pine republic, in the dep- of Mincio, and ci-devant duchy of Mantua, re- markable for a battle between the French and Im- perialists in 1734; wherein the latter were defeat- ed, with the loss of 5000 men. It is seated near the Po, at the junction of the Crostolo and the Tagliata, 15 miles N. of Reggio. Lon. 10. 33. E. Lat. 44. 55. N.

GUASTO, or VASTO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citia, on the coast of the Adriatic, be- tween the mouths of the Trigno and Afiello, 15 miles SE. of Lanciano. Lon. 15. 6. E. Lat. 42. 29. N.

GUATAVITA, a lake of Terra Firma.

(1.) GUATIMALA, an Audience of N. Ame- rica, in New Spain, above 750 miles in length, and 450 in breadth. It abounds in chocolate, which they use instead of money. It has 12 pro- vinces under it; and the native Americans, under the dominions of Spain, profess Christianity, but it is mixed with many of their own superstitions. There is a great chain of high mountains, which run across it from E. to W. and it is subject to earthquakes and storms. It is however, very fer- tile; and produces great quantities of cochineal, cotton, cocoa nuts, &c.

(2.) GUATIMALA, a province of New Spain, in the above Audience, bounded on the W. by Soconusco, on the N. by Verapaz and Hondu- ras, on the E. by Nicaragua, and on the S. by the South Sea.

(3.) GUATIMALA, or ST JAGO DE GUATIMA- LA, a large and rich town of New Spain; capital of the above audience and province, (N° 1, and 2.) with a bishop's see, and an univerfity. It carries

on a great trade, especially in chocolate. On the 7th June 1773, it was swallowed up by an earthquake, when 8000 families perished. It has been since rebuilt at some distance from its former site. Lon. 91. 30. W. Lat. 14. 0. N.

(4.) GUATIMALA, VOLCANO OF, a burning mountain, in the above province, N<sup>o</sup> 1. Guatemala was almost ruined by it in 1541, but was afterwards rebuilt at a good distance from this dreadful mountain. Its eruptions added much to the horror of the earthquake in 1773.

(1.) \* GUAVA. GUAIAVA. *n. f.* An American fruit. The fruit, says Sir Hans Sloane, is extremely delicious and wholesome. They have only this inconvenience, that being very astringent, they stop up the belly, if taken in great quantities. *Miller.*

(2.) GUAVA, in botany. See PSIDIUM.

(1.) GUAXACA; a province of N. America, in New Spain, which is very fertile in wheat, Indian corn, cochineal, and cassia. It is bounded by the gulph of Mexico on the N., and by the South Sea on the S. It contains mines of gold, silver, and crystal.

(2.) GUAXACA, the capital of the above province, with a bishop's see. It does not contain above 2000 inhabitants; but it is rich, and they make very fine sweet-meats and chocolate. It has several rich convents. Lon. 100. W. Lat. 17. 45. N.

GUAYÁLAS, a fertile province of Peru, commencing 150 miles NNE. of Lima, and extending along the centre of the Cordillera.

GUAYANA, a town of Terra Firma, 75 miles S. of the gulf of Paria, and 175 SE. by E. of Calabeza.

GUAYAQUIL. See GUIAQUIL.

GUAYLES, a district of S. America, in Lima, W. of Guamailés, abounding in cattle.

GUAYNAMOTA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Guadalaxara, 70 miles NW. of Guadalaxara.

GUAYRA, a town and district of S. America, in the province of La Plata, bounded by Brasil on the E. and Paraguay on the W.

GUBBIO, GUBIO, or EUGUBIO, a town of Italy, in the territory of the church, and in the duchy of Urbino, with a bishop's see, 82 miles N. of Rome. Lon. 12. 41. E. Lat. 43. 18. N.

GUBEL, a town of Bohemia.

GUBEN, a handsome town of Germany, in Lower Lusatia, seated on the Neisse, and belonging to the house of Saxe-Merlenburg, 62 miles NE. of Dresden. Lon. 14. 59. E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

GUBER, a kingdom of Africa, in Negroland, surrounded with high mountains. The villages, which are numerous, are inhabited by shepherds. There are also many artificers, and linen-weavers, who send their commodities to Tombuto. The whole country is overflowed annually by the Niger, and at that time the inhabitants sow their rice. There is one town which contains about 6000 families, among whom are many merchants.

\* GUBERNATION. *n. f.* [*gubernatio*, Lat.] Government; superintendency; superiour direction.—Perhaps there is little of nothing in the government of the kingdoms of nature and grace, but

what is transacted by the man Jesus, imbu'd with the divine power and wisdom, and employed as a medium or conscious instrument of this *gubernation*. *Watts.*

GUBIO. See GUBBIO.

GUDENSBERG, a town of Germany, Cassel, 4 miles NNE. of Fritzlar, and Cassel.

(1.) \* GUDGEON. *n. f.* [*goujon*, Fr.] A small fish found in brooks and rivers, caught, and therefore made a proverbial name for a man easily cheated.—

'Tis true, no turbets dignify my box  
But *gudgeons*, flounders, what my Turbets

2. A man easily cheated.—This he did to you in, like so many *gudgeons*, to swallow false arguments. *Swift.* 3. Something to be to a man's own disadvantage; a bait; argument: *gudgeons* being commonly used for pike.—

But fish not with this melancholy bait  
For this fool's *gudgeon*, this opinion.

(2.) GUDGEON, in ichthyology; a *cyprinus*. See CYPRINUS, N<sup>o</sup> 7. They, though small, are of a pleasant taste, and inferior to smelt. They spawn twice in a year, and their feeding is much like the barbel, in streams and on gravel, sifting all they find; but they are easily taken with a worm, fishing near the ground; and being a rather-mouthed fish, will not easily get off when struck. They may be fished for with the hook being on the ground; or by having a running line on the ground, without a float. But although the small red worm is the best bait for these fish, yet wasps, gold-cadbaits do very well. They may also be fished for with 2 or 3 hooks at once, and afford sport, where they rise any thing large. When fishing for them, stir up the sand or gravel with a long pole; this will make them gather about that place, bite faster and more eagerly.

(3.) GUDGEON, SEA. See GOAISE.

(1.) GUE, or GUE DE LONGROY, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire, NE. of Chartres, and 4 W. of Dourdan.

(2.) GUE DE VELUIRE, a town of France, in the dept. of the Vendée, 8 miles SSW. of Nantes.

GUEBERSVEIR, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Rhine, 6 miles SSW. of Colmar.

GUEBRES, or GARRÉS. See GARRÉS.

GUEBWILLER, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Rhine, 12 miles SSW. of Colmar.

GUEDALL, a river of N. Wales, in Mererthshire, which runs into the Dore.

GUEGON, a town of France, in the dept. of Morbihan, 1½ miles W. of Josselin.

(1.) GUELDERLAND, a ci-devant province of Europe, bounded on the N. by the Zuyder Zee; E. by the bishopric of Munster; S. by those of Brabant, and W. by the States of Holland. It was erected into a county by the emperor Henry IV, in 1079; and into a duchy by Lewis V, in 1339. It had dukes of it till 1528, when it was yielded to Charles V.

rters of Nimeguen, Zutphen, and ing: acceded to the union, formed the **GUELDERLAND**, N<sup>o</sup> 2. The towns of chentlonck, Stralen, &c. were ced- by the treaty of Utrecht, and the ritory of Ruremond, remained to ience came to the house of Austria. mentioned territories, called *Austrian Guelderland*, are now annexed to the **PUBLIC**: (See that article.) as well as Dutch towns of Venlo and Steven-

**GUELDERLAND**, one of the ci-devant **U-** es, which now forms the department n the Batavian republic. Its great- n N. to S. is about 47 miles, and . near as much; but its figure is ve- . The air here is much healthier and e the maritime provinces, the land . Excepting some part of the *Felwee*, iful. It is watered by the Rhine, ches, the Wahal, the Yffel, and the lesser streams. Under the old cons- s divided into 3 districts, each of s states and diets. Those for the e were held twice a year at the can- d sent 19 deputies to the states ge- are computed 285 Calvinist minis- in Catholic congregations, 4 Luthe- of Remonstrants and Anabaptists. ns are Nimeguen, Zutphen, Arn- wyk, Loo, &c. This country suf- r inundations in Feb. 1799. **GUELDERLAND, AUSTRIAN.** } See N<sup>o</sup> 1; **GUELDERLAND, PRUSSIAN.** } & **FRENCH**

**GUERES**, a strong town and district of public, in the dep. of the Roer, and by of Prussian Guelderland. It is Niers, 10 miles NW. of Venlo, and nsterdam. It was taken by the Fischegru in Oct. 1794. Lon. 6. 21. . N.

**GUERES.** See **GUELDERLAND.**  
See **GUELPHS.**

**GUERES**, a town of the French republic in ys. an late prov. of Austrian Flan- W. of Courtray. the surname of the royal family of

or **GUELFS**, a celebrated faction in sts of the **GIBELINS**. The Guelfs dled Italy with blood and carnage . The Guelfs stood for the Pope, peror. Their rise is referred by ie of Conrad III. A. D. 1139; by o- Frederic I.; and by others to that of ederic II. A. D. 1240, upon his being ed by Pope Gregory IX. But the opinion is that of Maimbourg, who two factions arose from a quarrel ncient and illustrious houses on the rmany, viz. the Henries of *Gibel-* *Guelfs* of Adorf. The name o have been formed from *Welfe*, or following occasion: the emperor aving taken the duchy of Bavaria l. brother of Henry duke of Bava-

ria, Welfe, assisted by the king of Sicily, made war on Conrad, and thus gave birth to the faction of the Guelfs. Others derive the name from the German *Wolf*, on account of the grievous evils committed by that cruel faction: others deduce the denomination from that of a German called *Guelfe*, who lived at Pistoie; adding, that his brother, named *Gibel*, gave his name to the Gibelins.

**GUEMAR**, a town of France, in the dept. of the Upper Rhine, 7 miles N. of Colmar.

**GUÉMENE**, two towns of France, 1. in the dep. of Lower Loire, 9 miles N. of Blain: 2. in that of Morbihan, 9 miles W. of Pontivy.

**GUENE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Correze, 2 miles SE. of Tulle.

**GUER**, a town of France, in the dep. of Mor- bihan, 9 miles ESE. of Ploernel.

**GUERAND**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Loire, 46 miles W. of Nantes, and 250 WSW. of Paris. Lon. 2. 20. W. Lat. 47. 20. N.

**GUERARD**, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Marne; 6 miles W. of Coulomiers.

**GUERCHE**; 3 towns of France: 1. in the dep. of Cher, 7 miles N. of Sançoins: 2. in that of Indre and Loire, 24 miles NE. of Poitiers: 3. in that of Ille and Vilaine, 10½ miles S. of Vitre.

**GUERCINO.** See **BARBIERI.**

\* **GUERDON.** *n. f.* [*guerdon, gardon, Fr.*] A reward; a recompense, in a good and bad sense. A word now no longer in use.—

But to the virgin comes, who all this while  
Amazed stands herself so mock'd to see,

By him who was the *guerdon* of his guile,  
For so misfeigning her true knight to be. *Spens.*  
—He shall, by thy revenging hand, at once re-  
ceive the just *guerdon* of all his former villainies.  
*Knolles.*—

Faire is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise  
To scorn delights, and live laborious days;  
But the lair *guerdon* when we hope to find,  
And think to burst out into sudden blaze,  
Comes the blind fury with th' abhorred sheers,  
And sits the thin-spun life. *Milton.*

**GUEREI**, a town of France, capital of the dep. of Creuse, containing 3000 citizens; seated on the Gartempe, 35 miles NE. of Limoges and 170 S. of Paris. Lon. 1. 46. E. Lat. 46. 10. N.

**GUERGUELA.** See **GUARGALA.**

**GUERICHE**, or } Otho, a native of Prussia,  
**GUERICKE**, } the most celebrated mathe-  
matician of his time, was born in 1602. He was the inventor of the air pump; and author of several works in natural philosophy, the chief of which is his *Experimenta Magdeburgica*. He died in 1686.

**GUERIGNY**, a town of France, in the dept. of Nievre, 8 miles N. of Nevers.

**GUERLESQUIN**, a town of France, in the dep. of Finisterre, 10 miles SE. of Morlaix.

**GUERMANGE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Meurte, 4 miles E. of Dieuze.

**GUERNADUAS**, a town of Cuba.

**GUERNSEY**, an island in the British channel, on the coast of the French dept. of the Channel, (ci-devant Normandy,) subject to Britain; but, as well as the adjacent islands, governed by its own laws. See **JESSAY**. It extends from E. to W. in the form of a harp, and is 13½ miles from SW. to NE.

NE. and 12½ where broadest, from E. to W. The air is very healthy, and the soil naturally more rich and fertile than that of Jersey; but the inhabitants neglect the cultivation of the land for the sake of commerce. They are, however, sufficiently supplied with corn and cattle, both for their own use and that of their ships. The island is well fortified by nature with a ridge of rocks, one of which abounds with emery, used by lapidaries in the polishing of stones, and by various other artificers. Here is a better harbour than any in Jersey, which occasions its being more resorted to by merchants; and on the S. side the shore bends in the form of a crescent, enclosing a bay capable of receiving very large ships. The island is full of gardens and orchards; whence cyder is so plentiful, that the common people use it instead of small beer, but the more wealthy drink French wine.

**GUERRICAIZ**, a town of Spain in Biscay.

**GUESCHART**, a town of France, in the dep. of Somme; 12 miles NE. of Abbeville.

\* **GUESS**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Conjecture; judgment without any positive or certain grounds.

The enemy's in view, draw up your pow'rs:  
Hard is the *guess* of their true strength and forces.

*Shak.*

—His *guess* was usually as near to prophecy as any man's. *Fell.*—

A poet must confess

His art's like phytick, but a happy *guess*. *Dryd.*  
—It is a wrong way of proceeding to venture a greater good for a less, upon uncertain *guesses*, before a due examination. *Locke.*—We may make some *guess* at the distinction of things, into those that are according to, above, and contrary to reason. *Locke.*—

This problem yet, this offspring of a *guess*,

Let us for once a child of truth confess. *Prior.*

No man is best by accident, or *guess*,

True wisdom is the price of happiness. *Young.*

(1.) \* **GUESS**. *v. v.* [*gissen*, Dutch.] 1. To conjecture; to judge without any certain principles of judgment.—

Incapable and shallow innocents!

You cannot *guess* who caus'd your father's death.

*Shak.*

Let not your ears despise my tongue for ever,  
Which shall possess them with the heaviest sound,  
That ever yet they heard.

—Hum! I *guess* at it. *Shak. Macbeth.*

—He that, by reason of his swift motions, can inform himself of all places and preparations, should he not very often *guess* rightly of things to come, where God pleaseth not to give impediment? *Raleigh's Hist.*—

There issue swarming bands

Of ambush'd men, whom, by their arms and drefs,

To be Taxellan enemies I *guess*. *Dryden.*

—The same author ventures to *guess* at the particular fate which would attend the Roman government. *Swift.*—

Nor can imagination *guess*,

How that ungrateful charming maid

My purest passion has betray'd. *Swift.*

2. To conjecture rightly, or upon some just reason.—One may *guess* by Plato's writings, that his

meaning, as to the inferiour deities, was they who would have them might, and they would not, might let them alone; but that self had a right opinion concerning the true *Stillingfleet.*

(2.) \* **TO GUESS**. *v. a.* To hit upon by accident; to determine rightly of any thing a certain direction of the judgment.—If Xerxes able to call every common soldier by his name, his army, it may be *guessed* he got not the dreadful ability by learning his lessons by heart.

\* **GUESSER**. *n. s.* [from *guess*.] Conjector; one who judges without certain knowledge; is the opinion of divers good *guessers*, that it will not be more violent than advantage. *Pope.*—

If fortune should please but to take croquet;

To thee I apply, great Smedley's success

To give thee lawn sleeves, a mitre and

Whom would'st thou resemble? I leave *guess*.

\* **GUESSINGLY**. *adv.* [from *guess*.] Conjecturally; uncertainly. Not in use.—

I have a letter *guessingly* set down.

\* **GUEST**. *n. s.* [*gast*, *gast*, Sax. *gwest*,] 1. One entertained in the house or at the table of another.—They all murmured, saying, that gone to be *guest* with a man that is a finner.

Metbinks a father

Is, at the nuptial of his son, a *guest*

That best becomes the table. *Shak. Ham.*

Tell my royal *guest*

I add to his commands my own request.

2. A stranger; one who comes newly to a place. O desarts, desarts! how fit a *guest* art thou to me, since my heart can people you with wild beasts, which in you are wanting? *Lucy.*

Those happiest smiles

That play'd on her ripe lip, seem'd not  
What *guests* were in her eyes; when parted  
As pearls from diamonds dropt.

\* **GUESTCHAMBER**. *n. s.* [*gast* and *chamber*.] Chamber of entertainment.—Where is the *chamber*, where I shall eat the passover with my disciples? *Mark* xiv. 14.

\* **GUESTRIE**. *n. s.* [from *gast* and *rie*.] A dinner due to a *guest*.—

Ulysses so dear

A gift esteem'd it, that he would not  
In his black fletee that *guest-rie* to thee.

**GUETA**, a town of Spain, in New Castile.  
**GUETTARDA**, in botany; a genus of plants; and in the natural method under the 35th order, *Tricoc. 2.* The male cylindrical; the corolla cleft into 7 parts; the female calyx cylindrical; the corolla cleft into 7 parts; one pistil, and a dry plum.

**GUETTÄU**, a town of Austria, 9 miles of Freyburg.

**GULUGHON**, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire, 11 miles E. of Bourges.

**GUEUX**, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine, 6 miles W. of Rheims.

**GUFFIN**. See **GIFEN**.



**GUGGLE**, *v. n.* [*gorgoliarr*, Ital.] To run water running without intermission out of a row mouthed vessel.

**HLINGEN**, a town of Wurtemberg, on the river, 22 miles SSE. of Heidelberg.

**INECOURT**, a town of France, in the province of Vosges; 4½ miles NW. of Bruyeres.

**LADRON**, one of the LADRON ISLANDS.

**LAU**, a town of Silesia in Nieffe.

**LAU**, a town of Silesia, 5 m. NE. of Militsh.

**LAU**, 2 towns of Silesia; 1. in Glogau, 2. E. of Glogau; 2. in Nieffe, 6 miles W. of Glogau.

**GUAYANA**, a very extensive country of S. America, bounded on the E. and NE. by the Atlantic and the Oroonoko; on the S. by the Amazon and the W. by Grenada and New Andalusia Terra Firma, from which it is separated by the W. and N. by the Oroonoko. It extends 200 miles in length, from NE. to SW.; from the mouth of the Oroonoko to that of the Amazon, and from 300 to 600 in breadth. Geographers divide it into two parts, called the country along the coast *Carribbeano* and the interior *Guianu Proper*: the last is called EL DORADO by the Spaniards, on account of the immense quantity of gold it is supposed to contain. The Portuguese, French, and Dutch, have all formed settlements along the coast.

The coast between Cape North and Cape Orange is possessed by the natives. Along the coast, the land is low, marshy, and subject to inundations by the rivers which descend from the inland mountains. Hence the atmosphere is suffocating, moist, and unhealthy, especially where the woods have not been cleared away. The Europeans are forced to live in the most disagreeable huts, and fix their colonies at the mouths of the rivers, amidst stinking marshes, and the putrid exhalations of the salt morasses, for the conveniency of export and importation. The inhabitants are the natives, who are of a reddish brown; or the Europeans; or a mixed progeny of the natives in various combinations. The natives are divided into different tribes, more or less civilized and polished, as they are more remote from the settlements of the Europeans.

They allow polygamy, and have no divisions of lands. The men go to war, hunt, and fish; the women look after domestic concerns, spin, weave, and dress in their fashion, and plant cassava and maize, the only plants which are cultivated by the natives. Their arms are bows and arrows; sharp iron arrows, blown through a reed, which they use in hunting; and clubs made of a heavy wood called *Iron-wood*. They eat the dead bodies of those that are slain in war, and sell for those they take prisoners; their wars are chiefly undertaken to furnish the Europeans with slaves. All the different tribes go naked. On particular occasions they wear caps of feathers; cold is wholly unknown, they cover no part of their bodies that which distinguishes the sex. They are cheerful, humane, and friendly; but timid, when heated by liquor, and drunkenness is a common vice among them. Their houses are made of 4 stakes set up in a quadrangular form, the sides of the poles, bound together by slit nibbles,

and covered with the large leaves called *troelits*. Their life is ambulatory; and their houses, which are put up and taken down in a few hours, are all they have to carry with them. When they remove from place to place, which, as they inhabit the banks of rivers, they do by water in small canoes, a few vessels of clay made by the women, a flat stone on which they bake their bread, and a rough stone on which they grate the roots of the cassava, a hammock and a hatchet, are all their furniture and utensils; most of them, however, have a bit of looking-glass framed in paper, and a comb. Their poisoned arrows are made of splinters of a hard heavy wood, called *cacario*; they are about 12 inches long, and somewhat thicker than a coarse knitting needle: one end is formed into a sharp point; round the other is wound some cotton to make it fit the bore of the reed through which it is to be blown. They will blow these arrows 40 yards with absolute certainty of hitting the mark, and with force enough to draw blood, which is certain and immediate death. Against this poison no antidote is known. The Indians never use these poisoned arrows in war, but in hunting only, and chiefly against the monkeys; the flesh of an animal thus killed may be safely eaten, and even the poison itself swallowed with impunity. This country, except its sea coast, and lands adjacent to its rivers, has hitherto remained unknown to all but its original natives; and even of these, it is only the Dutch territories that foreigners have any knowledge of; for those of the Spaniards, French, and Portuguese, are inaccessible to them. This country, on account of the diversity and fertility of its soil, and of its vicinity to the equator, which passes through it, affords almost all the productions of the different American countries between the tropics, besides a variety peculiar to itself.

**1. GUIANA, DUTCH**, (as it has been hitherto called, though it may now be called **BRITISH**;) was first discovered by Columbus, in 1498. It lies between 7° of N. and 5° of S. lat. and between 53° and 60° of lon. W. It is bounded on the N. and E. by the Atlantic; on the W. by the Oroonoko and the Negroe; and on the S. by the Amazon. It was formerly the property of the English, who made settlements at Surinam, where a kind of corrupt English is still spoken by the negroes. The Dutch took it in the reign of Charles II, and it was ceded to them by treaty in 1674, in exchange for what they had possessed in the province, now the state of New York. It consists of 4 settlements, viz. **BERBICE**, **DEMERARA**, **ISSEQUEBO**, and **SURINAM**; which have all been taken by the British during the present war. (See these articles.) The land for 50 miles up the country from the sea-coast is flat; and, during the rainy seasons, covered 2 feet high with water. This renders it inconceivably fertile, the earth, for 12 inches deep, being a stratum of perfect manure: an attempt was once made to carry some of it to Barbadoes; but the wood ants so much injured the vessel, that it was never repeated. The excessive richness of the soil is a disadvantage, for the canes are too luxuriant to make good sugar; and therefore, the first and second crops are converted into rum. There are some trees on this part; but they are small and low,

low, consisting chiefly of a small species of palm, intermixed with a leaf near 30 feet long and 3 wide, which grows in clusters, called *Troachie*; and, at the edges of running water, with mangroves. Farther inward the country rises; and the soil, though still fertile, is less durable. It is covered with forests of valuable timber, that are always green; and there are some sandy hills, but no mountains. In this country the heat is seldom disagreeable; the trade winds by day, the land breezes in the evening, and the invariable length of the nights, with gentle dews, refresh the air, and render it temperate and salubrious. There are two wet seasons and two dry, of three months each, in the year, and during more than a month in each wet season, the rain is incessant. The dry seasons commence six weeks before the equinoxes, and continue six weeks after. The wet seasons are more wholesome than the dry, because the rains keep the waters that cover the low lands, next the sea fresh and in motion; but during the dry season it stagnates, and, as it wastes, becomes putrid, sending up very unwholesome exhalations. Blossoms, green and ripe fruit, are to be found upon the same tree in all seasons. There are some fine white and red agates in Guiana, which remain untouched; and mines of gold and silver, which the Dutch would not suffer to be wrought.

II. GUIANA, FRENCH, *Old Cayenne, or Equinocial France*, extends from Cape Orange, about 240 miles along the coast, to the Marani; where the Dutch territory begins, and extends to the mouth of the Oroonoko. This part of Guiana is said to be mountainous. The present French government have made it a receptacle for exiles. In Jan. 1801, 80 *Jacobins* were banished to it, without even the form of a trial!

III. GUIANA, PORTUGUESE, is that part of Guiana which lies S. of Cape North. It has been united to BRASIL and is now considered as part of that country.

(1.) GUIAQUIL, a river of Peru.

(2-4.) GUIAQUIL, a city, bay, and harbour of Peru, and capital of an audience of the same name. The city is two miles in extent, has 3 forts, and contains 20,000 inhabitants. Lon. 79. 15. W. Lat. 2. 9. S.

GUIARA, a sea port town of S. America, on the Caracca coast. The British attempted to take it in 1739 and 1743; but were repulsed both times. Lon. 66. 5. W. Lat. 10. 35. N.

GUIBARRA, a river of Ireland, in Donegal, which runs into the Atlantic, 13 miles N. of Ililly Begs.

(1.) GUICCIARDINI, Francis, a celebrated historian, born at Florence in 1482. He professed the civil law with reputation, and was employed in several embassies. Leo X. gave him the government of Modena and Reggio, and Clement VII. that of Romagna and Bologna. Guicciardini was also lieutenant general of the pope's army, and distinguished himself by his bravery on several occasions; but Paul III. having taken from him the government of Bologna, he retired to Florence, where he was made counsellor of state, and was of great service to the house of Medici. He at length retired into the country to write his history of Italy, which he composed in Italian, and

which comprehends what passed from 1532. This history is greatly esteemed; continued by John Baptist Adriani, who died in 1540.

(2.) GUICCIARDINI, Lewis, nephew preceding, wrote a History of the Low Countries and Memoirs of the affairs of Europe, from 1560. He wrote with great spirit a persecution of the duke d'Alva, for which he was imprisoned. He died in 1583.

GUICHE, a town of France, in the Saone and Loire, 10 miles NNE. of Chalon.

GUICQUELLAU, a town of France, dep. of Finisterre; 3 miles NW. of Lescop.

\* GUIDAGE. *n. f.* [from *guide*.] The given to a guide. *Ainsworth*.

\* GUIDANCE. *n. f.* [from *guide*.] D government.—They charge me with neglect of wiser men. *Spenser*.—As to those who lived under the guidance of reason alone, the assistance of supernatural light, it is probable that miracles, or a message from the dead, would persuade them. *Atterbury*.—A similar application must be left to Christian prayer under the guidance of God's holy spirit, who knows our necessity before we ask, and grants us assistance in asking. *Rogers*.—

This to the young—but thy experience  
Wants not the guidance of a former life  
—A prince ought not to be under the influence of either faction, because he is from his office of presiding over the whole the head of a party. *Swift*.

(1.) \* GUIDE. *n. f.* [*guide*, French, *verb.*] 1. One who directs another in a journey.—Thou gavest them a burning pillar of fire to guide them in the unknown journey. *Wisd.* 13.

Can knowledge have no bound, but advance

So far to make us wish for ignorance?  
And rather in the dark to grope our way?

Than, led by a false guide, to err by day?  
2. One who directs another in his conduct.

While yet but young, his father dy'd  
And left him to an happy guide.

—They have all the same pastoral guidelines, authorized, sanctified, and set apart by the appointment of God by the direction of the Holy Spirit, to direct and lead the people of God in the same way of eternal salvation. *Pearson*.

—Who is the guide of nature?  
—Who is the God of nature? In him we live and are. Those things which nature is fit to be done are by divine art performed, using natural instruments: nor is there any such thing as a divine nature herself working, but in the instrument of nature's work. *Hooker*.—

Some truths are not by reason to be known  
But we have sure experience for our guide.

(2.) GUIDES, in military language, are persons who direct the country people in the neighbourhood of an encampment; who give the army intelligence concerning the country, the roads by which they are to march, and the probable route of the enemy.

\* TO GUIDE. *v. a.* [*guider*, French, *verb.*] To direct in a way.—When the spirit of truth shall come, he will guide you into all truth. *Jo. xvi.*

served to *guide* them to their neighbours  
*ecay of Piety*.—Whosoever has a faithful  
*guide* him in the dark passages of life,  
his eyes in another man's head, and  
ver the worse. *South*. 2. To influence,  
refe, or such like secular maxims, when  
at the interest of this world *guides* men,  
times conclude that the slightest wrongs  
be put up. *Kettiswell*. 3. To govern  
1; to instruct.—For thy name's sake  
nd *guide* me. *Pf. xxxi*. 3. 4. To regu-  
superintend.—Women neglect that which  
signs them as their proper business, the  
the house. *Decay of Piety*.

GUIDEL, a town of France in the dep.  
te, 5 miles SE. of Quimperle.

GUIDEL, a town of France, in the dep. of  
5 miles NW. of Orient.

GUIDLESS. *adj.* [from *guide*.] Having  
wanting a governour or superintendent.  
ambitious Swede, like restless billows tost,  
in his life he blood and ruin breath'd,  
ow *guideless* kingdom peace bequeath'd.

*Dryden*.  
: fierce winds o'er dusky valleys blow,  
every puff bears empty shades away,  
*guidel's* in those dark dominions stray.

*Dryden*.  
DER. *n. s.* [from *guide*.] Director; te-  
nide; Obsolete.—

under come! to the Roman camp con-  
tus.

tion, that being provoked by excessive  
fl his dagger into his body, and there-  
of reaching his vitals, opened an im-  
the unknown cause of all his pain, and  
bed himself into perfect health and ease,  
great reason to acknowledge chance  
urgeo, and Providence for the *guder*  
l. *South*.

Alexander, an eminent Italian poet,  
via in 1650. At Rome, he attracted  
of Q. Christina of Sweden, who retain-  
er court; he also obtained a confid-  
from pope Innocent XI. and a pen-  
he duke of Parma. For a good office  
state of Milan with prince Eugene, he  
ed among the nobles and decurions of  
and died in 1712. His exterior form  
urable; he was short and crooked, his  
rge, and he was blind of his right eye.  
were published at Verona in 1716.

ZZOLO, a town of the Cisalpine re-  
the department of Miucio, and late  
fantua.

IDO ARETIN. See ARETIN, N° 2.

DO RENI. See RENI.

UIDON. *n. s.* [Fr.] A standardbearer;  
Obsolete.

GUIDON is a flag born by the king's  
broad at one extreme, and almost  
the other, and slit or divided into two  
sign or flag of a troop of horse guards.  
), § 20, N° ii.

UIDON, ( § 1. *def.* 1.) the officer who  
uidon, is that in the horse guards which  
s in the foot; and takes place next be-  
net.

PART II.

(4.) GUIDONS, [*guidones*, or *schola guidonum*,]  
were a company of priests established by Charle-  
magne, at Rome, to conduct and guide pilgrims  
to Jerusalem, to visit the holy places: they were  
also to assist them in case they fell sick, and to  
perform the last offices to them in case they died.

GUIDCRE, a river of Ireland in Donegal.

(1.) GUIENNE, the largest ci-devant province of  
France, was bounded on the N. by Saintogne,  
Angoumois, and Limosin; on the E. by Limosin,  
Auvergne, and Languedoc; on the S. by the Py-  
renees, Lower Navarre, and Berni; and on the  
W. by the ocean. It was 225 miles long and 200  
broad; and was divided into the Upper and  
Lower. This extensive province was anciently  
called AQUITAINE, and is now divided into the  
departments of Aveyron, Dordogne, Gers, Gi-  
ronde, Landes, Lot, Lot and Garonne, Lower  
and Upper Pyrenees. The principal rivers are,  
the Garonne, the Adour, the Tarn, the Aveyron,  
and the Lot. Bourdeaux was the capital.

1. GUIENNE, LOWER, contained Bourdelois, Pe-  
rigord, Agenois, Condomois, Bazadois, Landes,  
Proper Gascony, and the district of Labour.

2. GUIENNE, UPPER, comprehended Querci,  
Rouergue, Armagnac, the territory of Com-  
minges, and the county of Bigorre.

(ii.) GUIENNE, PROPER, a ci-devant province  
of France included in the above extensive province  
(N° 1.) but extending only 90 miles in length and  
80 in breadth. It now forms the departments of  
Gironde, and Lot and Garonne.

GUIFONI, a town of the French republic in  
Cortica 13½ miles S. of Corte.

GUIGNEN, a town of France, in the dep. of  
Ille and Vilaine; 18 miles NNE. of Rhedon.

GUILANDINA, the NICKAR TREE: A genus  
of the monogynia order, belonging to the decan-  
dria class of plants; and in the natural method  
ranking under the 33d order, *Lomentaceæ*. The  
calyx is monophyllous and salver-shaped; the  
petals, inserted into the neck of the calyx, nearly  
equal; the seed-vessel a legumen. There are 3  
species:

1. GUILANDINA BONDUCA, the yellow nickar.

2. GUILANDINA BONDUCELLA, the gray nickar.  
These are climbing plants, natives of the West  
Indies, where they rise to 12 or 14 feet; the  
flowers come out at the wings of the stalks; and  
are composed of 5 concave yellow petals. They  
are succeeded by pods about 3 inches long and  
two broad, closely armed with slender spines,  
opening with two valves, each inclosing two hard  
seeds about the size of childrens marbles, of a  
yellowish colour. See N° 3.

3. GUILANDINA MORINGA, the morunga nic-  
kar, is a native of Ceylon, and some places  
on the Malabar coast. It rises to 25 or 30 feet,  
having flowers produced in loose bunches from  
the sides of the branches, and composed of an un-  
equal number of petals. These plants, being na-  
tives of warm climates, require to be kept through-  
the winter in a stove in this country. They are  
propagated by seeds; but those of the BONDUCA  
are so hard, that unless they are soaked some days  
in water before they are put into the ground, or  
placed under the pots in the tan-bed to soften  
their covers, they will remain for years without

T t t t vegetating

vegetating. The roots of the Moringa are scraped when young, and used by the inhabitants of Ceylon and Malabar as those of horse-radish are in Europe. The wood dyes a beautiful blue colour. It is the *liquor nephriticum*, or nephritic wood, of the dispensatories; and is brought over in large, compact ponderous pieces, without knots, of a whitish or pale yellow colour on the outside, and dark coloured or reddish within: the bark is usually rejected. This wood imparts to water or rectified spirit a deep tincture; appearing when placed between the eye and the light, of a golden colour; in other situations blue; pieces of another wood are sometimes mixed with it, which give only a yellow colour to water. It has scarce any smell, and very little taste. It has been recommended in difficulty of urine, nephritic complaints, and all disorders of the kidneys and urinary passages.

(1.) \* GUILD, *n. f.* [*gildseip*, Saxon, a fellowship, a corporation.] A society; a corporation; a fraternity or company, combined together by orders and laws made among themselves by their prince's licence. Hence the common word *guild* or *guildhall* proceeds, being a fraternity or commonalty of men gathered into one combination, supporting their common charge by mutual contribution. *Cozuel.*—

Towards three or four o'clock  
Look for the news that the *guild* hall affords.

*Shak. Rich. III.*  
—In woollen cloth it appears, by those ancient *guilds* that were settled in England for this manufacture, that this kingdom greatly flourished in that art. *Hale's Origin of Mankind.*—

As when the long-ear'd milky mothers wait  
At some sick miser's triple bolted gate,  
For their defrauded absent foals they make

A moan so loud, that all the *guild* awake. *Pope.*  
(2.) GUILD, (from the Saxon verb *gildan*, to pay), signifies a fraternity or company, because every one was *gildare*, *i. e.* to pay something towards the charge and support of the company. It was a law among the Saxons, that every freeman of 14 years of age should find sureties to keep the peace, or be committed: upon which certain neighbours, consisting of ten families, entered into an association, and became bound for each other, either to produce him who committed an offence, or to make satisfaction to the injured party: that they might the better do this, they raised a sum of money among themselves, which they put into a common stock; and when one of their pledges had committed an offence, and was fled, then the other nine made satisfaction out of this stock, by payment of money, according to the offence. Because this association consisted of ten families, it was called a *decennary*: and from hence came out later kinds of fraternities. But as to the precise time when these guilds had their origin in England, there is nothing of certainty to be found; since they were in use long before any formal licence was granted to them for such meetings. It seems to have been about the close of the 11th century, says Anderfon, in his *History of Commerce*, vol. 1. p. 75, that merchant guilds, or fraternities, which were afterwards styled corporations, came first into the general use in many

parts of Europe. Mr Madox, in his *Form*, chap. i. § 9. thinks, they were hardly known to the Saxons, and that they might be first brought into England by the Normans.

(3.) GUILD, *Gild*, or *Geld*, is also used by ancient writers, for a compensation or satisfaction for a fault committed.

(4.) GUILD, in the royal boroughs of Scotland is still used for a company of merchants, or freemen of the borough. See *BOURGHESE*.

(5.) GUILD, DEAN OF. See *DEAN*.  
ii. Every royal borough has a DEAN OF THE BOROUGH, who is the next magistrate below the bailiffs; judges of controverfies among men of the trade; disputes between inhabitants and landlords; calls courts, at which his brethren of the *guild* are bound to attend; manages the stock of the *guild*; and amercos and collects.

(1.) GUILDFORD, or GULDERSFORDE, a borough town of Surry, on the Wye, near the site of an old castle. In the Saxons times it was a royal villa, where many of the Anglo-Saxons used to pass their festivals. It is a corporation consisting of a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and has sent two members to parliament since the commencement. The great road from London to Chichester and Portsmouth lies through this town, which has always been famous for inns, and excellent accommodations; and assizes are often held here. Its manufactory was cloth, of which there are but few small remains. Here is a school founded by Edward VI: an almshouse endowed with the yearly worth 300*l.* a-year; and two charity schools for 30 boys and 20 girls. There were 3 churches, but one of them fell down in April 1740. It is a fine circular course for horse races, which begin when the Newmarket are ended. K. William III. founded a race of 100 guineas to be run for here every Monday to honour the race with his presence once king George I. The Wye is made use of to the town, and by it a great quantity of timber is carried to London, not only from the neighbourhood, but from Suffex and Hampshire 30 miles off. Guildford is 30 miles SW. of London. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 51. 16. N.

(2.) GUILDFORD, a town of the State of Connecticut 12 miles E. of Newhaven, and 201 NE. of Philadelphia. Lon. 2. 6. E. Lat. 41. 19. N.

(3.) GUILDFORD, a county of N. Carolina, bounded on the E. by Orange county, N. by Johnston, S. by Rockingham, and W. by Guilford counties; containing 6,675 citizens in 1790, and 516 slaves. Martinville is the capital.

(4.) GUILDFORD, a town of N. Carolina in Guilford county, 137 miles WNW. of Raleigh. Lon. 79. 56. W. Lat. 36. 8. N.

(5.) GUILDFORD, a town of N. Carolina 5 miles S. of Yixonton.

GUILD-HALL, or *Gild Hall*, the great judicature for London. In it are kept the court, the sheriff's court, the court of conscience, court of common council, chamberlain's court, &c. Here also the court sits upon *nisi prius*, &c.

*n. f.* [guile, gills, old French, the  
deceitful cunning; insidious ar-  
riving words he courted her awhile,  
and oft sighing sore,  
his heart did court with divers guile;  
and looks, and sighs she did abhor.

*Spenser.*  
I have most need to employ a friend,  
wily, treacherous, and full of guile,  
To lead me to the top of heav'n,  
For I am cold in zeal to you or yours. *Shak.*  
With more successful hope, resolve  
force or guile eternal war. *Milton.*  
his malice and false guile contend;  
ends must be who could seduce

*Milton's Paradise Lost.*  
[guile and fall.] 1. Wily;  
deceitfully artful.—The way not to  
be deceived is to be *guileful* through-  
out. *Shak.*  
Without expence at all,  
Without words, peace may be obtain'd.

*Shakespeare's Henry VI.*  
I saw his *guileful* act  
Which all unwitting, seconded  
By him, did bring about the overthrow  
Of our dear prince, and vanquish'd in a cloud. *Dryd.*  
is: secretly mischievous.—  
My brethren to that *guileful* hole,  
Whence the dead corps of Bassianus lay. *Shak.*

*ULLY adv.* [from *guileful*.] Infi-  
dentially.—  
The tempter *guilefully* reply'd. *Milt.*

*ULNESS n. f.* [from *guileful*.] Se-  
cretly cunning.

*ULLESS adv.* [from *guile*.] Free from  
deceitfulness; simply honest.

*UL n. f.* [from *guile*.] See *BEGUILER*.  
leads into danger by insidious practi-

as wary wife in all his way,  
He deceived his deceitful sleight;  
He lost his safety to betray;  
He beguile the *guiler* of the prey. *Spens.*

*ULD n.* See *GUILDFORD*.

*UL n.* town of the French republic, in  
Normandy and late prov. of Auvergne  
situated on the Main 6 miles from  
Paris. E. Lat. 40. 27. N.

*UL n.* See *COLYMBUS*.

*UL n.* a town of France in the dep.  
of Aisne, 9 miles NNW. of Embrun.  
The prince Eugene in 1692. Lon. 6.  
N. 41. N.

*UL n.* John, of Welsh extraction, was  
born in North Wales, about 1565. Having com-  
menced at Brasen Nose college, Ox-  
ford a member of the college of arms  
he was made rouge croix pursuivant,  
and died in 1621. He published, in  
1614, a celebrated work, intitled *the Display of*  
*the fift*, which has gone through many  
editions, the fifth, which came out in 1679,  
is a *treatise of honour civil and military*,  
by John Loggan.

*GUILLOTIERE*, a village of France in the dep.  
of Rhone and Loire, near Lyons. It was put in  
a state of siege, along with the commune of Ly-  
ons, by decree of the Directory, on the 3d Feb.  
1793.

*GUILLOTINE. n. f.* an engine of decapitation,  
decreed by the French National Assembly, to be  
the sole punishment of persons condemned to  
death, on the 20th of March, 1792; so named  
from Dr Guillot, a member of the Assembly, who  
proposed it as an instrument of *mercy*, by giving  
the criminal a more expeditious death than any  
other means can afford. Its effect it must be al-  
lowed is instantaneous. A minute description of  
it is unnecessary, as *fig. 4.* and *5. Pl. CLXXI.* will  
convey a sufficient idea of it. This instrument is  
not a new invention. It was used in Scotland a-  
bout the time of the reformation, when it was  
called *the Maiden*; (See *MAIDEN*;) and is still  
kept in the lower part of the Parliament House  
at Edinburgh, where it is shown as a curiosity.  
Some say it was invented and first used at Halifax  
in Yorkshire.

*To GUILLOTINE, v. a.* To behead with that  
engine; a new verb, introduced by the use of it.

*GUILLOIN*, a town of France in the dept. of  
Yonne, 7 miles E. of Avallon.

*GUILT n. f.* [guilt, Saxon, originally signi-  
fied the fine or mulet paid for an offence, and af-  
terward the offence itself.] 1. The state of a man  
justly charged with a crime; the contrary to in-  
nocence.—It was neither *guilt* of crime, nor re-  
ason of state, that could quench the envy that was  
upon the king for this execution. *Bacon's Henry*  
*VII.*—When these two are taken away, the possi-  
bility of *guilt*, and the possibility of innocence,  
what restraint can the belief of the creed lay upon  
any man? *Hammond.* 2. A crime; an offence.—  
Close pent up in *guilts*

Rive your concealing contents, and alk  
These dreadful summoners grace. *Sba. K. Lear.*

*\* GUILTYLY. adv.* [from *guilty*.] Without  
innocence; without clearness of conscience.—  
Bloody and guilty; *guiltily* awake,  
And in a bloody battle end thy days:  
Think on lord Hastings, and despair and die. *Sba.*

*\* GUILTINESS. n. f.* [from *guilty*.] The state  
of being guilty; wickedness; consciousness of  
crime.—He thought his flight rather to proceed  
of a fearful *guiltiness* than of an humble faithful-  
ness. *Sidney.*—

The last was I that felt thy tyranny;  
O, in the battle think on Buckingham,  
And die in terror of thy *guiltiness*. *Shak. R. III.*

I should be guilty than my *guiltiness*. *Shak.*

*\* GUILTILESS. adj.* [from *guilt*.] innocent;  
free from crime.—

I am in this commanded to deliver  
The noble duke of Clarence to your hands:  
I will not reason what is meant hereby,  
Because I will be *guiltless* of the meaning. *Shakesp.*

Many worthy and chaste dames thus,  
All *guiltless*, meet reproach. *Shakesp. Othello.*

—Then shall the man be *guiltless* from iniquity,  
and this woman shall bear her iniquity. *Num. v. 31.*

Thou, who do'st all thou wishest at thy will,  
And never wishest ought but what is right,

T t t t 2 Preserve

ney.—I would not have had any hand in his death, of whose *guiltlessness* I was better assured than any man living could be. *King Charles.*

\* **GUILTY.** *adj.* [*guiltig*, Sax. one condemned to pay a fine for an offence.] 1. Justly chargeable with a crime; not innocent.—Is there not a ballad of the king and the beggar?—The world was *guilty* of such a ballad'some three ages since. *Shak.*

Mark'd you not

How that the *guilty* kindred of the queen  
Look'd pale, when they did hear of Clarence's  
death!

—We are verily *guilty* concerning our brother, in that we saw the anguish of his soul when he besought us, and we would not hear. *Gen. xlii. 21.*—

With mortal hatred I purfu'd his life,  
Nor he, nor you, were *guilty* of the strife;  
Nor I, but as I lov'd; yet all combin'd,  
Your beauty and my impotence of mind. *Dryd.*  
Farewel the stones

And threshold, *guilty* of my midnight moans.

—There is no man that is knowingly wicked, but is *guilty* to himself; and there is no man that carries guilt about him, but he receives a sting into his soul. *Tillotson.* 2. Wicked; corrupt.—

All the tumult of a *guilty* world,  
Tost by ungenerous passion, sinks away. *Thomf.*

**GUIMARAENS**, an ancient and elegant town of Portugal, in Entre Duero e-Minho, divided into the old and new town. The former is seated on an eminence, about 1100 paces in circumference, and defended by a barbican. The latter contains 15 squares, 57 streets, 8 gates, 6 churches, 6 convents, 4 hospitals, 4 bridges, and 6000 inhabitants. Its chief manufacture is linen. It lies 10 miles E. of Braga, and 165. NE. of Lisbon. Lon. 2 27. W. Lat. 41. 20. N.

ing, sulphureous mists, and when the flat country is very unhealthy, especially to natives, however, are little wholesome air. According much within doors in tents, skins being suppled and pointing with palm oil, the little impression on them. fore, enjoy a good state of procure to themselves a with much less care and our more northern climate arises not only from the but also from the overflow by the land is regularly extremely fertile; and be proved by culture, abounding cattle, poultry, &c. The a fresh supply of food: For and little art necessary in construction of their hou ple, principally calculated the tempestuous seasons: dry reeds covered with mat The distempers the Europe this coast, are fevers, sic are occasioned by indiffer their settlements lying ne: fogs and steams arising f marshes, and the stinking the beach, corrupt the ai the foreigners. The most difficult to preserve their ten their death by their i genece, exposing themsel evening, after a very h change, from one extreme

ces spontaneously, and almost without all the necessaries of life, grain, fruit, and roots. Every thing matures to perfection is excellent in its kind." One thing surprised him, was the prodigious rapidity with the sap of trees repairs any loss they "I was never (says he) more astonished, on landing 4 days after the locusts had demolished the fruits and leaves, and even the buds, to find the trees covered with new and they did not seem to me to have suffered." Similar accounts are given of the rest of Guinea.

GUINEA, GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF. 1. Of above mentioned. (§ 1.) the 1st is situated on the west coast, which is said to be navigable more than 200 miles, and is by travellers described to be fertile and fruitful. Mr Brue, principal agent for the French African company, who spent 3 years in that country, after describing its fertility and plenty near the sea, adds, "The farther you go from the sea, the country on the coast the more fruitful and well improving with Indian corn, pulse, fruit, &c. are vast meadows, which feed large herds of great and small cattle, and poultry are plenty in the villages that lie thick on the river banks. The country is well peopled." *Abley's Travels*, ii. p. 46. The same author in the account of a voyage he made up the river Gambia, which of which lies about 300 miles S. of the coast, and is navigable about 600 miles up the river, says, "that he was surprized to see the land so well cultivated; scarce a spot lay unimproved, the low lands divided by small canals sowed with rice, &c. the higher grounds sowed with millet, Indian corn, and peas of several sorts; their beef excellent; poultry plenty and very cheap, as well as all other necessaries." Mr Moor, who was sent from England in 1725, in the service of the African company, and settled at James Fort on the Gambia, or in the territories on that river, about 5 years, can give above account of the fruitfulness of the country.

Captain Smith, who was sent in 1726, in the service of the African company to survey their settlements on the whole coast of Guinea, says, "the coast of the Gambia is pleasant and fruitful; all sorts of all kinds being plenty and exceeding good." *Voyage to Guinea*, p. 31, 34. The country between the two above mentioned rivers is large and extensive, inhabited principally by three Negro nations known by the names of FULIS, and MANDINGOS. The Jalofas, the principal settlement is on both sides of the river; great numbers of these people are also to be found in the Mandingos; which last are mostly on both sides of the Gambia. The Fulis are found on both sides of the river Senegal: their country which is very fruitful and populous, extends for 400 miles from east to west. They are of a deep tawny complexion, appearing to have some affinity to the Moors, whose country lies to the north: they are good farmers, and produce great harvests of corn, cotton, tobacco, &c. and breed great numbers of cattle of all kinds. The most particular account we have of these

people is from Moore, who says, "Some of these Fulis blacks, who dwell on both sides the river Gambia, are in subjection to the Mandingos, amongst whom they dwell, having been probably driven out of their country by war or famine. They have chiefs of their own, who rule with much moderation. Few of them will drink brandy, or any thing stronger than water and sugar, being strict Mahometans. Their form of government goes on easy, because the people are of a good quiet disposition, and so well instructed in what is right, that a man who does ill is the abomination of all, and none will support him against the chief. In these countries the natives are not covetous of land, desiring no more than what they use; and as they do not plough with horses and cattle, they can use but very little; therefore the kings are willing to give the Fulis leave to live in their country, and cultivate their lands. If any of their people are known to be made slaves, all the Fulis will join to redeem them; they also support the old, the blind, and lame, amongst themselves; and as far as their abilities go, they supply the necessities of the Mandingos, great numbers of whom they have maintained in famine." The author, from his own observations, says, "They were rarely angry, and that he never heard them abuse one another." The Mandingos are said by Mr Brue "to be the most numerous nation on the Gambia." See MANDINGOS. 2. That part of Guinea known by name of the *Grain* and *Ivory Coast* extends about 500 miles. See IVORY COAST. 3. Next adjoining to the Ivory Coast are the GOLD COAST and the SLAVE COAST. Authors are not agreed about their bounds, but their extent together along the coast may be about 500 miles. And as the policy, produce, and economy of these two kingdoms of Guinea are much the same, they will be found described together. See SLAVE COAST. 4. Next adjoining to the Slave Coast, is the kingdom of Benin, which, though it extends but about 170 miles on the sea, yet spreads so far in land as to be esteemed the most potent kingdom in Guinea. See BENIN, N° 1 and 3. Artus says, "the natives are a sincere, inoffensive people, and do no injustice either to one another or to strangers." (*Collect.* vol. iii. p. 228.) Smith confirms this account, and says, "that the inhabitants are generally very good-natured, and exceeding courteous and civil. When the Europeans make them presents, which, in their coming thither to trade, they always do, they endeavour to return them doubly." Bosman tells us, "that his countrymen the Dutch, who were often obliged to trust them till they returned the next year, were sure to be honestly paid their whole debts." There is in Benin a considerable order in the government; theft, murder, and adultery being severely punished. Smith says, "their towns are governed by officers appointed by the king, who have power to decide in civil cases, and to raise the public taxes; but in criminal cases, they must send to the king's court, which is held at the town of OEDO, or GREAT BENIN. See BENIN, N° 3. This town, which covers a large extent of ground, is about 60 miles from the sea." Barbot tells us, "that it contains 30 streets, 20 fathoms wide, and almost two miles long, commonly extending



miles on the coast. Great numbers of the natives of both these kingdoms profess the Christian religion, which was long since introduced by the Portuguese, who made early settlements in that country. See **ANGOLA** and **CONGO**. In the Collections, it is said, that both in Congo and Angola, the soil is in general fruitful, producing great plenty of grain, Indian corn, and such quantities of rice, that it hardly bears any price, with fruits, roots, and palm oil in plenty. The natives are generally a quiet people, who discover a good understanding, and behave in a friendly manner to strangers, being of a mild conversation, affable, and easily overcome with reason. In the government of Congo, the king appoints a judge in every particular division, to hear and decide disputes in civil causes; the judges imprison and release, or impose fines according to the rules of custom; but in weighty matters, every one may appeal to the king, before whom all criminal causes are brought, in which he gives sentence; but seldom condemns to death. The town of Loango stands in the midst of four lordships, which abound in corn, fruit, &c. Here they make great quantities of cloths of divers kinds, very fine and curious; the inhabitants are seldom idle; they even make needle-work caps as they walk in the streets. The slave trade is here principally managed by the Portuguese, who carry it far up into the inland countries. They are said to send off from these parts 15,000 slaves each year. At Angola, about 10° lat. S. ends the trade for slaves.

(5.) **GUINEA, HUMANITY AND CIVILITY OF THE NATIVES OF.** M. Adanson speaking of the appearance of the country about the Senegal and Gambia, and of the disposition of the people, says, "which way soever I turned mine eyes on this pleasant spot, I beheld a perfect image of pure nature;

capes are those of Cape Blanco, Leon, Cape St Ann's, Cape Pal Points, Cape Formosa, Cape Mo Cape Lopus, Cape Ledo, and C chief bays are the Cyprian or C bite of Guinea. Of the rivers, th are those of Corazo and Ambri Lunde, the Cameron, the For the Sierra Leona, and the Sherb from E. to W. (except the Volt N. to S.) and falls into the Atla

(7.) **GUINEA, PRODUCE OF.** ry, and slaves, Guinea affords Senega, gum tragacauth, and other gums and drugs.

(8.) **GUINEA TRADE, HISTO** most ancient account we have of ticularly that part situated on a negal and Gambia, is from th ancient authors, one an Arabia Moor. The first wrote in Ar: century. His works, printed : Rome, were afterwards translat printed at Paris, under the pat mous Thuanus chancellor of title of *Geographia Nubi:pt*, count of all the nations lying c Gambia. The other was writt Moor, born at Granada in Spair were totally expelled from that sited in Africa, but being on a poli to Tunis, was taken by for who finding him possessed of sev besides his own MSS. conclude of learning, and as such prese Leo X. This pope encouragin ced the Romish religion, and Africa was published in Italian.

but supported themselves in an equal state, the natural produce of the country, which consisted of roots, game, and honey. That covetous or avarice never drove them into foreign parts to subdue or cheat their neighbours, they lived without toil or superfluities." The ancient inhabitants of Morocco, who wore iron mail, and used swords and spears headed with iron, coming amongst these harmless and simple people, soon brought them under subjection, divided that part of Guinea which lies on the coast of Gambia into 15 parts; those were the kingdoms of the negroes, over which the Moors presided, and the common people were negroes. These Moors taught the negroes the Mahometan religion, and arts of life; particularly the use of iron, before unknown to them. About the 14th century, a native negro, called *Ileli Ichia*, expelled the Moorish conquerors; but though the Moors threw off the yoke of a foreign nation, Ichia only changed a Libyan king for a negro master. Ichia himself becoming king, led the negroes to foreign wars, and established himself in power over a very large extent of country." Since that time, the Europeans have had very little knowledge of those parts of Africa, nor do they know what became of his great empire. It is probable that it fell to pieces, and that the natives retained many of their ancient customs; for in an account published by Moore, in his *Travels on the Coast of Gambia*, we find a mixture of the Moorish and Mahometan customs, joined with the original simplicity of the negroes. It appears by accounts of ancient voyages, collected by Hackluit, and others, that it was about 50 years after the discovery of America, that the Portuguese attempted to sail round Cape Bojador, which lies between their country and Guinea: this, the natives, divers repulses occasioned by the violent currents, they effected; when landing on the west coast of Africa, they soon began to make incursions into the country, and to seize and carry off the natives. Early in 1482, Alonzo Gonzales, the first who is recorded to have met with the natives, being on the coast, pursued and attacked a number of them, and some were wounded, as was also one of the Portuguese; which the author records as the first blood shed by Christians in those parts. Six years after, Gonzales again attacked the natives, and took 12 prisoners, with whom he returned to his ships: he afterwards put a woman on shore, to teach the natives to redeem the prisoners; but the next day 150 of the inhabitants appeared on the coast with camels, provoking the Portuguese to fight; which they not daring to venture, the natives discharged a volley of stones at them, and retired off. After this, the Portuguese continued to send vessels on the coast of Africa: particularly in 1482, when one of their falling on a village, whence the inhabitants fled, and, being pursued, 25 were taken. "He that ran best (says the author,) taking most. In their way home they killed some of the natives, and took 55 more prisoners. Afterwards Dinisanes Dagrama, with two other vessels, landed on the island Arguin, where they took 54 negroes; then running along the coast 80 leagues farther, they at several times took 50 slaves; but 7 of the Portuguese were killed. Then being

joined by several other vessels, Dinisanes proposed to destroy the island, to revenge the loss of the seven Portuguese; of which the Moors being apprised fled, so that no more than 12 were found, whereof only four could be taken, the rest being killed, as also one of the Portuguese." Many more captures of this kind on the coast of Barbary and Guinea are recorded to have been made in those early times by the Portuguese; who, in 1482, erected their first fort at D'Elmina on that coast, from whence they soon opened a trade for slaves with the inland parts of Guinea. From the foregoing accounts, it is undoubted, that the practice of making slaves of the negroes owes its origin to the early incursions of the Portuguese, solely from an inordinate desire of gain. This is clear from their own historians, particularly Cada Mosto, about 1455, who writes, "That before the trade was settled for purchasing slaves from the Moors at Arguin, sometimes 4, and sometimes more Portuguese vessels, were used to come to that gulph, well armed; and landing by night, would surprise some fishermen's villages: that they even entered into the country, and carried off Arabs of both sexes, whom they sold in Portugal." And also, "That the Portuguese and Spaniards, settled on 4 of the Canary islands, would go to the other island by night, and seize some of the natives of both sexes, whom they sent to be sold in Spain." After the settlement of America, those devastations, and the captivating the miserable Africans, greatly increased. Anderson, in his *History of Trade and Commerce*, p. 336, speaking of what passed in 1508, writes, "That the Spaniards had by this time found that the miserable Indian natives, whom they had made to work in their mines and fields, were not so robust and proper for those purposes as negroes brought from Africa: wherefore they, about that time, began to import negroes for that end into Hispaniola, from the Portuguese settlements on the Guinea coasts; and also afterwards for their sugar-works." About 1551, towards the end of Edward VI's reign, some London merchants sent out the first English ship on a trading voyage to the coast of Guinea. This was soon followed by several others; but the English not having then any plantations in the West Indies, and consequently no occasion for negroes, they traded only for gold, elephants teeth, and Guinea pepper. This trade was carried on at the hazard of losing their ships and cargoes, if they had fallen into the hands of the Portuguese, who claimed an exclusive right of trade there. In 1553, capt. Thos. Windham traded along the coast with 140 men, in 3 ships, and sailed as far as Benin, to take in a load of pepper. Next year John Lock traded along the coast, as far as D'Elmina, when he brought away considerable quantities of gold and ivory. He speaks well of the natives, and says, "That whoever will deal with them must behave civilly, for they will not traffic if ill used." In 1555, William Towerston traded in a peaceable manner with the natives, who complained to him of the Portuguese at D'Elmina, saying, "They were bad men; who made them slaves if they could take them, putting irons on their legs." This bad example of the Portuguese was soon followed by some Englishmen; for Capt. Towerston says, "That in the

course of his voyage, he perceived the natives near D'Elmina unwilling to come to him, and that he was at last attacked by them; which he understood was done in revenge for the wrong done them the year before by one captain Gainsh, who had taken away the negro captain's son and three others, with their gold, &c. This caused them to join the Portuguese, notwithstanding their hatred of them, against the English." (*Collection*, vol. i. p. 148.) Next year captain Towerfon brought these men back again; whereupon the negroes showed him much kindness. Soon after this, another instance occurred in the case of Capt. George Fenner, who being on the coast with 3 vessels, was attacked by the negroes, who wounded several of his people, and violently carried 3 of his men to their town. The captain sent a messenger, offering any thing they desired for the ransom of his men: but they refused to deliver them; letting him know, "That 3 weeks before, an English ship, which came in the road, had carried off 3 of their people; and that till they were brought again, they would not restore his men, even though they should give their 3 ships to release them." It was probably the bad conduct of these and some other Englishmen, which occasioned what is mentioned in *Hill's Naval History*, viz. "That when Capt. Hawkins returned from his first voyage to Africa, Q. Elizabeth sent for him, when she expressed her concern, lest any of the African negroes should be carried off without their free consent: which she declared would be detestable, and would call down the vengeance of heaven upon the undertakers." Hawkins made great promises, but did not perform them; for his next voyage to the coast seems to have been principally to procure negro slaves, and sell them to the Spaniards in the West Indies; upon which the same author has these remarkable words: "Here began the horrid practice of forcing the Africans into slavery: an injustice and barbarity, which, so sure as there is vengeance in heaven for the worst of crimes, will some time be the destruction of all who act or who encourage it." This captain Hawkins, afterwards Sir John Hawkins, seems to have been the first Englishman who gave public countenance to this wicked traffic: for Anderson, (p. 401,) says, "That in 1562, Capt. Hawkins, assisted by subscription of sundry gentlemen, now fitted out 3 ships; and having learnt that negroes were a very good commodity in Hispaniola, he sailed to the coast of Guinea, took in negroes, and sailed with them for Hispaniola, where he sold them and his English commodities, and loaded his 3 vessels with hides, sugar, ginger, &c. with which he returned home, in 1563, making a prosperous voyage." As it proved lucrative, the trade was continued, both by Hawkins and others, as appears from the *Naval Chronicle*, p. 55; where it is said, "That on the 18th Oct. 1564, Capt. John Hawkins, with two ships of 700 and 140 tons, sailed for Africa; that on the 8th Dec. they anchored S. of Cape Verd, where the captain manned the boat, and sent 80 men in armour into the country, to see if they could take some negroes; but the natives flying from them, they returned to their ships, and proceeded farther down the coast. Here they lay certain days, sending their men ashore, in order (as the author says) to burn

and spoil their towns and take the inhabitants. The land they observed to be well cultivated there being plenty of grain and fruit of several sorts, and the towns prettily laid out. On the 25th, being informed by the Portuguese of a town of negroes called *Bymba*, where there was not only a quantity of gold, but 140 inhabitants, they resolved to attack it, having the Portuguese for their guide; but by mismanagement they took but 10 negroes, having 7 of their own men killed and 27 wounded. They then went farther down the coast: when having procured a number of negroes, they proceeded to the West Indies, where they sold them to the Spaniards." It is added (p. 76.) "That in 1567, Francis Drake, before performing his voyage round the world, went with Sir John Hawkins in his expedition to the coast of Guinea, where taking in a cargo of slaves, they determined to steer for the Caribbee islands." How Q. Elizabeth suffered so grievous an infringement of the rights of mankind to be perpetrated by her subjects, and how she was persuaded, about the 30th year of her reign, to grant patents for carrying on a trade from the N. part of the Senegal to 100 leagues beyond Sierra Leona, is hard to account for, otherwise than that it arose from the misrepresentation made to her of the frictions of the negroes, and of the advantages it was promised they would reap from being made acquainted with the Christian religion. This was the talent of Louis XIII. of France; who, Labat (in his *Account of the Isles of America*) tells us, "was extremely uneasy at a law by which the negroes of his colonies were to be made slaves; but it being strongly urged to him as the readiest means of their conversion to Christianity, he acquiesced therewith." Nevertheless, some of the Christian powers did not so easily give way in this matter: for we find, "That cardinal Cibo, one of the pope's principal ministers of state, wrote a letter on behalf of the college of cardinals, to the missionaries in Congo, complaining that the pernicious and abominable abuse of selling slaves was yet continued; requiring them to remedy the same if possible; but that the missionaries saw little hopes of accomplishing, by reason that the trade of the country lay wholly in slaves and ivory." It has been urged in justification of this trade, that by purchasing the captives taken in battle, they save the lives of so many human creatures, who otherwise would be sacrificed to the implacable revenge of the victors. But this pretence has been refuted by an appeal to reason and fact. For if the negroes apprehended they should be cruelly put to death if they were not sent away; why, it is asked, do they manifest such reluctance and dread as they generally do, in being brought from their native country? Smith in his *Account*, p. 28, says, "The Gantians abhor slavery, and will attempt any thing, though ever so desperate, to avoid it." And Thomas Phillips, in his account of a voyage he performed to the coast of Guinea, writes, "They (the negroes) are so loth to leave their own country, that they have often leaped out of the canoe, being on ship, into the sea, and kept under water till they were drowned, to avoid being taken up." But had the fact even been otherwise, the above plea is urged with an extreme bad grace, when it is

notorious that the very wars said to be productive of such cruelty were fomented by the infamous arts of the Europeans. See SLAVE TRADE.

(II, i.) \* GUINEA. *n. f.* [from *Guinea*, a country in *Africa*, abounding with gold.] A gold coin valued at one and twenty shillings.—By the word gold I must be understood to design a particular piece of matter; that is, the last *guinea* that was coined. *Locke*.—

Ladies, whose love is constant as the wind :

Cits, who prefer a *guinea* to mankind. *Young*.  
(ii.) THE GUINEA anciently bore the impression of an elephant. Its value has varied; when first struck it was 20s.; from the scarcity of gold it was afterwards advanced to 21s. 6d. but it is now sunk to 21s. The pound weight troy of gold is cut into 24½ parts; each part makes a *guinea*.

(III.) GUINEA COMPANY. See COMPANY, § IV, ii, i.

(IV.) GUINEA, NEW, a long and narrow island of the East Indies, very imperfectly known. It was supposed to be connected with New Holland, until Captain Cook discovered the strait which separates them. New Guinea, including Papua, its NW. part (which Bougainville conjectures is separated from it by a strait), reaches from the equator to 12° lat. S. and from 131° to 150° lon. E. In one part it does not appear to be above 50 miles broad. It was first visited by an European ship in 1529. Saavedra, a Portuguese, who made the discovery of the NW. part of this country, called it *Terra di Papuas* or *Papoa*. Van Schouten, a Dutch discoverer, afterwards gave the name of *New Guinea* to its SW. part. Admiral Roggewain also touched here; and before him Dampier, 1st Jan. 1700. Capt. Cook made the coast of New Guinea, in lat. 6° 15' lon. 136° E. on the 3d Sept. and landed, accompanied by Mr Banks, Dr Solander, 9 sailors, and servants well armed, and advanced a little way up the country; but coming to the skirts of a thick wood, about a quarter of a mile from the boat, 3 Indians rushed out of it with a hideous shout; threw their darts, and showed such a hostile disposition, that the party returned to their boat, as they had no intention to invade the country, and it was evident nothing could be done upon friendly terms. When they got on board the boat, they rowed along the shore, and about 80 Indians assembled, resembling the New Hollanders, being stark naked, with their hair cropped short. All the while they were shouting defiance, and throwing something out of their hand which burnt exactly like gun powder, but made no report; what these fires were, or for what purpose intended, could not be guessed at. Those who discharged them had in their hands a short piece of stick, possibly a hollow cane, which they swung sidewise from them, and immediately fire and smoke issued, resembling the discharge of a musket, and of no longer duration, this was observed from the ship, and the people on board thought they had firearms. After looking at them attentively for some time, without taking any notice of their flashing and vociferation, the sailors fired some muskets over their heads. Upon hearing the balls rattle among the trees, they walked leisurely away, and the boat returned to the ship. Upon examining the weapons which the natives had thrown, they

were found to be light darts, about 4 feet long, very ill made, of a reed or bamboo cane, and pointed with hard wood, in which there were many barbs. They were discharged with great force, for at 60 yards distance they went beyond the party. The general opinion was, that they were thrown with a stick in the manner practised by the New-Hollanders. The land here is very low, as is every other part of the coast; but it is covered with a vast luxuriance of wood and herbage. Cocoa nut, plantain, and bread-fruit trees, flourish in perfection.

\* GUINEADROPPER. *n. f.* [*guinea* and *drop*.]

One who cheats by dropping guineas.—  
Who now the *guineadrop*'s bait regards,  
Trick'd by the sharper's dice, or juggler's cards. *Gay*.

(1.) \* GUINEAHEN. *n. f.* A fowl, supposed to be of *Guinea*.

(2.) GUINEA HEN. See NUMIDA, N° 2.

(1.) \* GUINEAPEPPER. *n. f.* [*capsicum*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller*.

(2.) GUINEA PEPPER. See CAPSICUM.

(1.) \* GUINEAPIG. *n. f.* A small animal with a pig's snout, brought, I believe, from *Africa*.

(2.) GUINEA PIG. See CAVIA, N° V.

GUINEA WHEAT. See ZEA.

GUINEA WORMS. See DRACUNCULI.

GUINCAMP, a town of France, in the dept. of the North coasts, 258 miles W. of Paris. Lon. 2. 56. W. Lat. 48. 33. N.

GUIOLLE, a town of France, in the dept. of Aveiron, 24 miles NNE. of Rodez.

GIOMEKE, a rich and populous kingdom of Africa, on the Ivory Coast.

GUIPAVAZ, a town of France, in the dept. of Finisterre, 4½ miles NE. of Brest.

GUIPRY, a town of France, in the dept. of Ille and Vilaine, 13½ miles NE. of Redon.

GUIPUSCOA, a province of Spain, bounded on the N. by the Atlantic, E. by France, SE. by Navarre, S. by Alava, and W. by Biscay; 25 m. long, and from 15 to 20 broad.

GUISA, a town in the isle of Cuba.

GUISCARD, a town of France, in the dept. of the Oise, 5 miles N. of Noyon.

(1.) GUISE, a town of France, in the dept. of Aisne, on the Oise, 20 miles N. of Laon, and 95 NE. of Paris. Lon. 3. 42. E. Lat. 49. 54. N.

(2.) GUISE, Henry, duke of. See LORRAIN.

(3.) \* GUISE. *n. f.* [The same with *wise*, *guise*, French; *wisa*, the *w* being changed, as is common into *g*.] 1. Manner; mein; habit; cast of behaviour.—

His own fire, and master of his *guise*,  
Did often tremble at his horrid view. *Spenser*.  
Thus women know, and thus they use the *guise*,

T' enchant the valiant and beguile the wife.

*Fairfax*.

—Lo you! here she comes: this is her very *guise*; and, upon my life, fast asleep: observe her, stand close. *Shak. Macbeth*.—

They stand a horrid front  
Of dreadful length, and dazzling arms, in *guise*  
Of warriors old, with order'd spear and shield,  
Awaiting what command their mighty chief  
Had to impose. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

By their *guise*  
 Just men they seem, and all their study bent  
 To worship God aright. *Milton's Par. Lost.*  
 Back, shepherds, back;  
 Here be without duck or nod,  
 Other trippings to be trod,  
 Of lighter toes and such court *guise*,  
 As Mercury did first devise. *Milton.*  
 — Their external shapes are notoriously accommodated to that law or *guise* of life that nature has designed them. *Morc.* 2. Practice; custom; property. —  
 I have drunke wine past my usual *guise*;  
 Strong wine commands the foole, and moves the wife. *Chapman.*  
 This would not be slept;  
 Old *guise* must be kept. *Ben Jonson.*  
 The swain reply'd, it never was our *guise*  
 To slight the poor, or aught humane despise. *Pope.*

3. External appearance; dress.—When I was very young, nothing was so much talked of, as rickets among children, and consumptions among young people: after these the spleen came in play, and then the scurvy; which was the general complaint, and both were thought to appear in many various *guises*. *Temple.*—The Hugenots were engaged in a civil war, by the specious pretences of some, who, under the *guise* of religion, sacrificed so many thousands to their own ambition. *Swift.*

GUISHDEN, a river of Ireland, in Mayo.  
 GUISONI, a town of Corsica.  
 GUISONA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia.  
 (1.) \* GUITAR, *n. f.* (*guitarra*, Ital. *guitarre*, Fr.) A stringed instrument of music.—  
 Sallads and eggs, and lighter fare;  
 Tune the Italian scark's *guitar*. *Prior.*

(2.) The GUITAR has 5 double rows of strings; of which those that are brass are in the middle, except it be for the burden, an octave lower than the fourth. It was first used in Spain, where it is still greatly in vogue. There are few Spaniards who cannot play on it, to serenade their mistresses at night.

(1.) GULA, the gullet. See ANATOMY, p. 278.  
 (2.) GULA, or GUEULE. See OGEE.  
 \* GULCH, } *n. f.* (from *gulo*, Lat.) A lit.  
 \* GULCHIN, } the glutton. *Skinner.*  
 GULDE, a river of Denmark.

GULDENSTAEDT, John Anthony, M. D. was born at Riga, April 26, 1745, and in 1763 was admitted into the medical college of Berlin. He completed his studies at Frankfort upon the Oder, where, in 1767, he received his degree. Being invited to Peterburg, in 1768, he was created adjunct, and in 1770, member of the imperial academy, and professor of natural history. In June 1765, he set out upon his travels, and was absent 7 years. From Moscow, where he continued till March 1769, he passed to Voronetz, Tzaritzin, Astracan, and Kilar, near Persia. In 1770 he examined the districts watered by the Terek, Sunha, and Akkai, in the E. extremity of Caucasus; and in 1771 penetrated into Ossitia, in the highest part of the same mountain; where he collected vocabularies of the languages spoken in those regions, made enquiries into the history of the people, and discovered some traces of Chris-

tianity among them. Having visited Cabarda and the N. of Caucasus, he proceeded to Georgia, and was admitted to prince Heraclius, who was encamped ten miles from Teflis, and whom he followed in spring to Koketia, and explored the S. districts inhabited by the Turcoman Tartars in the company of a Georgian magnet, whom he had cured of a dangerous disorder. In July he passed into Imeretia; penetrated into the middle chain of mount Caucasus, visited the confines of Mingrelia, Middle Georgia, and Eastern and Lower Imeretia; and after escaping many imminent dangers, returned to Kilar on the 18th Nov. where he passed the winter, collecting various information concerning the neighbouring Tartar tribes of Caucasus, particularly the Lelgees. In the following summer he journeyed to Cabarda Major, continued his course to mount Beshton, the highest point of the first ridge of the Caucasus; inspected the mines of Masbar, and went to Tcherkash upon the Don. From thence he made expeditions to Azof and Taganrog, and thence along the new limits to the Dnieper; established this year's route at Kremenshuk, in New Russia. In the following spring, he was proceeding to Crim Tartary; but receiving an order of recall, he returned through the Ukraine to Moscow and St Peterburg, where he arrived in March 1775. Upon his return, he began to arrange his papers; but before he could finish them for the press, was seized with a violent fever, which carried him off in March 1781. A list of his writings is given in Coxe's Travels, Vol. I. p. 161.

GULDENS FEIN, two towns of Denmark: 1. in the isle of Funen; and 2. in Holstein.

GULE of AUGUST, the day of St Peter *ad vincula*, which is celebrated on the 1st of August. It is called the *gule of August*, from *gula*, a throat, because one Quinius, a tribune, having a daughter diseased in her throat, went to Pope Alexander, the sixth from St Peter, and desired of him to see the chains that St Peter was chained *under* Nero; which request being granted, he, on kissing the chains, was cured of her disease; whereupon the Pope instituted this feast in honour of St Peter. Hence the day was called either that of St Peter *ad vincula*, from what wrought the miracle; or the *gule of August*, from the part whereon it was wrought.

(1.) \* GULES, *adj.* [perhaps from *gule*, the throat.] Red: a barbarous term of heraldry.—  
 Follow thy drum;

With man's blood paint the ground: *gules, gules*;  
 Religious canons, civil laws are cruel;  
 Then what should war be? *Shak Tamer*

He whole sable arms,  
 Black as his purpose, did the knight resemble,  
 When he lay couched in the ominous horse,  
 With now his dread and black complexion near,  
 With heraldry more dismal; head to foot,  
 Now is he total *gules*. *Shak*

(2.) GULES, a corruption of the French word *gueules*, which in heraldry signifies red, is represented in engraving by perpendicular lines. It serves to denote martial prowess and hardihood for the ancients used this colour to make themselves terrible to their enemies, to stir up magnanimity, and to prevent the seeing of blood, by its

likeness

likeness of the colours: for which reason perhaps it is used by the English. This colour is by the generality of the English thought ranked before a azure. But the elegant French heralds preferred azure.

(1.) \* GULF, *n. f.* [*golfo*, Italian.] 1. A bay; an opening into land.—The Venetian admiral withdrew himself farther off from the island Corfu, into the *gulf* of the Adriatick. *Knelles*. 2. An abyss; an insupportable depth.—

Thence turning back in silence soft they stole,

And brought the heavy coils with easy pace

To yawning *gulf* of deep Avernus' hole. *Spens.*

I know thou'd'st rather

Flow thine enemy in a fiery *gulf*,

Than flatter him in a bower. *Shak. Coriolanus*.

—This is the *gulf* through which Virgil's Alecto shoots herself into hell: the tail of waters, the woods that encompass it, are all in the description. *Addition on Italy*—The sea could not be much narrower than it is, without a great loss to the world: and must we now have an ocean of mere flats and shoals, to the utter ruin of navigation, for few our heads should turn giddy at the imagination of gaping abysses and unathomable *gulfs*? *Leutley*. 3. A whirlpool; a sucking eddy.—

England his approaches makes as fierce

As waters to the sucking of a *gulf*. *Shak. H. V.*

4. Any thing insatiable, as the mouth or stomach.

Scul of dragon, tooth of wolf,

Witches mummy; raw and *gulf*

Of the ravening salt sea shark;

Root of hemlock, digg'd i' th' dark. *Shak.*

(2.) A GULF, (*g* 1, *u* 1, *f* 1) is a capacious bay between two promontories, sometimes taking the name of a *sea*, when very extensive; but particularly when it only communicates with the sea by a Strait. Such are the Euxine or Black Sea, called the *Gulf of Constantinople*; the Adriatic Sea, or the *Gulf of Venice*; the *Gulf of Lyons*, near France, and the *Gulf of Sierra* near Barbary. All these are in the Mediterranean. There are the *Gulfs of Mexico*, St Lawrence, and California, in N. America; the *Gulf of Persia*, or the *Red Sea*, between Persia and Arabia; the *Gulf of Bengal* in India; and the *gulfs of Cochinchina* and *Kamtchatka*, near these countries.

\* GULFY, *adj.* [from *gulf*.] Full of *gulfs* or whirlpools; tortuous.—

River arise; whether thou be the fon

Of utmost Tweed, or Ootie, or *gulfy* Dun. *Milt.*

At their native realms the Greeks arriv'd,

All who the war of ten long years surviv'd,

And scap'd the perils of the *gulfy* main. *Pope.*

High o'er a *gulfy* sea the Pharian isle

Fronts the deep roar of discombing Nile. *Pope.*

(1.) \* GULL, *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. [*Mergus*.] A sea-bird. 2. A cheat; a fraud; a trick.

—I should think this a *gull*, but that the white-bearded fellow speaks it. *Shak. Much Ado*.—Either they have these excellencies they are praised for, or they have not; if they have not, 'tis an apparent cheat and *gull*. *Government of the Tongue*.

3. A stupid animal; one easily cheated.—

Being fed by us you us'd us so,

As that ungentle *gull*, the cuckow bird,

Useth the sparrow. *Shak. Henry IV.*

Why have you suffer'd me to be imprison'd  
Kept in a dark house, visited by the priest,  
And made the most notorious geck and *gull*  
That e'er invention play'd on. *Sh.*

That paltry story is untrue,

And forg'd to cheat such *gulls* as you. *Hudibr.*

(2.) GULL, in ichthyology. See LARUS.

\* To GULL, *v. n.* [*gulo*, to cheat, old F.] To trick; to cheat; to defraud; to deceive.—I do not *gull* him into a ray word, and make it a common recreation, do not think I have wit enough to be straight in my bed. *Shak.*—

Yet love their forgeries did remove, and me

Thrice to *gull* thine own mother for my love.

*Don*

He would have *gull'd* him with a trick,

But Mart was too, too politick. *Hudibr.*

—They are not to be *gull'd* twice with the same trick. *L'Esfran*.—The Roman people were *gull'd* twice or thrice over, and as often enslaved in one century, and under the same pretence reformation. *Dryden*.—

By their designing leaders taught,

The vulgar, *gull'd* into rebellion, arm'd. *Dry.*

For this advantage age from youth has we

As not to be out-riden, though out-run;

By fortune he was now to Venus trin'd,

And with stern Mars in Capricorn was join'd

Of his disposing in his own abuse,

He tooth'd the goddess, while he *gull'd* the ge

*Dryden*

\* GULLCATCHER, *n. f.* [*gull* and *catch*.]

cheat; a man of trick; one who catches silly people.—

Here comes my noble *gullcatcher*. *Shak.*

\* GULLER, *n. f.* [from *gull*.] A cheat; an impostor.

\* GULLERY, *n. f.* [from *gull*.] Cheat; its posture. *Answorth*.

(1.) \* GULLET, *n. f.* [*goulet*, Fr. *gula*, Lat.]

1. The throat; the passage through which the food passes; the meat pipe; the oesophagus.—

It might be his doom,

One day to sing

With *gullet* in string. *Denham*

—Many have the *gullet* or feeding channel which have no lungs or windpipes; as fishes which have gills, whereby the heart is refrigerated; for such thereof: as have lungs and respiration are not without whizzon, as whales and cetaceous animals. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*. 2. A small stream or lake. Not in use.—

Nature has various tender muscles plac'd,

By which the artful *gullet* is embrac'd. *Blackm*  
—The liquor in the stomach is a compound of that which is separated from its inward coat, the spittle which is swallowed, and the liquor which distils from the *gullet*. *Sirbutnot*.—The Euxine sea and the Mediterranean, small *gullets*, if compared with the ocean. *Heylyn*.

(2.) GULLET. See ANATOMY, § 278.

GULL ISLE, an isle near Cape St John.

\* To GULLY, *v. n.* [corrupted from *gurgle*.] To run with noise.

\* GULLY HOLE, *n. f.* [from *gully* and *hole*.] The hole where the gutters empty themselves in the subterraneous sewer.

\* GULOSITY, *n. f.* [*gulosus*, Latin.] Greediness;

ness; gluttony; voracity.—They are very temperate, seldom offending in ebriety, nor erring in *gulosity*, or superfluity of meats. *Brown.*

\* **GULP.** *n. s.* [from the verb.] As much as can be swallowed at once.—In deep suspirations we take more large *gulps* of air to cool our heart, overcharged with love and sorrow. *Moss.*

As out as he can catch a *gulp* of air,  
And peep above the seas, he names the fair.

*Dryden.*

\* **To GULP.** *v. a.* [*galpen*, Dutch.] To swallow eagerly; to suck down without intermission.—He loosens the fish, *gulps* it down, and so soon as ever the morsel was gone wipes his mouth. *L'Esfrange.*—

I see the double flaggon charge their hand;  
See them puff off the froth, and *gulp* amain,  
While with dry tongue I lick my lips in vain.

*Gay.*

**GULPEN**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Forets and late duchy of Limburg.

**GULZOU**, a town of Saxony, SE. of Cammin.

(1.) \* **GUM.** *n. s.* [*gummi*, Latin.] 1. A vegetable substance differing from a resin, in being more viscid and less friable, and generally dissolving in aqueous menstrua; whereas resins, being more sulphurous, require a spirituous solvent. *Quincy.*—

One whose eyes,  
Albeit unuse'd to the melting mood,  
Drop tears as fast as the Arabian trees  
Their medicinal *gum*. *Shak.*  
He ripens spices, fruit, and precious *gums*,  
Which from remotest regions hither come. *Wall.*  
Her maiden train,  
Who bore the vests that holy rites require,  
Inceuse, and od'rous *gums*, and cover'd fire.

*Dryden.*

2. [*Goma*, Saxon; *gumme*, Dutch.] The fleshy covering that invests and contains the teetn.—

The babe that milks me,  
Pd pluck my nipple from his boneless *gums*.

*Shak.*

Sh' untwists a wire, and from her *gums*  
A set of teeth completely comes. *Swift.*

(2.) **GUM** is of no particular smell or taste. It becomes viscous and tenacious when moistened with water; totally dissolves in water into a liquid, more or less glutinous in proportion to the quantity of the gum; not dissolving in vinous spirits or in oils; burning in the fire to a black coal, without melting or catching flame; suffering no dissipation in the heat of boiling water. The true gums are gum arabic, gum tragacanth, gum senega, the gum of cherry and plum trees, and such like. All others have more or less of resin in them.

(3.) **GUM**, in gardening, a kind of gangrene incident to fruit-trees of the stone kind, arising from a corruption of the sap, which, by its viscosity, not being able to make its way through the fibres of the tree, is, by the protrusion of other juice, made to extravasate and ooze out upon the bark. When the distemper surrounds the branch, it admits of no remedy; but when only on one part of a bough, it should be taken off to the quick, and some covering clapped on the wound, covered over with a linnen cloth, and tied down. *M.*

Quintinie directs to cut off the morbid branches or three inches below the part affected.

(4.) **GUM AMMONIAC.** See **AMMONIAC**, § 1.—

(5.) **GUM ARABIC** is the produce of a species of **MIMOSA**. See **MIMOSA**, N° 11. Its chief use in medicine is from its glutinous quality, which serves to incrassate and obtund this acid humour and thus is useful in coughs, alvine fluxes, haemorrhages, gripes, &c. In a dysuria the true gum arabic is more cooling than the other simple gums. One ounce of gum arabic renders a pint of water considerably glutinous; 4 oz. give it a thick firm consistence; but for mucilage, one part gum to two parts water is required; and for some purposes an equal proportion will be necessary.

Dr *Percival's Essays*, Vol. I. p. 319. See there a curious account, by Mr Henry, of the property which this gum has of dissolving and keeping suspended in water not only resinous but also of substances, which should seem not likely to be all affected by it. Mr Hasselquist in his Travels relates an instance of the extraordinary medicinal virtues of this gum; which happened to the Arabian caravan, in 1740, whose provisions were consumed, when they had still two months to travel. They were then obliged to search for something among their merchandise wherewith they might support nature; and found nothing more proper than gum arabic, of which they had carried a considerable quantity along with them. This served to support above 1000 persons for two months; and the caravan at last arrived at Cairo without any loss of people either by hunger or disease.

(6.) **GUM, ELASTIC.** See **RESIN, ELASTIC**.

(7.) **GUM, ELEM.** See **AMYRIS**, § 2.3.

(8.) **GUM GUAIACUM.** See **GUAIACUM**.

(9.) **GUM GUTTÆ.** See **CHEMISTRY, JU**.

(10.) **GUM KINO.** See **KINO**.

(11.) **GUM LACCA.** See **COCCUS**, and **LAC**.

(12.) **GUM SENECA** is a gum extremely resembling gum arabic. See **SENECA**.

(13.) **GUM TRAGACANTH.** See **ASTRAGA**.

\* **To GUM.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To mix with gum; to smear with gum.—The eyelids apt to be *gummed* together with a viscous humour. *Wifeman's Surgery.*

**GUMBINNEN**, a town of Lithuania.

**GUMIEL**, a town of Spain in Old Castile.

**GUMINEN**, a town of the Helvetic republic in the canton of Bern, 5 miles W. of Bern.

**GUMMA**, a sort of venereal excrecence on the periosteum of the bones.

\* **GUMMINESS.** *n. s.* [from *gummy*.] A state of being gummy; accumulation of gum. The tendons are involved with a great quantity and collection of matter. *Wifeman's Surgery.*

\* **GUMMOSITY.** *n. s.* [from *gummosus*.] A nature of gum; gumminess.—Sugar and other particles are detained by their innate *gummosity*. *Flozer.*

\* **GUMMOUS.** *adj.* [from *gum*.] Of the nature of gum. — Observations concerning English amber and relations about the amber of Prussia, that amber is not a *gummosus* or resinous substance drawn out of trees by the sun's heat, but a natural fossil. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.*



*adj.* [from *gum.*] 1. Consisting of nature of gum.—From the utmost branches there issueth out a *gummy* angeth downward like a cord.

*gummy* stores Arabia yields. *Dryd.*  
rising alder now appears,  
Po distils her *gummy* tears. *Dryd.*  
f gum.—

the clouds  
light'ning; whose thwart flame  
own,

*gummy* bark of fir and pine. *Milton.*  
with gum.—

ng youth, scarce half awake, essays  
s and dozy head to raise;  
s *gummy* eyes, and scrubs his pate,

*Dryden.*

FEIN, a town in Stiria.  
atomy, the hard fleshy substance  
through which the teeth spring from  
e ANATOMY, § 130, 135. The gums  
come spongy, and to separate from  
the cause is often a stony kind of  
therein, which when separated, the  
to their former state, especially  
a mixture of the infusion of roses  
the tincture of myrrh one. The  
near disorder which sometimes af-  
s, when not manifest in any other

*v. n. f.* [Of this word there is no  
ymology. Mr. *Lye* observes that  
signifies *battle*; but when *guns* came  
ed no commerce with Iceland. May  
by gradual corruption from *cann*;  
' *Canne* is the original of *cannon*.]  
name for fire-arms; the instrument  
ot is discharged by fire.—

ead curses, like the sun 'gainst glass,  
overcharged *gun*, recoil  
pon thyself.

*Shak.*

ror, smiling, said that never empen-  
with a *gun*. *Knolies's History.*—

et flying, makes the *gun* recoil. *Cleav.*  
he dart or glitt'ring sword we shun,  
l to perish by the slaught'ring *gun*.

*Granville.*

isa weapon of offence, which forcibly  
ball, or other hard and solid matter,  
cylindric tube, by means of inflamed  
See GUN-POWDER. The word GUN  
most species of fire-arms; pistols and  
almost the only ones excepted from  
ation. They are divided into great  
s: the former including all that we  
on, ordnance, or artillery; the lat-  
musquets, carabines, musquetoons,  
s, fowling-pieces, &c. (See these  
is not known when these weapons  
invented. Though, comparatively  
introduction of guns into the western  
world is but of a modern date; yet it  
at in some parts of Asia they have  
ough in a very rude and imperfect  
many ages. Philostratus mentions  
he Hyphasis in the Indies, which was  
mpregnable, and that its inhabitants

were relations of the gods, because they threw  
thunder and lightning upon their enemies. Hence  
some imagine that guns were used by the eastern  
nations even in the time of Alexander the Great;  
but however this may be, many of our modern  
travellers assert, that they were used in China as  
far back as A. D. 85, and have continued in use  
ever since. The first hint of the invention of guns  
in Europe is in the works of ROGER BACON, who  
flourished in the 13th century. In a treatise writ-  
ten by him about 1286, he proposes to apply the  
violent explosive force of gun-powder for the  
destruction of armies. In 1320, Bartholomew  
Schwartz, a German monk, is said to have in-  
vented gun-powder, though it is well known, that  
this composition is described by Bacon in some of  
his treatises long before the time of Schwartz.

The following is said to have been the manner in  
which SCHWARTZ invented gun-powder. Having  
pounded the materials for it in a mortar, which  
he afterwards covered with a stone, a spark of  
fire accidentally fell into the mortar and set the  
mixture on fire; upon which the explosion blew  
the stone to a considerable distance. Hence it is  
probable that Schwartz might be taught the sim-  
plest method of applying it in war; for Bacon  
seems rather to have conceived the manner of using  
it to be by the violent effort of the flame unconfined,  
which is indeed capable of producing astonishing  
effects. See GUNPOWDER, § 4. The figure and name  
of *mortars* given to a species of old artillery, and  
their employment (which was throwing great  
stone bullets at an elevation), very much corrobo-  
rates this conjecture. Soon after the time of  
Schwartz, we find guns commonly made use of  
as instruments of war. Great guns were first  
used. They were originally made of iron bars  
folded together, and fortified with strong iron  
hoops; some of which are still to be seen, *viz.*  
one in the Tower of London, two at Woolwich,  
and one in the royal arsenal at Lisbon. Others  
were made of thin sheets of iron rolled up to-  
gether and hooped; and on emergencies they were  
made of leather, with plates of iron or copper.  
These pieces were made in a rude and imperfect  
manner, like the first essays of many new in-  
ventions. Stone balls were thrown out of them, and  
a small quantity of powder used on account of  
their weakness. These pieces had no ornaments,  
were placed on their carriages by rings, and were  
of a cylindrical form. When or by whom they  
were made is uncertain; the Venetians, however,  
used cannon at the siege of Claudia Jussia, now  
called *Chioggia*, in 1366, which were brought  
thither by two Germans, with some powder and  
leaden balls; as well as in their wars with the  
Genoese in 1379. Edward III. made use of can-  
non at the battle of Cressy in 1346, and at the  
siege of Calais in 1347. Cannon were made use  
of by the Turks at the siege of Constantinople,  
in 1394, and in 1452, that threw a weight of  
100 lb. but they generally burst at the 1st, 2d, or  
3d. shot. Lewis XII. had one cast at Tours, of  
the same size, which threw a ball from the Bastille  
to Charenton. One of those famous cannon was  
taken at the siege of Dieu in 1546, by Don John  
de Castro; and is in the castle of St Julio da Bar-  
ra, 10 miles from Lisbon: its length is 20 feet 7  
inches.

inches, diameter at the centre 6 feet 3 inches, and it discharges a ball of 100 lb. It has neither dolphins, rings, nor button; is of a curious kind of metal; and has a large Indian inscription upon it, which says it was cast in 1400.

(3.) GUNS, NAMES, SIZES AND WEIGHTS OF. Formerly the cannon were dignified with uncommon names. In 1503, Lewis XII. had 12 brass cannon cast, of an extraordinary size, called after the names of the 12 peers of France. The Spanish and Portuguese called them after their saints. The emperor Charles V. when he marched before Tunis, founded the 12 Apostles. At Milan there is a 70 pounder, called the *Pimontelle*; and one at Bois-le-duc, called the *Devil*. A 60 pounder at Dover-castle, called *Queen Elizabeth's pocket-pistol*. An 80 pounder in the Tower of London (many years in Edinburgh castle), called *Mons Meg*. An 80 pounder in the royal arsenal at Berlin, called the *Thunderer*. An 80 pounder at Malaga, called the *Terrible*. Two curious 60 pounders in the arsenal at Bremen, called the *Messengers of bad news*. And lastly, an uncommon 70 pounder in the castle of St Angelo at Rome, made of the nails that fastened the copper-plates which covered the ancient Pantheon, with this inscription upon it: *Ex clavibus trabalibus porticus Agrippæ*. In the beginning of the 15th century the following more universal names took place, viz. Cannon royal, or carthoun = 48 pounders, about 90 cwt. Bastard cannon, or  $\frac{1}{2}$  carthoun = 36 pounders, 79 cwt.  $\frac{1}{3}$  Carthoun = 24 pounders 60 cwt. Whole culverins = 18 pounders, 50 cwt. Demi culverins = 9 pounders, 30 cwt. Falcon = 6 pounders 25 cwt. Sacker = 5, 6, and 8 pounders, 13, 15 and 18 cwt. Basilisk = 48 pounders, 85 cwt. Serpentine = 4 pounders, 8 cwt. Aspice = 2 pounders, 7 cwt. Dragon = 6 pounders, 12 cwt. Syren = 60 pounders, 81 cwt. Falconet, = 3, 2, and 1 pounders, 15, 10, and 5 cwt. Moyens, which carried a ball of 10 or 12 ounces, &c. Rabinet, which carried a ball of 16 oz. At present cannon take their names from the weight of the ball they discharge. Thus a piece that discharges a ball of 24 pounds, is called a 24 pounder; one that carries a ball of 12 pounds, is called a 12 pounder; and so of the rest, divided into the following sorts, viz. Ship guns, consisting of 42, 36, 32, 24, 18, 12, 9, 6, and 3 pounders. Garrison guns, in 42, 32, 24, 18, 12, 9, and 6 pounders. Battering guns, in 24, 18, and 12 pounders. Field-pieces, in 12, 9, 6, 3, 2,  $1\frac{1}{2}$ , 1, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  pounders.

GUNAIKOG, a town of Sweden, in the province of Warmeland, 34 miles NW. of Carlstadt.

GUNDANILLA, a town in Porto Rico.

(1.) GUNDELFINGEN, a town of Bavaria in Neuburg, on the Brentz, 19 miles NE. of Ulm, and 38 W. of Neuburg. Lon. 27. 58. E. of Ferro. Lat. 48. 34. N.

(2-4.) GUNDELFINGEN, a town, fort, and barony in Suabia, 21 miles W. of Ulm.

GUNDELIA, in botany: A genus of the polygamia fegregata order, belonging to the syngenesia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 49th order, *Compositæ*. There is scarce any calyx, but quinqueflorous, with tubu-

lar hermaphrodite florets; the receptacle with scarce any pappus.

GUNDELSHEIM, a town of Suab Neckar, 30 miles E. of Heidelberg.

GUNDERSDORF, a town of Austria NNW. of Vienna

GUNELLUS. See BLENNIUS, N°

GUNFLEET, a town in Essex, S. of

GUNHADA. See ENGLAND, § 17.

GUNNA, one of the HEBRIDES, I M

\* GUNNEL. *n. f.* [corrupted from See GUNWALE.]

(1.) \* GUNNER. *n. f.* [from *gun*.] One whose employment is to manage them in a ship,—

The nimble *gunner*

With lintock now the devilish cannon  
And down goes all before him. *Shak*

—They flew the principal *gunners*, and way their artillery. *Hayward*.

(2.) A GUNNER is an officer appointed the guns, either by sea or land. In the London, and other garrisons, as well as in this officer carries a field staff, and a large horn in a string over his left shoulder. He is by the guns; and when there is any occasion of danger, his field staff is raised. His business is to lay the gun, to pass, and to load and traverse her.

(3.) GUNNER, MASTER, a patent officer of ordnance, who is appointed to teach all to learn the art of gunnery, and to certify to the general the ability of any person thought to be one of the king's gunners. To whom he administers an oath not to serve, without any other prince or state; or teach any one of gunnery but such as have taken the Oath

GUNNERA, in botany; a genus of the didyma order, belonging to the gymnomorphous plants. The amentum consists of unisexual flowers there is neither calyx nor corolla; the flower is bidented, with two styles and one seed.

(1.) \* GUNNERY. *n. f.* [from *gun*.] The science of artillery; the art of managing cannon

(2.) GUNNERY is the art of charging, discharging, and exploding fire-arms, as cannons, muskets, &c. to the best advantage.—It depends greatly on having the guns and the proper size and figure, and well adapted to other. See ORDNANCE. As both the practice of GUNNERY are intimately connected with the subject of PROJECTILES, we refer the reader to that article: under which we treat of the practical part of Gunnery, but what relates to the action of GUN-POWDER, we communicate to bullets, the resistance the atmosphere opposes to their motion, and the curves they describe, will be found fully treated.

(1.) \* GUNPOWDER. *n. f.* [from *gun* and *powder*.] The powder put into guns. It consists of about fifteen parts of nitre, two parts of sulphur, and two of charcoal. The proportions are not exactly kept.—*Gunpowder* consists of three ingredients, saltpetre, small quantity of brimstone. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

(2.) GUNPOWDER is a composition of sulphur, and charcoal, mixed together, and

culated; which easily takes fire, and, when expanded with great vehemence, by its elasticity. To this powder we owe all the action of guns, ordnance, &c. so that the military art in a great measure depends on it.

**GUNPOWDER, DIFFERENT KINDS OF.** The ingredients of gunpowder are mixed in various proportions according as the powder is intended for muskets, great guns or mortars: though these proportions seem not to be perfectly adjusted or fixed by competent experience. Schiœnowitz, directs 100 lb. of saltpetre, 25 of sulphur, and 25 of charcoal: for great guns, 100 lb. saltpetre, 15 of sulphur, and 18 of charcoal; for muskets and pistols, 100 lb. of saltpetre, 8 of sulphur, and 10 of charcoal. Miethius extols a proportion of 1 lb of saltpetre to 3 oz. of charcoal and 2 or 2½ of sulphur; than which, he affirms, no gunpowder can possibly be stronger. He adds, that the usual practice of making the powder weaker for mortars than guns, is without foundation, and renders the expence needlessly greater: for whereas to load a large mortar with 4 lb. of common powder is required, and commonly, to load it 10 times, 240 lb. he shows, by calculation, that the same effect would be had with 24 lb. of the strong powder. On this subject, Benjamin Thompson, now Count Rumford, makes several judicious observations, in the *Philos.* Vol. 71. See PROJECTILES.

**1. GUNPOWDER, FORCE OF.** Though Gunpowder is commonly made use of for military purposes only in small quantities, and confined in cartridges; yet when large quantities are fired at once, even when unconfined in the open air, it is capable of producing terrible destruction. The extent of damage done by the blowing up of mines, powder mills, &c. are too numerous to well known to be here taken notice of. The following is a relation of what even a moderate quantity of powder will accomplish, when fired in the open air. "The king of Navarre took Monday. Captain Milon inclosed 500 pounds of powder in a bag, which he introduced, by a drain the town, into the ditch between two principal gates; the end of the leader was hid in the ditch. Every thing being ready to play off this mine, the king gave us leave to go and see its effect; which were surprising. For one of the powder was thrown into the middle of the town, the other into the field fifty paces from the town: all the vaults were destroyed, and a passage made in the wall for three men to enter abreast, which the town was taken."—For further accounts of the force of large quantities of powder, see LINE.

**2. GUNPOWDER, INVENTION OF.** See GUN, § 2.

**3. GUNPOWDER, MEDICAL VIRTUE OF.** Dr Boerhaave says, that the flame affords a very healing virtue in the height of the plague, because the five acid vapour of nitre and sulphur corrects it; and that the same vapour, if received in a close pent up place, kills insects.

**4. GUNPOWDER, METHOD OF MAKING.** Dr Boerhaave's receipt is as follows: Take 4 oz. of refined nitre, 1 oz. of brimstone, and 6 dr. of charcoal; reduce these to a fine powder, and continue burning them for some time in a stone mortar with

a wooden pestle, wetting the mixture between whiles with water, so as to form the whole into a uniform paste, which is reduced to grains, by passing it through a wire sieve fit for the purpose; and in this form, being carefully dried, it becomes gunpowder. For greater quantities mills are usually provided, by means of which more work may be performed in one day than a man can do in 100. The nitre is refined thus: Dissolve 4 lb. of rough nitre, by boiling it in as much water as will commodiously suffice for that purpose: then let it shoot for 2 or 3 days in a covered vessel of earth; with sticks laid across for the crystals to adhere to. These crystals being taken out, are drained and dried in the open air. To reduce this salt to powder, dissolve a large quantity of it in as small a proportion of water as possible; then keep it constantly stirring over the fire till the water exhales and a white dry powder is left behind. To purify the brimstone, dissolve it with a very gentle heat; then scum and pass it through a double strainer. If the brimstone should take fire in the melting, the iron cover is fitted on close to the melting-vessel, and damps the flame. The brimstone is judged to be sufficiently refined if it melts, without yielding any fetid odour, between two hot iron plates, into a kind of red substance. The charcoal for making gunpowder is either that of willow or hazel, well charred in the usual manner, and reduced to powder. Thus the ingredients are prepared; but as these require to be intimately mixed, and as there would be danger of their firing if beat in a dry form, they are kept continually moist, either with water, urine, or a solution of sal ammoniac: They continue thus stamping them together for 24 hours; after which the mass is fit for corning and drying in the sun, or otherwise, so as to prevent its firing.

**(8.) GUNPOWDER, METHOD OF RECOVERING DAMAGED.** The powder merchants put part of the powder on a sail cloth, to which they add an equal weight of what is really good; and with a shovel mingle it well together, dry it in the sun, and barrel it up, keeping it in a dry and proper place. Others again, if it be very bad, restore it by moistening it with vinegar, water, urine, or brandy: then they beat it fine, searce it, and to every pound of powder add 1 oz. 1½ or 2 oz. according as it is decayed, of melted salt-petre. Afterwards, these ingredients are to be moistened and mixed well, so that nothing can be discerned in the composition, which may be known by cutting the mass; and then granulate it as at first. If the powder be in a manner quite spoiled, the only way is to extract the saltpetre with water by boiling, filtrating, evaporating, and crystallizing; and then with fresh sulphur and charcoal to make it up anew.

**(9.) GUNPOWDER, METHODS OF TRYING.** There are two general methods of examining gunpowder; 1st with regard to its purity: 2d. As to its strength. 1. Its purity is known by laying 2 or 3 little heaps near each other upon white paper, and firing one of them. For if this takes fire readily, and the smoke rises upright, without leaving any dross or feculent matter behind, and without burning the paper, or firing the other heaps, it is esteemed a sign that the sulphur and nitre were well purified,

purified, that the coal was good, and that the ingredients were thoroughly incorporated together: but if the other heaps also take fire at the same time, it is presumed that either common salt was mixed with the nitre, or that the coal was not well ground, or the whole mass not well beat and mixed together; and if either the nitre or sulphur be not well purified, the paper will be black or spotted. 2. Several instruments have been invented to try the strength of gunpowder; but they have generally been complained of as inaccurate. Count Rumford in the *Philosoph. Transf.* Vol. 71. gives an account of an exact method of trying the strength of it. "As the force of the powder (says he) arises from the action of an elastic fluid that is generated from it in its inflammation, the quicker the charge takes fire, the more of this fluid will be generated in any given short space of time, and the greater of course will its effect be upon the bullet. But in the common method of proving gunpowder, the weight by which the powder is confined is so great in proportion to the quantity of the charge, that there is time quite sufficient for the charge to be all inflamed, even when the powder is of the slowest composition, before the body to be put in motion can be sensibly removed from its place. The experiment therefore may show which of the two kinds of powder is the strongest, when equal quantities of both are confined in equal spaces, and both completely inflamed; but the degree of inflammability, which is a property essential to the goodness of the powder, cannot by these means be ascertained. Hence it appears how powder may answer to the proof, such as is commonly required, and may nevertheless turn out very indifferent when it comes to be used in service. But though the common powder triers, may show powder to be better than it really is, they can never make it appear to be worse than it is; it will therefore always be the interest of those who manufacture the commodity to adhere to the old method of proof, but the purchaser will find his account in having it examined in a method by which its goodness may be ascertained with greater precision." To determine the goodness of powder by Count Rumford's method, it is necessary to have a barrel suspended by two iron rods, in such a manner, that it can easily move backward or forward by the vibration of the rods; and the space it moves thro' ascertained by marking it on a piece of ribbon. The barrel being then charged with powder, and fitted with a proper bullet, is to be fired, and the recoil marked upon the ribbon. The experiment is to be repeated 3 or 4 times, or oftener if there is any difference in the recoil; the extremes of which may be marked with black lines on the ribbon, and the word *proof* written in the middle line betwixt the two. But if the experiments are made with sufficient accuracy, there will commonly be very little difference in the length to which the ribbon is drawn out. Thus the comparative goodness of powder may easily be ascertained; for the stronger the powder is, the greater will be the recoil, and consequently the greater length to which the ribbon will be drawn out; and if care is taken in proportioning the charge to the weight of the bullet, to come as near as possible to the

medium proportion that obtains in the determination of the goodness of powder from the result of this experiment can hold good in actual service. The bullet should be made to fit the bore with very little play, and it would be better if they were cast in the same mould and in the same parcel of lead; as their weights and dimensions would be more accurately the same; and the experiment of course be more conclusive. The state of the powder might be half an ounce, and it may be put up in a cartridge; and when it is loaded, it should be primed with powder, first taking care to prick the cartridge thro' with a priming wire down the

(10.) GUNPOWDER, PHYSICAL CAUSE OF EXPLOSION OF. See PROJECTILES.

(11.) GUNPOWDER, STATUTES RELATIVE TO. It is enacted by 5 and 11 of Geo. 1. c. 20. that gunpowder be carried in a covered carriage; the barrels being bound up in casks and bags of leather, persons keeping more than 200 pounds of gunpowder at one time, within the city of London and Westminster, or the suburbs, liable to forfeitures if it be not removed by justices of peace may issue warrants to seize, and remove the same.

(12.) GUNPOWDER TREASON. See § 42.

(1.) \* GUNSHOT. *adj.* [ *gun* and *shot* ] by the shot of a gun.—The symptoms are related to *gunshot* wounds. *Wife-man.*

(2.) \* GUNSHOT. *n. f.* The reach of a gun; the space to which a shot can come.—Those who are come over to the religion are supposed to be out of *gunshot*. *D.*

(3.) GUNSHOT WOUNDS. See § 42.

\* GUNSMITH. *n. f.* [ *gun* and *smith* ] whose trade is to make guns.—It is in great esteem with the *gunsmiths* for stocks.

GUNSMITHERY, *n. f.* the business of a gunsmith, or the art of making fire arms, pistols, &c. See MUSKET, and PISTOL.

\* GUNSTICK. *n. f.* [ *gun* and *slick* ] a stick; or stick with which the charge is put into a gun.—

Even a *gunstick* flying into fame.

\* GUNSTOCK. *n. f.* [ *gun* and *stock* ] the part to which the barrel of a gun is fixed; the number is used for bows, pullies, screws, &c. *Mort Hüß.*

\* GUNSTONE. *n. f.* [ *gun* and *stone* ] a kind of stone used in the construction of cannon. They were formerly used in the construction of artillery.—

Tell the pleasant prince, this *gunstone* hath turn'd his ball to *gunstones*.

Shall stand fore charged for the offence.

That shall fly with them.

GUNTER, Edmund, M. A. and excellent mathematician, born in 1581. He studied at Westminster where he graduated in 1606, and eminent for his knowledge in the mathematics was in 1613, chosen professor of Mathematics at Gresham-college, where he distinguished himself by his lectures and writings. He in

useful instruments which bear his name; and published *Canon Triangulorum*: and a work on the Sector, Cross-staff, &c. He died at Gresham-college in 1626.

GUNTERSBERG, a town of Upper Saxony, in Anhalt Bernburg, 52 miles WSW. of Dessau.

GUNTER'S LINE. See LINE.

GUNTER'S QUADRANT. See QUADRANT.

GUNTER'S SCALE, called by navigators simply the *gunter*, is a large plain scale, generally two feet long, and about an inch and a half broad, with artificial lines delineated on it, of great use in solving questions in trigonometry, navigation, &c.

GUNFOOR, a river, town, and fort of Hindostan, N. of the Carnatic, and S. of the Kistnah, extending 40 m. along the bay of Bengal. It belongs to Britain.

GUNTZ, a river, town, and fort of Hungary, 40 miles S. of Vienna.

GUNTZELSDORF, a town of Austria.

GUNWALE, or GUNNEL of a Ship. *n. f.* That piece of timber which reaches on either side of the ship from the half deck to the fore castle, being the uppermost bend which finishes the upper works of the hull in that part, and wherein they put the stanchions which support the waite trees; and this is called the *gunwale*, whether there be guns in the ship or no; and the lower part of any port, where any ordnance are, is also termed the *gunwale*. *Harris.*

GUNZ, a river of Suabia.

GUNZBURG, a town of Suabia, seated on the Gunz, at its confux with the Danube.

GUNZENHAUSEN, a town of Franconia, in Anspach, 10 miles SSE. of Anspach.

GURGE. *n. f.* [*gurges*, Latin.] Whirlpool; gulf.—

Marching from Eden he shall find

The plain, wherein a black bituminous *gurge* Boils out from under ground. *Milton.*

GURGEON. *n. f.* The coarser part of the meal, sifted from the bran.

GURGISTAN. See GEORGIA, N<sup>o</sup> I, § 1.

GURGLE. *v. n.* [*gorgogliare*, Italian.] To fall or gush with noise; as water from a bottle.

Then when a fountain's *gurgling* waters play,  
They rush to land, and end in foalts the day. *Pope.*

Pure *gurgling* rills the lonely desert trace,  
And waite their musick on the savage race. *Young.*

GURGOVATZ, a town of Turkey, in Bulgaria.

GURIEL, a small kingdom of Asia, with its capital on the coast of the Black Sea.

GURK, a town of Carinthia, on the Gurk.

[1.] GURNARD. GURNET. *n. f.* [*gournard*, French.] A kind of sea fish.—If I be not ashamed of my soldiers I am a sow'd *gurnet*: I have misus'd the king's press damnably. *Shak.*

[2.] GURNARD. See TRIGLA.

[1.] GURRAH, a town of Hindostan, capital of Gurrah Mundella, 5 miles N. of the Nerbudda.

[2.] GURRAH MUNDELLA, a circar of Hindostan, between Allahabad and Berar; 120 miles long, and from 40 to 80 broad.

GURRAMCONDA, a town of Hindostan, in Mysore, 112 miles WNW. of Madras.

GURRY, a river of Perthshire in Athol.

GURTNAMACKIN, a river of Ireland, which

VOL. X. PART II.

rises near Loughrea, and after running below ground at different places, falls into Galway bay.

GURUNHUEL, a town of France, in the dep. of the North Coasts; 6 miles SW. of Guingamp.

\* GUSH. *n. f.* [from the verb.] An emission of liquor in a large quantity at once; the liquor so emitted.—If a lung-vein be bursted, generally at the first cough a great *gush* of blood is coughed up. *Harvey.*

\* To GUSH. *v. n.* [*goshelen*, Dutch.] 1. To flow or rush out with violence; not to spring in a small stream, but in a large body.—

A sea of blood *gush'd* from the gaping wound,  
That her gay garments stained with filthy gore. *Spenser.*

—The covering of this abyfs was broken asunder, and the water *gush'd* out that made the deluge, *Burnet.*—

Incessant streams of thin magnetick rays  
*Gush* from their fountains with impetuous force,  
In either pole, then take an adverse course. *Blackmore.*

On either hand the *gushing* waters play,  
And down the rough cascade white dashing fall. *Boonson.*

2. To emit in a copious effluxion.—

The gaping wound *gush'd* out a crimson flood. *Dryden.*

Line after line *ryg* *gushing* eyes o'erflow,  
Led through a sac variety of woe. *Pope.*

GUSSAGO, a town and district of the Cisalpine republic, in the dep. of the Mela, containing 13 communes, and 10,000 citizens in 1797.

\* GUSSET. *n. f.* [*gouffet*, French.] Any thing sewed on cloth in order to strengthen it.

GUSSOLENGO, a town of the Cisalpine republic, in the late province of Verona, on the Adige, 6 miles WNW. of Verona.

\* GUST. *n. f.* [*gouff*, Fr. *gustus*, Latin.] 1. Sense of tasting.—

Destroy all creatures for thy sport or *gust*,  
Yet cry, if man's unhappy, God's unjust. *Pope.*

2. Height of perception; height of sensual enjoyment.—

They fondly thinking to allay  
Their appetite with *gust*, instead of fruit  
Chew'd bitter ashea, which th' offended taste  
With spattering noise rejected. *Milton.*

Where love is duty on the female side,  
On theirs meer sensual *gust*, and fought with  
furlly pride. *Dryden's Fables.*

My sight and smell, and hearing were employ'd,  
And all three senses in full *gust* enjoy'd. *Dryden.*

3. Love; liking.—

To kill, I grant, is sin's extremest *gust*;  
But, in defence, by mercy 'tis made just. *Shak.*

—Old age shall do the work of taking away both the *gust* and comfort of them. *L'Estr.*—We have lost, in a great measure, the *gust* and relih of true happiness. *Tillotson.*

4. Turn of fancy; intellectual taste.—The principal part of painting is to find what nature has made most proper to this art, and a choice of it may be made according to the *gust* and manner of the ancients. *Dryden.*

5. [From *gustor*, Islandick.] A sudden violent blast of wind.—

She led calm Henry, though he were a king,  
X x x

As doth a sail, fill'd with a fretting *gust*,

Command an argosie to stem the waves. *Shak.*

You may as well forbid the mountain pines

To wag their high tops, and to make a noise,

When they are fretted with the *gust* of heav'n.

*Shak.*

—Presently come forth swarms and volleys of libels, which are the *gusts* of liberty of speech restrained. *Bacon.*—

As when fierce northern blasts from th' Alps descend,

From his firm roots with struggling *gusts* to rend  
An aged sturdy oak. *Denham.*

Part stay for passage, 'till a *gust* of wind

Ships o'er their forces in a shining short. *Dryd.*

Pardon a weak distemper'd soul that swells

With sudden *gusts*, and sinks as soon in calms,

The sport of passions. *Addison.*

6. It is written in *Spenser* vitiously for *justs*, sports.

For jolly knight he seem'd, and fair did fit,

As one for knightly *gusts* and fierce encounters fit.

*Spenser.*

\* **GUSTABLE.** *adj.* [*gusto*, Latin.] 1. To be tasted.—This position informs us of a vulgar error, terming the gall bitter; whereas there is nothing *gustable* sweeter. *Harvey.* 2. Pleasant to the taste.—A *gustable* thing, seen or smelt, excites the appetite, and affects the glands and parts of the mouth. *Derham.*

\* **GUSTATION.** *n. f.* [*gusto*, Latin.] The act of tasting.—The gullet and conveying parts partake of the nerves of *gustation*, or appertaining unto sapor. *Brown.*

(1.) **GUSTAVIA**, in botany: a genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monadelphia class of plants. There is no calyx; the petals are very numerous; the berry multilocular; the seeds appendaged.

(2.) **GUSTAVIA**, a town of Sweden, in the island of St Bartholomew.

(1.) **GUSTAVUS I.** king of Sweden, son of Eric Vasa, duke of Gripholm. Christian II. K. of Denmark having made himself master of Sweden, confined Gustavus at Copenhagen; but he making his escape, wandered long in the forests, till the cruelties of the tyrant having occasioned a revolution, he was first declared governor of Sweden, and then, in 1523, elected king. He introduced Lutheranism into his dominions, and died in 1560. See SWEDEN.

(2.) **GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, THE GREAT,** K. of Sweden, was born at Stockholm in 1594, and succeeded his father Charles IX, in 1611. He espoused the cause of the Protestants in Germany, who were oppressed by Ferdinand I. He was a great warrior, and gained many victories, (See SWEDEN.) but was killed in the battle of Lutzen, where his troops got the victory, and defeated two of the emperor's armies, in Nov. 1632.

(3.) **GUSTAVUS III.** See SWEDEN.

\* **GUSTFUL.** *adj.* [*gust* and *full*.] Tasteful; well-tasted.—What he defaults from some dry insipid sin, is but to make up for some other more *gustful*. *Decay of Picty.*

\* **GUSTO.** *n. f.* [Italian.] 1. The relish of any thing; the power by which any thing excites sensations in the palate.—Pleasant *gusts* gratify the appetite of the luxurious. *Derb.* 2. Intellectual

taste; liking.—In reading what I have writ them bring no particular *gusto* along with *Dryden.*

**GUSTOW**, a town of Pomerania.

**GUSTROW**, a town of Mecklenburg.

\* **GUSTY.** *adj.* [from *gust*.] Stormy; turbulentous.—

Once upon a raw and *gusty* day

The troubled Tyber chasing with his fl

*Shak. Julius*

Or whil'd tempestuous by the *gusty*

**GUSUM**, a town of Sweden, in E. Got

\* **GUT.** *n. f.* [*kutteln*, German.] 1. The pipe reaching with many convolutions from stomach to the vent.—This lord wears his belly, and his *guts* in his head. *Shak.*—should have a lay of wire strings below, the belly, and then the strings of *guts* upon a bridge, that by this means the upper stricken should make the lower resound.

—The intestines or *guts* may be inflamed acrid or poisonous substance taken inward *but not on Diet.* 2. The stomach; the receipt of food: proverbially.—

And cram'd them 'till their *guts* did

With cawdle, custard, and plum-cake.

With false weights their servants *guts* cheat,

And pinch their own to cover the deceit

3. Gluttony; love of gormandizing.—

Apicius, thou did'st on thy *guts* bestow

Full ninety millions; yet, when this was

Ten millions still remain'd to thee; which

Fearing to suffer thirst and famishment,

In poison'd potion drank't. *Hakewill on*

\* **To GUT.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To

cerate; to draw; to exenterate.—The fish save the most part of their fish: some are splitted, powdered and dried. *Carrew's &*

2. To plunder of contents.—

In Nero's arbitrary time,

When virtue was a guilt, and wealth a

A troop of cut-throat guards were sent

The rich-men's goods, and *gut* their pa

—Tom Brown of facetious memory, having

a proper name of its vowels, used it as he pleased. *Addison.*

**GUTA**, a town of Hungary, 25 m. E. of Pr

**GUTHALUS**, or **GUTTALUS**, in ancient

graphy, is thought to be the **VIARDUS** of Pr now called the **ODER**.

(1.) **GUTHRIE**, William, a celebrated geographer, famous for his Geographical Grammar born in Aberdeenshire, in 1702, and educated at Aberdeen. He died in 1769.

(2.) **GUTHRIE**, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, consisting of two parts, 6 miles distant each other, and containing 2681 acres; of

1072 were under oats, barley, pease, flax, potatoes, and sown grass, in 1792. The rest

under moss, moor, wood, and water. The population, stated by the rev. Mr William M

in his report to Sir J. Sinclair, was 571, and decreased 13, since 1755. There are vestiges

of a Roman camp in the parish, 15 acres in extent. The *vallum* and *fossa* are yet distinct. The

is an ancient and strong building, erected by Sir Alex. Guthrie, who was slain at Foddon. It is still entire. Its walls are 60 feet high and 10 thick. It has a prodigious massive iron door.

(1.) GUTTA, *n. f.* a Latin term for PROP.

(2.) GUTTA. See ARCHITECTURE, *Index*.

(3.) GUTTA ANGLICANA, *English Drops*, a chemical preparation esteemed of great virtue against vapours and lethargic affections, and purchased at 5000 l. by king Charles II. from the inventor, Dr Goddard. It is a spirit drawn by the retort from raw silk, and rectified with an essential oil.

(4.) GUTTA ROSACEA, in medicine, a red or pimped face; a distemper which, tho' not always owing to hard drinking, is most incident to tipplers.

(5.) GUTTA SERENA, a disease in which the patient, without any apparent fault in the eye, is deprived of sight. See MEDICINE, *Ind. x.*

\* GUTTATED. *adj.* [from *gutta*, Lat. a drop.] Besprinkled with drops; bedropped. *D. S.*

GUTEMBERG, John, one of the inventors of printing, was born at Mentz in 1408, where he died in 1468. He was descended of a noble family. See PRINTING.

\* GUTTER. *n. f.* [from *guttur*, a throat, Lat.] 1. A passage for water; a passage made by water.—These gutter tiles are in length ten inches and a half. *Moxon*.—Rocks rise one above another, and have deep gutters worn in the sides of them by torrents of rain. *Addison on Italy*. 2. A small longitudinal hollow.

\* To GUTTER. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cut up small hollows.—

Tempests themselves, high seas, and howling winds,

The gutter'd rocks, and congregated sands,  
Traitors entsepe'd to clog the guillets keel,  
As having sense of beauty, do omit  
Their mortal natures, letting safe go by  
The divine Desdemona. *Shakesp. Othello*.

My cheeks are gutter'd with my fretting tears. *Sundys*.

First in a place, by nature close, they build  
A narrow flooring, gutter'd, wall'd, and til'd.

*Dryden*.

(1.) \* To GUTTLE. *v. a.* [from *gut*.] To swallow. A low word.—The fool spit in his porridge, to try if they'd hiss: they did not hiss, and so he guttled them up, and scalded his chops. *L'Espr*.

(2.) \* To GUTTLE. *v. n.* To feed luxuriously; to gormandize. A low word.—

His jolly brother, opposite in sense,  
Laughs at his thrift; and, lavish of expence,  
Quaffs, crams, and guttles in his own defence.

*Dryden*.

\* GUTTLER. *n. f.* [from *guttle*.] A greedy eater.

\* GUTTULOUS. *adj.* [from *guttula*, Lat.] In the form of a small drop.—Ice is plain upon the surface of the water, but round in hail, which is also a glaciation, and figured in its guttulous descent from the air. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*.

\* GUTTURAL. *adj.* [*gutturalis*, Latin.] Pronounced with the throat; belonging to the throat.—The Hebrews have assigned which letters are labial, which dental, and which guttural. *Bacon*.—In attempting to pronounce the nasals, and some of the vowels spiritaly, the throat is brought to labour, and makes that which we call a guttural pronunciation. *Holder*.

\* GUTTURALNESS. *n. f.* [from *guttural*.] The quality of being guttural. *D. S.*

GUTTY, in heraldry, a term used when at thing is charged or sprinkled with drops. In blazoning, the colour of the drops is to be named.

\* GUTWORT. *n. f.* [*gut* and *wort*.] An herb

(1.) GUY, Thomas, an eminent bookseller, son of T. Guy, coal-dealer in Southwark. He set a trade about 1668, with a stock of 200 l. The English bibles being then very badly printed, Mr Guy contracted with the university of Oxford for their privilege of printing them, and carried on great trade in them, for many years. Thus he began to accumulate money, and being a stingy man, and very penurious both in living and dressing, he daily increased his store. The bulk of his fortune, however, was acquired by purchasing sea mens tickets during Q. Anne's wars, and South Sea stock, in 1720. To show what great event spring from trivial causes, the public owe the dedication of the greatest part of his immense fortune to charitable purposes, to the indiscreet of civilities of his maid-servant, whom he had agreed to marry; but previous to his nuptials, had ordered the pavement before his door, to be mended as far as to a particular stone which he pointed out. The maid, looking on the paviers at work, remarked a broken place that they had not repaired; but they told her that Mr Guy had directed them not to go so far. "Well, says she, do you mend it; tell him I bade you, and he will not be angry." But the poor girl had presumed too much on her influence over her careful lover, with who a few extraordinary shillings expence turned the scale totally against her. The men obeyed; Guy enraged to find his orders exceeded, renounced his matrimonial scheme, and commenced a build of hospitals. He was 76 years of age when he formed the design of building the hospital which bears his name, and lived to see it roofed in dying in 1724. The charge of erecting this vast pile amounted to 18,793 l. and he left 219,499 l. to endow it; a much larger sum than had ever been dedicated to charitable uses in this kingdom by any one man. He erected an almshouse with library at Tanworth in Staffordshire, for which he was representative in parliament, for 14 poor men and women; and left 125 l. a-year for their pension.

(2.) \* GUY. *n. f.* [from *guide*.] A rope used to lift any thing into the ship. *Skinner*.

(3.) GUY is also a large slack rope, extending from the head of the main-mast to the head of the fore-mast, and having 2 or 3 large blocks fastened to the middle of it; to sustain the tackle used hoist in and out the cargo of a merchant ship.

GUYON, J. M. de la Mothe. See MOTHE.

GUY'S CLIFF, in Warwickshire, a great cliff on the W. side of the Avon and N. side of Warwick where in the time of the Britons was an oratory, as in that of the Saxons a hermitage, to which Gu earl of Warwick, retired, cohabited with the hermit, and built a chapel. This hermitage was kept up till the reign of Henry VI. when Rich. Beauchamp earl of Warwick established a chantry here, and, in memory of Guy, erected a large statue of him in the chapel 8 feet in height.

GUZ, an Indian measure, = 1 yard English.

GUZERAT, a peninsula of Indostan, 170 mi



long, and 140 broad, formed by the Arabian sea, and the gulf of Cambay. It is the richest province in the Mogul's empire.

**GUZMAN, Dominic DE**, founder of the Dominican order of monks, was born at Calaroga in Old Castile, 1170. He preached with great fury against the Albigenes, when Pope Innocent III. made a croisade against that unhappy people; and was inquisitor in Languedoc, where he founded his order, and got it confirmed by the Lateran council in 1215. He died at Bologna in 1221, and was canonized. See **DOMINICANS**.

**GUZNOORGUL**, a prov. of Asia, in Cuttore.  
(1.) \* **To GUZZLE**. *v. a.* To swallow with immoderate gust.—

The Pylian king  
Was longest liv'd of any two legg'd thing,  
Still *guzzling* must of wine. *Dryden.*

(2.) \* **To GUZZLE**. *v. n.* [from *gut*, or *gust*, to *guttle*, or *gustle*.] To gormandize; to feed immoderately; to swallow any liquor greedily.—

Well feason'd bowls the gossip's spirits raise,  
Who while she *guzzles* chats the doctor's praise.  
*Roscommon.*

—They fell to lapping and *guzzling*, till they burst themselves. *L'Esrange.*—

No more her care shall fill the hollow tray,  
To fat the *guzzling* hogs with floods of whey. *Gay.*

\* **GUZZLER**. *n. f.* [from *guzzle*.] A gormandizer: an immoderate eater or drinker.

**GWALIOR**. See **GUALIOR**.

**GWINIAD**. See **SALMO**.

**GY**, a town of France, in the dep. of Up. Saone.

**GYALGUR**, or **GAWILE**, a town of Indostan, in Berar, 20 miles NNW. of Ellichpour, and 75 W. of Deogur.

**GYARUS**, one of the Cyclades, E. of Delos, 12 miles in compass. It was a desert island, and allotted for a place of banishment by the Romans.

\* **GYBE**. *n. f.* [See **GIBE**.] A sneer; a taunt; a sarcasm.—Ready in *gybes*, quick answer'd, saucy, and as quarrelous as the weazel. *Shak. Cymbeline.*

\* **To GYBE**. *v. n.* To sneer; to taunt.—

The vulgar yield an open ear,  
And common courtiers love to *gybe* and sneer.  
*Spenser.*

**GYBING**, the act of shifting any boom sail from one side of the mast to the other. By a boom sail is meant any sail whose bottom is extended by a boom, the fore end of which is hooked to its respective mast; so as to swing occasionally on either side of the vessel, describing an arch, of which the mast will be the centre. As the wind or the course changes, it becomes necessary to change the position of the boom, with its sail, which is accordingly shifted to the other side of the vessel as a door turns upon its hinges. The boom is pushed out by the effort of the wind upon the sail, and is restrained in a proper situation by a strong tackle communicating with the vessel's stern, called the *sheet*. It is also confined on the fore part by the *Guy*.

**GYEY**, a town of France, in the department of Upper Maine.

**GYGÆUS**, or **COLOUS**; a lake of Lydia, 40 stadia, or 5 miles, from Sardis.

**GYGES**, a Lydian, to whom Candaules king of the country showed his wife naked. See **LYDIA**.

Plato says, Gyges descended into a chasm of earth, where he found a brazen horse, whose side he opened, and saw within the body the carcase of a man, from whose finger he took a brazen ring. This ring, when he put it on his finger, rendered him invisible; and by means of it he introduced himself to the queen, murdered her husband, married her, and usurped the crown of Lydia.

**GYGONIUS LAPIS**. See **ROCKING STONE**.  
**GYMNASIARCHA**, in antiquity, the office of the gymnasium. He had two deputies: the **XYSTARCHA**, and the **GYMNASIARCHA**.

**GYMNASIUM**, [from *gymnos*, naked.] In Grecian antiquity, a place fitted for performing exercises of the body, &c. so called because the athletes put off their clothes, to practise with freedom. Gymnasia were first used at Ithaca, but were afterwards common in all Greece; and imitated, augmented, and improved at Rome. There were 3 principal gymnasia: the Academy, the Lyceum, and the Stoa.

Vitruvius describes the structure of the ancient gymnasia, lib. v. c. 11. They were called **PALESTRÆ**, from wrestling, which was one of the most usual exercises; and they were also called them **THERMÆ**, because the bath was a principal part of them. They performed exercises in Homer's time in drawers; which were not laid aside before the 32d Olympiad.

Pythagoras is said to have been the first who introduced the practice: for having been worsted in a wrestling match, he threw them away, and the rest afterwards imitated him. They were a knot of buildings united, sufficient to hold many thousands of people, and having room for philosophers, rhetoricians, the professors of all other sciences, and no less for lectures; and wrestlers, dancers, and a school for those who had a mind to exercise; and who were not without the least disturbance or interruption.

They consisted of 12 parts, viz. 1. The porticos, where the philosophers, rhetoricians, mathematicians, physicians, and other virtuous men gave public lectures, and where they also dispersed and rehearsed their performances. 2. The **XYSTI**, where the youth assembled very early, to perform their exercises in private without any interruption. 3. The **CORYCEUM**, apodyterion, or gymnasium, a kind of wardrobe, where they stripped to bathe or exercise. 4. The **CLATHRARIUM**, or unclathrium, appointed for the purpose of wrestling, which either preceded or followed the bath, wrestling, pancratia, &c. 5. The **CONISTRUM**, or conistra, in which they covered themselves with sand or dust, to dry up the oil.

6. The **PALÆSTRA**, properly so called, where they practised wrestling, the pugillate, and other exercises. 7. The **SPHÆRISTERIUM**, a court, reserved for exercises wherein they used balls. 8. Large unpaved alleys, which were hended the space between the portico walls wherewith the edifice was surrounded. 9. The **XYSTI** or porticos for the wrestlers to use in bad weather. 10. Other **XYSTI** or porticos for fine weather, some of which were planted with trees. 11. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular

shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 12. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 13. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 14. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 15. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 16. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 17. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 18. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 19. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 20. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 21. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 22. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 23. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 24. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 25. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 26. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 27. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 28. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 29. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 30. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 31. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 32. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 33. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 34. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 35. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 36. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 37. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 38. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 39. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 40. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 41. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 42. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 43. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 44. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 45. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 46. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 47. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 48. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 49. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 50. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 51. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 52. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 53. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 54. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 55. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 56. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 57. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 58. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 59. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 60. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 61. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 62. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 63. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 64. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 65. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 66. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 67. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 68. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 69. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 70. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 71. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 72. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 73. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 74. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 75. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 76. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 77. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 78. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 79. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 80. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 81. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 82. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 83. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 84. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 85. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 86. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 87. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 88. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 89. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 90. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 91. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 92. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 93. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 94. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 95. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 96. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 97. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 98. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 99. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises. 100. The **APARTMENTS**, or **STADIA**, a large space of a semicircular shape, where they practised the pugillate, and other exercises.

th sand, and surrounded with seats for  
ators. For the administration of the  
, there were different officers: the prin-  
s, 1. The gymnasiarcha. 2. The xystarch a.  
mnastes. And, 4. The pædotriba. See  
les. Under these 4 officers were a num-  
balterns. The gymnastic exercises may  
d to two general classes; as they depend  
the action of the body alone, or as they  
ternal agents or instruments. The lat-  
ed chiefly in mounting the horse, driving  
ot, and swimming. The former were  
two kinds; ORCHESTRICE, and PA-  
E; which see.

MASTES, a deputy under the gymnasi-  
o was master of the ceremonies.

GNASTICALLY. *adv.* [from *gymnastick*.]  
lly; fitly for strong exercise.—Such as  
ty and vigour are not *gymnastically* com-  
or actively use those parts. *Brown*.

GYMNASTICK. *adj.* [γυμναστικός; *gym-*  
French.] Pertaining to athletic exer-  
cising of leaping, wrestling, running,  
the dart, or quoit.—The Cretans wisely  
eir servants *gymnasticks* as well as arms;  
our modern footmen exercise themselves  
illst their enervated lords are softly lolling  
hariots. *Arbutb. and Pope*.

YMNASTICS, GYMNASTICÆ, or the GYM-  
art, the art of performing exercises of the  
ether for defence, health, or diversion.  
YNASIUM. Several modern writers have  
f this art. M. Burette has given the histo-  
nals in the *Mem. of the R. Acad. of*  
On the first establishment of society, men,  
rised of the necessity of military exer-  
repelling the insults of their neighbours,  
games and proposed prizes to animate  
th to combats of divers kinds. And as run-  
ning, throwing the javelin, driving a ball,  
quoit, wrestling, &c. were exercises suited  
anner of fighting in those days; so the  
d to excel in them, in the presence of the  
to sat as judges, and dispensed prizes to  
victors; till what was originally only a  
t, became at length a matter of such im-  
portance, as to interest great cities and entire na-  
tions in its practice. Hence arose an eagerness to  
win prizes, and hopes of being one day crowned con-  
querors in the public games, which was the highest  
honour mortal could arrive at: nay, they ima-  
gined that even the gods were not insensible of what  
they were so captivated with; and, in consequence,  
performed the greatest part of these exercises in-  
religious and funeral ceremonies. The  
art, as appears from Homer's *Iliad*, lib.  
2, he describes the games at the funeral of  
Patroclus, was known at the time of the Trojan  
war. From the description, it appears, that they  
were foot-races, boxing, wrestling, foot-races,  
throwing the discus, drawing the bow,  
throwing the javelin; and that even then the  
art wanted little of perfection. When  
there was no gymnastic art in Homer's  
time, it is thought that it began to appear no earlier than  
the time of Pythagoras, who is thought to have  
learned it in Sicily. See § 3.

YMNASTICS, MEDICINAL. According to

Plato, one Herodicus, a little prior to Hippocrates,  
was the first who introduced this art into phyfic;  
and his successors, convinced of its usefulness, im-  
proved it. Hippocrates has given instances of it,  
where he treats of exercise in general, and of the  
particular effects of walking, with regard to health;  
also of the different sorts of races on foot or horse-  
back; leaping, wrestling, the exercise of the sus-  
pended ball, chironomy, unctious, frictions, roll-  
ing in the sand, &c. But as physicians did not adopt  
all the gymnastic exercises in their practice, it  
came to be divided between them and the masters  
of martial and athletic exercises, who kept schools,  
the number of which was greatly increased in  
Greece. The Romans, adopting the military and  
athletic exercises of the Greeks, advanced them  
to the utmost pitch of magnificence. But the  
declension of the empire involved the arts in its  
ruin, and, among others gymnastics and medicine;  
which last unhappily then relinquished the title it  
had to the former, and has neglected to resume it  
ever since.

\* GYMNICK. *adj.* [γυμνικός; *gymnique* French.]  
Such as practise the athletic or gymnastic exer-  
cises.—

Have they not sword-players, and ev'ry fort  
Of *gymnick* artists, wrestlers, riders, runners?

*Milton*.

GYMNOPYRIS, in natural history, a name  
given by Dr Hill to pyritæ of a simple internal  
structure, not covered with a crust. See PYRITES.  
Of these there are only two species: 1. A green  
variously shaped kind. 2. A botryoide kind. The  
first is the most common of all the pyritæ, and ap-  
pears under a great diversity of shapes. It is very  
hard and heavy, readily gives fire with steel, but  
will not at all ferment with aquafortis. The 2d  
is very elegant, its usual colour is an agreeable  
pale green; but what most distinguishes it is, that  
its surface is always beautifully elevated into tu-  
bercles of various sizes, resembling a cluster of  
grapes.

GYMNOSOPHISTS, [γυμνοσophισται, Greek, *i. e.*  
a naked philosopher,] a set of Indian philosophers,  
famous in antiquity, so called from their going  
naked. They, however, did not absolutely go na-  
ked; but only clothed themselves no farther than  
modesty required. There were some of these sages  
in Africa; but the most celebrated of them were  
in India. In general, the Gymnosophists were  
wise and learned men; their maxims and discour-  
ses, recorded by historians, do not savour of a bar-  
barous education, but are the result of great sense  
and deep thought. They kept up the dignity of  
their character to so high a degree, that it was never  
their custom to wait upon any body, not even u-  
pon the princes. They believed the immortality  
and transmigration of the soul: they placed the  
chief happiness of man in a contempt of the goods  
of fortune and the pleasures of sense, and gloried  
in having given faithful and disinterested counsels  
to princes and magistrates. It is said, that when  
they became old and infirm, they threw them-  
selves into a pile of burning wood, in order to  
prevent the miseries of an advanced age. One of  
them, named *Calamus*, thus burnt himself in the  
presence of Alexander the Great. Apuleius de-  
scribes the Gymnosophists thus: "They are all  
devoted

who is raised by others among the Egyptians. He makes Buddas, the preceptor of Manes the Persian, the founder of the Gymnosophists.

1. GYMNOSOPHISTS, THE AFRICAN, dwelt upon a mountain in Ethiopia, near the Nile, without either house or ceil. They did not form themselves into societies, but each had his private recess, where he studied and performed his devotions by himself. If any person had killed another by accident, he applied to these sages for absolution, and submitted to whatever penances they enjoined. They lived solely upon the fruits of the earth. Lucan ascribes to these Gymnosophists several discoveries in astronomy.

2. GYMNOSOPHISTS, THE INDIAN, dwelt in the woods, where they lived upon the wild products of the earth, and never drank wine nor married. Some of them practised physic and travelled from one place to another; these were particularly famous for their remedies against barrenness. Some of them, likewise, pretended to practise magic, and to foretel future events.

GYMNOSPERMIA. See BOTANY, *Index*. In this order, the seeds are constantly 4 in number, except in one genus, viz. PHRYMA, which is monospermous.

\* GYMNOSPERMOUS. *adj.* [*γυμνός* and *σπέρμα*.] Having the seeds naked.

GYMNOIUS, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of apodes. They have two tentacula at the upper lip: the eyes are covered with the common skin; there are five rays in the membrane of the gills; the body is compressed, and carinated on the belly with a fin. There are five species, the most remarkable of which is the

GYMNOTUS ELECTRICUS, or electric eel, called by the French *anguille tremblante*. See Plate CLXXI, *fig.* 3. This species is peculiar to Surinam: and is found in the rocky parts of the river.

into the lower part of the body distinguished by its thinness and by the reticulated skin light colour, with which it rina begins about 6 or 7 inches the head; and, gradually down as it goes along, reaches down it is thinnest. The fourth soft, and wavy fin, which tail inches at most below the down the sharp edge of the ty of the tail. The situation singular; being an inch more toral fins. Externally it secunda; but the formed excise of a quill of a common were two pectoral fins just below an inch in length, of a persistence, and orbicular shape chiefly useful in supporting of the fish when he came up he was obliged to do ever cross the body were a number lar divisions, or rather rugose of these the fish seemed to peculiar nature, had the power of tending its body like a worm backwards as well as forwards property of the vermicular then it laid itself on one side rest. For an account of this fish, see ELECTRICI:

GYNÆCEUM, in antiquity women, a separate room in house, where they employed, weaving, and needle.

GYNÆCOCRATUM, man, and *κατακρατορ*; vanquisher of Sarmatia Euronæa. i

the flower, and bears both the floral. See BOTANY, *Index*. The clafs, fays Linnæus, have a monoe, arifing from the unufal fituation of fructification.

COCRACY. *n. f.* [*γυμναζοκρατία*; *nch.*] Petticoat government; fe-

RACY, denotes alfo a ftate where the fupreme command. Such n, &c.

Subgenus of falcons. See FALCO. *adj.* Of gypfum, or plafter.

EGYPTIANS, an outlandifh tribe called *Bobemians* in France, and who; who, difguifing themfelves in fmeared their faces and bodies, anting language, wander up and etence of telling fortunes, curing ufe the people, trick them out of fteal all they can come at. They d of commonwealth of wander- id jugglers, who made their firft emany, about the beginning of

Munfter, who is followed and pelman, fixes the time of their 117; but as he owns, that the firft w were in 1529, it is probably an for 1517; efppecially as, when Sul- ered Egypt in 1517, feveral of the to fubmit to the Turkish yoke, ler one ZINGANEUS; whence the em ZINGANEES; but being at ed and banifhed, they agreed to parties all over the world, where ill in the black art gave them an on in that age of fuperftition and very few years they gained fuch profelytes, (who imitated their complexion,) that they became l even formidable to moft of the

Hence they were expelled from and from Spain in 1591. And of England took the alarm much 130, they are defcribed by Stat. . 10. "as an outlandifh people es Egyptians, uſing no craft nor dize, who have come into this from ſhire to ſhire, and place to companies, and uſed great, ſubtile, s to deceive the people; bearing at they by palmiftry could tel n's fortunes; and ſo many times ily have deceived the people of d alfo have committed many nei- l robberies." Wherefore they are the realm, and not to return u- ifonment, and forfeiture of their ls; and upon their trials for any y may have committed, they ſhall a jury *de medietate lingus*. And nacted, by ſtatutes 1ſt and 2d Ph. and 5th Eliz. c. 20. that if any l be imported into the kingdom, l forfeit 40l. And if the Egypti- main one month in the kingdom, being 14 years old, whether nat- or ſtranger, which hath been

feen or found in the fellowſhip of ſuch Egyptians, or which hath diſguifed him or herſelf like them, ſhall remain in the ſame one month at one or feveral times, it is felony without benefit of clergy. Sir M. Hale ſays, that at one Suffolk aſſizes, no leſs than 13 perſons were executed upon theſe ſtatutes a few years before the reſtoration. But, to the honour of humanity, there are no inſtances more modern than this of carrying theſe laws into practice; and the laſt ſanguinary act is itſelf now repealed by 23 Geo. III. c. 54. In Scotland they ſeem to have enjoyed ſome ſhare of indulgence; for a writ of privy ſeal, dated 1594, ſupports John Faw, lord and earl of Little Egypt, in the execution of juſtice on his company and folk, conform to the laws of Egypt, and in puniſhing certain perſons there named, who rebelled againſt him, left him, robbed him, and refuſed to return home with him. James's ſubjects are commanded to aſſiſt in apprehending them, and in aſſiſting Faw and his adherents to return home. There is a like writ in his favour from Mary Q. of Scots, in 1553; and in 1554, he obtained a pardon for the murder of Ninian Small. So that it appears he had ſtaid long in Scotland, and from him this ſtrolling people received the name of *Faw's Gang*, which they ſtill retain. A very circumſtantial account of this ſingular race of men has been lately given in an *Inquiry* concerning them, written by H. M. G. Grellman, and tranſlated by Mr Rapcr. It is incredible how this ſwarm of banditti have ſpread over the earth. They wander about in Aſia, and Africa, and moſt of the European nations. Spain is ſuppoſed by Mr Twiſs to contain 40,000, by others 60,000; and by ſome 120,000. But in Sept. and Oct. 1806, they were almoſt totally extirpated by the plague. They abound in Italy, and are ſcattered through France, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Ruſſia. Europe contains more than 700,000 of theſe vagabonds. For near 4 centuries they have wandered through the world; and in every region, and among every people, whether barbarous or civilized, they have continued unchanged. Their origin has been generally believed to be from Egypt. Thomalius, Salmon, and Sig. Grifclini, have endeavoured to prove it. M. Grellman, however, traces it from Indoftan, and the cauſe of their emigration from the bloody wars of Timur Beg in India, in 1408-9.

GYPHOPHILA, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, in the decandria claſs of plants; in the natural method ranking under the 22d order, *Caryophyllei*. The calyx is monophyllous, campanulated and angulated; the petals are 5, ovate, and ſeffile; the capsule globoſe and unilocular.

GYPHUM, PLASTER STONE, OR ALABASTER, a natural combination of the calcareous earth with vitriolic acid. See ALABASTER. The properties of gypfum, according to Cronſtedt, are, 1. It is looſer and more friable than calcareous earth. 2. It does not efferveſce with acids, or at moſt in a very ſlight degree. 3. It falls into powder in the fire very readily. 4. When burnt without being made red-hot, its powder readily concretes with water into a maſs which ſoon hardens; but without any ſenſible heat being excited in the operation. 5. It is nearly as difficult of fuſion as limſtone; and ſhows almoſt the ſame effects upon

other

other bodies with limestone, though the acid of vitriol seems to promote the vitrification. Magellan, however, says, that most of the gypsa, particularly the fibrous, melt in the fire pretty easily by themselves. 6. When melted with borax, it puffs and bubbles very much, and for a long time during the fusion. Magellan says, when a small quantity of any gypsum is melted with borax, the glass becomes colourless and transparent; but some sorts of sparry gypsum, melted with borax, yield a fine yellow transparent glass, resembling the topaz; but if too much of the gypsum is used in proportion to the borax, the glass becomes opaque. 7. When burnt with any inflammable matter, it emits a sulphureous smell, and may thus be decomposed, as well as by either of the fixed alkaline salts: In this last method there ought to be 5 or 6 times as much salt as gypsum. 8. The residuum shows some signs of iron. The species are, 1. *Friable gypseous earth*, white, found in Saxony. 2. *Indurated gypsum of a solid texture*, or *Alabaster*, the particles of which are not visible. This is sometimes found unsaturated with vitriolic acid. It is easily cut, and takes a dull polish. It is of several kinds. See ALABASTER, § 1—3. Fabroni tells us, that various fine alabasters are met with in Italy: 24 quarries of them, each of a different colour, being worked out at Volterra. 3. *Gypsum of a scaly texture*, or common plaster of Paris. See PLASTER. 4. *Fibrous gypsum*, or *plaster-stone*, has two varieties, viz. with coarse or with fine fibres. It is white. 5. *Selenites*, or *spar-like gypsum*, by some also called *glacies mana*, and confounded with the clear and transparent mica. It is of two kinds, clear and transparent, or yellowish and opaque, and abounds every where. 6. Crystallized gypsum, or gypseous drusen. This is found composed of wedge-shaped and sometimes of capillary crystals, sometimes white, and some yellowish. 7. Stalactitical gypsums of many different forms and colours. In large pieces it commonly varies between white and yellow, and likewise in its transparency. It is used as alabaster in several works. England abounds with gypseous substances. There are plenty in Derby, Nottingham, and Somerset shires; so fine as to take a polish, like alabaster. A very fine semipellucid alabaster is found in Derbyshire. Fine fibrous talcs are also found in many other places. Very fine gypseous drusen is found in Sheppey Isle, and some exceedingly beautiful, large, and clear as crystal, in the salt rocks at Nantwich in Cheshire. The selenites rhomboidalis abounds in England, particularly in Shotoverhill, in Oxford, though rare in other counties. Sheppey affords spar-like gypsa, of a fibrous nature, and accreting like the radiations of a star on the septaria, and thence called *Stella septarii*. See CRYSTALLIZATION, § I, vii.

\* GYRATION. *n. f.* [*gyro*, Latin.] The act of turning any thing about.—This effluvium attenuates and impelleth the neighbour air, which, returning home, in a *gyration* carrieth with it the obvious bodies into the electric. *Brown*.—If a burning coal be nimbly moved round in a circle with *gyrations*, continually repeated, the whole circle will appear like fire; the reason of which is,

that the sensation of the coal in the several of that circle remains impressed on the soul until the coal return again to the same place.

\* GYRE. *n. f.* [*gyrus*, Latin.] A circle described by any thing moving in an orb.—

Ne thenceforth his approved skill to w  
Or strike, or hurlen round in warlike gy  
Remember'd he; ne car'd for his life  
But rudely rag'd.

Does the wild haggard tow'r into the  
And to the South by thy direction fly?  
Or eagle in her gyres the clouds embrace  
He fashion'd those harmonious orbs, t  
In restless gyres about the Arctic pole.

Quick and more quick he spins the gidd  
Then falls, and in much foam his soul e

\* GYRED. *adj.* Falling in rings.—

Hamlet, with his doublet all unbrac'd  
No hat upon his head, his stockings loos  
Ungarter'd, and down gyred to his ankle  
GYRFALCO. See FALCO, N° 31.

GYRINUS, in zoology, a genus of in  
the coleoptera order. See Plate CLXXI.  
The antennæ are cylindrical, stiff, and short  
the head; the eyes are 4, two on the upp  
two on the under part of the head. Ther  
species.

GYRINUS NATATOR, the common water  
is one third of an inch long; of a bright br  
lour; the feet yellow, flat, and large. It run  
great celerity in circles on the surface of the  
and is very difficult to catch.

GYROMANCY, *n. f.* [from *gyros*, t  
round, and *manis*, magic.] a kind of div  
performed by walking round in a circle.

GYRON, in heraldry, an ordinary of  
straight lines, issuing from divers parts of the  
cheon, and meeting in the Fesse point.

GYRT, a town of Sweden, in E. Gothl

GYSHORN, a town of Lunenburg, on

ver Aller. Lon. 10. 45. E. Lat. 51. 50. N

GYSSONE, a town of Corsica.

\* To GYVE. *v. a.* [from the noun.]  
ter: to shackle; to enchain; to ensnare.  
as little a web as this, will I ensnare as gr  
as Cassio. Ay, smile upon her, do. I'd  
thee in thine own courtship. *Sbak. Otobello*

\* GYVES. *n. f.* [*gewyn*, Welch.] Fetters  
for the legs.—The villains warched wide  
the legs, as if they had gyves on. *Sbak.*—

And knowing this, should I yet stay,

Like such as blow away their lives,

And never will redeem a day,

Enamour'd of their golden gyves? *Ben*

—The poor prisoners, boldly starting up  
off their chains and gyves. *Knolles.*—

Gyves and the mill had tam'd thee.

But Telamon rush'd in, and hap'd to

A rising root, that held his fasten'd feet

So down he fell, whom sprawling on the

His brother from the wooden gyves un

GYZEI, a town of Egypt, near C  
which the French removed the national  
office from that city, in March 1800.









