



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/>





6000469990

399

d.

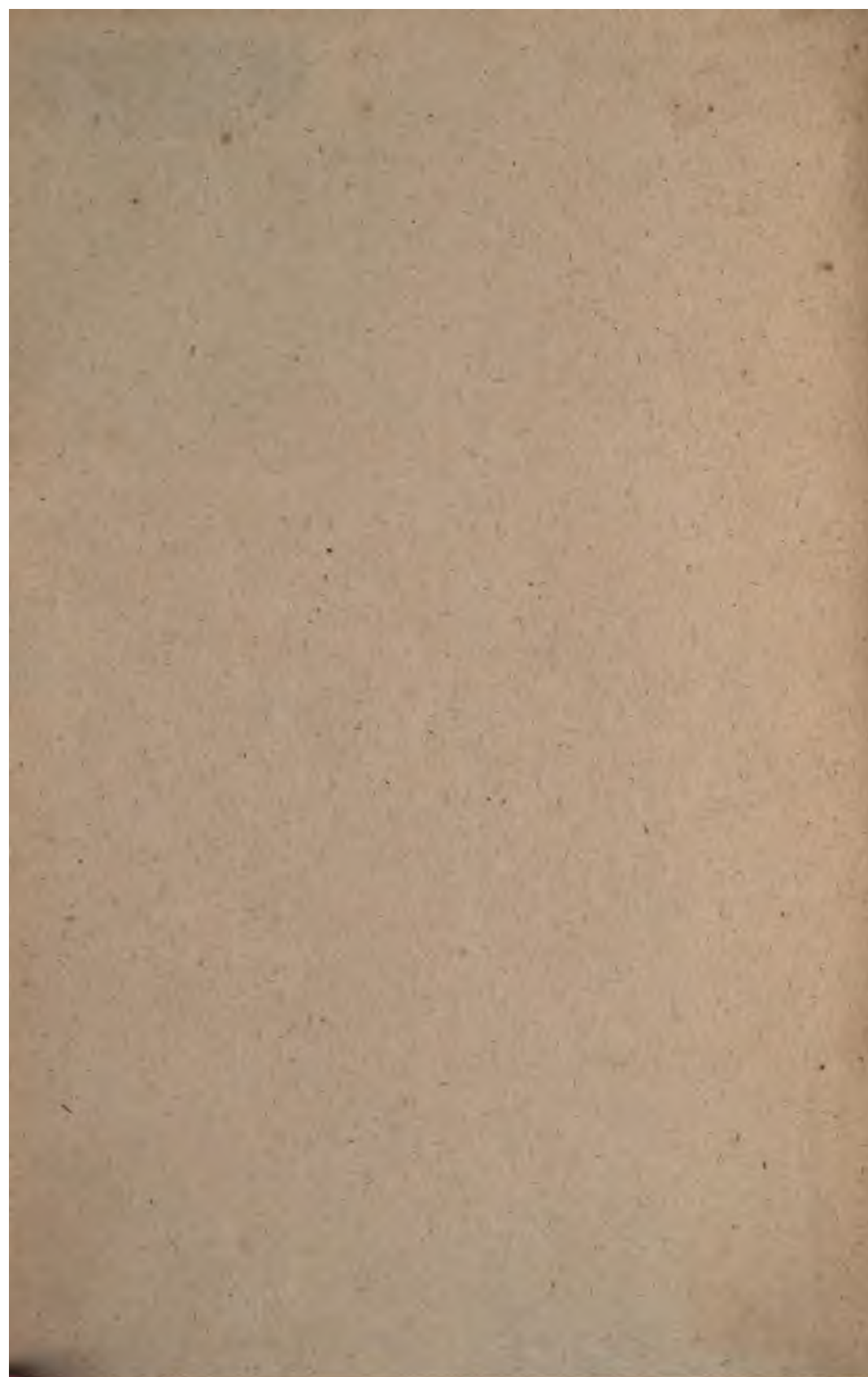
1908

---

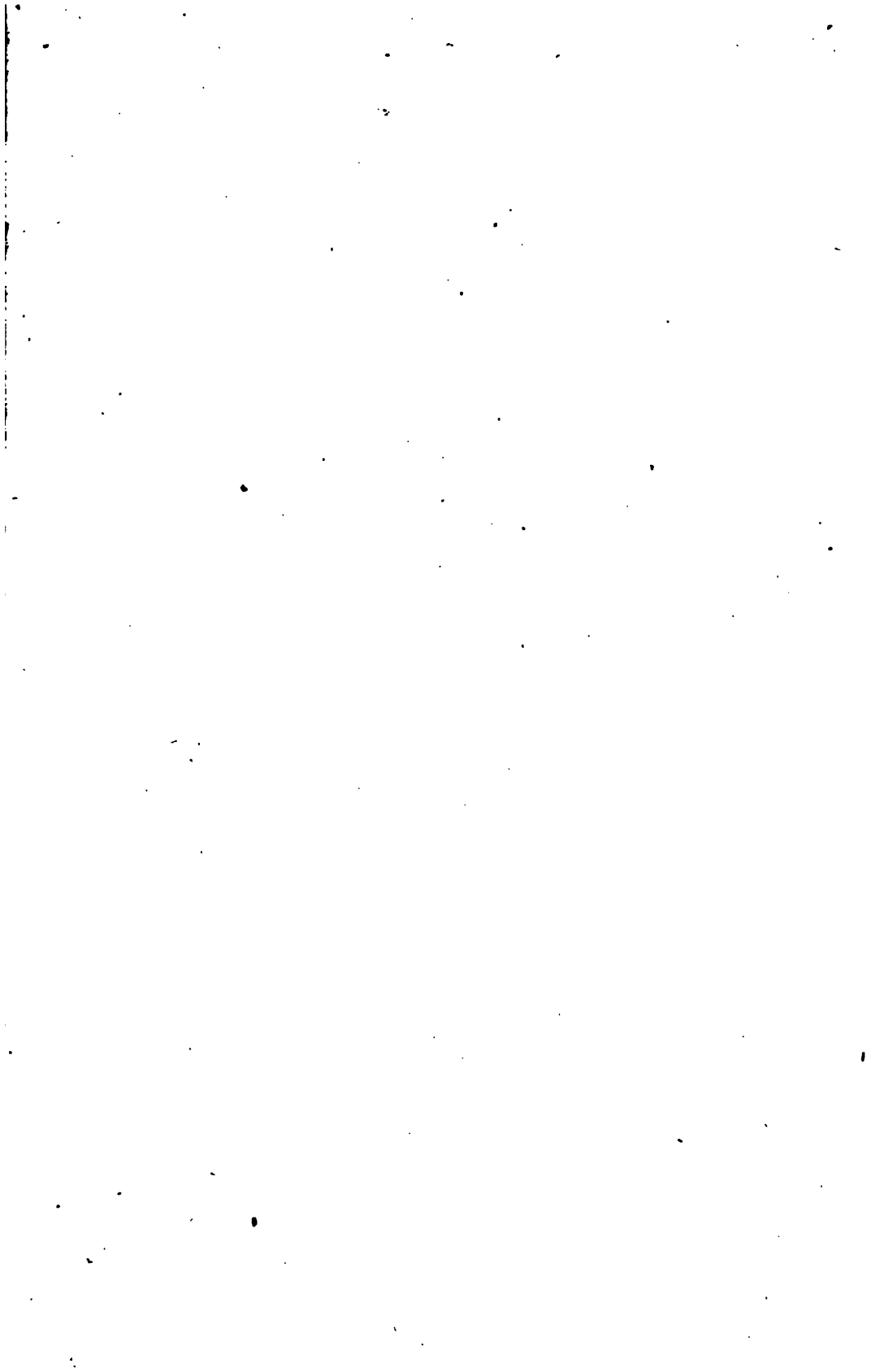
13











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. XIII.

---

---

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR VERNOR, HOOD, AND SHARPE, 31, POULTRY;

AND THOMAS OSTELL, AVE MARIA LANE.

R. Morrison, Printer, Perth.

1807.





# ENCYCLOPÆDIA PERTHENSIS.

## L A W.

### PART III. THE LAW OF SCOTLAND.

#### GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. THE MUNICIPAL LAW of Scotland, as of most other countries, consists partly of statutory or written law, which has the express authority of the legislative power; partly of customary or unwritten law, which derives force from its presumed or tacit consent.

2. Under our statutory or written law is comprehended, 1. Our acts of parliament: not only those which were made in the reign of James I. of Scotland, and from thence down to our union with England in 1707, but such of the British statutes enacted since the union as concerned this part of the united kingdom.

3. A collection of law books under the title of REGIAM MAJESTATEM was published by Sir John Skene, at the commencement of the 16th century. It consisted of the *Regiam Majestatem* now generally deemed to be a mere transcript from a work of Glauville, an English lawyer, called *Regiam Pothestatem*, interlarded with a few of the laws and particular customs of this country, the Borough Laws, the laws of K. Malcolm, &c. Though we are inclined to think these books unworthy to be ranked as part of the statute law of this country, yet as their authenticity was much agitated by the legal antiquarians of the last century, we may, under the article REGIAM MAJESTATEM, give a short abstract of the dispute.

4. Our written law also comprehends, 2. The acts of federant, which are ordinances for regulating the forms of proceeding before the court of session in the administration of justice, made by the judges, who have a delegated power from the legislature for that purpose.

5. The civil, or Roman and canon laws, though they are not perhaps to be deemed proper parts of our written law, have undoubtedly had the greatest influence in Scotland. The Roman still continues to have great authority in all cases where it is not derogated from by any statute or custom, and where the genius of our law suffers us to apply it.

6. Our unwritten, or customary law, is that

which, without being expressly enacted by statute, derives its force from the tacit consent of king and people; which consent is presumed from the ancient custom of the community. Custom, as it is equally founded in the will of the lawgiver with written law, has therefore the same effects: hence, as one statute may be explained or repealed by another, so a statute may be explained by the uniform practice of the community; and even go into disuse by a posterior contrary custom.

7. An uniform tract of the judgments or decisions of the court of session is commonly considered as part of our customary law, because such uniformity establishes what is the custom in each particular case.

8. The SCOTS ACTS of parliament were, by our most ancient custom, proclaimed in all the different shires, boroughs, and baron-courts, of the kingdom. But after our statutes came to be printed, that custom was gradually neglected; and at last, the publication of our laws, at the market-cross of Edinburgh, was declared sufficient; and they became obligatory 40 days thereafter. British statutes are deemed sufficiently notified, without formal promulgation; though, for the information of the lieges in general, copies of every public statute are now forwarded to each district of every county throughout the kingdom, at the public expence. After a law is published, no pretence of ignorance can excuse the breach of it.

9. As laws are given for the rule of our conduct, they can regulate future cases only; for past actions being out of our power, can admit of no rule. New laws can therefore have no retrospect.

10. By the rules of interpreting statute law received in Scotland, an argument may be used from the title to the act itself, a *rubric ad nigrum*; at least, where the rubric has been either originally framed, or afterwards adopted by the legislature.

11. But the rules for the interpretation of laws in Scotland, being in general, nearly the same with those observed for the interpretation and construction of the statute laws in England, it is unnecessary to repeat them here. See PART II, SECT. V.

12. The objects of the laws of Scotland, according to Mr Erskine, are, Persons, Things, and Actions:

## CHAP. I.

## Of PERSONS.

AMONG persons, judges, who are invested with jurisdiction, deserve the first consideration.

## SECT. I. Of JURISDICTION and JUDGES in GENERAL.

1. JURISDICTION is a power conferred upon a judge or magistrate, to take cognizance of and decide causes according to law, and to carry his sentences into execution. The tract of ground, or district, within which a judge has the right of jurisdiction, is called his *territory*: and every act of jurisdiction exercised by a judge without his territory, either by pronouncing sentence, or carrying it into execution, is null.

2. The supreme power, which has the right of enacting laws, naturally has the right of erecting courts, and appointing judges, who may apply these laws to particular cases: but, in Scotland, this right has been always intrusted with the crown, as having the executive power of the state.

3. Jurisdiction is either supreme, inferior, or mixed. That jurisdiction is supreme, from which there lies no appeal to a higher court. Inferior courts are those whose sentences are subject to the review of the supreme courts, and whose jurisdiction is confined to a particular territory. Mixed jurisdiction participates of the nature both of the supreme and inferior: thus the judge of the high court of admiralty, and the commissaries of Edinburgh, have an universal jurisdiction over Scotland, and they can review the decrees of inferior admirals and commissaries; but as their own decrees are subject to the review of the courts of session or judicatory, they are, in that respect, inferior courts.

4. Jurisdiction is either civil or criminal: By the first, questions of private right are decided; by the 2d, crimes are punished. But, in all jurisdictions, though merely civil, there is a power inherent in the judge, to punish, either corporally, or by a pecuniary fine, those who offend during the proceedings of the court, or who shall afterwards obstruct the execution of the sentence.

5. Jurisdiction is either privative or cumulative. Privative jurisdiction, is that which belongs only to one court to the exclusion of all others. Cumulative, otherwise called *concurrent*, is that which may be exercised by any one of two or more courts, in the same cause.

6. All heritable jurisdictions, except those of admiralty and a small pittance reserved to barons, are either abolished, or annexed to the crown. See JURISDICTION, § III.

7. Jurisdiction is either proper or delegated. Proper jurisdiction, is that which belongs to a judge or magistrate himself, in virtue of his office. Delegated, is that which is communicated by the judge to another called a *depute*.

8. Civil jurisdiction is founded, 1. *Ratione domicilii*, if the defender has his domicile within the judge's territory. A domicile is the dwelling place where a person lives with an intention to remain; and custom has fixed it as a rule, that residence for 40 days founds jurisdiction. If one has no fixed dwelling place, *e. g.* a soldier, or a

travelling merchant, a personal citation against him within the territory is sufficient to found the judge's jurisdiction over him, even in civil questions. As the defender is not obliged to appear before a court to which he is not subject, the pursuer must follow the defender's domicile.

9. It is founded, 2. *Ratione rei sitæ*, if the subject in question lie within the territory. If that subject be immoveable, the judge, whose jurisdiction is founded in this way, is the sole judge competent, excluding the judge of the domicile.

10. Where one, who has not his domicile within the territory, is to be sued before an inferior court *ratione rei sitæ*, the court of session must be applied to, whose jurisdiction is universal, and who, of course, grant letters of supplement to cite the defender to appear before the inferior judge. Where the party to be sued resides in another kingdom, and has an estate in this, the court of session is the only proper court, as the *commune forum* to all persons residing abroad; and the defender, if his estate be heritable, is considered as lawfully summoned to that court, by a citation at the market cross of Edinburgh, and pier and shore of Leith: but where a stranger, not a native of Scotland, has only a moveable estate in this kingdom, he is deemed to be so little subject to the jurisdiction of our courts, that action cannot be brought against him till his effects be first attached by an arrestment *jurisdictionis fundandæ causæ*; which is laid on by a warrant issuing from the supreme courts of session, or admiralty, or from that within whose territory the subject is situated, at the suit of the creditor.

11. A judge may, in special causes, arrest or secure the persons of such as have neither domicile nor estate within his territory, even for civil debts. Thus, on the border between Scotland and England, warrants are granted of course by the judge ordinary of either side, against those who have their domicile upon the opposite side, for arresting their persons, till they give caution *judicio sitæ*; and even the persons of citizens or natives may be so secured, where there is just reason to suspect that they are *in meditatione fugæ*, *i. e.* that they intend suddenly to withdraw from the kingdom; upon which suspicion, the creditor who applies for the warrant must make oath. An inhabitant of a borough royal, who has furnished one who lives without the borough in meat, clothes, or other merchandize, and who has no security for it but his own account-book, may arrest his debtor, till he give security *judicio sitæ*.

12. A judge may be declined, *i. e.* his jurisdiction disowned judicially, 1. *Ratione causæ*, from his incompetency to the special cause brought before him. 2. *Ratione suspecti iudicis*; where either the judge himself or his near kinsman, has an interest in the suit. No judge can vote in the cause of his father, brother, or son, either by consanguinity or affinity; nor in the cause of his uncle or nephew by consanguinity. 3. *Ratione privilegii*; where the party is by privilege exempted from their jurisdiction.

13. Prorogated jurisdiction, *jurisdiction in consensibus*, is that which is, by the consent of parties, conferred upon a judge, who, without such consent, would be incompetent. Where a judge

is incompetent, every step he takes must be null, till his jurisdiction be made competent by the party's actual submission to it. It is otherwise where the judge is competent, but may be declined by the party upon privilege.

14. In order to prorogation, the judge must have jurisdiction, such as may be prorogated. Hence, prorogation cannot be admitted where the judge's jurisdiction is excluded by statute. Yet where the cause is of the same nature with those to which the judge is competent, though law may have confined his jurisdiction within a certain sum, parties may prorogate it above that sum unless where prorogation is prohibited. Prorogation is not admitted in the king's causes; for the interest of the crown cannot be hurt by the negligence of its officers.

15. All judges must at their admission swear, 1. The oath of allegiance, and subscribe the assurance; 2. The oath of abjuration; 3. The oath of supremacy; 4. lastly, The oath *de fidelis administratione*.

16. A party who has either properly declined the jurisdiction of the judge before whom he had been cited, or who thinks himself aggrieved by any proceedings in the cause, may, before decree, apply to the court of session to issue letters of adjournment for calling the action from before the inferior court to themselves.

17. That the court of session may not waste their time in trifles, no cause for a sum below 100 Sterling can be advocated to the court of session from the inferior judge competent; but if an inferior judge shall proceed upon a cause to which he is incompetent, the cause may be carried from him by advocacy, let the subject be ever so inconsiderable.

SECT. II. *Of the SUPREME JUDGES and COURTS of SCOTLAND.*

1. THE KING, who is the fountain of jurisdiction, might by our ancient constitution have judged in all causes either in his own person, or of those whom he was pleased to vest with jurisdiction; but the whole power is now vested in the latter.

2. THE PARLIAMENT of Scotland, as our court of the last resort, had the right of reviewing the sentences of all our supreme courts.

By the treaty of UNION, in 1707, the parliaments of Scotland and England are united into one parliament of Great Britain. From this period, the British house of peers, as coming in place of the Scots parliament, is become our court of the last resort, to which appeals lie from all the supreme courts of Scotland; but that court has no original jurisdiction in civil matters, in which they judge only upon appeal. By art. 22. of that treaty, the Scots share of the representation in the house of peers is fixed to 16 Scots peers elective; and in the house of commons to 45 commoners, of which 30 are elected by the freeholders of counties, and 15 by the royal boroughs. The Scots privy council was also thereupon abolished, and sunk into that of Great Britain, which for the future is declared to have no other powers than the English privy council had at the time of the union.

4. A court was erected in 1425, consisting of

certain persons to be named by the king, out of the three estates of parliament, which was vested with the jurisdiction formerly lodged in the council, and got the name of the *SESSION*, because it was ordained to hold annually a certain number of sessions at the places to be specially appointed by the king. This court had a jurisdiction, cumulative with the judge ordinary, in spuilzies, and other possessory actions, and in debts; but they had no cognisance in questions of property of heritable subjects. No appeal lay from its judgments to the parliament. The judges of this court served by rotation, and were changed from time to time, after having sat 40 days; and became so negligent in the administration of justice, that it was at last thought necessary to transfer the jurisdiction of this court to a council to be named by the king, called the *daily council*.

5. The present model of the court of session, or college of justice, was formed in the reign of James V. The judges thereof, who were vested with an universal civil jurisdiction, consisted originally of 7 churchmen, 7 laymen, and a president, whom it behoved to be a prelate; but spiritual judges were in 1584 partly, and in 1640, totally prohibited. The judges of session have been always received by warrants from the crown. Anciently the king seems to have transferred to the court itself the right of choosing their own president; and in a *feudrum* recorded June 26, 1593. K. James VI. condescended to present to the lords, upon every vacancy in the bench, a list of three persons, out of which they were to choose one. But he soon resumed the exercise of both rights, which continued with the crown till the usurpation; when it was ordained, that the king should name the judges of the session, by the advice of parliament. After the restoration, the nomination was again declared to be solely in the sovereign.

6. Though judges may, in general, be named at the age of 21 years, the lords of session must be at least 25. No person can be named lord of session, who has not served as an advocate or principal clerk of session for five years, or as a writer to the signet for 10; and in the case of a writer to the signet, he must undergo the ordinary trials upon the Roman law, and be found qualified two years before he can be named. Upon a vacancy in the bench, the king presents the successor by a letter addressed to the lords, wherein he requires them to try and admit the person presented. The power to reject the presentee upon trial is taken away, and a bare liberty to remonstrate substituted in its place.

7. Besides the 15 ordinary judges, the king was allowed to name 3 or 4 lords of his great council, who might sit and vote with them. These extraordinary lords were suppressed in the reign of George I.

8. The appellation of the COLLEGE OF JUSTICE is not confined to the judges, who are distinguished by the name of *senators*; but comprehends advocates, clerks of session, writers to the signet, and others, as described, *Act S.* 23d Feb. 1687. Where, therefore, the college of justice is entitled to any privilege, it extends to all the members of the college. They are exempted from

watching, warding, and other services within the borough; and from payment of ministers stipends, and of all customs, &c. imposed upon goods carried to or from Edinburgh. Several of these privileges and immunities were called in question by the city of Edinburgh within these 20 years; but they were found by the court of session to be in full force; and their decision being appealed to the House of Lords, was affirmed.

9. Though the jurisdiction of the session be properly limited to civil causes, the judges have always sustained themselves as competent to the crime of falsehood. Where the falsehood deserves death or disembowment, they, after finding the crime proved, remit the criminal to the court of justiciary. Special statute has given to the court of session jurisdiction in contraventions of lawburrows, deforcements, and breach of arrestment; and they have been in use to judge in battery *pendente lite*, and in usury.

10. In certain civil causes, the jurisdiction of the session is exclusive of all inferior jurisdictions; as in declarators of property, and other competitions of heritable rights, provings of the tenor, *cessiones honorum*, restitution of minors, reductions of decrees or of writings, sales of the estates of minors or bankrupts, &c. In a 2d class of causes, their jurisdiction can be only exercised in the way of review, after the cause is brought from the inferior court; as in maritime and consistorial causes, which must be pursued in the first instance before the admiral or commissary; and in actions below 12l. sterling, which must be commenced before the judge ordinary. In all civil actions, which fall under neither of these classes, the jurisdiction of the session is concurrent, even in the first instance, with that of the judge ordinary. The session may proceed as a court of equity by the rules of conscience, in abating the rigour of law, and giving aid in proper cases to such as in a court of law can have no remedy: and this power is inherent in the supreme court of every country, where separate courts are not established for law and for equity. This court formerly met upon the 12th of June, and rose upon the 11th of August for the summer session; but now, in consequence of an act passed in the session of parliament 1790, it meets on the 12th of May and rises on the 11th of July for the summer session; the winter sederunt being still held as formerly, viz. from the 12th of November to the 11th of March inclusive.

11. The supreme criminal judge was styled the Justiciar; and he had anciently an universal civil jurisdiction, even in matters of heritage. He was obliged to hold two justice courts or ayres yearly at Edinburgh or Peebles, where all the freeholders of the kingdom were obliged to attend. Besides this universal court, special justice ayres were held in all the different shires in the kingdom twice in the year: These last having gone into disuse, 8 deputies were appointed, two for every quarter of the kingdom, who should make their circuits over the whole in April and October.

12. The office of deputies was suppressed in 1672; and 5 lords of session were added, as *commissioners of justiciary*, to the justice-general and justice-clerk. The justice-general, if present, is

constant president of the court, and in his absence the justice-clerk. The kingdom is divided into 3 districts, and two of the judges are appointed to hold circuits in certain boroughs of each district twice in the year; one judge may proceed to business in the absence of his colleague. In trials before this court the evidence was always taken down in writing till the act 23d Geo. III. was passed; by which the judges may try and determine all causes by the verdict of an assize, upon examining the witnesses *viva voce* without reducing the testimony into writing, unless it shall appear more expedient to proceed in the former way, which they have it in their power to do. This act was at first temporary, but is now made perpetual by 27th Geo. III. cap. 18.

13. By an old statute, the crimes of robbery, rape, murder, and wilful fire-raising, (the four pleas of the crown), are said to be referred to the king's court of justiciary; but the only crime in which, *de praxi*, the jurisdiction of justiciary became at last exclusive of all inferior criminal jurisdiction, was that of high treason. The court of justiciary, when sitting at Edinburgh, has a power of advocating causes from all inferior criminal judges, and of suspending their sentences.

14. The CIRCUIT COURT can also judge in all criminal causes which do not infer death or disembowment, upon appeal from any inferior court within their district; and has a supreme civil jurisdiction, by way of appeal, in all causes not exceeding 12l. sterling, in which their decrees are not subject to review; but no appeal is to lie to the circuit, till the cause be finally determined in the inferior court.

15. THE COURT OF EXCHEQUER, as the king's chamberlain court, judged in all questions of the revenue. In pursuance of the treaty of Union, that court was abolished, and a new court erected, consisting of the Lord High Treasurer of Great Britain, and a chief Baron, with 4 other Barons of Exchequer; which barons are to be made of sergeants at law, English barristers, or Scots advocates of 5 years standing. This court has a private jurisdiction conferred upon it, as to the duties of customs, excise, or other revenues appertaining to the king or prince of Scotland; and as to all honours and estates that may accrue to the crown; in which matters, they are to judge by the forms of proceeding used in the English court of Exchequer, under the following limitations; that no debt due to the crown shall affect the debtor's real estate in any other manner than such estate may be affected by the laws of Scotland, and that the validity of the crown's titles to any honours or lands shall continue to be tried by the court of session. The barons have the powers of the Scots court transferred to them, of passing the accounts of sheriffs or other officers who have the execution of writs issuing from, or returnable to, the court of exchequer, and of receiving resignations, and passing signatures of charters, gifts of casualties, &c. But though all these must pass in exchequer, it is the court of session only who can judge of their preference after they are completed.

16. The jurisdiction of the ADMIRAL in maritime causes was of old concurrent with that of the session. The high admiral is declared the king's justice

### I. SECT. III.

### L A W.

5

neral upon the seas, on fresh water with-  
nark, and below the first bridge, and in  
rivers and creeks. His civil jurisdiction ex-  
tends to all maritime causes; and so comprehends  
all charter-parties, freights, salvages, bot-  
tomry, &c. He exercises this supreme jurisdic-  
tion in the high court of admiralty; and he may also name inferior depu-  
ties whose jurisdiction is limited to particular dis-  
tricts whose sentences are subject to the re-  
view of the high court. In causes which are de-  
fined under the admiral's cognizance, his  
jurisdiction is sole; in so much, that the session  
judge may review his decrees by suspen-  
sion of execution cannot carry a maritime ques-  
tion to him by advocacy. The admiral has  
also, by usage, a jurisdiction in mercantile  
causes where they are not strictly maritime,  
but in such cases he sits with that of the judge ordinary.

Our supreme courts have seals or signets  
of their several jurisdictions. The courts  
of law and the chancery used formerly the same sig-  
net which was called the king's, because the  
seal was from thence run in the king's name;  
but when the justiciary got at last a separate sig-  
net, yet that of the session still retains the  
name of the KING'S SIGNET. In this office  
the clerk summons for citation, letters of execu-  
tion, or for staying or prohibiting of  
execution, and generally whatever passes by the  
hand of the session, and is to be executed by  
the officers of the court. All these must, before  
they are signed by the writers or clerks of the  
court, be put under the seal of the session, where they are  
in a depending process, merely for pro-  
bation they pass by the signet, must be  
signed by a clerk of session. The clerks of the  
court prepare and subscribe all signatures of  
writs, or other royal grants, which pass in ex-

which they return juries, for the trial of causes  
that require them. The writs for electing mem-  
bers of parliament have been, since the union, di-  
rected to the sheriffs, who, after they are execu-  
ted, return them to the crown office from whence  
they issued. They also execute writs issuing from  
the court of exchequer; and in general, take care  
of all estates, duties, or casualties, that fall to the  
crown within their territory, for which they must  
account to the exchequer.

4. A LORD OF REGALTY was a magistrate who  
had a grant of lands from the sovereign, with a  
royal jurisdiction annexed thereto. His civil ju-  
risdiction was equal to that of a sheriff; his crimi-  
nal extended to the 4 pleas of the crown. He had  
a right to repledge or reclaim all criminals, sub-  
ject to his jurisdiction, from any other competent  
court, though it were the justiciary itself, to his  
own. He had also right, according to the most  
common opinion, to the single escheat of all de-  
nounced persons residing within his jurisdiction, e-  
ven though such privilege had not been expressed  
in the grant of regality.

5. THE STEWART was the magistrate appointed  
by the king over such regality lands as happened  
to fall to the crown by forfeiture, &c. and there-  
fore the steward's jurisdiction was equal to that of  
a regality. The two stewartries of Kirkcudbright,  
and of Orkney and Zetland, make shires or counties  
by themselves, and send each a representative  
to parliament.

6. Where lands not erected into a regality fell  
into the king's hands, he appointed a bailie over  
them, whose jurisdiction was equal to that of a  
sheriff.

7. By the late jurisdiction act, 20 Geo. II. all  
heritable regalities and baileries, and all such he-  
ritable sheriffships and stewartries as were only  
parts of a shire, are dissolved; and the powers  
formerly vested in them are made to devolve upon  
such of the king's courts as these powers would  
have belonged to, if the jurisdictions dissolved had  
never been granted. All sheriffships and stewar-  
tries that were no part of a shire, where they had  
been granted, either heritably or for life, are re-  
sumed and annexed to the crown. No high sher-  
riff or steward can hereafter judge personally in a  
any cause. One sheriff or steward-depute is to be  
appointed by the king in every shire, who must  
be an advocate of three years standing; and whose  
office as sheriff or steward-depute is now by 28  
Geo. II. held *ad vitam aut culpam*.

8. The appanage, or patrimony, of the prince  
of Scotland, has been long erected into a regality  
jurisdiction, called the Principality. It is perso-  
nal to the king's eldest son, upon whose death or  
succession, it returns to the crown. The prince  
has, or may have, his own chancery, from which  
his writs issue, and may name his own chamber-  
lain and other officers, for receiving and managing  
his revenue. The vassals of the prince are enti-  
tled to elect, or to be elected, members of parlia-  
ment for counties, equally with those who hold  
of the crown.

9. JUSTICES OF THE PEACE are magistrates na-  
med by the sovereign, over the several counties of  
the kingdom, for the special purpose of preserving  
the

#### I. Of the INFERIOR JUDGES and COURTS of SCOTLAND.

SHERIFF, (from *shere*, to cut or divide, and  
governor,) is the judge ordinary constitu-  
ted by the crown over a particular division or  
county.

The sheriff's jurisdiction, both civil and  
criminal, was, in ancient times, nearly as ample  
in his own territory as that of the supreme  
court of session and justiciary was over the whole  
kingdom.

His civil jurisdiction now extends to all ac-  
tions, contracts, or other personal obliga-  
tions, and to all possessory actions, as  
replevin, ejections, spuilzies, &c.; to all briefs  
from the chancery, as of inquest, trespas,  
tort, &c.; and even to adjudications  
of debt, when proceeding on the renuncia-  
tion of the apparent heir. His present criminal  
jurisdiction extends to certain capital crimes, as  
murder, though it be one of the  
pleas of the crown; and he is competent to most  
of the public police, and has a cumulative  
jurisdiction with justices of the peace in all riots  
and disturbances of the peace.

Justices have a ministerial power, in virtue of

the public peace. Anciently their power reached little farther than to bind over disorderly persons for their appearance before the privy council or justiciary; afterwards they were authorized to judge in breaches of the peace, and in most of the laws concerning public policy. They may compel workmen or labourers to serve for a reasonable fee, and they can condemn masters in the wages due to their servants. They have power to judge in questions of highways, and to call out the tenants with their cottars and servants to perform six days work yearly for upholding them. It has been lately, however, found by the court of session, that justices have no jurisdiction whatever in common actions for debt. So that it now seems fixed, that they are incompetent in such actions, except where they are declared competent by special statute.

10. Since the union, our justices of the peace, over and above the powers committed to them by the laws of Scotland, are authorized to exercise whatever belonged to the office of an English justice, in relation to the public peace. From that time, the Scots and the English commissions have run in the same style, which contain powers to inquire into and judge in all capital crimes, witchcrafts, felonies, and several others specially enumerated; with this limitation subjoined, *of which justices of the peace may lawfully inquire*. Two justices can constitute a court. Special statute has given the cognizance of several matters of excise to the justices, in which their sentences are final; as to which, and the powers thereby vested in them, the reader must be referred to the excise laws; which are too numerous and complex to be detailed in this work.

11. A **BOROUGH** is a body corporate, made up of the inhabitants of a certain tract of ground erected by the sovereign, with jurisdiction annexed to it. Boroughs are erected, either to be holden of the sovereign himself, which is the case of royal boroughs; or of the superior of the lands erected, as boroughs of regality and barony. Boroughs royal have power, by their charters, to choose annually certain office-bearers or magistrates; and in boroughs of regality and barony, the nomination of magistrates is, by their charter, lodged sometimes in the inhabitants, sometimes in the superior. Bailies of boroughs have jurisdiction in matters of debt, services, and questions of possession betwixt the inhabitants. Their criminal jurisdiction extends to petty riots, and reckless fire raising. The dean of guild is that magistrate of a royal borough who is head of the merchant company; he has the cognizance of mercantile causes within borough; and the inspection of buildings, that they encroach neither on private property, nor on the public streets; and he may direct insufficient houses to be pulled down. His jurisdiction has no dependence on the court of the borough, or baillie court.

12. A **BARON**, in the extensive sense of that word, is one who holds his lands immediately of the crown; and, as such, had, by our ancient constitution, right to a seat in parliament, however small his freehold might have been. The lesser barons were exempted from the burden of at-

tending the service of parliament. This exemption grew insensibly into an utter disability in all the lesser barons from sitting in parliament, without election by the county; though there is no statute expressly excluding them.

13. To constitute a baron in the strict law sense, his lands must have been erected, or at least confirmed; by the king, *in liberam baroniam*; and such baron had a certain jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, which he might have exercised, either in his own person, or by his baillie.

14. But by the jurisdiction act, the civil jurisdiction of a baron is reduced to the power of recovering from his vassals and tenants, the rents of lands, and of condemning them in mill-services; and of judging in causes where the debt and damages do not exceed 40s. Sterling. His criminal jurisdiction is, by the same statute, limited to assaults, batteries, and other smaller offences, which may be punished by a fine not exceeding 20s. Sterling, or by setting the offender in the stocks in the day time not above three hours; the fine to be levied by pouding, or one month's imprisonment. The jurisdiction formerly competent to proprietors of mines, and coal or salt works, over their workmen, is reserved; and also that which was competent to proprietors who had the right of fairs or markets, for correcting the disorders that might happen during their continuance; provided they shall exercise no jurisdiction interfering the loss of life, or demeritation.

15. The **HIGH CONSTABLE** of Scotland had no fixed territorial jurisdiction, but followed the court; and had, jointly with the marshal, the cognizance of all crimes committed within two leagues of it. All other constabularies were dependent on him: these had castles, and sometimes boroughs, subject to their jurisdiction, as Dundee, Montrose, &c. and among other powers, now little known, they had the right of exercising criminal jurisdiction within their respective territories during the continuance of fairs. By the jurisdiction act, all jurisdictions of constabulary are dissolved, except that of high constable.

16. The office of the **LYON KING OF ARMS** was chiefly ministerial, to denounce war, proclaim peace, carry public messages, &c. But he has also a right of jurisdiction, whereby he can punish all who usurp arms contrary to the law of arms, and deprive or suspend messengers, heralds, or pursuivants, (who are officers named by himself); but he has no cognizance of the damage arising to a private party through the messenger's fault. Messengers are subservient to the supreme courts of session and justiciary; and their proper business is to execute all the king's letters either in civil or criminal causes. They must find caution for the proper discharge of their duty *qua* messengers; and in case of any malversation, or neglect, by which damage arises to their employers, their sureties may be recurred upon for indemnification. They are, however, not answerable for the conduct of the messenger in any other capacity *but qua* such; and therefore, if a messenger is authorized to uplift payment from a debtor, and fails to account to his employer, the cautioner is liable; his obligation extending only to the re-

lar and proper duties of the office in executing the diligence, or the like.

17. Our judges had, for a long time, no other fines or appointments, than what arose from the sentences they pronounced. Our criminal judges applied to their own use the fines or issues of their several courts; and regalities had a right to the whole escheat of all persons denounced, who resided within their jurisdiction; and our civil judges got a certain proportion of the sum contained in the decree pronounced. But these were all prohibited upon regular salaries being settled upon them.

#### SECT. IV. OF ECCLESIASTICAL PERSONS.

1. THE Pope, or bishop of Rome, was long acknowledged, over the western part of Christendom for the head of the Christian church. The papal jurisdiction was abolished in Scotland in 1560. The king was, by act 1669, declared to have supreme authority over all persons, and in all causes ecclesiastical; but this act was repealed by 1792, as inconsistent with Presbyterian church government, which was then upon the point of being established.

2. Before the reformation from Popery, the clergy was divided into secular and regular. The former had a particular tract of ground given them in charge, within which they exercised the pastoral office of bishop, presbyter, or other church officer. The regular clergy had no cure of souls; but were tied down to residence in their abbacies, priories, or other monasteries; and they, as the name of *regular*, from the rules of mortification to which they were bound, according to the institution of their several orders. Upon the vacancy of any benefice, whether secular or regular, commendators were frequently appointed to let the fruits, as factors or stewards, during the vacancy. The Pope alone could give the higher benefices in *commendam*; and at last, from the pretence of his power, he came to name commendators for life, and without any obligation to resign. After the reformation, several abbacies and priories were given by James VI. in *perpetuam commendam*, to laics.

3. Upon abolishing the Pope's authority, the regular clergy were totally suppressed; and, in place of all the different degrees which distinguished the inferior clergy, we had at first only parsonal presbyters or ministers, and superintendants, who had the oversight of the church within a certain district: soon thereafter, the church government became episcopal, by archbishops, bishops, and, and after some intermediate turns, is now governed by kirk sessions, presbyteries, synods, and general assemblies.

4. *Prelate*, in our statutes, signifies a bishop, dean, or other dignified clergyman, who in virtue of his office had a seat in parliament. Every bishop has his chapter, which consisted of a certain number of the ministers of the diocese, by whose assistance he managed the affairs of the diocese within that district. The nomination of bishops to vacant sees has been in the crown since 1534, though under the appearance of continuing to present right of election, which was in the pope. The confirmation by the crown under

the great seal, of the chapter's election; conferred a right to the spirituality of the benefice; and he had grant, upon the consecration of the bishop-elect, gave a title to the temporality; but this ad grant fell soon into disuse.

5. He who founded or endowed a church was entitled to the right of patronage thereof, or *advocatio ecclesie*; whereby, among other privileges, he might present a churchman to the cure, in case of a vacancy. The presentee, after he was received into the church, had a right to the benefice *proprio jure*; and if the church was parochial, he was called a parson. The Pope claimed the right of patronage of every kirk to which no third party could shew a special title; and, since the reformation, the crown, as coming in place of the Pope, is considered as universal patron, where no right of patronage appears in a subject. Where two churches are united, which had different patrons, each patron presents by turns.

6. Gentlemen of estates frequently founded colleges or collegiate churches; the head of which got the title of *provost*, under whom were certain prebendaries, or canons, who had their several stalls in the church, where they sung masses. Others of lesser fortunes founded chaplainries, which were donations granted for the singing of masses for deceased friends at particular altars in a church. Though all these were suppressed upon the reformation, their founders continued patrons of the endowments; out of which they were allowed to provide bursars, to be educated in any of the universities.

7. Where a fund is gifted for the establishment of a second minister in a parish where the cure is thought too heavy for one, the patronage of such benefice does not belong to the donor, but to him who was patron of the church, unless either where the donor has reserved to himself the right of patronage in the donation, or where he and his successors have been in the constant use of presenting the second minister, without challenge from the patron. The right of presenting incumbents was by Act 1695, c. 23, taken from patrons, and vested in the heritors and elders of the parish, upon payment to be made by the heritors to the parish of 600 marks; but it was again restored to patrons, by Act c. 12, with the exception of the presentations held in pursuance of the former act.

8. Patrons were not simply administrators of the church; for they held the fruits of the vacant benefice as their own, for some time after the reformation. But that right is now no more than a trust in the patron, who must apply them to pious uses within the parish, at the sight of the heritors, verily as they will do. If he fail, he loses his right of administering the vacant stipend for that and the next vacancy. The king, who is exempted from this rule, may apply the vacant stipend of his churches to any pious use, though not within the parish. If one should be ordained to a church, in opposition to the presentee, the patron, whose civil right cannot be affected by any sentence of a church-court, may retain the stipend as vacant. Patrons are to this day entitled to a seat and burial place in the churches of which they are patrons, and to the right of all the tithes



of the parish not heritably disposed. See CHAP. II. § 8. X.

9. That kirks may not continue too long vacant, the patron must present to the presbytery (formerly to the bishop), a fit person for supplying the cure, within six months from his knowledge of the vacancy, otherwise the right of presentation accrues to the presbytery *jure devoluto*. Upon presentation by the patron, the bishop collated or conferred the benefice upon the presentee by a writing, in which he appointed certain ministers of the diocese to induce or institute him into the church; which induction completed his right, and was performed by their placing him in the pulpit, and delivering to him the bible and keys of the church. The bishop collated to the churches of which himself was patron, pleno jure, or without presentation; which he also did in mensal churches, whose patronages were sunk, by the churches being appropriated to him, as part of his patrimony. Since the revolution, a judicial act of admission by the presbytery, proceeding either upon a presentation, or upon a call from the heritors and elders, or upon their own *jus devotivum*, completes the minister's right to the benefice.

10. Soon after the reformation, the Popish churchmen were prevailed upon to resign in the sovereign's hands a third of their benefices; which was appropriated, in the first place, for the subsistence of the reformed clergy. To make this fund effectual, particular localities were assigned in every benefice, to the extent of a third, called the *assumption of thirds*; and for the farther support of ministers, Q. Mary made a grant in their favour of all the small benefices not exceeding 300 merks. Bishops, by the act which restored them to the whole of their benefices, were obliged to maintain the ministers within their dioceses, out of the thirds; and in like manner, the laic titulars, who got grants of the teinds, became bound, by their acceptance thereof, to provide the kirks within their erections in competent stipends.

11. But all those expedients for the maintenance of the clergy having proved ineffectual, a commission of parliament was appointed in the reign of James VI. for planting kirks, and modifying stipends to ministers out of the teinds; and afterwards several other commissions were appointed, with the more ample powers of dividing large parishes, erecting new ones, &c. all of which were, in 1707, transferred to the court of session, with this limitation, that no parish should be disjoined, nor new church erected, nor old one removed to a new place, without the consent of three fourths of the heritors, computing the votes, not by their numbers, but by the valuation of their rents within the parish. The judges of session, when sitting in that court, are considered as a commission of parliament, and have their proper clerks, mace, and other officers of court, as such.

12. The lowest stipend that could be modified to a minister by the first commission, was 500 merks, or five chalders of victual, unless where the whole teinds of the parish did not extend so far: and the highest was 1000 merks, or ten chalders. The parliament in 1633 raised the minimum to 8 chalders of victual, and proportionably in like manner; but as neither the commission appointed by

that act, nor any of the subsequent ones, was limited as to the *maximum*, the commissioners have been in use to augment stipends considerably above the old *maximum*, where there is sufficiency of free teinds, and the cure is burdensome, or living expensive.

13. Where a certain quantity of stipend is modified to a minister out of the teinds of a parish, without proportioning that stipend among the several heritors, the decree is called a *decree of modification*: but where the commissioners also fix the particular proportions payable by each heritor, it is a decree of *modification and locality*. Where a stipend is only modified, it is secured on the whole teinds of the parish, so that the minister can insist against any one heritor to the full extent of his teinds; such heritor being always entitled to relief against the rest, for what he shall have paid above his just share: but where the stipend is also localled, each heritor is liable in no more than his own proportion.

14. Few of the reformed ministers were, at first, provided with dwelling houses; most of the Popish clergy having, upon the first appearance of the reformation, let their manse in feu, or in long tacks: ministers therefore got a right, in 1563, to as much of these manse as would serve them, notwithstanding such feus or tacks. Where there was no parson's nor vicar's manse, one was to be built by the heritors, at the sight of the bishop, (now the presbytery), the charge not exceeding L. 1000 Scots, nor below 500 merks. Under a manse are comprehended stable, barn, and byre, with a garden; for all which it is usual to allow half an acre of ground.

15. Every incumbent is entitled at his entry to have his manse put in good condition; for which purpose, the presbytery may appoint a visitation by tradesmen, and order estimates to be laid before them of the sums necessary for the repairing, which they may proportion among the heritors according to their valuations. The presbytery, after the manse is made sufficient, ought, upon application of the heritors, to declare it a *free manse*; which lays the incumbent under an obligation to uphold it in good condition during his incumbency, otherwise he or his executors shall be liable in damages; but they are not bound to make up the loss arising from the necessary decay of the building by the waste of time.

16. All ministers, where there is any landward or country parish, are, over and above their stipend, intitled to a glebe, which comprehends 4 acres of arable land, or 16 fowms of pasture ground where there is no arable land; (a *sowm* is what will graze ten sheep or one cow;) and it is to be designed or marked by the bishop or presbytery out of such kirk lands within the parish as lie nearest to the kirk, and, in default of kirk lands, out of temporal lands.

17. A right of relief is competent to the heritors, whose lands are set off for the manse or glebe, against the other heritors of the parish. Manse and glebes, being once regularly designed, cannot be sued or sold by the incumbent in prejudice of his successors, which is in practice extended even to the case where such alienation evidently appears profitable to the benefice.

18. Ministers, beside their glebe, are entitled to grafs for a horse and two cows. And if the lands, out of which the grafs may be designed, either lie at a distance, or are not fit for pasture, the heritors are to pay to the minister L. 20 Scots yearly as an equivalent: Ministers have also freedom of foggage, pasturage, fuel, seal, divot, loaning, and free fish and entry, according to use and wont: but what these privileges are, must be determined by the local customs of the several parishes.

19. The legal terms at which stipends become due to ministers are Whitfunday and Michaelmas. If the incumbent be admitted to his church before Whitfunday, (till which term the corns are not presumed to be fully sown,) he has right to that whole year's stipend; and, if he is received after Whitfunday, and before Michaelmas, he is entitled to the half of that year; because, though the corns were sown before his entry, he was admitted before the terms at which they are presumed to be reaped. If he dies or is transported before Whitfunday, he has right to no part of that year; if before Michaelmas, to the half; and if not till after Michaelmas, to the whole.

20. After the minister's death, his executors have right to the annat; which, in the sense of the canon law, was a right reserved to the Pope, of the first year's fruits of every benefice. Upon a threatened invasion from England, 1547, the annat was given by our parliament, to the executors of such churchmen as should fall in battle in defence of their country: but the word *annat* or *ann*, as it is now understood, is the right which law gives to the executors of ministers, of half a year's benefice over and above what was due to the minister himself for his incumbency.

21. The executors of a minister need make up no title to the ann by confirmation: neither is the right assignable by the minister, or affectable with his debts; for it never belonged to him, but is a mere gratuity given by law to those whom it is presumed the deceased could not sufficiently provide; and law has given it expressly to *executors*: and if it were to be governed by the rules of succession in executory, the widow, in case of no children, would get one half, the other would go to the next of kin; and where there are children, she would be entitled to a third, and the other two thirds would fall equally among the children. But the court of session have in this last case divided the ann into two equal parts, of which one goes to the widow, and the other among the children *in capita*.

22. From the great confidence that was, in the first ages of Christianity, reposed in churchmen, dying persons frequently committed to them the care of their estates, and of their orphan children; but these were simply rights of trust, not of jurisdiction. The clergy soon had the address to establish to themselves a proper jurisdiction, not confined to points of ecclesiastical right, but extending to questions that had no concern with the church. They judged not only in tithes, patronage, testaments, breach of vow, scandal, &c. but in questions of marriage and divorce, because marriage was a sacrament; in tochers, because these were given in consideration of marriage; in

all questions where an oath intervened, on pretence that oaths were a part of religious worship, &c. As churchmen came, by this extensive jurisdiction, to be diverted from their proper functions, they committed the exercise of it to their officials or commissaries: hence the commissary court was called the *Bishop's Court*, and *Curia Christianitatis*; it was also styled the *Consistorial Court*; from *consistory*, a name first given to the court of appeals of the Roman emperors, and afterwards to the courts of judicature held by churchmen.

23. At the reformation, all episcopal jurisdiction, exercised under the authority of the Pope, was abolished. As the course of justice in consistorial causes was thereby stopped, Q. Mary, besides naming a commissary for every diocese did, by a special grant, establish a new commissary court at Edinburgh, consisting of 4 judges or commissaries. This court is vested with a double jurisdiction; one diocesan, which is exercised in the special territory contained in the grant, viz. the counties of Edinburgh, Haddington, Linlithgow, Peebles, and a great part of Stirlingshire; and another universal, by which the judges confirm the testaments of all who die in foreign parts, and may reduce the decrees of all inferior commissaries, provided the reduction be pursued within a year after the decree. Bishops, upon their re-establishment in the reign of James VI. were restored to the right of naming their several commissaries.

24. As the clergy, in times of Popery, assumed a jurisdiction independent of the civil power or any secular court, their sentences could be reviewed only by the pope, or judges delegated by him; so that, with regard to the courts of Scotland, their jurisdiction was supreme. But, by an act 1560, the appeals from our bishops courts, that were then depending before the Roman consistories, were ordained to be decided by the court of session: and by posterior act, 1609, the session is declared the king's great consistory, with power to review all sentences pronounced by the commissaries. Nevertheless, since, that court had no inherent jurisdiction in consistorial causes prior to this statute, and since the statute gives them a power of judging only by way of advocacy, they have not, to this day, any proper consistorial jurisdiction in the first instance; neither do they pronounce sentence in any consistorial cause brought from the commissaries, but remit it back to them with instructions. By the practice immediately subsequent to the act before quoted, they did not admit advocations from the inferior commissaries, till the cause was first brought before the commissaries of Edinburgh; but that practice is now in disuse.

25. The commissaries retain to this day an exclusive power of judging in declarators of marriage, and of the nullity of marriage; in actions of divorce and of non adherence, of adultery, bastardy, and confirmation of testaments; because all these matters are still considered to be properly consistorial. Inferior commissaries are not competent to questions of divorce, under which are comprehended questions of bastardy and adherence, when they have a connection with the lawfulness of marriage, or with adultery.

26. Commissaries have now no power to pronounce decrees in absence for any sum above L. 40 Scots, except in causes properly consistorial: but they may authenticate tutorial and curatorial inventories; and all bonds, contracts, &c. which contain a clause for registration in the books of any judge competent, and protests on bills, may be registered in their books.

#### SECT. V. Of MARRIAGE.

I. PERSONS, when considered in a private capacity, are chiefly distinguished by their mutual relations; as husband and wife, tutor and minor, father and child, master and servant. The relation of husband and wife is constituted by marriage; which is the conjunction of man and wife, vowing to live inseparably till death.

2. MARRIAGE is truly a contract, and so requires the consent of parties. Idiots, therefore, and furious persons, cannot marry. As no person is presumed capable of consent within the years of pupillarity, which, by our law, lasts till the age of 14 in males, and 12 in females, marriage cannot be contracted by pupils; but if the married pair shall cohabit after puberty, such acquiescence gives force to the marriage. Marriage is fully perfected by consent, which founds all the conjugal rights and duties. The consent requisite to marriage must be *de presenti*.

3. It is not necessary, that marriage should be celebrated by a clergyman. The consent of parties may be declared before any magistrate, or simply before witnesses, which, if *copula* follows, constitutes a marriage: and though no formal consent should appear, marriage is presumed from the cohabitation, or living together at bed and board, of a man and woman who are generally reputed husband and wife. A man's acknowledgement of his marriage to the midwife whom he called to his wife, and to the minister who baptized his child, was found sufficient presumptive evidence of marriage; without the aid either of cohabitation, or of *habite and repute*. Children may enter into marriage, not only without the knowledge, but even against the remonstrances of a father.

4. Marriage is forbidden within certain degrees of blood. By the law of Moses (Leviticus xviii.), which, by the act 1567. c. 15. has been adopted by us, cousins German, and all remoter degrees, may lawfully marry. Marriage in the direct line is forbidden *in infinitum*. Marriage also, where either of the parties is naturally unfit for generation, or stands already married to a third person, is *ipso jure* null.

5. To prevent bigamy and incestuous marriages, the church has introduced proclamation of banns; that all persons who know any objection to the marriage may offer it. When the order of the church is observed, the marriage is called *regular*; when otherwise, *clandestine*. Marriage is valid, when entered into in either of these ways; but when clandestine, there are certain penalties imposed upon the parties, as well as on the celebrator and witnesses.

6. By marriage, a society is created between the married pair, which draws after it a mutual communication of their civil interests, in as far as is

necessary for maintaining it. As the society lasts only for the joint lives of the *foeci*; therefore rights that have the nature of a perpetuity, which our law styles *heritable*, are not brought under the partnership or communion of goods; as a land estate, or bonds bearing a yearly interest: it is only moveable subjects, or the fruits produced by heritable subjects during the marriage, that become common to man and wife.

7. The husband, as the head of the wife, has the sole right of managing the goods in communion, which is called *JUS MARITI*. This right is so absolute, that it bears but little resemblance to a right of administering a common subject. For the husband can, in virtue thereof, sell, or even gift, at his pleasure, the whole goods falling under communion; and his creditors may affect them for the payment of his proper debts: so that the *jus mariti* carries all the characters of an assignation, by the wife to her husband, of her moveable estate. It arises *ipso jure* from the marriage; and therefore needs no other constitution. But a stranger may convey an estate to a wife, so as it shall not be subject to the husband's administration; or the husband himself may, in the marriage contract, renounce his *jus mariti* in all or any part of his wife's moveable estate.

8. From this right are excepted *paraphernal goods*, which, as the word is understood in our law, comprehends the wife's wearing apparel, and the ornaments to her proper person; as necklaces, ear-rings, breast or arm jewels, buckles, &c. These are neither alienable by the husband, nor affectable by his creditors. Things of promiscuous use to husband and wife, as plate, medals, &c. may become paraphernal, by the husband's giving them to the wife, at or before marriage; but they are paraphernal only in regard to that husband who gave them as such, and are esteemed common moveables, if the wife, whose *paraphernalia* they were, be afterwards married to a 2d husband; unless he shall in the same manner appropriate them to her.

9. The right of the husband to the wife's moveable estate, is burdened with the moveable debts contracted by her before marriage: and as his right is universal, so also is his burden; for it reaches to her whole moveable debts, though they should far exceed her moveable estate. Yet the husband is not considered as the true debtor in his wife's debts. In all actions for payment, she is the proper defender: the husband is only cited for his interest, that is, as curator to her, and administrator of the society-goods. As soon therefore as the marriage is dissolved, and the society-goods thereby suffer a division, the husband is no farther concerned in the share belonging to his deceased wife; and consequently is no longer liable to pay her debts, which must be recovered from her representatives, or her separate estate.

10. This obligation upon the husband is, however, perpetuated against him, 1. Where his proper estate, real or personal, has been affected, during the marriage, by complete legal diligence; in which case, the husband must, by the common rules of law, relieve his property from the burden with which it stands charged: but the utmost diligence against his person is not sufficient to per-

petuate

petuate the obligation; nor even incomplete diligence against his estate. 2. The husband continues liable, even after the wife's death, in so far as he is *lucratus* or profited by her estate: still, however, the law does not consider a husband who has got but a moderate tocher with the wife as *lucratus* by the marriage; it is the excess only which it considers as *lucrum*, and that must be estimated by the quality of the parties and their condition of life.—As he was at no time the proper debtor in his wife's moveable debts; therefore, though he should be *lucratus*, he is, after the dissolution, only liable for them *subsidiarie*, i. e. if her own separate estate is not sufficient to pay them off.

11. Where the wife is debtor in that sort of debt, which, if it had been due to her, would have excluded the *ius mariti*, e. g. in bonds bearing interest, which, as we shall afterwards see, (CHAP. II, SECT. II, § 4.) continues heritable as to the rights of husband and wife, notwithstanding of the enactment of the statute 1661, which renders them moveable in certain other respects, the husband is liable only for the bygone interests, and those that may grow upon the debt during the marriage; because his obligation for her debts must be commensurated to the interest he has in her estate. It is the husband alone who is liable in personal diligence for his wife's debts, while the marriage subsists: the wife, who is the proper debtor, is free from all personal execution upon them while she is *vestita viro*.

12. The husband by marriage becomes the perpetual curator of the wife. From this right it arises, 1. That no suit can proceed against the wife till the husband be cited for his interest. 2. All deeds, done by a wife without the husband's consent, are null; neither can she sue in any action without the husband's concurrence. Yet where the husband refuses, or by reason of forfeiture, &c. cannot concur; or where the action is to be brought against the husband himself, for not performing his part of the marriage articles; the judge will authorise her to sue in her own name. The effects arising from this curatorial power appear even before marriage, upon the publication of banns; after which the bride, being no longer *in jure*, can contract no debt, nor do any deed, either to the prejudice of her future husband, nor even to her own. But in order to this, it is necessary that the banns shall have been published in the bride's parish church as well as in that of her husband.

13. If the husband should either withdraw from his wife, or turn her out of doors; or if, continuing in family with her, he should by severe treatment endanger her life; the commissaries will authorise a separation *a mensa et thoro*, and give a separate alimony to the wife, suitable to her husband's estate, from the time of such separation until either a reconciliation or a sentence of divorce.

14. Certain obligations of the wife are valid, notwithstanding her being *sub cura mariti*; *ex. gr.* obligations arising from delict; for wives have no privilege to commit crimes. But if the punishment resolves into a pecuniary mulct, the execution of it must, from her incapacity to fulfil, be

suspended till the dissolution of the marriage, unless the wife has a separate estate exempted from the *ius mariti*.

15. Obligations arising from contract, affect either the person or the estate. The law has been so careful to protect wives while *sub cura mariti*, that all personal obligations granted by a wife, though with the husband's consent, as bonds, bills, &c. are null; with the following exceptions: 1. Where the wife gets a separate *peculium* or stock, either from her father or a stranger, for her own or her children's alimony, she may grant personal obligations in relation to such stock; and by stronger reason, personal obligations granted by a wife are good, when her person is actually withdrawn from the husband's power by a judicial separation. 2. A wife's personal obligation, granted in the form of a deed *inter vivos*, is valid, if it is not to take effect till her death. 3. Where the wife is by the husband *preposita negotiis*, intrusted with the management either of a particular branch of business, or of his whole affairs, all the contracts she enters into in the exercise of her *prepositura* are effectual, even though they be not reduced to writing, but should arise merely *ex re*, from furnishings made to her: but such obligations have no force against the wife; it is the husband only, by whose commission she acts, who is thereby obliged.

16. A wife, while she remains in family with his husband, is considered as *preposita negotiis domesticis*; and consequently may provide things proper for the family; for the price whereof the husband is liable, though they should be misapplied, or though the husband should have given her money to provide them elsewhere. A husband who suspects that his wife may hurt his fortune by high living, may use the remedy of inhibition against her; by which all persons are interpellated from contracting with her, or giving her credit. After the completing of this diligence, whereby the *prepositura* falls, the wife cannot bind the husband, unless for such reasonable furnishings as he cannot instruct that he provided her with *aliunde*. As every man, and consequently every husband, has a right to remove his managers at pleasure, inhibition may pass at the suit of the husband against the wife, though he should not offer to justify that measure by an actual proof of the extravagance or profusion of her temper.

17. As to rights granted by the wife affecting her estate; she has no moveable estate, except her *paraphernalia*; and these she may alien or impignorate, with consent of the husband. She can, without the husband, bequeath by testament her share of the goods in communion. A wife can lawfully oblige herself, in relation to her heritable estate, with consent of her husband. A husband, though he be curator to his wife, can, by his acceptance or intervention, authorise rights granted by her in his own favour.

18. All donations, whether by the wife to the husband, or by the husband to the wife, are revocable by the donor; but if the donor dies without revocation, the right becomes absolute. A grant made by the husband, in consequence of the natural obligation that lies upon him to provide for his wife, is not revocable, unless in so far

as it exceeds the measure of a rational settlement; neither are remuneratory grants revocable, where mutual grants are made in consideration of each other, except where an onerous cause is simulated. All voluntary contracts of separation, by which the wife is provided in an yearly alimony, are effectual as to the time past, but revocable either by the husband or wife.

19. As wives are in the strongest degree subject to the influence of their husbands, third parties, in whose favours they had made grants, were frequently vexed with actions of reduction, as if the grant had been extorted from the wife through the force or fear of the husband. To secure the grantees against this danger, ratifications were introduced, whereby the wife, appearing before a judge, declares upon oath, her husband not present, that she was not induced to grant the deed *ex vi aut metu*. A wife's ratification is not absolutely necessary for securing the grantee: law indeed allows the wife to bring reduction of any deed she has not ratified, upon the head of force or fear; of which, if she bring sufficient evidence, the deed will be set aside; but if she fails in the proof, it will remain effectual to the receiver.

20. Marriage by the law of Scotland, cannot be dissolved till death, except by divorce, proceeding either upon the head of adultery, or of wilful desertion.

21. Marriage is dissolved by death, either *within* year and day from its being contracted, or *after* year and day. If it is dissolved within year and day, all rights granted in consideration of the marriage (unless guarded against in the contract) become void, and things return to the same condition in which they stood before the marriage; with this restriction, that the husband is considered as a *bona fide* possessor, in relation to what he has consumed upon the faith of his right; but he is liable to repay the tocher, without any deduction in consideration of his family expence during the marriage. If things cannot be restored on both sides, equity hinders the restoring of one party and not the other. In a case which was a few years ago, before the court of session, it was determined, after a long hearing in presence, that where a marriage had been dissolved within the year without a living child, by the death of the husband, the widow was entitled to be alimented out of an estate of which he died possessed, though there were no conventional provisions stipulated in favour of the wife.

22. Upon the dissolution of a marriage, after year and day, the surviving husband becomes the irrevocable proprietor of the tocher; and the wife, where she survives, is entitled to her jointure, or to her legal provision. She has also a right to mournings, suitable to the husband's rank, and to alimony from the day of his death, in term at which her life-rent provision commences. If no conventional, commenced, or created by the marriage, the same effect as if it had been made on the day of the husband's death. A day is adjudged *rem evidentiæ*, the year itself is running of any provision has the same effect.

The legal right of courtesy competent to the surviving husband is explained below; CHAP. SECT. IX. § 28.

23. DIVORCE is such a separation of married persons, during their lives, as looses them from the nuptial tie, and leaves them at freedom to termarry with others. But neither adultery, nor wilful desertion, are grounds which must necessarily dissolve marriage; they are only handles, wh the injured party may take hold of to be free. The cause of divorce upon adultery, marriage is, special statute, (1600. c. 20.) prohibited between the two adulterers.

24. Where either party has deserted from the other for four years together, that other may sue for adherence. If this has no effect, the church is to proceed, first by admonition, then by excommunication; all which previous steps are declared to be a sufficient ground for putting a divorce. *De praxi*, the commissaries pronounce sentence in the adherence, after a year's desertion; but four years must intervene between the first desertion and the decree of divorce.

25. The legal effects of divorce on the head of desertion are, that the offending husband shall forfeit the tocher, and forfeit to the wife all provisions, legal and conventional; and, on the other hand, the offending wife shall forfeit to her husband her tocher, and all the rights that would have belonged to her in the case of her survival. This was also esteemed the rule in divorces upon adultery. But by a decision of the court of session, in 1762, founded on a tract of ancient decisions recovered from the records, the offending husband was allowed to retain the tocher!

#### SECT. VI. Of MINORS, and their TUTOR CURATORS.

1. THE stages of life principally distinguished in law are, *pupilarity*, *puberty* or *minority*, and *majority*. A child is under pupilarity, from birth to 14 years of age if a male, and till 12 female. Minority begins where pupilarity and continues till majority; which, by the law of Scotland, is the age of 21 years complete in males and females: but minority, in a legal sense, includes all under age, whether *pupilarity* or *puberty*. Because pupils cannot in any degree govern themselves, and minors seldom with discretion, pupils are put by law under the power of tutors, and minors may put themselves under the protection of curators. Tutary is a power assigned to govern the person, and administer the estate of a pupil. Tutors are either *testamentary* or *dativæ*.

2. A tutor nominate is he who is appointed by the father, in his testament or other written instrument, to the care of his natural or adopted child. Such tutor is not obliged to give security for the faithful discharge of his office, unless his fidelity is presumed to have been defective, or known to be so by the father.

as it exceeds the measure of a rational settlement; neither are remuneratory grants revocable, where mutual grants are made in consideration of each other, except where an onerous cause is simulated. All voluntary contracts of separation, by which the wife is provided in an yearly alimony, are effectual as to the time past, but revocable either by the husband or wife.

19. As wives are in the strongest degree subject to the influence of their husbands, third parties, in whose favours they had made grants, were frequently vexed with actions of reduction, as if the grant had been extorted from the wife through the force or fear of the husband. To secure the grantees against this danger, ratifications were introduced, whereby the wife, appearing before a judge, declares upon oath, her husband not present, that she was not induced to grant the deed *ex vi aut metu*. A wife's ratification is not absolutely necessary for securing the grantee: law indeed allows the wife to bring reduction of any deed she has not ratified, upon the head of force or fear; of which, if she bring sufficient evidence, the deed will be set aside; but if she fails in the proof, it will remain effectual to the receiver.

20. Marriage by the law of Scotland, cannot be dissolved till death, except by divorce, proceeding either upon the head of adultery, or of wilful desertion.

21. Marriage is dissolved by death, either *within* year and day from its being contracted, or *after* year and day. If it is dissolved within year and day, all rights granted in consideration of the marriage (unless guarded against in the contract) become void, and things return to the same condition in which they stood before the marriage; with this restriction, that the husband is considered as a *bona fide* possessor, in relation to what he has consumed upon the faith of his right; but he is liable to repay the tocher, without any deduction in consideration of his family expence during the marriage. If things cannot be restored on both sides, equity hinders the restoring of one party and not the other. In a case which was a few years ago, before the court of session, it was determined, after a long hearing in presence, that where a marriage had been dissolved within the year without a living child, by the death of the husband, the widow was entitled to be alimented out of an estate of which he died possessed, though there were no conventional provisions stipulated in favour of the wife.

22. Upon the dissolution of a marriage, after year and day, the surviving husband becomes the irrevocable proprietor of the tocher; and the wife where she survives, is entitled to her jointure, or to her legal provisions. She has also right to mournings, suitable to the husband's quality; and to alimony from the day of his death till the term at which her life-rent provision, either legal or conventional, commences. If a living child be procreated of the marriage, the marriage has the same effect as if it had subsisted beyond the year. A day is adjoined to the year, in *majorem evidentiam*, that it may clearly appear that the year itself is elapsed; and therefore, the running of any part of the day, after the year, has the same effect as if the whole were elapsed.

The legal right of courtesy competent to the surviving husband is explained below; CHAP. II. SECT. IX. § 28.

23. DIVORCE is such a separation of married persons, during their lives, as looses them from the nuptial tie, and leaves them at freedom to intermarry with others. But neither adultery, nor wilful desertion, are grounds which must necessarily dissolve marriage; they are only handles, which the injured party may take hold of to be free. In the case of divorce upon adultery, marriage is, by special statute, (1600. c. 20.) prohibited betwixt the two adulterers.

24. Where either party has deserted from the other for four years together, that other may sue for adherence. If this has no effect, the church is to proceed, first by admonition, then by excommunication; all which previous steps are declared to be a sufficient ground for pursuing a divorce. *De praxi*, the commissaries pronounce sentence in the adherence, after one year's desertion; but four years must intervene between the first desertion and the decree of divorce.

25. The legal effects of divorce on the head of desertion are, that the offending husband shall restore the tocher, and forfeit to the wife all her provisions, legal and conventional; and, on the other hand, the offending wife shall forfeit to the husband her tocher, and all the rights that would have belonged to her in the case of her survivance. This was also esteemed the rule in divorces upon adultery. But by a decision of the court of session, in 1762, founded on a tract of ancient decisions recovered from the records, the *offending husband* was allowed to retain the tocher!

#### SECT. VI. Of MINORS, and their TUTORS and CURATORS.

1. THE stages of life principally distinguished in law are, *pupillarity*, *puberty* or *minority*, and *majority*. A child is under pupillarity, from the birth to 14 years of age if a male, and till 12 if a female. Minority begins where pupillarity ends, and continues till majority; which, by the law of Scotland, is the age of 21 years complete, both in males and females: but minority, in a large sense, includes all under age, whether pupils or *puberes*. Because pupils cannot in any degree act for themselves, and minors seldom with discretion, pupils are put by law under the power of tutors, and minors may put themselves under the direction of curators. Tutory is a power and faculty to govern the person, and administer the estate, of a pupil. Tutors are either *nominate*, of *law*, or *dativæ*.

2. A tutor nominate is he who is named by a father, in his testament or other writing, to a lawful child. Such tutor is not obliged to give caution for the faithful discharge of his office; because his fidelity is presumed to have been sufficiently known to the father.

3. If there be no nomination by the father, or if the tutors nominate do not accept, or if the nomination falls by death or otherwise, there is place for a *tutor of law*. This sort of tutory devolves upon the next agnate; by which we understand him who is nearest related by the father, though females intervene.

4. Where

4. Where there are two or more agnates equal in blood to the pupil, he who is entitled to the pupillar succession falls to be preferred to the others. But as the law suspects, that he may not be so careful to preserve a life which stands in the way of his own interest, this sort of tutor is added from the custody of the pupil's person; which is commonly committed to the mother, or a widow, until the pupil be 7 years old; and, in default of the mother, to the next cognate, or the highest relation by the mother. The tutor of law must (by act 1474) be at least 25 years of age. He is seized or declared by a jury of free men, who are called upon a brief issuing from the chancery, which is directed to any judge in any jurisdiction. He must give security before he enters upon the management.

5. If no tutor of law demands the office, any person, even a stranger, may apply for a tutory office. But because a tutor in law ought to be allowed a competent time to deliberate whether he will serve or not, no tutory dative can be given, till the expiring of a year from the time at which the tutor of law had first a right to serve. It is the king alone, as the father of his country, who gives tutore dative, by his court of exchequer; and by act 1672, no gift of tutory can pass in exchequer, without the citation or consent of the next of kin to the pupil, both by the father and mother, nor till the tutor give security, recorded in the books of exchequer. There is no room for a tutor of law, or tutor dative, while a tutor nominate can be hoped for; and tutors of law, or dative, even after they have begun to act, may be removed by the tutor nominate, as soon as he offers to accept, unless he has expressly renounced the office. If a pupil be without tutors of any kind, the court of session will, at the suit of any person, name a factor (steward) for the management of the pupil's estate.

6. After the years of pupillarity are over, the pupil is considered as capable of acting by himself, and he has confidence enough of his own capacity and prudence. The only two cases in which restraints are imposed upon minors are, 1. Where they are named by the father, in a state of health. 2. Where the father is himself alive; for a father may name, without any service, administrator, and, both tutor and curator of law, to his children, in relation to whatever estate may fall to them during their minority. This right in the father does not extend to grandchildren, nor to the issue of his immediate children as are foris-born. Neither has it place in subjects which have been by a stranger to the minor, exclusive of the father's administration. If the minor chooses to be under the direction of curators, he may fix such as he pleases.

7. These curators are styled *ad negotia*; to distinguish them from another sort called curators *in rem*, who are authorized by the judge to conduct a pupil or minor in actions of law, and where he is without tutors and curators, where his tutors and curators are parties to suits. Women are capable of being tutors and curators, under the following restrictions: 1. The office of a female tutor or curator falls by marriage, even though the nomination should

provide otherwise; for she is no longer *sui juris*, and of course incapable of having another under her power. 2. No woman can be tutor of law. Papists are (by act 1700) declared incapable of tutory or curatory.

8. In this, tutory differs from curatory, that, as pupils are incapable of consent, they have no person capable of acting; which defect the tutor supplies. Hence, the tutor subscribes alone all deeds of administration: but in curatory, it is the minor who subscribes as the proper party; the curator does no more than consent. Hence also, the persons of pupils are under the power either of their tutors or of their nearest cognates; but the minor, after pupillarity, has the disposal of his own person, and may reside where he pleases. In most other particulars, the nature, the powers, and the duties of the two offices coincide. Both tutors and curators must, previous to their administration, make a judicial inventory, subscribed by them and the next of kin, before the minor's judge ordinary, of his whole estate personal and real; of which, one subscribed duplicate is to be kept by the tutors or curators themselves; another, by the next of kin on the father's side; and a third by the next of kin on the mother's. If any estate belonging to the minor shall afterwards come to their knowledge, they must add it to the inventory within two months after their attaining possession thereof. Should they neglect this, the minor's debtors are not obliged to make payment to them: they may be removed from their offices as suspected; and they are intitled to no allowance for the sums disbursed by them in the minor's affairs, act 1672, except the expence laid out upon the minor's entertainment, upon his lands and houses, and upon completing his titles.

9. Tutors and curators cannot grant leases of the minor's lands, to endure longer than their own office; nor under the former rental, without either a warrant from the court of session, or some apparent necessity.

10. They have power to sell the minor's moveables; but cannot sell their pupil's land estate, without the authority of a judge; yet this restraint reaches not to such alienations as the pupil could by law be compelled to grant, e. g. to renunciations of wadsets upon redemption by the reverser; for in such case, the very tenor of his own right lays him under the obligation; nor to the renewal of charters to heirs; but the charter must contain no new right in favour of the heir. The alienation, however, of heritage by a minor, with consent of his curators, is valid.

11. Tutors and curators cannot, contrary to the nature of their trust, authorize the minor to do any deed for their own benefit; nor can they acquire any debt affecting the minor's estate; and, where a tutor or curator makes such acquisition, in his own name, for a less sum than the right is entitled to draw, the benefit thereof accrues to the minor. It seems, however, that such purchase would be considered as valid, provided it were *bona fide* acquired at a public sale; for in such case, the tutor or curator is in fact meliorating the situation of his ward by enhancing the value of his property by a fair competition. In general, it seems to be the genius and spirit of our law,

that

that tutors and curators shall do every thing in their power towards the faithful and proper discharge of their respective offices.

12. Persons named to the offices of tutory or curatory, may either accept or decline: and where a father, in *liege poullie* (when in a state of health), names certain persons both as tutors and curators to his children, though they have acted as tutors, they may decline the office of curatory. Tutors and curators having once accepted, are liable *in diligence*, that is, are accountable for the consequences of their neglect in any part of their duty from the time of their acceptance. They are accountable *singuli in solidum*, i. e. every one of them is answerable, not only for his own diligence, but for that of his co-tutors; and any one may be sued without citing the rest: but he who is condemned in the whole, has action of relief against his co-tutors.

13. From this obligation to diligence, are excepted, 1. Fathers or administrators in law, who, from the presumption that they act to the best of their power for their children, are liable only for actual intromissions. 2. Tutors and curators named by the father in consequence of the act 1696, with the special provisos, that they shall be liable barely for intromissions, not for omissions; and that each of them shall be liable only for himself, and not *in solidum* for the co-tutors: but this power of exemption from diligence is limited to the estate descending from the father himself. Tutors or curators are not entitled to any salary or allowance for pains, unless a salary has been expressly contained in the testator's nomination; for their office is presumed gratuitous.

14. Though no person is obliged to accept the office of tutor or curator, yet having once accepted, he cannot throw it up, or renounce it, without sufficient cause; but, if he should be guilty of misapplying the minor's money, or fail in any other part of his duty, he may be removed at the suit of the minor's next in kin, or by a co-tutor or co-curator. Where the misconduct proceeds merely from indolence or inattention, the court, in place of removing the tutor, either join a curator with him, or, if he be a tutor nominate, they oblige him to give caution for his past and future management.

15. The offices of tutory and curatory expire also by the pupil's attaining the age of puberty, or the minor's attaining the age of 21 years complete; and by the death either of the minor, or of his tutor and curator. Curatory also expires by the marriage of a female minor, who becomes thereby under the coverture of her own husband. After expiry of the office, reciprocal actions lie at the instance both of the tutors and curators, and of the minor. That at the instance of the minor is called *actio tutelæ directæ*, by which he can compel the tutors to account; that at the instance of the tutors, *actio tutelæ contrariæ*, by which the minor can be compelled to repeat what has been profitably expended during the administration: but this last does not lie till after accounting to the minor; for till then the tutors are presumed *intus habere*, to have effects in their own hands for answering their disbursements.

16. Deeds done by pupils, or by minors having

curators, without their consent, are they oblige the granters, in as far as sums profitably applied to their use. under curators can indeed make a testament; but whatever is executed in a deed *inter vivos*, requires the curator: Deeds by a minor who has no curators, are as if he had had curators, and without their consent; he may even alienate without the interposition of a judge.

17. Minors may be restored again granted in their minority, that are void, or themselves void, no remedy of restitution; but where they are granted by a tutor in his pupil's at a minor who has no curators, as these sit in law, restitution is necessary: and a minor, having curators, executes a deed to himself with their consent, he has no action against the curators, but he has of restitution against the deed itself, cannot be restored, if he does not raise a summons for reducing the deed *minorennitatis et lesionis*, before he be old. These 4 years, between the age 25, called *quadriennium utile*, are indu minor, that he may have reasonable that period, when he is first presumed perfect use of his reason, to consider what deeds done in his minority have prejudicial to him.

18. Questions of restitution are pro court of session. Two things must be the minor, in order to reduce the deed he was minor when it was signed; 2. hurt or lesed by the deed. This lesio proceed merely from accident; for that of restitution was not intended to exer from the common misfortunes of life; owing to the imprudence or negligence nor, or his curator.

19. A minor cannot be restored again delict or fraud; e. g. 1. If he should to bargain with him by saying he was Restitution is excluded, if the minor, after majority, has approved of the deed by a formal ratification, or tacitly by interest, or by other acts inferring agreement. 3. A minor, who has taken himself to a merchant, shopkeeper, &c. cannot against any deed granted by him in that business, especially if he was *prox rennitati* at signing the deed. 4. Ac the more common opinion, a minor restored in a question against a minor, a gross unfairness shall be qualified in the

20. The privilege of restitution does die with the minor himself. 1. If a minor to a minor, the time allowed for restitution by the minority of the heir, not cestor. 2. If a minor succeeds to a minor was not full 25, the privilege continues heir during his minority; but he cannot self of the *anni utiles*, except in so far as unexpired at the ancestor's death. 3. succeeds to a minor, he has only the *qu utile* after the minor's death; and if he to a major dying within the *quadriennium*



of it can be profitable to him than what remained when the ancestor died.

21. No minor can be compelled to state himself as a defender, in any action, whereby his heritable estate flowing from ascendants may be evicted from him, by one pretending a preferable right.

22. This privilege is intended merely to save minors from the necessity of disputing upon questions of preference. It does not therefore take place, 1. Where the action is pursued on the father's falsehood or delict. 2. Upon his obligation to convey heritage. 3. On his liquid bond for a sum of money. 4. Nor in actions pursued by the minor's superior, upon feudal casualties. 5. This privilege cannot be pleaded in bar of an action which had been first brought against the father; nor where the father was not in the peaceable possession of the heritable subject at his death. The persons of pupils are by act 1696 protected from imprisonment on civil debts.

23. Curators are given, not only to minors, but in general to every one, who, either through defect of judgment, or unsuitness of disposition, is incapable of rightly managing his own affairs. Of the first sort, are idiots and furious persons. Idiots, or *sanis*, are entirely deprived of the faculty of reason. The distemper of the furious person does not consist in the defect of reason; but in an over-heated imagination, which obstructs the application of reason to the purposes of life. Curators may be also granted to lunatics; and even to persons dumb and deaf, though they are of sound judgment, where it appears that they cannot exert it in the management of business. The regular way of appointing this sort of curators, is by a jury summoned upon a brief from the chancery; directed to the judge of the special territory where the person alleged to be fatuous or furious resides; that he may have an opportunity to oppose it: and for this reason, he ought to be made a party to the brief. The curatory of idiots and furious persons belongs to the nearest agnate; but a father is preferred to the curatory of his fatuous son, and the husband to that of his fatuous wife, before the agnate.

24. A clause is inserted in the brief, for inquiring how long the fatuous or furious person has been in that condition; for all deeds granted after the period at which it appeared by the proof that the fatuity or furiosity began, are void. Fatuous and furious persons are, by their very state, incapable of being obliged; therefore all deeds done by them may be declared void, upon proper evidence of the fatuity at the time of signing, though they should never have been cognosed idiots by an inquest.

25. We have some few instances of the sovereign's giving curators to idiots, where the next estate did not claim; but such gifts are truly detestable from our law, since they pass without any injury into the state of the person upon whom the curatory is imposed.

26. Persons, let them be ever so profuse, or liable to be imposed upon, if they have the exercise of reason, can effectually oblige themselves, till they are interdicted by law. This may be done by *Interdiction*, which is a legal restraint laid upon such persons from bearing any deed to their own prejudice, without the consent of their curators or interdictors.

27. Voluntary interdiction, though it be imposed by the sole act of the person interdicted, cannot be recalled at his pleasure: but it may be taken off, 1. By a sentence of the court of session, declaring, either that there was, from the beginning, no sufficient ground for the restraint; or that the party is, since the date of the bond, become *rei sui providus*. 2. It falls, even without the authority of the lords, by the joint act of the person interdicted, and his interdictors, concurring to take it off. 3. Where the bond of interdiction requires a certain number as a quorum, the restraint ceases, if the interdictors shall by death be reduced to a lesser number.

28. Judicial interdiction is imposed by a sentence of the court of session. It commonly proceeds on an action brought by a near kinsman to the party; and sometimes from the *nobile officium* of the court, when they perceive, during the pendency of a suit, that any of the litigants is, from the facility of his temper, subject to imposition. This sort must be taken off by the authority of the same court that imposed it.

29. An interdiction need not be served against the person interdicted; but it must be executed, or published by a messenger, at the market cross of the jurisdiction where he resides, by publicly reading the interdiction there, after three oyessees made for convocating the liegee. A copy of this execution must be affixed to the cross; and thereafter, the interdiction, with its execution, must (by act 1581) be registered in the books both of the jurisdiction where the person interdicted resides and where his lands lie, or (by act 1600) in the general register of the session, within 40 days from the publication.

30. An interdiction, duly registered, has this effect, that all deeds done thereafter, by the person interdicted, without the consent of his interdictors, affecting his heritable estate, are subject to reduction. Registration in the general register secures all his lands from alienation, wherever they lie; but where the interdiction is recorded in the register of a particular shire, it covers no lands except those situated in that shire.

31. No deed, granted with consent of the interdictors, is reducible, though the strongest lesion or prejudice to the grantor should appear: the only remedy competent, in such case, is an action by the grantor against his interdictors, for making up to him what he has lost through their undue consent.

32. The law concerning the state of children falls next to be explained. Children are either born in wedlock, or out of it. All children, born in lawful marriage are presumed to be begotten by the person to whom the mother is married; and consequently to be lawful children. This presumption is so strongly founded, that it cannot be defeated but by direct evidence that the mother's husband could not be the father of the child, e.g. where he is impotent, or was absent from the wife till within six lunar months of the birth. The canonists indeed maintain, that the concurring testimony of the husband and wife, that the child was not procreated by the husband, is sufficient to slide this legal presumption for legitimacy: but it is an agreed point, that no regard is to be paid

to such testimony, if it be made after they have owned the child to be theirs. A father has the absolute right of disposing of his childrens persons, of directing their education, and of moderate chastisement; and even after they become *puberes*, he may compel them to live in family with him, and to contribute their labour and industry, while they continue there, towards his service. A child who gets a separate stock from the father for carrying on any trade or employment, even though he should continue in the father's house, may be said to be emancipated or foris-familiated, in so far as concerns that stock; for the profits arising from it are his own. Foris-filiation, when taken in this sense, is also inferred by the child's marriage, or by his living in a separate house, with his father's permission or good-will. Children, after their full age of 21 years, become, according to the general opinion, their own masters; and from that period are bound to the father only by the natural ties of duty, affection, and gratitude. The mutual obligations between parents and children to maintain each other, are explained in *CHAP. II. Sect. XIII. § 4.*

33. Children born out of wedlock, are styled natural children, or bastards. Bastards may be legitimated or made lawful. 1. By the subsequent intermarriage of the mother of the child with the father: and this legitimation entitles the child to all the rights of lawful children. The subsequent marriage, which produces legitimation, is considered by the law to have been entered into when the child legitimated was begotten; and hence, if he be a male, he excludes, by his right of primogeniture, the sons procreated after the marriage, from the succession of the father's heritage, though these sons were lawful children from the birth. Hence, also, those children only can be thus legitimated, who are begotten of a woman whom the father might at that period have lawfully married. 2. Bastards are legitimated by letters of legitimation from the sovereign. See *CHAP. II. Sect. XXII. § 3.*

34. As to the power of masters over their servants; all servants now enjoy the same rights and privileges with other subjects, unless in so far as they are tied down by their engagements of service. Servants are either necessary or voluntary. Necessary are those whom law obliges to work without wages, of whom immediately. Voluntary servants engage without compulsion, either for mere subsistence, or for wages also. Those who earn their bread in this way, if they should refuse to engage may be compelled to it by the justices of the peace, who have power to fix the rate of their wages.

35. Colliers, coal-bearers, filters, and other persons necessary to collieries and salt works, as they are particularly described by act 1661, were formerly tied down to perpetual service at the works to which they had once entered. Upon a sale of the works, the right of their service was transferred to the new proprietor. All persons were prohibited to receive them into their service, without a testimonial from their last master; and if they deserted to another work, and were redeemed within a year thereafter, he who had received them was obliged to return them, within 24 hours,

under a penalty. But though the proprietor neglected to require the deserter within the year did not, by that short prescription, lose his property in him. Colliers, &c. where the colliery which they were restricted was either given or not sufficient for their maintenance, might fully engage with others; but if the former should be again set a-going, the proprietor might reclaim them back to it.

36. But by 15 Geo. III. cap. 28 these remain the only remaining vestiges of *slavery* in that of Scotland, were abrogated; and, after the 1st July 1775, all colliers, coal-bearers, and salters declared to be upon the same footing with servants or labourers. The act subjects those who were bound prior to the 1st July 1775, to a certain number of years service for their freedom according to the age of the person.

37. Indigent children may be compelled to any of the king's subjects without wages, till the age of 30 years. Vagrants and sturdy beggars may be also compelled to serve any manufacturer, because few persons are willing to receive into their service, public work houses are ordered to be built for setting them to work. Poor who cannot work, must be maintained in the parishes in which they were born; and if the place of their nativity is not known, that parish falls upon the parishes where they have their most common resort for the three years immediately preceding their being apprehended; their applying for the public charity. When contributions collected at the churches, to which they belong, are not sufficient for their maintenance, they are to receive badges from the parson and kirk-cessor, in virtue of which they may ask alms at the dwelling houses of the inhabitants of the parish.

## CHAP. II.

### OF THINGS.

THE things, or subjects, to which persons have a right, are the second object of law.

SECT. I. *Of the DIVISION of RIGHTS, and the SEVERAL WAYS by which a RIGHT may be ACQUIRED.*

1. THE right of enjoying and disposing of a thing at one's pleasure, is called PROPERTY. Proprietors are restrained by law from using their property emulously to their neighbour's prejudice on this principle of justice of every kind reprobated by law. In particular, such as the air, render the neighbourhood unwholesome, or, in short, to use the words of Lord BACON, "render the enjoyment of life and property uncomfortable." Every state or society has a power over private property, called, by lawyers, *dominium eminentis*, in virtue of which a proprietor may be compelled to sell his property for an adequate price, where an evident utility to the public demands it.

2. Certain things are by nature incapable of appropriation; as the air, the light, the ocean, none of which can be brought under the power of any one person, though their use be common to all. Others are by law exempted from pro-

commerce, in respect of the uses to which they are destined. Of this last kind are 1. *Res publicæ*, as navigable rivers, highways, bridges, &c.: the right of which is vested in the king, chiefly for the benefit of his people, whence they are called *regalia*. 2. *Res universitatis*, things which belong in property to a particular corporation or society, and whose use is common to every individual in it; but both property and use are subject to the regulations of the society; as town houses, corporation halls, market places, church yards, &c. The lands or other revenue belonging to a corporation do not fall under this class, but are *juris privati*, *quoad* the corporation.

3. Property may be acquired, either by *occupation* or *accession*; and transferred by *tradition* or *prescription*: but prescription being also a way of *losing* property, falls to be explained under a separate title. OCCUPATION, or OCCUPANCY, is the appropriating of things which have no owner, by apprehending them, or seizing their possession. This was the original method of acquiring property: and continued, under certain restrictions, the doctrine of the Roman law, *Quid nullius est, sit arpentis*: but it can have no room in the feudal plan, by which the king is looked on as the original proprietor of all the lands within his dominions.

4. Even in that sort of moveable goods which are presumed to have once had an owner, this rule obtains by the law of Scotland, *Quod nullius est, sit domini regis*. Thus, the right of treasure hid under ground is not acquired by occupation but accrues to the king. Thus also, where one finds strayed cattle or other moveables, which have been lost by the former owner, the finder acquires no right in them, but must give public notice thereof; and if, within a year and day after such notice, the proprietor does not claim his goods, they fall to the king, sheriff, or other person to whom the king has made a grant of such escheats.

5. In that sort of moveables which never had an owner, as wild beasts, fowls, fishes, or pearls found on the shore, the original law takes place, that he who first apprehends, becomes proprietor; in so much, that though the right of hunting, fowling, and fishing, be restrained by statute, under certain penalties, yet all game, even what is caught in contravention of the law, becomes the property of the catcher (unless where the confiscation thereof is made part of the penalty), the contravener, being obnoxious, however, to the penal enactment of the statutes in consequence of his transgression. It was not for a long time a fixed point whether a person, though possessed of the raised rest by law entitling him to kill GAME, could hunt upon another person's grounds without consent: but it was lately found by the court of session, and affirmed upon appeal, that he could not; it being repugnant to the idea of property, that any person, however qualified, should have it in his power to traverse and hunt upon another's grounds without consent of the proprietor. Although certain things become the property of the first occupant, yet there are others which fall not under this rule. Thus whales thrown in, or killed on our coasts, belong neither to those who find them, nor to the proprietor of the grounds on

which they are cast; but to the king, providing they are so large as that they cannot be drawn by a wane with six oxen.

6. ACCESSION is that way of acquiring property, by which, in two things which have a connection with or dependence on one another, the property of the principal thing draws after it the property of its accessory. Thus a house belongs to the owner of the ground on which it stands, tho' built with materials belonging to and at the charge of another; trees taking root in our ground, tho' planted by another, become ours. Thus also, the insensible addition made to one's ground by what a river washes from other grounds (which is called *alluvio*), accrues to the master of the ground which receives the addition. The Romans excepted from this rule the case of paintings drawn on another man's board or canvas, in consideration of the excellency of the art; which exception our practice has for a like reason extended to similar cases.

7. Under accession is comprehended SPECIFICATION; by which is meant, a person's making a new species or subject, from materials belonging to another.

8. Though the new species should be produced from the COMMIXTION or confusion of different substances belonging to different proprietors, the same rule holds; but where the mixture is made by the common consent of the owner, such consent makes the whole a common property, according to the shares that each proprietor had formerly in the several subjects.

9. Property is carried from one to another by TRANSMISSION; which is the delivery of possession by the proprietor, with an intention to transfer the property to the receiver. Two things are therefore requisite, in order to the transmitting of property in this way: 1. The intention or consent of the former owner to transfer it on some proper title of alienation, as sale, exchange, gift, &c. 2. The actual delivery in pursuance of that intention. The first is called the *causa*, the other the *modus transferendi domini*: which last is so necessary to the acquiring of property, that he who gets the last right, with the first tradition, is preferred, according to the rule, *Traditionibus, non nudis pactis, transferuntur rerum dominia*.

10. Tradition is either real, where the *ipsa corpora* of moveables are put into the hands of the receiver; or symbolical, which is used where the thing is incapable of real delivery, or even when actual delivery is only inconvenient. Where the possession or custody of the subject has been before, with him to whom the property is to be transferred, there is no room for tradition.

11. POSSESSION, which is essential both to the acquisition and enjoyment of property, is defined, the detention of a thing, with a design, or *animus* in the detainer, of holding it as his own. It cannot be acquired by the sole act of the mind, without real detention; but, being once acquired, it may be continued *solo animo*. Possession is either natural, or civil. Natural possession is, when one possesses by himself: thus, we possess lands by cultivating them and reaping their fruits, houses by inhabiting them, moveables by detaining them in our hands. Civil possession is, when hold-

ing the thing, either by the sole act of the mind, or by the hands of another who holds it in our name: thus the owner of a thing lent, possesses it by the borrower; the proprietor of lands, by his tacksmen, trustee, or steward, &c. The same subject cannot be possessed entirely, or *in solidum*, by two different persons at one and the same time; and therefore possession by an act of the mind ceases, as soon as the natural possession is so taken up by another, that the former possessor is not suffered to re-enter. Yet two persons may, in the judgment of law, possess the same subject, at the same time, on different rights: thus, in the case of a pledge, the creditor possesses it in his own name, in virtue of the right of impignoration; while the proprietor is considered as possessing, in and through the creditor, in so far as is necessary for supporting his right of property. The same doctrine holds in liferenters, tacksmen, and, generally, in every case where there are rights affecting a subject distinct from the property.

12. A *bona fide* possessor is he who, though he is not really proprietor of the subject, yet believes himself proprietor on probable grounds. A *mala fide* possessor is he who knows, or is presumed to know, that what he possesses is the property of another. A possessor *bona fide* acquired right, by the Roman law, to the fruits of the subject possessed, that had been reaped and consumed by himself, while he believed the subjects his own. By our customs, perception alone, without consumption, secures the possessor: nay, if he has sown the ground, while his *bona fides* continued, he is entitled to reap the crop, *propter curam et culturam*. But this doctrine does not reach to civil fruits, e. g. the interest of money, which the *bona fide* receiver must restore, together with the principal, to the owner.

13. *Bona fides* necessarily ceaseth by the *confessio rei alium* in the possessor, whether such consciousness should proceed from legal interpellation, or private knowledge. *Mala fides* is sometimes induced by the true owner's bringing his action against the possessor, sometimes not till litigation, and, in cases uncommonly favourable, not till sentence be pronounced against the possessor.

14. The property of moveable subjects is presumed by the bare act of possession, until the contrary be proved; but possession of an immoveable subject, though for 100 years together, if there is no seisin, does not create even a presumptive right to it: *nulla seisin, nulla terra*. Such subject is considered as caducuary, and so accrues to the sovereign. Where the property of a subject is contested, the lawful possessor is entitled to continue his possession, till the point of right be discussed; and, if he has lost it by force or stealth, the judge will, upon summary application, immediately restore it to him.

15. Where a possessor has several rights in his portion, affecting the subject possessed, the general rule is, that he may ascribe his possession to which of them he pleases; but one cannot ascribe his possession to a title other than that on which it commenced, in prejudice of him from whom his title flowed.

## SECT. II. Of HERITABLE and MOVEABLE RIGHTS.

1. FOR the better understanding the doctrine of this title, it must be known, that by the law of Scotland, and indeed of most nations of Europe, since the introduction of feus, wherever there are two or more in the same degree of consanguinity to one who dies intestate, and who are not all females, such rights belonging to the deceased as are either properly feudal, or have any resemblance to feudal rights, descend wholly to one of them, who is considered as his proper heir; the others, who have the name of next of kin or executors, must be contented with that portion of the estate which is of a more perishable nature. Hence has arisen the division of rights to be explained under this title: the subjects descending to the heir, are styled *heritable*; and those that fall to the next of kin *moveable*.

2. All rights of, or affecting lands, under which are comprehended houses, mills, fishings, teinds; and all rights of subjects that are *fundo annexa*, whether completed by seisin or not, are heritable *ex sua natura*. On the other hand, every thing that moves itself or can be moved, and in general whatever is not united to land, is moveable: as household-furniture, corns, cattle, cash, arrears of rent and of interest, even though they should be due on a right of annual rent: for though the arrears last mentioned are secured on land, yet being presently payable, they are considered as cash.

3. Debts, (*nomina debitorum*), when due by bill, promissory note, or account, are moveable. When constituted by bond, they do not all fall under any one head; but are divided into heritable and moveable, by the following rules. All debts constituted by bond bearing an obligation to interest the creditor in any heritable subject in security of the principal sum and annual rent, or annual rent only, are heritable; for they not only carry a yearly profit, but are secured upon land.

4. Bonds merely personal, though bearing a clause of interest, are, by act 1661, declared to be moveable as to succession; i. e. they go, not to the heir, but to the next of kin or executors: but they are heritable with respect to the sick, and to the rights of husband and wife; that is, though, by the general rule, moveable rights fall under the communion of goods consequent upon marriage, and the moveables of denounced persons fall to the crown or sick by single descent, yet such bonds do neither, but are heritable in both respects.

5. Bonds taken payable to heirs and assignees, including executors, are heritable in all respects, from the destination of the creditor. But a bond which is made payable to heirs, without mention of executors, descends, not to the proper heir in heritage, though heirs are mentioned in the bond, but to the executor; for the word *heir*, which is a generic term, points out him who is to succeed by law in the right; and the executor, being the heir *in mobilibus*, is considered as the person to whom such bond is taken payable. But where a bond is taken to heirs male, or to a series of heirs, one after another, such bond is heritable, because its destination necessarily excludes executors.

6. Subjects

6. Subjects originally moveable become heritable. 1. By the proprietor's destination. Thus, a jewel, or any other moveable subject, may be provided to the heir, from the right competent to every proprietor to settle his property on whom he pleases. 2. Moveable rights may become heritable, by the supervening of an heritable security: Thus, a sum due by a personal bond becomes heritable, by the creditor's accepting an heritable right for securing it, or by adjudging upon it.

7. Heritable rights do not become moveable by accessory moveable securities; the heritable right being in such case the *jus nobilius*, which draws the other after it.

8. Certain subjects partake, in different respects, of the nature both of heritable and moveable. Personal bonds are, by the above cited act 1661, moveable in respect of succession; but heritable as to the first, and the rights of husband and wife. All bonds, whether merely personal, or even heritable, on which no seisin has followed, may be affected at the suit of creditors, either by adjudication, which is a diligence proper to heritage; or by arrestment, which is peculiar to moveables. Bonds securing executors, though they descend to the creditor's heir, are payable by the debtor's executors, without relief against the heir; since the debtor's succession cannot be affected by the destination of the creditor.

9. All questions, whether a right be heritable or moveable, must be determined according to the condition of the subject at the time of the ancestor's death. If it was heritable at that period, it must belong to the heir; if moveable, it must fall to the executor, without regard to any alterations that may have affected the subject in the intermediate period between the ancestor's death and the competition.

### I. HERITABLE RIGHTS.

#### SECT. III. Of the CONSTITUTION of HERITABLE RIGHTS by CHARTER and SEISIN.

1. HERITABLE rights are governed by the feudal law, which owed its origin, or at least its first improvements, to the Longobards; whose kings, upon having penetrated into Italy, the better to preserve their conquests, made grants to their principal commanders of great part of the conquered provinces, to be again subdivided by them among the lower officers, under the conditions of fidelity and military service.

2. The feudal constitutions and usages were first reduced into writing about the year 1150. by two lawyers of Milan, under the title of *Consuetudines Feudorum*. None of the German emperors appear to have expressly confirmed this collection by their authority; but it is generally agreed, that it had their tacit observation, and was considered as the customary feudal law of all the countries subject to the empire. No other country has ever acknowledged these books for their law; but each state has formed to itself such a system of feudal rules, as best agreed with the genius of its own constitution. In feudal questions, therefore, we are governed, in the first place, by our own statutes and customs; where these fail us, we have regard to the practice of neighbouring countries, if the ge-

nus of the law appears to be the same with ours; and should the question still remain doubtful, we may have recourse to those written books of the feus, as to the original plan on which all feudal systems have proceeded.

3. This military grant got the name, first of *beneficium*, and afterwards of *feudum*; and was defined a gratuitous right to the property of lands, made under the conditions of fealty and military service, to be performed to the granter by the receiver; the radical right of the lands still remaining in the granter. Under lands, in this definition, are comprehended all rights or subjects so connected with land, that they are deemed a part thereof, as houses, mills, fishings, jurisdictions, patronages, &c. though feus in their original nature were gratuitous, they soon became the subject of commerce; services of a civil or religious kind were frequently substituted in place of military; and now, of a long time, services of every kind have been entirely dispensed with in certain feudal tenures. He who makes this grant is called *superior*, and he who receives it the *vassal*. The subject of the grant is commonly called the *feu*; though that word is at other times, in our law, used to signify one particular tenure. (See SECT. IV. § 2.) The interest retained by the superior in the feu is styled *dominium directum*, or the superiority; and the interest acquired by the vassal, *dominium utile*, or the property. The word *fee* is promiscuously applied to both.

4. Allodial goods are opposed to feus; by which are understood goods enjoyed by the owner, independent of a superior. All moveable goods are allodial; lands only are so when they are given without the condition of fealty or homage. By the feudal system, the sovereign, who is the fountain of feudal rights, reserves to himself the superiority of all the lands of which he makes the grant; so that, with us, no lands are allodial, except those of the king's own property, the superiorities which the king reserves in the property lands of his subjects, and manes and glebes, the right of which is completed by the presbytery's designation, without any feudal grant.

5. Every person who is in the right of an immoveable subject, provided he has the free administration of his estate, and is not debarred by statute, or by the nature of his right, may dispose of it to another. Nay, a vassal, though he has only the *dominium utile*, can subvert his property to a subvassal by a subaltern right, and thereby raise a new *dominium directum* in himself, subordinate to that which is in his superior; and so on *in infinitum*. The vassal who thus subfeus is called the subvassal's immediate superior, and the vassal's superior is the subvassal's mediate superior.

6. All persons, who are not disabled by law, may acquire and enjoy feudal rights. Papists cannot purchase a land estate by any voluntary deed. Aliens, who owe allegiance to a foreign prince, cannot hold a feudal right without naturalization; and therefore, where such privilege was intended to be given to favoured nations or persons, statutes of naturalization were necessary, either general or special; or at least, letters of naturalization by the sovereign.

7. Every heritable subject, capable of commerce,

may be granted in feu. From this general rule are excepted, 1. The annexed property of the crown, which is not alienable without a previous dissolution in parliament. 2. Tailized lands, which are devised under condition that they shall not be aliened. 3. An estate *in hereditate jacente* cannot be effectually aliened by the heir-apparent that is not entered; but such alienation becomes effectual upon his entry, the supervening right accruing in that case to the purchaser; which is a rule applicable to the alienation of all subjects not belonging to the vendor at the time of the sale.

8. The feudal right, or, as it is called, *investiture*, is constituted by charter and feisin. By the charter, we understand that writing which contains the grant of the feudal subject to the vassal, whether it be executed in the proper form of a charter or of a disposition. Charters by subject superiors are granted, either, 1. *A me de superiore meo*, when they are to be holden, not of the grantor himself, but of his superior. This sort is called a *public holding*, because vassals were in ancient times publicly received in the superior's court before the *pares curie* or co-vassals. Or, 2. *De me*, where the lands are to be holden of the grantor. These were called sometimes *base rights*, from *bas*, *lower*; and sometimes *private*, because, before the establishment of our records, they were easily concealed from third parties; the nature of all which will be more fully explained, in SECT. VII. An original charter is that by which the fee is first granted: a charter by progress is a renewed disposition of that fee to the heir or assignee of the vassal. All doubtful clauses in charters by progress ought to be construed agreeably to the original grant; and all clauses in the original charter are understood to be implied in the charters by progress, if there be no express alteration.

9. A *SEISIN* is the instrument or attestation of a notary, that possession was actually given the superior or his baillie, to the vassal or his attorney; which is considered as so necessary a solemnity, as not to be suppliable, either by a proof of natural possession, or even of the special fact that the vassal was duly entered to the possession by the superior's baillie.

10. The symbols by which the delivery of possession is expressed, are for lands, earth, and stone; for rights of annual rent payable forth of land, it is also earth and stone with the addition of a penny money; for parsonage teinds; a sheaf of corn; for jurisdictions the book of the court; for patronages, a psalm book, and the keys of the church; for fishings, net and coble; for mills, clap and napper, &c. The feisin must be taken upon the ground of the lands, except where there is a special dispensation in the charter from the crown.

11. All feisins must be registered within 60 days after their date, either in the general register of feisins at Edinburgh, or in the register of the particular shire appointed by the act 1617; which, it must be observed, is not, in every case, the shire within which the lands lie. Burgage feisins are ordained to be registered in the books of the borough.

12. Unregistered feisins are ineffectual against third parties, but they are valid against the granters and their heirs. Feisins regularly recorded, are

preferable, not according to their own dates, but the dates of their registration.

13. Feisin necessarily supposes a superior by whom it is given; the right therefore which the sovereign, who acknowledges no superior, has over the whole lands of Scotland, is constituted *jure coronæ* without feisin. In several parcels of land that lie contiguous to one another, one feisin serves for all, unless the right of the several parcels be either holden of different superiors, or derived from different authors, or enjoyed by different tenures under the same superior. In discontinuous lands, a separate feisin must be taken on every parcel, unless the sovereign has united them into one tenantry by a charter of union; in which case, if there is no special place expressed, a feisin taken on any part of the united lands will serve for the whole, even though they be situated in different shires. The only effect of union is, to give the discontinuous lands the same quality as if they had been contiguous or naturally united; union, therefore, does not take off the necessity of separate feisins, in lands holden by different tenures, or the rights of which flow from different superiors, these being incapable of natural union.

14. The privilege of barony carries a higher right than union does, and consequently includes union in it as the lesser degree. This right of barony can neither be given, nor transmitted, unless by the crown; but the quality of simple union, being once conferred on lands by the sovereign, may be communicated by the vassal to a subvassal. Though part of the lands united or erected into a barony be sold by the vassal to be holden *a me*, the whole union is not thereby dissolved: what remains unsold retains the quality.

15. A charter, not perfected by feisin, is a right merely personal, which does not transfer the property (see CHAP. II, SECT. XIII, § 1.); and a feisin of itself bears no real faith without its warrant: It is the charter and feisin joined together that constitutes the feudal right, and secures the receiver against the effect of all posterior feisins, even though the charters on which they proceed should be prior to his.

16. No quality, which is designed as a lien or real burden on a feudal right, can be effectual against singular successors, if it be not inserted in the investiture. If the creditors in the burden are not particularly mentioned, the burden is not real; for no perpetual unknown incumbrance can be created upon lands. Where the right itself is granted with the burden therein mentioned, or where it is declared void if the sum be not paid against a day certain, the burden is real; but where the receiver is simply obliged by his acceptance to make payment, the clause is effectual only against him and his heirs.

#### SECT. IV. Of the SEVERAL KINDS of HOLDING.

1. FEUDAL subjects are chiefly distinguished by their different manners of holding, which were either *ward*, *blanch*, *f. u.*, or *burgage*. *Ward-holding*, (which is now abolished by 20 Geo. II. c. 50.) was that which was granted for military service. Its proper *reddendo* was, *services*, or *services nisi and wont*; by which last was meant the performance of service whenever the superior's occasions require it.

. As all feudal rights were originally as tenure, ward-holding was *in dubio* Hence, though the *reddendo* had con- a special service or yearly duty, the is presumed ward, if another holding ricularly expressed. holding is that whereby the vassal is old to pay to the superior a yearly rent r grain, and sometimes also in services r farm, as ploughing, reaping, carriage- rior's use, &c. *nomine feudi firme*. This ure was introduced for the encourage- giculture, the improvement of which rably obstructed by the vassal's obliga- ary service. It appears to have been own in Scotland as far back as *leges*

holding is that whereby the vassal to the superior an customary yearly duty; money, a robe, a pair of gilt spurs, &c. acknowledgment of the superiority, *no- firme*. This duty, where it is a thing growth, if it be not demanded withm cannot be exacted thereafter; and where *si pretatur tantum* are subjoined to the they imply a release to the vassal, what- quity of the duty may be, if it is not an the year.

holding is that, by which boroughs id of the sovereign the lands which are d in their charters of erection. This, in on of *Craig*, does not constitute a separ- , but is a species of ward holding; with erty, that the vassal is not a private per- community: and indeed, watching and , which is the usual service contained in e of such charters, might be properly id, some centuries ago, to have been of ay kind. As the royal borough is the sfil, all burgh holders hold immediate- crown: the magistrates, therefore, when ve the resignation of the particular bur- ad give it to them, act, not as superi- a- the king's bailies specially authorized

the subjects, granted to churches, monas- other societies for religious or charitable ad to be mortified, or granted *ad manum* ; either because all casualties must necessa- to the superior, where the vassal is a cor- which never dies; or because the property subjects is granted to a dead hand, which aser it to another. In lands mortified or Popery to the church, whether grant- ates for the behoof of the church, or *in mof, nam*; the only services prestable by s were prayers, and singing of masses for f the deceased, which approaches nearer holding than ward. The purposes of s having been, upon the reformation, superstitious, the lands mortified were a the crown: but mortifications to uni- hospitals, &c. were not affected by that u; and lands may, at this day, be mor- nly lawful purpose, either by blanch or iding. But as the superior must lose all res of superiority in the case of mortifi- churches, universities, &c. which being

considered as a corporation, never dies; therefore lands cannot be mortified without the superior's consent. *Craig, lib. 1. dig. 11. § 21.*

SECT. V. Of the CASUALTIES due to the SUPERIOR.

1. THE right of the superior continues unim- paired, notwithstanding the feudal grant, unless in so far as the *dominium utile*, or property, is con- veyed to his vassal. The superiority carries a right to the services and annual duties contained in the *reddendo* of the vassal's charter. The duty payable by the vassal is a *debitum feudi, i. e.* it is recover- able, not only by a personal action against himself, but by a real action against the lands.

2. Besides the constant fixed rights of superiori- ty, there are others, which, because they depend upon uncertain events, are called *casualties*.

3. The casualties proper to a ward holding, while that tenure subsisted, were *ward, recognition, and marriage*, which it is now unnecessary to explain, as by the late statutes 20 and 25 Geo. II. for abolish- ing ward holdings, the tenure of the lands held ward of the crown or prince is turned into *blanch*, for payment of one penny Scots yearly, *si pretatur tantum*; and the tenure of those holden of subjects into *feu*, for payment of such yearly feu-duty in money, victual, or cattle, in place of all services: as should be fixed by the court of session. And accordingly that court, by act of sederunt, Feb. 3, 1749, laid down rules for ascertaining the ex- tent of these feu duties. A full history of their casualties, and of the effects consequent upon their falling to the superior, will be found in *Erskin's large Institute*, B. 2. T. 5. § 5. *et sequent.*

4. The only casualty, or rather forfeiture, pro- per to feu holding, is the loss or tinsel of the feu right, by the neglect of payment of the feu duty for two full years. Yet where there is no conven- tional irritancy in the feu right, the vassal is al- lowed to purge the legal irritancy at the bar; that is, he may prevent the forfeiture, by making pay- ment before sentence: but where the legal irritancy is fortified by a conventional, he is not allowed to purge, unless where he can give a good reason for the delay of payment.

5. The casualties common to all holdings are, *non-entry, relief, life rent extinct, disclamation, and purpresture*. NON-ENTRY is that casualty which arises to the superior out of the rents of the feudal subject, through the heir's neglecting to renew the investiture after his ancestor's death. The superior is entitled to this casualty, not only where the heir has not obtained himself invest, but where his tutor or infirmament is set aside upon nullities. The heir, from the death of the ancestor, till he be cited by the superior in a process of general declarator or non-entry, loses only the retoured duties of his lands, (see § 6.) and he forfeited these, though his delay should not argue any contempt of the supe- rior, because the casualty is considered to fall, as a condition implied in the feudal right and not as a penalty of transgression: but reasonable excuses are now admitted to liberate even from the retoured duties before citation.

6. For understanding the nature of retoured du- ties, it must be known, that there was anciently a general valuation of all the lands in Scotland, de- signed both for regulating the proportion of pub- lic

lic subsidies, and for ascertaining the quantity of non-entry and relief duties payable to the superior; which appears, by a contract between king Robert I. and his subjects in 1327, preserved in the Advocates' Library, to have been settled at least as far back as the reign of Alexander III. This valuation became in the course of time, by the improvement of agriculture, and perhaps also by the heightening of the nominal value of our money, from the reign of Robert I. down to that of James III. much too low a standard for the superior's casualties: wherefore, in all services of heirs, the inquest came at last to take proof likewise of the present value of the lands contained in the brief (*quantum nunc valent*), in order to fix these casualties. The first was called the *old*, and the other *new*, *extent*. Though both extents were ordained to be specified in all retours made to the chancery upon briefs of inquest; yet by the appellation of retoured duties in a question concerning casualties, the new extent is always understood. The old extent continued the rule for levying public subsidies, till a tax was imposed by new proportions, by several acts made during the usurpation. By two acts of Cromwell's parliament, held at Westminster in 1656, imposing taxations on Scotland, the rates laid upon the several counties are precisely fixed. The subsidy granted by the act of convention 1667 was levied on the several counties, nearly in the same proportions that were fixed by the usurper in 1656; and the sums to which each county was subjected were subdivided among the individual landholders in that county, according to the valuations already settled, or that should be settled by the commissioners appointed to carry that act into execution. The rent fixed by these valuations is commonly called the *valued rent*; according to which the land tax, and most of the other public burdens, have been levied since that time.

7. In feu holdings, the feu-duty is returned as the rent, because the feu-duty is presumed to be, and truly was at first, the rent. The superior therefore of a feu-holding gets no non-entry, before citation in the general declarator; for he would have been entitled to the yearly feu-duty, though the fee had been full, *i. e.* though there had been a vassal insert in the lands. The superior of teinds gets the fifth part of the retoured duty as non-entry, because the law considers teinds to be worth a fifth part of the rent. In rights of annual rent which are holden of the grantor, the annual renter becomes his debtor's vassal; and the annual rent contained in the right is retoured to the blanch or other duty contained in the right before declarator.

8. It is because the retoured duty is the presumed rent, that the non-entry is governed by it. If therefore no retour of the lands in non-entry can be produced, nor any evidence brought of the retoured duty, the superior is intitled to the real, or at least to the valued, rent, even before citation. In lands formerly holden ward of the King, the heir, in place of the retoured duties, is subjected only to the annual payment of one per cent, of the valued rent.

9. The heir, after he is cited by the superior in the action of general declarator, is subjected to

the full rents till his entry, because his neglect is excusable after citation. The decree of declarator, proceeding on this action, entitles the superior to the possession, and gives him right to rents downward from the citation. As this of non-entry is properly penal, our law has ways restricted it to the retoured duties, if heir had a probable excuse for not entering.

10. Non-entry does not obtain in burgage holdings, because the incorporation of inhabitants in the whole incorporated subjects of the King; there can be no non-entry due in lands granted to communities, because there the vassal dies. This covers the right of particulars in non-entry: for if non-entry be excluded with respect to the whole, it cannot be obtained with respect to any part. It is also excluded, as to a third of lands, by the terce, during the widow's life; as to the whole of them, by the courtesy during the life of the husband. But it is not excluded by a precept of feisin granted to the heir till it be taken thereupon.

11. RELIEF is that casualty which entitles superior to an acknowledgment or consideration from the heir for receiving him as vassal. called *relief*, because, by the entry of the heir, the fee is relieved out of the hands of the superior; is not due in feu-holdings flowing from subject, unless where it is expressed in the charter special clause for doubling the feu-duty at the entry of an heir; but, in feu-rights holden of crown, it is due, though there should be no clause in the charter. The superior can recover this casualty, either by a pointing of the ground as a *debitum fundi*, or by a personal action against the heir. In blanch and feu holdings, where casualty is expressly stipulated, a year's blanch or feu duty is due in name of *relief*, besides current year's duty payable in name of *blanch feu farm*.

12. ESCHEAT (from *eschewer*, to fall) is that forfeiture which falls through a person's being denounced rebel. It is either *single* or *lifrent*.

13. Persons cited to the court of judicary be also denounced rebels, either for appearing there with too great a number of attendants; if they fail to appear, they are declared fugiti from the law.

14. SINGLE ESCHEAT falls, without denunciation, upon sentence of death pronounced in criminal trial; and, by special statute, upon being convicted of certain crimes, though not capital; as perjury, bigamy, deforcement, breach of arrestment, and usury. By the late act concerning ward-holdings, the casualties both of *single* and *lifrent* escheat are discharged, when proceeding upon denunciation for civil debts; but still continue, when they arise from criminal cases. All moveables belonging to the rebel at the time of his rebellion, (whether proceeding upon denunciation, or sentence in a criminal trial), all that shall be afterwards acquired by him till relaxation, fall under *single* escheat.

15. Bonds bearing interest, because they continue heritable *quoad fructum*, fall not under *single*, such fruits of heritable subjects as became due after the term next ensuing the rebellion, these being reserved for the *lifrent* escheat.



ing never retains the right of escheat but makes it over to a donatory, whose effected, till, upon an action of generator, it be declared that the rebel's fallen to the crown by his denunciation at the right of it is now transferred to the gift in his favour. Every creditor the rebel, whose debt was contracted lion, and who has used diligence beator, is preferable to the donatory. heat cannot be affected by any debt nor by any voluntary deed of the rebellion.

rebel, if he continues unrelaxed for lay after rebellion, is construed to be : and therefore, where he holds any t, his superiors, as being without a entitled, each of them, to the rents of lands belonging to the rebel as hold of ring all the days of the rebel's natural casualty of LIFERENT ESCHEAT; ex: the denunciation proceeds upon trea- per rebellion, in which case the liferent : king.

s that estate only, to which the rebel- er right of liferent in his own person, nder his liferent escheat.

ough neither the superior nor his dona- nter into possession in consequence of ity, till decree of declarator; yet that eing truly declaratory, has a retrospect, not so properly confer a new right, as ie right formerly constituted to the su- y the civil death of his vassal. Hence, rs or heritable bonds, though granted e rebellion, and all adjudications, though e debts contracted before that period, are g against the liferent escheat, unless seisin eon thereon within year and day after the rebellion.

re, as in single escheat, no debt contrac- rebellion can hurt the donatory, nor any ight granted after that period, though y or satisfaction of prior debts.

ACLAMATION is that casualty whereby a fens his whole feu to his superior, if he r disclaims him, without ground, as to of it.

RESTITUTION draws likewise a forfeiture ole feu after it; and is incurred by the roaching upon any part of his superior's , or attempting by building, inclosing, wile to make it his own. In both these linquencies, the least colour of excuse vail.

grant, from the crown, whether char- of casualties, or others, proceed on sig- which pass the signet. When the king re- Scotland, all signatures were superscribed but, on the accession of James VI. to the f England, a cachet or seal was made, he king's name engraved on it, in pursu- an act of the privy-council, April 4, 1603, ich all signatures were to be afterwards hat the lords of exchequer were empower- if and these powers are transferred to t of exchequer, which was established in after the union of the two kingdoms in

1707. Grants of higher consequence, as remissions of crimes, gifts proceeding upon forfeiture, and charters of *novo damus*, must have the king's sign manual for their warrant.

24. If lands holding of the crown were to be conveyed, the charter passed, before the union of the kingdoms in 1707, by the great seal of Scot- land; and now by a seal substituted in place of it. Grants of church dignities, during episcopacy, passed also by the great seal; and the commissions to all the principal officers of the crown, as Jus- tice-Clerk, King's Advocate, Solicitor, &c. do so at this day. All rights which subjects may trans- mit by simple assignation, the king transmits by the privy-seal: as gifts of moveables, or of casual- ties that require no seisin. The quarter seal, o- therwise called the *testimonial of the great seal*, is appended to gifts of tutory, commissions of brieves issuing from the chancery, and letters of pre- sentation to lands holding of a subject, proceeding upon forfeiture, bastardy, or *ultimus heres*.

25. Seals are to royal grants what subscription is to rights derived from subjects, and give them authority; they serve also as a check to gifts pro- cured (*subreptione vel obreptione*) by concealing the truth, or expressing a falsehood; for, where this appears, the gift may be stopped before pas- sing the seals, though the signature should have been signed by the king. All rights passing un- der the great or privy seal must be registered in the registers of the great or privy seal *respective*, before appending the seal.

#### SECT. VI. Of the RIGHT which the VASSAL ac- quires by GETTING the FEU.

1. UNDER the *dominium utile*, which the vassal ac- quires by the feudal right, is comprehended the property of whatever is considered as part of the lands, whether of houses, woods, inclosures, &c. above ground; or of coal, limestone, minerals, &c. under ground. Mills have, by the generality of our lawyers, been deemed a separate tene- ment, and so not carried by a charter or disposi- tion, without either a special clause conveying mills, or the creation of the lands into a barony. Yet it is certain, that, if a proprietor builds a mill on his own lands, it will be carried by his entail, or by a retour, without mentioning it, although the lands are not erected into a barony. If the lands disposed be affricted, or thirled to another mill, the purchaser is not allowed to build a new corn mill on his property, even though he should offer security that it shall not hurt the thirle; which is introduced for preventing daily tempta- tions to fraud.

2. Proprietors are prohibited to hold dove- cotes, unless their yearly rent, lying within two miles thereof, extend to ten chalders of victual. A purchaser of lands, with a dove-cote, is not obliged to pull it down, though he should not be qualified to build one; but, if it becomes ruinous he cannot rebuild it. The right of brewing, though not expressed in the grant, is implied in the nature of property; as are also the rights of fishing, fowling, and hunting, in so far as they are not restrained by statute.

3. There are certain rights naturally consequent on property, which are deemed to be preserved by

by the crown as *regalia*; unless they be specially conveyed. Gold and silver mines are of this sort; the first universally; and the other, where three half-pennies of silver can be extracted from the pound of lead, by act 1424. Three half-pennies at that time were equal to about two shillings five pennies of our present Scots money. These were by our ancient law annexed to the crown; but they are now dissolved from it; and every proprietor is entitled to a grant of the mines within his own lands, with the burden of delivering to the crown a tenth of what shall be brought up.

4. Salmon fishing is likewise a right understood to be reserved by the crown, if it be not expressly granted: but 40 years possession thereof, where the lands are either erected into a barony, or granted with the general clause of fishings, establishes the full right of the salmon fishing in the vassal. A charter of lands, within which any of the king's forests lie, does not carry the property of such forest to the vassal.

5. All the subjects which were by the Roman law accounted *res publicæ*, as rivers, highways, ports, &c. are, since the introduction of feus, held to be *inter regalia*, or *in patrimonium principis*; and hence encroachment upon a highway is said to infer purpresture. No person has the right of a free port without a special grant, which implies a power in the grantee to levy anchorage and shore dues, and obligation upon him to uphold the port in good condition. In this class of things, our forefathers reckoned *FORTALICES*, or small places of strength, originally built for the defence of the country, either against foreign invasions or civil commotions; but these now pass with the lands in every charter.

6. The vassal acquires right by his grant, not only to the lands specially contained in the charter, but to those that have been possessed 40 years as pertinent thereof. But, 1. If the lands in the grant are marked out by the special limits, the vassal is circumscribed by the tenor of his own right, which excludes every subject without these limits from being pertinent of the lands. 2. A right possessed under an express investment is preferable, *ceteris paribus*, to one possessed only as pertinent. 3. Where neither party is invest *per expressum*, the mutual promiscuous possession by both, of a subject as pertinent, resolves into a community of the subject possessed: but if one of the parties has exercised all the acts of property of which the subject was capable, while the possession of the other was confined to pasturage only, or to casting seal and divot, the first is to be deemed sole proprietor, and the other to have merely a right of servitude.

7. As *BARONY* is a *nomen universitatis*, and unites the several parts contained in it into one individual right, the general conveyance of a barony carries with it all the different tenements of which it consists, tho' they should not be specially enumerated; and this holds, even without erection into barony, in lands that have been united under a special name. Hence, likewise, the possession by the vassal of the smallest part of the barony lands preserves to him the right of the whole.

8. The vassal is entitled, in consequence of his

property, to levy the rents of his own to recover them from his tenants by a rent before his own court; and from all seisors and intruders, by an action of duties before the sheriff. He can a from his lands, tenants who have no he can grant tacks or leases to others. is a contract of location, whereby the or any other immoveable subject, is let fee or tackman for a certain yearly i in money, the fruits of the ground, c It ought to be reduced into writing, right concerning lands; tacks, therefo given verbally, to endure for a term of good against neither party for more tha An obligation to grant a tack is as effe the grantor as a formal tack. A lifi ving a temporary property in the fruits, tacks to endure for the term of his own

9. The tackman's right is limited to which spring up annually from the sub: ther naturally, or by his own industry therefore entitled to any of the growin bove ground, and far less to the min clay, &c. under ground, the use of w fumes the substance. Tacks are, like tracts, personal rights in their own n. consequently ineffectual against singula in the lands; but, for the encouragem culture, they were, by act 1449, decl tual to the tackman for the full time c durance, into whose hands soever the l come.

10. To give a written tack the ben statute, it must mention the special tae able to the proprietor, which, though be not clusory, secures the tackman; : be followed by possession, which it want of a seisin. If a tack does not a term of entry, the entry will comme next term after its date, agreeable to *Quod pure debetur, presenti die debetur.* not mention the *ib, i. e.* the term at v to determine, it is good for one year if the intention of parties, to continue than one year, should appear from an the tack. (*e. g.* if the tackman should to certain annual prestations,) it is fu two years as the *minimum*. Tacks: perpetuity, or with an indefinite ill, be benefit of the statute. Tacks of hou borough do not fall within this act, it tonary to let these from year to year.

11. Tacks necessarily imply a *d. l. 9.* choice by the fetter of a proper person rant. Hence the conveyance of a tack not granted to assignees, is ineffectual a landlord's consent. A right of tack, th heritable, falls under the *ius quasi*, bee not be separated from the labouring out plements of tillage, which are moveab This implied condition of assignees is limited to voluntary, and does not ext cessary, assignments; as adjudication of the tackman's creditor: but a tack, ex cluding assignees, cannot be carried e indication. It was not a fixed point: ture, whether a tenant could sublet wi

set of the landlord; but the court of session, in a case which occurred a few years ago, denied the power of subletting in the tenant, where the lease was for 19 years. Liferent tacks; because they import a higher degree of right in the tackman than tacks for a definite term, may be assigned, unless assignees be specially excluded.

12. If neither the fetter nor tackman shall properly discover their intention to have the tack dissolved at the term fixed for its expiration, they are understood, or presumed, to have entered into a new tack upon the same terms with the former, which is called *tacit relocation*; and continues till the landlord warns the tenant to remove, or the tenant renounces his tack to the landlord: this obtains also in the case of moveable tenants, who possess from year to year without written tacks. In judicial tacks, however, by the court of session, tacit relocation neither does nor can take place; for cautioners being interposed to them, they are looked at the end of the tack: and therefore, where judicial tackmen possess after expiry of their right, they are accountable as factors.

13. In tacks of land, the fetter is commonly bound to put all the houses and office-houses, necessary for the farm, in good condition at the tenant's entry; and the tenant must keep them and leave them so at his removal. But, in tacks of houses, the fetter must not only deliver to the tenant the subject set, in tenantable repair at his entry, but uphold it in that repair during the whole years of the tack, unless it is otherwise covenanted between the parties.

14. If the inclemency of the weather, inundation, or calamity of war, should have brought upon the crop an extraordinary damage (*plus quam tolerabile*), the landlord had, by the Roman law, no claim for any part of the tack-duty: if the damage was more moderate, he might exact the full rent. It is nowhere defined, what degree of sterility or devastation makes a loss *plus quam tolerabile*; though the scope of our law seems to be, that no relief is afforded, unless where a total loss arises from the Act of God, or the King's Enemies. Tenants are not obliged to pay any public burdens to which they are not expressly bound by the tack, except tolls and services.

15. Tacks may be evacuated during their currency; 1. In the same manner as feu-rights by the tackman's running in arrear of his tack-duty for two years together. This irritancy may be prevented by the tenant's making payment at the bar before sentence. 2. Where the tenant either runs in arrear of one year's rent, or leaves his farm uncultivated at the usual season; in which case he may, by act of sederunt 1756, be ordained to give security for the arrears, and for the rent of the following crops, if the tack shall subsist so long; otherwise, to remove, as if the tack were at an end. 3. Tacks may be evacuated at any time by the mutual consent of parties.

16. The landlord, when he intends to remove a tenant whose tack is expiring, or who possesses without a tack must, upon a precept signed by himself, warn the tenant 40 days preceding the term of Whitsunday, or at immediately preceding the fest, personally, or at his dwelling-house, to remove at that term, with his family and effects. The precept must be also executed on the ground

of the lands, and thereafter read in the parish church where the lands lie, after the morning service, and affixed to the next patent door thereof. Whitsunday, though it be a moveable feast, is, in questions of removing, fixed to the 15th of May. In warnings from tenements within borough, it is sufficient that the tenant be warned 40 days before the ish of the tack, whether it be Whitsunday or Martinmas; and in these the ceremony of chalking the door is sustained as warning when proceeding upon a verbal order from the proprietor. It may perhaps be doubtful how far this obtains as a general rule, because the mode of warning ought to depend on the practice of each particular borough, and any warning made agreeably to this practice must be legal.

17. This process of warning was precisely necessary for founding an action of removing against tenant, till the act of sederunt 1756, which leaves it in the option of the proprietor, either to use the former method, or to bring his action of removing before the judge ordinary; which, if it be called 40 days before the said term of Whitsunday, shall be held as equal to a warning. Where the tenant is bound, by an express clause of his tack, to remove at the ish without warning, such obligation is, by the said act, declared to be a sufficient warrant for letters of horning, upon which, if the landlord charge his tenant forty days before the said Whitsunday, the judge is authorized to eject him within six days after the term of removing expressed in the tack.

18. Actions of removing might, even before this act of sederunt, have been pursued without any previous warning; 1. Against vicious possessors, i. e. persons who had seized the possession by force, or who without any legal title, had intruded into it, after the last possessor had given it up. 2. Against possessors who had a naked tolerance. 3. Against tenants who had run in arrear of rent, during the currency of their tacks. 4. Against such as had sold their lands, and continued to possess after the term of the purchaser's entry. Upon the same ground, warning was not required, in removings against possessors of liveried lands, after the death of the liverier who died in the natural possession: but if he possessed by tenants, his tenants could not be disturbed in their possessions till the next Whitsunday, that they might have time to look out for other farms; but they might be compelled to remove at that term, by an action of removing, without warning.

19. A landlord's title in a removing, let it be ever so lame, cannot be brought under question by a tenant whose tack flows immediately from him; but, if he is to insist against tenants not his own, his right must be perfected by investment, unless it be such as requires no investment, as trees, &c.

20. The defender, in a removing, must (by act 1755), before offering any defence which is not instantly waived, give security to pay to the fetter the *violent profits*, if they should be awarded against him. These are so called, because the law considers the tenant's possession after the warning, as violent. They are estimated, in tenements within borough, to double the rent; and in lands, to the highest profits the pursuer could have made of them either by a tenant or by himself. The nature of the security required by the said act

of parliament is, to pay all damages, which the warner, or others having interest, may sustain.

21. If the action of removing shall be passed from, or if the landlord shall, after using warning, accept of rent from the tenant, for any term subsequent to that of the removal, he is presumed to have changed his mind, and tacit relocation takes place. All actions of removing against the principal or original tackman, and decrees thereupon, if the order be used, which is set forth *supra*, (Sec. § 17.) are, by the act of federunt 1756, declared to be effectual against the assignees to the tack or subtenants.

22. The landlord has, in security of his tack duty, over and above the tenant's personal obligation, a tacit pledge or hypothec, not only on the fruits, but on the cattle pasturing on the ground. The corn, and other fruits, are hypothecated for the rent of that year whereof they are the crop; for which they remain affected, though the landlord should not use his rights for years together. In virtue of this hypothec, the landlord is entitled to a preference over any creditor, though he has actually used a pouding; except in the special case, that pouding is executed after the term of payment, when the landlord can appropriate the crop for his payment, the pouding in such case being obliged to leave as much on the ground as to satisfy the landlord's hypothec. This right however cannot compete with an extent issued for a debt due to the crown.

23. The whole cattle on the ground, considered as a quantity, are hypothecated for a year's rent, one after another successively. The landlord may apply this hypothec for payment of the past year's rent, at any time within three months from the last conventional term of payment, after which it ceases for that year. As the tenant may increase the subject of this hypothec, by purchasing oxen, sheep, &c. so he can impair it, by selling part of his stock; but if the landlord suspects the tenant's management, he may, by sequestration or pouding, make his right, which was before general upon the whole stock, special upon every individual. A superior has also a hypothec for his feu-duty, of the same kind with that just explained.

24. In tacks of houses, breweries, shops, and other tenements, which have no natural fruits, the furniture and other goods brought into the subject set are hypothecated to the landlord for one year's rent. But the tenant may by sale impair his hypothec, as he might that of cattle in rural tenements; and indeed, in the particular case of a shop, the tenant rents it for no other purpose than as a place of sale.

#### SECT. VII. *Of the TRANSMISSION of RIGHTS, by CONFIRMATION and RESIGNATION.*

1. A VASSAL may transmit his feu either to universal successors, as heirs; or to singular successors, *i. e.* those who acquire by gift, purchase, or other singular title. This last sort of transmission is either voluntary, by disposition; or necessary, by adjudication.

2. By the first feudal rules, no superior could be compelled to receive any vassal in the lands, other than this heir expressed in the investiture; for the

superior alone had the power of ascertaining what order of heirs the feu granted by himself to descend. But the right of refusal in the superior did not take place, 1. In the case of creditors or adjudgers, whom superiors were obliged to receive upon payment of a year's (1469, c. 37. 1672, c. 19.): 2. In the case of chasers of bankrupt estates, who were put on the same footing with adjudgers by act 1690, c. 1. The crown refuses no voluntary disponent, on paying a composition to the exchequer of a part of the valued rent. Now, by 20 Geo. superiors are directed to enter all singular successors (except incorporations) who shall have from the vassal a disposition, containing protest of resignation; they always receiving the or casualties that law entitles them to, on a valuation, *i. e.* a year's rent. It was long matter of doubt how this composition due to the superior upon the entry of singular successors should be regulated. The matter at last received a solemn decision; finding, That the superior is entitled, the entry of singular successors, in all cases where such entries are not taxed, to a year's rent of the subject, whether lands or houses, as the same set, or may be set at the time; deducting the duty and all public burdens, and likewise all annual burdens imposed on the lands by consent of the superior, with all reasonable annual repair of houses and other perishable subjects.

3. Base rights, *i. e.* dispositions to be held by the disponent, are transmissions only of the property, the superiority remaining as formerly. This kind of right might, before establishing registers, have been kept quite concealed from the granter and receiver, a public right being preferable to it, unless clothed with possession; but as this distinction was no longer necessary after the establishment of the records, all transmissions are declared preferable, according to the dates of their several registrations; without respect to the former distinction of base and public, or being clothed and not clothed with possession.

4. Public rights, *i. e.* dispositions to be held by the granter's superior, may be perfected either by confirmation or resignation; and therefore generally contain both precept of seisin and precept of resignation. When the receiver is to complete his right in the first way, he takes seisin upon the precept: but such seisin is inefficacious without the superior's confirmation, for the disponent cannot be deemed a vassal till the superior receive him as such, or confirm the holding. By usual style in the transmission of lands, the disposition contains an obligation and precept of investment, both *a me* and *de me*, in the option of the disponent; upon which, if seisin is taken indefinitely, it is construed in favour of the disponent to be a confirmation, because a public right is null without confirmation: but if the receiver shall afterwards obtain the superior's confirmation, it is construed as if it had been from the beginning a public right.

5. Where two several public rights of the superior in the subject are confirmed by the superior, their preference is governed by the dates of the confirmations, not of the investments confirmed; because it is the confirmation which completes a public right.

6. Though a public right becomes, by the

person's confirmation, valid from its date; yet if any impediment intervene betwixt that period and the confirmation, to hinder the two from being conjoined, *e. g.* if the grantor of a public right should afterwards grant a base right to another, upon which seisin is taken before the superior's confirmation of the first, the confirmation will have effect only from its own date; and consequently the base right first completed will carry the property of the lands preferable to the public one.

1. RESIGNATION is that form of law, by which a vassal surrenders his feu to his superior; and it is either *ad perpetuam remanentiam*, or *in favorem*. In resignation *ad remanentiam*, where the feu is resigned, to the effect that it may remain with the superior, the superior, who before had the superiority, acquires, by the resignation, the property also of the lands resigned; and his interest in the lands still subsisted, notwithstanding the right by which he had given his vassal the property; therefore, upon the vassal's resignation, the superior's right of property revives, and is consolidated with the superiority, without the necessity of a new attainment; but the instrument of resignation must be recorded.

2. Resignations *in favorem* are made, not with an intention that the property resigned should remain with the superior, but that it should be again given by him, in favour either of the resigner himself, or of a third party; consequently the feu remains in the resigner, till the person in whose favour resignation is made gets his right from the superior perfected by seisin. And because resignations *in favorem* are but incomplete personal deeds, our law has made no provision for recording them. Hence, the first seisin on a second resignation is preferable to the last seisin upon the first resignation; but the superior, accepting a second resignation, whereupon a prior seisin may be taken in prejudice of the first resignatory, is liable in damages.

3. By our former decisions, one who was vested with a personal right of lands, *i. e.* a right not completed by seisin, effectually divested himself by disposing it to another; after which no right remained in the disposer, which could be carried by a second disposition, because a personal right is no more than a *jus obligationis*, which may be transferred by any deed sufficiently expressing the will of the grantor. But this doctrine, at the same time that it rendered the security of the records extremely uncertain, was not truly applicable to such rights as required seisin to complete them; and therefore it now obtains, that the grantor even of a personal right of lands is not so divested by conveying the right to one person, but that he may effectually make it over afterwards to another; and the preference between the two does not depend on the dates of the dispositions, but on the priority of the seisins following upon them.

SECT. VIII. OF REDEEMABLE RIGHTS.

1. A heritage right is said to be redeemable, when it contains a right of reversion, or return, in favour of the person from whom the right flows. Reversions are either legal, which arise from the law itself, as in adjudications, which law declares to be redeemable within a certain time after their

date; or conventional, which are constituted by the agreement of parties, as in wadsets, rights of annual rent, and rights in security. A WADSET (from *wad* a pledge) is a right, by which lands, or other heritable subjects, are impignorated by the proprietor to his creditor in security of his debt; and, like other heritable rights, is perfected by seisin. The debtor, who grants the wadset, and has the right of reversion, is called the *reverser*; and the creditor, receiver of the wadset, is called the *wadsetter*.

2. WADSETS, by the present practice, are commonly made out in the form of mutual contracts, in which one party sells the land, and the other grants the right of reversion. When the right of reversion is thus incorporated in the body of the wadset, it is effectual without registration; but where the right of reversion is granted in a separate writing, it is ineffectual against the singular successor of the wadsetter, unless it be registered in the register of seisins within 60 days after the date of the seisin upon the wadset.

3. Rights of reversion are generally esteemed *stricti juris*; yet they go to heirs, though heirs should not be mentioned, unless there be some clause in the right, discovering the intention of parties, that the reversion should be personal to the reverser himself. In like manner, though the right should not express a power to redeem from the wadsetter's heir, as well as from himself, redemption will be competent against the heir. All our lawyers have affirmed, that reversions cannot be assigned, unless they are taken to assignees; but from the favour of legal diligence, they may be adjudged.

4. Reversions commonly leave the reverser at liberty to redeem the lands *quandocunque*, without restriction in point of time; but a clause is adjoined to some reversions, that if the debt be not paid against a determinate day, the right of reversion shall be irrevocable, and the lands shall become the irredeemable property of the wadsetter. Nevertheless, the irritancy being penal, as in wadsets, where the sum lent falls always short of the value of the lands, the right of redemption is by indulgence continued to the reverser, even after the term has expired, while the irritancy is not declared. But the reverser, if he does not take the benefit of this indulgence within 40 years after the lapse of the term is cut out of it by prescription.

5. If the reverser would redeem his lands, he must use an order of redemption against the wadsetter: the first step of which is premonition (or notice given under form of instrument) to the wadsetter, to appear at the time and place appointed by the reverser, then and there to receive payment of his debt, and thereupon to renounce his right of wadset. In the voluntary redemption of a right of wadset holden base, a renunciation duly registered re-establishes the reverser in the full right of the lands. Where the wadset was granted to be holden of the grantor's superior, the superior must receive the reverser on payment of a year's rent, if he produce a disposition from the wadsetter, containing procuratory of resignation. If, at executing the wadset, the superior has granted letters of reverses, *i. e.* an obligation again to enter the reverser upon redemption of the lands, he will be obliged to receive him without payment of the

year's rent. But letters of regrefs will not have this effect against singular successors in the superiority, if they are not registered in the register of reversions. All wadsets that remain personal rights, are extinguished by simple charges, though they should not be recorded.

6. If the wadsetter either does not appear at the time and place appointed, or refuses the redemption money, the reverser must consign it under form of instrument, in the hands of the person appointed in the right of reversion; or, if no person be named, in the hands of the clerk to the bills, a clerk of the session, or any responsible person. An instrument of consignment, with the consignatory's receipt of the money consigned, completes the order of redemption, stops the farther currency of interest against the reverser, and founds him in an action for declaring the order to be formal, and the lands to be redeemed in consequence of it.

7. After decree of declarator is obtained, by which the lands are declared to return to the debtor, the consigned money, which comes in place of the lands, becomes the wadsetter's, who therefore can charge the consignatory upon letters of horning to deliver it up to him; but, because the reverser may, at any time before decree, pass from his order, as one may do from any other step of diligence, the consigned sums continue to belong to the reverser, and the wadsetter's interest in the wadset continues heritable till that period.

8. If the wadsetter chooses to have his money rather than the lands, he must require from the reverser, under form of instrument, the sums due by the wadset, in terms of the right. The wadset sums continue heritable, notwithstanding requisition, which may be passed from by the wadsetter even after the reverser has consigned the redemption money in consequence thereof.

9. Wadsets are either proper or improper. A proper wadset is that whereby it is agreed, that the use of the land shall go for the use of the money; so that the wadsetter takes his hazard of the rents, and enjoys them without accounting, in satisfaction, or *in solutum* of his interest.

10. In an improper wadset, the reverser, if the rent should fall short of the interest, is taken bound to make up the deficiency: if it amounts to more, the wadsetter is obliged to impute the excess towards extinction of the capital: and, as soon as the whole sums, principal and interest, are extinguished by the wadsetter's possession, he may be compelled to renounce and divest himself in favour of the reverser.

11. If the wadsetter be entitled by his right to enjoy the rents without accounting, and if at the same time the reverser be subjected to the hazard of their deficiency, such contract is justly declared usurious: and also in all proper wadsets wherein any unreasonable advantage has been taken of the debtor, the wadsetter must (by act 1661) during the not requisition of the sum lent, either quit his possession to the debtor, upon his giving security to pay the interest, or subject himself to account for the surplus rents, as in improper wadsets.

12. Infeftments of annual rent are also redeemable rights. A right of annual rent does not carry the property of the lands; but it creates a real *nexus* or burden upon the property, for payment

of the interest or annual rent contained in the right; and consequently the bygone interests due upon it are *debita fundi*. The annual renter may therefore either insist in a real action for obtaining letters of pouding the ground, or sue the tenant in a personal action towards the payment of his past interest: and in a competition for those rents, the annual renter's preference will not depend on his having used a pouding of the ground for his right was completed by the seisin; the power of pouding the ground, arising from that antecedent right, is *mere facultatis*, and need not be exercised, if payment can be otherwise got. As it is only the interest of the sum lent which is a burden upon the lands, the annual renter, if he wants his principal sum, cannot recover it either by pouding or by a personal action against the debtor's tenants; but must demand it from the debtor himself on his personal obligation in the bond, either by requisition, or by a charge of letters of horning, according as the right is drawn.

13. Rights of annual rent, being servitudes upon the property, and consequently consistent with the right of property in the debtor may be extinguished without resignation.

14. Infeftments in security are another kind of redeemable rights (now frequently used in place of rights of annual rent), by which the receiver are infeft in the lands themselves, and not simply in an annual rent forth of them, for security of the principal sums, interest, and penalty, contained in the rights. If an infeftment in security be granted to a creditor, he may thereupon enter into the immediate possession of the lands or annual rent for his payment. They are extinguished as rights of annual rent.

15. All rights of annual rent, rights in security, and generally whatever constitutes a real burden on the fee, may be the ground of an adjudication, which is preferable to all adjudications, or other diligences, intervening between the date of the right and of the adjudication deduced on it; not only for the principal sum contained in the rights but also for the whole past interest contained in the adjudication. This preference arises from the nature of real debts, or *debita fundi*: but in order to obtain it for the interest of the interest accumulated in the adjudication, such adjudication must proceed on a process of pouding the ground.

#### SECT. IX. Of SERVITUDES.

1. **SERVITUDE** is a burden affecting lands, or other heritable subjects, whereby the proprietor is either restrained from the full use of what is his own, or is obliged to suffer another to do some thing upon it. Servitudes are either *natural*, *legal* or *conventional*. *Nature* itself may be said to constitute a servitude upon inferior tenements, where by they must receive the water that falls from those that stand on higher ground. *Legal* servitudes are established by statute or custom, from considerations of public policy; among which may be numbered the restraints laid upon the proprietors of tenements within the city of Edinburgh. There is as great a variety of *conventional* servitudes, as there are ways by which the exercise of property may be restrained by paction in favour of another.

#### 2. *Conventional*

1. *Conventional servitudes* are constituted, either by grant, where the will of the party burdened is expressed in writing: or by prescription, where his consent is presumed from his acquiescence in the burden for 40 years. A servitude constituted by writing, or grant, is not effectual against the grantor's singular successors, unless the grantee has been in the use or exercise of his right: but they are valid against the grantor and his heirs, even without use. In servitudes that may be acquired by prescription, 40 years exercise of the right is sufficient, without any title in writing, other than a charter and seisin of the lands to which the servitude is claimed to be due.

2. Servitudes constituted by grant are not effectual, in a question with the superior of the tenement burdened with the servitude, unless his consent be adhibited; for a superior cannot be hurt by his vassal's deed: but where the servitude is acquired by prescription, the consent of the superior, whose right afforded him a good title to interrupt, is implied. A servitude by grant, though followed only by a partial possession, must be governed, as to its extent, by the tenor of the grant; but a servitude by prescription is limited by the measure or degree of the use had by him who prescribes: agreeably to the maxim, *Tantum praescriptum, quantum possessum*.

3. Servitudes are either *predial* or *personal*. *Predial* servitudes are burdens imposed upon one tenement, in favour of another tenement. That to which the servitude is due is called the *dominant*, and that which owes it is called the *servient tenement*. No person can have right to a predial servitude, if he is not proprietor of some dominant tenement that may have benefit by it; for that right is annexed to a tenement, and so cannot pass from one person to another, unless some tenement goes along with it.

4. *Predial* servitudes are divided into *rural* servitudes, or of lands; and *urban* servitudes, or of houses. The rural servitudes of the Romans were *iter, actus, via, aqueductus, aqueductus, and jus pascendi pecoris*. Similar servitudes may be constituted with us, of a foot road, horse road, cart road, dams, and aqueducts, watering of cattle, and pasturage. The right of a high-way is not a servitude constituted in favour of a particular tenement, but is a right common to all travellers. The care of high-ways, bridges, and ferries, is committed to the sheriffs, justices of peace, and commissioners of supply in each shire.

5. Common pasturage, or the right of feeding one's cattle upon the property of another, is sometimes constituted by a general clause of pasturage in a charter or disposition, without mentioning the lands burdened; in which case, the right comprehends whatever had been formerly appropriated to the lands disposed out of the grantor's own property, and likewise all pasturage due to them out of other lands. When a right of pasturage is given to several neighbouring proprietors, on a major or common belonging to the grantor, indefinite as to the number of cattle to be pastured, the extent of their several rights is to be proportioned according to the number that each of them can fodder in winter upon his own dominant tenement.

6. The chief servitudes of houses among the Romans were those of support, viz. *tigni immittendi*, and *oneris ferendi*. The first was the right of fixing in our neighbours wall a joist or beam from our house: the second was that of resting the weight of one's house upon his neighbour's wall.

7. With us, where different floors or stories of the same house belong to different persons, as is frequent in the city of Edinburgh, the property of the house cannot be said to be entirely divided; the roof remains a common roof to the whole, and the area on which the house stands supports the whole; so that there is a communication of property, in consequence of which the proprietor of the ground floor must, without the constitution of any servitude, uphold it for the support of the upper, and the owner of the highest story must uphold that as a cover to the lower. When the highest floor is divided into garrets among the several proprietors, each proprietor is obliged, according to this rule, to uphold that part of the roof which covers his own garret.

8. No proprietor can build, so as to throw the rain water falling from his own house, immediately upon his neighbour's ground, without a special servitude, which is called of *stillicide*; but, if it falls within his own property, though at the smallest distance from the march, the owner of the inferior tenement must receive it.

9. The servitudes *altius non tollendi, et non officendi luminibus vel prospectui*, restrain proprietors from raising their houses beyond a certain height, or from making any building whatsoever that may hurt the light or prospect of the dominant tenement. These servitudes cannot be constituted by prescription alone: for, though a proprietor should have his house ever so low, or should not have built at all upon his grounds for 40 years together, he is presumed to have done so for his own convenience or profit; and therefore cannot be barred from afterwards building a house on his property, or raising it to what height he pleases, unless he be tied down by his own consent.

10. We have two predial servitudes to which the Romans were strangers, viz. that of fuel or seal and divot, and of thirlage. The first is a right, by which the owner of the dominant tenement may turn up peats, turfs, seals, or divots, from the ground of the servient, and carry them off either for fuel, or thatch, or the other uses of his own tenement.

11. *THIRLAGE* is that servitude, by which lands arestricted, or thirled, to a particular mill; and the possessors bound to grind their grain there, for payment of certain multures and sequels as the agreed price of grinding. In this servitude, the mill is the dominant tenement, and the lands restricted (which are called also the *thirl* or *sucken*) the servient.

12. *MULTURE* is the quantity of grain or meal payable to the proprietor of the mill, or to the multerer his tackman. The quantities paid to the mill by the lands not restricted, are generally proportioned to the value of the labour, and are called *out-town* or *out-sucken multures*; but those paid by the thirl are ordinarily higher, and are called *in-town* or *in-sucken multures*.

13. The

14. The *SEQUELS* are the small quantities given to the servants, under the name of *knave'ship, bancnok, and lock or gownpen*.

15. Thirlage is either, 1. Of grindable corns; or, 2. Of all growing corns; or, 3. Of the *invecta et illata*, i. e. of all the grain brought within the thirl, though of another growth. Where the thirlage is of grindable grain, it is in practice restricted to the corns which the tenants have occasion to grind, either for the support of their families, or for other uses; the surplus may be carried out of the thirl unmanufactured, without being liable in multure. Where it is of the *grana crescentia*, the whole grain growing upon the thirl is astricted, with the exceptions, 1. Of seed and horse corn, which are destined to uses inconsistent with grinding; and, 2. Of the farm-duties due to the landlord, if they are delivered in grain not grinded. But, if the rent be payable in meal, flour, or malt, the grain of which these are made must be manufactured in the dominant mill.

16. The thirlage of *invecta et illata* is seldom constituted but against the inhabitants of a borough or village, that they shall grind all the unmanufactured grain they import thither at the dominant mill. Multure, therefore, cannot be exacted in a thirlage of *invecta et illata*, for flour or oat-meal brought into the servient tenement, unless the importer had bought it in grain, and grinded it at another mill. The same grain that owes multure, as *granum crescens*, to the mill in whose thirl it grew, if it shall be afterwards brought within a borough where the *invecta et illata* are thirled, must pay a second multure to the proprietor of that dominant tenement; but, where the right of these two thirlages is in the same proprietor, he cannot exact both. Where lands are thirled in general terms, without expressing the particular nature of the servitude, the lightest thirlage is presumed, from the favour of liberty; but in the astriction of a borough or village, where there is no growing grain which can be the subject of thirlage, the astriction of *invecta et illata* must be necessarily understood.

17. Thirlage, in the general case, cannot be established by prescription alone, for *ius que sunt iure facultatis non prescribitur*; but where one has paid for 40 years together the heavy insucken multure, the slightest title in writing will subject his lands. Thirlage may, contrary to the common rule, be constituted by prescription alone, 1. Where one pays to a mill a certain sum, or quantity of grain yearly, in name of multure, whether he grinds it at it or not, called *dry multure*. 2. In mills of the king's property; which is constituted *jure corona*, without titles in writing; and, where he derives right from another, his titles are more liable to be lost. This is extended in practice to mills belonging to church lands, where 30 years possession is deemed equivalent to a title in writing, from a presumption that their rights were destroyed at the reformation. Though thirlage itself cannot be constituted by mere possession, the proportion of multure payable to the dominant tenement may be so fixed.

18. The possessors of the lands astricted are bound to uphold the mill, repair the dam-lykes and aqueducts, and bring home the millstones.

These services, though not expressed in the constitution, are implied. By act of parliament passed in 1799 the right of thirlage may be communicated into fixed annual payment at the instance either of the proprietor of the mills or thirled lands.

19. Servitudes, being restraints upon property, are *stricti juris*: they are not therefore presumed, if the acts upon which they are claimed can be explained consistently with freedom; and, when servitudes are constituted, they ought to be used in the way least burdensome to the servient tenement. Hence, one who has a servitude of peats upon his neighbour's moss, is not at liberty to extend it for the use of any manufacture which may require an extraordinary expence of fuel; but must confine it to the natural uses of the dominant tenement.

20. Servitudes are extinguished, 1. *Confusione*, when the person comes to be proprietor of the dominant and servient tenements; for *res sua nomini servit*, and the use the proprietor thereafter makes of the servient tenement is not *jure servitutis*, but is an act of property. 2. By the perishing either of the dominant or servient tenement. 3. Servitudes are lost *non utendo*, by the dominant tenement neglecting to use the right for 40 years; which is considered as a dereliction of it, though he who has the servient tenement should have made no interruption by doing acts contrary to the servitude.

21. *Personal* servitudes are those by which the property of a subject is burdened, in favour, not of a tenement, but of a person. The only personal servitude known in our law, is usufruct or liferent; which is a right to use and enjoy a thing during life, the substance of it being preserved. A liferent cannot therefore be constituted upon things which perish in the use; and though it may upon subjects which gradually wear out by time, as household furniture, &c. yet with us, it is generally applied to heritable subjects. He whose property is burdened, is usually called the *fiar*.

22. *LIFERENTS* are divided into *conventional* and *legal*. *Conventional* liferents are either *simple*, or by *reservation*. A *simple liferent*, or by a separate constitution, is that which is granted by the proprietor in favour of another: And this sort, contrary to the nature of predial servitudes, requires seisin in order to affect singular successors; for a liferent of lands is, in strict speech, not a servitude, but a right resembling property which constitutes the liferenter vassal for life; and singular successors have no way of discovering a liferent right, which perhaps is not yet commenced, but by the records; whereas, in predial servitudes, the constant use of the dominant tenement makes them public. The proper right of liferent is intransmissible; *offibus usufructuarii inheret*: When the profits of the liferented subject are transmitted to another, the right becomes merely personal: for it entitles the assignee to the rent, not during his own life, but his cedent's; and is therefore carried by simple assignation, without seisin.

23. A liferent by *reservation*, is that which a proprietor reserves to himself in the same writing by which he conveys the fee to another. It requires no seisin; for the grantor's former seisin, which  
virtually



usually included the life-rent, still subsists as to the interest which is expressly reserved. In conjunction with the husband and wife, the assignment of conjunct fee resolves, in the general case, into a life-rent.

24. Life-rents, *à la vie*, are the *terce* and the *quarta*. The *terce* (*tertia*) is a life-rent commonly by law to widows, who have not accepted of special provisions, in the third of the heritable lands in which their husbands died intestate; and the *quarta* only where the marriage has subsisted three calendar days, or where a child has been born of it.

25. The *TERCE* is not limited to lands, but extends to tithes, and to servitudes and other burdens affecting lands; thus, the widow is entitled, as to right of her *terce*, to a life-rent of the third of the tithes secured, either by rights of annual rent or by rights in security. In improper wadset the *terce* is a third of the sum lent: In those lands proper, it is a third of the wadset lands; in case of redemption, a third of the redemption-money. Neither rights of reversion, superiority, nor patronage, fall under the *terce*; for none of these have fixed profits, and so are not proper subjects for the widow's subsistence; nor tithes, because they are not feudal rights. Burgh-rentments are also excluded from it, the reason whereof is not so obvious. Since the husband's seisin is both the measure and security of the *terce*, such debts or diligences alone, as exclude the husband's seisin, can prevail over it.

26. Where a *terce* is due out of lands burdened with a prior *terce* still subsisting, the 2d *terce* has only right to a third of the two thirds that remain unaffected by the first *terce*. But upon the death of the first widow, whereby the lands are discharged of her *terce*, the lesser *terce* becomes enlarged, as if the first had never existed. A widow, who has accepted of a special provision for her husband, is thereby excluded from the *terce*, unless such provision shall contain a clause that she shall have right to both.

27. The widow has no title of possession, and cannot receive the rents in virtue of her *terce*, till she be served to it; and in order to this, she must obtain a brief out of the chancery, directed to the sheriff, who calls an inquest, to take proof that she was wife to the deceased, and that her husband died intestate in the subjects contained in the *terce*.

28. *COURTESY* is a life-rent given by law, to the surviving husband, of all his wife's heritage in which she died intestate, if there was a child of the marriage born alive. A marriage, though of the strict continuance, gives no right to the *courtesy*, if there was no issue of it. The child born of the marriage must be the mother's heir; If she had a child of the former marriage, who is to succeed to her estate, the husband has no right to the *courtesy* while such child is alive; so that the *courtesy* is due to the husband, rather as father than heir, than as husband to an heiress. *Hereditary* is here opposed to conquest; and so is to be understood only of the heritable rights to which the wife succeeded as heir to her ancestors, excluding what she herself had acquired by singular

29. Because the husband enjoys the life-rent of his wife's whole heritage, on a lucrative title, he is considered as her temporary representative; and so is liable in payment of all the yearly burdens chargeable on the subject, and of the current interest of all her debts, real and personal, to the value of the yearly rent he enjoys by the *courtesy*. The *courtesy* needs no solemnity to its constitution; That right which the husband had to the rents of his wife's estate during the marriage, *jure marite*, is continued with him after her death, under the name of *courtesy*, by an act of the law, itself. As in the *terce*, the husband's seisin is the ground and measure of the wife's right; so in the *courtesy*, the wife's seisin is the foundation of the husband's; and the two rights are, in all other respects, of the same nature; if it is not that the *courtesy* extends to burghage holdings, and to superiorities.

30. All life-renters must use their right *salva rei substantia*: whatever therefore is part of the fee itself, cannot be encroached on by the life-renter, e. g. woods or growing timber, even for the necessary uses of the life-rented tenement. But, where a coppice or *silva cedua* has been divided into hags, one of which was in use to be cut annually by the proprietor, the life-renter may continue the former yearly cuttings; because these are considered as the annual fruits the subject was intended to yield, and so the proper subject of a life-rent.

31. Life-renters are bound to keep the subject life-rented in proper repair. They are also burdened with the alimony of the heir, where he has not enough for maintaining himself. The bare right of apparence founds the action against the life-renter. It is a burden personal to the life-renter himself, and cannot be thrown upon his adjudging creditors as coming in his place by their diligences. Life-renters are also subjected to the payment of the yearly cesses, stipends, &c. falling due during their right, and to all other burdens that attend the subject life-rented.

32. Life-rent is extinguished by the life-renter's death. That part of the rents which the life-renter had a proper right to, before his death, falls to his executors; the rest, as never having been *in bonis* of the deceased, goes to the heir. Martinmas and Whitsunday are, by our custom, the legal terms of the payment of rent; consequently, if a life-renter of lands survives the term of Whitsunday, his executors are entitled to the half of that year's rent, because it was due the term before his death; and if he survives the term of Martinmas, they have right to the whole. If the life-renter, being in the natural possession, and having first sowed the ground, should die, even before Whitsunday, his executors are intitled to the whole crop, in respect that both seed and industry were his. In a life-rent of money constituted by a moveable bond, the executors have a right to the interest, down to the very day of the life-renter's death, where no terms are mentioned for the payment thereof; but in the case of an heritable bond, or of a money life-rent secured on land, the interests of life-renter and heir (or of heir and executor, for the same rules serve to fix the *interests* of both) are both governed by the legal

terms of land-rent, without regard to the conventional.

#### SECT. X. Of TEINDS.

1. TEINDS, or tithes, are that liquid proportion of our rents or goods, which is due to churchmen, for performing divine service, or exercising the other spiritual functions proper to their several offices. Most of the canonists affirm, that the precise proportion of a tenth, not only of the fruits of the ground, but of what is acquired by personal industry, is due to the Christian clergy, of divine right, which they therefore call the *proper patrimony of the church*; though it is certain that tithes, in their infancy, were given, not to the clergy alone, but to lay-monks who were called *pauperes*, and to other indigent persons. Charles the Great was the first secular prince who acknowledged this right in the church. It appears to have been received with us, as far back as David I.

2. After the reformation in 1560, K. James VI. seized upon the lands belonging to Monasteries, Abbeyes, and other religious houses. He made grants of these possessions to his laic subjects upon condition of their providing the different cures with ministers, and allowing them adequate *stipends* out of the revenues arising from these grants. These became at last heritable, and conferred not only a right to *special lands*, but to the *teinds* of the whole lands within the beneficiary, as *in loco* of the church. The grantees were styled *Lords of Erection, Commendators, Titulars*.

3. By act 1587, all church lands, property and superiority were annexed to the crown, and the teinds of course. Excepting, 1. The possessions, in land, of the present clergy, which remained with them *during their lives*. 2. The teinds drawn by the bishop and inferior clergy, *with their manifes and glebes*, which were reserved for their successors. 3. The fee or teinds of lands mortified to universities, hospitals, and other charitable purposes. 4. The teinds of benefices founded or endowed by *lay patrons*, which were allowed to remain with the patrons.

4. The crown, by the final abolition of episcopacy, in 1690, is now in the right of the teinds and superiorities of bishops lands.

5. In consequence of the extensive grants by James VI. to titulars, the teinds of the greater part of all the lands of the kingdom became the private property of laymen; who continued the use of drawing the *ista corpora* of the fruits and goods, which produced much oppression and complaint. Whereupon Charles I. attempted a reduction of the grants of erection by James, and the matter was at last submitted to himself—By 1. The titulars. 2. The clergy. 3. The royal boroughs for the teinds gifted to them for hospitals, and 4. The proprietors of the lands suffering the drawing of teinds.

6. The king on the 2d September 1629, ordained, 1. That the proprietors might sue the titulars for a valuation and sale of their teinds before the commission. 2. Where the teinds were not drawn, he fixed them at a fifth of the yearly rent and the price was 9 years purchase of this. 3. Where the teinds were drawn, the *ista corpora*

were to be valued on a proof before the commissioners; and the amount of them in many, deducting one fifth, (as king's ease) was the full teind duty, which might also be acquired at 9 years purchase. A commission was appointed for that effect by statute 1637, now vested in the lords of session by the union in 1707.

7. ORDER of VALUATION. 1. The mortified teinds might be valued but not sold. 2. The bishops teinds falling to the crown were, by act 1693, declared not judicially saleable, while they remained with the crown. Nor, 3. Those teinds which an heritor in a disposition or sale of his lands had expressly reserved, but both might be *valued*.

8. The superiorities of erection were declared to revert to the crown lands *cum decimis inclusis* are not subject to teinds being presumed to have been ancient grants made by the church of lands or teinds in their possession previous to the reformation.

9. The valuations made by sub-commissioners, in consequence of the commission in 1633, were many of them carried off by Cromwell or burnt in 1700. Where they are found the commission still approves, unless d. s. t. from; but where a valuation is once approved of by the high commission, even although there should be an over payment, the valuation would stand good, so as to exclude a new one, and prevent an augmentation. Where laymen are the patrons or titulars, a valuation and sale is competent as above.

10. Teinds remaining with beneficiaries were, by 1693, made redeemable by patrons, for payment of a suitable stipend to the incumbents; and these the patron must sell at 6 years purchase. Teinds in the hands of the crown, in place of the bishops, are generally set in lease for payment of a composition, but seldom disposed. Mortified teinds may be disposed as above.

11. In valuation of teinds, the fruits and goods, as corns and grass, which are liable in teind, are only included. Hence houses, wood, &c. are excepted. Where parsonage and vicarage tithes belong to different heritors, the value of the vicarage is deducted from the 5th of the rental, or the amount of the parsonage teind.

12. Ministers or stipendiaries are in the first place to be supported from the teinds, which are of 4 classes: viz. 1. Such as are in the hands of the crown, never disposed or erected. 2. Such as are in the hands of laymen. 3. Such as are in lease from the crown, titulars, or patrons. 4. Those heritably disposed by the titulars. The two first are called *free teind* and are modified *primo loco* to their real extent or tack duty paid; and then the surplus teind of the tackman (after paying the tack-duty and which was previously allocated) in consideration of which the commissioners grant him a prerogative. And lastly, the teinds heritably disposed are burdened in proportion with the patrons own lands, when all the free and surplus tack teinds are exhausted. If the titular warranted against future augmentations, he is liable solely.

13. The patron may modify upon any one heritor to the extent of his teinds, until citation in an action of valuation: And the minister may sue any one

carry not only the lands themselves that belonged to the deceased, but the rents therefore fallen due since his death; for these, as an accessory to the estate belonging to the deceased, would have descended to the heir if he had entered, which rule is applied to all adjudications led on a special charge. This sort of adjudication is declared redeemable within 7 years by any co-adjudging creditor, either of the deceased debtor or of the heir renouncing. The heir himself, who renounces, cannot be restored against his renunciation, nor consequently redeem, if he be not a minor. But even a major may redeem indirectly, by granting a simulate bond to a confident person; the adjudication upon which, when conveyed to himself, is a good title to redeem all other adjudications against the lands belonging to his ancestor.

7. Adjudications *in implement* are declared against those who have granted deeds without procuratory of resignation, or precept of seisin, and refuse to divest themselves; to the end that the subject conveyed may be effectually vested in the grantee. These adjudications may be also directed against the heir of the granter, upon a charge to enter. Here there is no place for a legal reversion; for, as the adjudication is led for completing the right of a special subject, it must carry that subject as irredeemably as if the right had been voluntarily completed.

8. All adjudications led within year and day of that which has been made first effectual by seisin (where seisin is necessary), or exact diligence for obtaining seisin, are preferable *pari passu*. The year and day runs from the date of the adjudication, and not of the seisin or diligence, for obtaining it. After the days of that period, they are preferable according to their dates. All the co-adjudgers within the year are preferable *pari passu*, as if one adjudication had been led for all their debts. This makes the seisin or diligence on the first adjudication a common right to the rest, who must therefore refund to the owner of the diligence his whole expence laid out in carrying on and completing it. And though that first adjudication should be redeemed, the diligence upon it still subsists as to the rest. This *pari passu* preference, however, does not destroy the legal preference of adjudications led on *debita fundi* (see SECT. VIII. § 15.); nor does it take place in adjudications *in implement*.

9. A new sort of adjudication has been lately introduced into the law of Scotland by the act of 33d Geo. III. cap. 74. for rendering the payment of the creditors of insolvent debtors more equal and expeditious; and renewed by an act passed in 1798 for a limited time. It is expected to be made perpetual, and was obtained at the special desire of the CONVENTION OF ROYAL BURGHS, and superintended in its formation and progress by some of the first legal and mercantile characters in this country, and among others by Sir WILLIAM FORBES, and the present PRESIDENT of the COURT OF SESSION.

10. Before treating of judicial sales of bankrupts estates, the nature of SEQUESTRATION may be shortly explained, which is a diligence that generally utters in actions of sale. Sequestration of *res* is a judicial act of the court of session, where-

by the management of an estate is put into the hands of a factor or steward named by the court, who gives security, and is to be accountable for the rents to all having interest. This diligence is competent, either where the right of the lands is doubtful, if it be applied for, before either of the competitors has attained possession, or where the estate is heavily charged with debts: but, as it is an unfavourable diligence, it is not admitted, unless that measures shall appear necessary for the security of creditors. Subjects not brought before the court by the diligence of creditors, cannot fall under sequestration; for it is the competition of creditors, which alone founds the jurisdiction of the court to take the disputed subject into their possession.

11. The court of session who decree the sequestration have the nomination of the factor, in which they are directed by the recommendation of the creditors. A factor appointed by the session, though the proprietor had not been insect in the lands, has a power to remove tenants. Judicial factors must, within six months after extracting their factory, make up a rental of the estate, and a list of the arrears due by tenants, to be put into the hands of the clerk of the process, as a charge against themselves, and a note of such alterations in the rental as may afterwards happen; and must also deliver to the clerk annually a scheme of their accounts, charge and discharge, under heavy penalties. They are, by the nature of their office, bound to the same degree of diligence that a prudent man adhibits in his own affairs; they are accountable for the interest of the rents, which they either have, or by diligence might have recovered, from a year after their falling due. As it is much in the power of those factors to take advantage of the necessities of creditors, by purchasing their debts at an undervalue, all such purchases made either by the factor himself, or to his behoof, are declared equivalent to an acquittance or extinction of the debt. No factor can warrantably pay to any creditor, without an order of the court of session: for he is, by the tenor of his commission, directed to pay the rents to those who shall be found to have the best right to them. Judicial factors are entitled to a salary, which is generally stated at 5 per cent. of their intromissions; but it is seldom ascertained till their office expires, or till their accounting; that the court may modify a greater or smaller salary, or none, in proportion to the factor's integrity and diligence. Many cases occur, where the court of session, without sequestration, name a factor to preserve the rents from perishing; e. g. where an heir is deliberating whether to enter, where a minor is without tutors, where a succession opens to a person residing abroad; in all which cases the factor is subjected to the rules laid down in act of sederunt, Feb. 13, 1736. By the said act of 33 Geo. III. the estates of those engaged in trade and manufactures may be sequestered, at the suit of a creditor to the extent of £100, two creditors to the extent of £150, and three or more to the extent of £200. The bankrupt's funds are placed under the management, first of a factor, then of a trustee chosen by the creditors; but to detail their duty and powers, and the different modes of procedure, would require

more room than a work of the present nation permit.

The word **BANKRUPT** is sometimes applied to persons whose funds are not sufficient for their debts, and sometimes, not to the debtor, but to the estate. The court of session are empowered, on the petition of any real creditor, to try the value of the bankrupt's estate, and sell it for the payment of debts.

No process of sale, at the suit of a creditor, can proceed without a proof of the debtor's bankruptcy, or at least that his lands are so charged with debts, that no prudent persons will buy from him, and therefore the summons of sale must comprehend the debtor's whole estate. The debtors apparent heir, and all the real creditors in session, must be made parties to the suit, and a sufficient if the other creditors be called in by a judicial citation. The summons of sale concludes with ranking or preference of the debtor's creditors. In this ranking, first and second terms are assigned to the whole creditors, and then in court (or producing) their rights and diligences; and the decree of certification being thereupon, against the writings not produced, has the same effect in favour of the debtors who have produced their rights, as if the decree had proceeded upon an action of reduction and prohibition. See **CHAP. III; SECT. I, § 3.** In the late bankrupt act, the sale may precede the ranking of the creditors, unless the court, on application of the creditors, or any of them, shall find sufficient cause to delay the sale. The moveable property of the lands is adjudged to the court to the highest offerer at the sale. The court receiving payment must grant to the purchaser an absolute warrant, to the extent of the price received by them; and the lands purchased are cleared discharged of all debts or deeds of the bankrupt, or his ancestors, either on payment of the price by the purchaser to the creditors according to their preference, or consignation of it.

In the act 1695, purchasers were bound to consign the price in the hands of the magistrates of burgh; but by § 3. of the above act, they may assign it in the royal bank or bank of Scotland. The only remedy provided to such creditors, who judge themselves hurt by the sale or division of the price, even though they should be minors, is an action for recovering their share of the price of the creditors who have received it.

The expence of these processes is debursed of the factor out of the rents in his hands; by the whole burden of such expence falls on the posterior creditors. Apparent heirs are entitled to bring actions of the estates belonging to their ancestors, whether bankrupt or not; the expence of which falls upon the pursuer, if there is any excess of the price, after payment of the creditor; but if their be no excrecence, the creditor who alone are gainers by the sale, ought to bear the charge of it.

As processes of ranking and sale are designed for the common interest of all the creditors, and hence carried on or completed during their lifetime, they ought to give any preference in the distribution; *pendente lit, nihil innovandum.*

17. It is a rule in all real diligences, that where a creditor is preferable on several different subjects, he cannot use his preference arbitrarily, by favouring one creditor more than another; but must allocate his universal or catholic debt proportionally against all the subjects or parties whom it affects.

II. MOVEABLE RIGHTS.

THE law of heritable rights being explained, Moveable Rights fall next to be considered; the doctrine of which depends chiefly on the nature of Obligations.

SECT. XIII. Of OBLIGATIONS and CONTRACTS in GENERAL.

1. An obligation is a legal tie, by which one is bound to pay or perform something to another. Every obligation on the person obliged implies an opposite right in the creditor, so that what is a burden in regard to the one is right with respect to the other; and in all rights founded on obligation are called *personal*. There is this essential difference between a real and a personal right, that a *jus in re*, whether of property or of an inferior kind, as servitude, entitles the person vested with it to possess the subject as his own; or if he is not in possession, to demand it from the possessors: whereas the creditor in a personal right has only *jus ad rem*, or a right to compel the debtor to fulfil his obligation; without any right in the subject itself, which the debtor is bound to transfer to him. One cannot oblige himself, but by a present act of the will. A bare resolution, therefore, or purpose, to be obliged, is alterable at pleasure.

2. Obligations are either, 1. Merely natural, where one person is bound to another by the law of nature, but cannot be compelled by any civil action to the performance. Or, 2. Merely civil, which may be sued upon by an action, but are excluded by an exception in equity; as in the case of obligations granted through force or fear, &c. 3. Proper or full obligations, are those which are supported both by equity and the civil sanction.

3. Obligations may be also divided into, 1. Pure, to which neither day nor condition is adjoined. These may be exacted immediately. 2. Obligations *ex die*, which have a day adjoined to their performance. 3. Conditional obligations; in which there is no proper debt (*dies non credit*) till the condition be purified, because it is possible the condition may never exist; but the grantor, even of these, has no right to refuse.

4. Obligations, when considered with regard to their cause, were divided by the Romans, into those arising from contract, quasi contract, delict, and quasi delict: but there are certain obligations, even full and proper ones, which cannot be derived from any of these sources, and to which Lord Stair gives the name of *obediential*. Such are the obligation on parents to aliment or maintain their children; which arises singly from the relation of parent and child, and may be enforced by the civil magistrate. Under parents are comprehended, the mother, grandfather, and grandmother, in their proper order. This obligation on parents extends to the providing of their issue in all the necessaries of life, and giving them suitable edu-

cation. It ceases, when the children can earn a livelihood by their own industry; but the obligation on parents to maintain their indigent children, and reciprocally on children to maintain their indigent parents, is perpetual. This obligation is on the father's death, transferred to the eldest son, the heir of the family; who, as representing the father, must aliment his younger brothers and sisters: the brothers are only entitled to alimony, till their age of 21, after which they are presumed able to do for themselves; but the obligation to maintain the sisters continues till their marriage.

5. All obligations, arising from the natural duty of restitution, fall under this class; thus, things given upon the view of a certain event, must be restored, if that event does not afterwards exist: thus also, things given *ob turpem causam*, where the turpitude is in the receiver and not the giver, must be restored. And on the same principle, one upon whose ground a house is built or repaired by another, is obliged, without any covenant, to restore the expence laid out upon it, in so far as it has been profitable to him.

6. A contract is the voluntary agreement of two or more persons, whereby something is to be given or performed upon one part, for a valuable consideration, either present or future, on the other part. Consent, which is implied in agreement, is excluded, 1. By error in the essential of the contract. 2. By such a degree of restraint upon any of the contracting parties, as extorts the agreement.

7. Loan, or *mutuum*, is that contract which obliges a person, who has borrowed any fungible subject from another, to restore to him as much of the same kind, and of equal goodness. Whatever receives its estimation in number, weight, or measure, is a *fungible*; as corn, wine, current coin, &c. The only proper subjects of these contracts are things which cannot be used without either their extinction or alienation: hence the property of the thing lent is necessarily transferred by delivery to the borrower, who consequently must run all the hazards either of its deterioration or its perishing, according to the rule, *res perit suo domino*. Where the borrower neglects to restore at the time and place agreed on, the estimation of the thing lent must be made according to its price at that time and in that place, because it would have been worth so much to the lender, if the obligation had been duly performed. If there is no place nor time stipulated for, the value is to be stated according to the price that the commodity gave when and where it was demanded. In the loan of money, the value put on it by public authority, and not its intrinsic worth, is to be considered.

8. Commodate is a species of loan, gratuitous on the part of the lender, where the thing lent may be used, without either its perishing or its alienation. Hence, in this sort of loan, the property continues with the lender: the only right the borrower acquires in the subject is its use, after which he must restore the individual thing that he borrowed: consequently, if the subject perishes, it perishes to the lender, unless it has perished by the borrower's fault. What degree of fault or negligence makes either of the contracting parties liable to the other in damages is comprehended

under the following rules. Where the contract gives a mutual benefit to both parties, each contractor is bound to exhibit a middle sort of diligence, such as a man of ordinary prudence uses in his affairs. Where only one of the parties has benefit by the contract, that party must use exact diligence; and the other who has no advantage by it, is accountable only for dole, or for gross omissions, which the law construes to be dole. Where one employs less care on the subject of any contract which implies an exuberant trust than he is known to employ in his own affairs, it is considered as dole.

9. Hence it will appear that this is a *bilateral* contract; the borrower must be exactly careful of the thing lent, and restore it at the time fixed by the contract, or after that use is made of it for which it was lent: if he puts it to any other use, or neglects to restore it at the time covenanted, and if the thing perishes thereafter, even by mere accident, he is bound to pay the value. On the other part, the lender is obliged to restore to the borrower such of the expences debursed by him on that subject as arose from any uncommon accident, but not those that naturally attend the use of it. Where a thing is lent gratuitously, without specifying any time of redelivery, it constitutes the contract of *precarium*, which is revocable at the lender's pleasure, and, being entered into from a personal regard to the borrower, ceases by his death.

10. Deposition is also a *bilateral* contract, by which one who has the custody of a thing committed to him (the depositary) is obliged to restore it to the depositor. If a reward is bargained for by the depositary for his care, it resolves into the contract of location. As this contract is gratuitous, the depositary is only answerable for the consequences of gross neglect; but after the deposit is redemanded, he is accountable even for casual misfortunes. He is entitled to a full indemnification for the losses he has sustained by the contract, and to the recovery of all sums expended by him on the subject.

11. An obligation arises without formal paction, barely by a traveller's entering into an inn, ship, or stable, and there depositing his goods, or putting up his horses; whereby the innkeeper, ship-master, or stabler, is accountable, not only for his own facts and those of his servants, (which is an obligation implied in the very exercise of these employments,) but of the other guests or passengers; and, indeed, in every case, unless where the goods have been lost *damno fatali*, or carried off by pirates or house-breakers. Not only the masters of ships, but their employers, are liable each of them for the share he has in the ship; but by the present custom of trading nations, the goods brought into a ship must have been delivered to the master or mate, or entered into the ship-book. Carriers fall within the intendment of this law; and practice has extended it to vintners within borough. The extent of the damage sustained by the party may be proved by his oath *in litem*.

12. SEQUESTRATION, whether voluntarily consented to by the parties, or authorized by the judge, is a kind of deposit; but as the office of equities, to whose care the subject in dispute is committed,

ted, is not considered as gratuitous, he throw it up at pleasure, as a common demay do; and he is liable in the middle of diligence. Confignation of money is also. The risk of the configned money the configner, where he ought to have ayment, and not confignation; or has comonly a part; or has chosen for confignation neither named by the parties nor of edit. It is the office of a confignatory, to e money in safe custody till it be called herefore he puts it out at interest, he must hazard of the debtor's insolvency; but, same reason, though he should draw inteit, he is liable in none to the configner.

'LEDGE, when opposed to wadset, is a ;, by which a debtor puts into the hands reditor a special moveable subject in secu- the debt, to be redelivered on payment. a security is established by law to the crepon a subject which continues in the debt- lation, it has the special name of an hy-

Tradesmen and ship-carpenters have an :c on the house or ship repaired, for the ls and other charges of reparation; but not expence of building a new ship. This, r, must not now be understood to apply uly; for the court of session, in different ca- ch lately occurred before them, and found- m the law and practice of England in firm- s, have found, that no hypothec exists for ence of repairs done in a home port. Own- ships have an hypothec on the cargo for the ; heritors on the fruits of the ground; and ls on the *inveſta et illata*, for their rents. ; also, and agents, have a right of hypo- r more properly of retention, in their con- 's writings, for their claim of pains and de- ents. A creditor cannot, for his own pay- ll the subject impignorated, without ap- to the judge ordinary for a warrant to put : public sale or roup; and to this applica- : debtor ought to be made a party.

#### KIV. Of OBLIGATIONS by WORD or WRIT.

HE appellation of *verbal* may be applied to gations to the constitution of which writ- et essential, which includes both real and ial contracts; but as these are explained eparate titles, obligation *by word*, in the : this rubric, must be restricted, either to :s, or to such verbal agreements as have no ame to distinguish them. Agreement im- ie intervention of two different parties, who ader mutual obligations to one another. nothing is to be given or performed but on t, it is properly called a *promise*; which, gratuitous, does not require the accept- him to whom the promise is made. An hich must be distinguished from a promise, something to be done by the other party; sequently is not binding on the offerer, till cepted, with its limitations or conditions, to whom the offer is made; after which, nes a proper agreement.

riting must necessarily intervene in all ob- s and bargains concerning heritable sub- hough they should be only temporary; as

tacks, which, when they are verbal, last but for one year. In these, no verbal agreement is bind- ing, though it should be referred to the oath of the party; for, till writing is adhibited, law gives both parties a right to reſile, as from an unfinished bargain; which is called *locus penitentie*. If, upon a verbal bargain of lands, part of the price shall be paid by him who was to purchase, the *inter- ventus rei*, the actual payment of money creates a valid obligation, and gives a beginning to the contract of sale: and, in general, wherever mat- ters are no longer entire, the right to reſile seems to be excluded. An agreement, whereby a real right is passed from, or restricted, called *patium liberatorium*, may be perfected verbally; for free- dom is favourable, and the purpose of such agree- ment is rather to dissolve than to create an obliga- tion. Writing is also essential to bargains made un- der condition that they shall be reduced into writ- ing; for in such cases, it is *pars contractus*, that, till writing be adhibited, both parties shall have liberty to withdraw. In the same manner, verbal or nuncupative testaments are rejected by our law; but verbal legacies are sustained, where they do not exceed 100l. Scots.

3. Anciently, when writing was little used, deeds were executed by the party, appending his seal to them in presence of witnesses. For preventing frauds that might happen by appending seals to false deeds, the subscription also of the granter was afterwards required, and, if he could not write, that of a notary. As it might be of dan- gerous consequences to give full force to the sub- scription of the parties by initials, which is more easily counterfeited; our practice, in order to sus- tain such subscription, seems to require a proof, not only that the granter used to subscribe in that way, but that *de facto* he had subscribed the deed in question; at least, such proof is required if the instrumentary witnesses be still alive.

4. As a further check, it was afterwards pro- vided, that all writings carrying any heritable right, and other deeds of importance, be subscribed by the principal parties, if they can subscribe; other- wise, by two notaries before four witnesses specially designed. The subsequent practice extended this requisite of the designation of the witnesses to the case where the parties themselves subscribed. Custom has construed obligations for sums not exceeding 100l. Scots, to be obligations of im- portance. In a divisible obligation, *ex. gr.* for a sum of money, though exceeding 100l. the sub- scription of one notary is sufficient, if the creditor restricts his claim to 100l. But in an obligation indivisible, *e. g.* for the performance of a fact, if it be not subscribed in terms of the statute, it is void. When notaries thus attest a deed, the attestation or docquet must specially express that the grant- er gave them a mandate to sign; nor is it suffi- cient that this be mentioned in the body of the writing.

5. In every deed, the name of him who writes it, with his dwelling place, or other mark of dis- tinction must be inserted. The witnesses must both subscribe as witnesses, and their names and designations be inserted in the body of the deed: and all subscribing witnesses must know the grant- er, and either see him subscribe or hear him ac- knowledge

knowledge his subscription; otherwise they are declared punishable as accessory to forgery. Deeds, decrees, and other securities, consisting of more than one sheet, may be written by way of book, in place of the former custom of pasting together the several sheets, and signing the joinings on the margin; provided each page be signed by the grantor, and marked by its number, and the testing clause express the number of pages.

6. Instruments of feisin are valid, if subscribed by one notary, before a reasonable number of witnesses which is extended by practice to instruments of resignation. Two witnesses are deemed a reasonable number to every deed that can be executed by one notary. It is not necessary that the witnesses to a notarial instrument or execution see the notary or messenger sign; for they are called as witnesses to the transaction which is attested, and not to the subscription of the person attesting.

7. A new requisite has been added to certain deeds since the union, for the benefit of the revenue: they must be executed on stamped paper or parchment, paying a certain duty to the crown. These duties must all be paid before the paper is wrote upon, under a penalty; but they are so numerous and complex, that it would be tedious, even if it fell under our plan, to enter into an enumeration of them. They and the exemptions from them will be found at length in the stamp tables kept at the different offices, and regularly inserted in the Scottish almanacks.

8. The grantor's name and designation are essential, not properly as solemnities, but because no writing can have effect without them. Bonds were, by our ancient practice, frequently executed without filling up the creditor's name; and they passed from hand to hand, like notes payable to the bearer: but as there was no method for the creditor of a person possessed of these to secure them for his payment, all writings taken blank in the creditor's name are declared null, as covers to fraud; with the exception of indorsations of bills of exchange.

9. Certain privileged writings do not require the ordinary solemnities. 1. Holograph deeds (written by the grantor himself) are effectual without witnesses. The date of no holograph writing, except a bill of exchange (see next paragraph), can be proved by the grantor's own assertion, in prejudice either of his heir or his creditors, but must be supported by other adminicles. 2. Testaments, if executed where men of skill and business cannot be had, are valid though they should not be quite formal: and let the subject of a testament be ever so valuable, one notary signing for the testator, before two witnesses, is in practice sufficient. Clergymen were frequently notaries before the reformation; and, though they were afterwards prohibited to act as notaries, the case of testaments is excepted; so that these are supported by the attestation of one minister, with two witnesses. 3. Discharges to tenants are sufficient without witnesses, from their presumed sufficiency or ignorance in business. 4. Missive letters *in re mercatoria*, commissions, and fitted accounts in the course of trade, and bills of exchange, though they are not holograph, are, from

the favour of commerce, sustained without the ordinary solemnities.

10. A BILL OF EXCHANGE is an obligation in the form of a mandate, whereby the drawer or mandant desires him to whom it is directed, to pay a certain sum, at the day and place therein mentioned, to a third party. Bills of exchange are drawn by a person in one country to his correspondent in another; and they have that name, because it is the exchange, or the value of money in one place compared with its value in another, that generally determines the precise extent of the sum contained in the draught. The creditor in the bill is sometimes called the possessor, or *porteur*. A parties to bills are of different countries, question concerning them ought to be determined by the received custom of trading nations, unless when special statute interposes. For this reason, bill of exchange, though their form admits not of witnesses, yet prove their own dates, in questions either with the heir or creditors of the debtor.

11. A bill is valid, without the designation either of the drawer or of the person to whom it is made payable: It is enough, that the drawer's subscription appears to be truly his; and one being possessor of a bill marks him out to be the creditor, if he bears the name given in the bill to the creditor: nay, though the person drawn on should not be designated, his acceptance presumes that it was he whom the drawer had in his eye. Bills drawn blank, in the creditor's name, fall under the statutory nullity; for though indorsations of bills are excepted from it, bills themselves are not. Not only the person drawn upon must sign his acceptance, but the drawer must sign his draught, before any obligation can be formed against the acceptor: yet it is sufficient in practice that the drawer signs before the bill be produced in judgment; though it should be after the death both of the creditor and acceptor. A creditor in a bill may transmit it to another by indorsation, though the bill should not bear *to his order*; by the same rule that other right are transmissible by assignation, though they do not bear *to assignees*.

12. The drawer, by signing his draught becomes liable for the value to the creditor in the bill, in case the person drawn upon either does not accept, or after acceptance does not pay; for he is presumed to have received value from the creditor at giving him the draught, though he should not bear *for value received*: but, if the drawer was debtor to the creditor in the bill before the draught, the bill is presumed to be given towards payment of the debt, unless it expressly bears *for value*. The person drawn upon, if he refuse to accept, while he has the drawer's money in his hands, is liable to him in damages. A bill presumes value from the creditor, and indorsation presumes value from the indorsee; who therefore, if he cannot obtain payment from the acceptor, has recourse against the indorser upon the bill be indorsed in these words, *without course*.

13. Payment of a bill by the acceptor, acquiesces both the drawer and him at the hands of the creditor: but it entitles the acceptor, if he was the drawer's debtor, to an action of *recourse*

and, if he was, to a ground of com-  
 s, when indorsed, are considered as fo-  
 s of money delivered to the onerous in-  
 which therefore carry right to the con-  
 e of all burdens that do not appear  
 on themselves. Hence, a receipt or dis-  
 y the original creditor, if granted on a  
 paper, does not exempt the acceptor  
 and payment to the indorsee; hence, also  
 of compensation competent to the ac-  
 count the original creditor can be pleaded  
 e indorsee: but, if the debtor shall prove  
 th of the indorsee, either that the bill is  
 to him for the indorser's own behoof, or  
 did not the full value for the indorsation,  
 see is justly considered as but a name;  
 fore all exceptions, receivable against  
 nal creditor, will be sustained against  
 protested bill, after registration, can-  
 nismitted by indorsation, but by assigna-

is must be negotiated by the possessor,  
 e person drawn upon, within a precise  
 order to preferre recourse against the  
 In bills payable so many days after sight  
 tor has a discretionary power of fixing  
 ert somewhat sooner or later, as his oc-  
 ell require. Bills payable on a day cer-  
 t not be protested for acceptance till the  
 yment, because that day can neither be  
 d nor shortened by the time of accep-  
 for the same reason, the acceptance of  
 able on a precise day, need not be dated:  
 e a bill is drawn payable so many days  
 at, it must; because there the term of  
 depends on the date of acceptance.  
 hough bills are, in strict law, due the  
 on which they are made payable, and  
 efore be protested on the day thereafter;  
 are three days immediately following the  
 yment, called *days of grace*, within any  
 the creditor may protest the bill; but if  
 protesting till the day after the last day  
 , he loses his recourse. Where a bill is  
 d, either for not acceptance or not pay-  
 e dishonour must be notified to the draw-  
 orser, within three posts at farthest. This  
 s of negotiation is confined to such bills  
 be protested by the possessor upon the  
 ay of grace; where, therefore, bills are in-  
 after the days of grace are expired, the in-  
 is left more at liberty, and does not lose  
 orse, tho' he should not take a formal pro-  
 ot payment, if, within a reasonable time  
 d give the indorser notice of the acceptor's  
 g to pay. Not only does the possessor,  
 eglct, strict negotiation, lose his recourse  
 the drawer, where the person drawn upon  
 es afterwards bankrupt; but tho' he should  
 solvent: for he may in that case recover  
 t from the debtor, and so is not to be in-  
 in an unnecessary process against the draw-  
 er: he has tacitly renounced by his negli-  
 . Recourse is preserved against the drawer,  
 h the bill should not be duly negotiated, if  
 sion drawn upon was not his debtor; for  
 the drawer can qualify no prejudice by the

neglect of diligence, and he ought not to have  
 drawn on one who owed him nothing.

17. The privileges superadded to bills by sta-  
 tute are, that though, by their form, they can  
 have no clause of registration, yet, if duly pro-  
 tested, they are registrable within six months after  
 their date in case of not acceptance, or in six  
 months after the term of payment in the case of  
 not payment; which registration is made the  
 foundation of summary diligence, either against  
 the drawer or indorser in the case of not accep-  
 tance, or against the acceptor in the case of not  
 payment. This is extended to inland bills, *i. e.*  
 bills both drawn and made payable in Scotland.  
 After acceptance, summary diligence lies against  
 no other than the acceptor; the drawer and in-  
 dorser must be pursued by an ordinary action. It  
 is only the principal sum in the bill, and interest,  
 that can be charged for summarily: the exchange,  
 when it is not included in the draught, the re-ex-  
 change incurred by suffering the bill to be pro-  
 tested and returned, and the expence of diligence,  
 must all be recovered by an ordinary action; be-  
 cause these are not liquid debts, and so must be  
 previously constituted.

18. Bills, when drawn payable at any consider-  
 able distance of time after date, are denied the  
 privileges of bills; for bills are intended for curren-  
 cy, and not to lie as a security in the creditor's hands.  
 Bills are not valid which appear *ex facie* to de-  
 viate. No extrinsic stipulation ought to be con-  
 tained in a bill which deviates from the proper  
 nature of bills: hence, a bill to which penalty is ad-  
 ducted, or with a clause of interest from the date,  
 is null. Inland precepts drawn, not for money  
 the medium of trade, but for fungibles, are null,  
 as wanting writer's name and witnesses. It was  
 not an agreed point whether promissory notes,  
 without writer and witnesses, unless holograph,  
 are probative.

19. So stood the law of Scotland, in regard to  
 BILLS and PROMISSORY NOTES, previous to the  
 statute 12 Geo. III. By that statute, however,  
 the law of Scotland has undergone very material  
 alterations. They are declared to have the same  
 privileges, and to prescribe in six years after the  
 term of payment. Bank notes and post-bills are  
 excepted from this prescription: nor does it run dur-  
 ing the years of the creditor's minority. Inland  
 bills and promissory notes must be protested with-  
 in the days of grace, to secure recourse; and the  
 dishonour notified within 14 days after the pro-  
 test. Summary diligence may pass not only a-  
 gainst the acceptor, but likewise against the  
 drawer, and all the indorseees jointly and severally;  
 and at the instance of any indorsee, though the  
 bill was not protested in his name, upon his pro-  
 ducing receipt or letter from the protesting indor-  
 see. This act was in force only for 7 years after  
 15th May 1772, and to the end of the then next  
 session of parliament. But as it was found by ex-  
 perience, that it had been of great advantage to  
 Scotland, it was made perpetual by the late act  
 23 Geo. III. so that it has now become a perma-  
 nent part of the law of Scotland.

20. As for the solemnities essential to deed;  
 signed in a foreign country, when they come to  
 receive execution in Scotland, it is a general rule,

that



that no laws can be of authority beyond the dominions of the lawgiver. Hence, if strictness, no deed, though perfected according to the law of the place where it is signed, can have effect in another country where different solemnities are required to a deed of that sort. But this rigour is so softened *ex comitate*, by the common consent of nations, that all personal obligations granted according to the law of that country where they are signed, are effectual every where; which obtains in obligations to convey heritage. Conveyances themselves, however, of heritable subjects, must be perfected according to the law of the country where the heritage lies, and from which it cannot be removed.

21. A writing, while the granter keeps it under his own power or his doer's, has no force; it becomes obligatory, only after it is delivered to the grantee himself, or found in the hands of a third person. As to which last, the following rules are observed. A deed found in the hands of one who is the doer both for the granter and grantee, is presumed to have been put in his hands as doer for the grantee. The presumption is also for delivery, if the deed appears in the hands of one who is a stranger to both. Where a deed is deposited in the hands of a third person, the terms of deposition may be proved by the oath of the depository, unless where they are reduced into writing. A deed appearing in the custody of the grantee himself, is considered as his absolute right; in so much that the granter is not allowed to prove that it was granted in trust, otherwise than by a written declaration signed by the trustee, or by his oath.

22. The following deeds are effectual without delivery: 1. Writings containing a clause dispensing with the delivery; these are of the nature of revocable deeds, where the death of the granter is equivalent to delivery, because after death there can be no revocation. 2. Deeds in favour of children, even natural ones; for parents are the proper custodians or keepers of their children's writings. From a similar reason, post-nuptial settlements by the husband to the wife need no delivery. 3. Rights which are not to take effect till the granter's death, or even where he reserves an interest to himself during his life; for it is presumed he holds the custody of these, merely to secure to himself such reserved interest. 4. Deeds which the granter lay under an antecedent natural obligation to execute, *e. g.* rights granted to a cautioner for his relief. 5. Mutual obligations *e. g.* contracts; for every such deed, the moment it is executed, is a common evident to all the parties contractors. Lastly, the publication of a writing by registration, is equivalent to delivery.

#### SECT. XV. Of OBLIGATIONS and CONTRACTS arising from CONSENT; and of ACCESSORY OBLIGATIONS.

I. CONTRACTS consensual, (*i. e.* which might, by the Roman law, be perfected by sole consent, without the intervention either of things or of writing,) are *sale, permutation, location, society, and mandate*. Where the subject of any of these contracts is heritable, writing is necessary.

1. SALE is a contract, by which one becomes

obliged to give something to another, in consideration of a certain price in current money to be paid for it. Things consisting merely in use may be the subject of this contract, as the draught of a net. Commodities, where their importation or use is absolutely prohibited, cannot be the subject of sale; and even in run goods, no action against the vender for not delivery, if the buyer knew the goods were run. So far indeed has this principle been carried, and so anxious have judges been to put a stop to the practice of smuggling, that in different cases which have occurred of action being brought at the instance of a foreign merchant, against persons resident in Scotland, payment of goods which had been smuggled, no distinction has been made betwixt the case of foreign merchant being or not being a native of Scotland. Where the foreign merchant was a native of Scotland, it has been presumed that he was acquainted with the revenue law of the country, and that he was in a manner *versus in relicitu*; and therefore action has been denied recovery of the price of such goods: but when on the other hand, the foreign merchant was a native of Scotland, no ways amenable to, or even presumed ignorant of, its laws, he has never been allowed action for the price of such goods, unless it were shown that he had in fact *particeps criminis*, by aiding the smuggler. The same principle has regulated the decisions in the courts of England in cases of a similar nature, which have within these few years come before them.

3. Though this contract may be perfected before delivery of the subject, the property remains till then with the vender: (See PART II, *Set* § 9.) Yet till delivery, the hazard of its deterioration falls on the purchaser, because he has the profits arising from it after the sale. On the other hand, the subject itself perishes to the vender; 1. If it should perish through his fault after his undue delay to deliver it. 2. If a thing is sold as a fungible, and not as an individual *corpus*, *e. g.* a quantity of farm-wheat, sold without distinguishing the parcel to be delivered from the rest of the farm. 3. The *periculum* lies on the vender till delivery, if he be obliged by a special article in the contract to deliver the subject in a certain place.

4. LOCATION is that contract where an hire is stipulated for the use of things, or for the service of persons. He who lets his work or the use of his property to hire, is the locator or lessor; the other, the conductor or lessee. In the location of things, the lessor is obliged to deliver the subject, fitted to the use it was let for; and the lessee must preserve it carefully, put it to no other use, and, after that is over, restore it. When a workman or artificer lets his labour, and if his work is either not performed according to the contract, or if it be insufficient, even from mere skilfulness, he is liable to his employer in damages; for he ought not, as an artificer, to have undertaken a work to which he was not equal. A servant hired for a certain term, is entitled to full wages, though from sickness or other accident he should be disabled for a part of his time; but if he die before the term, his wages are due for the time he actually served. If a mar-

, or without good reason turns off, before the  
 a servant who eats in his house, the servant  
 entitled to his full wages, and to his mainte-  
 e till that term: and, on the other part, a  
 nt, who without ground deserts his service,  
 its his wages and maintenance, and is liable  
 is master in damages.

SOCIETY or COPARTNERSHIP is a contract,  
 by the several partners agree concerning the  
 munication of loss and gain arising from the  
 ct of the contract. It is formed by the reci-  
 cal choice which the partners make one of a-  
 er; and so is not constituted in the case of a-  
 ers, or of several legatees in the same subject.  
 partnership may be so constituted, that one  
 be partners shall, either from his sole right of  
 xty in the subject, or from his superior skill,  
 stituted to a certain share of the profits, with-  
 being subjected to any part of the loss; but a  
 ty where one partner is to bear a certain pro-  
 ion of loss, without being entitled to any  
 e of the profits, called by the Romans *societas  
 na*, is justly reprobated. All the partners are  
 ed to shares of profit and loss proportioned  
 heir several stocks, where it is not otherwise  
 nanted.

As partners are united, from a *delectus perso-*  
 in a kind of brotherhood, no partner can,  
 hout a special power contained in the con-  
 t, transfer any part of his share to another.  
 the partners are bound *in solidum* by the obli-  
 ion of any one of them, if he subscribe by the  
 or social name of the company; unless it be  
 ed that falls not under the common course of  
 nification. The company effects are the  
 mon property of the society subjected to its  
 its; so that no partner can claim a division  
 roof, even after the society is dissolved, till  
 are paid: and, consequently, no creditor of  
 partner can, by diligence, carry to himself the  
 roperty of any part of the common stock, in  
 eplace of a company creditor: but he may,  
 by attachment, secure his debtor's share in the  
 mpany's hands, to be made forthcoming to him  
 the close of the copartnership, in so far as it is  
 exhausted by the company debts.

A Society, being founded in the mutual confi-  
 nce among the *socii*, is dissolved, not only by  
 renunciation, but the death of any one of  
 its members, if it be not otherwise specially covenanted.  
 A partner who renounces upon unfair views, or  
 at a critical time, when his withdrawing may be  
 detrimental to the society, looses his partners from all  
 engagements to him, while he is bound to  
 make good all the profits he shall make by his with-  
 drawing, and for the loss arising thereby to the  
 society. Not only natural but civil death, e. g.  
 from a sentence inflicting capital punish-  
 ment, makes one incapable to perform the duties  
 of a partner, and consequently dissolves the soci-  
 ety. In both cases, of death and renunciation,  
 the surviving partners may continue the copart-  
 nership either expressly, by entering into a new  
 contract, or tacitly, by carrying on their trade as  
 before. Public trading companies are now e-  
 specially constituted, with rules very different  
 from those which either obtained in the Roman  
 law, or at this day obtain in private societies.

law, or at this day obtain in private societies.  
 The proprietors or partners in these, though they  
 may transfer their shares, cannot renounce; nor  
 does their death dissolve the company, but the  
 share of the deceased descends to his representative.

8. A JOINT TRADE is not a copartnership, but  
 a momentary contract, where two or more per-  
 sons agree to contribute a sum to be employed in  
 a particular course of trade, the produce whereof  
 is to be divided among the adventurers, according  
 to their several shares, after the voyage is finished.  
 If, in a joint trade, that partner who is intrusted  
 with the money for purchasing the goods, should,  
 in place of paying them in cash, buy them upon  
 credit, the furnisher who followed his faith alone  
 in the sale, has no recourse against the other ad-  
 venturers; he can only recover from them what  
 of the buyer's share is yet in their hands. Where  
 any one of the adventurers in a joint trade be-  
 comes bankrupt, the others are preferable to his  
 creditors, upon the common stock, as long as it  
 continues undivided, for their relief of all the en-  
 gagements entered into by them on account of  
 the adventure.

9. MANDATE is a contract, by which one em-  
 ploys another to manage any business for him;  
 and by the Roman law, it must have been gratui-  
 tous. It may be constituted tacitly, by one's suf-  
 fering another to act in a certain branch of his af-  
 fairs, for a tract of time together, without chal-  
 lenge. The mandatory is at liberty not to accept  
 of the mandate; and, as his powers are solely  
 founded in the mandant's commission, he must, if  
 he undertakes it, strictly adhere to the directions  
 given him: Nor is it a good defence, that the meth-  
 od he followed was more rational; for in that  
 his employer was the proper judge. Where no  
 special rules are prescribed, the mandatory, if he  
 acts prudently, is secure, whatever the success may  
 be; and he can sue for the recovery of all the ex-  
 pences reasonably deburred by him in the execu-  
 tion of his office.

10. Mandates may be general, containing a  
 power of administering the mandant's whole af-  
 fairs; but no mandate implies a power of dispo-  
 sition gratuitously of the constituent's property, nor  
 even of selling his heritage for an adequate price:  
 but a general mandatory may sell such of the  
 moveables as must otherwise perish. No manda-  
 tory can, without special powers, transact doubt-  
 ful claims belonging to his constituent, or refer  
 them to arbiters.

11. Mandates expire, 1. By the revocation of  
 the employer, though only tacit, as if he should  
 name another mandatory for the same business.  
 2. By the renunciation of the mandatory; even  
 after he has executed part of his commission, if his  
 office be gratuitous. 3. By the death, either of  
 the mandant or mandatory: But if the matters  
 are not entire, the mandate continues in force,  
 notwithstanding such revocation, renunciation, or  
 death. Precepts of resignation, and precepts  
 of seisin, are made out in the form of mandates;  
 but, because they are granted for the sole benefit  
 of the mandatory, all of them, excepting precepts  
 of *clare constitut*, are declared (by act 1693) to contin-  
 ue after the death either of the grantor or grantee.

Deeds which contain a clause or mandate for registration, are for the same reason made registrable after the death of either, by acts 1693 and 1696.

12. The favour of commerce has introduced a tacit mandate, by which masters of ships are empowered to contract in name of their exercitors or employers, for repairs, ship-provisions, and whatever else may be necessary for the ship or crew; so as to oblige not themselves only, but their employers. Whoever has the actual charge of the ship is deemed the master, though he should have no commission from the exercitors, or should be substituted by the master in the direction of the ship without their knowledge. Exercitors are liable, whether the master has paid his own money to a merchant for necessaries, or has borrowed money to purchase them. The furnisher or lender must prove that the ship needed repairs, provisions, &c. to such an extent; but he is under no necessity to prove the application of the money or materials to the ship's use. If there are several exercitors, they are liable *singuli in solidum*. In the same manner the undertaker of any branch of trade, manufacture, or other land negotiation, is bound by the contracts of the insurers whom he sets over it, in so far as relates to the subject of the *propositura*.

13. Contracts and obligations, in themselves imperfect, receive strength by the contractor or his heirs doing any act thereafter which imports an approbation of them, and consequently supplies the want of an original legal consent. This is called HOMOLOGATION; and it takes place even in deeds intrinsically null, whether the nullity arises from the want of statutory solemnities, or from the incapacity of the grantor. It cannot be inferred, 1. By the act of a person who was not in the knowledge of the original deed; for one cannot approve what he is ignorant of. 2. Homologation has no place where the act or deed, which is pleaded as such, can be ascribed to any other cause; for an intention to come under an obligation is not presumed.

14. QUASI CONTRACTS are formed without explicit consent, by one of the parties doing something which by its nature either obliges him to the other party, or the other party to him. Under this class may be reckoned tutory, &c. the entry of an heir, *negotiorum gestio*, *indebiti solutio*, communion of goods between two or more common proprietors, and *mercium jactus levandæ navis causa*. *Negotiorum gestio* forms those obligations which arise from the management of a person's affairs, in his absence, by another, without a mandate. As such manager acts without authority from the proprietor, he ought to be liable in exact diligence, unless he has from friendship interposed in affairs which admitted no delay; and he is accountable for his intromissions with interest. On the other part, he is entitled to the recovery of his necessary disbursements on the subject, and to be relieved of the obligations in which he may have bound his self in consequence of the management.

15. *Indebiti solutio*, or the payment to one of what is not due to him, if made through any mistake, either of fact, or even of law, founds him who made the payment in an action against the receiver for repayment; *condictio indebiti*. This action does not lie, 1. If the sum paid was due *ex equitate*, or

by a natural obligation: for the obligee is founded solely in equity. 2. If the payer made the payment knew that nothing was due; *qui consilio dat quod non debebat, prosumitur*.

16. Where two or more persons become common proprietors of the same subject, by legacy, gift, or purchase, without the partnership, an obligation is thereby contracted among the proprietors to communicate and loss arising from the subject, while common: And the subject may be the fruit of any having interest. This divides the question is among the common proprietors according to the valuation of their respective shares: But where the question is between proprietors and those having servitudes upon the property, the superficies is only divided, and justice to the property. Common to the king, or to royal boroughs, and to lands lying ruinous, and belonging to rent proprietors, may be divided, with the consent of borough and incorporated officers, the execution of which is committed to the mayor, or justices of the peace.

17. The throwing of goods overboard to lighten a ship in a storm, creates an obligation whereby the owners of the ship and cargo are obliged to contribute for the relief of whose goods were thrown overboard may bear a proportional loss of the goods for the common safety. In this contribution the ship's provisions suffer no estimation, and the owner who has cut his mast, or parted with the ship to save the ship is entitled to this relief has lost them by the storm, the loss of the ship and freight. If the election of the ship, the goods preserved from it are not liable in contribution. Ejection fully made, if the master and a third party mariners judge that measure necessary, the owner of the goods should oppose: goods ejected are to be valued at the value of the goods of the same sort which are afterwards sold for.

18. There are certain obligations which do not subsist by themselves, but are accessory to a part of other obligations. Of this kind is the obligation to pay interest, or *fidjussio*, is that obligation by which one comes engaged as security for another shall either pay a sum, or perform a duty.

19. A cautioner for a sum of money bound, either simply as cautioner for the debtor, or conjunctly and severally for the principal debtor. The first has, by the benefit of *ordinis*, or of discussion, the creditor is obliged to discuss the principal debtor, before he can insist for payment against the cautioner. Where one is bound jointly and for the principal, or conjunctly and severally with him, the two obligants are equally in the same obligation, each and consequently, the cautioner, though an accessory, may be sued for the whole either discussing or even citing the principal debtor. Cautioners for performance of a duty, or for the faithful discharge of a duty (as for factors, tutors, &c.) cannot by

their engagement be bound conjunctly and severally with the principal obligant, because the fact to which the principal is bound cannot possibly be performed by any other. In such engagement, therefore, the failure must be previously constituted against the proper debtor, before action can be brought against the cautioner for making up the loss of the party suffering.

20. The cautioner, who binds himself at the desire of the principal debtor, has an *actio mandati* or of relief against him, for recovering the principal and interest paid by himself to the creditor, and for necessary damages; which action lies *de jure*, though the creditor should not assign to him on payment. As relief against the debtor is implied in fidejussory obligations, the cautioner, where such relief is cut off, is no longer bound: hence, the defence of prescription frees the cautioner, as well as the principal debtor.

21. But, 1. Where the cautionary is interposed to an obligation merely natural, the relief is restricted to the sums that have really turned to the debtor's profit. 2. A cautioner who pays without citing the debtor, loses his relief, in so far as the debtor had a relevant defence against the debt, in whole or in part. Relief is not competent to the cautioner, till he either pays the debt, or is distressed for it; except, 1st, Where the debtor is expressly bound to deliver to the cautioner his obligation cancelled, against a day certain, and has *fructus*; or, 2dly, Where the debtor is *vergens ad insolvam*; in which case the cautioner may, by proper diligence, secure the debtor's funds for his own relief, even before payment or distress.

22. A right of relief is competent *de jure* to the cautioner who pays, against his co-cautioner, unless where the cautioner appears to have renounced it. In consequence of this implied relief, a creditor, if he shall grant a discharge to any one of the cautioners, must, in demanding the debt from the others, deduct that part as to which he has cut off their relief by that discharge. Where the principal debtor, in a bond in which a cautioner is bound, grants bond of corroboration with a new cautioner, both cautioners, as they intervene for the same debt, and at the desire of the same debtor, have a mutual relief against each other; but where the cautioner in the first bond signs as a principal obligant in the corroboration, the cautioner in the new bond, it would seem, would be entitled to a total relief against the first cautioner. At same time, the decisions of the court of session are not perfectly at one upon this branch of the doctrine of cautionary.

23. Cautionary is also *judicial*, as in a suspension. It is sufficient to loose the cautioner, that when he became bound, the suspender had good reason to suspect, e. g. if the charger had at that period no wife, or had not then performed his part, though these grounds of suspension should be afterwards taken off. In all maritime causes, where the parties are frequently foreigners, the defender must give caution *judicio fidei et judicatum solvi*: such cautioner gets free by the death of the defender before sentence; but he continues bound, though the cause should be carried from the admiral to the court of session. This sort of caution is only to be exacted in causes strictly maritime.

24. It happens frequently, that a creditor takes two or more obligants bound to him, all as principal debtors, without fidejussion. Where they are so bound, for the performance of facts that are in themselves indivisible, they are liable each for the whole, or *singuli in solidum*. But, if the obligation be for a sum of money, they are only liable *pro rata*; unless, 1. Where they are in express words bound conjunctly and severally; or, 2. In the case of bills or promissory notes. One of several obligants of this sort, who pays the whole debt, or fulfils the obligation, is entitled to a proportional relief against the rest; in such manner, that the loss must, in every case, fall equally upon all the solvent obligants.

25. Obligations for sums of money are frequently accompanied with an obligation for the annual rent or interest thereof. INTEREST, (*usura*) is the profit due by the debtor, of a sum of money to the creditor for the use of it, which is fixed, by 12 *Ann. Stat.* 2. c. 16 at 5 per cent.

26. Interest is due, either *by law* or *by pactio*. It is due *by law*, either from the force of statute, under which may be included acts of seducement, or from the nature of the transaction. Bills of exchange, and inland bills, though they should not be protested, carry interest from their date in case of non-acceptance; or from the day of their falling due, in case of acceptance and non-payment. Interest is due by a debtor after denunciation, for all the sums contained in the diligence, even for that part which is made up of interest.

27. The subject-matter of all obligations consists either of things, or of facts. Things exempted from commerce cannot be the subject of obligation. (See SECT. I. § 2.) One cannot be obliged to the performance of a fact naturally impossible; nor of a fact in itself immoral, for that is also in the judgment of law impossible. Since impossible obligations are null, no penalty or damage can be incurred for non-performance; but it is otherwise, if the fact be in itself possible, though not in the debtor's power; in which case the rule obtains, *locum facti impræstabilis subit damnus et interesti*.

28. DONATION, so long as the subject is not delivered to the donee, may be justly ranked among obligations; and it is that obligation which arises from the mere good will and liberality of the granter.

29. Donations made in contemplation of death, or *mortis causa*, are of the nature of legacies, and like them revocable; consequently, not being effectual in the granter's life, they cannot compete with any of his creditors; not even with those whose debts were contracted after the donation. They are understood to be given from a personal regard of the donee, and therefore fall by his predecease. No deed, after delivery, is to be presumed *in donatio mortis causa*; for revocation is excluded by delivery.

30. Deeds are not presumed, *in dubio*, to be donations. Hence, a deed by a debtor to his creditor, if donation be not expressed, is presumed to be granted in security or satisfaction of the debt; but bonds of provision to children are, from the presumption of paternal affection, construed to be intended as an additional patrimony: yet a

toe; given to a daughter in her marriage-contract is presumed to be in satisfaction of all former bonds and debts; because marriage contracts usually contain the whole provisions in favour of the bride.

SECT. XVI. *Of the DISSOLUTION or EXTINGUISHMENT OF OBLIGATIONS.*

1. OBLIGATIONS may be dissolved by *performance or implement, consent, compensation, novation, and confusion*. 1. By *specific performance*; thus, an obligation for a sum of money is extinguished by payment. The creditor is not obliged to accept of payment by parts, unless where the sum is payable by different divisions. If a debtor in two or more separate bonds to the same creditor, made an indefinite payment, without ascribing it at the time to any one of the obligations, the payment is applied, 1<sup>st</sup>, To interest, or to sums not bearing interest. 2<sup>dly</sup>, To the sums that are least secured, if the debtor thereby incurs no rigorous penalty. But, 3<sup>dly</sup>, If this application be penal on the debtor, *e. g.* by suffering the legal of an adjudication to expire, the payment will be applied so as to save the debtor from that forfeiture. Where one of the debts is secured by a cautioner, the other not, the application is to be so made, *ceteris paribus*; that both creditor and cautioner may have equal justice done to them.

2. Payment made by the debtor upon a mistake in fact, to one whom he believed, upon probable grounds, to have the right of receiving payment, extinguishes the obligation. But payment made to one, to whom the law denies the power of receiving it, has not this effect; as if a debtor, seized by letters of caption, should make payment to the messenger; for *ignorantia juris neminem excusat*. In all debts, the debtor, if he be not interpellated, may safely pay before the term, except in tack-duties or feu-duties; the payment whereof, before the terms at which they are made payable, is construed to be collusive, in a question with a creditor of the landlord or superior. Payment is *in dubio* presumed, by the voucher of the debt being in the hands of the debtor; *chirographum, apud debitorem repertum, presumitur solutum*.

3. Obligations are extinguishable by the *consent of the creditor*, who, without full implement, or even any implement, may renounce the right constituted in his own favour.

4. A discharge, though it should be general, of all that the granter can demand, extends not to debts of an uncommon kind, which are not presumed to have been under the granter's eye. This doctrine applies also to general assignments.

5. Where the same person is both creditor and debtor to another, the mutual obligations, if they are for equal sums, are extinguished by *compensation*; if for unequal, still the lesser obligation, is extinguished, and the greater diminished, as far as the concurrence of debit and credit goes.

6. The right of *RETENTION*, which bears a near resemblance to compensation, is chiefly competent, where the mutual debts, not being liquid, cannot be the ground of compensation; and it is sometimes admitted *ex equitate*, in liquid debts, where compensation is excluded by statute: thus, though compensation cannot be pleaded after de-

ree, either against a creditor or his assignee if the original creditor should become the debtor, even after decree, may retain the assignee, till he gives security for the debtor's claim against the cedent. This is frequently founded in the expence or work employed on the subject retain so arises from the mutual obligations in on the parties.

7. Obligations are dissolved by no whereby one obligation is changed into without changing either the debtor or The first obligation being thereby extinguished the cautioners in it are loosed, and all sequences discharged; so that the debtor bound only by the last. As the creditor a right is once constituted, ought not to implication, novation is not easily presumed the new obligation is construed to be corroborative of the old; but, where the novation expressly bears to be *in satisfaction* of these words must necessarily be explained. Where the creditor accepts of a debtor, in the place of the former who is discharged this method of extinction is called *delegatio*.

8. Obligations are extinguished *confusio* the debit and credit meet in the same person by succession or singular title, *e. g.* a debtor succeeds to the creditor, or the creditor the debtor, or a stranger to both; for one may be debtor to himself. If the succession, from the *confusio* arises, happens afterwards divided, so as the debtor and creditor come to be different persons; the *confusio* does not produce an extinction, but only a temporary suspension, of the debt.

SECT. XVII. *Of ASSIGNATION*

1. HERITABLE rights, when they are with investment, are transmitted by deed which is a writing containing procurator's assignation and precept of feisin; but they neither require no feisin, or on which feisin actually followed, are transmissible by *assignation*. He who grants the assignation is the *cedent*; and he who receives it, the *cessionary*: if the assignee conveys his right to a third person, the deed of conveyance is called *translation*; and if he assigns it back to himself a *retrocession*.

2. Assignations must not only be declared to the assignee, but intimated by him to the creditor. Intimations are considered as so necessary in completing the conveyance, that in a competition between two assignations, the last, if first intimated, is preferred.

3. Though, regularly, intimation to the creditor is made by an instrument, taken in the presence of a notary, by the assignee or his procurator, the law admits equipollencies, where the deed of assignment given to the debtor is equal to the deed of intimation. Thus, a charge upon letters of horning in the assignee's instance, or a suit brought by the assignee, supplies the want of intimation being judicial acts, which expose the deed to the eyes both of the judge and of the creditor, or the debtor's promise of payment by

assignee, because this is in effect corroboration of the original debt. The assignee's possession of right, by entering into payment of the rents reserved, is also equal to an intimation; for it puts not only notice to the debtor, but his actual compliance: but the debtor's private knowledge of the assignment is not sustained as a defence.

Certain conveyances need no intimation: 1. Assignations of bills of exchange; for these are to be attested with forms, introduced by the laws of particular states. 2. Bank notes are fully attested by the bare delivery of them; for as they are payable to the bearer, their property must pass with their possession. 3. Adjudication, which is a judicial conveyance, and marriage, which is a conveyance, carry the full right of the subjects thereconveyed, without intimation: nevertheless, as there is nothing in these conveyances which can themselves put the debtor *in mala fide*, he is therefore *in tuto* to pay to the wife, or to the original creditor in the debt adjudged, till the marriage or adjudication be notified to him. Assignations of moveable subjects though they be intimated, if they are made *retenta possessione*, (the cedent retaining the possession), cannot hurt the cedent's creditors; for such rights are presumed, all questions with creditors, to be collusive, and raised in trust for the cedent himself.

4. An assignation carries to the assignee the whole right of the subject conveyed, as it was in the hands of the cedent; and consequently, he may use diligence, either in his cedent's name while he is alive, or in his own.

5. After an assignation is intimated, the debtor cannot prove a payment, or compensation, by the oath of the cedent, who has no longer any interest in the debt; unless the matter has been made litigious by an action commenced prior to the intimation: but the debtor may refer to the oath of the assignee, who is in the right of the debt; that the assignation was gratuitous, or in part for the cedent: either of which being proved, the oath of the cedent will affect the assignation. If the assignation be in part onerous, and in part gratuitous, the cedent's oath is good against the assignee only so far as his right is gratuitous. The assignee is competent against the original creditor in a moveable debt, which can be proved otherwise than by his oath, continue relevant against an onerous assignee; whose right can be no better than that of his author, and must therefore remain affected with all the burdens which were attached to it in the author's person.

#### SECT. XVIII. Of ARRESTMENTS and POUNDINGS.

1. The diligences, whereby a creditor may affect his debtor's moveable subjects, are *arrestment* and *pounding*. By *arrestment* is sometimes meant the securing of a criminal's person till trial; but in a legal sense, it is understood in the rubric of this title, it is the order of a judge, by which he who is debtor of a moveable obligation to the arrester's debtor, is prohibited to make payment or delivery till the debt due to the arrester be paid or secured. The debtor's debtor is usually called the common debtor; because, where there are two or more competing

creditors, he is debtor to all of them. The person in whose hands the diligence is used is styled the arrester.

2. Arrestment may be laid on by the authority either of the supreme court, or of an inferior judge. In the first case, it proceeds either upon special letters of arrestment, or on a warrant contained in letters of horning; and it must be executed by a messenger. The warrants granted by inferior judges are called precepts of arrestment, and they are executed by the officer proper to the court.

3. All debts, in which one is personally bound, though they should be heritably secured, are grounds upon which the creditor may arrest the moveable estate belonging to his debtor. Arrestment may proceed on a debt, the term of payment whereof is not yet come, in case the debtor be *vergens ad inopiam*.

4. Moveable debts are the proper subject of arrestment; under which are comprehended conditional debts; and even depending claims. For lessening the expence of diligence to creditors, all bonds which have not been made properly heritable by feisin are declared arrestable: but this does not extend to adjudications, wadsets, or other personal rights of lands, which are not properly debts. Certain moveable debts are not arrestable: 1. Debts due by bill, which pass from hand to hand as bags of money. 2. Future debts: for though inhibition extends to *adquirenda* as well as *acquisita*, yet arrestment is limited, by its warrant, to the debt due at the time of serving it against the arrester. Hence, an arrestment of rents or interest carries only those that have already either fallen due or at least become current. Claims, depending on the issue of a suit, are not considered as future debts; for the sentence, when pronounced, has a retrospect to the period at which the claim was first founded. The like doctrine holds in conditional debts. 3. Alimentary debts; for these are granted on personal considerations, and so are not communicable to creditors: but the past interest due upon such debt may be arrested by the person who has furnished the alimony. One cannot secure his own effects to himself for his maintenance, so as they shall not be affectable by his creditors. Salaries annexed to offices granted by the king, and particularly those granted to the judges of the Session, and the fees of servants, are considered as alimentary funds; but the surplus fee, over and above what is necessary for the servant's personal uses, may be arrested. It has also been found, that a wadset sum consigned after an order of redemption used, but before decret of declarator, is not arrestable.

5. If, in contempt of the arrestment, the arrester shall make payment of the sum, or deliver the goods arrested, to the common debtor, he is not only liable criminally for breach of arrestment, but he must pay the debt again to the arrester. As the law formerly stood, an arrestment used at the market cross of Edinburgh, pier and shore of Leith, against a person furth of the kingdom, was good; so that if the arrester made payment to his creditor after the date of the arrestment, he was found liable in second payment to the arrester.

er, because he had done all in his power to notify his diligence. This, however, is very properly altered by § 3. of the act of the 23d Geo. III. which declares, that an arrestment used at the market cross of Edinburgh, pier and shore of Leith, in the hands of any person out of the kingdom, without other sufficient notification, shall not interpel the arrestee from paying *bona fide* to the original creditor. Arrestment is not merely prohibitory, as inhibitions are; but is a step of diligence which founds the user in a subsequent action, whereby the property of the subject arrested may be adjudged to him. It therefore does not, by our latter practice, fall by the death of the arrestee; but continues to subsist, as a foundation for an action of forthcoming against his heir, while the subject arrested remains *in medio*. Far less is arrestment lost, either by the death of the arrester, or of the common debtor.

6. Where arrestment proceeds on a depending action, it may be loosed by the common debtor's giving security to the arrester for his debt in the event it shall be found due. Arrestment founded on decrees, or on registered obligations, which in the judgment of law are decrees, cannot be loosed but upon payment or consignation; except,  
 1. Where the term of payment of the debt is not yet come, or the condition has not yet existed.  
 2. Where the arrestment has proceeded on a registered contract, in which the debts or mutual obligations are not liquid.  
 3. Where the decree is suspended, or turned into a libel; for, till the suspension be discussed, or the pending action concluded, it cannot be known whether any debt be truly due. A loosing takes off the *nexus* which had been laid on the subject arrested; so that the arrestee may thereafter pay safely to his creditor, and the cautioner is substituted in place of the arrestment, for the arrester's security: yet the arrester may, while the subject continues with the arrestee, pursue him in a forthcoming, notwithstanding the loosing.

7. Arrestment is only an inchoated or begun diligence; to perfect it, there must be an action brought by the arrester against the arrestee, to make the debt or subject arrested forthcoming. In this action, the common debtor must be called for his interest, that he may have an opportunity of excepting to the lawfulness or extent of the debt on which the diligence proceeded. Before a forthcoming can be pursued, the debt due by the common debtor to the arrester must be liquidated; for the arrester can be no further entitled to the subject arrested than to the extent of the debt due to him by the common debtor. Where the subject arrested is a sum of money, it is, by the decree of forthcoming, directed to be paid to the pursuer towards satisfying his debt; where goods are arrested, the judge ordains them to be exposed to sale, and the price to be delivered to the pursuer. So that, in either case, decrees of forthcoming are judicial assignations to the arrester of the subject arrested.

8. In all competitions, regard is had to the dates, not of the grounds of debt, but of the diligence proceeding upon them. In the competition of practitioners, the preference is governed by *their* dates, according to the priority even of

hours, where it appears with any certainty is the first. But, as arrestment is but a diligence, therefore if a prior arrester should insist in an action of forthcoming, at a time as may be reasonably construed intimation of his begun diligence, he loses his preference. But, as dereliction of diligence is not presumed, the distance of above two years between the first arrestment and the decree of forthcoming was found not to make such a *moræ* as the posterior arrester to a preference.

of preference, according to the dates of several arrestments, holds, by our present law, whether they have proceeded on a direct dependence; on debts not yet payable; on debts already payable; provided the debts shall have been closed, or the debt has been payable, before the issue of the competent

9. By statute 35d Geo. III. cap. 74. § 1. it is enacted, that when a debtor is made bankrupt, in terms of the Act 1696, as thereby extending to all arrestments which shall have been used before the date of the bankruptcy, within any effects of such bankrupt, within any time prior to the bankruptcy, or within four months thereafter, shall be ranked *pari passu* if they had been of the same date; and, at a time coming, letters on precepts of a hearing to be upon a depending action granted summarily, upon production of a libel or summons. And it shall be no objection to the said *pari passu* preference, that such was not executed, or that the debt was dated at the date of arrestment, provided these and all other necessary steps are taken, without any undue delay. And any of the arresters shall in the meantime a decree of forthcoming or preference, as covered payment, he shall nevertheless be liable for the sum recovered to those who shall be found to have a *pari passu* preference, after allowance out of the fund of the estate of making it effectual. And all arrestments entered within the period of four months subsequent to the bankruptcy, for attaching the same estate, shall rank with each other according to the date of the law and practice; but shall not come in preference to those used prior to the period aforesaid.

10. In the competition of arrestments, an assignation by the common debtor, if intimated before arrestment, is preferred to the arrestment. If the assignation is granted after the arrestment, but not intimated till after the arrestment is preferred.

11. *POINDING* is that diligence applicable to moveable subjects, by which their property is directed to the creditor. No poinding proceeds, till a charge be given to the debtor or performer, and the days thereof be counted; except poindings against vassals for their rents, and poindings against tenants for rent, upon the landlord's own decree; in which the ancient custom of poinding without charge continues. A debtor's goods may be poinded by one creditor, though they have been already poinded by another; for arrestment is an imperfect diligence, leaves the right subject still in the debtor, and so cannot prevent a creditor from using a more perfect

which has the effect of carrying the property directly to himself.

11. No cattle pertaining to the plough, nor instrument of tillage, can be poinded in the time of labouring or tilling the ground, unless where the debtor has no other goods. By labouring time is understood, that time, in which that tenant, whose goods are to be poinded, is ploughing, tho' he should have been earlier or later than his neighbours; but summer fallowing does not fall under this rule.

12. In the execution of poinding, first, the debtor's goods must be appraised on the ground of the lands where they are laid hold on. Next, the messenger must, after public intimation by three justices, declare the value of the goods according to the appraisement, and require the debtor to make payment of the debt, including interest and expenses. If payment shall be offered to the creditor, or in his absence to his lawful attorney; or in case of refusal by them, confiscation of the debt shall be made in the hands of the judge ordinary, or his clerk, the goods must be left with the debtor; if not, the messenger may either leave the goods in the debtor's possession, or remove them to a place of security, after declaring the property of them to belong to the poinder, and leaving a schedule of the poind with the debtor. In the 3d place, the execution of the poind is to be forthwith reported to the judge ordinary, who grants warrant for rouping the effects, exposing the same at no less than the appraiser value.

13. Ministers may poind for their stipends, upon one appraisement on the ground of the lands, and landlords were always in use to poind so, for their rents. Poinding, whether it be considered as a sentence, or as the execution of a sentence, must be proceeded in between sun rising and sun setting; or at least it must be finished before the going off of day light.

14. Any person who stops a poinding *via facti*, on grounds pretences, is liable, both criminally, in the pains of forcement (see CHAP. III. Sect. IV. (10.)) and civilly, in the value of the goods which might have been poinded by the creditor.

15. By the foresaid statute 33d Geo. III. cap. 72. § 7. it is declared, that a person is rendered bankrupt, as thereby directed, no poinding of the moveables belonging to such a bankrupt, within 30 days before his bankruptcy, or within 4 calendar months thereafter, shall give a preference to the poinder; but that every other creditor of the bankrupt having liquidated grounds of debt, or decrees for payment, and summoning such poinder before the 4 months are elapsed, shall be entitled to a proportional share of the price of the goods so poinded offering to his debt; deducting always the expence of such poinding, together with ten per cent on the said price, or appraised value, which the poinder shall retain to account of his debt in preference to the other creditors; the said debt being thereby so far diminished in the competition with them, saving always the husband's right of hypothec for rents or other hypothec known in law.

## SECT. XIX. Of Prescription.

1. PRESCRIPTION, which is a method, both of establishing and of extinguishing property, is either *positive* or *negative*. *Positive* prescription is generally defined, as the Roman *usucapio*, The acquisition of property (it should rather be, when applied to our law, the securing it against all further challenge) by the possessor's continuing his possession for the time which law hath declared necessary for that purpose: *negative*, is the loss or amission of a right, by neglecting to follow it forth, or use it, during the whole time limited by law.

2. Positive prescription was first introduced into our law by 1617, c. 12. which enacts, that whoever shall have possessed his lands, annual rents, or other heritages, peaceably, in virtue of infeftments, for 40 years continually after their dates, shall not thereafter be disquieted in his right by any person pretending a better title. Under *heritages* are comprehended every right that is *fundus annexum*, and capable of continual possession.

3. The act requires, that the possessor produce, as his title of prescription, a charter of the lands preceding the 40 years possession, with the seisin following on it: and where there is no charter extant, seisins, one or more, standing together for 40 years, and proceeding either on retours or precepts of *clare constat*. Singular successors must produce for their title of prescription, not only a seisin, but its warrant, as a charter, disposition, &c. either in their own person, or in that of their author: but the production, by an heir, of seisins, one or more, standing together for 40 years, and proceeding on retours or precepts of *clare constat*, is sufficient.

4. The negative prescription of obligations, by the lapse of 40 years, was introduced into our law long before the positive, (1469, c. 29.—1474, c. 55.) This prescription is now amplified by the foresaid act, 1617, which has extended it to all actions competent upon heritable bonds, reversions and others whatsoever; unless where the reversions are either incorporated in the body of the wadset right, or registered in the register of reversions: And reversions so incorporated, or registered, are not only exempted from the negative prescription, but they are an effectual bar against any person from pleading the positive.

5. A shorter negative prescription is introduced by statute, in certain rights and debts. Actions of *spuilzie*, *election*, and *others of that nature*, must be pursued within three years after the commission of the fact on which the action is founded. Under the general words, *and others of that nature*, are comprehended all actions, where the pursuer is admitted to prove his libel by his own oath *in litem*.

6. Servants fees, house-rents, men's ordinaries, (*i. e.* money due for board), and merchants accounts, fall under the triennial prescription, (by 1579, c. 83.) There is also a general clause subjoined to this statute, of *other like debts*, which includes alimentary debts, wages due to workmen, and accounts due to writers, agents, or procurators. These debts may, by this act, be proved after the three years, either by the writing or oath of the debtor; so that they prescribe only as to the mean



mean of proof by witnesses; but after the three years, it behoves the creditor to refer to the debtor's oath, not only the constitution, but the subsistence of the debt. In the prescription of house rents, servants fees, and alimony, each term's rent, fee, or alimony, runs a separate course of prescription; so that in an action for these, the claim will be restricted to the arrears incurred within the three years immediately before the citation: But, in accounts, prescription does not begin till the last article; for a single article cannot be called an account. Actions of removing must also be pursued within three years after the warning. Reductions of erroneous retours prescribe, if not pursued within 20 years.

7. Ministers stipends and multures prescribe in 5 years after they are due; and arrears of rent, 5 years after the tenant's removing from the lands. As the prescription of mails and duties was introduced in favour of poor tenants, that they might not suffer by neglecting to preserve their discharges, a proprietor of lands subject to a liferent, who had obtained a lease of all the liferented lands from the liferenter, is not entitled to plead it, nor a tackman of one's whole estate, who had by the lease a power of removing tenants. Bargains concerning moveables, or sums of money which are proveable by witnesses, prescribe in five years after the bargain. Under these are included sales, locations, and all other consensual contracts, to the constitution of which writing is not necessary. But all the abovementioned debts, may, after the five years, be proved, either by the oath or the writing of the debtor; of which above, § 6. A quinquennial prescription is established in arrestments, whether on decrees or depending actions: The first prescribe in 5 years after using the arrestment, and the last in five years after sentence is pronounced on the depending action.

8. No person binding for or with another, either as cautioner or co-principal, in a bond or contract for a sum of money, continues bound after 7 years from the date of the bond, provided he has either a cause of relief in the bond, or a separate bond of relief, intimated to the creditor, at his receiving the bond. But all diligence used within the seven years against the cautioner shall stand good. The statute excludes all cautioneries for the faithful discharge of officers; these not being obligations in a bond or contract for sums of money: and practice has denied the benefit of it to all judicial cautioners, as cautioners in a suspension.—Actions of count and reckoning, competent either to minors against their tutors or curators, or *vice versa*, prescribe in ten years after the majority or death of the minor.

9. Holograph bonds, missive letters, and books of account, not attested by witnesses, prescribe in 20 years, unless the creditor shall thereafter prove the verity of the subscription by the debtor's oath. It is therefore sufficient to save from the effect of the prescription, that the constitution of the debt is proved by the party's oath after the 20 years; whereas, in stipends, merchants accounts, &c. actually the constitution, but the subsistence of the debt, must be proved by writing or the debtor's oath, after the term of prescription. Some laws extend this prescription of holograph writ-

tings to all obligations for sums not exceeding L. 100 Scots, which are not attested by witnesses, because though these are in practice sustained they ought not to have the same duration deeds attested by witnesses. Though in the prescriptions of debts, the right of action is ver lost, if not exercised within the time limited, yet where action was brought on any of debts, before the prescription was run, it is not lost, like any other right, for 40 years. A statute defeated the purpose of the acts establishing prescriptions, all processes upon warnings, seizures, ejections, or arrestments, or for payment contained in act 1669, c. 9. are by the said act joined with 1685, c. 14, declared to prescribe five years, if not wakened within that time. CHAP. III. Sect. I. § 26.

10. The duration of bills is limited to six years by the 12 Geo. III.; rendered perpetual by the 13 Geo. III. Thus also, a receipt for bills given by a writer to his employer, not filled up within 23 years, was found not productive of an action. The prescriptions of the restitution of mine the benefit of inventory, &c. are explained in proper places.

11. In the positive prescription, as established by the act 1617, the continued possession for years, proceeding upon a title of property chargeable with falsehood, secures the possessor against all other grounds of challenge, and in summe *bona fides, presumptione juris et de jure* the long negative prescription, *bona fides* in a debtor is not required: the creditor's neglect to insist for so long a time, is construed as a bandoning of his debt, and so is equivalent to a discharge. Hence, though the subsistence of a debt should be referred to the debtor's oath after the 40 years, he is not liable.

12. Prescription runs *de momento in momentum* the whole time defined by law must be complete before a right can be either acquired or lost by that interruption, made on the last day of the year, breaks its course. The positive prescription runs against the sovereign himself, even as to annexed property; but it is generally thought cannot suffer by the negative; he is secure against the negligence of his officers in the management of processes, by express statute, 1600. The negative as well as the positive prescription runs against the church, though churchmen but a temporary interest in their benefices, because the rights of beneficiaries to their benefices are liable to accidents, through the frequent removal of incumbents, 15 years possession does, by the Roman chancery which we have also found a presumptive title in the beneficiary this is not properly prescription; for if he is recovered, perhaps out of the incumbent's hands, it shall appear, that he has possessed the benefice or other subjects to a greater extent than he is entitled to, his possession will be restricted accordingly. The right must not be confounded with that established in favour of churchmen, which is called a prescription upon a possession of 10 years.

13. The clause in the act 1617, giving effect to the prescription, is extended to the positive prescription, as well as to the negative prescription, by the act

minority is not admitted in the case of children, where there is a continual of minors, that being a *casus insolitus*: expressly excepted in several of the statutes, as 1; 79, c. 18—1669, c. 9; law leaves them in the common case, be subject to the common rules.

Prescription does not run *contra non valentem* against one who is barred, by some disability, from pursuing; for in such case, diligence nor dereliction can be imputed

certain rights are incapable of prescriptions that law has exempted from common. *Res mere facultatis*, e. g. a faculty to subject with debts, to revoke, &c. cannot be exercised at any time: hence, a person's right of using any act of property on lands, cannot be lost by the greatest time. 7. Exceptions competent to a pleading an action, cannot prescribe, unless the action is founded on a right produced within the years of prescription. Obligations of yearly pensions or pay-ments, though no demand has been made on 40 years, do not suffer a total prescription: they subsist as to the arrears fallen due at period; because prescription cannot affect an obligation till it be payable, and a pension or payment is considered as a debt.

A right can be lost *non utendo* by one, unless that prescription be to establish a debt. Hence the rule arises, *juri sanguinis non scribitur*.

Prescription may be interrupted by any act by the proprietor or creditor uses his right of debt. In all interruptions, notice be given to the possessor of the subject, or, that the proprietor or creditor intends upon his right. All writings whereby a person himself acknowledges the debt, and offers for payment brought, or diligences taken upon his obligation, by holding, arrestment, &c. must be effectual to prescription.

Interruptions, by citation upon libelled actions, where they are not used by a minor, if not renewed every seven years: but the appearance of parties, or any judicial proceeding thereupon, it is no longer a bare plea, but an action which subsists for 40 years. It is found, that the sexennial prescription is not interrupted by a blank citation, as in the court of admiralty. Citations for the prescription of real rights must be by messengers; and the summonses, on which citations proceed, must pass the signature bill, and be registered within 60 days after execution, in a particular register approved that purpose: and where interruption of rights is made *via facti*, an instrument taken upon it, and recorded in the said register, otherwise it can have no effect against successors.

Interruption has the effect to cut off the

XIII. PART I.

course of prescription, so that the person prescribing can avail himself of no part of the former time, but must begin a new course, commencing from the date of the interruption. Minority, therefore, is no proper interruption: for it neither breaks the course of prescription, nor is it a document or evidence taken by the minor on his right: it is a personal privilege competent to him, by which the operation of the prescription is indeed suspended during the years of minority, which are therefore discounted from it; but it continues to run after majority, and the years before and after the minority may be conjoined to complete it. The same doctrine applies to the privilege arising from one's incapacity to act.

20. Diligence used upon a debt, against any one of two or more co-obligants, prescribes the debt itself, and so interrupts prescription against all of them; except in the special case of cautioners, who are not affected by any diligence used against the principal debtor. In the same manner, a right of annual rent, constituted upon two separate tenements, is preserved as to both from the negative prescription, by diligence used against either of them. But whether such diligence has also the effect to hinder the possessor of the other tenement by singular titles from the benefit of the positive prescription, may be doubted.

### III. OF SUCCESSION.

#### SECT. XX. Of SUCCESSION in HERITABLE RIGHTS.

1. SINGULAR successors are those who succeed to a person yet alive, in a special subject by singular titles; but succession in its proper sense, is a method of transmitting rights from the dead to the living. Heritable rights descend by succession to the HEIR properly so called; moveable rights to the *executors*, who are sometimes said to be heirs in moveables. Succession is either by *special destination*, which descends to those named by the proprietor himself; or *legal*, which devolves upon the persons whom the law marks out for successors, from a presumption, that the proprietor would have named them had he made a destination. The first is in all cases preferred to the other, as presumption must yield to truth.

2. In the succession of heritage, the heirs at law are otherwise called *heirs general*, *heirs vulgariter*, or *heirs of line*; and they succeed by the right of blood, in the following order. First, descendants; among these, sons are preferred to daughters, and the eldest son to all the younger. Where there are daughters only, they succeed equally, and are called heirs portioners. Failing immediate descendants, grand-children succeed; and in default of them, great-grandchildren; and so on *in infinitum*: preferring, as in the former case, males to females, and the eldest male to the younger.

3. Next after descendants, collaterals succeed; among whom the brothers *german* of the deceased have the first place. But as, in no case, the legal succession of heritage is, by the law of Scotland, divided into parts, unless where it descends to females; the immediate younger brother of the deceased excludes the rest, according to the rule,

(G) *heritages*



their property. The heirs, therefore, to such estate, are absolute fiars, and they may alter the destination at pleasure. Estates with clauses prohibitory, e. g. that it shall not be lawful to the heirs to sell or alien the lands in prejudice of the son, none of the heirs can alien gratuitously; but the members of entail may contract which will be effectual to the creditors, or use of the estate for onerous causes. In such cases, the maker himself may alter the estate, 1. Where it has been granted for a particular cause, as in mutual tailzies; or, 2. Where the maker is expressly disabled, as well as the heirs.

Where a tailzie is guarded with irritant and resolutive clauses, the estate entailed cannot be altered by the debt, or deed, of any of the persons succeeding thereto, in prejudice of the substitution.

By statute 1685, c. 22. the entail must be entered in a special register established for that purpose; and the irritant and resolutive clauses inserted, not only in the procuratories, and scissins, by which the tailzies are constituted, but in all the after conveyances; otherwise they can have no force against successors. But a tailzie, even without clauses, is effectual against the heir of the substitution, or against the institute who accepts of it. It has been found, that an entail, though contracted before the act 1685, was in effect, because not recorded in terms of the act. The heir of entail has full power over the estate, except in so far as he is expressly fettered by the act. Heirs of entail are notwithstanding any restrictions in the entail, to improve their estates by granting, building farm-houses, draining, including, exchanging, under certain limitations, and repayment of three parts of the expense in the next heir of entail.—This act extends to all tailzies, whether made prior or posterior to 1685.

The heir, who counteracts the directions of the entail, by alienating any part of the estate, or by contracting debt that infringes the substitution; the lands entailed must be actualized upon the debt contracted.

When the heirs of the last person specially named in a tailzie come to succeed, the irritancies no longer operate in favour of whom the substitution operates; and consequently, the fee, as before tailzied, becomes simple and absolute in the person of such heirs. By the late Act Geo. II. for abolishing wardholdings, the lands purchased within Scotland, notwithstanding the strictest entail; and where the lands are in the hands of minors or fatuous persons, the Majesty may purchase them from the curators or guardians. And heirs of entail may sell the lands and vassals the superiorities belonging to the estate; but in all these cases, the price is to be paid in the same manner, that the lands and vassalries sold were settled before the sale. The same rights, not only of land estates, but of heritable rights, are sometimes granted to two or more persons in conjunct fee. Where a right is so grant-

ed to two strangers, without any special clause adjoined to it, each of them has an equal interest in the fee, and the part of the deceased descends to his own heir. If the right be taken to the two jointly, and the longest liver and their heirs, the several shares of the conjunct fiars are affectable by their creditors during their lives: but, on the death of any one of them, the survivor has the fee of the whole, in so far as the share of the predeceased remains free, after payment of his debts. Where the right is taken to the two in conjunct fee, and to the heirs of one of them, he to whose heirs the right is taken is the only fiar; the right of the other resolves into a simple life-rent: yet where a father takes a right to himself and his son jointly, and to the son's heirs, such right being gratuitous, is not understood to strip the father of the fee, unless a contrary intention shall plainly appear from the tenor of the right.

16. Where a right is taken to a husband and wife, in conjunct fee and life-rent, the husband, as the *persona dignior*, is the only fiar: the wife's right resolves into a life-rent, unless it be presumable, from special circumstances, that the fee was intended to be in the wife. Where a right of moveables is taken to husband and wife, the heirs of both succeed equally, according to the natural meaning of the words.

17. Heirs of provision are those who succeed to any subject, in virtue of a provision in the investiture, or other deed of settlement.

18. Though all provisions to children, by marriage contract conceived in the ordinary form, being merely rights of succession, are postponed to every onerous debt of the grantor, even to those contracted posterior to the provisions; yet where a father executes a bond of provision to a child actually existing, whether such child be the heir of a marriage or not, a proper debt is thereby created, which, though it be without doubt gratuitous, is not only effectual against the father himself and his heirs, but is not reducible at the instance even of his prior onerous creditors, if he was solvent at the time of granting it.

19. In marriage contracts, the conquest, or a certain part of it, is often provided to the issue; by which is meant whatever real addition shall be made to the father's estate during the marriage by purchase or donation. Conquest therefore must be free, i. e. what remains after payment of the father's debts. As in other provisions, so in conquest; the father is still fiar, and may therefore dispose of it for onerous or rational causes. Where heritable rights are provided to the heirs of a marriage, they fall to the eldest son, for he is the heir at law in heritage. Where a sum of money is so provided, the word *heir* is applied to the subject of the provision, and so marks out the executor, who is the heir in moveables. When an heritable right is provided to the bairns (or issue) of a marriage, it is divided equally among the children, if no division be made by the father; for such destination cuts off the exclusive right of the legal heir. No provision granted to bairns, gives a special right of credit to any one child, as long as the father lives: the right is granted *familie*; so that the whole must indeed go to one or other of them; but the father has a power inherent in him,

to divide it among them, in such proportions as he thinks best, yet so as none of them may be entirely excluded, except in extraordinary cases.

20. A clause of return is that, by which a sum in a bond or other right, is in a certain event limited to return to the grantor himself, or his heirs.

21. An heir is, in the judgment of law, *eadem persona cum defuncto*, and so represents the deceased universally, not only in his rights, but in his debts: in the first view, he is said to be heir *active*; in the second, *passive*.

22. Before an heir can have an active title to his ancestor's rights, he must be entered by service and retour. He who is entitled to enter heir, is, before his actual entry, called *apparent heir*. The bare right of apparenay carries certain privileges with it. An apparent heir may defend his ancestor's titles against any third party who brings them under challenge. Tenants may safely pay him their rents; and after they have once acknowledged him by payment, he may compel them to continue it; and the rents not uplifted by the apparent heir belong to his executors, upon his death.

23. As an heir is, by his entry, subjected universally to his ancestor's debts, apparent heirs have therefore a year (*annus deliberandi*) allowed to them from the ancestor's decease, to deliberate whether they will enter or not; till the expiration of which, though they may be charged by creditors to enter, they cannot be sued in any process founded upon such charge.

24. All services proceed on briefs from the chancery, which are called *briefs of inquest*, and have been long known in Scotland. The judge, to whom the brief is directed, is required to try the matter by an inquest of 15 sworn men. The inquest, if they find the claim verified, must declare the claimant heir to the deceased, by a verdict or service, which the judge must attest, and return the brief, with the service proceeding on it, to the chancery; from which an extract is obtained called the *retour of the service*.

25. The service of heirs is either *general* or *special*. A *general* service vests the heir in the right of all heritable subjects, which either do not require seisin, or which have not been perfected by seisin in the person of the ancestor. A public right, therefore, according to the feudal law, though followed by seisin, having no legal effects till it be confirmed by the superior, must, as a personal right, be carried by a general service. A *special* service, followed by seisin, vests the heir in the right of the special subjects in which the ancestor died in seisin.

26. If an heir, doubtful whether the estate of his ancestor be sufficient for clearing his debts, shall, at any time within the *annus deliberandi*, exhibit upon oath a full inventory of all his ancestor's heritable subjects, to the clerk of the shire where the lands lie; or, if there is no heritage requiring seisin, to the clerk of the shire where he died; and if, after the same is subscribed by the sheriff or sheriff-depute, the clerk, and himself, and registered in the sheriff's books, the extract thereof shall be registered within 40 days after expiration of the *annus deliberandi* in the general register appointed for that purpose, his subsequent entry will subject him no farther than to the value

of such inventory. If the inventory be and registered within the time prescribed, may serve on it, even after the year.

27. Creditors are not obliged to acquiesce in the value of the estate given up by the heir, if they be real creditors, may bring the estate to public sale, in order to discover its true value; an estate is always worth what can be got for it.

28. Practice has introduced an anomaly of entry, without the interposition of an heir, by the sole consent of the superior; who, satisfied that the person applying to him is the next heir, grants him a precept (called *consuetudo*), from the first words of its reciting, mandating his bailie to in seise him in the estate that belonged to his ancestor. Of the nature is the entry by *HASP AND STAPLE*, commonly used in burgage tenements of houses; the bailie, without calling an inquest, or declaring a person heir, upon evidence before himself; and, at the same time in the subject, by the symbol of the hasp and staple of the door. Charges given by creditors to the apparent heirs to enter, stand in the place of a real entry, so as to support the credit of the estate. See SECT. XII; § 2.

29. A general service cannot include a special one; since it has no relation to any specific subject, and carries only that class of rights which seisin has not proceeded; but a special service implies a general one of the same kind or class, and consequently carries even such right which has not been perfected by seisin. Service is required to establish the heir's right in titles of honour, or offices of the highest dignity; descend *jure sanguinis*.

30. An heir, by immixing with his estate without entry, subjects himself to liability as if he had entered; or, in our law, purchases a passive title. The only passive title which an apparent heir becomes liable for all his ancestor's debts, is *gestio pro re aliena*; his behaving as none but an heir has right. Behaviour as heir is inferred from the heir's intromission, after the death of the ancestor, with any part of the lands or other heritable subjects belonging to the deceased, to which the heir himself might have completed an active title.

31. This passive title is excluded, if the intromission be by order of law; or if it be confined to singular titles, and not as heir to the estate. But an apparent heir's purchase of right to his ancestor's estate, otherwise than by public roup (auction), or his possessing it as heir, is deemed behaviour as heir.

32. Behaviour as heir is also excluded, if the intromission is final, unless an intention to satisfy the ancestor's creditors be presumable from the circumstances attending it.

33. Another passive title in heritage, incurred by the apparent heir's accepting the estate right from the ancestor, to any particular estate to which he himself might have succeeded as heir; and it is called *præscriptio hereditatis*. If the right be onerous, there is no passive

consideration paid for it does not amount to its full value, the creditors of the deceased may reduce it, insofar as it is gratuitous, but still it infers no passive title.

34. The heir incurring this passive title is no farther liable, than if he had at the time of his acceptance entered heir to the granter, and so subjected himself to the debts that were then chargeable against him; but with the posterior debts he has nothing to do, not even with those contracted between the date of the right and the instrument taken upon it, and he is therefore called *successor titulo lucrativo post contractum debitum*.

35. Neither of these passive titles takes place, unless the subject intermeddled with or disposed be such as the intromitter or receiver would succeed to as heir. In this also, these two passive titles agree, that the intromission in both must be after the death of the ancestor; for there can be no *termini habitiles* of a passive title, while the ancestor is alive. But in the following respect they differ: *Gestio pro herede*, being a vicious passive title founded upon a quasi delict, cannot be objected against the delinquent's heir, if process has not been interdicted while the delinquent himself was alive; whereas the *successor titulo lucrativo* is by the acceptance of the disposition understood to have entered into a tacit contract with the granter's creditors, by which he undertakes the burden of their debts; and all actions founded on contract are transmissible against heirs.

36. An apparent heir, who is cited by the ancestor's creditor in a process for payment, if he offers any peremptory defence against the debt incurred a passive title: for he can have no interest to object against it, but in the character of heir.

37. By the principles of the feudal law, an heir, when he is to complete his titles by special service, and necessarily pass over his immediate ancestor, as his father, if he was not infert; and serve heir to that ancestor who was last vest and seized in the right, and in whose *hereditas jacens* the right must remain, till a title be connected thereto from him. As this bore hard upon creditors who might think themselves secure in contracting with a person who they saw for some time in the possession of an estate, and from thence concluded that it was legitimated in him it is therefore provided by act 1695 that every person, passing over his immediate ancestor who had been three years in possession, and serving heir to one more remote, shall be liable for the debts and deeds of the person interjected, to the value of the estate to which he is served.

38. Our law, from its jealousy of the weakness of mankind while under sickness, and of the impetuosity of friends: on that occasion, has declared that all deeds affecting heritage, if they be granted by a person on deathbed, (i. e. after contracting a sickness which ends in death), to the danger of the heir, are ineffectual, except where the debts of the granter have laid him under a necessity to alienate his lands. As this law of deathbed is founded solely in the privilege of the heir, deathbed deeds, when consented to by the heir, are not reducible. The term properly opposed to deathbed is *liege possie*, by which is understood a state of death; and it gets the name, because persons in death have the *legitima potestas*, or lawful power, of disposing of their property at pleasure.

39. The two extremes being proved, of the granter's sickness immediately before signing, and of his death following it, though at the greatest distance of time, did, by our former law, found a presumption that the deed was granted on deathbed, which could not have been elided but by a positive proof of the granter's convalescence; but now the allegation of deathbed is also excluded, by his having lived 60 days after signing the deed. The legal evidence of convalescence is the granter's having been, after the date of the deed, at kirk OR market unsupported; for a proof of either will secure the deed from challenge. The going to kirk or market must be performed when the people are met together in the church or churchyard for any public meeting, civil or ecclesiastical, or in the market-place at the time of public market. No other proof of convalescence is receivable because at kirk and market there are always present unsuspected witnesses whom we can hardly be sure of in any other case.

40. The privilege of setting aside deeds *ex capite lethi*, is competent to all heirs, not to heirs of line only, but of conquest, tailzie, or provision; not only to the immediate, but to remoter heirs, as soon as the succession opens to them. But, where it is consented to or ratified by the immediate heir, it is secured against all challenge, even from the remoter.

41. The law of deathbed strikes against dispositions of every subject to which the heir would have succeeded, or from which he would have had any benefit, had it not been so disposed. Deathbed deeds granted in consequence of a full or proper obligation in *liege possie*, are not subject to reduction; but, where the antecedent obligation is merely natural, they are reducible. By stronger reason, the deceased cannot, by a deed merely voluntary, alter the nature of his estate on deathbed to make the prejudice of his heir, so as from heritable to make it moveable; but if he should, in *liege possie*, exclude his apparent heir, by an irrevocable deed containing reserved faculties, the heir cannot be heard to quarrel the exercise of these faculties on deathbed.

42. In a competition between the creditors of the deceased and of the heir, our law (act 1661) has justly preferred the creditors of the deceased, as every man's estate ought to be liable, in the first place, for his own debt. But this preference is, by the statute, limited to the case where the creditors of the deceased have used diligence against their debtor's estate, within three years from his death; and therefore the heir's creditors may, after that period, affect it for their own payment. All dispositions by an heir, of the ancestor's estate, within a year after his death, are null, in so far as they are hurtful to the creditors of the ancestor. This takes place, though these creditors should have used no diligence, and even where the dispositions are granted after the year: It is thought they are ineffectual against the creditors of the deceased who have used diligence within the three years.

SECT. XXI. Of SUCCESSION in MOVEABLES.

1. IN the succession of moveable rights, it is an universal rule, that the next in degree to the deceased

ceased (or next of kin) succeeds to the whole; and if there are two or more equally near, all of them succeed by equal parts, without that prerogative, which takes place in heritage, of the eldest son over the younger, or of males over females. Neither does the right of representation (explained, SECT. XX. § 4.) obtain in the succession of moveables, except in the single case of competition between the full blood and the half blood; for a niece by the full blood will be preferred before a brother by the half blood, though she is by one degree more remote from the deceased than her uncle. Where the estate of a person deceased consists partly of heritage, and partly of moveables, the heir in the heritage has no share of the moveables, if there are others as near in degree to the deceased as himself: but where the heir, in such case, finds it his interest to renounce his exclusive claim to the heritage, and betake himself to his right as one of the next of kin, he may collate: • communicate the heritage with the others, who in their turn must collate the moveables with him; so that the whole is thrown into one mass, and divided equally among all of them. This doctrine holds, not only in the line of descendants, but of collaterals; for it was introduced, that the heir might in no case be worse than the other next of kin.

2. One may settle his moveable estate upon whom he pleases, excluding the legal successor, by a testament; which is a written declaration of what a person wills to be done with his moveable estate after his death. No testamentary deed is effectual till the death of the testator; who may therefore revoke it at pleasure, or make a new one, by which the first loses its force, according to the rule, *voluntas testatoris est ambulatoria usque ad mortem*; and hence testaments are called *last or latter wills*. Testaments, in their strict acceptation, must contain a nomination of executors, *i. e.* of persons appointed to administer the succession according to the will of the deceased: yet nothing hinders one from making a settlement of moveables, in favour of an universal legatee, though he should not have appointed executors; and on the other part, a testament where executors are appointed is valid, though the person who is to have the right of succession should not be named. In this last case, the executor nominated be a stranger, *i. e.* one who has no legal interest in the moveable estate; he is merely a trustee, accountable to the next of kin; but he may retain a third of the dead's part (explained in § 6.) for his trouble in executing the testament; in payment of which, legacies, if any be left to him, must be imputed. The heir, if he be named executor, has right to the third as a stranger; but if one be named who has an interest in the legal succession, he has no allowance, unless such interest be less than a third. Nuncupative or verbal testaments are not, by the law of Scotland, effectual for supporting the nomination of an executor, let the subject of the succession be ever so small: but verbal legacies, not exceeding real Scots, are sustained: and even where they are granted for more, they are effectual only as to the excess.

3. A LEGACY is a donation by the deceased, to be paid by the executor to the legatee. It may

be granted either in the testament or in writing. Legacies are not due till the death; and consequently they can tra right to the executors of the legatee, in that the granter survives him. A case some years ago, where a testator left a legatee when the legatee arrived at a certain age. The legatee survived the testator, but did not receive the legacy until he was of age. The legacy was payable. It was found upon the authority of the Roman law, that a legatee vested in the legatee a mortgaged legacy upon his decease was due to the legatee's kin.

4. Legacies, where they are general, certain sum of money indefinitely, give the legatee no right in any one debt or subject, but only insist in a personal action against the executor, for payment out of the testator's estate. A special legacy, *i. e.* of a particular debt or subject, or of a particular subject belonging to the testator, is of the nature of an assignation, and the property of the special debt or subject vests upon the testator's death, in the legatee, therefore directly sue the debtor or possessor, as no legacy can be claimed till the debts of the testator are paid; the executor must be cited in such process, if it may be known, whether there are funds sufficient for answering the legacy. What is not enough for payment of all the debts of the testator, each of the general legatees must suffer a proportional abatement: but a special legatee takes the legacy entire, though there should be not enough for payment of the rest; and, on the other hand, if the debt or subject be exhausted, the legatee has no claim, if the debt or subject be exhausted, whatever the extent of the legacy may be.

5. Minors, after puberty, can test with their parents, wives without their husbands, sons interdicted without their interdicted fathers, bastards cannot test, except in the cases as set forth; SECT. XXII. § 3. As a part of the goods, falling under the community of the goods, belonging to a husband upon his decease, to his widow, *jure relicto* certain share to the children, called the *portion natural*, or *bairns part of gear*; if the father has a wife or children, though he be the administrator of all these goods during his life, he consequently may alien them by a deed *in legem possit*, even gratuitously, if he has no intent to disappoint the wife or children, or shall appear, yet cannot impair their share gratuitously on death-bed; nor can he dispose of his moveables to their prejudice by testament, if it should be made in *legem possit*; since the deed does not operate till the death of the testator, which period the division of the goods in favour of the wife and children.

6. If a person deceased leaves a widow and child, his testament, or, in other words, his estate in communion, divide in two: one half to the widow; the other is the dead's part absolute property of the deceased, on which the testator can test, and which falls to his next of kin if he dies intestate. Where he leaves children and a widow, but no widow, the children get their LEGITIME: the other half is the de

It is also to the children, if the father has died upon it. If he leaves both widow and child, the division is tripartite: the wife takes one third by herself; another falls, as legitime, to the child equally among them, or even to an illegitimate child though he should succeed to the hereditary estate remaining third is the dead's part. If the wife predeceases without children, one third is retained by the husband, the other falls to the child of kin: Where she leaves children, the division is bipartite, by the common law, since no legitime is truly due on the husband's death: yet it is in practice tripartite; one third remains with the surviving father, as if it were due to him *proprio nomine*, and another third is administered for the legitime for his child remaining third, being the wife's share, or her children, whether of that or any foreign birth; for they are all equally her next

of kind. Before a testament can be divided, the debts of the deceased are to be deducted; for all legacies must be free. As the husband has the right of burdening the goods in communion, they affect the whole, and so lessen the legitime share of the relict, as well as the child's part. His funeral charges, and the mourning expences due to the widow, are considered as proper debts; but legacies, or other grants granted by him on death-bed, affect the dead's part. Bonds bearing interest, due to the deceased, cannot diminish the relict's share, such bonds, when due to the deceased, do not affect it. The funeral charges of the wife surviving, fall wholly on her executors, who are next of kin to her share. Where the deceased leaves no family, neither husband, wife, nor child, the testament suffers no division, but all is the part of the next of kin.

The whole issue of the husband, not only by a second marriage which was dissolved by his death, but by any former marriage, has an equal interest in the legitime; otherwise the children of the first marriage would be cut out, as they could not have the legitime during their father's life. But the legitime is due, 1. Upon the death of a mother. 2. Neither is it due to grandchildren, upon the death of a grandfather. Nor, 3. To children illegitimate, *i. e.* to such as, by having renounced the legitime, are no longer considered as in the line, and so are excluded from any farther share of the moveable estate than they have already received.

As the right of legitime is strongly founded in law, the renunciation of it is not to be inferentially implied. Renunciation by a child of the legitime has the same effect as his renouncing it in favour of the other children entitled to it; and consequently the share of the renouncer falls among the rest; but he does not thereby lose his right to the dead's part, if he does not expressly renounce his share in the father's executors. The renunciation of the legitime, where he is the younger child, has the effect to convert the legitime subject thereof into the dead's part, which therefore falls to the renouncer himself as next of kin, if the heir be not willing to collate the legitime with him. Yet it has been found that the

renunciation of the only younger child made the whole legitime accrue to the heir without collation.

10. For preserving an equality among all the children, who continue entitled to the legitime, we have adopted the Roman doctrine of *collatio bonorum*; whereby the child, who has got a provision from his father, is obliged to collate it with the others, and impute it towards his own share of the legitime; but if from the deed of provision, the father shall appear to have intended it as a *precipuum* to the child, collation is excluded. A child is not bound to collate an heritable subject provided to him, because the legitime is not impaired by such provision. As this collation takes place only in questions among children who are entitled to the legitime, the relict is not bound to collate donations given to her by her husband, in order to increase her legitime; and on the other part, the children are not obliged to collate their provisions, in order to increase her share.

11. As an heir in heritage must complete his titles by entry, so an executor is not vested in the right of the moveable estate of the deceased without confirmation. Confirmation is a sentence of the commissary or bishop's court, empowering an executor, one or more, upon making inventory of the moveables pertaining to the deceased, to recover, possess, and administer them, either in behalf of themselves, or of others interested therein. Testaments must be confirmed in the commissariat where the deceased had his principal dwelling house at his death. If he had no fixed residence, or died in a foreign country, the confirmation must be at *Edinburgh*, as the *commune forum*; but if he went abroad with an intention to return, the commissariat within which he resided, before he left Scotland, is the only proper court.

12. Confirmation proceeds upon an edict, which is affixed on the door of the parish church where the deceased dwelt, and serves to intimate to all concerned the day of confirmation, which must be nine days at least after publishing the edict. In a competition for the office of executor, the commissary prefers, *primo loco*, the person named to it by the deceased himself, whose nomination he ratifies or confirms, without any previous decerniture: this is called the confirmation of a testamentary executor. In default of an executor named by the deceased, universal dispoones are by the present practice preferred; after them, the next of kin; then the relict; then creditors; and, lastly, special legatees. All these must be decerned executors, by a sentence called a *decree dative*; and if afterwards they incline to confirm, the commissary authorise them to administer, upon their making inventory, and giving security to make the subject thereof forthcoming to all having interest; which is called the confirmation of a testamentary executor.

13. A creditor, whose debtor's testament is already confirmed, may sue the executor, who holds the office for all concerned, to make payment of his debt. Where there is no confirmation, he himself may apply for the office, and confirm as executor-creditor; which entitles him to sue for and receive the subject confirmed, for his own payment: and where one applies for a confirmation



as executor-creditor, every co-creditor may apply to be conjoined with him in the office. As this kind of confirmation is simply a form of diligence, creditors are exempted from the necessity of confirming more than the amount of their debts.

14. A creditor, whose debt has not been constituted or his claim not closed by decree, during the life of his debtor, has no title to demand directly the office of executor *qua* creditor: but he may charge the next of kin who stands off, to confirm, who must either renounce within twenty days after the charge, or be liable for the debt; and if the next of kin renounces, the pursuer may constitute his debt, and obtain a decree *cognitionis causâ*, against the *hereditas jacens* of the moveables, upon which he may confirm as executor-creditor to the deceased. Where one is creditor, not to the deceased, but to his next of kin who stands off from confirming, he may affect the moveables of the deceased, by obtaining himself decerned executor-dative to the deceased, as if he were creditor to him, and not to his next of kin.

15. Where an executor has either omitted to give up any of the effects belonging to the deceased in inventory, or has estimated them below their just value, there is place for a new confirmation, *ad omiffa, vel male appretiatâ*, at the suit of any having interest; and if it appears that he has not omitted or undervalued any subject *dolose*, the commissary will ordain the subjects omitted, or the difference between the estimations in the principal testament and the true values, to be added thereto; but if dolé shall be presumed, the whole subject of the testament *ad omiffa vel male appretiatâ*, will be carried to him who confirms it, to the exclusion of the executor in the principal testament.

16. The legitime and reliet's share, because they are rights arising *ex lege*, operate *ipso jure*, upon the father's death, in favour of the reliet and children; and consequently pass from them, though they should die before confirmation, to their next of kin: whereas the dead's part, which falls to the children or other next of kin in the way of succession, remains, if they should die before confirming, *in bonis* of the first deceased; and so does not descend to their next of kin, but may be confirmed by the person who, at the time of confirmation, is the next of kin to the first deceased. Special assignations, though neither intimated nor made public during the life of the grantor, carry to the assignee the full right of the subjects assigned, without confirmation. Special legacies are really assignations, and so fall under this rule. The next of kin, by the bare possession of the *ipſa corpora* of moveables, acquires the property thereof without confirmation, and transmits it to his executors.

17. The confirmation of any one subject by the next of kin, as it proves his right of blood, has been adjudged to carry the whole executry out of the testament of the deceased, even what was omitted, and to transmit all to his own executors. The confirmation of a stranger, who is executor nominated, as it is merely a trust for the next of kin, has the effect to establish the right of the next of kin to the subjects confirmed, in the same manner as if himself had confirmed them.

18. Executry, though it carries a certain de-

gree of representation of the deceased, is not an office: executors therefore are not bound to the debts due by the deceased, beyond the value of the inventory; but, at the same time, they are liable in diligence for making the executry effectual to all having interest. A creditor who confirms more than his debt, is liable in diligence for what he exceeds. Executors are not liable in interest, even for bonds recovered by them as carried into the deceased, because their office obliges them to retain the sums they have made effectual to a distribution thereof among all having interest. This holds though they should again lay out money upon interest, as they do it at risk.

19. There are certain debts of the deceased privileged debts, which were always payable to every other. Under that name are reckoned, medicines furnished to the deceased, physicians fees during that year, general charges, and the rent of his house, and servants wages for the year or term current death. These the executors are in duty bound to pay on demand. All the other creditors, who obtain themselves confirmed, or who are confirmed by the executor already confirmed, within six months after the death, are preferred, with those who have done more timely, and therefore no executor can either discharge his own debt, or pay a testamentary debt, without excluding any creditor, who shall use diligence in the six months, from the benefit of *passu* preference; neither can a decree of debt be obtained, in that period, against an executor, because, till that term be expired, it cannot be known how many creditors are entitled to the fund in his hands. If a creditor is confirmed within the six months, the executor is bound to pay for his own debt, and pay the reliet *venienti*. Such creditors of the deceased, who use diligence within a year after their death, are preferable on the subject of the fund to the creditors of his next of kin.

20. The only passive title in moveables is intromission; which may be defined an unjustifiable intrusion into the estate of a person deceased, without the assent of the law. This is not confined, as the passive title in heritable estate, to the persons interested in the succession, but strikes against all intromission, whether by the executor confirmed intromission more than he has contained, he incurs no title; fraud being in the common case, from his not giving up in inventory the subjects intromitted with. Vicious intromission is also presumed, where the repositories of the estate are not sealed up, as soon as they are incapable of sense, by his nearest relative, or by the master of such house, and then delivered to the judge ordinary, to be kept for the benefit of all having interest.

21. The passive title of vicious intromission does not take place where there is any proof or circumstance that takes off the presumption of fraud. In consequence of this rule, no intromission, or *ingredia causâ*, by the will

continue the possession of the decedent to preserve his goods for the benefit of the decedent, infers no passive title. And in principle, an intruder, by himself executor, and thereby subjecting himself to account, before action be brought against the passive titles, purges the vitiolity of the intruder: and where the intruder is interested in the succession, *e. g.* his confirmation, at any time within the death of the decedent, will give him a title, notwithstanding a prior claim of his passive title was intended only in favour of creditors, it cannot be sued against; since it arises *ex delicto*, it cannot be sued against the heir of the intruder.

any one of many delinquents may be liable to the whole punishment, so any one delinquent may be sued *in solidum* for debt, without calling the rest; but a creditor who pays, has an action of relief against the others for their share of it. If the debt is sued jointly, they are liable, not their several intrusions, but *pro*

the whole of a debtor's estate is subjected to the payment of his debts; and therefore, both the executor and the creditor are liable for them, in a question of debt; but as succession is by law to the heritable and the moveable of these ought, in a question between the executor and the creditor, to bear the burdens which are laid on the estate. Action of relief is accordingly given to the heir who has paid a moveable debt, against the executor; and *vice versa*. This is cut off by the decedent's having disposed of his land-estate or his moveables, or his debts; for such burden is construed as an alteration of the law, but merely as a farther security, unless the contrary shall be presumed from the special style of the disposition.

## II. Of LAST HEIRS and BASTARDS.

When a vassal dies without leaving any heir, the superior, as the old law stood, succeeds as last heir, both in the heritable and moveable estate of the deceased. The superior, *Quod nullius est, cadit in regem*.

lands, to which the king succeeds, he succeeds immediately of himself, the property is not taken from him, but the property is taken from the superior's hands. If they are lands of a subject, the king, who cannot be a subject, names a donatory; who, if he has a title, must obtain a decree of deodand thereafter he is presented to the superior by letters of presentation from the king, with the superior seal, in which the superior is to enter the donatory. The whole estate of the decedent is, in this case, subjected to his heir, and to the widow's legal provisions. Neither the king nor his donatory is liable beyond the value of the succession. A person who has not alienated his heritage *in vivo*, to the present.

judge of the king, who is entitled to succeed to such decedent, in the character of *ultimus heres*.

3. A bastard can have no legal heirs, except those of his own body; since there is no succession but by the father, and a bastard has no certain father. The king therefore succeeds to him, failing his lawful issue, as last heir. Though the bastard, as absolute proprietor of his own estate, can dispose of his heritage in *lege possit*, and of his moveables by any deed *inter vivos*; yet he is disabled, *ex d. f. de natalium*, from bequeathing by testament, without letters of legitimation from the sovereign. If the bastard has lawful children, he may test without such letters, and name tutors and curators to his issue. Letters of legitimation, let their clauses be ever so strong, cannot enable the bastard to succeed to his natural father, to the exclusion of lawful heirs.

4. The legal rights of succession, being founded in marriage, can be claimed only by those who are born in lawful marriage; the issue therefore of an unlawful marriage are incapable of succession. A bastard is excluded, 1. From his father's succession; because law knows no father who is not marked out by marriage. 2. From all heritable succession, whether by the father or mother; because he cannot be pronounced lawful heir by the inquest, in terms of the brief. And, 3. From the moveable succession of his mother; for though the mother be known, the bastard is not her lawful child, and legitimacy is implied in all succession conferred by law. A bastard, though he cannot succeed *jure sanguinis*, may succeed by destination, where he is specially called to the succession by an entail or testament.

5. Certain persons, though born in lawful marriage, are incapable of succession. Aliens are, from their allegiance to a foreign prince, incapable of succeeding in *feudal rights*, without naturalization. Children born in a foreign state, whose fathers were natural born subjects, and not attainted, are held to be natural born subjects. Persons professing the Popish religion, who neglect, upon attaining the age of 15, to renounce its doctrines by a signed declaration, formerly could not succeed in *heritage*; but by a late act for relief of protesting catholics, the rigour of this law is greatly mitigated. See ENGLAND, § 130.

## CHAP. III.

### Of ACTIONS.

HITHERTO OF PERSONS and RIGHTS, the two first objects of law: ACTIONS are its third object, whereby persons make their rights effectual.

#### SECT. I. Of the NATURE, DIVISION, &c. of ACTIONS.

1. AN ACTION may be defined, A demand regularly made and insisted in, before the judge competent, for the attaining or recovering of a right; and it admits of several divisions, according to the different natures of the rights pursued upon.

2. Actions are either real or personal. A real action is that which arises from a right in the thing itself, and which therefore may be directed against



out, of all or any part of his estate or effects, movable or moveable, for payment of debt, shall, when joined with insolvency, be held as sufficient proof of notour bankruptcy; and from and after the last step of such diligence, the said debtor, if living, shall be held bankrupt. It is provided by the act 1696, that all heritable bonds or writs on which seisin may follow, shall be reduced, in a question with the grantor's other creditors upon this act, to be of the date of the seisin following thereon. But this act was found to relate only to securities for former debts, and not *novi debita*.

14. Actions are divided into *rei persequutorie*, and *reale*. By the first, the pursuer insists barely to recover the subject that is his, or the debt due to him; and this includes the damage sustained. In real actions, which always arise *ex delicto*, something is also demanded by way of penalty.

15. Actions of SPUIZIE, *ejection*, and *intrusion*, are penal. An action of spuilzie is competent to one dispossessed of a moveable subject violently, without order of law, against the person dispossessing: not only for being restored to the possession of the subject, if extant, or for the value, if destroyed, but also for the violent profits, if the action be brought within three years from the spoliation. Ejection and intrusion are, in heritable subjects, what spuilzie is in moveables. The difference between the two first is, that in ejection, violence is used; whereas the intruder enters into the void possession, without either a title from the proprietor, or the warrant of a judge. The actions arising from all the three are of the same general nature.

16. The action of contravention of LAW-BORROWS is also penal. It proceeds on letters of law-borrows, (from *borg*, a cautioner), which contain a warrant to charge the party complained upon, that he may give security not to hurt the complainant in his person, family, or estate. These do not require the previous citation of the party complained upon, because the caution which the law requires is only for doing what is every man's duty; but, before the letters are executed against him, the complainant must make oath that he stands bodily harm from him. The penalty of contravention is ascertained to a special sum, according to the offender's quality.

17. The most celebrated division of actions in the law is into *petitory*, *possessory*, and *declaratory*. PETITORY ACTIONS are those, where something is demanded from the defender, in consequence of a right of property, or of credit in the matter: Thus, actions for restitution of moveables, actions of poinding, of forthcoming, and all personal actions upon contracts or qualifications, are petitory.

18. POSSESSORY ACTIONS are those which are demanded, either upon possession alone, as spuilzies; or upon possession joined with another title, as replevin; and they are competent either for getting into possession, for holding it, or for recovering it; analogous to the interdicts of the Roman law, *per vim bonorum, uti possidetis*, and *unde vi*.

19. A DECLARATORY ACTION is that, in which the right is craved to be declared in favour of the party, but nothing sought to be paid or per-

formed by the defender, such as declarators of marriage, of irritancy, &c.

21. The action of double or MULTIPLE-POINDING may be also reckoned *declaratory*. It is competent to a debtor, who is distressed, or threatened with distress, by two or more persons claiming right to the debt, and who therefore brings the several claimants into the field, in order to debate and settle their several preferences, that so he may pay securely to him whose right shall be found preferable. This action is daily pursued by an arrestee, in the case of several arrestments used in his hands for the same debt; or by tenants in the case of several adjudgers, all of whom claim right to the same rents. In these competitions, any of the competitors may bring an action of multiple-poinding in name of the tenants, or other debtors, without their consent, or even though they should disclaim the process; since the law has introduced it as the proper remedy for getting such competitions determined: And while the subject in controversy continues *in medio*, any third person who conceives he has a right to it, may, though he should not be cited as a defender, produce his titles, as if he were an original party to the suit, and will be admitted for his interest in the competition. By the foresaid bankrupt statute, however, it is competent, in the case of a forthcoming or multiple-poinding raised on an arrestment used within 60 days prior, or four calendar months subsequent to a bankruptcy, for any other creditor, who has used an arrestment, producing his interest, and making his claim, in the process at any time before the expiration of the four months, to be ranked.

22. A process of WAKENING is likewise accessory. An action is said to sleep, when it lies over not insisted in for a year, in which case its effect is suspended: but even then it may, at any time within the years of prescription, be revived or awakened by a summons, in which the pursuer recites the last step of the process, and concludes that it may be again carried on as if it had not been discontinued.

23. An action that stands upon any of the inner house rolls cannot sleep; nor an action in which decree is pronounced, because it has got its full completion: Consequently the decree may be extracted after the year, without the necessity of a wakening.

24. An action of *transumpt* falls under the same class. It is competent to those who have a partial interest in writings that are not in their own custody, against the possessors thereof, for exhibiting them, that they may be transumed for their behoof: after which full duplicates are made out, collated, and signed, by one of the clerks of court, which are called *transumpt*s, and are as effectual as an extract from the register.

25. Actions proceeded anciently upon *brives* issuing from the chancery, directed to the justiceary or judge ordinary, who tried the matter by a jury, upon whose verdict judgment was pronounced: And to this day we retain certain *brives*, as of *inguest*, *terc*, *idiotry*, *tutory*, *perambulation*, &c. But summonies were, immediately upon the institution of the college of justice, introduced in the place of *brives*. A summons, when applied to

actions pursued before the session, is a writ in the king's name, issuing from his signet upon the pursuer's complaint, authorising messengers to cite the defender to appear before the court and make his defence; with certification, if he fail to appear, that decree will be pronounced against him in terms of the summons.

26. The days indulged by law to a defender, between his citation and appearance, to prepare for his defence, are called *inducie legales*. If he is within the kingdom, 21 and 6 days, for the first and second diets of appearance, must be allowed him for that purpose; and if out of it, 60 and 15. Defenders residing in Orkney or Zetland must be cited on 40 days. In certain summonses which are privileged, the *inducie* are shortened: Spuilzies and ejections proceed on 15 days; wakenings and transferences, being but incidental, on six. See the list of privileged summonses, in act of sederunt June 29th, 1672. A summons must be executed, *i. e.* served against the defender, so as the last diet of appearance may be within a year after the date of the summons; and it must be called within a year after that diet, otherwise it falls for ever. Offence against the authority of the court, acts of malversation in office by any member of the college of justice, and acts of violence and oppression committed during the dependence of a suit by any of the parties, may be tried without a summons, by a summary complaint.

27. Defences are pleas offered by a defender for eluding an action. They are either *dilatory*, which do not enter into the cause itself, and focus only procure an absolver from the *lis pendens*: Or *peremptory*, which entirely cut off the pursuer's right of action. The first, because they relate to the terms of proceeding, must be offered *in limine judicii*, and all of them at once. But peremptory defences may be proposed at any time before sentence. By act of sederunt, however, 1787, all defences, both dilatory and peremptory, so far as they are known, must be proposed at returning the summons, under a penalty; and the same enactment extends to the cases of suspensions and advocations. The writings to be founded upon by the parties also must be produced; the intention of the court, in framing the act of sederunt, being to accelerate as much as possible the decision of causes.

28. A cause, after the parties had litigated it before the judge, was said by the Romans, to be litiscontested. By LITISCONTTESTATION a judicial contract is understood to be entered into by the litigants, by which the action is perpetuated against heirs, even when it arises *ex delicto*. By our law, litiscontestation is not formed till an act is extracted, admitting the libel or defence to proof.

## SECT. II. Of PROBATION.

1. ALL allegations by parties to a suit, must be supported by proper proof. Probation is either by writing, by the party's own oath, or by witnesses. In the case of allegations, which may be proved by either of the three ways, a proof is said to be admitted *prout de jure*; because, in such case, all the legal methods of probation are competent

to the party; if the proof he brings he be lame, he may have recourse either to or to his adversary's oath; but, if he sh take himself to the proof by oath, he can after use any other probation (for the 1 signed § 3.); and on the contrary, a pu has brought a proof by witnesses, on an act, is not allowed to recur to the oath of the defender. Single combat was, by our ancient law, admitted as evidence, in matters both civil and criminal. See BATTLE, § 2—4.

2. As obligations or deeds signed by himself, or his ancestors or authors, must be taken as evidence, the least liable exception; every debt or allegation may be proved by evidence in writing. The solemnities of probative deeds are explained in CHAP. XIV, § 3, *et seq.* Books of account kept by merchants, tradesmen, and other dealers in trade, though not subscribed, are probative against who keeps them; and, in case of a furnishing shop keeper, such books, if they are kept by him, supported by the testimony of a single witness, afford a *semiplena probatio*, which becomes full evidence by his *in* supplement. Notarial instruments and attestations by messengers bear full evidence, solemnities therein set forth were used, invalidated otherwise than by a proof of it; but they do not prove any other extraneous facts therein averred, against third parties.

3. Regularly, no person's right can be proved by his own oath, nor taken away by the oath of his adversary; because these are the bare oaths of parties in their own favour. But, in a matter in issue, if referred by one of the parties to the oath of the other, such oath, though taken in favour of the deponent himself, is decisive; because the reference is a virtual agreement between the litigants, by which they consent to put the issue of the cause upon the oath of the other.

4. A defender, though he cannot be compelled to swear to facts in a libel properly contained in trespasses, where the conclusion is to a fine, or to damages.

5. An oath upon reference is sometimes qualified by special limitations restricting it. Such qualifications, which are admitted by the judge in the oath, are called *intrinsic*; those which the judge rejects or separates from the oath are called *extrinsic*.

6. Oaths of verity, are sometimes referred to the judge to either party, *ex officio*; because they are not founded on any contract between the litigants, are not finally binding, but may be traversed on proper evidence afterwards produced. These oaths are commanded by the judge for supplying a lame or defective proof and are therefore called *oaths in* (See § 2.)

7. To prevent groundless allegations, calumny has been introduced, by which a party may demand his adversary's oath, if he believes the fact contained in his libel to be just and true.

8. In all oaths, whether verity of certification carries, or at least implies, a cer-

party does not appear at the day assign-  
ing, he shall be held *pro confesso*.  
An oath which resolves into a *non minus*,  
said to prove any point; yet where one  
upon a recent fact, to which he him-  
self, his oath is considered as a dissem-  
ble truth, and he is held *pro confesso*, as  
refused to swear.

An oath *in litem*, is that which the judge re-  
quires, for ascertaining either the quan-  
tity of goods which have been taken  
by the defender without order of law,  
or of his damages.

The law of Scotland rejects the testimony  
of a witness, 1. In payment of any sum above  
500 l. all which must be proved either *scriptu-  
mento*. 2. In all gratuitous promises,  
or the smallest trifle. 3. In all contracts,  
which is either essential to their constitu-  
tion. CHAP. II. SECT. XIV. § 2.) or where it  
is prohibited, as in the borrowing of

the other part, probation by witnesses  
is required to the extent of 1000 l. Scots, in pay-  
ment of legacies, and verbal agree-  
ments contain mutual obligations. And it  
is required to the highest extent, 1. In all bargain-  
ings, or known engagements naturally arising  
from, concerning moveable goods. 2. In  
contracts, where satisfaction, even of a written  
contract, where such obligation binds the party  
to the performance of them. 3. In facts  
which naturally admit of a proof by writing,  
though the effect of such proof should be the  
proof of a written obligation, especially if the  
contract is of fraud or violence: thus, a bond is re-  
quired, on a proof by witnesses. 4. Last-  
ing, or a creditor with the rents of  
the estate, payable in grain, may be proved  
by witnesses; and even intromission with the silver  
ware the creditor has entered into the to-  
tion of the debtor's lands.

A person, whose near relation to another  
than being a judge in his cause, can be  
as a witness for him; but he may against  
a wife or child, who cannot be con-  
sidered as giving testimony against the husband or  
brother-in-law, *perjurii*, et *metuum perjurii*.  
The witness, whose propinquity to one of  
the parties is objected to, be as nearly related to  
the other, the objection stands good.

The testimony of infamous persons is re-  
jected, if they have been guilty of crimes  
which render them infamous.

Witnesses, before they are examined in  
court, are purged of partial counsel; that is,  
they declare, that they have no interest in  
the cause, nor have given advice how to conduct it;  
nor have got neither bribe nor promise, nor  
been instructed how to depose; and that  
they have no enmity to either of the parties.

The interlocutory sentence or warrant, by  
which the witnesses are authorized to bring their proof,  
may be by way of act, or of incident diligence. In  
the former, the lord ordinary who pronounces it is no  
judge in the process; but in an incident  
diligence, which is commonly granted upon spe-

cial points, that do not exhaust the cause, the  
lord ordinary continues judge.

16. Where facts do not admit a direct proof,  
presumptions are received as evidence, which in  
many cases make as convincing a proof as the di-  
rect. Presumptions are consequences deduced  
from facts known or proved, which infer the cer-  
tainty, or at least a strong probability, of another  
fact to be proved. This kind of probation is  
therefore called *artificial*, because it requires a rea-  
soning to infer the truth of the point in question,  
from the facts that already appear in proof. Pre-  
sumptions are either, 1. *juris et de jure*; 2. *juris*;  
or, 3. *hominis* or *judicis*. The first sort obtains,  
where statute or custom establishes the truth of  
any point upon a presumption; and it is so strong,  
that it rejects all proof that may be brought to e-  
lide it in special cases. Thus, the testimony of a  
witness, who forwardly offers himself without be-  
ing cited, is, from a presumption of his partiality,  
rejected, let his character be ever so fair; and thus  
also, a minor, because he is by law presumed in-  
capable of conducting his own affairs, is upon that  
presumption disabled from acting without the con-  
sent of his curators, though he should be known  
to behave with the greatest prudence. Many such  
presumptions are fixed by statute.

17. *Presumptiones juris* are those which our law  
books or decisions have established, without found-  
ing any particular consequence upon them, or  
statuting *super presumpto*. Most of this kind are  
not proper presumptions inferred from positive  
facts, but are founded merely on the want of a  
contrary proof; thus, the legal presumptions for  
freedom, for life, for innocence, &c. are in effect  
so many negative propositions, that servitude,  
death, and guilt, are not to be presumed, without  
evidence brought by him who makes the allega-  
tion. All of them, whether they be of this sort,  
or proper presumptions, as they are only con-  
jectures formed from what commonly happens may  
be elided, not only by direct evidence, but by o-  
ther conjectures, affording a stronger degree of  
probability to the contrary. *Presumptiones hominis*  
or *judicis*, are those which arise daily from the cir-  
cumstances of particular cases; the strength of  
which is to be weighed by the judge.

18. A *fiction juris* differs from a presumption.  
Things are presumed, which are likely to be true;  
but a fiction of law assumes for truth what is ei-  
ther certainly false, or at least is as probably false as  
true. Thus an heir is feigned or considered in  
law as the same person with his ancestor. Fic-  
tions of law must, in their effects, be always li-  
mited to the special purposes of equity for which  
they were introduced. See CHAP. II. SECT. I. § 3.

### SECT. III. Of SENTENCES and their EXECUTIONS.

1. PROPERTY would be most uncertain, if de-  
bateable points might, after receiving a definitive  
judgment, be brought again in question, at the  
pleasure of either of the parties: every state has  
therefore fixed the character of final to certain  
sentences or decrees, which in the Roman law are  
called *res judicata*, and which exclude all review  
or rehearing.

2. Decrees of the court of session, are either in  
form

*foro contradiitorio*, where both parties have litigated the cause, or in absence of the defender. Decrees of the session *in foro* cannot, in the general case, be again brought under the review of the court, either on points which the parties neglected to plead before sentence (which we call *competent* and *omitted*), or upon points pleaded and found insufficient (proposed and repelled.) But decrees, tho' *in foro*, are reversible by the court, where either they labour under essential nullities; *e. g.* where they are *ultra petita*, or not conformable to their grounds and warrants, or founded on an error in calcul, &c.; or where the party against the decree is obtained has thereafter recovered evidence sufficient to overturn it, of which he knew not before. As parties might formerly reclaim against the sentences of the session, at any time before extracting the decree, no judgment was final till extract; but now, a sentence of the inner house, either not reclaimed against within six federunt days after its date, or adhered to upon a reclaiming bill, though it cannot receive execution till extract, makes the judgment final as to the court of session. And, by an order of the house of lords, March 24, 1725, no appeal is to be received by them from sentences of the session, after five years from extracting the sentence; unless the person entitled to such appeal be minor, clothed with a husband, *non compos mentis*, imprisoned, or out of the kingdom. Sentences pronounced by the lord ordinary have the same effect, if not reclaimed against, as if they were pronounced in presence; and all petitions against the interlocutor of an ordinary must be preferred within 8 federunt days after signing such interlocutor.

3. Decrees, *in absence* of the defender, have not the force of *res judicate* as to him; for where the defender does not appear, he cannot be said to have subjected himself by the judicial contract which is implied in litigation; a party therefore may be restored against these, upon paying to the other his costs in recovering them. The sentences of inferior courts may be reviewed by the court of session,—before decree, by advocacy,—and after decree, by suspension or reduction; which two last are also the methods of calling in question such decrees of the session itself, as can again be brought under the review of the court.

4. REDUCTION is the proper remedy, either where the decree has already received full execution by payment, or where it decrees nothing to be paid or performed, but simply declares a right in favour of the pursuer.

5. SUSPENSION is that form of law by which the effect of a sentence condemnatory, that has not yet received execution, is stayed or postponed till the cause be again considered. The first step towards suspension is a bill preferred to the lord ordinary on the bills. This bill, when the desire of it is granted, is a warrant for issuing letters of suspension which pass the signet; but if the petition of the bill shall not, within 14 days after passing it, except to the letters, execution may by act of parliament proceed on the sentence. In such case, the court is obliged for the charger to put up a caution on the minute book for production of a petition, which may be expressed

at any time before this is done; and if suspender shall allow the production to betracted, the bill falls. Suspensions of decrees *in foro* cannot pass, but by the whole lords in time of session, and by three in vacation time; but other decrees may be suspended by any one of judges. By act of federunt in 1727, to rein the abuse of presenting a multiplicity of bills suspension of the decrees of inferior judges, in causes which have passed in absence, it is decreed, that all bills of suspension of decrees, by inferior judges in absence of the defenders, in case under 12<sup>l</sup>. sterling value, shall be refused and committed to the interior judge if competent; suspender, however, before being heard in inferior court, reimbursing the charger of the expences incurred by him previous to the remit.

6. As suspension has the effect of staying the execution of the creditor's legal diligence, it cannot in the general case, pass without caution given the suspender to pay the debt, in the event it shall be found due. Where the suspender cannot, from his low or suspected circumstances, procure a questionable security, the lords admit jurat caution, *i. e.* such as the suspender swears is the best he can offer; but the reasons of suspension are, in that case, to be considered with particular accuracy at passing the bill. Decrees in favour of the clergy, of universities, hospitals, or parish schoolmasters, for their stipends, rents, or salaries cannot be suspended, but upon production of charges, or on consignation of the sums charged for. A charger, who thinks himself secure without a cautioner, and wants dispatch, may, when a suspension of his diligence is sought, apply to the court to get the reasons of suspension summarily discussed on the bill.

7. Though he, in whose favour the decree is pronounced is always called the charger, yet a decree may be suspended before charge be given on it. Nay, suspension is competent even where there is no decree, for putting a stop to any illegal act whatsoever; thus, a building, or the exercise of a power which one assumes unwarrantably, is a proper subject of suspension. Letters of suspension are considered merely as prohibitory diligence; so that the suspender, he would turn provoker, must bring an action of reduction. If, upon discussing the letters of suspension, the reasons shall be sustained, a decree is pronounced, suspending the letters of diligence on which the charge was given *simpliciter*; which is called a *decree of suspension*, and takes off the effect of the decree suspended. If the reasons of suspension be repelled, the court find the letters of diligence orderly proceeded, *i. e.* regularly carried on; and they ordain them to be put to their execution.

8. Decrees are carried into execution, by diligence, either against the person or against the state of the debtor. The first step of personal execution is by letters of horning, which pass a warrant of the court of session, on the decrees magistrates of boroughs, sheriffs, admirals, and commissaries. If the debtor does not obey the letters of horning within the days of the charge the charger, after denouncing him rebel, and registering the horning, may apply for letters

captis

which contain a command, not only to the sheriff, but to magistrates, to apprehend and detain the debtor.

Such commoners, peers, married women, and persons, are secured against personal execution by caption upon arrestment. Such commoners also as are elected knights of the shire, are secured against arrestment by the privilege of parliament. No person can be executed against a debtor within the precincts of the king's palace of HOLYROOD, or the privilege of sanctuary affords no protection to criminals, as that did which was, by law, conferred on churches and religious houses.

Where the personal presence of the debtor is necessary in any of our courts, the judges are empowered to grant protection, for such time as may be necessary for his coming and going, not exceeding three days. Protection from diligence is also granted by the court of session under the late statute, where it is applied for, with the consent of the trustee, or a certain number of creditors as the case may require.

When a debtor is imprisoned, he ought not to be confined in the open air, not even under a hedge; for the creditors have an interest in the debtor being kept under close confinement, by the *quodammodo carceris*, they may be obliged to pay their debt: and any magistrate or sheriff who shall suffer the prisoner to go abroad, without proper attestation, upon oath, of the state of his health, is liable *subsidiarie* to the creditors. Magistrates are in like manner liable, if they suffer a prisoner to escape through the negligence of their prison: but, if he shall escape by night, by the use of instruments, or by any other accident which is imputed to the magistrates or jailor, he is chargeable with the debt; provided he has not, immediately after his escape, made diligent search for him. Regularly, no creditor can be released upon letters of caption, though he has made payment, could be released by letters of suspension, containing a charge upon the debtor to set him at liberty; because the discharge could not take off the penalty by the debtor for contempt of the court: but to save unnecessary expence in such debts, jailors are empowered to release prisoners where the debt does not exceed ten pounds Scots, upon production of a discharge which the creditor consents to his releasing.

The law, from compassion, allows insolvent debtors to apply for a release from prison under the name of *liber homo*, i. e. upon their making satisfaction to their creditors all their estate real and personal must be insisted for by way of action, and the creditors of the prisoner ought to be satisfied. The prisoner must, in this case, be examined only by the court of session, and a particular inventory of his estate, and oath that he has no other estate than is returned, and that he has made no conveyance of any part of it, since his imprisonment by his creditors. He must also make oath that he has granted any disposition of his estate before his imprisonment, and consents

to send on the persons to whom, and on the cause of granting it; that the court may judge, whether, by any collusive practice, he has forfeited his claim to liberty.

12. A fraudulent bankrupt is not allowed this privilege; nor a criminal who is liable in any arrestment or indemnification to the party injured or his executors, though the crime itself should be extinguished by a pardon. A disposition granted on a *cessio bonorum* is merely in farther security to the creditors, not in satisfaction or in solution of the debts.

13. Where a prisoner for debt declares upon oath, before the magistrate of the jurisdiction, that he has not wherewith to maintain himself, the magistrate may set him at liberty, if the creditor, in consequence of whose diligence he was imprisoned, does not aliment him within ten days after intimation made for that purpose. But the magistrate may, in such case, detain him in prison, if the creditor chuses to bear the burden of the aliment rather than release him. The statute authorising this release, which is usually called the ACT OF GRACE, is limited to the case of prisoners for civil debts.

14. Decrees are executed against the moveable estate of the debtor by arrestment or poinding; and against his heritable estate, by inhibition, or adjudication. If one be condemned, in a removing or other process, to quit the possession of lands, and refuses, notwithstanding a charge, letters of ejection are granted of course, ordaining the sheriff to eject him, and to enter the obtainer of the decree into possession. Where one opposes by violence the execution of a decree, or of any lawful diligence, which the civil magistrate is not able by himself and his officers to make good, the execution is enforced *manu militari*.

15. A DECREE ARBITRAL, which is a sentence proceeding on a submission to arbiters, has some affinity with a judicial sentence, though in most respects the two differ. A SUBMISSION is a contract entered in by two or more parties who have disputable rights or claims, whereby they refer their differences to the final determination of an arbiter or arbiters, and oblige themselves to acquiesce in what shall be decided. Where the day within which the arbiters are to decide, is left blank in the submission, practice has limited the arbiters power of deciding to a year. As this has proceeded from the ordinary words of style, empowering the arbiters to determine betwixt and the day of next to come; therefore where a submission is indefinite, without specifying any time, like all other contracts or obligations, it subsists for 40 years. Submissions, like mandates, expire by the death of any of the parties submitters before sentence. As arbiters are not vested with jurisdiction, they cannot compel witnesses to make oath before them, or havers of writings to exhibit them; but this defect is supplied by the court of session, who, at the suit of the arbiters, or of either of the parties, will grant warrant for citing witnesses, or for the exhibition of writings. For the same reason, the power of arbiters is barely to decide; the execution of the decree belongs to the judge. Where the submitters consent to the regulation of the decree arbitral,



trial, performance may be enforced by summary diligence.

16. The power of arbiters is wholly derived from the consent of parties. Hence where their powers are limited to a certain day, they cannot pronounce sentence after that day. Nor can they subject parties to a penalty higher than that which they have agreed to in the submission. And where a submission is limited to special claims, sentence pronounced on subjects not specified in the submission is null, as being *ultra vires compromissi*.

17. But, on the other hand, as submissions are designed for a most favourable purpose, the amicable composing of differences, the powers thereby conferred on arbiters receive an ample interpretation. Decrees-arbitral are not reducible upon any ground, except corruption, bribery, or falsehood.

#### SECT. IV. OF CRIMES.

1. THE word CRIME, in its most general sense, includes every breach either of the law of God or of our country; in a more restricted meaning, it signifies such transgressions of law as are punishable by courts of justice. By our law, no private party, except the person injured, or his next of kin, can accuse criminally: but the king's advocate, who in this question represents the community, has a right to prosecute all crimes *in vindictam publicam*, though the party injured should refuse to concur. Smaller offences, as petty riots, injuries, &c. which do not demand the public vengeance, pass generally by the appellation of *delicta*, and are punished either by fine or imprisonment.

2. The essence of a crime is that there be an intention in the actor to commit; for an action in which the will of the agent has no part, is not a proper object either of reward or punishment: hence arises the rule *crimen deli contrahitur*. Simple negligence does not therefore constitute a proper crime. Yet where it is extremely gross, it may be punished arbitrarily. Far less can we reckon in the number of crimes, those committed by an idiot or furious person: but lesser degrees of fatuity, which only darken reason, will not afford a total defence, though they may save from the *pæna ordinaria*. Actions committed in drunkenness are not to be considered as involuntary, seeing the drunkenness itself, which was the last cause of the action, is both voluntary and criminal.

3. On the same principle, such as are in a state of infancy, or in the confines of it, are incapable of a criminal action, dole not being incident to that age; but the precise age at which a person becomes capable of dole, being fixed neither by nature nor by statute, is by our practice to be gathered by the judge, as he best can, from the understanding and manners of the person accused. Where the guilt of a crime arises chiefly from statute, the actor, if he is under puberty, can hardly be found guilty; but, where nature itself points out its deformity, he may, if he is *proximus pubertatis*, be more easily presumed capable of committing it: yet, even in that case, he will not be punished *pæna ordinaria*.

4. One may be guilty of a crime, perpetrating it himself, but being ac crime committed by another; which villain is styled *ope et confilio*, and, in our *art and part*. A person may be guilty, either, 1. By giving advice or counsel to crime; or, 2. By giving warrant or committing it; or, 3. By actually assisting in the execution. It is generally doctors, that, in the more atrocious adviser is equally punishable with the and that, in the slighter, the circumstances from the adviser's lesser age, the joculose manner of giving advice, &c. may as pleas for softening the punishment, gives mandate to commit a crime, as the spring of action, seems more guilty than the person employed as the instrument in executing it; yet the actor cannot excuse himself on the pretence of orders which he ought not to obey.

5. Assistance may be given to the execution of a crime, not only in the actual execution of it, by furnishing him, intentionally, with poison, arms, or the other means of executing it. That sort of assistance which is not given after the criminal act, and which is called *absting*, though it be of itself criminal, does not infer art and part of the principal if one should favour the escape of a criminal, or conceal him from the law.

6. Those crimes that are in their nature most hurtful to society, are punished by death: others escape with a lesser punishment, sometimes fixed by statute, and sometimes left to the discretion of the judge, who may exercise his jurisdiction, either by imprisonment, or a corporal punishment, if the punishment is left, by law, to the discretion of the judge, he can in no case extend it. The fixed extent of the criminal punishment, in all capital trials, though it should not express it.

7. Certain crimes are committed immediately against God himself; others, against a particular person; and a third kind, against particular property. The chief crime in the first class, cognizable in the spiritual courts, is BLASPHEMY, under which is included ATHEISM. This crime consists in denying or vilifying the Deity, by speech or writing; and those who curse God or any of the blessed Trinity, are to suffer death, as a heinous and impious act; and those who deny himself in their denial. The denial of a prophet or of the authority of the holy Scriptures is punishable capitally for the third offence.

8. No prosecution can now be carried against witchcraft or conjuration. But all who are convicted of any of these offences, are to be imprisoned for a year, fixed in the pillory in that year, and hold surety for their behaviour.

9. Some crimes against the state are directed against the supreme power, and constitution itself; others discover a neglect of law, as tends to subvert authority, or a ruin of government. The former, *crimen læse majestatis*, is that crime which is committed against the

ate; and can be committed only by the subjects of that state either by birth

Soon after the union of the two kingdoms, the laws of treason then in force, were made ours by 7 Ann. c. 21. In regard to the facts constituting that crime, the corruption of all the penalties and forfeitures conse-

quences of treason, by the law of England, is the death of the King, Queen-consort, or apparent to the crown; to levy war against the King, or adhere to his enemies; to counterfeit the king's coin, or his great or privy seal; to be the chancellor, treasurer, or any other officer of England, while they are doing so; which last article is by the fore-mentioned act applied to Scotland, in the case of a judge of the session or of justiciary or councillor. Those who wash, clip, or counterfeit the proper money of the realm; who advise by writing or printing, that the Pretender has a right to the crown, that the king is illegitimate, or that cannot limit the succession to it, or correspondence with the Pretender, or who employ him, are also guilty

of proceeding in the trial of treason against peers or commoners, are set off against the crown, published by order of the House of Commons in 1709, subjoined to a collection of laws concerning treason. By the conviction of a traitor, the whole estate of the traitor for-forever. His blood is also corrupted, so that the death of an ancestor, he cannot inherit the estate which he cannot take, falls to the next in line, as escheat, *ab defectum*, without distinguishing whether the lands are the whole, or of a subject. No attainder against a peer, after the death of the Pretender, is hurt the right of any person, or the property of the offender, during his natural life, or of his creditors and other third parties. Forfeiture on treason, must be taken according to the law of England.

**RECEPTION OF TREASON**, from *reprendre*, is the receiving or concealing of treason. It is the king's bare knowledge of the crime, without the assistance of a magistrate or other person, by his office to take examinations; would not in the least degree assist to the execution of the act 7 Ann. makes the English law ours. Its punishment is, by the act, perpetual imprisonment, together with the forfeiture of the offender's moveables, and the forfeiture of his heritable estate, during his life, in the style of our law, his single estate.

**CRIME OF SEDITION**, consists in the raising or disturbances in the state. It may be real. Verbal sedition, or leasing sedition, is the uttering of words calculated to excite discord between the king and the people, and is punished either by imprisonment, or by death, at the discretion of the judge. It is generally committed by convocations, and a considerable number of people, without authority, under the pretence

PART I.

of redressing some public grievance, to the disturbing of the public peace. Those who are convicted of this crime are punished with the confiscation of their goods; and their lives at the king's will. If any persons, to the number of 12, shall assemble, and being required by a magistrate or constable to disperse, shall nevertheless continue together for an hour after such command, the persons disobeying shall suffer death and confiscation of moveables.

14. **JUDGES**, who, wilfully or through corruption, use their authority as a cover to injustice or oppression, are punished with the loss of honour, fame, and dignity. Under this head may be classed *theftbote*, (from *bote*, compensation,) which is the taking a consideration in money or goods from a thief to exempt him from punishment, or connive at his escape from justice. A sheriff, or other judge, guilty of this crime, forfeits his life and goods. And even a private person, who takes *theftbote*, suffers as the principal thief. The buying of disputed claims, concerning which there is a pending process, by any judge or member either of the session or of an inferior court, is punished by the loss of the delinquent's office; and all the privileges thereto belonging.

15. **DETOUR** is the opposition given, or resistance made, to messengers, or other officers, while they are employed in executing the law. The court of session is competent to this crime. It is punishable with the confiscation of moveables, the one half to the king, and the other to the creditor at whose suit the diligence was used. Armed persons, to the number of three or more, assisting in the illegal running, landing, or exporting of prohibited or uncustomed goods, or any who shall resist, wound, or maim any officer of the revenue, in the execution of his office, are punishable with death and the confiscation of moveables.

16. **BREACH OF ARRESTMENT** (see CHAP. II. SECT. XVIII. § 5.) is a crime of the same nature with detourment, as it imports a contempt of the law and of our judges. It subjects to an arbitrary corporal punishment, and the escheat of moveables; with a preference to the creditor for his debt; and for such farther sum as shall be modified to him by the judge. Under this head of crimes against good government and police, may be reckoned the *forestalling of markets*; that is, the buying of goods intended for a public market, before they are carried there; which for the third criminal act infers the escheat of moveables; as also slaying salmon in forbidden time; destroying plough graith in time of tillage, slaying of houghing hories or cows in time of harvest, and destroying or spoiling growing timber; as to the punishment of which, see statutes 1503, c. 72.—1587, c. 82. and 1689, c. 16.—1 *Geo. I. St. 2. c. 48.*

17. Crimes against particular persons may be directed either against life, limb, liberty, chastity, goods, or reputation. **MURDER** is the wilful taking away of a person's life, without a necessary cause. Our law makes no distinction betwixt premeditated and sudden homicide: both are punished capitally. **Casual homicide**, where the actor is in some degree blamable; and **Homicide in self-defence**, where the just bounds of defence have been exceeded; are punished arbitrarily:

I

but

but the slaughter of night thieves, house breakers, assistants in masterful depredations, or rebels denounced for capital crimes, may be committed with impunity. The crime of *dem. mbration*, or the cutting off of a member, is joined with that of murder; but in practice, its punishment has been restricted to the escheat of moveables, and an afflictment or indemnification to the party. **MUTILATION**, or the disabling of a member, is punished at the discretion of the judge.

18. **SELF-MURDER** is as highly criminal as the killing our neighbour; and for this reason, our law has, contrary to the rule, *crimina morte extinguuntur*, allowed a proof of the crime, after the offender's death, that his single escheat might fall to the king or his donatory. To this end, an action must be brought, not before the Justiciary, but the session, because it is only intended *ad civilem effectum*, for proving and declaring the self-murder; and the next of kin to the deceased must be made a party to it.

19. The punishment of **PARRICIDE**, or the murder of a parent, is not confined, by our law, to the criminal himself. All his posterity in the right line are declared incapable of inheriting; and the succession devolves on the next collateral heir. Even the cursing or beating of a parent infers death, if the person guilty be above 16 years; and an arbitrary punishment, if he be under it. A presumptive or statutory murder is constituted by 1690, c. 21. by which any woman who shall conceal her pregnancy, during its whole course, and shall not call for, or make use of, help in the birth, is to be reputed the murderer, if the child be dead, or amissing. This act was intended to discourage the unnatural practice of women making away with their children begotten in fornication, to avoid church censures.

20. **DUELLING**, is the crime of fighting in single combat, on previous challenges given and received. Fighting in a duel, without licence from the king, is punishable by death; and whatever person, principal or second, shall give a challenge to fight a duel, or shall accept a challenge, or otherwise engage therein, is punished by banishment and escheat of moveables, though no actual fighting should ensue.

21. **HAIMSUCKEN** (from *haim* "home," and *sucken* "to seek or pursue") is the assaulting or beating of a person in his own house. The punishment of this crime is nowhere defined, except in the books of the *Majesty*, which make it the same as that of a rape; and it is, like rape, capital by our practice. The assault must be made in the proper house of the person assaulted, where he lies and rises daily and nightly; so that neither a public house, nor even a private, where one is only transiently, falls within the law.

22. Any party to a law-suit, who shall slay, wound, or otherwise invade his adversary, at any period of time between executing the summons and the complete execution of the decree, or shall be accessory to such invasion, shall lose his cause. The sentence pronounced on this trial, against him who has committed the battery, is not subject to reduction, either on the head of minority, or on any other ground whatever: and if the person prosecuted for this crime shall be denounced

for not appearing, his liferent, as well as his escheat, falls upon the denunciation.

23. The crime of *wrongous imprisonment* is inferred, by granting warrants of commitment order to trial, proceeding on informations not subscribed, or without expressing the cause of commitment; by receiving or detaining prisoners on such warrants; by refusing to a prisoner a copy of the warrant of commitment; by detaining him in close confinement, above eight days after his commitment; by not releasing him on bail where the crime is bailable; and by transporting persons out of the kingdom, without either the own consent, or a lawful sentence. The persons guilty of a wrongous imprisonment are punished by a pecuniary mulct, from L. 6000 down to L. 400 *Scots*, according to the rank of the person detained; and the judge, or other person guilty is over and above subjected to pay to the person detained a certain sum *per diem*, proportioned to his rank, and is declared incapable of public trust. All these penalties may be insisted for by a summary action before the session, and are subject to no modification.

24. **ADULTERY** is the crime by which the marriage bed is polluted. This crime could neither by the Roman nor Jewish law be committed, but where the guilty woman was the wife of another by ours, it is adultery, if either the man or woman be married. We distinguish between simple adultery, and that which is notorious or manifest. Open and manifest adulterers, who continue incorrigible, notwithstanding the censures of the church, are punished capitally. This crime is distinguished by one or other of the following characters: where there is issue procreated between the adulterers; or where they keep bed and company together notoriously; or where they give scandal to the church, and are, upon the obstinate refusing to listen to its admonitions, excommunicated. The punishment of simple adultery, not being defined by statute, is left to the discretion of the judge; but custom has made the falling of the single escheat one of its penalties.

25. **BIGAMY** is a person's entering into the engagements of a second marriage, in violation of former marriage-vow still subsisting. Bigamy, on the part of the man, has been tolerated in many states, before the establishment of Christianity, even by the Jews themselves; but it is prohibited by the precepts of the gospel, and it is punished by our law, whether on the part of the man or of the woman, with the pains of perjury.

26. **INCEST** is committed by persons who stand within the degrees of kindred forbidden in Lev. xviii. and is punished capitally. The same degrees are prohibited in affinity, as in consanguinity Lev. xviii. 15. *et seq.* As this crime is repugnant to nature, all children, whether lawful or natural, stand on an equal footing: *civills ratio civilia j: corrumpere potest, non vero naturalia*. It is difficult indeed to bring a legal proof of a relationship merely natural, on the side of the father; but the mother may be certainly known without marriage.

27. There is no explicit statute making rape or the ravishing of women, capital; but it is plainly supposed in act 1612. c. 4. by which the ravisher is exempted from the pains of death,

use of the woman's subsequent consent, a violation that she went off with him of her own will; and even then, he is to suffer the punishment, either by imprisonment, or of goods, or a pecuniary fine.

**FRAUD** is defined, a fraudulent interference with the property of another, with a view of gaining it. Our ancient law proportioned the punishment of the theft to the value of the goods, punishing it gradually, from a slight punishment to a capital, if the value amounted to thirty-two pennies Scots, which in the reign of David I. was the price of two sheep. In later acts, it is taken for granted, that a theft of any value, is taken for granted, that is capital. But where the thing stolen is of less value, we consider it not as theft but as a misdemeanour, which is punished either corporally or by imprisonment. The breaking of orchards, or the cutting of green wood, is punished by a fine, which rises as the crime is repeated.

**RECEIVING** may be aggravated into a capital crime, though the value of the thing stolen be less than if the theft were repeated, or committed by a thief, or by landed men; or of things set apart for sacred uses. The receivers and concealers of stolen goods, knowing them to be such, are punished as thieves. Those who barely harbour the criminal within 48 hours either before or after committing the crime, are punished as accessories of the theft. Such as sell goods to thieves or lawless persons who dare not come to market, are punished with imprisonment and the forfeiture of moveables.

**ROBBERY** attended with violence is called *robbery* in our old statutes, *rief* or *stouthrief*; which class may be included *forning*, or the neat and drink by force, without payment. **STOUTHRIEF** came at last to be committed maliciously, by bands of men associated together, that it was thought necessary to vest all justices with a power of holding courts of assize and trying, and condemning them.

**RAPE**, all were capitally punished, who seized lands from deprecation payed to a yearly contribution, which got the name of **LACK MAIL**. An act also passed, commanding a banishment a band of *forners*, who were brought from *Egypt*, called *gyffes*, and adjudging that all that should be reputed *Egyptians*, if they were taken within the kingdom. Robbery on the seas is called **PIRACY**, and is punished capitally by the high admiral. Several acts which constitute this crime are set out in *8 Geo. I. c. 24*.

**PERJURY**, in a large sense, is the fraud or suppression of truth, to the damage of society. The lives and goods of persons consulting false weights or measures were, by an act in the king's mercy; and their heirs inherit but upon a remission. The law against this crime, punishes it by confinement to the stocks, or imprisonment of moveables. That particular species of perjury, which consists in the falsifying of passes, is called **FORGERY**. Our law has now of a long time, agreeably to the act, made this crime capital; unless the offender be of execrations, or other writings of

smaller moment; in which case, it is punished arbitrarily.

32. The writing must not only be fabricated, but put to use or founded on, in order to infer this crime. And though it be strictly criminal, yet the trial of it is proper to the court of session; but where improbation is moved against a deed by way of exception, the inferior judge, before whom the action lies, is competent to it *ad civilem effectum*. When it is pleaded as an exception, our practice, to discourage affected delays, obliges the defender, who moves it, to consign L. 40 Scots; which he forfeits, if his plea shall appear calumnious.

33. Where a person, found guilty of forgery by the court of session, is by them remitted to the justiciary, an indictment is there exhibited against him, and a jury sworn, before whom the decree of session is produced, in place of all other evidence of the crime, in respect of which the jury find the pannel guilty; so that decree being pronounced by a competent court, is held as full proof, or, in the style of the bar, as *probatio probata*.

34. **PERJURY**, which is the judicial affirmation of a falsehood on oath, really constitutes the *crimen falsi*; for he who is guilty of it does, in the most solemn manner, substitute falsehood in the place of truth. To constitute this crime, the violation of truth must be deliberately intended by the swearer; and therefore reasonable allowances ought to be given to forgetfulness or misapprehension, according to his age, health, and other circumstances. The breach of a promissory oath, does not infer this crime; for he who promises on oath, may sincerely intend performance when he swears, and so cannot be said to call on God to attest a falsehood. Though an oath, however false, if made upon reference in a civil question, concludes the cause, the person perjured is liable to a criminal trial; for the effect of the reference can go no further than the private right of the parties.

35. Notwithstanding the mischievous consequences of perjury to society, it is not punished capitally, but by confiscation of moveables, imprisonment for a year, and infamy. The court of session is competent to perjury *incidenter*, when, in any examination upon oath, taken in a cause depending before them, a person appears to have sworn falsely; but in the common case, that trial is proper to the justiciary. **SUBORNATION of perjury** consists in tampering with persons who are to swear in judgment, by directing them how they are to depose; and it is punished with the pains of perjury.

36. The crime of **STELLIONATE**, from *stellio*, includes every fraud which is not distinguished by a special name; but is chiefly applied to conveyances of the same numerical right, granted by the proprietor to different disponees. The punishment of stellionate must necessarily be arbitrary, to adapt it to the various natures and different aggravations of the fraudulent acts. The persons guilty of that kind of it, which consists in granting double conveyances, are by our law declared infamous, and their lives and goods at the king's mercy. The cognizance of *fraudulent bankruptcies*

is appropriated to the court of session, who may inflict any punishment on the offender that appears proportioned to his guilt, death excepted.

37. The crime of *USURY*, before the reformation, consisted in the taking of *any* interest for the use of money; and now in taking a higher rate of interest than is authorised by law. It is divided into *usurus manifestus*, or direct; and *velatus*, or covered. One may be guilty of the first kind, either where he covenants with the debtor for more than the lawful interest on the loan-money: or where one receives the interest of a sum before it is due, since thereby he takes a consideration for the use of money before the debtor has really got the use of it. Where a debt is clogged with an uncertain condition, by which the creditor runs the hazard of losing his sum, he may covenant for an higher interest than the legal, without the crime of usury; for there, the interest is not given merely in consideration of the use of the money, but of the danger undertaken by the creditor.

38. Covered usury, is that which is committed under the mask not of a loan but of some other contract; *e. g.* a sale or an improper wadset. And in general, all obligations entered into with an intention of getting more than the legal interest for the use of money, however they may be disguised, are usurious. As a farther guard against this crime, the taking more than the legal interest for the forbearance of payment of money, merchandise, or other commodities, by way of loan, exchange, or other contrivance whatever; or the taking a bribe for the loan of money, or for delaying its payment when lent, is declared usury. Where usury is proved, the usurious obligation is not only declared void, but the creditor, if he has received any unlawful profits, forfeits the treble value of the sums or goods lent. Usury, when it is to be pursued criminally, must be tried by the justiciary; but where the libel concludes only for voiding the debt, or restitution, the session is the proper court.

39. *INJURY*, in its proper acceptation, is the reproaching or affronting our neighbour. Injuries are either verbal or real. A verbal injury, when directed against a private person, consists in the uttering contumelious words, which tend to expose our neighbour's character by making him little or ridiculous. It does not seem that the twitting one with natural defects, without any sarcastical reflections, though it be inhuman, falls under this description, as these imply no real reproach in the just opinion of mankind. Where the injurious expressions have a tendency to blacken one's moral character, or fix some particular guilt upon him, and are deliberately repeated in different companies, or handed about in whispers to confidants, it then grows up to the crime of slander: and where a person's moral character is thus attacked, the *animus injuriandi* is commonly inferred from the injurious words themselves, unless special circumstances be offered to take off the presumption, *ex. gr.* that the words were uttered in judgment in one's own defence, or by way of information to a magistrate, and had some foundation in fact. Though the cognizance of slander is proper to the commissaries, who, as the *judices de scandalis*, are the only judges of scandal; yet,

for some time past, bare verbal injuries are tried by other criminal judges, and a session. It is punished either by a fine conditioned to the condition of the person and injured, and the circumstances of place; or if the injury import scandal, by acknowledging the offence; and frequently two are conjoined. The calling one is not, in strict speech, a verbal injury not affect the person's moral character it may hurt his credit in the way of it founds him in an action of damages, may be brought before the judge ordinary. Injury is inflicted by any fact by which honour or dignity is affected; as striking a cane, or even aiming a blow without spitting in one's face; assuming a colour or any other mark of distinction proper &c. The composing and publishing libels may be reckoned of this kind. They are tried by the judge ordinary, and either by fine or imprisonment, according to the merit of the offenders.

#### SECT. V. Of CRIMINAL JURISDICTION of TRIAL, and the EXTINCTION of

1. Criminal jurisdiction is founded, *domicilii*, if the defender dwells within the territory of the judge. Vagabonds, who have no certain *domicile*, may be tried wherever they are apprehended. 2. *Ratione delicti*, if the crime is committed within the territory. By an act now expired, treason committed in the Scots counties, was made triable by the justiciary, wherever it should fit.

2. No criminal trial can proceed, if the person accused is capable of making his defence. Absents therefore cannot be tried; nor furious persons, *durante furore*, even if the crime is committed while they were in their senses. Our practice considers every person who is capable of doing, to be also sufficiently qualified for making his defence in a criminal trial.

3. No person can be imprisoned, or stand trial for any crime, without a writing expressing the cause, and procured by a subscribed information, unless in the cases of dignities done to judges, riots, and offences specially mentioned in act 1701, c. 6. A person committed for trial, if the crime he is accused he not capital, is entitled to be released upon bail, the extent of which is fixed by the judge, not exceeding 1000 Scots for a nobleman, 6000 for a landman, 2000 for every other gentleman, and 600 for any other inferior person. In the option of the judge, 60 l. sterling. They who, either from the nature of the crime, or from which they are charged, or from their inability to procure bail, may not be released in prison untried, it is lawful for every person to apply to the criminal judge, that the trial may be brought on. The judge must issue writs for messengers, for intimating to the prisoner a diet for the criminal trial, within a certain time after the intimation, under the pain of imprisonment: And if the prosecutor

if within that time, or if the trial is not finished 40 days more when carried on before the Justiciary, or in 30 when before any other judge; the prisoner is, upon a 2d application, setting forth that the legal time is elapsed, entitled to his freedom, under the same penalty.

4. Upon one's committing any of the grosser crimes, it is usual for a justice of the peace, sheriff, or other judge, to take a precognition of the facts, *i. e.* to examine those who were present at the criminal act, upon the special circumstances attending it, in order to know whether there is ground for a trial, and to serve as a direction to the prosecutor, how to set forth the facts in the libel; but the persons examined may insist to have their declarations cancelled before they give testimony at the trial. Justices of the peace, sheriffs, and magistrates of boroughs, are also authorised to receive informations, concerning crimes to be tried in the circuit courts; which informations are to be transmitted to the justice-clerk 40 days before the sitting of the respective courts. To discourage groundless criminal trials, all prosecutors, where the defender was absolved, were condemned by statute, in costs, as they should be notified by the judge, and besides were subjected to a small fine, to be divided between the sic and the defender: And where the king's advocate was the only pursuer, his informer was made liable. This sufficiently warrants the present practice of condemning vexatious prosecutors in a pecuniary mulct, though far exceeding the statutory sum.

5. The forms of trial upon criminal accusations differ much from those observed in civil actions, if we except the case of such crimes as the court of session is competent to, and of lesser offences tried before inferior courts. The trial of crimes proceeds either upon indictment, which is sometimes used when the person to be tried is in prison; or by criminal letters issuing from the signet of the justiciary. In either case, the defender must be served with a full copy of the indictment or letters, and with a list of the witnesses to be brought against him, and of the persons who are to pass on the inquest, and 15 free days must intervene between his being so served and the day of appearance. When the trial proceeds upon criminal letters, the private prosecutor must give security, at raising the letters, that he will report them duly executed to the justiciary in the terms of 1535, c. 35.; and the defender, if he be not already in prison, is, by the letters, required to give caution, within a certain number of days after his citation, for his appearance upon the day fixed for his trial: and if he gives none within the days of the charge, he may be denounced rebel, which entails the forfeiture of his moveables.

6 That part of the indictment, or of the criminal letters, which contains the ground of the charge against the defender, and the nature or degree of the punishment he ought to suffer, is called the *libel*. All libels must be special, setting forth the particular facts inferring the guilt, and the particular place where these facts were done. The time of committing the crime may be libelled in general terms, with an alternative as to the

month, or day of the month: but as it is not practicable, in most cases, to libel upon the precise circumstances of accession that may appear in proof, libels against accessories are sufficient, if they mention, in general, that the persons prosecuted are guilty art and part.

7. The defender in a criminal trial may raise letters of exculpation, for citing witnesses in proof of his defences against the libel, or of his objections against any of the jury or witnesses; which must be executed to the same day of appearance with that of the indictment or criminal letters.

8. The *DIETS* of appearance, in the court of justiciary are peremptory: the criminal letters must be called on the very day to which the defender is cited; and hence, if no accuser appears, their effect is lost *instantia perit*, and new letters must be raised. If the libel, or any of the executions, shall to the prosecutor appear informal, or if he be dissident of the proof, from the absconding of a necessary witness, the court will, upon a motion made by him, desert the diet *pro loco et tempore*; after which new letters become also necessary. A defender, who does not appear on the very day to which he is cited, is declared fugitive; in consequence of which, his single escheat falls. The defender, after his appearance in court, is called the *PANNEL*.

9. The two things to be chiefly regarded in a criminal libel, are, 1. The relevancy of the facts, *i. e.* their sufficiency to infer the conclusion; 2. Their truth. The consideration of the first belongs to the judge of the court; that of the other to the jury of assize. If the facts libelled be found irrelevant, the pannel is dismissed from the bar; if relevant, the court remits the proof thereof to be determined by the jury; which must consist of 15 men picked out by the court from a greater number not exceeding 45, who have been all summoned, and given in list to the defender at serving him with a copy of the libel.

10. Crimes cannot, like debts, be referred to the defender's oath; for no person is compellable to swear against himself, where his life, limb, liberty, or estate is concerned, nor even in crimes which infer infamy; because one's good name is, in right estimation, as valuable as his life. There is one exception however to this rule in trying the crime of usury, which may be proved by the usurer's own oath, notwithstanding the rule, *Nemo tenetur jurare in suam turpitudinem*. Crimes therefore are in the general case proveable only by the defender's free confession, or by writing, or by witnesses. No extrajudicial confession, unless it is adhered to by the pannel in judgment can be admitted as evidence.

11. All objections relevant against a witness in civil cases are also relevant in criminal. No witness is admitted, who may gain or lose by the event of the trial. *Socii criminis*, or associates in the same crime, are not admitted against one another, except either in crimes against the state, as treason; in occult crimes, where other witnesses cannot be had, as forgery; or in thefts or depredations committed in the Highlands. The testimony of the private party injured may be received against the pannel, where the king's advocate

is the only prosecutor, if from the nature of the crime, there must needs be a penury of witnesses, as in rape, robbery, &c.

12. After all the witnesses have been examined in court, the JURY are shut up in a room by themselves, where they must continue excluded from all correspondence, till their verdict or judgment be subscribed by the (foreman or chancellor) and clerk; and according to this verdict the court pronounces sentence, either absolving or condemning. It is not necessary, by the law of Scotland, that a jury should be unanimous in finding a person guilty; the narrowest majority is as sufficient against the pannel, as for him. Juries cannot be punished on account of an erroneous verdict, either for or against the pannel.

13. Though the proper business of a jury be to inquire into the truth of the facts found relevant by the court, for which reason they are sometimes called the *inquisi*; yet, in many cases, they judge also in matters of law or relevancy. Thus, though an objection against a witness should be repelled by the court, the jury are under no necessity to give more credit to his testimony than they think just: and in all trials of art and part, where special facts are not libelled, the jury, if they return a general verdict, are indeed judges not only of the truth, but of the relevancy of the facts that are sworn to by the witnesses. A general verdict, is that which finds in general terms, that the pannel is *guilty* or not *guilty*, or that the libel or defences are *proved* or not *proved*. In a special verdict, the jury finds certain facts proved, the import of which is to be afterwards considered by the court.

14. Criminal judges must now suspend for some time the execution of such sentences as affect life or limb, that so condemned criminals, whose cases deserve favour may have access to apply to the king for mercy. No sentence of any court of judicature S. of the river Forth, importing either death or demembration, can be executed in less than 30 days; and, if N. of it, in less than 40 days, after the date of the sentence. But corporal punishments, less than death or dismembring, e. g. whipping, pillory, &c. may be inflicted 8 days after sentence on this side Forth and 12 days after sentence beyond it.

15. Crimes are extinguished, 1. By the death of the criminal: both because a dead person can make no defence, so that his trial is truly a judging upon the hearing of one side; and because, though his guilt should be ever so notorious, he is after death carried beyond the reach of human penalties: such trials therefore can have no effect, but to punish the innocent heir, contrary to that most equitable rule, *Culpa tenet suos auctores*. 2. Crimes may be extinguished by a remission from the sovereign. But a remission, though it secures

the delinquent from the public resentment, the exercise of which belongs to the crown, cannot cut off the party injured from his claim of damages, over which the crown has no prerogative. Whoever therefore founds on a remission, is liable to damages, to the private prosecutor, in the same manner as if he had been tried and found guilty. Even general acts of indemnity passed in parliament, though they secure against such penalties as law inflicts upon the criminal merely *per modum pene*, yet do not against the payment of any pecuniary fine is that given by statute to the party injured, nor against the demand of any claim, competent to him in name of damages.

16. Lesser injuries, which cannot be properly said to affect the public peace may be extinguished, either by the private party's expressly forgiving him or by his being reconciled to the offender, after receiving the injury. Hence arises the rule *Diffimulatione tollitur injuria*. But where the offence is of a higher nature, the party injured though he may pass from the prosecution, in so far as his private interest is concerned, cannot preclude the king's advocate, or procurator *filice* from insisting *ad vindictam publicam*.

17. Crimes are also extinguished by prescription which operates by the mere lapse of time, without any act either of the sovereign or of the private sufferer. Crimes prescribe in 20 years; but in particular crimes, the preception is limited by statute to a shorter time. No person can be prosecuted upon the act against wrongous imprisonment, after three years. High treason, committed within his majesty's dominions, suffers likewise a triennial preception, if indictment be not found against the traitor within that time. All actions brought up on any penal statute made or to be made where the penalty is appropriated to the crown, expire in two years after committing the offence; and where the penalty goes to the crown or other prosecutor, the prosecutor must sue within one year and the crown within two years after the year ended. Certain crimes are, without the aid of any statute, extinguished by a shorter prescription than 20 years. By our old law, in the cases of rape, robbery, and hamefucken, the party injured was not heard after a silence of 24 hours; from a presumption, that persons could not be so grossly injured, without immediate complaining: And it is probable, that a prosecution for these crimes, if delayed for any considerable time, would be cut even at this day, or at least the punishment restricted. Lesser injuries suffer also a short prescription by law *presuming* forgiveness, from the nature of the offence, and the silence of the party. The particular space of time sufficient to establish this presumption must be determined by the judge, according to circumstances.

## L A W

(s.) \*LAW. n. f. [*laga*, Sax. *loi*, Fr. *lawg*, Erse.] 1. A rule of action.—That which doth assign unto each thing the kind, the same we term a *law*. *Hooker*.—

## L A W

Unhappy man to break the pious *laws*  
Of nature, pleading in his children's cause. *Dry*  
2. A decree, edict, statute, or custom, publickly established as a rule of justice.—

*Ordi*

them *laus*, part such as appertain  
 office, part religious rites. *Milton*.  
 n would not give *laus* to the Irish,  
 w the Irish, gave *laus* to them.  
 A decree authoritatively annexing re-  
 nishments to certain actions.—  
 y *laus* argue so many sins. *Milton*.  
 tique among men presuming man to  
 - *Hooker*. 4. Judicial process.—  
 very case in *law* is right. *Sbak*.

He hath resisted *law*,  
 fore *law* shall scorn him further trial.

*Sbak*.  
 chy is a fellow famous for taking the  
 body. *Spectator*. 5. A distinct edict  
 e *law* is split into two. *Baker on Learn-*  
 formity to law; any thing lawful.—  
 at's not meet, but what must be,  
 w,  
 e they chosen.

*Sbak. Cor*.  
 or axioms of science; as, the *laus*  
 ks. 8. An established and constant  
 eefs; a fixed correspondence of cause  
 is, the *laus* of magnetism.—  
 gents have their *law*. *Hooker*.

whilst in the womb he stay'd,  
 Nature's *law*. *Sbak. Cymb*.  
 alcal institution: distinguished from

a discover sin, but not remove. *Milton*.  
 ks in which the Jewish religion is  
 istinguished from the *prophets*. 11.  
 form or mode of trying and judging;  
 tial, *law* mercantile: the ecclesiasti-  
 rebv we are governed. 12. Jurispru-  
 study of law: as, a doctor of *law*.

is also used in many places of Scot-  
 ill or mountain; the courts of law  
 anciently held on these eminences.  
 CK, N° 11; DUNDEE, § 3; LAR-  
 NORMAN'S LAW, &c.

, CANON. See CANON, § IX; and  
 I.

CIVIL. See CIVIL, § 4, and LAW.

LANGUAGE, OR LAW LATIN. In  
 law proceedings were formerly writ-  
 d all public proceedings were in Nor-  
 French, and even the arguments of  
 and decisions of the the court were in  
 arbarous dialect. An evident and  
 dge, it must be owned, of tyranny  
 servitude; being introduced under the  
 William the Norman, and his sons:  
 observation of the Roman satyrst was  
 erified, that *Gallia caesulicos docuit fa-*  
*mos*. This continued till the reign of  
 ; who, having employed his arms  
 in subduing the crown of France,  
 nbeceiving the dignity of the victors  
 nger the language of a vanquished  
 by a statute, therefore, passed in the  
 his reign, it was enacted, that for the  
 eas should be pleaded, shown, defend-  
 ed debated and judged, in the English  
 : be entered, and enrolled in Latin: In  
 as Alfonso X. king of Castile (the great-  
 Edward III.) obliged his subjects  
 Castilian tongue in all legal proceed-

ings; and as, in 1286, the German language was  
 established in the courts of empire. And perhaps,  
 if the legislature had then directed that the writs  
 themselves, which are mandates from the king to  
 his subject, to perform certain acts, or to appear  
 at certain places, should have been framed in the  
 English language, according to the ancient law; it  
 would not have been improper. But the record  
 or enrolment of those writs and the proceedings  
 thereon, which was calculated for the benefit of  
 posterity, was more serviceable (because more du-  
 rable) in a dead and immutable language than in a-  
 ny mutable, or living, one. The practisers, how-  
 ever, being used to the Norman language, and  
 therefore imagining they could express their  
 thoughts more aptly and more concisely in that  
 than in any other, still continued to take their notes  
 in law French; and of course, when those notes  
 came to be published, under the denomination of  
*reports*, they were printed in that barbarous dia-  
 lect; which, joined to the additional terrors of a  
 Gothic black letter, has occasioned many a stu-  
 dent to throw away his Plowden and Littleton,  
 without venturing upon a page of them. And  
 yet in reality, upon a nearer acquaintance, they  
 would have found nothing very formidable in  
 the language; which differs in its grammar and  
 orthography as much from the modern French,  
 as the diction of Chaucer and Gower does from  
 that of Addison and Pope. Besides, as the Eng-  
 lish and Norman languages were concurrently u-  
 sed by the people of England for several centuries  
 together, the two idioms have naturally assimila-  
 ted, and mutually borrowed from each other:  
 for which reason the grammatical construction  
 of each is so very much the same, that an English-  
 man (with a week's preparation) would under-  
 stand the laws of Normandy, collected in their  
*grand coutumier*, as well, if not better, than a  
 Frenchman bred within the walls of Paris. The  
 Latin, which succeeded the French for the entry  
 and enrolment of pleas, during the reign of Ed-  
 ward III. and which continued in use for four  
 centuries, answers so nearly to the English (often-  
 times word for word) that it is not at all surpri-  
 sing it should generally be imagined to be totally  
 fabricated at home, with little more art or trou-  
 ble than by adding Roman terminations to Eng-  
 lish words. Whereas in reality it is a very uni-  
 versal dialect, spread throughout all Europe at the  
 irruption of the northern nations; and particular-  
 ly accommodated and moulded to answer all the  
 purposes of the lawyers with a peculiar exactness  
 and precision. This is principally owing to the  
 simplicity, or (if the reader please) the poverty  
 and baldness of its texture, calculated to express  
 the ideas of mankind just as they arise in the hu-  
 man mind, without any rhetorical flourishes, or  
 perplexed ornaments of style: for it may be ob-  
 served, that those laws and ordinances, of public  
 as well as private communities, are generally the  
 most easily understood, where strength and per-  
 spicuity, not harmony or elegance of expression,  
 have been principally consulted in compiling them.  
 These northern nations, or rather their legislators,  
 though they have resolved to make use of the Latin  
 tongue in promulging their laws, as being more  
 durable, and more generally known to their con-  
 quered



quered subject, than their Teutonic dialects, yet (either through choice or necessity) frequently intermixed therein some words of a Gothic original; which is, more or less, the case in every country of Europe, and therefore not to be imputed as any peculiar blemish in our English legal latinity. The truth is, what is generally denominated *law Latin* is in reality a mere technical language, calculated for eternal duration, and easy to be apprehended both in present and future times; and on those accounts best suited to preserve those memorials which are intended for perpetual rules of action. As to the objection of locking up the law in a strange and unknown tongue, this is of little weight with regard to records; which few have occasion to read, but such as do or ought to understand the rudiments of Latin. And besides, it may be observed of the law Latin, as the very ingenious Sir John Davis observes of the law French, "that it is so very easy to be learned, that the meanest wit that ever came to the study of the law doth come to understand it almost perfectly in ten days without a reader." It is true, indeed, that the many terms of art, with which the law abounds, are sufficiently harsh when Latinized, (yet not more so than those of other sciences,) and may, as Mr Selden observes, give offence "to some grammarians of squeamish stomachs, who would rather choose to live in ignorance of things the most useful and important, than to have their delicate ears wounded by the use of a word unknown to Cicero, Sallust, or the other writers of the Augustan age." Yet this is no more than must unavoidably happen, when things of modern use, of which the Romans had no idea, and consequently no phrases to express them, come to be delivered in the Latin tongue. It would puzzle the most classical scholar to find an appellation, in his pure Latinity, for a constable, a record, or a deed of feoffment: it is therefore to be imputed as much to necessity as ignorance, that they were styled in our forensic dialect, *constabularius, recordum, and seoffamentum*. Thus again, another uncouth word of our ancient laws (for I defend not the ridiculous barbarisms sometimes introduced by the ignorance of modern practisers), the substantive *murdrum*, or the verb *murdrare*, however harsh and unclassical it may seem, was necessarily framed to express a particular offence; since no Latin word in being, *occidere, interficere, necare*, or the like, was sufficient to express the intention of the criminal, or *quo animo* the act was perpetrated; and therefore by no means came up to the notion of murder at present entertained by law; viz. a killing *with malicious aforethought*. A similar necessity produced a similar effect at Byzantium, when the Roman laws were turned into Greek for the use of the oriental empire: for, without any regard to Attic elegance, the lawyers of the imperial courts made no scruple to translate *judici commissarius, δίκην κομισσαριος; cubiculum, κούβουλον; filium familiæ, παισιον οἰκειας; repudium, εἰρηλιον; compromissum, ἀποπρομίσσειον; reverentia et obsequium, εὐσεβεια και σεβασμιον*; and the like. They studied more the exact and precise import of the words, than the neatness and delicacy of their cadence. And it may be suggested, that the terms of the law are not more numerous, more uncouth, or

more difficult to be explained by a teacher, than those of logic, physics, and the whole circle of Aristotle's philosophy; nay, even of the polite arts of architecture and its kindred studies, or the science of rhetoric itself. Sir Thomas More's famous legal question contains in it nothing more difficult, than the definition in which in his time the philosophers currently, gave of their *materia prima*, the groundwork of all natural knowledge; that it *neque quid, neque quantum, neque quale, neque aliquorum quibus ens determinatur*; or its subsequent explanation by Adrian Heereboard, who assures us that *materia prima non est corpus neque per formam corporitatis, neque per simplicem essentiam: est tamen ens, et quidem substantia, licet incompleta; habetque nomen ex se entitativum, et simul est potentia subiectiva*. The law, therefore, with regard to its technical phrases, stands upon the same footing with other studies, and requests only the same indulgence. This technical Latin continued in use from the time of its first introduction, till the subversion of our ancient constitution under Cromwell; when among many other innovations in the law, some for the better and some for the worse, the language of our records was altered and turned into English. But, at the restoration of king Charles this novelty was no longer countenanced: the practisers finding it very difficult to express themselves so concisely or significantly in any other language but the Latin. And thus it continued without any sensible inconvenience till about the year 1750, when it was again thought proper that the proceedings at law should be done into English, and it was accordingly so ordered by statute 1 Geo. II. c. 26. This was done, in order that the common people might have knowledge and understanding of what was alleged or done for and against them, in the process and pleadings, the judgement and entries in cause: Which purpose it is doubtful how well it was answered; but there is reason to suspect, that the people are now, after many years experience, as ignorant in matters of laws as before. On the other hand, these inconveniences have already arisen from the alteration; that now many clerks and attorneys are hardly able to read, much less to understand, a record even of so modern a date as the reign of George I. And it has much enhanced the expense of all legal proceeding: for since the practisers are confined (for the sake of the stamp-duties, which are thereby considerably increased) to write only a stated number of words in a sheet; and as the English language, through the multitude of its particles, is much more verbose than the Latin, it follows, that the number of sheets must be very much augmented by the change. The translation also of technical phrases, and the names of writs and other process, were found to be so very ridiculous (a writ of *nisi prius, quare impedit, fieri facias, habeas corpus*, and the rest, not being capable of an English dress with any degree of seriousness), that in two years time a new act was obliged to be made, 6 Geo. II. c. 14. which allows all technical words to continue in the usual language and has thereby defeated every purpose of the former statute.

(6.) LAW. MILITARY. See MILITARY, and MARINE.

**W, MUNICIPAL.** See **LAW, Part I, Sect. I.**  
**WS, BREHON.** See **BREHONICÆ LEGES.**  
**WS, MARITIME.** The most ancient sy-  
 laritime laws is that of Rhodes, which  
 ce during the time of the Grecian em-  
 afterwards incorporated into the Roman  
 hough, in some parts, not applicable to  
 it state of trade, and, in others, now  
 telligible, it contains the groundwork  
 ft equitable and beneficial rules observed  
 commerce. A like system was set forth  
 d I. of England, called the *Statutes of*  
 nd another, by the town of Wisby, in  
 of Gothland. From these systems, im-  
 nd enlarged in the course of time, our  
 aritime law is derived. The jurisdiction  
 purely maritime belongs, in Britain, to  
 of admiralty, which proceeds on the  
 ; but their proceedings are subject to  
 ul, and their decisions to the review, of  
 or courts. We shall here consider the  
 s which subsist between the masters of  
 ships, the freighters, and the furnishers  
 ions or repairs. **I. Between MASTERS**  
**CHARTERS.** A charter party is a contract  
 the master and freighters, in which the  
 voyage is described, and the time and  
 as of performing it are ascertained. The  
 most frequently determined for the whole  
 without respect to time. Sometimes it  
 on the time. In the former case, it is e-  
 d at a certain sum for the whole cargo;  
 ch per ton, barrel-bulk, or other weight  
 re; or so much per cent on the value of  
 . This last is common on goods sent to  
 ; and the invoices are produced to ascer-  
 alue. The burden of the ship is men-  
 tioned in the contract, in this manner,  
*and tons, or thereby*; and the number men-  
 ght not to differ above 5 tons, at most,  
 exact measure. If a certain sum be a-  
 for the freight of the ship, it must all be  
 ough the ship, when measured, should  
 , unless the burden be *quarantied*. If  
 be freighted for transporting cattle, or  
 so much a head, and some of them die  
 stage, freight is only due for such as are  
 alive; but, if for *lading* them, it is due  
 as were put on board. When a whole  
 ighted, if the master suffers any other  
 ides those of the freighter to be put on  
 is liable for damages. It is common to  
 the number of days that the ship shall  
 at each port to load or unload. The  
 used is, *work weather days*; to signify,  
 lays, holidays, and days when the wea-  
 the work, are not reckoned. If the  
 tained longer, a daily allowance is often  
 h, in name of **DEMURRAGE**. If the voy-  
 mpleted in terms of the agreement, with-  
 fortune, the master has a right to de-  
 yment of the freight before he delivers  
 . But if the safe delivery be prevented  
 ult or accident, the parties are liable,  
 g to the following rules. If the merchant  
 on the ship within the time agreed on,  
 may engage with another, and recover  
 . If the merchant load the ship, and *re-cal*  
**XIII. PART I.**

it after it has set sail, he must pay the whole  
 freight; but if he unload it before it sets sail, he  
 is liable for damages only. If a merchant loads  
 goods which is not lawful to export, and the ship  
 be prevented from proceeding on that account, he  
 must pay the freight notwithstanding. If the  
 shipmaster be not ready to proceed on the voyage  
 at the time agreed on, the merchant may load the  
 whole, or part of the cargo, on board another  
 ship, and recover damages; but chance, or noto-  
 rious accident, by the marine law, releases the  
 master from damages. If an embargo be laid on  
 the ship before it sails, the charter-party is dissol-  
 ved, and the merchant pays the expence of load-  
 ing and unloading; but if the embargo be only  
 for a short limited time, the voyage shall be per-  
 formed when it expires, and neither party is liable  
 for damages. If the shipmaster sails to any other  
 port than that agreed on, without necessity, he is  
 liable for damages; if through necessity, he must  
 sail to the port agreed on at his own expence. If  
 a ship be taken by the enemy, and retaken or ran-  
 somed, the charter-party continues in force. If  
 the master transfer the goods from his own ship  
 to another, without necessity, and they perish, he  
 is liable for the value; but if his own ship be in  
 imminent danger, the goods may be put on board  
 another ship at the risk of the owner. If a ship  
 be freighted out and home, and a sum agreed on  
 for the whole voyage, nothing is due till it return;  
 and the whole is lost if the ship be lost on the re-  
 turn. If a certain sum be specified for the home-  
 ward voyage, it is due, although the factor a-  
 broad should have no goods to send home. In  
 the case of a ship freighted to Madeira, Carolina,  
 and home, a particular freight fixed for the home-  
 ward voyage, and an option reserved for the fac-  
 tor at Carolina to decline it, unless the ship ar-  
 rived before 1st March: the shipmaster, foreseeing  
 he could not arrive there within that time, and  
 might be disappointed of a freight, did not go  
 there at all. He was found liable in damages, as  
 the obligation was absolute on his part, and con-  
 ditional only on the other. If the goods be da-  
 maged without fault of the ship or master, the  
 owner is not obliged to receive them: and pay  
 freight, but he must either receive the whole, or  
 abandon the whole; he cannot choose those that  
 are in best order, and reject the others. If the  
 goods be damaged through the insufficiency of  
 the ship, the master is liable; but, if it be owing  
 to stress of weather, he is not accountable. It is  
 customary for shipmasters, when they suspect da-  
 mage, to take a *protest against wind and weather*  
 at their arrival. But as this is the declaration of  
 a party, it does not bear credit, unless supported  
 by collateral circumstances. If part of the goods  
 be thrown over-board, or taken by the enemy,  
 the part delivered pays freight. The shipmaster  
 is accountable for all the goods received on board,  
 by himself or mariners, unless they perish by the  
 act of God, or of the king's enemies. Shipmas-  
 ters are not liable for leakage on liquors; nor ac-  
 countable for the contents of packages, unless  
 packed and delivered in their presence. Upon a  
 principle of equity, that the labourer is worthy of  
 his hire, differences arising with regard to freight,  
 when the case is doubtful, ought rather to be de-

terminated in favour of the shipmaster. II. *SHIP and OWNERS with CREDITORS.* When debts are contracted for provisions or repairs to a ship, or arise from a failure in any of the above mentioned obligations, the ship and tackle, and the owners, are liable for the debt, as well as the master. By the mercantile law, the owners are liable in all cases, without limitation; but by statute, they are not liable for embezzlement beyond their value of ship, tackle, and freight. A shipmaster may pledge his ship for necessary repairs during a voyage; and this hypothecation is implied by the maritime law, when such debts are contracted. This regulation is necessary, and is therefore adopted by all commercial nations; for, otherwise, the master might not find credit for necessary repairs, and the ship might be lost. If repairs be made at different places, the last are preferable. The relief against the ship is competent to the court of admiralty in England, only when repairs are furnished during the course of a voyage; for the necessity of the case extends no further. If a ship be repaired at home, (e. g. upon the Tay or Thames,) the creditor is only entitled to relief at common law. The creditor may sue either the masters or owners; but if he undertook the work on the special promise of the one, the other is not liable. If the master buys provisions on credit, the owners are liable for the debt, though they have given him money to pay them. If a ship be mortgaged, and afterwards lost at sea, the owners must pay the debt; for the mortgage is, only an additional security, though there be no express words to that purpose in the covenant. If a ship be taken by the enemy, and ransomed, the owners are liable to pay the ransom, though the ransomer die in the hands of the captors. III. *OWNERS of SHIP and CARGO with each other.* There is a mutual obligation which subsists between all the owners of a ship and cargo. In time of danger, it is often necessary to incur a certain loss of part for the greater security of the rest; to cut a cable; to lighten the ship, by throwing part of the goods overboard; to run it ashore; or the like: and as it is unreasonable that the owners of what is exposed for the common safety should bear the whole loss, it is defrayed by an equal contribution among the proprietors of the ship, cargo, and freight. This is the famous *LEX RHODIA de jactu*, and is now called a *general average*. The custom of valuing goods which contribute to a general average, is not uniform in all places. They are generally valued at the price they yield at the port of destination, charges deducted; and goods thrown overboard are valued at the price they would have yielded there. Sailors wages, cloaths and money belonging to passengers, and goods belonging to the king, pay no general average; but proprietors of gold and silver, in case of goods being thrown overboard, contribute to the full extent of their interest. The following particulars are charged as general average: Damage sustained in an engagement with the enemy; attendance on the wounded, and rewards given for service in time of danger, or gratuities to the widows or children of the slain; ransom; goods given to the enemy in the nature of ransom; charges of bringing the ship to a place of safety when in danger

from the enemy, or waiting for convoy of quarantine; goods thrown overboard or rigging cut; holes cut in the ship; water; pilotage, when a lake is sprung when voluntarily run aground, and bringing it afloat; goods lost by being wrecked; the long boat lost in lightening the ship; hire of cables and anchors; loss of goods lying in ballast, victualling, and gear when detained; charges at law, in respect of ship and cargo; interest and committals these debursments. Though goods on a lighter, and lost; are charged as a general average; yet if the lighter be saved, and the rest of the goods be lost, the goods on the lighter belong to their respective proprietors, and are not being liable to any contribution. If the goods be plundered by a pirate, the ship or shipmaster is not entitled to any contribution. The essential circumstances that constitute general average are these; the loss must be a voluntary action; and the object of the sacrifice must be the common safety of the whole.

which is allowed, seems to fall within the scope of the law. For other maritime laws, see II. *INSURANCE*, § II; *QUARANTINE*; I. (10.) *LAWs, MERCANTILE.* The law of commercial and maritime affairs is nearer to uniformity through the districts of Europe, than those on other continents. Some of the fundamental regulations taken from the Roman law; others suggested by experience, during the progress of commerce; and the whole have been reduced to a system, and adopted into the laws of trading nations, with some local exceptions. The British legislature has enacted many statutes respecting commerce, and a greater part of our mercantile law is derived from the decisions of our courts, founded on the custom of merchants of such custom, where no direct statute determines the controversy, and becomes precedent for regulating like cases after the existence of a custom not formerly recognised in England, determined by a jury of twelve. The most common mercantile customs are those between buyer and seller; between employer and employee; between partners; between owners, makers, mariners, and freighters; between insurers and the owners of the goods insured; and between the parties concerned in acting bills of exchange. See the *ACT and BILL*, § 19; *BOTTOMRY*, § 2; 2. *FACTORAGE*; *INSURANCE*, § II; *SHIP*; *SALE*; &c.

(II.) *LAWs RESPECTING CUSTOM-HOUSE LAWS.* The expedient duties on goods imported, or exported, adopted by every commercial nation, is of great antiquity in Britain. The attention of the British legislature has been directed to the object of raising a revenue, which they have attempted by duties, exempt backs, bounties, and other regulations, which the national trade into those channels contribute most to the public benefit. The object to obtain every requisite info-

goods, exported, whether liable to duty or not, are required to be entered at the respective custom-houses; and, from these entries, accounts are regularly made up of the whole British trade, distinguishing the articles, their quantity and value, and the countries which supply or receive them. The objects of our legislature may be reduced to the following heads: I. To encourage the employment of British shipping and seamen, for the purpose of supplying our navy when public exigencies require. II. To increase the quantity of money in the nation, by prohibiting the exportation of British coin, by encouraging exportation, and discouraging importation, and by promoting agriculture, fisheries, and manufactures. For these purposes, it is penal to entice certain manufacturers abroad, or export the tools used in their manufactures; the exportation of raw materials is, in most instances, prohibited; and their importation permitted free from duty, and sometimes rewarded with a bounty. The exportation of some goods, manufactured to a certain length only (e. g. white cloth), is loaded with a duty, but permitted duty-free when the manufacture is carried to its full extent. The importation of rival manufactures is loaded with heavy duties, or absolutely prohibited. These restrictions are most severe towards nations with which the balance of trade is supposed against us, or which are considered as our most formidable rivals in power or commerce. III. To secure us plenty of necessaries for subsistence and manufacture, by discouraging the exportation of some articles that consume by length of time, and regulating the intra-trade according to the exigencies of the seasons. IV. To secure the trade of the colonies to the mother-country, and preserve a mutual intercourse, by encouraging the produce of their staple-commodities, and restraining their progress in these manufactures which they receive from us in exchange. The foundation of our commercial regulations is the famous ACT OF NAVIGATION, which was first enacted during the time of the commonwealth, and adopted by the first parliament after the restoration. The substance of this act, and subsequent amendments, is as follows: 1. Goods from Asia, Africa, and America, may not be imported, except in British ships duly navigated, or ships belonging to the British plantations; and they can only be imported from the place of their production or manufacture, or the port where they are usually first shipped for transportation. Goods of the Spanish or Portuguese plantations, imported from Spain and Portugal in British ships, bullion and some other inconsiderable articles are excepted. The restriction on European goods is not universal, but extends to several of the bulkiest articles. Russian goods, masts, timber, boards, salt, pitch, rosin, tar, hemp, flax, raisins, figs, prunes, olives, oil, corn, sugar, potashes, wine, and vinegar, may not be imported, except in ships belonging to Great Britain or Ireland, legally manned; nor Turkey goods and currants, except in ships British built; or in ships belonging to the country where these goods are produced or manufactured, or first shipped for exportation; and, if imported in foreign ships, they pay alien's duty. To entitle a

ship to the privileges of a British ship, it must be built in Britain, and belong entirely to British subjects; and the master, and  $\frac{3}{4}$  fourths of the mariners, must be British subjects, except in case of death, or unavoidable accidents. In time of war, the proportion of British mariners required is generally confined to  $\frac{1}{2}$ ; and the same proportion only is required in the Greenland fishery. No goods may be imported into, or exported from, the plantations in Asia, Africa, or America, except in ships built in Britain, Ireland, or the plantations, or prize ships, manned by British subjects, duly registered, and legally navigated. The following goods, enumerated in the act of navigation and subsequent acts, may not be exported from the plantations, except to some other plantation or to Britain: Tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, suttic, and other dyeing wood, molasses, hemp, copper-ore, beaver-skins and other furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, masts, yards, and boltsprits, coffee, pimento, cocoa-nuts, whale-fins, raw silk, pot and pearl ashes. Rice and sugar were formerly comprehended in this list, but their exportation is now permitted under certain restrictions. Iron may not be imported to Europe, except to Ireland; and none of the non-enumerated may be imported to any country north of Cape Finisterre, except the Bay of Biscay and Ireland. 2. For the more effectual prevention of smuggling, no goods may be imported in vessels belonging to British subjects, and no wine, in any vessel whatever, unless the master, have a manifest on board, containing the name, measure, and built of the ship, the place to which it belongs, and a distinct enumeration of the goods on board, and places where they were laden. If the ship be cleared from any place under his Majesty's dominions, the manifest must be attested by the chief officer of the customs, or chief magistrate, who is required to transmit a copy thereof to the place of destination. Ship-masters must deliver copies of this manifest to the first custom-house officer who goes on board within four leagues of the shore, and also to the first who goes on board within the limits of any port, and must deliver the original manifest to the custom-house at their arrival, and make report of their cargo upon oath. If the report disagree with the manifest, or either disagree with the cargo on board, the ship-master is liable in the penalty of L. 200. The proprietors of the goods must enter them, and pay the duties within 20 days; otherwise they may be carried to the custom-house, and sold by auction, if not relieved within six months; and the overplus of the value, after paying duty and charges, paid to the proprietors. 3. The importation of cattle, beef, mutton, and pork, except from Ireland, woollen cloths, malt, and various articles of hardware, cutlery, and earthen ware, is prohibited: Also the following goods from Germany and the Netherlands; olive oil, pitch, tar, potashes, rosin, salt, tobacco, wines, except Rhenish wine, and Hungary wines from Hamburg. 4. The importation of various other goods is restricted by particular regulations respecting the time and place of importation, the packages, the burden of the ship, the requisition of a licence, and other circumstances. To guard

more effectually against the manufactory trade, the importation of some articles is only permitted in ships of a certain burden, whose operations are not easily concealed. Spirits must be imported in ships of 100 tons or upwards, except rum, and spirits of British plantations, which are only restricted to 70 tons; wine, 60 tons; tea, tobacco, and snuff, 50 tons; salt, 40 tons. Wine, spirits, and tobacco are also restricted in respect of the packages in which they may be imported. 5. Diamonds and precious stones, flax, flaxseed, linen rags, beaver wool, wool for clothiers, linen-yarn unbleached, and most drugs used in dyeing, may be imported duty free. 6. All goods imported are liable to duties, except such as are expressly exempted. The revenue of customs was new-modelled at the restoration. A subsidy of tonnage on wines, and of poundage, or 1 s. on the pound value of other goods, was granted during the king's life, and rendered perpetual. A book of rates was composed for ascertaining these values; and articles not rated paid duty according to the value, as sworn to by the importer. If the goods be valued too low by the importer, the custom-house officer might seize them, upon paying to the proprietor the value he swore to, and 10 per cent for profit; such goods to be sold, and the overplus paid into the customs. Various additional duties were imposed; some on all goods, some on particular kinds; some according to the rates, some unconnected with them; some with certain abatements, some without any; the greater part to be paid down in ready money, and a few for which security may be granted; with variations, according to the ship's place and circumstances of importation. The number of branches amounted to upwards of 50: and sometimes more than 10 were chargeable upon the same articles. By these means the revenue of the customs became a subject of much intricacy. The inconveniences which this gave rise to are now removed by the *consolidation act*; which appoints one fixed duty for each article free from fractions, instead of the various branches to which they were formerly subject. 7. Goods of most kinds may be exported duty free when regularly entered; and those that have paid duty on importation are generally entitled to drawback on part, sometimes of the whole, when re-exported within 3 years, upon certificate that the duties were paid on importation, and oath of their identity. In some cases, a bounty is given on manufactured goods, when the materials from which they are manufactured have paid duty on importation; and manufactures subject to excise, have generally the whole or part of the excise duties returned. 8. The following goods are *prohibited to be exported*; white ashes, horns, unwrought hides of black cattle, tallow, coin, brass, copper, engines for knitting stockings, tools for cotton, linen, woollen, silk, iron, and steel manufactures; wool, woollens, woollen yarn, fullers earth, fulling clay, and tobacco pipe clay. 9. The object of the laws respecting the corn trade is to encourage agriculture, by not only permitting the free exportation, but rewarding it with a bounty when the prices are low, and checking the importation by a heavy duty; and, to prevent scarcity, by prohibiting the importation when the prices are high,

and permitting exportation at an easy duty. Various temporary laws have been enacted for purposes, and sometimes other expedients employed in times of scarcity, such as prohibiting the tillery from corn, and manufacture of starch: by a permanent law, in 1773, the low dutie bounties are regulated as under:

	At or above.	Low-duty.	Under. B
Wheat,	48 s. per qr.	6 d.	44 s.
Rye,	32 s.	3 d.	28 s.
Pease and beans,	32 s.	3 d.	28 s.
Oats,	16 s.	2 d.	14 s.
Barley,	24 s.	2 d.	22 s.

The duties, when the prices are lower than in the first column, amount to a prohibition. When the prices are higher than in the column prefix the bounty, no exportation is permitted. Oats are under the bounty price, oatmeal is entitled to a bounty of 2 s. 6 d. per quarter. Bounties are allowed on the exportation of sugar, sail-cloth, linen under limited prices, stuffs of British manufacture, cordage, spirits, barley is under 24 s. beef, pork, salmon, herrings, cod, ling, flake, and sprats. Various other bounties are allowed for the encouragement of our fisheries. Ships from 150 to 300 tons employed in the Greenland whale-fishery, and forming to the regulations prescribed, are all 30 s. per ton. Vessels employed in the herring fishery receive 20 s. per ton, besides a bounty on the herrings caught and cured, amounting in cases to 4 s. per barrel. Other bounties are limited to a limited number of the most successful vessels employed in the herring and Newfoundland fisheries, and in the southern whale-fishery. unnecessary, as well as impracticable, to enter into a full detail of our custom house laws. In all that can be admitted into a work of this nature, I must convey but very imperfect information, even that little becomes useless in a short time from alterations in the laws. We have therefore only marked the general outlines in this manner, which, however, will be sufficient to enable the reader to judge of the principles upon which the British legislature has acted. How far the duties employed have contributed to the ends proposed, and how far the ends themselves are always or whether a trade encumbered by fewer regulations would not prove more extensive and beneficial; have been subjects of discussion, upon which we will not presume to offer our opinion.

(12.) LAWS RESPECTING GAME, OR CHASE LAWS. See GAME, § 2. Sir William Blackstone, in treating of the alterations in these laws, and mentioning franchises granted of chase and free ten, as well to preserve the breed of animals, as to indulge the subject, adds, "From a principle to which, though the forest-laws are mitigated, and by degrees grown entirely obsolete; yet from this root has sprung a law, known by the name of the *game-law*, now a source of contention and wantonness in its highest vigour: founded upon the same unreasonable notion of permanent property in wild creatures; and productive of the same tyranny to the commons, but with this difference, that the forest-laws have blessed only one mighty hunter throughout the land; the *game-laws* have raised a little N

of the manor. And in one respect the ancient law was much less unreasonable than the modern; the king's grantee of a chase or free warren, he kill game in every part of his franchise; but though a freeholder of less than L. 100 a year is forbidden to kill partridge upon his own estate, nobody else (not even the lord of the manor, if he hath a grant of free warren) can do it without committing a trespass and subjecting himself to action. Under the article GAME, the destroying such beasts and fowls as are ranked under that denomination, was observed (upon the old copies of the forest-law) to be a trespass and action in all persons alike, who have not authority from the crown to kill game (which is royal property) by the grant of either a free warren, or estate a manor of their own. But the laws called the game-laws have also inflicted additional punishments (chiefly pecuniary) on persons guilty of this general offence, unless they be people of high rank or fortune as is therein particularly specified. All persons, therefore, of what property or condition soever, that kill game out of their own territories, or even upon their own estates, without the king's licence expressed by the grant of a franchise, are guilty of the first original offence or encroaching on the royal prerogative. And those indigent persons who do so, without having such rank or fortune as is generally called qualification, are guilty, not only of the original offence, but of the aggravations also created by the statutes for preserving the game: which aggravations are so severely punished, and those punishments so implacably inflicted, that the offence against the king is seldom thought of, provided the miserable delinquent can make his peace with the lord of the manor. The only rational footing upon which this offence, thus aggravated, can be considered as a crime, is, that in low and indigent persons it promotes idleness, and takes them away from their proper employments and callings: which is an offence against the public police and economy of the commonwealth. The statutes for preserving the game are many and various, and not a few obscure and intricate; it being remarked, that in one statute only, 5 Ann. c. 14. there is the word game in no fewer than six places, besides the mistakes: the occasion of which, or what punishment of persons were probably the penalties of these statutes, it is unnecessary here to inquire. It may be in general sufficient to observe, that the qualifications for killing game, as they are generally called, or more properly the exemptions from the penalties inflicted by the statute law, are, 1. The having a freehold estate of L. 100 per annum: there being fifty times the property requisite to enable the man to kill a partridge, as to a knight of the shire. 2. A leasehold for years of L. 150 per annum. 3. Being the son or heir apparent of an esquire (a very loose and general description) or person of superior degree. 4. Being the owner or keeper of a forest, park, or warren. For unqualified persons transgressing these laws, by killing game, keeping engines for that purpose, or even having game in their possession, or for persons (however qualified) to kill game, or have it in possession, at unreasonable times of the year, or unreasonable hours

of the day or night, on Sundays or on Christmas day, there are various penalties assigned, corporal and pecuniary, by different statutes (after-mentioned), on any of which, but only on one at a time, the justices may convict in a summary way, or (in most of them) prosecutions may be carried on at the assizes. And, lastly, by 28 Geo. II. c. 12. no person, however qualified to kill, may make merchandise of this valuable privilege, by selling or exposing to sale any game, on pain of like forfeiture as if he had no qualification.—The statutes above referred to are as follow. No person shall take pheasants or partridges with engines in another man's ground without licence, on pain of 10l. stat. 11 Hen. VII. c. 13. If any person shall take or kill any pheasants or partridges with any net in the night time, they shall forfeit 20s. for every pheasant, and 10s. for every partridge taken; and hunting with spaniels in standing corn, incurs a forfeiture of 40s. 23 Eliz. c. 10. Those who kill any pheasant, partridge, duck, heron, hare, or other game, are liable to a forfeiture of 20s. for every fowl and hare; and selling, or buying to sell again, any hare, pheasant, &c. the forfeiture is 10s. for each hare, &c. 1 Jac. I. c. 17. Also pheasants or partridges are not to be taken between the first of July and the last of August, on pain of imprisonment for a month, unless the offenders pay 20s. for every pheasant, &c. killed: and constables having a justice of peace's warrant, may search for game and nets, in the possession of persons not qualified by law to kill game or to keep such nets, 7 Jac. I. c. 11. Constables, by a warrant of a justice of peace, are to search houses of suspected persons for game: and if any game be found upon them, and they do not give a good account how they came by the same, they shall forfeit for every hare, pheasant, or partridge, not under 5s. nor exceeding 20s. And inferior tradesmen hunting, &c. are subject to the penalties of the act, and may likewise be sued for trespass. If officers of the army or soldiers kill game without leave, they forfeit 5l. an officer, and 10s. a soldier; 4 & 5 W. and M. c. 23. Higglers, chapmen, carriers, innkeepers, victuallers, &c. having in their custody hare, pheasant, partridge, heath-game, &c. (except sent by some person qualified to kill game), shall forfeit for every hare and fowl 5l. to be levied by distress and sale of their goods, being proved by one witness, before a justice; and for want of distress shall be committed to the house of correction for three months: one moiety of the forfeiture to the informer, and the other to the poor. And selling game, or offering the same to sale, incurs the like penalty; wherein hare and other game found in a shop, &c. is adjudged an exposing to sale: killing hares in the night is liable to the same penalties: and if any persons shall drive wild-fowls with nets, between the first day of July and the 1st of Sept. they shall forfeit 5s. for every fowl; 5 Ann. c. 14. 9 Ann. c. 25. If any unqualified person shall keep a gun, he shall forfeit 10l.: and persons being qualified may take guns from those that are not, and break them; 21 & 22 Car. II. c. 25. and 33 H. VIII. c. 6. One justice of peace, upon examination and proof of the offence, may commit the offender till he hath paid

paid the forfeiture of 10*l.* And persons, not qualified by law, keeping dogs, nets, or other engines to kill game, being convicted thereof before a justice of peace, shall forfeit 5*l.* or be sent to the house of correction for 3 months; and the dogs, game, &c. shall be taken from them, by the statute 5 Ann. If a person hunt upon the ground of another, such other person cannot justify killing of his dogs, as appears by 2 Roll. Abr. 567. But it was otherwise adjudged Mich. 33 Car. II. in C. B. 2 Cro. 44. and see 3. Lev. xxviii. In actions of debt, *qui tenet*, &c. by a common informer on the statute 5 Ann. for 15*l.* wherein the plaintiff declared on two several accounts, one for 10*l.* for killing two partridges, the other for 5*l.* for keeping an engine to destroy the game, not being qualified, &c. the plaintiff had a verdict for 5*l.* only: this action was brought by virtue of the stat. 8 Geo. I. See stat. 9 Geo. I. c. 22. See likewise 24 Geo. II. c. 34. for the better preservation of the game in Scotland. By the stat. 26 Geo. II. c. 2. all suits and actions brought by virtue of stat. 8 Geo. I. c. — for the recovery of any pecuniary penalty, or sum of money, for offences committed against any law for the better preservation of the game, shall be brought before the end of the second term after the offence committed. By 28 Geo. II. c. 12. persons selling, or exposing to sale, any game, are liable to the penalties inflicted by 5 Ann. c. 14. on higglers, &c. offering game to sale: and game found in the house or possession of a poulterer, salesman, fishmonger, cook, or pastry-cook, is deemed exposing thereof to sale. By 2 G. III. c. 19. after the 1st June 1762, no person may take, kill, buy or sell, or have in his custody, any partridge, between 12th Feb. and 1st September, or pheasant between 1st Feb. and 1st Oct. or heath fowl between 1st Jan. and 20th Aug. or grouse between 1st Dec. and 25th July, in any year; pheasants taken in their proper season, and kept in mews, or breeding places, excepted; and persons offending in any of the cases aforesaid, forfeit 5*l.* per bird, to the prosecutor, to be recovered, with full costs, in any of the courts at Westminster. By this act, likewise, the whole of the pecuniary penalties under the 8 Geo. I. c. 19. may be sued for, and recovered to the sole use of the prosecutor, with double costs; and no part thereof to go to the poor of the parish. By 5 Geo. III. c. 14. persons convicted of entering warrens in the night-time, and taking or killing of coney there, or aiding or assisting therein, may be punished by transportation, or by whipping, fine, or imprisonment. Persons convicted on this act, not liable to be convicted under any former act. This act does not extend to the destroying coney in the day time, on the sea and river banks in the county of Lincoln, &c. No satisfaction to be made for damages occasioned by entry, unless they exceed 1*s.* By 10 Geo. III. c. 19. it is enacted, That if any person kill any hare, &c. between sun setting and sun-rising, or use any gun, &c. for destroying game, he shall for the first offence be imprisoned for any time not exceeding six nor less than three months: if guilty of a second offence, after conviction of a first, to be imprisoned for any time not exceeding 12 months nor less than six; and

shall also, within three days after the time of commitment, either for the first or for any second offence, be once publicly whipped. By 23 G. III. c. 50. and 31 Geo. III. c. 21. every person Great Britain (the royal family excepted), shall, after July 1, 1785, use any dog, gun, net, or other engine, for the taking or destruction of game (not as acting as gamekeeper), shall deliver a paper or account in writing, containing his name and place of abode, to the clerk of the peace, his deputy, and annually take out a certificate thereof; and every such certificate shall be charged with a stamp-duty of 2*l.* 2*s.* (and an additional 2*l.* 1*s.* by 31 Geo. III. c. 21.) making in the whole 5*l.* 3*s.*—Every deputation of a gamekeeper shall be registered with the clerk of the peace, and every gamekeeper shall annually take out a certificate thereof; which certificate shall be charged with a stamp duty of 10*s.* 6*d.* (and an additional 6*d.* by 31 Geo. III. c. 21.) making in the whole 1*l.* 1*s.*—The duties to be under the management of the commissioners of the stamp-office, and after 1st July, 1785, the clerk of the peace shall annually deliver to persons requiring the same, duly stamped, a certificate or licence according to the form therein mentioned, for which he shall be entitled to demand 1*s.* for his trouble, and on refusal or neglect to deliver the same shall forfeit 20*l.*—Every certificate to bear date the 1st of July following, on penalty of 20*l.* After the 1st of July, 1785, any person that shall take, kill, or other dog, or any gun, net, or engine, for the taking or killing of game, without a certificate, shall be liable to the penalty of 20*l.* And if any person shall, for the space of 20 days after the said 1st of July, or if any gamekeeper thereunto to be appointed shall, for the space of 20 days after such appointment, neglect or refuse to take out his deputation and take out a certificate thereof, he is liable to the penalty of 20*l.* The lists of the peace are to transmit to the stamp-office in London alphabetical lists of the certificates, on penalty of 20*l.* These lists are to be kept in the stamp-office in London, and there to be inspected on payment of 1*s.*: And the commissioners of the stamp duties are, once or oftener in every year, as soon as such lists are transmitted to them, to cause the same to be published in newspapers circulating in each county, or in public paper as they shall think most proper; and any gamekeeper, who shall have registered his deputation, and taken out a certificate thereof, shall be liable to the penalty of 20*l.* And if any person, who shall have obtained a certificate, shall be liable to the penalty of 50*l.* The certificate shall not be used to authorise persons to kill game at any time prohibited by law, nor to give any person a right to kill game, unless such person shall be

lised so to do by the laws now in being, but shall be liable to the same penalties as if this act had not passed. So that though by this act qualified and unqualified persons are equally included, yet having a certificate does not give an unqualified person a right to kill game: the point of right still stands upon the former acts of parliament; and any unqualified person killing game without a certificate, is not only liable to the penalty inflicted by this act, but also to all the former penalties relating to the killing of game, &c. Witnesses refusing to appear on justices summons, or appearing and refusing to give evidence, forfeit 10l. The certificates obtained under deputations, not to be given in evidence for killing of game by a gamekeeper out of the manor, in respect of which such deputation or appointment was given and made. Persons counterfeiting stamps to suffer death as felons. Penalties exceeding 20l. are to be recovered in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster; and penalties not exceeding 20l. are recoverable before two justices, and may be levied by distress. The whole of the penalties go to the informer.

(12.) LAW, TRIAL BY WAGER OF, (*vadiatio legi*); a species of trial in the English law, so called, as another species is styled WAGER OF BATTLE, *vadiatio duelli*, (see BATTLE, § 2.): because as in the wager of battle, the defendant gave *vadium*, i. e. pledge, or gage, to try the cause by battle; so here he was put in *vadium*, or sureties, that at such a day he would *make his law*, i. e. take the benefit which the law allowed him. (See TRIAL.) For our ancestors considered, that there were many cases where an innocent man, of good credit, might be overborn by a multitude of false witnesses; and therefore established this species of trial, by the oath of the defendant himself: for if he will absolutely swear himself not chargeable, and appears to be a person of reputation he shall go free, and for ever acquitted of the debt, or other cause of action. The manner of waging law is this. He that has waged or given security, to make his law, brings with him into court 11 of his neighbours: a custom which we find described so early as in the league between Alfred and Guthrum the Dane; for by the old Saxon constitution every man's credit in courts of law depended upon the opinion which his neighbours had of his veracity. The defendant then, standing at the end of the bar, is admonished by the judges of the nature and danger of a false oath. And if he still persists, he is to repeat this oath: "Hear this, ye justices, that I do not owe unto Richard Jones the sum of ten pound: nor any penny thereof, in manner and form as the said Richard hath declared against me. So help me God." And thereupon the 11 neighbours, or cojurators shall avow upon their oaths, that they believe in their consciences that he saith the truth; so that himself must be *proven de falsitate*, and the *de credulitate*. In the old Swedish or Gothic constitution, wager of law was not only permitted, as in criminal cases, unless the fact be extremely clear against the prisoner; but was absolutely required, in many civil cases: which Stiernhook, a Swedish author justly reckons, a source of frequent perjury. This, he tells us, was owing to the Popish ecclesiastics,

who introduced this method of purgation from their canon law; and, having sown a plentiful crop of oaths in all judicial proceedings, reaped afterwards an ample harvest of perjuries: for perjuries were punished in part by pecuniary fines, payable to the church. But in England wager of law is never required; and only admitted, where an action is brought upon matters privately transacted between the parties, and wherein the defendant may be presumed to have made satisfaction, without being able to prove it. Therefore it is only in action of debt upon simple contract, or for amercement, in actions of detinue, and of account, where the debt may have been paid, the goods restored, or the account balanced, without any evidence of either. And by such wager of law the plaintiff is perpetually barred; for in the simplicity of ancient times it was presumed, that no one would perjure himself for any worldly thing. Wager of law, however, lieth in a real action, where the tenant alleges he was not legally summoned to appear, as well as in mere personal contracts. But it was never permitted, unless the defendant bore a fair character; and it was confined to cases where a debt might be supposed to be discharged, or satisfaction made in private, without witnesses. At length it was considered, that (even under all its restrictions,) wager of law threw too great a temptation in the way of indigent or profligate men: and therefore new remedies were devised, and new forms of action were introduced, wherein no defendant is at liberty to wage his law. So that wager of law is now quite out of use, being avoided by the mode of bringing the action; but still it is not *out of force*. And therefore, when a new statute inflicts a penalty, and gives an action of debts for recovering it, it is usual to add, "in which no wager of law shall be allowed:" otherwise an hardy delinquent might escape any penalty of the law, by swearing he had never incurred, or else had discharged it.

(1.) LAWÁ, a town in the island of Borneo, seated on the river, N. 2. Lon. 110. 42. E. Lat. 0. 40. N.

(2.) LAWÁ, a river of Borneo, which runs into the sea, in Lon. 119. 30. E. Lat. 0. 30. N.

LAWBORROWS, or } See LAW, PART III.  
LAWBURROWS. } CHAP. III. S. 2. L. 16

(1.) LAWENBURG, a duchy of Lower Saxony, bounded by that of Holstein, on the N. and W. by that of Mecklenburg on the E. and by that of Lunenburg, from which it is separated by the Elbe, on the W.: about 85 miles long, and 20 broad. The chief towns are Lawenburg, Molln, Wittenburg, and Ratzelburg. It belongs to his Majesty as elector of Hanover.

(2.) LAWENBURG, the capital of the above duchy, is a small but populous city, seated on the Elbe, under the brow of a very high hill, whence there is a delightful prospect of the adjacent country. It has a castle on an eminence, and is convenient for trade. Lon. 10. 51. E. Lat. 53. 36. N.

(3, 4.) LAWENBURG, a town of Germany, in Farther Pomerania, and the chief place of a territory so named, belonging to the elector of Brandenburg.

(1.) LAWERS, an eminent engraver, who flourished



rished about the middle of the 16th century. He was a native of Flanders, and is said to have studied under Paul Pontius, whose style of engraving he often imitated. He possessed considerable merit; but was not equal to that great master, either in handling the graver, or knowledge of drawing. He engraved from several painters; but his best works are from the pictures of Rubens.

(2.) **LAWERS**, in geography, the highest mountain in Perthshire, seated on the N. side of Loch Tay. It measures 4,015 feet above the sea level; and produces a great variety of Alpine plants, rarely met with in other parts of Britain.

(3.) **LAWERS**, a river of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Ems, which runs between the late provinces of Groningen and E. Friesland, and falls into the sea 10 miles E. of Dockum.

(1.) **LAWES**, Henry, a celebrated musician, under Charles I. whom he served in his public and private music, and set some of the works of almost every poet of eminence in that reign. The *Comus* of Milton, and several of the lyrics of Waller, were set by him; and both these poets have done him honour in their verses. He composed a considerable number of psalm tunes in the *Antient Sacra*, for three voices and an organ; and many more of his compositions are to be seen in a work called *Steed airs and dialogues*; and in the *Treasury of music*, and the *Musical companion*. He died in 1662.

(2.) **LAWES**, William, brother to the above, was also a most capital musician. He made above 30 several sorts of music for voices and instruments; nor was there any instrument then in use, but he composed to it as aptly as if he had studied that alone. In the music school at Oxford are two large manuscript volumes of his works in score for various instruments. He was a commissary under general Gerard in the civil war, and, to the great regret of the king, was killed at the siege of Chester in 1645.

\* **LAWFUL**, *adj.* [*low* and *full*]. Agreeable to law; conformable to law; allowed by law; legitimate; legal.—It is not *lawful* for thee to have her. *Matt. xiv. 4.*—Gleeser's bastard son was kinder to his father, than my daughters got 'twixt the *lawful* sheets. *Shak. King Lear.*

\* **LAWFULLY**, *adv.* [from *lawful*]. Legally; agreeably to law.—

This bond is forfeit;  
And *lawfully* by this the Jew may claim  
A pound of flesh. *Shak.*

—Though it be not against strict justice for a man to do those things which he might otherwise *lawfully* do, yet Christian charity will, in many cases, restrain a man. *South.*—I may be allowed to tell your lordship, the king of poets, what an extent of power you have, and how *lawfully* you may exercise it. *Dryden.*

\* **LAWFULNESS**, *n. f.* [from *lawful*]. Legality; allowance of law.—It were an error to speak further, till I may see some sound foundation laid of the *lawfulness* of the action. *Bacon.*

\* **LAWGIVER**, *n. f.* [*law* and *giver*]. Legislator; one that makes laws.—Satanban we esteem as the *lawgiver* of our nation. *Johnson.*—A law may be very reasonable in itself, although one

does not know the reason of the *lawgivers*  
\* **LAWGIVING**, *adj.* [*law* and *giving*].  
gislator.—

*Lawgiving* heroes, fam'd for taming  
And raising cities with their charming l

**LAWINGEN**, a town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia; formerly imperial, but now to the duke of Neuburg. Here the duke varia, in 1704, fortified his camp to defend country against the British forces and then under the D. of Marlborough, who forced intrenchments. It is seated on the Danube 10. 29. E. Lat. 38. 32. N.

(1.) \* **LAWLESS**, *adj.* [from *law*]. 1. Strained by any law; not subject to law.—Necessity of war, which among human actions most *lawless*, hath some kind of affinity with necessity of law. *Ruleigh.*—

The *lawless* tyrant, who denies  
To know their God.  
Orpheus did not, as poets feign, tame  
beasts,

But men as *lawless*, and as wild as they;  
Not the gods, nor angry Jove will be  
Thy *lawless* wand'ring walks in open air  
Blind as the Cyclops, and as blind as  
They own'd a *lawless* savage liberty.

He meteor-like, flames *lawless* thro' the  
Destroying others, by himself destroy'd  
2. Contrary to law; illegal.—

He needs no indirect or *lawless* course  
To cut off those that have offended him  
We cite our faults,  
That they may hold excus'd our *lawless*.

Thou the first, lay down thy *lawless*.

(2.) **LAWLESS COURT**, a court held to annually on King's Hill at Rockford in Essex Wednesday morning after Michaelmas cock-crowing, where they whisper, and light a candle, nor any pen and ink, but only Persons who owe suit, or service, and do appear, forfeit double their rent every year are missing. This servile attendance, informs us, was imposed on the tenants spring at this unseasonable hour to raise a mummery. The court belongs to the honour of Lough, and to the earl of Warwick; and is *lawless*, from its being held at an unlawful

\* **LAWLESSLY**, *adv.* [from *lawless*]. In a manner contrary to law.—

Fear not, he bears an honourable mit  
And will not use a woman *lawlessly*.

**LAWLING**, a town of Essex, between and burnham.

\* **LAWMAKER**, *n. f.* [*law* and *maker*]. Legislator; one who makes laws; a lawgiver. Judgment is, that the church of Christ admit no *lawmakers* but the evangelists. *Hobbes.*

(1.) \* **LAWN**, *n. f.* [*law* and *land*]. *Daunt's lawn, land*, Friz. 1. A open space between walls; Betwixt *lawn* *lawn*, or level down blocks;

Grazing, the tender herbs were interpos'd.  
—Young trees, that gradually shot up into

d forests, intermixed with walks, and  
l gardens. *Addison*.—  
grassy forms shoot o'er the lawns of hell.

*Pope*.  
pers'd in lawns and opening glades,  
es arise that shun each other's shades.

*Pope*.  
French.] Fine linen, remarkable for  
in the sleeves of bishops.—  
p the wounds my finest lawn I'd tear.

*Prior*.  
m high life high characters are drawn,  
n crape is twice a saint in lawn. *Pope*.  
uties by the lawn-rob'd prelate pay'd,  
last words, that dust to dust convey'd!

*Tickell*.  
AWN (§ 1 *def.* 1.) is a spacious plain in  
adjoining to a noble seat. The dimen-  
awn, in a large park, should be as ex-  
he ground will permit; and never less  
es: but in gardens of a moderate ex-  
n of 10 acres is sufficient; and in those  
est size, 15 acres. The best situation  
is in the front of the house: and here,  
e front the east, it will be extremely  
; but the most desirable aspect for a  
t of the SE. As to the figure of the  
e recommend an exact square, others an  
are, some an oval, and others a circu-  
: but none of these are to be regarded.  
o be so contrived, as to suit the ground;  
should be trees planted for shade on the  
s of the lawn, so that the sides may be  
irregular plantations of trees, which,  
: not some good prospects beyond the  
uld bound it on every side, and be  
und pretty near to each end of the  
the trees are placed irregularly, some  
uch forwarder on the lawn than others,  
wded too close together, they will make  
pearance than any regular plantations;  
e is a variety of trees, properly dispo-  
will have a good effect; but only those  
ke a fine appearance, and grow large,  
nd handsome, should be admitted. The  
re are the elm, oak, chestnut, and beech;  
clumps of ever-greens intermixed will  
: beauty of the whole, especially in win-  
est sorts are lord Weymouth's pine, and  
and spruce firs.

ROW, a town of Poland, in Lemberg

ENCE-KIRK. See LAURENCEKIRK.

LAWRENCE, ST. the name of 5 Eng-  
es; viz 1. Cumberland, in Abbey Holm:  
2. near St Oiyth: 3. in Kent, in Than-  
in Somersetsh. near Bristol: 5. in the  
ght, in E. Medina.

WRENCE, ST. See LAURENCE, ST. N<sup>o</sup> 2.

TRICE-TOWN, a township of Nova Scotia,  
l. of Halifax.

SON, James, of Belvidere, A. M. and  
Presbyterian preacher, who made no  
ife for many years, in our ecclesiastical  
He was born at Belvidere, his paternal  
ce, in the parish of Auchterarder, in  
re, about 1744; and studied divinity, phi-  
, &c. at the university of Glasgow; where  
his degrees in April 1768; and from which  
XIII. PART I.

he received the most ample certificates of his learn-  
ing, piety and strict morality, in 1771. His for-  
tune, however, as a probationer, was extremely  
singular. Though his morals were unimpecha-  
ble; tho' his religion was sincere; though his ad-  
herence to strict Presbyterian principles was so  
strong, or rather *enthusiastic*, as, a century earlier,  
would have raised him to eminence in the church;  
or perhaps, under the tyrannical reign of the  
house of Stewart, might have procured him the  
honour of a crown of martyrdom; and tho' his  
learning, particularly, in the Greek and Hebrew  
languages, was acknowledged, even by his ene-  
mies, yet from the personal pique of one man,  
an opposition was excited against him, founded  
on the most trivial circumstances, which, after a  
contest of ten years, carried on with unparalleled  
perseverance on his part, and no less obstinacy on  
that of his opponents, ended in his being refused  
a licence. This opposition originated from his pa-  
rish minister, Mr Campbell, whose settlement Law-  
son's father had originally opposed, and who, from  
a vindictive principle, resolved to prevent young  
Lawson from having any chance of one. Mr  
Campbell and the majority of that presbytery be-  
ing connected with the popular party in the  
church, and Lawson's own principles being well  
known to be diametrically opposite to those of  
the Court party, Lawson, trusting solely to the  
justice of his cause, was supported by neither par-  
ty; though any support he received, in the gene-  
ral assembly, was from the latter, who carried  
partial decisions of three successive assemblies in  
his favour. But the final decision of that Court  
in May 1781, confirmed the sentence of the pres-  
bytery, refusing him a licence. A full narrative of  
the origin, progress, and result of this opposition,  
with a number of interesting remarks, letters,  
speeches, &c. was published by him, at Edin-  
burgh in Aug. 1781, 12mo. entitled *The Present  
Case of James Lawson, A. M. B. D. &c.* He af-  
terwards went to London, and obtained a licence  
among the Dissenters. Returning to Scotland, he  
joined the Presbytery of Relief, and, from princi-  
ples of humanity, married a sister of the rev. Mr  
Gellatly, who, he was assured, had fallen in love  
with him; which is not improbable, as his person  
was genteel, his temper mild, and his manners a-  
miable. He wrote several other tracts, and died  
about 1797, of a decay, leaving two children.  
His peculiar sentiments and habits of thinking may  
be judged of from a single circumstance. During  
his examination by the assembly's committee, be-  
ing found somewhat deficient in his knowledge of  
Latin, though well skilled in Greek and Hebrew,  
he told the committee, that he saw no use for La-  
tin, to illustrate the Scriptures, but considered the  
original languages as absolutely necessary.

LAWSONIA, EGYPTIAN PRIVET, a genus  
of the monogynia order, belonging to the octan-  
dria class of plants; and in the natural method  
ranking with those of which the order is doubt-  
ful. The calyx is quadrifid; the petals four; the  
stamina four in pairs; the capsule is quadrilocular  
and polyspermous. There are two species, viz.

1. LAWSONIA INERMIS, and } both natives of
2. LAWSONIA SPINOSA, } India. Some

authors take the first to be the plant termed by

the Arabians *HEB* or *albenna*; the pulverised leaves of which are much used by the eastern nations for dyeing their nails yellow: but others, Dr Hasselquist in particular, attribute that effect to the leaves of the other species of Egyptian privet which bears prickly branches. It is probable, that neither set of writers are mistaken, and that the shrub in question is a variety only of the thorny *lawsonia*, rendered mild by culture. *Alhenna* grows naturally and is cultivated throughout India, as also in Egypt, Palestine, and Persia. In those countries, says Hasselquist, it flowers from May to August. The leaves being pulverised, are made with water into a paste, which the inhabitants of those countries bind on the nails of their hands and feet, keeping it on all night. The deep yellow colour that is thus obtained is considerably permanent, not requiring to be renewed for several weeks. It would seem that this custom is very ancient in Egypt; the nails of some mummies being found dyed in this manner. The dried flowers of the henna afford a fragrant but sickly smell.

\* **LAW-SUIT.** *n. f.* [*law* and *suit*.] A process in law; a litigation.—The giving the priest a right to the tithe would produce *lawsuits* and wrangles. *Swift*.

(1.) \* **LAWYER.** *n. f.* [from *law*.] Professor of law; advocate; pleader.—It is like the breath of an unfeeling lawyer, you gave me nothing for it. *Shakespeare's King Lear*.—Is the law evil, because some lawyers in their office swerve from it? *Whitgift*.—I have entered into a work touching laws, between the speculative discourses of philosophers, and the writing of lawyers. *Bacon*.—

The nymphs with scorn beheld their foes,

When the defendant's council rose;

And what no lawyer ever lack'd,

With impudence own'd all the fact. *Swift*.

(2.) **LAWYER.** See **ADVOCATE**, **BARRISTER**, § 1, 2; **COUNSEL**, § 2, 3; **COUNSELLOR**, § 2; and **SERGEANT**.

(1.) \* **LAX.** *adj.* [*laxus*, Latin] 1. Loose; not confined.—

In habit *lax*, ye pow'rs of heav'n! *Milton*.  
2. Diffracted; not strongly combined.—In mines, those parts of the earth which abound with strata of stone, suffer much more than those which consist of gravel, and the like *laxer* matter, which more easily given way. *Woodward*. 3. Vague; not rigidly exact.—Dialogues were only *lax* and moral discourses. *Baker*. 4. Loose in body, so as to go frequently to stool; *laxative* medicines are such as promote that disposition. *Quincy*. 5. Slack; not tense.—By a branch of the auditory nerve that goes between the ear and the palate, they can hear themselves, though their outward ear be stopp'd by the *lax* membrane to all sounds that come that way. *Holder's Elements of Speech*.

(2.) \* **LAX.** *n. f.* A looseness; a diarrhoea.

(3.) **LAX**, in geography, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the Valais, 33 miles E. of Sion.

\* **LAXATION.** *n. f.* [*laxatio*, Latin.] 1. The act of loosening or slackening. 2. The state of being loosened or slackened.

(1.) \* **LAXATIVE.** *adj.* [*laxatif*, French; *laxo*, Latin.] Having the power to ease costiveness.—

Omitting honey, which is of a *laxative* self, the powder of loadstones doth dissipate and bind, than purge and loose. *Brown*.—The oil in wax is emollient and anodyne. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) \* **LAXATIVE.** *n. f.* A medicine laxative; a medicine that relaxes the bowels without stimulation.—

Nought profits him to save abroad  
No vomits upward aid, nor downward

\* **LAXATIVENESS.** *n. f.* [from Power of easing costiveness.]

**LAXEMBERG**, or } a town of Austria  
**LAXEMBURG**, } a palace, seat  
ver, 10 miles S. of Vienna. Lon. 16. :  
48. 3. N.

(1.) **LAXEY**, a town in the isle of M

(2.) **LAXEY BAY**, } a bay and cape

(3.) **LAXEY CAPE**, } coast of the isle  
its S. extremity. The bay affords fresh  
W. winds in from 7 to 10 feet water.

**LAXFORD**, a considerable river of  
in the county of Sutherland, which  
Loch-Stalk, divides the parish of E  
from Ashir, and falls into an arm of  
Laxford harbour.

**LAXIANA**, a river of Spain, w  
into the Xalon, 3 miles above An  
ragon.

\* **LAXITY.** *n. f.* [*laxitas*, Lat.] 1. No  
sion; not close cohesion.—The former c  
never beget whirlpools in a chaos of so g  
and thinness. *Bentley*. 2. Contrariety o  
precision; as, *laxity* of expression. 3. Lo  
costiveness.—If sometimes it cause any  
in the same way with iron unprepared,  
disturb some bodies, and work by pur  
mit. *Brown*. 4. Slackness; contrari  
sion.—*Laxity* of a fibre is that degree  
in its parts which a small force can alt  
increase its length beyond what is natur  
—In consideration of the *laxity* of the  
are subject to relapse. *Wifem*. 2. Openne  
ness.—Hold a piece of paper close by th  
candle, and by little and little remove it  
and there is upon the paper some part of  
I see in the candle, and it grows still les  
I remove; so that if I would trust my sen  
believe it as very a body upon the pap  
candle, though infected by the *laxity* of  
in which it flows. *Digby on Bodies*.

\* **LAXNESS.** *n. f.* *Laxity*; not tens  
sion; not costiveness.—For the free pa  
found into the ear, it is requisite that  
num be tense, and hard stretched; oth  
*laxness* of that membrane will certainly  
damp the sound. *Holder*.

**LAXTON**, the name of 3 English  
Northampton, Nottingham, and York

(1.) \* **To LAY.** *v. a.* [*leggan*, Sax. *l*  
1. To place; to put; to repose. This  
correlative to *l*, involves commonly  
or *extension*; 2. a punishment *laid* is a  
that cannot be shaken off; in immobility  
weight. One hound *laid* to another in  
*sion*.—He *laid* his robe from him. *Jo*

their swords under their heads. *Ezek.*  
on the flow'ry herb I found me *laid*. *Milt.*  
He sacrificing *laid*

traills on the wood. *Milton.*  
ice along.—Seek not to be judge, left at  
thou fear the person of the mighty, and  
sibling block in the way of thy upright-  
*ness*.—A stone was *laid* on the mouth of  
*Daniel*. 3. To beat down corn or grafs,  
r ill accident is *laying* of corn with great  
arvest. *Bacon.*—

Let no sleep there play,  
eking kids the flowery meadows *lay*. *May.*  
ep from rising; to settle; to still.—  
se th' advantage of my power,  
y the summer's duit with showers of  
ood. *Shak.*

a sandy soil, and the way had been full  
but an hour or two before a refreshing  
hower of rain had *laid* the dust. *Ray.* 5.  
ep; to dispose regularly: either of these  
ay be conceived from the following ex-  
but regularity seems rather implied; so  
o *lay* bricks; to *lay* planks.—Schifina-  
lows, or criminal persons, are not fit to  
undation of a new colony. *Bacon.*—

the deep foundations of a wall,  
nos, nam'd from me, the city call. *Dryd.*  
ill be apt to call it pulling up the old  
ms of knowledge; I persuade myself,  
way I have pursued *lays* those foundations  
ée. 6. To put; to place.—Then he of-  
him again; then he put it by again;  
y thinking, he was very loth to *lay* his  
it. *Shak.*—

Till us death *lay*  
and mellow, we are but stubborn clay.

*Donne.*  
hall *lay* hands on the sick, and recover.  
They, who so state a question, do no  
separate and disentangle the parts of it,  
another, and *lay* them, when so disen-  
in their due order. *Locke.*—

to thy name our annual rites will pay,  
thy altars sacrifices *lay*. *Pope.*  
ry; to inter.—David fell on sleep, and  
unto his fathers, and saw corruption.  
36. 8. To station or place privily.—*Lay*  
mbush for the city behind thee. *Jos.* viii.  
wicked have *laid* a snare for me. *Pf.*—  
vait, O! wicked man, against the dwell-  
er righteous. *Prov.* xxiv. 15. 9. To spread  
acc.—The colouring upon those maps  
*laid* on so thin, as not to obscure or  
y part of the lines. *Watts.* 10. To paint;  
—The pictures drawn in our minds are  
ling colours, and, if not sometimes re-  
anish and disappear. *Locke.* 11. To put  
late of quiet.—They bragged, that they  
ot but to abuse, and *lay* asleep, the queen  
il of England. *Bacon.* 12. To calm; to  
quiet; to allay.—

Friends, loud tumults are not *laid*  
alf the casines that they are rais'd.

*Ben Jonson.*  
with her radiant finger still'd the roar  
der, chas'd the clouds, and *laid* the winds.

*Milton.*

After a tempest, when the winds are *laid*,  
The calm sea wonders at the wrecks it made.  
*Waller.*

I fear'd I should have found  
A tempest in your soul, and came to *lay* it.  
*Denham.*

At once the wind was *laid*. *Dryden.*  
13. To prohibit a spirit to walk.—The husband  
found no charm to *lay* the devil in a petticoat, but  
the rattling of a bladder with beans in it. *L'Esfr.*  
14. To set on a table.—I *laid* meat unto them.  
*Hof.* xi. 4. 15. To propagate plants by fixing  
their twigs in the ground.—The chief time of *lay-*  
ing gilliflowers is in July, when the flowers are  
gone. *Mortimer.* 16. To wager; to stake.—

But since you will be mad, and since you may  
Suspect my courage, if I should not *lay*;

The pawn I proffer shall be full as good. *Dryd.*  
17. To repose any thing.—The sparrow hath  
found an house, and the swallow a nest, for her-  
self, where she may *lay* her young. *Pf.* lxxxiv. 3.

18. To exclude eggs.—After the egg *lay'd*, there  
is no further growth or nourishment from the fe-  
male. *Bacon.*—A hen mistakes a piece of chalk  
for an egg, and sits upon it; she is insensible of  
an increase or diminution in the number of those  
she *lays*. *Addison.* 19. To apply with violence;  
as, to *lay* blows.—*Lay* siege against it, and build a  
fort against it, and cast a mount against it. *Ezek.*

A dreadful band of gloomy cares surround me,  
And *lay* strong siege to my distracted soul.

*Phillips.*  
20. To apply nearly.—She *layeth* her hands to the  
spindle, and her hands hold the distaff. *Proverbs,*  
xxi. 19.—The living will *lay* it to his heart. *Ec-*  
*cles.* vii. 2.—The peacock *laid* it extremely to heart,  
that, being Juno's darling bird, he had not the  
nightingale's voice. *L'Esfrange.*—He that really  
*lays* these two things to heart, the extreme neces-  
sity that he is in, and the small possibility of help,  
will never come coldly to a work of that concern-  
ment. *Duppa.* 21. To add; to conjoin.—Wo un-  
to them them that *lay* field to field. *Isa.* v. 8. 22.

To put in a state; implying somewhat of disclo-  
sure.—If the sinus ly distant, *lay* it open first, and  
cure that apertion before you divide that in ano.  
*Wijem.*—The wars have *laid* whole countries waste.  
*Addison.* 23. To scheme; to contrive.—

Every breast she did with spirit inflame,  
Yet still fresh projects *lay'd* the grey ey'd dame,

*Chapm.*

—Homer is like his Jupiter, has his terrors, shak-  
ing Olympus; Virgil, like the same power in his  
benevolence, countessing with the gods, *laying*  
plans for empires. *Pope.*—Don Diego and we have  
*laid* it so, that before the rope is well about thy  
neck, he will break in and cut thee down. *Ar-*  
*buthnot.* 24. To charge as a payment.—A tax  
*laid* upon land seems hard to the landholder, be-  
cause it is so much money going out of his pocket.  
*Locke.* 25. To impute; to charge.—

*Lay* the fault on us. *Shak.*  
How shall this bloody deed be answered?

It will be *laid* to us. *Shak.*  
We need not *lay* new matter to his charge.

*Shak.*  
—Men groan from out of the city, yet God *layeth*

not folly to them. *Job,* xxiv. 14.—

Let us be glad of this, and all our fears

*Lay* on his providence.

*Par. Reg.*

—The writers of those times *lay* the disgraces and ruins of their country upon the numbers and fierceness of those savage nations that invaded them. *Temple*.—They *lay* want of invention to his charge; a capital crime. *Dryden*.—You represented it to the queen as wholly innocent of those crimes which were *laid* unjustly to its charge. *Dryden*.—They *lay* the blame on the poor little ones. *Locke*.—There was eagerness on both sides; but this is far from *laying* a blot upon Luther. *Atterbury*, 26. To impose, as evil or punishment.—

The weariest and most loathed life

That age, ah, penury, imprisonment,

Can *lay* on nature, is a paradise

To what we fear of death.

*Shak.*

—Thou shalt not be to him as an usurer, neither shalt thou *lay* upon him usury. *Exod.* xx. 25.—The lord shall *lay* the fear of you, and the dread of you upon all the land. *Deut.* xi. 25.—These words were not spoken to Adam; neither, indeed, was there any grant in them made to Adam; but a punishment *laid* upon Eve. *Locke*. 27. To enjoin as a duty, or a rule of action.—It seemed good to *lay* upon you no other burden. *Acts*, xv. 28.—Whilst you *lay* on your friend the favour, acquit him of the debt. *Wycherley*.—

A prince who never disobey'd,

Not when the most severe commands were *laid*.

*Dryden.*

—You see what obligation the profession of Christianity *lays* upon us to holiness of life. *Tillotson*.—

Neglect the rules each verbal critic *lays*,

For not to know some trifles is a praise. *Pope*. 28. To exhibit; to offer.—It is not the manner of the Romans to deliver any man to die, before that he which is accused have the accusers face to face, and have licence to answer for himself concerning the crime *laid* against him. *Acts*, xxv. 16.—Till he *lays* his indictment in some certain country, we do not think ourselves bound to answer. *Atterbury*. 29. To throw by violence.—He bringeth down them that dwell on high; the lofty city he *layeth* it low, even to the ground. *Isa.* xxvi. 5.—

Brave Cæneus *laid* Ortygius on the plain,

The victor Cæneus was by Turnus slain. *Dryd.*

The leaders first

He *laid* along, and then the vulgar pierc'd. *Dryd.*

30. To place in comparison.—*Lay* down by those pleasures the fearful and dangerous thunders and lightnings, and then there will be found no comparison. *Raleigh*. 31. To *LAY* apart. To reject; to put away.—*Lay* apart all filthiness. *James*, i. 21. 32. To *LAY* aside. To put away; not to retain.—Let us *lay* aside every weight, and the sin which doth so easily beset us. *Heb.* xii. 1.—

Amaze us not with that majestic frown,

But *lay* aside the greatness of your crown.

*Waller.*

Recommon first, then Mulgrave rose, like light;

The S. agryite, and Horace, *laid* aside. *Granv.*

—Retention is the power to revive again in our minds those ideas which, after imprinting, have disappeared, or have been *laid* aside out of sight. *Locke*.—

When by just vengeance guilty mortals perish,

The gods behold their punishment with

And *lay* the uplifted thunder-bolt aside

33. To *LAY* away. To put from one; keep.—Queen Esther *laid* away her glory, and put on the garments of anguish. *xiv.* 2. 34. To *LAY* before. To expose; to shew; to display.—I cannot better satisfy piety, than by *laying* before you a prospect of labours. *Wake*.—That treaty hath been *fore* the commons. *Swift*.—Their office *lay* the business of the nation before him. 35. To *LAY* by. To reserve for some future use.—Let every one *lay* by him in store, as he prospered him. *1 Cor.* xvi. 2. 36. To put from one; to dismiss.—Let brethren that have fitted themselves for command by sea or land, not be *laid* by as persons idle for the time. *Bacon*.—She went away *laid* by her veil. *Gen.* xxxviii. 19.—

Did they not swear to live and die

With Essex, and straight *laid* him by.

For that look, which does your peer

When in your throne and robes you

law,

*Lay* it by here, and give a gentler smile

Mira can *lay* her beauty by,

Take no advantage of the eye,

Quit all that Lely's art can take,

And yet a thousand captives make.

Then he *lays* by the publick care,

Thinks of providing for an heir.

The Tuscan king,

*Laid* by the lance, and took him to th

Where Dædalus his borrow'd wings

To that obscure retreat I chuse to fly.

My zeal for you must *lay* the father

And plead my country's cause against

Fortune, conscious of your destiny,

E'en then took care to *lay* you softly

Dismiss your rage, and *lay* your we

Know I protect them, and they shall

—When their displeasure is once declar'd

ought not presently to *lay* by the severity

brows, but restore their children to the

grace with some difficulty. *Locke*. 37.

*down*. To deposit as a pledge, equivalent

satisfaction.—I *lay* down my life for the

x. 15.—

For her, my lord,

I dare my life *lay* down.

38. To *LAY* down. To quit; to resign

foldier being once brought in for the

will not have him to *lay* down his arms:

*Spenser*.—

Ambitious conquerors, in their march

Check'd by thy voice, *lay* down the

appear.

—The story of the tragedy is purely

I take it up where the history has *laid*.

*Dryden*. 39. To *LAY* down. To com-

pose.—I will *lay* me down in peace and

xlvi. —And they *lay* themselves down

laid to pledge by every altar. *Amos*, ii.

*lay* us down, to sleep away our cares; and

up the senses. *Glanc*.—

god conduct me to the sacred shades,  
 he plains of Tempe *lay me down*. *Dryd.*  
*ly down*. To advance as a proposition.  
*laid down*, in some measure, the descrip-  
 old known world. *Abbot*.—Kircher *lays* it  
 certain principle, that there never was any  
 rude, which did not acknowledge and  
 me supremae deity. *Stillingfleet*.—I must  
 this for your encouragement, that we  
 ger now under the heavy yoke of a per-  
 ning obedience. *Wake*.—Plato *lays* it down  
 ipic, that whatever is permitted to be-  
 man, whether poverty or sickness, shall,  
 life or death, conduce to his good.  
 rom the maxims *laid down* many may  
 , that there had been abuses. *Swift*. 41.  
 or. To attempt by ambush, or insidi-  
 lies.—He embarked, being hardly *laid*  
 by Cortugogli, a famous pirate. *Knolles*.  
 ay forth. To diffuse; to expatiate.—  
 the delight of gods and of men! and so  
 myself forth upon the gratefulness of the  
 'Estrange. 43. To LAY forth. To place  
 id in decent posture.—

Embalm me,

*lay me forth*; although unqueen'd, yet  
 ke  
 xa, and daughter to a king, inter me.

*Shak.*

LAY bold of. To seize; to catch.—Then  
 father and his mother *lay bold on* him,  
 g him out. *Deut.* xxi. 19.—Favourable  
 aptitude and inclination, be heedfully  
 of. *Locke*. 45. To LAY in. To store;  
 re.—Let the main part of the ground em-  
 gardens or corn be to a common stock;  
 in, and stored up, and then delivered out  
 rtion. *Bacon*.—

essei and provisions *laid in* large  
 an and beast.

*Milton.*

equal stock of wit and valour  
 d *laid in* by birth a tailor. *Hudibras*.  
 saw the happiness of a private, but they  
 they had not yet enough to make them  
 they would have more, and *laid in* to  
 eir solitude luxurious. *Dryden*.—Readers,  
 in the flower of their youth, should la-  
 those accomplishments which may set off  
 rsons when their bloom is gone, and so  
 rely provisions for manhood and old age.

46. To LAY on. To apply with vio-  
 We make no excuses for the obstinate:  
 re the proper remedies; but blows *laid on*,  
 r different from the ordinary. *Locke*. 47.  
 open. To shew; to expose.—

ach me, dear creature, how to think and  
 peak,  
 pen to my earthy gross conceit,  
 other'd in errors, feeble, shallow weak,  
 folded meaning of your word's deceit.

*Shak.*

l *layeth open* his folly. *Prov.* xiii. 16. 48.  
 over. To incrust; to cover; to deco-  
 rationally.—Wo unto him that saith to the  
 Awake; to the dumb stone, Arise, it shall  
 behold, it is *laid over* with gold and silver,  
 ere is no breath at all in the midst of it.  
 i. 19. 49. To LAY out. To expend.—

Fathers are wont to *lay up* their sons,  
 Thou for thy son are bent to *lay out* all. *Milton*.  
 —Tycho Brahe *laid out*, besides his time and in-  
 dustry, much greater sums of money on instru-  
 ments than any man we ever heard of. *Boyle*.—

The blood and treasure that's *laid out*,  
 Is thrown away, and goes for nought. *Hudibras*.  
 —If you can get a good tutor, you will never re-  
 pent the charge; but will always have the satis-  
 faction to think it the money, of all other, the  
 best *laid out*. *Locke*.—

I, in this venture, double gains pursue,  
 And *laid out* all my stock to purchase you. *Dryd.*  
 My father never at a time like this

Would *lay out* his great soul in words, and waste  
 Such precious moments. *Addif.*  
 —A melancholy thing to see the disorders of a  
 household that is under the conduct of an angry  
 statefswoman, who *lays out* all her thoughts upon  
 the publick, and is only attentive to find out mis-  
 carriages in the ministry. *Addif.*—When a man  
 spends his whole life among the stars and planets,  
 or *lays out* a twelve-month on the spots in the sun,  
 however noble his speculations may be, they are  
 very apt to fall into burlesque. *Addif.*—Nature

has *laid out* all her art in beautifying the face; she  
 has touched it with vermilion, planted in it a  
 double row of ivory, and made it the seat of  
 smiles and blushes. *Addif.* 50. To LAY out. To  
 display; to discover.—He was dangerous, and  
 takes occasion to *lay out* bigotry, and false con-  
 fidence, in all its colours. *Atterbury*. 51. To LAY  
 out. To dispose; to plan.—The garden is *laid out*  
 into a grove for fruits, a vineyard, and an allot-  
 ment for olives and herbs. *Notes on the Odyssey*.  
 52. To LAY out. With the reciprocal pronoun,  
 to exert; to put forth.—No selfish man will be  
 concerned to *lay out* himself for the good of his  
 country. *Smalridge*. 53. To LAY to. To charge  
 upon.—When we began, in courteous manner,  
 to *lay* his unkindness to him, he, seeing himself  
 confronted by so many, like a resolute orator,  
 went not to denial; but to justify his cruel fal-  
 hood. *Sidney*. 54. To LAY to. To apply with vi-  
 gour.—

Let children be hired to *lay to* their bones,  
 From fallow as needeth, to gather up stones.

*Fulser.*

—We should now *lay to* our hands to root them  
 up, and cannot tell for what. *Oxford Reasons a-*  
*gainst the Covenant*. 55. To LAY to. To harass;  
 to attack.—The great master having a careful eye  
 over every part of the city, went himself unto the  
 station, which was then hardly *laid to* by the Bas-  
 sa Mustapha. *Knolles*.—

Whilst he this, and that, and each man's blow,  
 Doth eye, defend, and shift, being *laid to* sore;  
 Backwards he bears. *Daniel's Cru. War.*

56. To LAY together. To collect; to bring into  
 one view.—If we *lay* all these things together, and  
 consider the parts, rise, and degrees of his sin,  
 we shall find that it was not for nothing. *South*.—  
 Many people apprehend danger for want of tak-  
 ing the true measure of things, and *laying* mat-  
 ters rightly together. *L'Estr.*—My readers will be  
 very well pleased, to see so many useful hints up-  
 on this subject *laid together* in so clear and concise  
 a manner. *Addison*.—One series of consequences

will not serve the turn, but many different and opposite deductions must be examined, and *laid together*, before a man can come to make a right judgment of the point in question. *Locke*. 57. To LAY under. To subject to.—

A Roman soul is bent on higher views,  
To civilize the rude unpolish'd world,  
And lay it under the restraint of laws. *Addison*.  
58. To LAY up. To confine to the bed or chamber.—In the East Indies, the general remedy of all subject to the gout, is rubbing with hands till the motion raise a violent heat about the joints: where it was chiefly used, no one was ever troubled much, or *laid up* by that disease. *Temple*. 59. To LAY up. To store; to treasure; to repose for future use.—St Paul did will them of the church of Corinth, every man to *lay up* somewhat by him upon the Sunday. *Hooker*.—Those things which at the first are obscure and hard, when memory hath *laid them up* for a time, judgment afterwards growing explaineth them. *Hooker*.—That which remaineth over, *lay up* to be kept until the morning. *Exod.* xvi. 23.—The king must preserve the revenues of his crown without diminution, and *lay up* treasures in store against a time of extremity. *Bacon*.—The whole was tilled, and the harvest *laid up* in several granaries. *Temple*.—I will *lay up* your words for you till time shall serve. *Dryden*.—This faculty of *laying up*, and retaining ideas, several other animals have to a great degree, as well as men. *Locke*.—

What right, what true, what fit, we justly call,  
Let this be all my care; for this is all:  
To lay this harvest up, and hoard with haste  
What every day will want, and most, the last. *Pope*.  
(2.) \* To LAY. *v. n.* 1. To bring eggs.—Hens will greedily eat the herb which will make them lay the better. *Mortimer*. 2. To contrive; to form a scheme.—

Which mov'd the king,  
By all the aptest means could be procur'd,  
To lay to draw him in by any train. *Daniel*.  
3. To LAY about. To strike on all sides; to act with great diligence and vigour.—

At once he wards and strikes, he takes and pays,  
Before, behind, and round about him he lays. *Spenser*.

And *laid about* in fight more busily,  
Than th' Amazonian dame Penthesile. *Hudib*.  
—In the late successful rebellion, how studiously did they *lay about* them, to cast a slur upon the king? *Soutb*.—He provides elbow-room enough for his conscience to *lay about*, and have its full play in. *Soutb*. 4. To LAY at. To strike; to endeavour to strike.—

Fiercely the good man did at him lay,  
The blade oft groaned under the blow. *Spenser*.  
—The sword of him that *layeth at* him cannot hold. *Job*. 5. To LAY in for. To make overtures of oblique invitation.—I have *laid in* for these, by rebating the satire, where justice would allow it. *Dryden*. 6. To LAY on. To strike; to beat without intermission.—

His heart *laid on* as if it try'd,  
To force a passage through his side. *Hudibras*.  
Answer, or answer not, 'tis all the same,  
He lays me on, and makes me bear the blame. *Dryden*.

7. To LAY on. To act with vehemence expences.—My father has made her 1 the feast, and she *lays it on*. *Shakespeare*. 8 out. To take measures.—I made strict wherever I came, and *laid out* for intellig all places, where the entrails of the e laid open. *Woodward*. 9. To LAY upon. portune; to request with earnestness; faintly. Obsolete.—All the people *laid* 1 ly upon him to take that war in hand, said they would never bear arms more a Turks, if he omitted that occasion. *Kne*

(1.) \* LAY. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1 a stratum; a layer; one rank in a series ed upwards.—A viol should have a *lay* strings below, as close to the belly as and then the strings of guts mounted bridge as in ordinary viols, that the up strucken might make the lower rebound. Upon this they lay a layer of stone, and 1 a lay of wood. *Mortimer*. 2. A wager steemed an eyes *lay*, whether any man years longer: I suppose it is the same, of any ten might die within one year. *G*

(2.) \* LAY. *n. f.* [*ley, leag*, Sax. *ley*, Grassy ground; meadow; ground, unple kept for cattle; more frequently, and n perly, written *lea*.—

A tuft of daisies on a flow'ry lay  
They saw.

—The plowing of *lays* is the first plow grafs ground for corn. *Mortimer's Hist.*

(3.) \* LAY. *n. f.* [*lay*, French. It is ginally, to signify *sorrow* or *complaint*, and have been transferred to poems written t sorrow. It is derived by the French fr Latin, a funeral song; but it is found li the Teutonick dialect: *ky, kod*, Saxon; *nish*.] A song; a poem. It is scarcely in poetry.—

To the maiden's sounding timbrels  
In well attuned notes, a joyous lay.

Soon he slumber'd, fearing not be h  
The whiles with a loud lay, she thus hi  
ly charm'd.

This is a most majestic vision, and  
Harmonious charming lays.

Nor then the solemn nightingal  
Ceas'd warbling, but all night tun'd her

If Jove's will  
Have link'd that amorous power to thy  
Now timely sing.  
He reach'd the nymph with his harmo:  
Whom all his charms could not inclin:

On Ceres let him call. and Ceres pr  
With uncouth dances, and with count

Ev'n gods incline their ravish'd ears,  
And tune their own harmonious spher  
To his immortal lays.

(4.) A LAY (§ 3.) was a kind of ancie among the French, consisting of very sho There were two sorts of lays; the *great*, *little*. The former consisted of 12 couplet ses, of different measures; the latter of 1 verses, divided into 4 couplets. These l

be lyric poetry of the old French poets, who were imitated by some among the English. They are said to have been formed on the model of the trochaic verses of the Greek and Latin tragedies.

(2.) \* LAY. *Preterite of lye.*—

O! would the quarrel lay upon our heads.

*Shak.*

—He was familiarly acquainted with him at such time as he lay ambassador at Constantinople. *Isid.*—When Ahab had heard those words he faked, and lay in sackcloth. 1 Kings, xxi. 27.—

I try'd whatever in the Godhead lay. *Dryden.*

He rode to rouse the prey,

That shaded by the fern in harbour lay,

And thence dislodged.

*Dryd.*

—Leaving Rome, in my way to Sienna, I lay the night at a village in the territories of the ancient

*Vol. Aidsfen.*—The burthen of the reformation lay upon his shoulders! *Francis Atterbury.*—The Jacobitians argued, That if the Pretender should invade those parts where the numbers and prizes of the dissenters chiefly lay they would fit

*Swift.*  
(A.) \* LAY. *adj.* [*laicus*, Latin; *lay* *☉*.] Not clerical; regarding or belonging to the people as distinct from the clergy.—

Altho' they had by law, and none repin'd,

The preference was but due to Levi's kind:

But when some lay preferment fell by chance,

The Gourmands made it their inheritance. *Dryd.*

—Lay persons, married or unmarried, being doctors of the civil law, may be chancellors, officials,

*De Ayliffe.*—

It might well startle

Our lay unlearned faith.

*Rowe.*

(2.) LAY BROTHERS, among the Romanists, pious but illiterate persons, who devote themselves to some convent to the service of the religious. They wear a different habit from that of the religious; but never enter into the choir, nor are present at the chapters: nor do they make any other except of constancy and obedience. In the convents there are also lay-sisters.

LAYAU, a town, river, and bay of St Vincents, on the W. coast. Lon. 61. 18. W. Lat. 13. 8. N.

(1.) LAYBACH, a navigable river of Germany, in Carniola, which rises a mile W. of Upper Laybach N. E. and runs into the Save, 3 miles W. of Kreuthberg.

(2.) LAYBACH, a town of Carniola, on the same river; 28 miles NE. of Trieste.

(3.) LAYBACH, UPPER, a town of Carniola, 11 miles SW. of Laybach, and 9 SE. of Hydria.

LAYCOCK, a town of Wiltshire, 4 miles from Chippenham. It has fairs July 7, and Dec. 21.

LAYDON, a town of Kent, in Sheppey isle.

(1.) \* LAYER. *n. f.* (from *lay*.) 1. A stratum, or one body spread over another.—A layer of rich mould beneath, about this natural

method to nourish the fibres. *Evelyn.*—The terrestrial matter is disposed into strata or layers, piled one upon another, in like manner as any earthy substance, settling down from a flood in great quantity, will naturally be. *Woodward.* 2. A layer of a plant.—Many trees may be propagated by layers. *Miller.*—Transplant also carnation seedlings, give your layers fresh earth, and set them

in the shade for a week. *Evelyn.* 3. A hen that lays eggs.—The oldest are always reckoned the best fitters, and the youngest the best layers. *Mort.*

(2.) LAYERS in gardening (§ 1. def. 2.) are tender shoots or twigs of trees, laid in the ground, till, having struck root, they are separated from the parent tree, and become distinct plants.—The propagating trees by layers is done in the following manner: The branches of the trees are to be slit a little way, and laid under the mould for about half a foot; the ground should be first made very light, and after they are laid they should be gently watered. If they will not remain easily in the position they are put in, they must be pegged down with wooden hooks: the best season for doing this is, for ever greens, towards the end of August; and, for other trees, in the beginning of February. If they have taken root, they are to be cut off from the main plant the succeeding winter, and planted out. If the branch is too high from the ground, a tub of earth is to be raised to a proper height for it. Some pare off the rhind, and others twist the branch before they lay it, but this is not necessary. The end of the layer should be about a foot out of the ground; and the branch may be either tied tight round with a wire, or cut upwards from a joint, or cut round for an inch or two at the place, and it is a good method to pierce several holes through it with an awl above the part tied with the wire.

LAYING THE LAND, in navigation, the state of motion which increases the distance from the coast, so as to make it appear lower and smaller, a circumstance which evidently arises from the intervening convexity of the surface of the sea. It is used in contradiction to raising the land, which is produced by the opposite motion of approach towards it.

\* LAYMAN. *n. f.* [*lay* and *man*.] 1. One of the people distinct from the clergy.—*Laymen* will neither admonish one another themselves, nor suffer ministers to do it. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—

Since a trust must be, the thought it best

To put it out of laymens pow'r at least,

And for their solemn vows prepar'd a priest.

*Dryden.*

—Where can be the grievance, that an ecclesiastical landlord should expect a third part value for his lands, his title as antient, and as legal, as that of a layman, who is seldom guilty of giving such beneficial bargains. *Swift.* 2. An image used by painters in contriving attitudes.—You are to have a layman almost as big as the life for every figure in particular, besides the natural figure before you. *Dryden's Def.*

LAYMEBAMBA, a town of Peru.

LAYRAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, 4½ miles S. of Agen, and 9 W. of Valence.

LAYSSAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Aveyron; 12 miles E. of Rodez.

\* LAYSTALL. *n. f.* An heap of dung.—

Scarce could he footing find in that foul way,  
For many corpses, like a great lay-stall

Of murdered men, which therein strewed lay.

*Spenser.*

LAYSTOFF, or LOWESTOFF, a town of Suffolk



folk, 117 miles from London. It seems to hang over the sea, and its chief business is fishing for cod in the North Sea, and for herring, mackerel, and sprats, at home. The church being 3 furlongs off, there is a chapel in the place. Having been a part of the ancient demesnes of the crown, this town has a charter and a seal, by the former of which the inhabitants are exempted from serving on juries. It has a market on Wednesday, and two annual fairs. Some reckon this the most eastern part of Britain.

LAYTONS, a town of the United States, in Virginia; 13 miles ESE. of Port Royal.

LAZA, a town of Spain, in Galicia.

LAZANILLA, a town in the isle of Cuba.

\* LAZAR. *n. f.* [from *Lazarus* in the gospel.] One deformed and nauseous with filthy and pestilential diseases.—

They ever after in most wretched case,

Like loathsome lazars, by the hedges lay. *F. Q.*  
—'I'll be sworn, and sworn upon't, she never shrowded any but lazars. *Shakesp.*—I am weary with drawing the deformities of life, and lazars of the people, where every figure of imperfection more resembles me. *Dryden.*—

Life he labours to refine

Daily, nor of his little stock denies  
Fit alms to lazars merciful and meek. *Philips.*  
LAZARE BUEY, a town of Spain, in New Castile, 8 miles from Toledo.

LAZARELLI, John Francis, an Italian poet, born at Guibo. He wrote sonnets and satirical poems, which have been often printed; and died in 1694.

(1.) LAZARETTO, an island in the Mediterranean, near the N. coast of Candy, formerly used by the Venetians as a lazaretto.

(2.) \* LAZARETTO, LAZAR-HOUSE. *n. f.* [*lazaret*, Fr. *lazaretto*, Ital. from *lazar*.] A house for the reception of the diseased; an hospital.—

A place

Before his eyes appear'd, sad, noisome, dark,  
A *lazar-house* it seem'd, where were laid  
Numbers of all diseases'd. *Milton.*

(3.) LAZARETTOS, or } are chiefly intended  
LAZAR-HOUSES, } for those afflicted  
with contagious distempers; and are particularly appointed for the performance of quarantine, by those who are suspected to have come from places infected with the plague.

LAZARIN, a town of Portugal, in Beira.

LAZARUS, [לָאָרִי, Heb. *i. e.* the Lord's help.] a Jew of Bethany, whom our Saviour raised from the dead, after having been 4 days in the grave. This miracle, with many peculiarly affecting circumstances attending it, is recorded in John xi. Lazarus, from the uncommon attention paid to his sisters by the Jews, upon his death, is supposed to have been a man of considerable property. He and his sisters, Martha and Mary, are recorded to have been among the peculiarly beloved friends of our Lord.

(1.) \* LAZARWORT. *n. f.* [*Laserpitium*.] A plant.

(2.) LAZARWORT. See LASERPITIUM.

\* LAZILY. *adv.* [from *lazy*.] Idly; sluggishly; heavily.—Watch him at play, when following his own inclinations; and see whether he be stirring

and active, or whether he *lazily* and listlessly dreads away his time. *Locke.*—

The eastern nations view the rising fires,  
Whilst night shades us, and *lazily* retires. *Crœ*

\* LAZINESS. *n. f.* [from *lazy*.] Idleness; selfishness; listlessness; heaviness in action; tameness.—That instance of fraud and *laziness*, the just steward, who pleaded that he could neither dig nor beg, would quickly have been brought both to dig and to beg too, rather than stand *South.*—My fortune you have rescued, not from the power of others, but from my own destiny and *laziness*. *Dryden.*

\* LAZING. *adj.* [from *lazy*.] Sluggish; idle.—The hands and feet mutinied against belly: they knew no reason, why the one should be *lazing*, and pampering itself with the fruit of the other's labour. *L'flr.*—The sot cried, *Utin hoc esset laborare*, while he lay *lazing* and lolled upon his couch. *South.*

LAZISE. See LACIZE.

LAZONBY, a small town of Cumberland, in Salkeld and Penrith.

(1.) \* LAZULI. *n. f.* The ground of this stone is blue, veined and spotted with white, and appearing or metallick yellow: it appears to be composed of, first, a white sparry, or crystalline matter: adly, flakes of the golden yellow tale; 3dly, a shining yellow substance; this fuses off in calcination of the stone, and casts a sulphureous smell; 4thly, a bright blue substance, of great value among the painters, under the name of ultramarine; and when rich, is found, upon trial, to yield about one 6th of copper, with a very little silver. *Woodward.*

(2.) LAZULI LAPIS, a species of zeolite, belonging to the class of argillaceous earths. See CLASSES, § 1, 4. It is of a blue colour. That which is a fine blue inclining to purple, has obtained the name of Oriental; but the pale blue is less esteemed. It is frequently variegated with yellow, white shining veins and speckles; which seem to be gold and silver, though they are in truth nothing but marcasites. The lapis lazuli has the following properties: 1. It retains its blue colour for a long time in calcining heat; but change last to a brown. 2. It melts easily in the fire to a white frothy slag; which puffs up greatly when exposed to the flame of a blow-pipe; but with strong heat in a covered vessel, it becomes compact and solid, with blue clouds in it. 3. It does not ferment with acids; but, if boiled with oil of vitriol, it slowly dissolves, and loses its blue colour. On adding a solution of fixed alkali, it precipitates a white earth, which being scorified with borax yields a silver coloured regulus, varying in beauty according to the different specimens of the stone. 4. By scorification with lead, it yields silver, sometimes in the quantity of 2 ounces to 1 cwt. of stone. 5. Oil of vitriol discovers the presence of silver more certainly in lapis lazuli than spirit of nitre. 6. On adding spirit of sal ammoniac to a solution either of crude or calcined lapis lazuli, no blue colour is produced; a certain proof that it does not depend on copper; which is further confirmed by the fixity of the blue colour in fire, and the colour of the slag or glass. 7. It is somewhat harder than the other kinds of zeo-

not approach to the hardness of quartz siliceous stones in general; for the purest lapis lazuli, may be rubbed into a white by means of steel, though it takes a comparable. 8. When perfectly calcined, it attracted by the loadstone; and when with lead, the slag becomes of a greenish and not like that produced by copper, as is always produced by iron mixed calcareous substance.—Mongez informs us, of the parts of lapis lazuli will strike steel. According to Cronstedt, it is seldom pure; but generally full of veins of melstone, and marcasite: but for the experiments by which the above mentioned quality determined, the purest pieces were picked as has been examined through a magnifying glass, and judged as free from heterogeneity as possible. Our author expresses a such as are in possession of any quantity stone would make farther experiments; and what substance it is which produces colour so constant in the fire, since it can be either on copper or iron; for though also on certain occasions, give a blue colour they never produce any other but what vanishes in the fire, and is destroyed by an alkali. "What is mentioned in several (says he) can by no means be objected to in these processes the silver employed with copper and other substances which volatile alkali, whereby the blue colour is produced." In 1761, M. Margraaf published experiments on the lapis lazuli, in which in a great measure with Cronstedt. According to him, the lapis lazuli does not contain iron; but he found in it a calcareous substance, though he took care to pick every purest bits he could find. Engestrom, is of opinion, that the calcareous is not essential to lapis lazuli; as Cronstedt, that the lapis lazuli he tried did not contain acids. He farther mentions, that dissolved in any of the mineral acids, it altered them into a jelly. Some of his experiments also indicate, that all kinds of lapis lazuli contain silver, though many of them lapis lazuli is found in many parts of Asia; but that of Asia and Africa is much more in beauty and real value to the Bohemian German kinds, which are too often false.

*Y. adj.* [This word is derived by a conjecture, with great probability, from a *l'aise*, but it is however Teutonic; *lijfer* in old *lofgh* in Dutch, have the same meaning. *Spelman* gives this account of the word: *antiqui Saxones, ut testatur Nithars ordinis; Edhilingos, Frilingos & Laxest nobiles, ingenuos & serviles; quam inactionem diu retinimus. Sed Ricardo undo pars servorum maxima se in liberavit; sic ut hodie apud Anglos rarior servus, qui mancipium dicitur. Restat in antiqua appellationis commemoratio. um hodie lazic dicimus.*] 1. Idle; sluggish to work.—

oldiers, like the night-owl's *lazy* flight  
III. PAR I I.

Or like a *lazy* thrasher with *fall*.  
Fall gently down, as if they struck their friends,  
—Wicked condemned men will ever live like  
regia, and not fall to work, but be *lazy*, and  
spend victuals. *Bacon*.—  
While *lazy* waters without motion lay. *Ros.*  
The *lazy* glutton safe at home will keep. *Dryd.*  
Like Eastern kings a *lazy* state they keep,  
And close confin'd in their own palace sleep. *Pope.*  
Or *lazy* lakes unconscious of a flood,  
Whose dull brown Naiads ever sleep in mud.

—What amazing stupidity is it, for men to be negligent of salvation themselves! to sit down *lazy* and unactive. *Rogers*: 2. Slow; tedious.—The ordinary method for recruiting their armies, was now too dull and *lazy* an expedient to resist this torrent. *Clarendon*.

**LAZZARETTE**, an island of Maritime Austria, in the Adriatic, near Venice, anciently called *St Maria of Nazareth*, where the Levant ships perform quarantine: For this purpose inns were built on it in 1422, which were rebuilt and enlarged in 1565.

**LAZZARO**, St, an island of Maritime Austria, S. of Venice, in the Lagoon. In 1182, it was allotted to poor persons afflicted with leprosy. It has an elegant church and convent, with a library belonging to the Armenian monks.

**LAZZERO**, St, a village of Maritime Austria, near Padua.

\* LD. is a contraction of *lord*.  
(1.) \* LEA. *n. f.* [Sax. a fallow; *laeg*, Sax. a pasture.] Ground inclosed, not open. Obsolete.—

Greatly agast with this piteous plea;  
Him rested the good man on the *lea*. *Spenser.*  
Ceres, most bounteous lady, thy rich *leas*  
Of wheat, rye, barley, fitches, oats and peas.

Her fallow *leas*  
The darnel, hemlock, and rank fumitory  
Doth root upon. *Shak.*  
Dry up thy harrow'd veins, and plough torn  
*leas*. *Shak.*  
On the lawns, and on the *leas*. *Milton.*  
The lowing herds wind slowly over the *lea*.  
*Grey.*

(1.) LEA, a river of England, which rises near Luton in Bedfordshire, and running to Hertford and Ware, and afterwards S. dividing Essex from part of Hertfordshire, and from Middlesex, falls into the Thames below Blackwall. Great quantities of corn are brought by it from Hertfordshire to London.

(3—17.) LEA is also the name of 15 English villages; viz. of 3 in Cheshire, 3 in Shropshire, 2 in Wilts; and of one each in Derby, Gloucester, Hereford, Hertford, Lancashire, Stafford, and Warwick, shires.

LEACH, a river in Gloucestershire.

LEACHLADE, a town of Gloucestershire, 12 miles E. of Cirencester, 29 from Gloucester, and 60 from London. The Thames waters it on the S. and E. and divides it from Wiltshire and Berkshire. The Leach runs through the N. side of the parish. The Thames is navigable for barges.

of 50 tons burden, but want of water one part of the year makes the navigation very uncertain. It has a market on Tuesday, and two fairs. The church is a large handsome building, with double aisles, supported by two rows of fluted pillars: Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 51. 42. N.

(11.) \*LEAD. *n. f.* [*led*, Saxon.] 1. *Lead* is the heaviest metal except gold and quicksilver. *Lead* is the softest of all the metals, and very little subject to rust. The weakest acids are the best solvents for *lead*; it dissolves very readily in aqua fortis diluted with water, as also in vinegar. The smoke of *lead* works is a prodigious annoyance, and subjects both the workmen, and the cattle that graze about them, to a mortal disease. *Hill*—  
Mine own tears

Do scald like molten lead. *Shak.*  
—Of *lead*, some I can shew you so like steel, and so unlike common *lead* ore, that the workmen call it steel ore. *Boyle*.—*Lead* is employed for the refining of gold and silver by the cupel; hereof is made common ceruss with vinegar; of ceruss, red *lead*; of plumbum ustum, the best yellow ochre; of *lead*, and half as much tin, folder for *lead*. *Grow*. 2. [In the plural.] Flat roof to walk on; because houses are covered with *lead*.—  
Stalls, bulks, windows,

Are smother'd up, *leads* fill'd and ridges hors'd  
With variable complexions; all agreeing  
In earnestness to see him. *Shak.*  
—I would have the tower two stories, and goodly *leads* upon the top, raised with statues interposed. *Bacon*.

(2.) *Lead* is one of the imperfect metals, of a dull white colour inclining to blue, the least ductile, the least elastic, and the least sonorous of the whole; and possesses a considerable degree of specific gravity, reaching from 11.3 to 11.479. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(3.) *LEAD, GLASS OF*. See § 6. and GLASS, § 21.

(4.) *LEAD, NATIVE*. Cronstedt and some other mineralogists have doubted whether native *lead* was ever found in the earth, (see CHEMISTRY, § 854.); but the matter is now decided by innumerable testimonies. It appears from the *Philos. Transf.* for 1772, that some small pieces of native *lead* were found in Monmouthshire, in Wales. Bomare mentions a curious specimen of native *lead* kept in the collection of the abbe Nolin at Paris, that had been found in the lead mines of *Pompean*, near Rennes. It was very malleable, could be cut with a knife without crumbling, and easily melted over the flame of a candle. It weighed about 2 lb. was imbedded in an earthy *lead* ore of a reddish colour; and had a slaty vein that went through the middle of it.

(5.) *LEAD, ORES OF*. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. *Lead* ores are found in various forms: 1. *Lead spar* is sometimes transparent, but generally opaque, and crystallized in regular forms of a laminar or striated texture. 2. *Lead ochre*, or native CERUSS, is the same substance, but in a loose form, or indurated and shapeless. Sometimes it is found in a silky form. Both contain some iron, calcareous earth, and clay; and both grow red or yellowish when heated. They effervesce with acids, and afford from 60 to 80 or 90 per cent of *lead*. They are found in Brittany, Lorrain, Ger-

many, and England. M. Sage, of the royal academy of Paris, pretended, that the white *lead* ore from Poulawen in the county of Bretagne, was mineralized by the marine acid; but his mistake was detected by the commissioners of that academy. This ore, according to these academicians, is composed of striated crystals, of a whitish pale, red, or grey colour. There is a *lead* ore of this kind sometimes grey and sometimes yellow, which is very heavy. Its structure is either lamellated or fibrous, and its laminae can hardly be separated; but it is friable, and may be cut with a knife. Sometimes it is crystallized; and sometimes its fibres are extremely thin, semitransparent, and have a silky look. They effervesce with acids, decrepitate in the fire, and seem to lose the aerial acid by which the *lead* is mineralized. The sparry *lead* ore has often a semitransparency like the sparry fluor; its crystals being generally terminated by hexahedral prisms, or cylindrical columns, striated, and apparently composed of a great number of filaments. These sparry crystals are always found in the same places with the galenas or sulphurated *lead* ores; and seem to be formed from their decomposition after the loss of their sulphur; so that it is not uncommon to find galenas which are beginning to pass into a state of white *lead*. There is a black ore of *lead*, which may be supposed to be an intermediate state betwixt the white *lead* ore and galena, as it seems to be a true white *lead* tinged by the hepatic vapours of the sulphur on its parting from the galena. There is also a green transparent *lead*, having a more or less yellowish cast. It frequently has no regular form, and appears like a kind of moss. When this green ore is crystallized, it consists of hexahedral truncated prisms, terminated by six-sided pyramids, either entire or truncated in the base. Prof. Brunnich says, that the green and the black *lead* ores from Saxony, and the Hungarian blue ores, are prismatic. According to Kirwan and Mongez, the green *lead* ores are either crystallized in needles as in Brittany, or in a loose powder as in Saxony; but mostly adhering to and investing quartz. They owe their green colour to iron, seldom containing any copper, and are very rare. Brunnich mentions a sapphire-coloured ore once found among some white *lead* spar at Wendisch Lemen. It was easily melted by a blow pipe. Natural red-*lead* or minium has been found in some Siberian mines. It is found either crystallized, or in shapeless masses, or in powder, in which it agrees with the brown or yellow ore. Dr J. R. Forster brought some of the crystallized red *lead* ore from Russia. The crystals were cubical, and the colour seemed rather pale. The red Siberian ores are perfectly rhombic; those from Bohemia have a cubical or rhomboidal form. Sulphur and arsenic are found in the red ones, but the others have not been sufficiently investigated. Most of them effervesce with acids. 3. *Arsenical lead spar*. Cronstedt says, that he tried an ore of this kind from an unknown place in Germany, and found that no metal could be melted from it by means of the blow-pipe; it could be done by other spars; but in a crucible that part of the arsenic which did not fly off was likewise reduced, and in the form of grains distilled

nd forced into the lead. Another ore fithis, and which likewise was not easily by means of the blow pipe, always shot gonal, but chiefly hexagonal crystals afmelted, having shining surfaces. Prof. observes, that these ores effervesce with d contain 40 per cent of lead. 4. The of the Germans contains lead minera-sulphur alone, and of this there are two varieties. At Villach in Austria there is found a potter's lead ore containing not ft portion of silver. 5. *Lead mineralized itriolic acid*, is generally in the form of a f, soluble in 18 times its quantity of metimes it is blackish, and crystallized in striz, or in friable stalactites; this last va-resces in the air, and is converted into a ol of lead. According to Mr Kirwan, it effervesce nor is soluble in other acids, e reduced by laying it on a burning coal. tes from the decomposition of sulphu-d ores. Dr Withering says, it is found quantity in the island of Anglesey; but ) iron, and not reducible by the blow-charcoal. 6. *Lead mineralized by the phos-id*, was discovered by Mr Gahn. It is of th yellow, or reddish colour, and does e with acids. After solution in nitrous e lead may be precipitated from this ore itriolic acid: 100 grains of lead are pro-ram 117 of this precipitate washed and The decanted liquor evaporated to dry-nds the phosphoric acid, from which the ible compound may be produced by dis-with charcoal. Seven ounces of this lead the neighbourhood of Friburg, treated anner, yielded by distillation 144 grains horus. A compound similar to this ore obtained by mixing pure phosphoric acid such as is combined with the volatile al-the fossile alkali in the microsmic salt hin-operation) with red lead. 7. **GALENA, ERS ORE**, in which the metal is miner-sulphurated silver. According to Mr it is the most common of all the lead t bluish dark lead colour, formed of cubes derate size, or in grains of a cubic fise-ose corners have been cut off; its texture ur, and its hardness varying in different is. That which is formed into grains is to be the richest in silver; but even ains only about one or one and a half ; that is, about 12 or 18 ounces per and the poorest not above 60 grains. t yield about half an ounce of silver per re barely worth the extracting. Differen-ens also vary in the quantity of sulphur ain, from 15 to 25 per cent, and that ntains the least is in some degree mallea-e proportion of iron in this ore is very at the lead is from 60 to 85 per cent. M. asserts, that galena is insoluble in the ni-id; but Dr Watson has shown, that it is ely dissolved by the acid when diluted. itic gravity of galena is from 7000 to It yields a yellow slag when melted. M. y distinguishes several varieties of this ore.

1. Cubic galena, the cubes of which are of va-rious sizes, and found either single or in groups; it is often found with the angles truncated, and is common at Freyberg. 1. In masses, without any regular configuration; very common at St Mare. 3. With large facets. It does not compose regu-lar crystals, but is entirely formed of large laminae. 4. With small facets, appearing like mica, com-posed of white and very brilliant scales. It is cal- led white silver ore, because it contains a consider- able quantity of that metal. 5. Small grained ga- lena, so called because it has a very close grain. It is likewise very rich in silver, and is found with the foregoing ore. No galena excepting that of Carinthia, is known to be without silver; but it has been observed, that those which afford the most silver have the smallest facets. 6. Galena crystallized like lead spar, in hexagonal prisms or cylindrical columns, contains little silver, and seems to be merely spathose lead, mineralized with- out having lost its form. Crystals of pure spathose lead entirely covered with a very fine galena, are sometimes found in the same piece, together with others which are changed into galena throughout. 8. *Antimonial lead ore*, in which the metal is mi- neralized by sulphur with silver and regulus of an- timony. This is of the same colour with galena, but its texture is different, being radiated, fila- mentous, or striated. When heated, it yields a white smoke; and it affords from 40 to 50 per cent of lead, and from  $\frac{1}{2}$  oz. to 2 oz. of silver per quintal. 9. *Pyritous lead ore*, mineralized by sulphur with silver and a large proportion of iron. This is of a brown or yellowish colour; of an oblong or stalac- tical form; friable; and of a lamellar, striated, or loose texture; affording 18 or 20 per cent of lead at most, which is obtained merely by melting it, the iron detaining the sulphur. It is only a mixture of galena with the brown pyrites. 10. *Lead mineralized by arsenic*, was lately discovered in Siberia. It is of a pale colour externally, but internally of a deep red. It is for the most part crystallized in rhomboidal parallelepipeds, or ir- regular pyramids. Lehman says, that it con- tains sulphur, arsenic, and about 54 per cent of lead; and Mr Pallas says, that it contains some silver also. It was found near Catherineburg in Siberia; and Lehman says, that on being reduced to powder, it resembled the best carmine. A specimen examined by Mongez was of a yellow greenish colour, and was found among quartz in the same country, and contained some arsenic. Both these, according to M. Magellan, may be easily reduced by a blow-pipe. 11. *Stoney or sandy lead ores*, consist either of the calciform or galena kind, intimately mixed and diffused through stones and earth, chiefly of the calcareous or barytic genus. To this species Mongez refers the earthy lead ore, falsely called *native musicot*, found in the lead mines of Pompean, principally in solid pieces. These are either yellowish or grey: they appear bright like glass when broken, and effervesce with acids; whence it appears that the ore contains fixed air. Sometimes it is mixed with clay. 12. The mine of Morgenstern at Freyberg has a peculiar variety of lead ore con- taining silver, which deserves to be noticed on ac-

count of its yellowish brown colour, and likewise on account of its singular figure, which consists of slender cylinders. Sometimes it is found in dendritical forms, like the *kuis kobalt*. Most of the ores of lead contain silver; and those kinds of galena which do not, are very scarce. In Hungary and Transylvania, the lead ore contains a quantity of gold as well as silver. Sometimes the potter's ores are found so poor in silver, that it is not worth the expence of extracting it. These, when free from mixtures of the rock, are employed without any fusion to glaze earthen ware; and a considerable trade is carried on in the Mediterranean with such ores from the mines of Sardinia and France.

(6.) LEAD, PHENOMENA AND PROPERTIES OF.

Lead unites with most metals except iron when exposed to heat, it melts long before it is ignited. By a strong heat it becomes volatile, and flies off in vapours. If suffered to cool very slowly, and the melted portion be poured off from that which is become solid, it is found to be crystallized in quadrangular pyramids. When melted with the contact of air, it soon becomes covered with a grey dull pellicle, which by proper management is converted into MINIMUM, as explained under CHEMISTRY; and by this operation it becomes heavier by about 10 lb. in the 100. By too much heat minimum loses its beautiful red colour, and assumes that of a pale yellow; by a heat still more violent, it melts into a transparent glass, so fusible that it penetrates the crucible and escapes. But if one part of sand be added to three parts of calx of lead, the sand melts, by the assistance of the calx, into a beautiful amber-coloured glass. With two parts of lead and one of sand, it resembles a topaz. A similar quantity of the calx of lead, added to common glass, does not alter its transparency, but gives it a greater degree of weight, and more especially a kind of unctuousness, which renders it capable of being cut and polished more easily without breaking. This glass is very proper for making achromatic lenses; but is subject to veins, and to have a gelatinous appearance. "The English (says M. Fourcroy) call it *flint glass*; our workmen find great difficulty in selecting pieces of any considerable magnitude, exempt from striae, in that which is imported from England." This great imperfection seems, in Macquer's opinion, to depend on the principles of the glass not being uniformly combined: for that purpose it is necessary that it should be kept in fusion for a long time; but as the lead would by that means be dissipated, the flint-glass would lose a part of its density and unctuousness, which are its chief merit. M. Magellan tells us, that it is the purest calx of lead called *minimum*, made immediately from the metal, and the most pure quartzous sand, with pure mineral alkali, or rather with good nitre, that produce, when properly melted, the best flint glass. The greater the proportion of red-lead, the heavier is the glass, and of course its refraction the greater; an essential requisite for such glass as is employed for the lenses of achromatic telescopes. It must, however, be observed, that glass made with lead has the defect of being of unequal density, for want of a perfect mixture of all its parts; so that it is

extremely difficult to find pieces of a diameter among hundred weights of that shall be quite free from filaments. By chance the late Mr Dollond procured pure flint-glass, from which he made admirable triple object lenses of three feet focus, which have been so much admired, that no such other glass has yet been found. Very considerable premiums have been offered for the method of producing the best kind of optical instruments. All the calces of cially minium, have a great attraction for air. If therefore we should desire a calx in perfect purity, it must be kept free from the contact of air, or slightly calcined and used, to separate the fixed air it may be bed. When exposed to the air, it is in proportion to the dampness of the air attracts a white rust, which is not a pure calx combined with the fixed air imbibed from the atmosphere. It is not altered by pure air; therefore we must conclude, that the water with which the internal part of lead pipe which water runs is usually covered, owing to the saline substances contained in it. M. Magellan endeavours to account for the phenomena of the calcination of lead, by the doctrine of phlogiston; but they may be accounted for upon the Lavoisier's (See CHEMISTRY) Caustic alkaline liquor on lead, dissolve a small quantity of it, and more. Plants do not thrive so well as in earthen vessels.

(7.) LEAD, POISONOUS EFFECTS OF

When taken into the human body, is productive of various disorders, particularly a danger of choleric terminating in a palsy; and common earthen ware is glazed with it, the use of it cannot be supposed to be void in all cases. Fountains, or vessels of earthenware contain water, often communicate a noxious quality to it when suffered to remain long; the vapour is dangerous to the workmen, and the fumes falling upon the grass are noxious to the cattle who eat it; the fish habit the waters near smelting-houses; nor is it safe for any animal to drink it. The habit of poisoning by lead, antimonial emetics are commended. Navier prescribes liver and hepatic waters. The internal use is certainly dangerous, though it is often used in medicine; and even the external use altogether safe. Certain it is, that all who deal much in lead, are subject to the above mentioned from the habitual contact of metal or its calces, even though they do not use it internally, nor are exposed to its fumes.

§ 12. (8.) LEAD, RED. See CHEMISTRY, MINIMUM.

(9.) LEAD, SALT OF. See PHARMACY

(10.) LEAD, SHEET. See PLUMBERY

(11.) LEAD, SUGAR OF. See CHEMISTRY, PHARMACY, Index.

(12.) LEAD, USES OF. In Holland customary to correct the most offensive oils, as that of rape-seed and rancid oils or olives, by impregnating them with

to abuse may be discovered by mixing a hat oil with a solution of orpiment made water: for, on shaking them together, and them to rest, the oil, if it has any saturation, will appear of an orange red; but if a pale yellowish one. A similar abuse been practised with acid wines, which dis- much of the lead as communicate a sweet- This is discovered in a similar manner; n this principle is founded the *liquor pro-* or test-liquor. This liquor is merely a for- orpiment or liver of sulphur in lime-water. drops of this solution be put in a glass of ected liquor, it will exhibit a precipitation rk-coloured cloud. This is owing to the ent of the lead to the sulphur in the orpi- If lead, or its calces, in powder, be mix- a solution of hepar sulphuris, a decompos- sives, but the alkali is not thus deprived sulphur. Instead of this, it is re-converted oiated tartar. Lead cannot be united e: but if both are exposed to the fire in a vessel, the lead scorifies the iron, after t melts with the calx into a dark-coloured. This property which lead possesses, of re- all the imperfect metals to a glass, is the of its being used in the REFINING, or pu- on of gold and silver; neither of which can ed by it, but remain pure in the bottom upel. This process is the more complete on of the great efficacy of lead in dissolving bodies. In this respect it is so powerful a at no earthen vessel or crucible can con- when fused, of whatever materials the ves- ade. A mixture of raw and burned clay he action of lead for the greatest length of ut at last this also gives way, and is con- n the sides. LITHARGE, a sort of refuse is employed in the composition of all the uses called PASTES, which are designed as ns of precious stones. The addition of li- enders them more solid and brilliant. The d ingredients are the purest of flint, puri- ali, borax, and litharge; the other addi- bly of metallic calces, are added, mere- sake of tinging them with various col- Lead is employed in making various ves- cisters for water, large boilers for chemi- other purposes, &c. It is frequently ith tin by the pewterers; a practice which rorey sets forth as very dangerous, and e following process for detecting it: Dis- oz. of the suspected metal in 5 oz. of a re nitrous acid. The calx of tin is to be with 4 lb. of distilled water, and dried; and er evaporated by the heat of a water-bath. evaporation nitre of lead is procured; eing calcined, the weight of the residue he quantity of metal contained in the tin, 3 a few grains for the augmentation of arising from calcination, as well as the o- talic substances, such as zinc and copper, the tin under examination may contain. and Charlard by this method ascertained, e wrought tin or pewter contains about f lead in the 100; and that the common d in France under that name, often con- lb. in the same quantity; an enormous

dose, sufficient to expose those who use vessels made of this composition to the greatest danger." There are several methods used by pewterers to discover the fineness of tin. This is done in some cases by simple inspection, the judgment being as- sisted by the weight and noise produced in bend- ing the metal. But the best method is by trying the specific gravity of the metal; which will dis- cover a very small quantity of lead, the difference in gravity betwixt the two metals being very con- siderable.

(13.) LEAD, WATER OF. See PHARMACY.

(14.) LEAD, WHITE. See CHEMISTRY, and PHARMACY, *Index*.

(II.)\* LEAD, *n. f.* [from the verb.] Guidance; first place: a low despicable word.—Yorkshire takes the *lead* of the other counties. *Herring*.

(III.) LEAD, BLACK, OR PLUMBAGO, a genus of inflammable substances, frequently confounded with MOLYBDÆNA; the appearance of which is nearly the same, though the qualities are very dif- ferent. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. Black lead, when pure, is extremely black; but when fresh cut, ap- pears of a bluish white, and shining like lead. It is micaceous, and minutely scaly; easily broken, and of a granular and dull appearance when broken. Its tract on paper is much darker than that of molybdæna, which has a fine silvery appear- ance; by which means they are easily distinguish- ed. Black lead is too soft to strike fire with steel: it is insoluble in acids; but in a very strong fire, when exposed to the air at the same time, it is en- tirely volatile, leaving only a little iron and a small quantity of siliceous earth. It may be decom- posed by deslagration with nitre; but the common fluxes are not capable of procuring its fusion. Its specific gravity is from 11.987 to 12.167. Various contradictory theories have been formed respect- ing this mineral, and various experiments made to prove them, by Messrs. Scheele, Pelletier, Prief- ley, Kirwan, Gahn, Hielm, Pott, Cronstedt, Quil- ley, and other eminent chemists; but these theories be- ing all founded on the imaginary principle of PHLO- GISTON, it is unnecessary to take notice of them. Black lead is found of different kinds; *viz.* 1. Of a steel-grained and dull texture; naturally black, but when rubbed affording a dark lead colour. 2. Of a granulated and scaly appearance at the same time. It is found in different countries, as Germany, France, Spain, the Cape of Good Hope, and America; but generally in small quantities, and of very different qualities. The best sort, however, and the fittest for making pencils, is found in Cumberland, at a place called *Borrowdale*, where it abounds so much, that hence not only the whole island of Britain, but the whole continent of Europe, may be said to be supplied. "I have seen (says M. Magellan) various speci- mens from different countries; but their coarse texture and bad quality cannot bear any compar- ison with that of Borrowdale; though it some- times, but seldom, contains pyritaceous particles of iron. It is but a few years ago, that this mine seemed to be almost exhausted; but by digging some few yards through the strata underneath, ac- cording to the advice of an experienced miner, whose opinion had been long unattended to, a very thick and rich vein of the best black lead has been

been discovered, to the great joy of the proprietors and advantage of the public." The principal use of black lead is for making pencils for drawing; which have the advantage of marking paper very distinctly for a time, though their traces may afterwards be entirely rubbed out by a soft bread or elastic gum. To form the pencils, the lead is cut into thin parallel rods, and put into quadrangular grooves cut in pieces of cypress wood; and a slit being glued over, they are worked into small cylinders like quills. A coarser kind are made by working up the powder of black lead with sulphur, or some mucilaginous substance; but these answer only for carpenters, or some very coarse drawings. One part of plumbago with 3 of clay, and some cows hair, makes an excellent coating for retorts, as it keeps its form even after the retorts have melted. The famous crucibles of Ypsen are formed of plumbago mixed with clay. These are called in Britain *Hessian crucibles*; but a manufacture of the same kind is now established at Chelsea, near London, where crucibles are manufactured nearly of the same quality with the foreign ones. The powder of black lead serves also to cover the straps for razors; and with it the east iron work, such as stoves, &c. receive a gloss on their surface. An application, however, perhaps as useful as any other, is to smooth the surfaces of wooden work which are subjected to much friction, as wooden screws, packers presses, &c.; neither greasy nor oily substances, nor soapy ointments, produce such a good effect upon them as black lead. In the new nomenclature, it is styled *Carbure of Iron*. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and *Vocab.* 1.

(1.) \* To LEAD. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To fit with lead in any manner.—He fashioneth the clay with his arm, he applieth himself to lead it over; and he is diligent to make clean the furnace. *Ecclesiast.* xxxviii. 30.—There is a traverse placed in a loft, at the right hand of the chair, with a privy door, and a carved window of glass leaded with gold and blue, where the mother sitteth. *Bacon.*

(2.) \* To LEAD. *v. a.* preter. *I led*; part. *led*. [*ledan*, Saxon; *leiden*, Dutch.] 1. To guide by the hand.—

From that place

I shall no leading need. *Shak.*  
—Doth not each on the sabbath loose his ox or his ass from the stall, and lead him away to watering? *Luke*, xiii. 15.—They thrust him out of the city, and led him unto the brow of the hill. *Luke*, iv. 29. 2. To conduct to any place.—Save to every man his wife and children, that they may lead them away, and depart. *1 Sam.* xxx. 22.—Then brought he me out of the way, and led me about the way without unto the outer gate. *Ezek.* xlvii. 2.—He maketh me to lie down in green pastures; he leadeth me beside the still waters. *Psal.* xxiii. 2. 3. To conduct as head or commander.—Would you lead forth your army against the enemy, and seek him where he is to fight? *Spenser.*—

He turns head 'gainst the lion's armed jaws;  
And being no more in debt to years than thou,  
Leads ancient lords, and rev'rend bishops, on  
To bloody battles. *Shak.*

If thou wilt have

The leading of thy own revenge, take  
One half of my commission. *Shak.*

He led me on to mightiest deeds,  
Above the nerve of mortal arm, *Mil.*  
—Christ took upon him flesh and blood,  
might conquer, and rule nations, lead ar  
possess places. *South.*—He might suffer l  
ly up, and lead them out against the Ind  
seek reparation upon any injury. *Locke.*  
introduce by going first.—Which may ge  
fore them, and which may go in before  
and which may lead them out, and wh  
bring them in. *Numb.* xxvii. 17.—

Helperus that leads the sun his way.  
5. To guide; to show the method of att  
Human testimony is not so proper to leas  
the knowledge of the essence of things,  
quaint us with the existence of things. *H.*  
To draw; to entice; to allure.—Appoir  
meeting, give him a shew of comfort,  
him on with a fine baited delay. *Shak.*—  
Cottington, being a master of temper, ku  
to lead him into a mistake, and then d  
into cholera, and then expose him. *Clare.*  
To induce; to prevail on by pleasing mo  
What I did, I did in honour,

Led by th' impartial conduct of my fo  
—He was driven by the necessities of th  
more than led by his own disposition, t  
gour of actions. *K. Charles.*—What I say  
little influence on those whose ends lead  
with the continuance of the war. *Swift.*  
pass; to spend in any certain manner.—  
The sweet woman leads an ill life wi

So shalt thou lead

Safest thy life.

Him, fair Lavinia, thy surviving wife  
Shall breed in groves, to lead a solitar

—Luther's life was led up to the do  
preached, and his death was the deat  
righteous. *Fr. Atterb.*—Celibacy, as the  
led in the church of Rome, was comm  
ced, taken up under a bold vow, and  
uncleanness. *Fr. Atterb.*—This distempe  
incident to such as lead a sedentary life.

(3.) \* To LEAD. *v. n.* 1. To go first,  
the way.—I will lead on softly, accordi  
cattle that goeth before me, and the childr  
to endure. *Gen.* xxxiii. 2. To conduct  
mander.—Cyrus was beaten and slain u  
leading of a woman, whose wit and cond  
a great figure. *Temple.* 3. To shew the  
going first.—He left his mother a counte  
tent, which was a new leading exampl  
before somewhat rare. *Wotton.* The w  
turing of tobacco must be from the he  
earth or sun; we see some leading of thi  
melons sown upon a hot-bed dunned belo

The vessels heavy-laden put to sea.  
With prop'rous gales, a woman leads

LEAD-BRASH, a disease incident t  
inhabiting LEAD-HILLS, occasioned by  
sonous qualities of lead and other min

is are thus described in Sir J. Sinc. of Scotland; "Spring water, as fine as any in the world; but w the smelting mills is the most he lead (ore) before smelting is l, and washed from the extrane- contains frequently arsenic, sul- which poison the water in which Fowls of any kind will not live ead-hills. They pick up arfenical eir food, which soon kills them- logs, and cats, are liable to the . cat, when seized with that dis- like lightning through every cor- , falls into convulsions, and soon 'alls into strong convulsions also, recovers. A cow grows perfectly t, and must be immediately killed. distemper does not afflict the hu- ol. xxi. p. 98, 99.

2N. *adj.* [*leaden*, Saxon.] 1. Made

'ooted rage, when it shall find unskann'd swiftness, will, too late, unds to's heels. *Shak.*

O murth'rous slumber!  
re *leaden* mace upon my boy,  
ee mulick? *Shak.*

t shot from one of these guns a- all, the space of 24 paces from it, to a thin plate. *Wilkins.* 2. Hea- motionlets.—

*den*, icy, cold, unwilling,  
o. *Shak.*

h troubled thoughts to take a nap;  
umber poize me down to-morrow,  
*Shak.*

in geography, a river of Glou- ch runs into the Severit.

ER. *n. f.* [*from lead.*] 1. One that acts. 2. Captain; commander.— re form and model of our battle, *ader* to his several charge, uft proportion our sinall strength.

*Shak.*  
him for a *leader* and commander *Ijuab*, lv. 4.—Those escaped by out a sharp jest against their *lead-* that, as they had followed them o it was good reason they should t. *Hayward.*—

When our Lycians see  
temples, they admiring say,  
allant *leaders.* *Denham.*

*leader* of the Lycian crew. *Dryden.*  
es first.—Nay, keep your way, lit- i were wont to be a follower, now r. *Shak.* 4. One at the head of a- tion: as, the detestable Wharton of the whigs.—The understandings enslaved by three or four *leaders*, keep employments. *Swift.*

, or LEADER WATER, a river of wickthire, which rises in the Lam- , and falls into the Tweed, 3 miles

It formerly abounded with salmon t since the improvement of the ad-

acent grounds by lime became general, they are not near so numerous, owing to the rains washing down that mineral into the river.

(1.) LEADHILLS, mountains of Scotland, in the county of Lanark, and district of Clidesdale, abounding with the most famous and ancient lead mines in the kingdom, the lead ores having been first discovered in 1513.

(2.) LEADHILLS, a village on the top of one of the above mountains, upon a level with Tintock, (N° 1.) or rather in a hollow near its summit, by some said to be the highest human habitation in Great Britain. Here, however, reside many hundreds of miners with their families. These miners, though in a great measure excluded from society by their situation, yet not only find means to procure a comfortable subsistence, but also pay more attention to the cultivation of the mind than many of their countrymen situated seemingly in more favourable circumstances for the attainment of knowledge. They are very intelligent, and have a circulating library for the instruction and amusement of their little community. They labour in the mines only 6 hours in the 24; so that they have a good deal of spare time. They are employed by two companies, who have agents, overseers, &c. at Leadhills, as well as at London. Amidst these mountains particles of gold have sometimes been found washed down by the rains and streams of water; but this desert tract is chiefly valuable for producing metals of inferior worth. "Nothing (says Mr Pen- nant) can equal the gloomy appearance of the country round. Neither tree, nor shrub, nor verdure, nor picturesque rock, appear to amuse the eye. The spectator must plunge into the bowels of these mountains for entertainment." The veins of lead lie mostly N. and S. and their thickness, which seldom exceeds 40 feet, varies greatly in different parts. Some have been found hiled with ore within two fathoms of the surface; others sink to the depth of 90 fathoms. The earl of Hope- ton, the proprietor, has in his possession a solid mass of lead-ore from these mines, weighing five tons. He has also a piece of native gold that weighs two ounces, which was found here. The lead is all sent to Leith, where it has the privilege of being exported free of duty. The total pro- duce, in 1786, was 10,080 bars of lead: In 1790, it was near 18,000 bars. The scanty pasture at- forded by this barren region feeds some sheep and cattle; but those in the neighbourhood of the mines sometimes perish by drinking of the water in which the lead ore has been washed. See LEAD-BRASH. The population of this village, in 1791, was 970. It has a good school, and lies 15 miles S. of Lanark.

\* LEADING. *participial adj.* Principal; chief; capital.—In organized bodies, which are propa- gated by seed, the shape is the *leading* quality, and most characteristic part, that determines the species. *Locke.*—Mistake arise from the influence of private persons, upon great numbers stiled *lead-* ing men and parties. *Swift.*

\* LEADING-STRINGS *n. f.* [*lead and string.*] Strings by which children, when they learn to walk, are held from falling.—



Sound may serve such, ere they to sense are  
grown,  
Like *leading-strings*, 'till they can walk alone.  
*Dryden.*

—Was he ever able to walk without *leading-strings*, or swim without bladders, without being discovered by his hobbling and his sinking? *Swift.*

\* **LEADMAN.** *n. f.* [*lead* and *man*.] One who begins or leads a dance.

Such a light and mettled dance

Saw you never,

And by *leadmen* for the nonce,

That turn round like grindle stones.  
*Ben Jonson.*

(1.) \* **LEADWORT.** *n. f.* [*lead* and *wort*; *plumbago*.] A flower.

(2.) **LEADWORT.** See **PLUMBAGO**, N° L. I., 2.

**LEENA.** See **ATTICA**, § 10.

(1.) \* **LEAF.** *n. f.* *leaves*, plural. [*leaf*, Sax. *leaf*; Dutch.] 1. The green deciduous parts of plants and flowers.—

This is the state of man; to-day he puts forth  
The tender *leaves* of hopes, to-morrow blossoms.  
*Shak.*

—A man shall seldom fail of having cherries borne by his graft the same year in which his incision is made, if his graft have blossom buds; whereas if it were only *leaf* buds, it will not bear fruit till the second season. *Boyle.*—Those things which are removed to a distant view, ought to make but one mass; as the *leaves* on the trees, and the hills in the sea. *Dryden.* 3. A part of a book containing two pages.—

Happy ye *leaves*, when as those lily hands  
Shall handle you.  
*Spenser.*

Peruse my *leaves* through ev'ry part,  
And think thou seest the owner's heart  
Scrawl'd o'er with trifles.  
*Swift.*

3. One side of a double door. The two *leaves* of the one door were folding. 1 *Kings*. 4. Any thing foliated, or thinly beaten.—Eleven ounces two pence sterling ought to be of so pure silver, as is called *leaf* silver, and then the melter must add of other weight seventeen pence halfpenny farthing. *Camden.*—*Leaf* gold, that flies in the air as light as down, is as truly gold as that in an ingot. *Digby on Bodies.*

(2.) **LEAF** (§ 1. *def.* 1.) is defined by Miller, “a part of a plant extended into length and breadth in such a manner as to have one side distinguishable from the other.” Linnæus defines leaves “the organs of motion, or muscles of the plana.”—The leaves are not merely ornamental to plants; they serve very useful purposes, and make part of the organs of vegetation. Most of plants, especially trees, are furnished with leaves; in mushrooms, and shrubby horse tail, they are totally wanting. Ludwig defines leaves to be fibrous and cellular processes of the plant, which are of various figures, but generally extended into a plain membranaceous or skinny substance. They are of a deeper green than the foot-stalks on which they stand, and are formed by the expansion of the vessels of the stalk, among which in several leaves, the proper vessels are distinguished by the particular taste, colour, and smell, of the liquors contained within them. By the expansion of the vessels of the stalk, are produced

several ramifications of branches, winding each other mutually; form a kin the meshes or interstices of which are with a tender cellular substance, called *pith*, or *parenchyma*. This pulpy substance is frequently consumed by insects, whilst the nous net remaining untouched exhibits the skeleton of the leaf. The net is externally with an epidermis or scarf-skin, seems to be a continuation of the scarf-skin of the stem, and perhaps of that of the stem. Saussure, a judicious naturalist, has attempted to prove, that this scarf-skin, like that of a tree, is a true bark, composed itself of an epicortical net; these parts seem to be the perspiration, which serve to dissipate the superfluous juices. The cortical net is furnished principally on the surface of the leaf, with a number of suetlers or absorbent vessels, which imbibe the humidity of the air. The upper face, turned towards heaven, serves as to the lower, which looks downward; disposition is so essential to the vegetation, that if a branch is overturned in summer as to destroy the natural direction of the growth, they will, of themselves, in a very short time resume their former position; and that as the branch is thus overturned. Leaves are useful and necessary organs; trees are totally divested of them. In general, plants cannot shoot vigorously, unless they have undergone the depredate process; witness, likewise, the very common stripping off some of the leaves from plants, we would suspend their growth, or diminish the number of their shoots. This method is observed with corn and the cucurbitaceae, and, in cold years, is practised on fruit trees, to render the fruit riper and better; but in this case it is proper to wait until the fruits have acquired their full bulk, as they contribute greatly to their growth, but when too numerous, that exquisite recede the juices, which is so necessary to render them delicious and palatable. When vegetative organs of perspiration and inspiration are superfluous. Plants, therefore, are not adorned with leaves: they produce new leaves every year; and every year the greater part of them are totally divested of them, and remain naked the winter. See **PLANT**.

(3.) **LEAF**, in clocks and watches, are given to the notches of their pinions.

(4.) **LEAF**, **CREEPING**, in zoology. See **TIS**.

(5.) **LEAF GOLD**, or **GOLD LEAF** (§ 1. *def.* 1.) is fine gold beaten into plates of extreme thinness for the purpose of gilding, &c. The process of gold leaf, according to Dr Lewis, is as follows:—The gold is melted in a black lead with some borax, in a wind furnace, call workmen a *wind hole*: as soon as it attains a perfect fusion, it is poured out into an iron mould, six or eight inches long, and thence into a narrow channel, previously greased, so as to make the tallow run and fire not to take flame. The bar of gold is then heated, to burn off the unctuous matter, a

into a long plate, which is further extended by being passed repeatedly between rollers, till it becomes a ribbon as thin as paper: formerly the whole of this extension was done by means of the hammer, and some of the workmen are still said to follow the same method; but the flattening-mill both abridges the labour, and renders the plate of more uniform thickness. The ribbon is divided by compasses, and sheers into equal pieces, which are then pressed between equal weights: these are forged till they are an inch square; and afterwards annealed, to remove the rigidity which is contracted in the hammering and flattening. Six ounces of gold, or 960 grains, the weight which the workmen usually melt at a time, will make 150 of these squares, when each of them contains six grains and two-fifths; and as 9000 of these squares would make a cubic inch, the thickness of the gold plates is about the 766th part of an inch. The further extension of these pieces of gold, it is necessary to interpose some thing between them and the hammer, for to prevent the blow, and defending them from the immediate action: as also to place every two of the pieces some proper interlayer, which, while it prevents their uniting, or injuring one another, may suffer the gold to extend. Both these ends are answered by certain animal membranes. The gold-plates are made of three kinds of membranes; for the first, common parchment made of sheep-skin, interlaying with the gold, first the vellum, and then the closest vellum, made of calf-skin; the second, the much finer skins of ox-gut, cut into the large straight gut slit open, and cured on purpose for this use, and called *gold-beater's skin*. The preparation of these is a distinct business, practised by several persons in the kingdom, some of whom I have not satisfactorily observed. The general process is said to consist, first, in one upon another, by the smoothest possible state, in which they readily cohere inseparably; stretching them on a table, and carefully scraping off the fat and the dirt, so as to leave only the fine exterior of the gut; beating them between sheets of paper, to force out what remains in them; moistening them once with an infusion of warm spices; and then drying and pressing them. It is said, that the best is made of gypsum, or plaster of Paris, is rubbed with the bare foot both on the vellum and the parchment, which fills up such minute holes as are left in them, and prevents the gold-leaf from falling off, as it would do to the simple animal membrane. It is observable, that, notwithstanding the vast extent to which the gold is beaten, and the great tenuity of the skins, and the great tenuity of themselves, yet they sustain continual use for several months, without growing thinner. Our workmen, after 70 or 80 repetitions, the which they contract no flaw, will no longer be able to extend between them; but they may be again rendered fit for use by immersing them with the virtue which they have

L PART I.

lost, and that even holes in them may be repaired by the dexterous application of fresh pieces of skin: a microscopical examination of some skins that had been long used plainly showed these repairs. The method of restoring their virtue is said in the *Encyclopedie* to be, by interlaying them with leaves of paper moistened with vinegar and white wine, beating them for a whole day, and afterwards rubbing them over as at first with plaster of Paris. The gold is said to extend between them more easily, after they have been used a little, than when they are new. The beating of the gold is performed on a smooth block of black marble, weighing from 200 to 600 pounds, the heavier the better; about nine inches square on the upper surface, and sometimes less, fitted into the middle of a wooden frame, about two feet square, so as that the surface of the marble and the frame form one continuous plane. Three of the sides are furnished with a high ledge; and the front, which is open, has a leather flap fastened to it, which the gold-beater takes before him as an apron, for preserving the fragments of gold that fall off. Three hammers are employed, all of them with two round and somewhat convex faces, though commonly the workman uses only one of the faces; the first, called the *cutting-hammer*, is about 4 inches in diameter, and weighs 15 or 16 lb. and sometimes 20; though few workmen can manage those of this last size: the second, called the *shoddering hammer*, weighs about 12 lb. and is about the same diameter; the third, called the *gold-hammer*, or *finishing hammer*, weighs 10 or 11 lb. and is nearly of the same width. The French use 4 hammers, differing both in size and shape from those of our workmen, they have only one face, being in figure truncated cones. The first has very little convexity, is near 5 inches in diameter, and weighs 24 or 25 lb. the second is more convex than the first, about an inch narrower, and scarcely half its weight: the third, still more convex, is only about two inches wide, and 4 or 5 lb. in weight: the 4th or finishing hammer is near as heavy as the first, but narrower by an inch, and the most convex of all. As these hammers differ so remarkably from ours, I thought proper to insert them, leaving the workmen to judge what advantage one set may have above the other. A hundred and fifty of the pieces of gold are interlaid with leaves of vellum, 3 or 4 inches square, one vellum leaf being placed between every two of the pieces, and about 20 more of the vellum leaves on the outsides; over these is drawn a parchment case, open at both ends, and over this another in a contrary direction, so that the assemblage of gold and vellum leaves is kept tight and close on all sides. The whole is beaten with the heaviest hammer, and every now and then turned upside down, till the gold is stretched to the extent of the vellum; the case being from time to time opened for discovering how the extension goes on, and the packet, at times, bent and rolled as it were between the hands, for procuring sufficient freedom to the gold, or, as the workmen say, to make the gold work. The pieces, taken out from between the vellum leaves, are cut in four with a steel knife; and the 600 divisions, hence resulting, are interlaid, in the same

N

Manner,

manner, with pieces of the ox-gut skins five inches square. The beating being repeated with a lighter hammer till the golden plates have again acquired the extent of the skins, they are a second time divided in four: the instrument used for this division is a piece of cane cut to an edge, the leaves being now so light, that the moisture of the air or breath condensing on a metalline knife would occasion them to stick to it. These last divisions being so numerous, that the skins necessary for interposing between them would make the packet too thick to be beaten at once, they are parted into three parcels, which are beaten separately, with the smallest hammer, till they are stretched for the 3d time to the size of the skins: they are now found to be reduced to the greatest thinness they will admit of; and indeed many of them, before this period, break or fail. The French workmen, according to the minute detail of this process given in the *Encyclopedie*, repeat the division and the beating once more; but as the squares of gold, taken for the first operation, have four times the area of those used among us, the number of leaves from an equal area is the same in both methods, viz. 16 from a square inch. In the beating, however simple the process appears to be, a good deal of address is requisite, for applying the hammers so as to extend the metal uniformly from the middle to the sides: one improper blow is apt not only to break the gold leaves, but to cut the skins. After the last beating, the leaves are taken up by the end of a cane instrument, and, being blown flat on a leather cushion, are cut to a size, one by one, with a square frame of cane made of a proper sharpness, or with a frame of wood edged with cane: they are then fitted into books of 25 leaves each, the paper of which is well smoothed, and rubbed with red bole to prevent their sticking to it. The French, for sizing the leaves, use only the cane knife; cutting them first straight on one side, fitting them into the book by the straight side, and then paring off the superfluous parts of the gold about the edges of the book. The size of the French gold leaves is somewhat less than from 3 inches to 3½ square; that of ours, from 3 inches to 3¾. The process of gold-beating is considerably influenced by the weather. In wet weather, the skins grow somewhat damp, and in this state make the extension of the gold more tedious: the French are said to dry and press them at every time of using; with care not to overdry them, which would render them unfit for farther service. Our workmen complain more of frost, which appears to affect the metalline leaves themselves: in frost, a gold leaf cannot easily be blown flat, but breaks, wrinkles, or runs together. Gold leaf ought to be prepared from the finest gold; as the admixture of other metals, though in too small a proportion to sensibly affect the colour of the leaf, would dispose it to lose of its beauty in the air. And indeed there is little temptation to the workman to use any other; the greater hardness of alloyed gold occasioning as much to be lost in point of time and labour, and in the greater number of leaves that break, as can be gained by any quantity of alloy that would not be at once discoverable by the eye. All metals

render gold harder and more difficult even silver, which in this respect see quality less than any other metal, & gold a mixture sensibly harder than separately, and this hardness is in felt than in gold-beating. The French prepare the *green gold leaf*, from a one part copper and two of silver with But this is probably a mistake: for mixture gives no greenness to gold been informed by our workmen, that of leaf is made from the same finest highest gold coloured sort, the green only a superficial teint induced upon some part of the process: this gold little otherwise used than for the gtain books. But though the gold is advantageously diminish the quantity leaf by the admixture of any other of the gold, yet means have been contri particular purposes, of saving the p by producing a kind of leaf called whose basis is silver, and which has ficial coat of gold upon one side: a silver and a thinner one of gold, laid another, heated and pressed together cohere; and being then beaten into as in the foregoing process, the gold quantity is only about one fourth silver, continues every where to cov tension of the former keeping pace the latter.

(6.) LEAF INSECT. See CIMEX,

(7.) LEAF, WALKING. See MAY

\* To LEAF, v. n. [from the noun leaves; to bear leaves leaves.—Moth the leaves at autumn; and if not cold, would leaf about the solstice.

\* LEAFLESS, adj. [from leaf.] Noun.—Bare honesty without some other being looked on as a leafless tree, no himself to its shelter. *Government of* Where doves in flocks, the leaf shade.

\* LEAFY, adj. [from leaf.] Full

The frauds of men were ever full Since summer was first leafy.

Dim darkness, and this leafy la

O'er barren mountains, o'er plain.

The leafy forest, and the liquid r Extends thy uncontroul'd and be

Her leafy arms with such extent That hosts of birds, that wing th Perch'd in the boughs.

So when some swelt'ring trave To leafy shades, near the cool fu Of Paraba, Brasilian stream; her A grisly bydra suddenly shoots fo

(1.) \* LEAGUE, n. s. [licu, I league; luca, Lat. from lech, Welch was used to be erected at the end of Camden. 2. A measure of length, 20 miles.—

Ere the ships could meet by tw We were encount'ed by a high

Ev'n Italy, though many a league remote,  
In distant echoes answer'd. *Addison.*

(ii.) A LEAGUE (§ i. def. 1.) contains more or fewer geometrical paces, according to the different usages and customs of countries. A league at sea, where it is chiefly used by us, being a land-measure mostly peculiar to the French and Germans, contains 3000 geometrical paces, or 3 English miles. The French league sometimes contains the same measure, and in some parts of France it consists of 3500 paces: the mean or common league consists of 2400 paces, and the little league of 2000. The Spanish leagues are larger than the French, 17 Spanish leagues making a degree, or 20 French leagues, or 69½ English statute miles. The Dutch and German leagues contain each 4 geographical miles. The Persian leagues are pretty near of the same extent with the Spanish; that is, they are equal to 4 Italian miles: which is pretty near to what Herodotus calls the length of the Persian *parasang*, which contained 30 stadia, 8 whereof, according to Strabo, make a mile. The word comes from *leuca*, or *leuge*, an ancient Gaulish word for an itinerary measure, and retained in that sense by the Romans. Some derive the word *leuca* from *λευκος*, white; as the Gauls, in imitation of the Romans, marked the distances in their roads with white stones.

(iii.) \* LEAGUE. *n. f.* [*ligue*, French; *ligo*, Lat.] A confederacy; a combination either of interest or friendship.—

You peers, continue this united league. *Shak.*

We come to be informed by yourselves,

What the conditions of that league must be. *Shak.*

—Thou shalt be in league with the stones of the field; and the beasts of the field shall be at peace with thee. *Job.*—Go break thy league with Baal, that he may depart from me. 2 *Chron.* xvii. 3.

—It is a great error, and a narrowness of mind, to think, that nations have nothing to do one with another, except there be either an union in sovereignty, or a conjunction in pacts or leagues: there are other bands of society and implicit confederations. *Bacon.*—

I, a private person, whom my country

As a league breaker gave up bound, presum'd

Single rebellion, did hostile acts. *Milton.*

Let there be

'Twixt us and them no league nor amity. *Denb.*

(1.) LEAGUE (§ II. 1.) denotes also an alliance between princes and states for their mutual aid, either in attacking some common enemy, or in defending themselves. Leagues, among the Greeks, were of 3 sorts: 1. *ἑσθία*, *ἑσθία*, or *ἑσθία*, whereby both parties were obliged to cease from hostilities, without even molesting the allies of each other; 2. *ἐπιμαχία*, whereby they engaged to have the same friends and enemies, and to assist each other upon all occasions. All these leagues were confirmed with oaths, imprecations, and sacrifices. The victims most generally used were a boar, a ram, or goat, sometimes all three; and sometimes bulls and lambs. They cut out the testicles of the animal, and stood upon them while they swore; and some of the hair of the victim was distributed to all present. Then they cut the animal's

throat, which was called *ἄρκια τιμίαι*, in Latin, *ferire fedus*.—This done, they repeated their oaths and imprecations, calling the gods to witness the honesty of their intentions. A libation was then made of wine, which at this time was mixed, to imply their conjunction and union: while this was pouring out, they prayed that the blood of him who should break the treaty might be poured out in like manner. Upon these occasions no part of the victim was eaten. Still further to increase the solemnity of this obligation, the league was engraven upon brass, fixed up in places of public concourse, and sometimes read at the solemn games. Some exchanged certain *εὐβόλαι* or *εὐσεφῆς* upon the occasion, and frequently sent ambassadors, on some appointed day, to keep them in mind of their engagements to each other. The ceremonies of the Romans in making leagues were performed by the *Feciales*. See *FECIALES*.

(3.) The LEAGUE, by way of eminence, denotes that famous one on foot in France, from 1576 to 1593. Its intent was to prevent the succession of Henry IV. who was of the reformed religion, to the crown; and it ended with his abjuration of that faith. (See HENRY, N° ii.) The *leaguers*, or confederates, were of three kinds. The *zealous leaguers* aimed at the utter destruction, not only of the Huguenots, but also of the ministry. The *Spanish leaguers* had principally in view the transferring the crown of France to the king of Spain, or the infant his daughter. The *moderate leaguers* aimed only at the extirpation of Calvinism, without any alteration of the government.

(4.) LEAGUE, ACHÆAN. See ACHÆANS, and GREEKS, § 7.

(5.) LEAGUE AND COVENANT, SOLEMN. See ENGLAND, § 47; and SECEDERS.

(6.) The LEAGUES OF THE GRISONS, now form part of the Helvetic republic. See GRISONS, § 1; and HELVETIC REPUBLIC.

\* To LEAGUE. *v. n.* To unite; to confederate.—Where fraud and falsehood invade society, the band presently breaks, and men are put to a loss where to league and to fasten their dependances. *South.*

\* LEAGUED. *adj.* [from *league*.] Confederated.—

And now thus leagu'd by an eternal bond,  
What shall retard the Britons bold designs?

*Philips.*

(1.) LEAGUER, *n. f.* one who makes, or is joined in a league. See LEAGUE, § 3.

(2.) \* LEAGUER. *n. f.* [*belegeren*, Dutch.] Siege; investment of a town.—We will bind and hoodwink him so, that he shall suppose no other but that he is carried into the *leaguer* of the adversaries, when we bring him to our own tents. *Shak.*

(1.) \* LEAK. *n. f.* [*leek*, *leke*, Dutch.] A breach or hole which lets in water.—There will be always evils, which no art of man can cure: breaches and leaks more than man's wit hath hands to stop. *Hooker.*—The water rushes in, as it doth usually in the leak of a ship. *Wilkins.*—

Whether she sprung a leak I cannot find,

Or whether she was overfet with wind. *Dryden.*

(2.) A LEAK, at sea, is a hole in the ship, thro' which the water comes in. A ship is said to

*spring a leak* when she begins to *leak* or to let in the water. The manner of stopping a leak is to put into it a plug wrapped in oakum and well tarred, or in a tawpawling clout, which keeps out the water; or nailing a piece of sheet lead on the place. Seamen sometimes stop a leak by thrusting a piece of salt beef into it. The sea-water, says Mr Boyle, being fresher than the brine imbibed by the beef, penetrates into its body, and causes it to swell so as to bear strongly against the edges of the broken plank, and thereby stops the influx of the water.—A ready way to find a leak in a ship is to apply the narrower end of a speaking trumpet to the ear, and the other to the side of a ship where the leak is supposed to be; then the noise of the water issuing in at the leak will be heard distinctly, whereby it may be discovered.

\* *To LEAK. v. n. 1.* To let water in or out.—They will allow us ne'er a jordan, and then we leak in your chimney. *Shak.*—His feet should be washed every day in cold water; and have his shoes so thin, that they might leak, and let in water. *Locke.* 2. To drop through a breach or discontinuity.—The water which will perhaps by degrees leak into several parts, may be emptied out again. *Wilkins.*—

Golden stars hung o'er their heads,

And dart at once their baleful influence

In leaking fire. *Dryden and Lee,*

(1.) \* **LEAKAGE.** *n. s.* [from *leak.*] Allowance made for accidental loss in liquid measures.

(2.) **LEAKAGE**, in commerce, is an allowance of 12 per cent in the customs, granted to importers of wines for the waste or damage it is supposed to have received in the passage: an allowance of two barrels in 22 is also made to the brewers of ale and beer by the excise-office.

(3.) **LEAKAGE** signifies also the state of a vessel that leaks.

(1.) **LEAKE**, John, M. D. a late eminent English physician, son of a clergyman, and born at Kirk-Oswald in Cumberland. After going through the usual studies, in which he made rapid advances, he attended the London hospitals, and was admitted a member of the corporation of surgeons in that city. He then set out on a tour to Portugal and Italy, and on his return commenced business in Piccadilly, and delivered lectures on the obstetrical art. His *Introductory Lecture on the Theory and Practice of Midwifery*, was published in 1764, and went through 4 editions in 4to. In 1765, he published the original plan of the *Westminster Lying-in Hospital*; and having purchased a piece of ground, erected a building according to his plan, and made a free gift of the whole to the governors of the hospital. In 1773, he published *Practical Observations on the Child-bed Fever*: in 1774, he republished his Lecture, including the History, Nature, and Tendency of Midwifery; which he afterwards considerably enlarged, and published in 2 vols. under the title of *Medical Observations and Instructions, on the Nature, Treatment, and Cure of various Diseases incident to Women*. In 1792, he published *A Practical Essay on the Diseases of the Viscera, particularly those of the Stomach and Bowels*. But his intense application in the composition of this work, induced an aff-

fection of the breast, which ended in his death in 1792.

(2.) **LEAKE**, Richard, master gunner of England, was born at Harwich in 1629, and bred to the sea. At the restoration, he was made master gunner of the Princess, a frigate of 50 guns; and in the first Dutch war distinguished himself by his skill and bravery in two extraordinary actions; one against 15 sail of Dutch men of war; and another in 1667 against two Danes in the Baltic, in which the commanding officers of the Princess being killed or desperately wounded, the command devolved on him, according to the rules of war. In 1669, he was promoted to be gunner of the Royal Prince, a first rate man of war. He was engaged, with his two sons Henry and John, in the sea fight against Van Tromp, in 1673; when the Royal Prince had all her masts shot away, near 400 of her men killed and disabled, and most of her upper tier of guns dismounted. As she lay thus like a wreck, a great Dutch man of war came down upon her with two fire-ships, either to burn or carry her off; and Capt. Rooke, afterwards Sir George, thinking it impossible to defend her, ordered the men to save their lives, and the colours to be struck. Leake hearing this, took the command upon himself, saying, "The Royal Prince shall never be given up to the enemy, while I am alive to defend her." His undaunted spirit inspired the small residue of the ship's company with courage; they returned with alacrity to the fight, and, under the direction of this valiant gunner and his two sons, sunk both the fire-ships, and obliged the man of war to sheer off; and having thus saved the Royal Prince, he brought her into Chatham. But his joy in this victory was damped by the loss of Henry, his eldest son, who was killed near him. Soon after, Leake was made commander of a yacht, and gunner of Whitehall. In 1677, he obtained a grant for life of the office of master-gunner of England, and store-keeper of the ordnance at Woolwich. In these posts he had full scope for his genius; he invented the culbee piece; and contrived to fire a mortar by the blast of a piece, which has been used ever since. He was also the principal contriver of what the French call *infernals*, used at the bombardment at St Malo's, in 1693. In these kind of inventions, as well as in compositions for fire-works, he had frequent trials of skill with French and Dutch gunners and engineers in Woolwich warren, at which king Charles II. and the duke of York were often present, and he never failed to excel all his competitors.

(3.) **LEAKE**, Sir John, an English admiral, distinguished by his bravery and success, was born in 1656, and was taught mathematics and gunnery by Richard his father. (See N<sup>o</sup> 1.) He distinguished himself in 1673, in the memorable engagement between Sir Edward Spragg and Van Tromp, when but 16 years of age; and being afterwards made captain, he signalized himself by executing the desperate attempt of conveying some victuallers into Londonderry, which obliged the enemy to raise the siege; and at the famous battle of the Hoëuc. In 1702, being made commodore of a squadron, he destroyed the French trade and settlements at Newfoundland, and thus restored

the whole island to the British. On his was created rear-admiral; soon after, he was vice-admiral of the blue, and was He was engaged with admiral Rook GIBRALTAR; soon after which, he distinguished himself in the general engagement off when commanding the leading Squadron, consisting only of six ships, he drove the enemy, consisting of 13, out of the line so disabled that they never returned to In 1705, he relieved Gibraltar, which had been besieged by sea, and the Spaniards seasonably, that the enemy was to have taken the town that very night in several places, but undoubtedly have made themselves masters of it; 500 Spaniards having, by the help of ladders, climbed up the rocks by a way thought inaccessible. Of these 200 were he the spot; 220 accepted quarter, and the vowing to escape fell headlong down (See GIBRALTAR, § 6.) He was soon created vice-admiral of the white, and then he died that fortress. The last time, he attacked the French fleet coming out of the bay of which two were taken, and two run ashore destroyed: baron Pointi died soon afterwards he received in the battle; and in 1705, the enemy raised the siege. In 1705, he was engaged in the reduction of Barcelona; in 1706 he relieved that city, when reduced to the last extremity, and obliged king Philip V. to raise the siege. Soon after he took Cartagena; he proceeded to Alicante and Joyce, they were committed to him; and he concluded that the reduction of Majorca. Upon his return, prince George of Denmark made him a present of a ring valued at 400 l. and he received a pension of 1000 l. from Q. Anne, as a reward for his services. In 1707, he was made admiral of the fleet and commander in chief of the fleet; and he surprised a convoy of the enemy's ships off Barcelona, and thus saved that city from being a confederate army from famine: soon after, by the new queen of Spain to king George II. for his services, he made him a present of a ring worth 500 l. He then proceeded to Minorca, which he reduced to the obedience of the king; and soon after assisted lord Stan- he conquest of Minorca. On his return, he appointed one of the lord high admiral's ships, and in 1709, was made rear admiral of the fleet. He was several times chosen M. P. for Devonshire; and in 1712 conducted the English fleet to the possession of Dunkirk. But upon the death of K. George I. he was superseded, and received a pension of 600 l. a-year. He died in 1720.

LEAKE, Stephen MARTIN, Esq. son of Captain, by a sister of Admiral LEAKE's lady, distinguished himself in the heralds office as the first person to be garter. He was the first person to professedly on English coins; two of his *Historical Account* of these were published by him with plates, under the title of *Numerical History*, London, 1726, 8vo; the 2d approved, in 1745, 8vo. He printed, in 1712, *the Life of Sir John Leake, Kt. admiral of the fleet to whom he was indebted for a con-*

siderable estate. Of this work, which he is said to have wrote from a principle of *gratitude*, only 50 copies were printed; but it certainly would have afforded a stronger proof of this principle, had he printed 5000 copies. In 1766, he printed also 50 copies of *The Statutes of the Order of the Garter*, 4to. He died in 1773; and was buried in the parish church of Thorp in Essex, of which manor he was lord.

\* LEAKY. *adj.* [from *leak*.] 1. Battered or pierced, so as to let water in or out.—

Thou'rt so leaky,

That we must leave thee to thy sinking. *Shak.*

If you have not enjoy'd what youth could give,

But life sunk through you like a leaky sieve,

Accuse yourself, you liv'd not while you might. *Dryden.*

2. Loquacious; not close.—Women are so leaky, that I have hardly met with one that could not hold her breath longer than she could keep a secret. *L'Estrange.*

LEAM, a mountain of Ireland, in Galway.

LEAME, a river of Warwickshire.

(1.) \* LEAN. *adj.* [*blens*, Saxon.] 1. Not fat; meagre; wanting flesh; bare-boned.—

You tempt the fury of my three attendants,

Lean famine, quartering steel, and climbing fire. *Shak.*

Lean raw-bon'd rascals! who would e'er sup-

pose,

They had such courage and audacity! *Shak.*

Lean look'd prophets whisper fearful change. *Shak.*

I would invent as bitter searching terms,

As lean-fac'd envy in her loathsome cove. *Shak.*

—Seven other kine came up out of the river, ill-favour'd and lean-bethed. *Gen. xli. 3.*—Let a physician beware how he purge after hard frosty weather, and in a lean body, without preparation. *Bacon.*—

And fetch their precepts from the cynic tub,

Praising the lean, and fallow, abstinence. *Milt.*

Swear that Adrastus, and the lean-look'd prophet,

Are joint conspirators. *Dryden and Lee.*

—Lean people often suffer for want of fat, as fat people may by obstruction of the vessels. *Arbustn.*

But haggard grief, lean looking fallow care,

Dwell on my brow. *Rowe.*

2. Not unctuous; thin; hungry.—There are two chief kinds of terrestrial liquors, those that are fat and light, and those that are lean and more earthy, like common water. *Burnet.* 3. Low; poor: in opposition to *great* or *rich*.—

That which combin'd us was most great, and

let not

A leaner action rend us. *Shak.*

4. Jeune; not comprehensive; not embellished: as, a lean dissertation.

(2.) \* LEAN. *n. s.* That part of flesh which consists of the muscle without the fat.—

With razors keen we cut our passage clean

Thro' rills of fat, and deluges of lean. *Farquhar.*

(3.) LEAN, CAPE, a cape of Ireland, on the SW. extremity of Clare county, N. of the Shannon.

\* To LEAN. *v. n.* preter. *leaned* or *leant*. [*blinen*, Saxon; *lenen*, Dutch.] 1. To incline against; to rest against.—

*Lean* thine aged back against mine arm. *Shak.*  
—Security is expressed among the medals of Gordianus, by a lady *leaning* against a pillar, a scepter in her hand, before an altar. *Peacocks.*—The columns may be allowed somewhat above their ordinary length, because they *lean* unto so good supporters. *Wotton.*—

Upon his iv'ry sceptre first he *leant*,  
Then shook his head, that shook the firmament.

*Dryden.*

Oppress'd with anguish, panting and o'er-erupt.  
His fainting limbs against an oak he *leant*. *Dryd.*  
—Every other support will fail under us when we come to *lean* upon it. *Rogers.*—

Then *leaning* o'er the rails he musing stood.

*Gay.*

'Mid the central depth of black'ning woods,  
High rais'd in solemn theatre around  
*Leans* the huge elephant. *Thomson.*

2. To propend; to tend towards.—They delight rather to *lean* to their old customs, though they be more unjust, and more inconvenient. *Spens.*—Trust in the lord with all thine heart; and *lean* not unto thine own understanding. *Prov. iii. 5.*—A desire *leaning* to either side, biases the judgment strangely. *Watts.* 3. To be in a bending posture.—She *leans* me out at her mistress's chamber window, bids me a thousand times good night. *Shak.*—

She laid her down; and *leaning* on her knees,  
Invok'd the cause of all her miseries. *Dryden.*

The gods came downward to behold the wars,  
Sharp'ning their fights, and *leaning* from their stars. *Dryden.*

LEANDER. See HERO, N° II.

\* LEANLY. *adv.* [from *lean*.] Meagerly; without plumpness.

\* LEANNESS. *n. s.* [from *lean*.] 1. Extenuation of body; want of flesh; meagreness.—

If thy *leanness* loves such food,

There are those, that, for thy sake,  
Do enough. *Ben Jonson.*

—The symptoms of too great fluidity are excess of universal secretions, as of perspiration, sweat, urine, liquid dejections, *leanness*, and weakness. *Arbuth.* 2. Want of matter; thinness; poverty.—

The poor king Reignier, whose large style

Agrees not with the *leanness* of his purse. *Shak.*

(1.) LEO, in natural history, a mineral substance approaching to the nature of the lapis lazuli, found in the East Indies, and of great use in the Chinese porcelain manufactures, being the finest blue they are possessed of. This stone is found in the strata of pit-coal, or in those of a yellowish or reddish earth in the neighbourhood of the veins of coal. Pieces of it are often found lying on the surface of the ground, and these are a sure indication that more will be found on dipping. It is generally found in oblong pieces of the size of a finger, not-round, but flat. Some of this is very fine; some coarse and of a bad colour. The latter is very common; but the former is scarce, and greatly valued. It is not easy to distinguish them at sight, but the trying one piece is generally a sufficient test of the whole mine, for all that is found in the same place is usually of the same sort.—In preparing it for use, they first wash it very clean; then lay it at the bottom of their baking furnaces; and when it has been thus calc-

ned for 3 or 4 hours, it is taken out, and ed very fine in large mortars of porce stone pestles faced with iron. When is perfectly fine, they pour in boiling grind that with the rest; and when the incorporated, they add more, and pour some time settling. The remainder at of the mortar, which is the coarser grind again with more water; and so have made the whole fine, excepting or grit. All the liquors are then mixe and well stirred; and after being allowe or 3 minutes, poured off with the powde in them. This is suffered to subside and is the fine blue used in their best v mon smalt serving for the blue of all t china.

(2.) LEO, a river of China, in Cha

(1.) \* LEAP. *n. s.* [from the verb.] jump; act of leaping. 2. Space passed —After they have carried their riders *leaps*, and through all dangers, wha them in the end but to be broken wiv *trange*. 3. Sudden transition.—Wicke on by degrees, as well as virtue; and f from one extreme to another are unna *trange*.—The commons wrested even t chusing a king intirely out of the hands of which was so great a *leap*, and caused vulsion in the state, that the constituc bear. *Swift.* 4. An assault of an anin —The cat made a *leap* at the mouse.

5. Embrace of animals.—

How she cheats her bellowing lov

The rushing *leap*, the doubtful prog

6. Hazard, or effect of leaping.—

Methinks it were an easy *leap*

To pluck bright honour from the moon.

You take a precipice for no *leap*;  
And woo your own destruction.

Behold that dreadful downfall of

Where yon old fisher views the waves

'Tis the convenient *leap* I mean to t

(2.) LEAP, in music, is when the so proceed by conjoint degrees, as wh each note there is an interval of a thir a fifth, &c.

(3.) LEAP, THE LOVER'S. See LE

(1.) \* To LEAP. *v. n.* [*bleapan*, S. Scottish.] 1. To jump; to move upw gressively without change of the feet.— *eth* better with weights in his hand th for that the weight, if it be proj strengtheneth the sinews by contractin *leaping* with weights the arms are fir st wards and then forwards with so muc er force; for the hands go backward take their rise. *Bacon.*—

In a narrow pit

He saw a lion and *leap'd* down to it  
Thrice from the ground she *leap'd*  
to weild

Her brandish'd lance.

2. To rush with vehemence.—God c spirit of the king into mildness, who in ed from his throne, and took her in his: came to herself again. *Esth. xv. 8.*—A

t, and found her not, he *leaped* out  
le. *Judith*, xiv. 7.—

ruin upon ruin heaps  
ic, like a furious giant, *leaps*. *Sandys*.  
*leaping* from his horse he rais'd me up.

*Rowe*.  
d; to spring.—Rejoice ye in that day,  
joy. *Luke*, vi. 23.—

I am warm'd, my heart  
the trumpet's voice, and burns for glo-  
*Addison*.

to start.—  
ted frowning from me, as if ruin  
on his eyes. *Shak*.

s mouth go burning lamps, and sparks  
out. *Job*, xli. 29.

LEAP. *v. a.* 1. To pass over, or in-  
ing.—Every man is not of a constitu-  
a gulf for the saving of his country.

condemn'd to *leap* a precipice,  
before his eyes the depth below,  
rt. *Dryden*.

ir example still prevails:  
ts the stream, or *leaps* the pales. *Prior*.  
refs, as beasts.—

on they must not feel the sting of love:  
not *leap* the cow. *Dryden*.

ROG. *n. f.* [*leap* and *frog*.] A play of  
which they imitate the jump of frogs.  
win a lady at *leap-frog*, I should quick-  
a wife. *Shak*.

G, *n. f.* OF VAULTING, an exercise  
both among the Greeks and Romans.  
ans called it *άλμα*, and performed it  
its upon their heads and shoulders.  
they carried the weights in their hands,  
of different figures, but generally oval  
with holes or covered with thongs,  
rich the contenders put their fingers.  
hts were called *άλμης*. The contest  
ould leap the highest and farthest. The  
whence they jumped was called *βαλή*,  
which they leaped, *εκαμματα*, because  
was there dug up. This exercise was  
in the same manner by the Romans.  
R, Mary, an English poetess, born in  
onshire, in 1721. Her Poems, publish-  
: 8vo, are esteemed. She died in 1735,

LEAP-YEAR. *n. f.* *Leap-Year* or biffex-  
4th year, and so called from its *leap*-  
ore that year than in a common year;  
common year has 365 days, but the  
6; and then February hath 29 days,  
common years hath but 28. To find  
r you have this rule:—

by 4; what's left shall be  
year 0; for past 1, 2, 3. *Harris*.

of the name of *leap-year* is, that a day  
is missed; as, if on one year the first  
e on Monday, it will on the next year  
sday, but on *leap-year* it will *leap* to  
.—That the sun consisteth of 365 days  
: six hours, wanting eleven minutes;  
ours omitted will, in process of time,  
rave the compute; and this is the oc-  
be biffextile or *leap-year*. *Brown*.

(2.) LEAP-YEAR. See BISSILE, CHRONO-  
LOGY, § 47; and YEAR.

(1.) LEAR, a British king, said in ancient chro-  
nicles to have succeeded his father Bladud, about  
A. M. 3160. The story of this king and his three  
daughters, is well known from Shakespeare's ex-  
cellent tragedy founded on it.

(2.) LEAR, a river in Northumberland.  
LEARMONTH, Sir Thomas, commonly called  
*Thomas the Rhymer*, an ancient Scottish poet,  
and according to tradition, a prophet, was born  
in the parish of Earlstown, in Berwickshire, in  
the 13th century. See THOMAS. Part of his  
house is still standing, called *Rhymer's Tower*.  
And there is a stone built in the wall of the church  
with this inscription;

“Auld Rhymer's race—Lies in this place.”

(1.) \* To LEARN. *v. a.* [*learn*, Saxon.] 1.  
To gain the knowledge or skill of.—*Learn* a pa-  
rable of the fig tree. *Matt*. xxiv. 32.—He, in a  
shorter time than was thought possible, *learned*  
both to speak and write the Arabian tongue.  
*Knolles*:—

*Learn*, wretches! *learn* the motions of the  
mind,

And the great moral end of humankind. *Dryd*.  
—All he can *learn* of me, will be to weep! *A*.  
*Philips*. 2. To teach. [It is observable, that in  
many of the European languages the same word  
signifies to learn and to teach; to gain or impart  
knowledge.] This sense is now obsolete.—

He would *learn*  
The lion stoop to him in lowly wife,  
A lesson hard. *F. Queen*.

I know not how to curse: the red plague rid  
you,  
For *learning* me your language. *Shak. Temp*.

A thousand more mischances than this one,  
Have *learn'd* me how to brook this patiently.  
*Shak*.

Hast thou not *learn'd* me how  
To make perfumes? *Shak. Cymb*.

(2.) \* To LEARN. *v. n.* To take pattern: with *of*.  
—Take my yoke upon you, and *learn* of me; for  
I am meek and lowly. *Matt*. vi. 29.—In imitation  
of sounds, that Man should be the teacher is no  
part of the matter; for birds will *learn* one of a-  
nother. *Bacon*.

\* LEARNED. *adj.* [from *learn*.] 1. Versed in  
science and literature.—It is indifferent to the  
matter in hand, which way the *learned* shall de-  
termine of it. *Locke*.—

Such labour'd nothings, in so strange a style,  
Amaze th' unlearn'd, and make the *learned*  
smile. *Pope*.

The *learned* met with free approach,  
Although they came not in a coach. *Swift*.

—The best account is given of them by their own  
authors: but I trust more to the table of the *learn-*  
*ed* bishop of Bath. *Arbutnot*. 2. Skilled; skil-  
ful; knowing: with *in*.—

Thou train'd in arms, and *learn'd* in martial  
arts,  
Thou chusest not to conquer men but hearts.  
*Granv*.

3. Skilled in scholastick, as distinct from other  
knowledge.—Men of much reading are greatly  
*learned*, but may be little knowing. *Locke*.

\* LEARN-



\* **LEARNEDLY**. *adv.* [from *learned*.] With knowledge; with skill.—The apostle seemed in his eyes but *learnedly mad*. *Hooker*.—

Much

He spoke, and *learnedly*, for life. *Shak.*  
—Ev'ry coxcomb swears as *learnedly* as they. *Swift*.

\* **LEARNER**. *n. f.* [from *learn*.] One who is yet in his rudiments; one who is acquiring some new art or knowledge.—The late *learners* cannot so well take the ply. *Bacon*.—Nor can a *learner* work so cheap as a skilful practised artist can. *Graunt*.

\* **LEARNING**. *n. f.* [from *learn*.] 1. Literature; skill in languages or sciences; generally scholastic knowledge.—*Learning* hath its infancy, when it is almost childish. *Bacon*.—

*Learning* thy talent is, but mine is sense. *Prior*.  
—As Moses was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians, so it is manifest from this chapter, that St Paul was a great master in all the *learning* of the Greeks. *Bentley*. 2. Skill in any thing good or bad.—An art of contradiction by way of scorn, a *learning* wherewith we were long thenceforwarned, that the miserable times whereunto we are fallen should abound. *Hooker*.

\* (1.) \* **LEASE**. *n. f.* [*Jaisser*, French. *Spelman*.] 1. A contract by which, in consideration of some payment, a temporary possession is granted of houses or lands.—

It were a shame to let this land by *lease*. *Shak.*  
Lords of the world have but for life their *lease*,  
And that too, if the lessor please, must cease. *Deubam*.

—I have heard a man talk with contempt of bishops *leases* as on a worse foot than the rest of his estate. *Swift*. 2. Any tenure.—

Our high-plac'd Macbeth  
Shall live the *lease* of nature *Shak.*  
Thou to give the world increase,  
Short'ned hast thy own life's *lease*. *Milton*.

(2.) **A LEASE**, in law, is either written, called an *indenture*, *deedpoll*, or *lease* in writing; or by word of mouth, called *lease parole*. All estates, interests of freehold, or terms for years in lands, &c. not put in writing and signed by the parties, shall have no greater effect than as estates at will; unless it be of leases not exceeding three years from the making; wherein the rent reserved shall be two thirds of the value of the things demised. Leases exceeding three years must be made in writing; and if the substance of a lease be put in writing, and signed by the parties, though it be not sealed it shall have the effect of a lease for years, &c. **AN ASSIGNMENT** differs from a lease only in this; that by a lease one grants an interest less than his own, reserving to himself a reversion; in assignments he parts with the whole property, and the assignee stands to all intents and purposes in the place of the assignor.

(3.) **LEASE**, in Scots Law, is generally called a **TACK**. See **LAW**, PART III, *Chap. II, Sect. VI, § 8*. The shortness of leases in many parts of Scotland, has been long and justly complained of, as disadvantageous, not only to the tenants, but even to the proprietors, as well as to the country in general, by tending greatly to retard improvements in husbandry. Leases for 19 years are too short for making any material improvements. Three times

that period, or 57 years, is much recommended.

(See *Stat. Acc. Index, Part I*.) "Although the granting of leases for 19 years at least," (says the Author of the *Stat. Acc. of Dunnichen*), "is now become universal, yet there prevails a considerable diversity of opinion among proprietors, as to the expediency of including the life of the farmers in their leases. Some advantages, however, seem to give a decided preference to this last sort of lease. The tenant knows he is settled for life, and is therefore afraid to over-crop his land, lest he thereby injure himself. Many lawsuits are thereby avoided. The tenant is also more attentive to the repairs of his buildings and fences; and requires a much less vigilant inspection, on the part of the proprietor, or his factor. To protect the newly planted trees round the inclosed fields, the proprietor of Dunnichen has given the heirs of the tenants a right to one 3d part of them at the expiration of the lease; and engages not to prosecute the tenants for any accidental damage from cattle. The tenants consider the trees as a part of their own property and are at pains to protect them from injury.—Until farms are transmitted from father to son like an inheritance, as is much the case in England, agriculture will not attain all the perfection of which it is capable. *Veteres migrate coloni* is an odious mandate." (*Ibid.* Vol. I. p. 431.) "The tenants" (says the rev. Mr Thom, of Glenbervie) "on the lands belonging to lord MONBODDO, hold their farms on easy, and perhaps, peculiar terms. Their leases are of an uncommon nature, being a *life, 19 years, and a life*. The possessor, during the 19 years, names the life with which the lease ends." (*Ib.* vi; 451.) The late lord Swinton far exceeded his brother senator in the length of his leases. The rev. Mr Cupples ascribes the great increase of population in his parish of Swinton, "to Lord Swinton's judicious attention to improve and enlarge his village of Swinton, partly by perpetual feus, and partly by leases of 999 years." Perhaps the best form of a lease yet suggested to the public, for the mutual advantage of all parties, is that proposed by the late Lord KAMES in his *Gentleman Farmer*. "In order" (says his lordship) "to excite the industry of the tenant, at the end of the lease he shall be entitled to a renewal of it, upon paying the proprietor a fifth part more of rent, unless the proprietor give him 10 years purchase of that fifth part. For example, the rent is 100l; the tenant offers 120l: He shall therefore continue in the possession another 19 years, at the advanced rent, unless the landlord pay him 200l. Should the tenant offer a still higher additional rent, the proprietor cannot turn him out, unless he pay him 10 years purchase of that offer."

(4.) **LEASE and RELEASE**, a species of conveyance used in the English law, first invented by Serjeant Moore, soon after the statute of use now the most common of any, and therefore to be shaken; though very great lawyers (particularly Mr Noy) have formerly doubted its dity. It is thus contrived: A lease, or bargain and sale, upon some pecuniary consideration, for one year, is made by the tenant or freehold to the lessee or bargainee. Now without any enrolment, makes the bargainee

that period, or 57 years, is much recommended. (See *Stat. Acc. Index, Part I*.) "Although the granting of leases for 19 years at least," (says the Author of the *Stat. Acc. of Dunnichen*), "is now become universal, yet there prevails a considerable diversity of opinion among proprietors, as to the expediency of including the life of the farmers in their leases. Some advantages, however, seem to give a decided preference to this last sort of lease. The tenant knows he is settled for life, and is therefore afraid to over-crop his land, lest he thereby injure himself. Many lawsuits are thereby avoided. The tenant is also more attentive to the repairs of his buildings and fences; and requires a much less vigilant inspection, on the part of the proprietor, or his factor. To protect the newly planted trees round the inclosed fields, the proprietor of Dunnichen has given the heirs of the tenants a right to one 3d part of them at the expiration of the lease; and engages not to prosecute the tenants for any accidental damage from cattle. The tenants consider the trees as a part of their own property and are at pains to protect them from injury.—Until farms are transmitted from father to son like an inheritance, as is much the case in England, agriculture will not attain all the perfection of which it is capable. *Veteres migrate coloni* is an odious mandate." (*Ibid.* Vol. I. p. 431.) "The tenants" (says the rev. Mr Thom, of Glenbervie) "on the lands belonging to lord MONBODDO, hold their farms on easy, and perhaps, peculiar terms. Their leases are of an uncommon nature, being a *life, 19 years, and a life*. The possessor, during the 19 years, names the life with which the lease ends." (*Ib.* vi; 451.) The late lord Swinton far exceeded his brother senator in the length of his leases. The rev. Mr Cupples ascribes the great increase of population in his parish of Swinton, "to Lord Swinton's judicious attention to improve and enlarge his village of Swinton, partly by perpetual feus, and partly by leases of 999 years." Perhaps the best form of a lease yet suggested to the public, for the mutual advantage of all parties, is that proposed by the late Lord KAMES in his *Gentleman Farmer*. "In order" (says his lordship) "to excite the industry of the tenant, at the end of the lease he shall be entitled to a renewal of it, upon paying the proprietor a fifth part more of rent, unless the proprietor give him 10 years purchase of that fifth part. For example, the rent is 100l; the tenant offers 120l: He shall therefore continue in the possession another 19 years, at the advanced rent, unless the landlord pay him 200l. Should the tenant offer a still higher additional rent, the proprietor cannot turn him out, unless he pay him 10 years purchase of that offer."

he use of the bargainee; and vests in the the use of the term for a year; and then immediately annexes the possession. He being thus in possession, is capable of a release of the freehold and reversion, if he made to a tenant in possession: dingly the next day, a release is granted This is held to supply the place of live-; and so a conveyance by lease and red to amount to a feoffment.

**LEASE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To *r.*—Where the vicar leases his glebe, the ft pay the great tithes to the rector or im- and the small tithes to the vicar. *Ayliffe*. **LEASE**. *v. n.* [*lesen*, Dutch.] To gather what the harvest men leave.—

She in harvest us'd to lease. *Dryden*. **LEASER**. *n. f.* [from *lease*.] Gleaner; ga- the reaper.—There was no office which n England might not have; and I look- ll who were born here as only in the of leasers and gleaners. *Swift*.

**LEASING POINT**, a cape on the W. coast of N. of the isle of Walney.

**LEASH**. *n. f.* [*lisse*, Fr. *letse*, Dutch; *lian*.] 1. A leather thong, by which a olds his hawk, or a courser leads his d. *Hammer*.—

1 like a fauning greyhound in the leash, him slip at will. *Shak.* c straining on, for plucking back; not llowing b unwillingly. *Shak.*

c; three.—I am sworn brother to a leasb s, and can call them all by their Chris- s. *Shak.*—

Some thought when he did gabble l heard the labourers of Babel, berus himself pronounce of languages at once. *Hudibras*.

urt a living comedy; they are a leasb of s. *Dennis's Letters*. 3. A band where- ic any thing in general.—The ravished ; shewn such game, would break those it tie her to the body. *Boyle*.

**LEASH**, (*§ 2, def. 2.*) among sportsmen, de- reatures of any kind; but chiefly grey- foxes, bucks, and hares.

**LEASH**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To bind ; 1 a string.—

1 should the warlike Harry, like himself, : the port of Mars; and, at his heels, in like hounds, should famine, sword, d fire,

1 for employment. *Shak.* **SING.** *n. f.* [*leuse*, Saxon.] Lies; falshood. ons of men, how long will ye have such in vanity, and seek after leasng? *Psal. iv.*

'mongst ladies would their fortunes read l their hands, and merry leasngs tell.

ates foul leasngs and vile flattery, lthy blots in noble gentery. *Hub. Tale*. it false pilgrim which that leasng told, dredi old Archimago. *F. Quern*. tumb'd past the throw, and in his praise dmost stamp: the leasng. *Shak. Cor.*

.. XIII. PART II.

As folks, quoth Richard, prone to leasng, Say things at first, because they're pleating; *Prior.*

Trading free shall thrive again, Nor leasngs leud affright the swain. *Gay*. **LEASING-MAKING**, in Scots law, the uttering of words tending to excite discord between the king and his people; also called *verbal sedition*.

(1.) \* **LEAST**. *adj.* the superlative of *little*. [*larst*, Saxon. This word *Wallis* would persuade us to write *lest*, that it may be analogous to *less*; but surely the profit is not worth the change.] Little beyond others; smallest.—I am not worthy of the least of all the mercies shewed to thy ser- vant. *Gen. xxxii. 10.*—A man can no more have a positive idea of the greatest than he has of the least space. *Locke*.

(2.) \* **LEAST**. *adv.* In the lowest degree; in a degree below others; less than any other way.—

He resolv'd to wave his suit, Or for a while play least in fight. *Hudibras*. Ev'n that avert; I chuse it not; But taste it as the least unhappy lot. *Dryd.*

—No man more truly knows to place a right value on your friendship, than he who least deserves it on all other accounts than his due sense of it. *Pope*.

(3.) \* **At LEAST**. } To say no more; not to (4.) \* **At the LEAST**. } demand or affirm more \* **At LEAST WISE**. } than is barely sufficient; at the lowest degree.—

He who tempts; though in vain, at least as- perges The tempted with dishonour. *Milton*.

He from my side subducting, took peritaps More than enough; at least on her bestowed Too much of ornament, in outward show Elaborate, of inward lets exact. *Milton*.

—Upon the mast they saw a young man, at least if he were a man who sat as on horseback. *Sidney*. —Every effect doth after a sort contain, at least- wise resemble, the cause from which it proceedeth. *Hooker*.

Honour and fame at least the thund'rer ow'd, And ill he pays the promise of a God. *Pope*.

—The remedies, if any, are to be proposed from a constant course of the milken diet, continued at least a year. *Temple*.—A fiend may deceive a creature of more excellency than himself, at last by the tacit permission of the omniscient Being. *Dryd. Ded. to Jew. 2.* It has a sense implying doubt; to say no more; to say the least; not to say all that might be said.—

Whether such virtue spent now fail'd New angels to create, if they at least Are his created. *Milton*.

—Let useful observations be at least some part of the subject of your conversation. *Watts*.

\* **LEASY**. *adj.* [This word seems formed from the same root with *laisir*, French, or *loose*.] Flimsy; of weak texture. Not in use.—He never leaveth, while the sense itself be left loose and lea- sy. *Ascham's Schoolmaster*.

(1.) \* **LEATHER**. *n. f.* [*lether*, Saxon; *leair*, Ersc.] 1. Dressed hides of animals.—He was a hairy man, and girt with a girdle of leather about his loins. 2 *Kings, i. 8.*—

And if two boots keep out the weather, What need you have two hides of leather? *Prior*.

2. Skin: ironically.—

Returning sound in limb and wind,  
Except some leather lost behind.

*Swift.*

3. It is often used in composition for *leathern*.—  
The shepherds homely curds,

His cold thin drink out of his *leather* bottle;

Is far beyond a prince's delicacies.

*Shel.*

(2.) LEATHER, BLACKING OF. In the tanning of leather it is so much impregnated with the astringent parts of oak bark, or with that matter which strikes a black with green vitriol, that rubbing it over 3 or 4 times with a solution of the vitriol, or with a solution of iron in vegetable acids, is sufficient for staining it black. This operation is performed by the currier, who, after the colouring, gives a gloss to the leather with a solution of gum arabic and size made in vinegar. Where the previous astringent impregnation is sufficient to give due colour, and for those sorts of leather which have not been tanned, some galls or other astringents are added to the solution of iron. In many cases, particularly for the finer sorts of leather, and for renewing the blackness, lamp or ivory black are used. A mixture of either of these with linseed oil makes the common oil blacking. For a shining blacking, small beer or water are taken instead of oil, in the quantity of about a pint to an ounce of the ivory black, with the addition of half an ounce of brown sugar and as much gum-arabic. The white of an egg, substituted for the gum, makes the black more shining, but is supposed to hurt the leather, and make it apt to crack. It must be obvious, however, that all these compositions admit of many variations.

(3.) LEATHER, GILDING OF. Take glair of the whites of eggs, or gum water, and with a brush rub over the leather with either of them: then lay on the gold or silver, and, letting them dry, burnish them. See BURNISHING, and GILDING, § IV, 1, 2.

(4.) LEATHER, METHOD OF COVERING. OR DRESSING, WITH SILVER OR GOLD. Take brown bread; grate and move it on a stone with a muller adding water and chalk; and when the latter is dissolved, rub or lightly daub the leather over with it, till it looks a little whitish; and then lay on the silver or gold before the leather is quite dry, laying the leaves a little over each other, till they may not be the least part uncovered; and when they have well closed with the leaf, and are sufficiently dried on and hardened, rub them over with an ivory polisher, or the fore-hand of a horse.

(5.) LEATHER, METHOD OF DYEING. *Blue* is given by steeping the leather a day in urine and indigo, then boiling it with alum; or by tempering the indigo with red wine, and washing the skins therewith. *Red* is given by washing the skins, and laying them two hours in galls, then rubbing them out, dipping them in a liquor made with lignitum, alum, and verdigraese in water; and lastly, in a dye made of brazil wood, dyed with ley. *Purple* is given by wetting the skins with a solution of roche alum in warm water; and, when dry again, rubbing them with the hand with a decoction of log-wood in colder.

and alum water boiled. *Dark green* is a with steel filings and sal ammoniac steeped till soft, then smeared over the skin; and be dried in the shade. *Sky colour* is given by indigo steeped in boiling water, and the next day warmed and smeared over the skin, by smearing the skin over with aloes an oil dissolved and strained; or by infusing in *Orange colour* is given by smearing with berries boiled in alum-water; or, for a deep with turneric.

(6.) LEATHER, PROCESSES FOR DYEING AND YELLOW, AS PRACTISED IN TURKEY processes, with directions for preparing the skins, were communicated by N. P. Po, a native of Armenia, who received the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, besides the Society's gold medal, as a reward for discovering this secret. 1. *First Preparatory Skins, for both colours, by lime.* Let the skin with the hair on, be first laid to soak in water for 3 days; let them then be broken flesh side, put into fresh water for two days, and afterwards hung up to drain half an hour. Let them now be broken on the flesh side in cold lime on the same side, and double them with the grain side outward. In 10 days they must be hung up within doors over a fire for 5 or 6 days, till the hair be loose; when they be taken off, and the skins returned lime-pit for about 3 weeks. Take them up, let them be well worked flesh and grain side, 6th or 7th day during that time; after which they be washed ten times in clear water, and the water at each washing. 2. *Preparatory Skins, for both dyes, by drenching.* After squeezing the water out of the skins, put them into a muller of bran and water, warm as new milk, in following proportions; viz. about 3 lb. of bran to 3 skins, and water sufficient to make the mixture moderately fluid, which will be about a cask-pound of bran. In this drench let them lie 3 days; at the end of which they must be worked, and then returned into the drench 3 days longer. They must next be taken up, rubbed between the hands; the water squeezed from them, and the bran scraped off cleaving both sides of the skins. After this they must be washed ten times in clear water, and the water squeezed out of them. Thus far the preparatory process for both colours is the same; but after this the skins must be treated differently. 3. *Preparation in honey and bran of the Sky dyed RED.* Mix 1 lb. of honey with three tubs of warm water, and stir them together till the honey is dissolved. Then add two double tubs of bran; and taking 4 skins (for which above quantity of the mixture will be sufficient) work them well in it one after another, and then fold up each skin separately in a form, with the flesh side inwards; and lay them in an earthen pan, or other proper vessel, summer, by the side, but in winter, top of each other. Place the vessel in a warm position, so that such part of the fluid may spontaneously drain from the skins, may, and an acid fermentation will then raise in the skins, and the skins will swell considerably. In t

continue for 7 or 8 days; but the moist-  
drains from them must be poured off,  
vice a-day, as occasion may require.  
*2dly* in *Salt*, of the *Skins to be dyed Red*.  
Skins have been thus fermented in honey  
et them be taken out of that mixture on  
9th day, and well rubbed and worked  
ea salt, in the proportion of about half  
each skin. This will make them con-  
and part with a considerable quantity  
oilure; which must be squeezed out by  
ach skin separately through the hands.  
t next be scraped clean on both sides  
bran, superfluous salt, and remaining  
after which, dry salt must be strewed  
rain side, and well rubbed in with the  
ey are then to be doubled with the flesh  
uds, lengthwise from neck to tail, and  
re dry salt must be thinly strewed over  
ide, and rubbed in; for the two last o-  
about 1½ lb. of salt will be sufficient for

They must then be put, thus folded  
ther, between two clean boards, placed  
readthwise; and a heavy weight laid on  
board, in order gradually to press out  
sure they will thus part with. In this  
ature, they must be continued two days  
till it be convenient to dye them, for  
ry will then be duly prepared. 5. *Prep-*  
*f the Red Dye, in a proportion for four*  
t 8 gallons of water into a copper, with  
enan tied up in a linen bag. Shenan is  
of talicornia, and is much used by dyers  
It may be easily procured in any  
at a trifling expence, by any of the cap-  
turkey ships, at Aleppo, Smyrna, &c.  
CURNIA, and SHENAN.) Light a fire un-  
der; and when the water has boiled a-  
arter of an hour, take out the bag of  
d put into the boiling fluid or lixivium,  
rams of alum; 2dly, two drams pome-  
rk; 3dly, ¼ oz. of turmeric; 4thly, 3 oz.  
al; 5thly, 2 oz. of loaf sugar. Let the  
ture boil about six minutes, then cover  
nd take out a quart of liquor, putting it  
earthen pan; and when it is as cold as  
take one skin, folded lengthwise, the  
outwards, and dip it in the liquor, rub-  
ntly with the hands. Then taking out  
ang it up to drain, and throw away the  
is dye. Proceed in the same manner  
ther 3 skins; repeating the operation of  
ately, 8 times, squeezing the skins by  
hem through the hands before each fresh  
Lay them now on one side of a large pan,  
g, to drain off as much of the moisture  
a from them without pressure, for about  
rs, or till they are cold; then tan them.  
*6. Preparation of the Yellow Dye, in the*  
*proportion for four Skins.* Powder 4 oz. of the  
te galls in a marble mortar, sifting it  
a fine sieve. Mix the powder with about  
of water, and work the skins well in this  
for half an hour or more, folding up the  
w-fold. Let them lie in this tan for 24  
when they must be worked again as be-  
en taken out, scraped clean on both sides  
e first galls, and put into a like quantity  
a galls and water. In this fresh mixture

they must be again well worked for three quarters  
of an hour; then folded up as before, and left in  
the fresh tan for three days. On the 4th day they  
must be taken out, washed clean from the galls in  
seven or eight fresh quantities of water, and then  
hung up to dry. 7. *Method of Dressing the Skins.*  
When the skins are very near dry, they should be  
scraped with the proper instrument or scraper on  
the flesh side, to reduce them to a proper degree  
of thickness. They are then to be laid on a smooth  
board, and glazed by rubbing them with a smooth  
glass. After which they must be oiled, by rub-  
bing them with olive oil, by a linen rag, in the  
proportion of 1½ oz. of oil for 4 skins; they are  
then to be grained on a graining board, length-  
wise, breadthwise, and cornerwise, or from cor-  
ner to corner. 8. *Preparations with galls, for the*  
*Skins to be dyed YELLOW.* After the 4 skins are  
taken out of the drench of bran, and clean wash-  
ed, they must be very well worked, half an hour  
or more, in a mixture of 1½ lb. of the best white  
galls, finely powdered, with two quarts of clean  
water. The skins are then to be separately dou-  
bled lengthwise, rolled up with the flesh side out-  
wards, laid in the mixture, and close pressed down  
on each other, in which state they must continue  
two whole days. On the third day let them be  
again worked in the tan; and afterwards scraped  
clean from the galls, with an *ivory* or *brass* instru-  
ment, for no *iron* must touch them. They must  
then be put into a fresh tan, made of 2 lb. of galls  
finely powdered, with about 3 quarts of water,  
and well worked therein 15 times. After this  
they must be doubled, rolled up as before, and  
laid in the 2d tan for 3 days. On the 3d day ½ lb.  
of sea salt must be worked into each skin; and the  
skins doubled as before, and returned into the tan,  
till the day following, when they are to be taken  
out, and well washed six times in cold water, and  
four times water lukewarm. The water must be  
then well squeezed out, by laying the skins under  
pressure, for about half an hour, between two  
boards, with a weight of about 200 or 300 lb. laid  
upon the uppermost board, when they will be  
ready for the dye. 9. *Preparation of the Yellow*  
*Dye, in the proportion for four Skins.* Mix 6 oz. of  
cassiair gehira, or dgehira, or the berries of the  
eastern RHAMNUS, with the same quantity of al-  
lum; and pound them together till they be fine,  
in a marble or brass mortar, with a brass pestle.  
These may be had at Aleppo, and other parts of  
the Levant, at a small price. The common A-  
vignon or yellow berries may be substituted, but  
not with so good an effect; the cassiair gehira be-  
ing a stronger and brighter yellow dye. After  
pounding them, divide the materials, thus pow-  
dered, into 3 equal parts of 4 oz. each, put one  
part into about 1½ pints of water, in a china or  
earthen vessel, and stir the mixture together. Let  
the fluid stand to cool, till it will not scald the  
hand. Then spreading one of the skins flat on a  
table, in a warm room, with the grain side upper-  
most, pour a 4th part of the liquor, over the up-  
per or grain side, spreading it equally over the skin  
with the hand, and rubbing it well in. After-  
wards do the like with the other three skins.  
This operation must be repeated twice more on  
each skin separately, with the remaining 8 oz. of

the powder of the berries, and alum, with the same proportions of hot water. The skins when dyed, are to be hung up on a wooden frame, without being folded, with the grain side outwards, about  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an hour to drain; when they must be carried to a stream of running water, and well washed six times or more. After this they must be put under pressure for about an hour, till the water be well squeezed out; afterwards the skins must be hung up to dry in a warm room. The skins are then to be dressed and grained as before directed for those dyed red; except the oiling, which must be omitted.

(1.) \* LEATHERCOAT. *n. s.* [*leather and coat.*]  
An apple with a tough rind.—  
There is a dish of leathercoats for you. *Shak.*

(2.) LEATHERCOAT. See PYRUS, N° 3.  
\* LEATHERDRESSER. *n. s.* [*leather and dresser.*] He who dresses leather; he who manufactures hides for use.—He removed to Cumæ; and by the way was entertained at the house of one Tychius, a leather-dresser. *Pope.*

\* LEATHER-MOUTHED. *adj.* [*leather and mouth.*] By a leather-mouthed fish, I mean such as have their teeth in their throat; as, the chub or cheven. *Walton.*

\* LEATHERN. *adj.* [*from leather.*] Made of leather.—

I saw her hand; she has a leathern hand. *Shak.*  
The wretched animal heav'd forth such groans,  
That their discharge did stretch his leathern coat,  
Almost to bursting. *Shak.*

In silken or in leathern purse retain  
A splendid filling. *Philips.*

\* LEATHERSELLER. *n. s.* [*leather and seller.*] He who deals in leather, and vends it.

LEATHER-WOOD. See DIRCA.

\* LEATHERY. *adj.* [*from leather.*] Resembling leather.—Wormius calls this crust a leather skin. *Grew.*

LEATHES, or LEATHES WATER, a beautiful lake of Cumberland, S. by E. of Keswick, called also THIRLMERE, and WYTHBURN. It begins at the foot of Mount Helwellyn, skirts it for 4 miles, and has an outlet, which joins the rapid river Greeta, and thus communicates with the lake of DERWENT. It is almost intersected by two peninsulas, which are joined by a wooden bridge.

\* LEAVE. *n. s.* [*leave, Saxon; from lisan, to grant.*] 1. Grant of liberty; permission; allowance.—By your leave, Irenæus, methinks I see an evil lurk unespied. *Spenser.*

When him his dearest Una did behold,  
Distaining life, desiring leave to dye. *Spenser.*  
You're welcome; give us leave, drawer. *Shak.*  
Sylla's sway, when the free sword took leave  
To act all that it would. *Ben Jonson.*

We dare not give  
Our thoughts so unconfin'd a leave. *Waller.*  
No friend has leave to bear away the dead. *Dryden.*

Offended that we fought without his leave. *Dryden.*

—One thing more I crave leave to offer about syllogism, before I leave it. *Locke.*—I must have leave to be grateful to any who serves me, nor did the tory party put me to the hardship of ask-

ing this leave. *Pope.* 2. Farewell; adieu. *sense leave is permission to depart.*

Take leave and part, for you must part with,

Evils that take leave,  
On their departure, most of all shew evil  
—There is further compliment of leave tal  
tween France and him. *Shak.*

Occasion smiles upon a second leave.  
But, my dear nothings, take your leave  
—Many stars may be visible in our hem  
that are not so at present; and many sh  
leaves of our horizon, and appear unto s  
habitations. *Brown.*

(1.) \* TO LEAVE. *v. a.* pret. *I left; I le*  
[Of the derivation of this word the etym  
give no satisfactory account.] 1. To g  
forsake.—A man shall leave his father a  
ther, and cleave to his wife. *Gen. ii. 24.*

If they love less, and leave the lusty  
Envy them not their palates with the s  
*Ben*

2. To desert; to abandon.—He that is of  
thankful mind, will leave him in danger  
livered him. *Eccles. xxix. 17.* 3. To depa  
without action; as, I left things as I foun  
—When they were departed from him, t  
him in great distress. 1. *Chron. xxiv. 25.*

have remaining at death.—There be of th  
have left a name behind them. *Eccles.*  
5. Not to deprive of.—They still have left  
providence of God, and all the promises  
gospel, and my charity to them too. *Tay.*

To suffer to remain.—It leaveth a suspici  
more might be said, than is expressed. J  
These things must be left uncertain to far  
coveries in future ages. *Abbot's Descriptio*

*World.*—Who those are, to whom this  
descent belongs, he leaves out of the reac  
one to discover from his writings. *Locke.*

to carry away.—They encamped again;  
and destroyed the increase of the earth,  
no sustenance for Israel. *Judg. vi. 4.*—He  
the fruit of thy cattle; which also shall  
thee either corn, wine, or oil. *Deut. xxvi.*  
Vastus gave strict commandment, that the  
leave behind them unnecessary baggage.

8. To reject; not to choose.—

I am superiour, I can take or leave.  
9. To fix as a token or remembrance.—  
leave with my reader, as an occasion for  
consider, how much he may be beholde  
perience. *Locke.* 10. To bequeath; to g  
heritance.—

That peace thou leav'st to thy impo  
That peace, Oh happy shade! be ev

11. To give up; to resign.—Thou shalt  
thy vineyards; thou shalt leave them for  
and stranger. *Lev. xix. 10.*—If a wife m  
left to himself, and his own choice, to  
greatest good to himself he could devise;  
of all his wishes would be this, That th  
just such a being as God is. *Tillotson.*

permit without interposition.—Whet  
were a vassal, I leave the reader to judg  
13. To cease to do; to desist from.—L  
turn, lest my father leave caring for the;

or us. 1. *Sam. ix. 5.* 14. To LEAVE : from; to forbear.—If, upon any bid him *leave off* the doing of any ft be fure to carry the point. *Locke.* In as old age came on, he *left off Addison.* 15. To LEAVE off. To began to *leave off* some of his old ac- is roaring and bullying about the t on a ferious air. *Arbutnot. 16.* To omit; to neglect.— aught with curious bufinefs, that ceremony. *Shak.* partake: I have told 'em who you

is loth to be *left out.* *B. Jonfon.* down by order and divifion doth that nothing is *left out* or omitted, *Bacon.*— friend till utmost end ues be done, and none *left out.* *Mil.* world's exiftence may conceive, one atom *out* of matter *leave.*

*Blackmore.* ought this paffage *left out* with a great ent by Tucca and Varius, as it feems a part in the fixth *Æneid.* *Addifon.* LEAVE. *v. n.* 1. To ceafe; to defift. effence, and, I *leave* to be, by her fair influence min'd, chrifh'd, kept alive. *Shak.* : this bufinefs fo far fair is done, *leave* till all our own be won. *Shak.* t the eldeft, and *left* at the youngeft. o LEAVE off. To defift.—Grittus, they in the caftle would not hold batter or undermine it, wherewith e little prevailed. *Knolles.* you find that vigorous heat abate, nd for another fummons wait. *Raf.* off. To flop.— do not *leave off* there where they be-

get new mifchiefs. *Daniel.* LEAVE. *v. a.* [from *levy*; *lever*, Fr.] aife: a corrupt word, made, I be- fer, for a rhyme.—

An army ftrong she *leav'd*, thofe which him had of his realm 'd. *F. Queen.*

). *adj.* [from *leaves* of *leaf*.] 1. Fur- liage. 2. Made with leaves or folds. the loins of kings, to open before *leaved* gates. *Ifa. xlv. 1.*

VEN. *n. f.* [*levain*, French; *levare*, riment mixed with any body to make cularly ufed of four dough mixed in id.—It fhall not be baken with *lea-* 17.—All fermented meats and drinks efted; and thofe unfermented, by *ens*, are hardly digefted. *Floyer.* 2. which makes a general change in generally means fomething that de- pts that with which it is mixed.— r propofitions favour very ftrongly of t of innovations. *K. Charles.*

n is ufed to ferment and render light r quantity of dough or pafte. See —3; BAKM § 2; BREAD, § 3; and

1 EST. Leaven was ftrictly forbidden by the law of Mofes during the 7 days of the paffover; and the Jews, in obedience to this law, very carefully purified their houfes from all leaven as foon as the vigil of the feaft began. Nothing of honey or leaven was to have place in any thing prefented upon the altar, during this folemnity. If, during the feaft, the leaft particle of leaven was found in their houfes, the whole was polluted. Leaven, in its figurative fenfe, fignifies the bad paffions of envy, malice, and rancour, which four the temper, and extend their ferment over the focial affections; whereas unleavened bread implies fincerity, truth, and meeknefs. It is frequently ufed for any kind of moral contagion.

\* To LEAVEN. *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To ferment by fomething mixed.

You muft tarry the *leav'ning.* *Shak.* —Whofoever eateth *leavened* bread, that foul fhall be cut off. *Exod. xii. 17.*—Breads we have of feveral grains, with divers kinds of *leavenings*, and fea- fonings. *Bacon.* 2. To taint; to imbue.—

That cruel fomething unpoftelt, Corrodes and *leavens* all the reft. *Prior.*

\* LEAVER. *n. f.* [from *leave*.] One who de- ferts or forfakes.—

Let the world rank me in register A mafter *leaver*, and a fugitive. *Shak.*

(1.) \* LEAVES. *n. f.* The plural of LEAF.— Parts fit for the nourifhment of man in plants are, feeds, roots, and fruits; for *leaves* they give no nourifhment at all. *Bacon.*

(2.) LEAVES. See BOTANY, *Ind.* and LEAF, § 2, (3.) LEAVES, COLOURS EXTRACTED FROM. See COLOUR-MAKING, *Index.*

\* LEAVINGS. *n. f.* [from *leave*.] Remnant; relicks; offal; refufe; it has no fingular.—

My father has this morning call'd together, To this poor hall, his little Roman fenate, The *leavings* of Pharfalia. *Addifon.*

Then who can think we'll quit the place, Or flop and light at Cloe's head, With fcraps and *leavings* to be fed? *Swift.*

\* LEAVY. *adj.* [from *leaf*.] Full of leaves; covered with leaves: *leafy* is more ufed.—

Strephon, with *leavy* twigs of laurel tree, A garland made on temples for to wear. *Sidney.* Now, near enough: your *leavy* fcreens throw down,

And fhew like thofe you are. *Mach. tb.*

LEAWAVA, a fea port on the E. coaft of Cey- lon, famous for falt. Lon. 83. 15. E. Lat. 6. 40. N.

LEBA, a town of Saxony, in Pomerania.

LEBADEA, or { an ancient town of Bœotia, LEBADIA, { on the borders of Phocis, fitu- ated between Helicon and Chæroneæ, near Co- ronææ. In it flood the oracle of Jupiter Tro- phonius, which all who went to confult defcend- ed into a fubterraneous gulf.

(1.) LEBANON, a celebrated mountain in the S. of Syria and N. of Canaan. See LIBANUS.

(2.) LEBANON, a town of Pennsylvania, contain- ing 2 churches and 300 houfes in 1795; 8½ miles NW. of Philadelphia.

(3.) LEBANON, a flourifhing town of New Hampshire, in Grafton county, 5 miles SSE. of Hanover.

LEBBEAS. See JUDE, § 1.

LEBENA,

**LEBEDA**, or **LEBIDA**, an ancient sea port town of Tripoli, with a good harbour, and an old castle, seated on the Mediterranean. Lon. 14. 50. E. Lat. 32. 50. N.

**LEBEDOS**, one of the 12 ancient cities of Ionia, situated S. of Smyrna. It was the residence of players, where they met from all parts of Ionia, as far as the Hellespont, and celebrated annual games in honour of Bacchus. *Strabo*. It was overthrown by Lyfimachus, who removed the inhabitants to Ephesus; after which it dwindled down to a village. *Horace*.

**LEBEN**, or } one of the port towns of the  
**LEBENA**, } Gortynians, near the promontory of Leon, on the SE. side of Crete; famous for a temple of Æsculapius, built in imitation of that of Cyrenaica.

**LEBENTHOR**, a town of Germany in Stiria; 5 miles NNE. of Fridaw.

**LEBER**, a river of France, which runs into the Ill, below Schlettstadt.

**LEBID**, an Arabian poet, of the 6th century, who was employed by Mahomet, to answer the Satires that were written against him. He is said to have lived to the great age of 140.

**LEBIEDE**, a market town of the Italian republic, in the department of the Mincio, in the district and late duchy of Mantua, seated on the Po.

**LEBLANC**, Martel, one of the 14 learned Jesuits, sent by Lewis XIV. to Siam. He wrote a History of the Revolutions of Siam, in 2 vols. 8vo. He died at Mosambique.

**LEBRADÉ**, a town of Holstein.

**LEBRIJA**, or } an ancient, strong, and plea-  
**LEBRIXA**, } sant town of Spain, in Andalusia; seated on a territory abounding in corn, wine, and olives, of which they make the best oil in Spain. Lon. 5. 32. W. Lat. 36. 52. N.

**LEBUS**, a town of Brandenburg, with a bishop's see, secularized in favour of the house of Brandenburg, seated on the Oder. It has been often sacked. Lon. 14. 55. E. Lat. 52. 28. N.

**LECASELLO**, a town of the Ligurian republic, 23 miles NE. of Genoa.

**LECCE**, a rich, populous, and beautiful town of Naples, in the prov. of Otranto, of which it is the capital, and a bishop's see, anciently called *Aletium*. Lon. 18. 20. E. Lat. 40. 38. N.

**LECCI**, a town of the French republic in Corsica, 5 miles N. of Porto Vecchio.

(1.) **LECCO**, a district of the ITALIAN REPUBLIC, in the department of the Lario, and late duchy of Milan, on the banks of lake Como; containing 75,417 citizens in May 1801.

(2.) **LECCO**, the capital of the above district, is seated on the SE. arm of lake Como, out of which the Adda flows below this town. By the division of the CISALPINE REPUBLIC in 1797, it was the capital of the dep. of Montagne. It has various manufactures and extensive trade. Lon. 9. 40. E. Lat. 45. 45. N.

**LECETA**, a town of Spain in Navarre.

(1.) **LECH**, a river of Germany, which rises in Tirol, runs N. dividing Suabia from Bavaria, and passing by Landspruck and Augsburg, falls into the Danube below Donawert.

(2.) **LECH**, or **LECK**, a river of the Batavian re-

public, which is a branch of the Rhine, ceives this name at Wyke-Duchadt. A fine Cullemburg, Vianen, Schonboven, &c. into the Maese at Krimpe.

(3.) **LECH**, or **LECHE**, a river of the Fr public, which rises in the depart. of Foy devant duchy of Luxemburg) and falls Meuse near Dinant.

\* **To LECH**. *v. a.* [*lecher*, French.] **To Hammer**.—

Haft thou yet *leched* the Athenian's  
With the love juice?

**LECHEA**, in botany, a genus of the order, in the Triandria class of plants.

\* **LECHER**. *n. f.* [Derived by *Skinner* from *luxure*, old French: *luxuria* is used in the ages in the same sense.] A whoremaster now take the *lecher*; he's at my house; not 'scape me. *Shak.*—

You, like a *lecher*, out of whorish lo!  
Are pleas'd to breed out your inherito  
The *lecher* soon transforms his mistre  
In Iö's place appears a lovely cow.

The sleepy *lecher* shuts his little eyes.  
She yields her charms  
To that fair *lecher*, the strong god of

\* **To LECHER**. *v. n.* [from the noun.] **To Die for adultery?** no. The wren goes the small gilded fly does *lecher* in my fight  
Gut eats all day, and *lechers* all the

\* **LECHEROUS**. *adj.* [from *lecher*.] **Le-ful**.—The sapphire should grow foul, an beauty, when worn by one that is *lecherous*

\* **LECHEROUSLY**. *adv.* [from *lecherousness*.]

\* **LECHERY**. *n. f.* [from *lecher*.] **Lewdr**—The rest welter with as little shame in *lebery*, as swine do in the common mire. *Schoolmaster*.—

Against such lewdsters, and their *lec*  
Those that betray them to do no treat

**LECHES**, a town of France, in the Dordogne, 3 miles S. of Mucidan.

**LECHLADE**. See **LEACHLADE**.

**LECHNICH**, a town of the French republic the depart. of the Roer, and late electors logne. Lon. 6. 35. E. Lat. 50. 40. N.

(1.) **LECK**. See **LECH**, N° 2.

(2.) **LECK**, a town of Denmark, in Sle

**LECROPT**, a parish of Scotland, in the ties of Perth and Stirling, bounded on by the Teath, and on the E. by the F Allan; about 3 miles long, and nearly containing about 2000 acres, and affording prospect of the romantic scenery on the the above rivers, the cattle and bridge of the abbey of Cambuskenneth, the rock forth, the hills of Dundaff, the Ochills, soil is one half rich clay, the other dry-f the usual crops are produced. The po in 1794, was 470; the decrease, since 1 There is a large natural wood, ten orch a great number of planted trees in the besides part of a chain of ancient for *kiers*, erected by Galgacus, to watch the

Romans under Agricola, about A. D. 79. Robertson places this parish in Lon. 47. 0. Edinburgh. Lat. 56. 11. N.

LI, beds or couches, were of two kinds—the Romans, being destined to two different uses, to lie upon at entertainments, and to repose for sleep. The former were called *lecti* vs, the latter *lecti cubicularii*. See BED, 16.

LICTICA was a litter or vehicle, in which persons were carried. It was of two kinds, land and uncovered. The covered lectica is by Pliny *cubiculum viatorum*, a traveller's chamber. Augustus frequently ordered his slaves to stop his litter that he might sleep upon it. This vehicle was carried by 6 or 8 LECTICARI. The lectica differed from the SELLA, the first the traveller could recline himself upon, in the latter, he was obliged to sit. The lectica was invented in Bithynia; the sella was a machine, and esteemed the more honourable of the two. Lectica was also the name of a funeral bed, or bier for carrying out the dead. LECTICARI, among the Romans, servants employed the LECTICA.

LECTICARIUS was also an officer in the Greek church, whose business it was to bear off the bodies of those who died, and to bury them. These were otherwise denominated *decani* and *copiati*.

LECTIOREADING, in a medical view, is said by Hippocrates, (*lib. i. cap. 4.*) to be bad especially for those whose heads are weak; and (*lib. i. cap. 8.*) he recommends reading with a voice for such as have weak stomachs. It is directed by Paulus Æginetus as an exercise. *lib. i. cap. 19.*

LECTIO. *n. f.* [*lectio*, Lat.] A reading; a lecture; or a copy. —If the common text be not agreeable to his opinion, a various *lectio* shall be made. *Watts.*

LECTISTERNIUM, a solemn ceremony observed by the Romans in times of public danger, or an entertainment was prepared with great expense, and served up in the temples. The people were invited to partake of the good cheer, and statues placed upon couches round the temple in the same manner as men used to sit at table. The first lectisternium held at Rome was in honour of Apollo, Latona, Diana, Hercules, Mercurius, Neptune, to put a stop to a contagious pestilence which raged amongst the cattle, A. U. C. 473. At these feasts the Epulones presided, and a banquet was called *epulum*. See EPULUM, &c. Something like the lectisternium is occasionally observed among the Greeks, as to Casaubon.

LECTIUS, James, syndic of Geneva, a respectable and critic, of the 16th century. His principal work is his *Collection*, entitled *Poete Græci* in 2 vols folio. He died in 1612.

LECTORES, among the ancient Romans, servants in great men's houses, who read while their masters were at supper. They were called by the name of ANAGNOSTÆ.

LECTOURE, an ancient and strong town of France, in the dep. of Gers, and ci-devant prov. of Armagnac, with a castle; situated on a mountain,

at the foot of which runs the Gers. Lon. 0. 42. E. Lat. 43. 56. N.

\* LECTURE. *n. f.* [*lecture*, French.] 1. A discourse pronounced upon any subject.—Mark him, while Dametas reads his rustick *lecture* unto him, how to feed his beasts before noon. *Sidney*.—

When in musick we have spent an hour,

Your *lecture* shall have leisure for as much. *Shak.* —When letters from Cæsar were given to Rusticus, he refused to open them till the philosopher had done his *lectures*. *Taylor*.—Virtue is the solid good, which tutors should not only read *lectures* and talk of, but education should furnish the mind with, and fasten there. *Locke*. 2. The act or practice of reading; perusal.—In the *lecture* of holy scripture, their apprehensions are commonly confined unto the literal sense of the text. *Brown*. 3. A magisterial reprimand; a pedantick discourse.—

Numidia will be blest by Cato's *lectures* *Addis.*

(1.) \* To LECTURE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To instruct formally. 2. To instruct infolently and dogmatically.

(2.) \* To LECTURE. *v. n.* To read in publick; to instruct an audience by a formal explanation or discourse; as Wallis *lectured* on geometry.

(1.) \* LECTURER. *n. f.* [from *lecture*.] 1. An instructor; a teacher by way of lecture. 2. A preacher in a church hired by the parish to assist the rector or vicar.—If any minister refused to admit into his church a *lecturer* recommended by them, and there was not one orthodox or learned man recommended, he was presently required to attend upon the committee. *Clarendon*.

(2.) LECTURERS, (§ 1, *def. 2.*) in the church of England, are an order of preachers, distinct from the rector, vicar, and curate. They are chosen by the vestry, or chief inhabitants, supported by voluntary subscriptions and legacies, and usually preach on the Sunday afternoon. But the term is most generally applied to those who preach on any stated day. By 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 4. lecturers in churches, unlicensed, and not conforming to the liturgy, shall be disabled, and shall suffer 3 months imprisonment in the common gaol; and two justices, or the mayor in a town corporate, shall, upon certificate from the ordinary, commit them. Where there are lectures founded by the donations of pious persons, (such as that of lady Mayer's at St Pauls,) the lecturers are appointed by the founders, without any interposition of rectors, &c. only with the leave of the bishop. But the lecturer is not entitled to the pulpit, without the consent of the rector or vicar, who is possessed of the freehold of the church.

\* LECTURESHIP. *n. f.* [from *lecture*.] The office of a lecturer.—He got a *lectureship* in town of 60 l. a year, where he preached constantly in person. *Swift*.

LECTYTHIS, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the polyandria class of plants.

\* LED. *part. pret. of lead*.—Then shall they know that I am the Lord your God, which caused them to be *led* into captivity among the heathen. *Ezek. xxxix. 28.*—The leaders of the people caused them to err, and they that are *led* of them are destroyed. *Isa. ix. 16.*—As in vegetable



tables and animals, so in most other bodies, not propagated by seed, it is the colour we most fix on, and are most led by. *Locke.*

**LEDA**, in fabulous history, a daughter of king Thepius and Eurythemis, who married Tyndarus king of Sparta. Jupiter saw her bathing in the Eurotas, when she was some few days advanced in pregnancy, and struck with her beauty, resolved to deceive her. He persuaded Venus to change herself into an eagle, while he assumed the form of a swan, and after this metamorphosis Jupiter, as if fearful of the bird of prey, fled through the air into the arms of Leda, who willingly sheltered the trembling swan from the assaults of his superior enemy. Nine months after this adventure, Leda brought forth two eggs, from one of which sprung POLLUX and Helena, and from the other CASTOR and Clytemnestra. The two former were deemed the offspring of Jupiter, and the others claimed Tyndarus for their father. Some mythologists attribute this amour to Nemesis and not to Leda; and say that Leda was entrusted with the education of the children, which sprung from the eggs brought forth by Nemesis; others maintain that Leda received the name of NEMESIS after death. Homer and Hesiod make no mention of the metamorphosis of Jupiter into a swan, whence some think, that the fable was unknown to these two ancient poets, and invented after their time.

**LEDA-NEGUS**, a town of Abyssinia.

**LEDAT**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne; 3 miles NNW. of Villeneuve.

**LEDBURY**, a well built town of Herefordshire, inhabited mostly by clothiers, who carry on a pretty large trade. Lon. 2. 27. W. Lat. 52. 6. N.

**LEDDER**, a river of Wales, in Carnarvon.

**LEDENIZZE**, a populous village of Maritime Austria, in the prov. of Albania, and district of Rifano.

**LEDER**, a lake of Germany, in the Tirolse.

**LEDERSEE**, a river of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio, and late prov. of the Veronese, which runs into the lake Garda.

**LEDESMA**, an ancient and strong town of Spain, in Leon, seated on the Tome. Lon. 5. 25. W. Lat. 47. 2. N.

\* **LEDGE**. *n. f.* [*leggen*, Dutch, to lie.] 1. A row; layer; stratum.—The lowest ledge or row should be merely of stone, closely laid, without mortar: a general caution for all parts in building contiguous to board. *Wotton.* 2. A ridge rising above the rest; or projecting beyond the rest.—The four parallel sticks above five inches higher than the handkerchief, served as ledges on each side. *Gulliver.* 3. Any prominence, or rising part.—

Beneath a ledge of rocks his fleet he hides. *Dryd.*

**LEDGER**, *n. f.* an improper spelling of **LEGER**. See **BOOK-KEEPING**, and **LEGER**.

\* **LEDHORSE**. *n. f.* [*lead* and *horse*.] † A sumpter horse.

**LEDIGNAN**, a town of France in the dep. of Gard; 15 miles W. of Nismes.

† **LED HORSE** is not a proper compound. The two words are as distinct as any substantive and adjective, in our language. As *DR JOHNSON* produces no authority for the word, we are persuaded, there can be found in any good author.

**LEDNAIG**, a river of Perthshire, in the parish of Comrie, abounding with trouts.

**LEDOYRA**, a town of Spain, in Galicia.

**LEDUM**, **MARSH CISTUS**, or **WILD ROSEMARY**; a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the decandria class of plants; and the natural method ranking under the 18th order *Bicornes*. The calyx is quinquefid; the corolla pl and quinquepartite; the capsule quinquelocul and opening at the base. There is but 1 species v

**LEDUM PALUSTRE**, with very narrow leaves. It grows naturally upon bogs and mosses in Yorkshire, Cheshire, and Lancashire; rising with slender shrubby stalk about two feet high, dividing into many slender branches, garnished with narrow leaves, like those of heath. The flowers are produced in small clusters at the end of the branches, and are shaped like those of the strawberry tree, but spread wider at top. They are of a reddish colour, and are succeeded by icy vessels filled with small seeds, which ripen in autumn. This plant is with difficulty raised in garden; for as it naturally grows upon bogs, unless it has a similar soil it will not thrive. It may be procured from the place of its growth, and taken up with good roots, otherwise it will not live.

**LEDWICH**, a river of England, in Salop.

**LEDYARD**, John, a native of North America, famed for travelling through distant and little known regions, chiefly on foot. After living several years with different tribes of the American Indians, he made a voyage to the S. Sea, in the humble station of a corporal of marines, along with the celebrated Capt. Cook. On his return he became anxious to traverse the vast continent between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. With only 10 guineas, he crossed the British Channel to Ostend, and proceeded by Denmark and the Sound to Stockholm and Peterburg. On his arrival at this last metropolis, he was observed an extraordinary person; and though without stockings and shoes, was invited to dine with the Portuguese ambassador. Being now supplied with necessaries, he travelled Eastward 6000 miles through Siberia to Yakutzk, thence to Oczakow and back again to Yakutzk, where he was seized in the empress's name, by two Russians; who conveyed him on a sledge through the deserts of N. Tartary, and left him on the borders of Poland, telling him that if he returned to Russia, he would be hanged. In spite of poverty, he made his way to Konigsberg, where he obtained pecuniary assistance, which enabled him to reach London. Being introduced to the Society for promoting the discovery of the interior parts of Africa, they employed him; and he proceeded to Grand Cairo in Egypt, where he engaged with the conductor of a caravan, and was on the point of setting out for Sennaar, when he was seized with an indisposition, on the 17 Jan. 1789, which terminated in his death. He was a man of an amiable and philanthropic disposition; and, in his various peregrinations, suffered many hardships among the barbarous nations whom he visited; but, in the account he published of his Travel

a compliment to the female sex, that, most savage nations, where he was often by the men, he always met with kindness from the women.

Charles, a celebrated general in the American congress, was a native of the Aldgate Ward, and Sheriff of London: he served under Gen. Burgoyne, in the army at Portugal, which he afterwards the American service. Upon the commencement of the revolution, he was appointed general. (See AMERICA, § 14.) But in was taken prisoner by Col. Harcourt, pretence of being a deserter, was closely, and refused to be exchanged, though officers were offered for him: (See § 27.) It is even said he was to have for high treason, but the spirited conduct of Washington and the Congress, in retaliation, prevented that measure: the capture of Gen. Burgoyne and his army, secured his parole in New York, and he was exchanged, rejoined the American army. Gen. Lee's misfortunes were not a defeat and disorderly retreat at Monmouth the flower of the American troops in command, subjected him to a court martial, which he spent at his estate in Berkeley, Virginia, and during which he wrote letters and other papers on public affairs. These he sent by his aid de camp, a young Virginian who owed his rise to Philadelphia to be printed. But this ungrateful man betrayed his trust, and gave the papers to the governor, who on perusal, is interested to suppress the publication. In the spring of 1782, Gen. Lee, went to Philadelphia on this business, but soon after his arrival was seized with a fever of which he died. He was interred with military honours, and the Congress attended the funeral.

Nathaniel, an English dramatic writer, a clergyman, educated at Westminster College Cambridge, where he took the B. A. in 1668. He went thence to London, where he attempted to commence actor, but failing, he turned play writer. His entitled *Nero Emperor of Rome* appeared, and was well received. He continued to write a play every year, till Nov. 1684, when symptoms of insanity, he was confined to Bedlam, and was discharged, and died in April 1688, he was discharged, and died in two plays. He died in 1690, in consequence of a drunken frolic. Lee is allowed to have more power over the passions, but his language is more rant and bombast. His *Rival* *Theodosius*, however, are still often applauded. He wrote 11 tragedies in which contain a great portion of poetic energy. None ever felt the passion of love more than Lee could any one describe it with more power. Addison commends his genius highly, that none of our English poets had turned for tragedy, although his natural

fire and unbridled impetuosity hurried him beyond all bounds of probability, and sometimes quite out of nature. The truth is, this poet's imagination ran away with his reason. While he was confined, a coxcomb scribbler had the cruelty to jeer him with his misfortune, observing that it was easy to write like a madman:—No (said Lee), it is not easy to write like a madman; but it is very easy to write like a fool.”

(3.) \* LEE, *n. f.* [*lee*, French.] 1. Dregs; sediment; refuse: commonly *lees*.—  
My cloaths, my sex, exchanging'd for thee  
I'll mingle with the people's wretched *lee*. *Prior*.  
2. Sea term; [supposed by *Skinner* from *Peau*, Fr.] A *leeward* ship is one that is not fast by a wind, to make her way so good as the might. To lay a ship by the *lee*, is to bring her so that all her sails may lie against the masts and throw'd flat, and the wind to come right on her broadside, so that she will make little or no way. *Dier*.—If we, in the bay of Biscay, had had a port under our *lee*, that we might have kept our transporting ships with our men of war, we had taken the Indian fleet. *Raleigh*.—The Hollanders were before Dunkirk with the wind at NW. making a *lee* shore in all weathers. *Raleigh*.—Better do so than venture splitting and sinking on a *lee* shore. *King Charles*.—

The pilot of some small night-founder'd skiff,  
Moors by his side under the *lee*, while night  
Invests the sea. *Milton*.  
Batter'd by his *lee* they lay. *Dryden*.  
(4.) LEE (§ 3. *def.* 2.) is used by seamen to distinguish that part of the hemisphere to which the wind is directed, from the other part whence it arises; which last is called to *windward*. This expression is chiefly used when the wind crosses the line of a ship's course, so that all on that side of her is called to *windward*, and all on the opposite side to *leeward*. Hence, *Under the LEE*, implies farther to the leeward, or farther from that part of the horizon whence the wind blows. *Under the LEE of the shore*; *i. e.* at a short distance from the shore which lies to windward. This phrase is commonly understood to express the situation of a vessel anchored, or sailing under the weather shore, where there is always smoother water, and less danger of heavy seas, than at a great distance from it.

(5.) LEE, in geography, a river of England, in Cheshire, which runs into the Weaver, 2 miles N. of Nantwich.

(6.) LEE, a village in Kent, 6 miles SE. by E. of London. Dr HALLEY lies interred in it.

(7, 8.) LEE, a rivers of Ireland; 1. in Cork, running into Cork harbour: 2. in Kerry, running into Tralee Bay.

(9.) LEE, a county of Virginia, bounded on the N. by Russel, E. by Washington, S. by N. Carolina, and W. by Kentucky.

LEEA, a genus of the pentandria order, in the monœcia class of plants.

(1.) \* LEECH, *n. f.* [*lee*, Saxon.] 1. A physician; a professor of the art of healing: whence we still use *cosuleech*.—

A *leech*, the which had great insight  
In that disease of grieved conscience,  
And well could cure the same. *Spenser*.  
Her words prevail'd, and then the learned *leech*

A *leech*, the which had great insight  
In that disease of grieved conscience,  
And well could cure the same. *Spenser*.  
Her words prevail'd, and then the learned *leech*

A *leech*, the which had great insight  
In that disease of grieved conscience,  
And well could cure the same. *Spenser*.  
Her words prevail'd, and then the learned *leech*

A *leech*, the which had great insight  
In that disease of grieved conscience,  
And well could cure the same. *Spenser*.  
Her words prevail'd, and then the learned *leech*

A *leech*, the which had great insight  
In that disease of grieved conscience,  
And well could cure the same. *Spenser*.  
Her words prevail'd, and then the learned *leech*

A *leech*, the which had great insight  
In that disease of grieved conscience,  
And well could cure the same. *Spenser*.  
Her words prevail'd, and then the learned *leech*

A *leech*, the which had great insight  
In that disease of grieved conscience,  
And well could cure the same. *Spenser*.  
Her words prevail'd, and then the learned *leech*

His punning hand 'gan to his wound to lay.

*Fairy Queen.*

The learned leeches in despair depart,  
And shake their heads, desponding of their art.

*Dryden.*

Wife leeches will not vain receipts obtrude.

*Dryden.*

The hoary wrinkled leech has watch'd and  
toll'd,

And wearied out his painful skill in vain. *Rowe.*

*A skilful leech,*

They say, had wrought this blessed deed;

This leech Arbuthnot was yeapt. *Gay.*

2. A kind of small water serpent, which fastens on animals, and sucks the blood; it is used to draw blood where the lancet is less safe, whence perhaps the name.—I drew blood by leeches behind his ear. *Wise man.*

Sticking like leeches, till they burst with blood,  
Without remorse insatiably. *Roscommon.*

(1.) LEECH, § 1. *def.* 2. See *HIRUDO*.

(3.) LEECHES, in a ship, the borders or edges of a sail which are either sloping or perpendicular. The leeches of all sails whose tops and bottoms are parallel to the deck, or at right angles to the mast, are denominated from the ship's side, and the sail to which they belong; as the *starboard leech* of the main-sail, the *lee leech* of the fore-top-sail, &c. But the sails which are fixed obliquely on the masts have their leeches named from their situation with respect to the ship's length; as the *fore leech* of the mizen, the *after leech* of the jib or fore-stay sail, &c.

• *To LEECH, v. a.* [from the noun.] *To treat with medicament.*

• *LEECHCRAFT, n. s.* [*leech* and *craft*.] *The art of healing.*

We study speech, but others we persuade;

We leechcraft learn, but others cure with it.

*Davies.*

LEECH-LINES, certain ropes fastened to the middle of the leeches of the main-sail and fore-sail, and communicating with blocks on the opposite side of the top, whence they pass downwards to the deck, serving to truss up those sails to the yard as occasion requires. See *BRAILS*.

LEECHMAN, William, D. D. a late learned divine of the church of Scotland. He was born in the parish of Dolphington in Lanarkshire, in 1706, and appointed minister of Beith in 1736, in which charge he continued till 1744, when he was succeeded by the rev. Dr WOTHERSPOON, afterwards president of the college of Princetown, in New Jersey. Dr Leechman was appointed principal of the University of Glasgow; in which office he continued till 1784, when he died, aged 78. He published an *Essay on Prayer*, and several Sermons.

LEECH-ROPE, a name given to that part of the bolt-rope to which the border or skirt of a sail is sewed. In all sails whose opposite leeches are of the same length, it is terminated above the earing, and below the clew. See *BOLT-ROPE*, *CLUE*, and *EAK-RING*, § 2.

(1.) LEEDS, a town of Yorkshire, in the W. Riding, 196 miles from London, with a magnificent stone bridge over the Aire to the suburbs. It was incorporated by Charles I. with a chief alder-

man, nine burgeses, and 20 assistants Charles II. with a mayor, 12 aldermen assistants. It has been long famous for its manufacture, and is one of the largest flourishing towns in the county, yet had church till the reign of Charles I. By the land navigation, it has communication with rivers Mersey, Dee, Ribble, Ouse, Trent, Severn, Humber, Thames, Avon, &c. vigation, including its windings, extends 500 miles in the counties of Lincoln, No. Lancaster, Westmoreland, Chester, Staff- wick, Leicester, Oxford, Worcester, & a long street of shops, and a hall for cloth, built in 1758. The merchants of York, and Hull, ship them off at the Holland, Hamburg, and the north. Ringing the market-bell at 6 or 7 A. M. they come and match their patterns, when for the cloth with a whisper, because the standings are so near each other; and worth of cloth is sometimes sold in an hour.

At half an hour after 8 the bell rings as the clothiers make room for the line hardware-men, shoemakers, fruiterers, shambles are well stored with all sorts of flesh; and 500 horse-loads of apples counted in a day. There is a magnifice where they sell great quantities of wool and a guildhall, with a fine marble statue of Anne, erected about 1714. The river being gable by boats, they send other goods their cloth, to Wakefield, York, and furnish York with coals. There is a hospital the town, and K. Charles I. had an apartment, which is still called the *King's chamber* is another place called *Tower-hill*, on which was once a tower; and there was a castle. K. Stephen besieged in his march to Here. There is a workhouse of free-stone, where children are taught to mix wool; and a pauper used as an hospital for aged poor. There are 2 almshouses, and 2 charity schools of coat boys. In the ceiling of St Peter's parochial church, the delivery of the last is finely painted in fresco by Parment church is a venerable free-stone pile, built in cathedral fashion, and seems to have patch-work of several ages. The increasing in Leeds in 1786, was nearly 400 houses. Presbyterian meeting-house was erected called the *new chapel*, which is the flattest the oldest, of that denomination in the land; and in the town and suburbs are their meeting-houses. It is noted for medicinal springs; one of which, called *St.* an extreme cold one, and has been very in rheumatism, rickets, &c. Here is a fair for relief of honest and industrious poor, with 80 l. a-year, besides 10 l. a-year for to read prayers; also a free school. Leeds fairs, with markets on Tuesday and Saturday the market laws are strictly observed. 10 miles WSW. of York, and 192 N. by W. don. Lon. 1. 29. W. Lat. 53. 48. N.

(2.) LEEDS, a town of New Jersey, SE. of Burlington.

is, a town of Virginia, in Richmond the N. bank of the Rappahannock; 77 E. of Port Royal, and 70 NE. of Lon. 77. 3. W. Lat. 38. 10. N.

*adj.* [*lieve, levee*, Dut.] Kind; fond.—  
: all these were low and leafy,  
: their flocks to feed.

*Spenser.*  
:K. *n. f.* [*leac*, Saxon; *look*, Dutch; *porrum*, Latin.] A plant.—  
: thou Fluellen?—Yes.

in I'll knock his *leek* about his pate,  
David's day.

the Welsh, to Dutchmen butter's  
*Gay.*  
rid plants inwardly and outwardly in  
n the scurvy, water-cresses, horse-ra-  
, or *leek* pottage. *Floyer.*

in botany. See ALLIUM, N° 3.  
in geography, a town of Stafford-  
iles from London. It lies among the  
lands, has a manufacture of buttons,  
Wed. and 7 fairs. In the church yard,  
er of the chancel, are the remains  
ross, 10 feet high. Near it, in Blue-  
al mines, from which a salt stream  
tinges the stones and earth with a  
and, with the infusion of galls, turns  
ik. Here are rocks of a most surpris-  
without any turf or mould upon them.

iles N. of Stafford, and 144 NNW.  
Lon. 1. 55. W. Lat. 53. 16. N.

a river in Westmoreland.  
a village in Yorkshire.

*n. n. f.* the sudden and violent roll  
often takes to the leeward in a high  
rly when a large wave strikes her on  
side.

3, 2 towns in Yorksh. E. of Bedal.  
nthony VANDER, a celebrated paint-  
bruges, in 1664. He painted land-  
h he sketched very accurately from  
sea views, in storms and in calms.  
120.

Y, or LEE-STONE, a curious piece of  
anging to the family of Lee in Scot-  
ch an account was published in the  
or Dec. 1787; which favours very  
*marvellous*. It is a stone of a dark  
d triangular shape; its size is about  
ach side. It is set in a piece of silver  
though much defaced, by some let-  
tining, is supposed to be a shilling of  
: cros being very plain. It has been,  
in the Lee family since the year 1320  
at is, a little after the death of King  
, who having ordered his heart to be  
: Holy Land, one of the noble family  
as sent with it, and got the Crowned  
Arms from that circumstance. But  
so actually carried the heart was Si-  
of Lee, who from his carrying it  
a box, changed his name to Lock-  
t a heart within a lock for part of  
the motto *Corda ferata ferro*. This  
art, having taken prisoner a Saracen  
: came to ransom him; and on count-  
oney or jewels, this stone fell out of  
uch the hastily snatched up. Lock

hart, observing this, insisted to have it, else he  
would not give up his prisoner. Upon this the la-  
dy gave it him, and told him its many virtues, viz.  
that it cured all diseases in cattle, and the bite of  
a mad dog both in man and beast. It is used by  
dipping the stone in water, which is given to the  
diseased cattle to drink; and the person who has  
been bit, and the wound or part infected, is wash-  
ed with the water. No words are used in the dip-  
ping of the stone, nor any money allowed to be  
taken by the servants. Many cures are said to have  
been performed by it, and people used to come  
from all parts of Scotland, and even from York-  
shire, to get the water in which the stone is  
dipped to give their cattle, when ill of the mur-  
rain and black-leg. It is even said to have cured  
the plague at Newcastle during the 17th century.

Lady Baird of Sauchtonhall, near Edinburgh, ha-  
ving been bit by a mad dog, was come the length  
of an hydrophobia; upon which, having sent to  
beg the Lee-penny, she used it for some weeks,  
drinking and bathing in the water it was dipped  
in, and was quite recovered. This happened a-  
bout 100 years ago, and is said to have been very  
well attested. But it would require fresh attesta-  
tion, and the most incontestable proofs, to per-  
suade people the in present age to believe in  
such miracles, performed by a Saracenic talisman,

(1.) \* LEER, *n. f.* [*bleare*, Sax.] 1. An oblique  
view.—I spy entertainment in her; she gives the  
*leer* of invitation. *Shak.*—

Aside the devil turn'd  
For envy, yet with jealous *Leer* maligns  
Ey'd them askance. *Milton.*

2. A labour'd cast of countenance.—  
Damn with faint praise, with civil *leer*. *Pope.*  
With flameless visage, and perfidious *leer*.  
*Swift.*

(2.) LEER. See GLASS-MAKING, *SEB.* IV.  
(3.) LEER, in geography, a river of Germany,  
in E. Friesland, which runs into the Ems, near the  
town of Leer.

(4.) LEER, LEHR, or LIER, a town of E. Frie-  
land, on the above river, (N° 3.) 11 miles SE. of  
Emden, and 24 WNW. of Oldenburg.

\* To LEER, *v. n.* [from the noun.] 1. To look  
obliquely; to look archly.—I will *leer* upon him  
as he comes by; and do but mark the countenance  
he will give me. *Shak.*—I wonder whether you  
taste the pleasures of independency, or whether  
you do not sometimes *leer* upon the court. *Swift.*

2. To look with a forced countenance.—  
Bertran has been taught the arts of courts,  
To gild a face with smiles, and *leer* a man to ruin.  
*Dryden.*

LEERDAM, a town of the Batavian republic,  
in the dep. of Delft, and late prov. of S. Holland;  
11 miles S. of Utrecht, and 20 NE. of Dort. It  
was taken by the Spaniards in 1574. Lon. 5. 13.  
E. Lat. 51. 55. N.

LEEROT, a fort of Germany, in E. Friesland,  
at the mouth of the Leer, 10 miles from Emden.

LEERS, or LIERS, a town of the French re-  
public, in the dep. of the Ourte, and late bishop-  
ric of Liege, 4 miles N. of Liege. A battle was  
fought near it, Oct. 1, 1746; between the French,  
under Count Saxe, and the allies under Pr. Charles  
of Lorraine, in which the latter were defeated.

LEERSTRAND, a town of Norway.

(1.) \* LEES. *n. f.* [*lis*, French.] Druggs; keditment: it has seldom a singular.—The memory of king Richard was so strong, that it lay like *lees* at the bottom of men's hearts; and if the vessel was but stirred, it would come up. *Baron.*—

If they love *lees*, and leave the lusty wine,  
Envy them not their palates with the swine.

*B. Jonson.*

Those *lees* that trouble it, refine

The agitated soul of generous wine. *Dryden.*

(2.) LEES are the grossest and most ponderous parts of liquors, which, being separated by fermentation, fall to the bottom. The vinegar makers make a great trade of the lees of wine dried and made into cakes, after having squeezed out the remains of the liquor in presses.

LEESBURG, a town of Virginia, capital of Loudon county, 46 miles NW. of Alexandria, and 204 from Philadelphia. Lon. 77. 33. W. Lat. 39. 10. N.

\* To LEESE. *v. a.* [*lesen*, Dutch.] To lose; an old word.—

Then sell to thy profit both butter and cheefe,  
Who buyeth it sooner the more he shall *leese*.

*Tusser.*

No cause, nor client fat, will Chey'rill *leese*,  
But as they come on both sides he takes fees.

*B. Jonson.*

How in the port our fleet dear time did *leese*,  
Withering like prisoners, which lie put for fees.

*Donne.*

LEE-SIDE all that part of a ship or boat which lies between the mast and the side farthest from the direction of the wind; or otherwise, the half of a ship, which is pressed down towards the water by the effort of the sails, as separated from the other half by a line drawn through the middle of her length. That part of the ship which lies to windward of this line is accordingly called the *weather-side*. Thus admit a ship to be sailing southward, with the wind at east, then is her starboard or right side the *lee-side*; and the larboard, or left, the *weather-side*.

LEESNITZ, a town of Silesia, in Oppeln.

LEESTON, a river of Ireland, in Down.

LEE-STONE. See LEE-PENNY.

LEESTOWN, a town of Kentucky, on the river Kentucky; 20 miles W. of Lexington.

(1.) \* LEET. *n. f.* *Leete*, or *leta*, is otherwise called a law-day.—The word seemeth to have grown from the Saxon *lede*, which was a court of jurisdiction above the wapentake or hundred, comprehending three or four of them, otherwise called thirthing, and contained the third part of a province or shire: these jurisdictions, one and other, be now abolished, and swallowed up in the county court. *Cowell.*—

Who has a breast so pure,

But some uncleanly apprehensions

Keep *leets* and law-days, and in sessions sit

With meditations lawful?

*Shak.*

You would present her at the *leet*,

Because the bought stone jugs, and no seal'd  
quarts.

*Shak.*

(2.) A LEET, or COURT LEET (*leta visus francie*), is a court of record; ordained for punishing offences against the crown; and is said to be the

ancient court of the land. It inquires of all offences under high treason; but those who are to be punished with loss of life or member, are not inquirable and presentable here, and to be certified over to the justices of assize. Stat. 1. Edw. 1. And this court is called the view of frank pledge because the king is to be there certified by the view of the steward, how many people are within every leet, and have an account of their manners and government: and every person the age of 21 years, who hath remained there a year and a day, may be sworn to be faithful to the king, and the people to be kept in peace. A leet is incident to a hundred, as a court belongs to a manor: for by grant of a hundred, a passeth; and a hundred cannot be without a leet. The usual method of punishment in the leet, is by fine amercement; the former assessed by the steward, and the latter by the jury.

(3.) LEET, in geography, a river of Scotland in Berwicksh. which runs into the Tweed.

(4.) LEETS, in the Scottish borough police are those lists of names, made out, previous to the day of election, out of which, the magistrates, councillors, corporations, &c. annually elect a lord provost, bailies, deacons, and other officers, for the subsequent year. See DEACON § 2; and EDINBURGH, § 23.

(1, 2.) LEEUW, Gabriel and Peter, VAN, eminent Dutch painters, brothers. Gabriel born at Dort in 1643, and died in 1688. He painted animals with admirable spirit.

(3.) LEEUW, William DE, an eminent engraver of the 17th century. He was a native of Flanders, and the disciple of Sootman, in the manner of engraving, or rather etching, he excelled. His prints generally appear harsh at first; but become more agreeable upon examination. Several of them have great effect; particularly his Daniel in the lion's den, a large plate lengthwise, from Rubens. The first impressions of this plate are before the name of *Daukeris* added, and are extremely rare and dear.

LEEUE, or } a town of the French republic  
LEEUWEN, } in the dep. of the Dyle, and prov. of Austrian Brabant, seated on the Ge. It was taken by the French, in 1678, but restored to Spain by the peace of Nimeguen. In 1702 it was taken by the allies. It is 20 miles NW. Liege.

(1.) \* LEEWARD. *adj.* [*lee* and *ward*, Saxon.] Towards the wind. See LEE.—The classicists call long ships, the onerarie round, because their figure approaching towards circular: a figure, though proper for the stowage of goods, was not the fittest for sailing, because of the great quantity of *leeward way*, except when they were full before the wind. *Arbutnot.*—

A vessel with a double keel;

By change of wind to *leeward* side,

The pilot knew not how to guide.

(2.) To LEEWARD denotes towards that part of the horizon which lies under the lee, or which the wind bloweth. Thus, "We saw a fleet *under the lee*," and, "We saw a fleet *to leeward*," are synonymous.

(3.) LEEWARD ISLANDS, that part of the Car-

h, which extend from Dominica to Porto  
c CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

LEEWARD SHIP, is a vessel that falls  
reaward of her course, when sailing close-  
id consequently loses much ground.

ARDEN. See LEWARDEN.

LY. See NAVIGATION.

, a town of Turkey, in Natolia.

OGA, one of the FRIENDLY ISLANDS,  
after called HAPAEES; about 7 miles  
3 broad; very fertile, and highly culti-  
c fences running parallel from spacious  
ads. Capt. Cook sowed melons, pine  
dian corn, &c. on it. Lon. 149. 40. E.  
9. S.

EFT. participle preter. of *leave*.—

poor lady! desolate and left!  
ch a river as this been left to itself, to  
d its way out from the Alps, whatever  
it had made, it must have formed several  
Addis.—Were I left to myself, I would  
at instructing than diverting; but if we  
dful to the world, we must take it as we  
dijon.

EFT. *adj.* [*juste*, Dutch; *leous*, Latin.]  
; not right.—That there is also in men  
prepotency in the *rights*, we cannot with-  
y affirm, if we make observation in chil-  
o, permitted the freedom of both hands,  
nes confine it unto the *left*, and are not  
reat difficulty restrained from it. *Brown's*  
*vers*—

right to Pluto's golden palace guides,  
? to that unhappy region tends,  
to the depth of Tartarus descends. *Dryd.*  
gods of greater nations dwell around,  
n the right and left, the palace bound.  
*Dryden.*

A raven from a wither'd oak,  
their lodging was oblig'd to croak. *Dryd.*  
left foot naked when they march to fight,  
a bull's raw hide they sheathe the right.  
*Dryden.*

man who struggles in the fight,  
s left arm as well as right. *Prior.*

HANDED. *adj.* [*left* and *band*.] Using the  
rather than the right.—The limbs are used  
be right side, whereby custom helpeth;  
; that some are left-handed, which are  
se used the left hand most. *Bacon*.—For  
f the heart and liver on one side, where-  
come left-handed, it happeneth too rare-  
tenance an effect so common: for the  
e liver on the left side is very monstrous.  
*Fulg. Err.*

R-HANDEDNESS. *n. f.* [from *left-handed*.]  
use of the left hand.—

Although a squint left-handedness  
racious; yet we cannot want that hand.  
*Donne.*

EG. *n. f.* [*leg*, Danish; *leggur*, Islandick.]  
mb by which we walk; particularly that  
ween the knee and the foot.—  
y hake; and what their tardy feet deny'd,  
uty staff, their better leg, supply'd. *Dryd.*  
ping comfits, and ants eggs,  
most brought him off his legs. *Hudibras*.  
intrigues people cannot meet with, wher-

have nothing but legs to carry them. *Addison's G.*  
2. An act of obedience; a bow with the leg drawn  
back.—At court, he that cannot make a leg, put  
off his cap, kiss his hand, and say nothing, has  
neither leg, hands, lip, nor cap. *Shakspeare*.—

Their horses never give a blow,  
But when they make a leg, and bow. *Hudibras*.  
—If the boy should not put off his hat, nor make  
legs very gracefully, a dancing-master will cure  
that defect. *Locke*.—

He made his leg, and went away. *Swift*.

3. To stand on his own LEGS. To support himself.  
—Persons of their fortune and quality could well  
have stood upon their own legs, and needed not to  
lay in for countenance and support. *Collier of Fr.*

4. That by which any thing is supported on the  
ground: as, the leg of a table.

(2.) LEG, in anatomy, the whole lower extre-  
mity from the acetabula of the ossa innominata, is  
commonly divided into 3 parts, viz: the thigh, the  
leg properly so called, and the foot. See ANATO-  
MY, *Index*.

(1.) \* LEGACY. *n. f.* [*legatum*, Lat.] Legacy is  
a particular thing given by last will and testament.  
*Cowel*.—If there be no such thing apparent upon  
record, they do as if one should demand a legacy by  
force and virtue of some written testament, where-  
in there being no such thing specified, he pleadeth  
that there it must needs be. *Hooker*.—

Fetch the will hither, and we shall determine  
How to cut off some charge in legacies. *Shak.*  
—Good counsel is the best legacy a father can  
leave a child. *L'Esrange*.—

He deem'd 'em legacies of royal love. *Dryd.*  
When the heir of this vast treasure knew,  
How large a legacy was left to you,  
He wisely ty'd it to the crown again. *Dryden.*  
Leave to thy children tumult, strife, and war,  
Portions of toil, and legacies of care. *Prior.*

(2.) A LEGACY, in Scots law, is a donation, to  
be paid by the giver's executor after his death.  
See LAW, PART III; CHAP. II. *Scot. XXI*, § 3-5.

\* LEGAL. *adj.* [*legal*, Fr. *leges*, Lat.] 1. Done  
or conceived according to law.—Whatsoever was  
before Richard I. was before time of memory;  
and what is since is, in a legal sense, within the  
time of memory. *Hale's Hist. of the Common Law*.  
2. Lawful; not contrary to law. 3. According  
to the law of the old dispensation.—

His merits  
To save them, not their own, though legal,  
works. *Milton*.

\* LEGALITY. *n. f.* [*legalité*, Fr.] Lawfulness.

\* To LEGALIZE. *v. a.* [*legaliser*, Fr. from *legal*.]  
To authorize; to make lawful.—If any thing can  
legalize revenge, it should be injury from an ex-  
tremely obliged person. *South*.

\* LEGALLY. *adv.* [from *legal*.] Lawfully; ac-  
cording to law.—A prince may not, much less  
may inferior judges, deny justice, when it is legal-  
ly and competently demanded. *Taylor*.

\* LEGATARY. *n. f.* [*legataire*, Fr. from *lega-  
tum*, Lat.] 1. One who has a legacy left.—An ex-  
ecutor shall exhibit a true inventory of goods, ta-  
ken in the presence of fit persons, as creditors and  
legataries are, unto the ordinary. *Asylisse*. 2. Be-  
longing to a legate of the Roman see.—

All those you have done of late,

By your power *legatine* within this kingdom,  
Fall in the compass of a præsumure. *Shakef.*

(1.) \*LEGATE. *n. f.* [*legatus*, Latin; *legat*, Fr. *legato*, Ital.] 1. A deputy, an ambassador.—

The legates from th' Ætolian prince return:  
Sad news they bring. *Dryden.*

2. A kind of spiritual ambassador from the pope;  
a commissioner deputed by the pope for ecclesi-  
astical affairs.—

Look where the holy *legate* comes apace. *Shak.*  
—Upon the *legate's* summons, he submitted him-  
self to an examination, and appeared before him.  
*Atterbury.*

(2.) A LEGATE (§ 1. *def.* 2) is generally a car-  
dinal or bishop, whom the pope sends as his am-  
bassador to sovereign princes. See AMBASSADOR.  
There are 3 kinds of legates, viz. legates *a latere*,  
legates *de latere*, and legates by office, or *legati*  
*nati*: of these the most considerable are the legates  
*a latere*, the next are the legates *de latere*. See  
LATERE, § 1, and 2. Legates by office are those  
who have not any particular legation given them;  
but who, by virtue of their dignity and rank in  
the church, become legates: but the authority of  
these legates is much inferior to that of the leg-  
ates *a latere*. The power of a legate is some-  
times given without the title. Some of the nun-  
cios are invested with it. It was one of the eccle-  
siastical privileges of England from the Norman  
conquest, that no foreign legate should be obtrud-  
ed upon the English, unless the king should desire  
it upon some extraordinary emergency, as when  
a case was too difficult for the English prelates to  
determine.

(3.) LEGATE, COURT OF THE, was a court ob-  
tained by Cardinal Woolsey of Pope Leo X, in  
the 9th year of Henry VIII. wherein he, as legate  
of the pope, had power to prove wills, and dis-  
pense with offences against the spiritual laws, &c.  
It was but of short continuance.

\*LEGATEE. *n. f.* [from *legatum*, Latin.] One  
who has a legacy left him.—

If he chance to 'scape this dismal bout,  
The former *legatees* are blotted out. *Dryd. Juv.*

—My will is, that if any of the above-named *lega-  
tees* should die before me, that then the respective  
legacies shall revert to myself. *Swift.*

\*LEGATINE. *adj.* [from *legatus*.] Made by a  
legate.—When any one is absolved from excom-  
munication, it is provided by a *legatine* constitu-  
tion, that some one shall publish such absolution.  
*Ayliffe's Parergon.*

LEGATIO LIBERA, was a privilege frequent-  
ly obtained of the state, by senators of Rome, for  
going into any province or country, upon their  
own private business, in the quality of *legati* or  
envoys from the senate, that the dignity of this  
nominal office might secure them a good recep-  
tion, and have an influence on the management  
of their concerns. The cities and towns through  
which they passed were obliged to defray their  
expences. It was called *libera legatio*, because they  
might lay aside the office as soon as they pleased,  
and were not encumbered with any actual trust.

\*LEGATION. *n. f.* [*legatio*, Latin.] Deputa-  
tion; commission; embassy.—After a *legation* ad  
*res repetendas*, and a refusal, and a denunciation  
or *indiction* of a war, the war is no more confined

to the place of the quarrel, but is left at lar-  
*Bacon*.—In attiring, the duke had a fine unaf-  
fected politeness, and upon occasion costly, as in  
*legations*. *Wotton.*

\*LEGATOR. *n. f.* [from *lego*, Lat.] One who  
makes a will, and leaves legacies.—

A fair estate,  
Bequeath'd by some *legator's* last intent. *Dry.*

LEGATUS, a military officer among the an-  
cient Romans, who commanded as deputy of the  
commander in chief. The *legati*, at their first in-  
stitution, were not so much to command as to as-  
sist. They were generally chosen by the consul  
with the approbation of the senate. As to the  
number, we have no certain information, but this  
appears to have been at least one to every legion.  
In the absence of the consul or prætor, they  
had the *fasces*. Under the emperors there were  
two sorts of *legati*, *consulares*, and *prætorii*. The  
first commanded whole armies, as the emperor's  
lieutenant generals; and the latter had the com-  
mand of particular legions. The *legati* under  
prætors were in the provinces, judged inferior of-  
fices, and managed smaller concerns, remote  
things of great moment to the governor or præ-  
tor. This was their original office, though they  
were afterwards admitted to command in the army.

LEGE, a town of France, in the dep. of  
Lower Loire, 21 miles S. of Nantes.

(1.) \*LEGEND. *n. f.* [*legenda*, Latin.] 1.  
A chronicle or register of the lives of saints.—*Legends*  
being grown in a manner to be nothing else but  
heaps of frivolous and scandalous vanities, they  
have been even with disdain thrown out, the  
nests which bred them abhorring them. *Hobart.*  
There are in Rome two sets of antiquaries, the  
christian and the heathen; the former, through  
a fresher date, are so embroiled with fables and  
*legends*, that one receives but little satisfaction.  
*Addison.* 2. Any memorial or relation.—

And in this *legend* all that glorious deed  
Read, whilst you arm you. *Pope.*

3. An incredible unauthentic narrative.—  
Who can show the *legends*, that record  
More idle tales, or fables so absurd. *Blackmore.*

—It is the way of attaining to heaven, that many  
profane scorners so willingly let go the expecta-  
tion of it. It is not the articles of creed, but the  
duty to God and their neighbour, that is such a  
inconsistent incredible *legend*. *Bentley.* 4. Any in-  
scription; particularly on medals or coins.—Com-  
pare the beauty and comprehensiveness of *legends*  
on ancient coins. *Addison.*

(2.) The LEGEND (§ 1. *def.* 1.) was originally  
a book used in the old Romish churches, contain-  
ing the lessons to be read at divine service; hence  
the lives of the saints and martyrs came to be called  
*legends*, because chapters were read out of  
them at matins, and at the refectories of religious  
houses. Among these the golden legend, which  
is a collection of the lives of the saints, was re-  
ceived in the church with great applause, which  
it maintained for 200 years; though it is full of  
ridiculous and romantic stories, that the Roma-  
nists themselves are now ashamed of it.

(3.) LEGEND (§ 1. *def.* 4.) is also used to signify  
the words engraven about the margins, &c. on  
coins. Thus the legend of a French crown, be-  
fore

ution was *SVT NOMEN DOMINI*: Be that of a moulder, IN *HOC SIGNO* hose of the last emperors of Constantin *IESVS CHRISTVS BASILEVS BAS* XPS NIKA, i. e. *IESVS CHRISTVS* s also applied to the inscription of h serves to explain the figures or ded on them. In strictness, the le- rom the inscription; this last proper- ords placed on the reverse of a me- figures. It seems the ancients had in- nedals to serve both as images and the former for the common people, for persons of taste; the images to faces of princes; emblems their virt- actions. Every medal has proper- ls; that on the front, and that on The first generally serves only to dis- person by his name, titles, offices, is intended to express his noble fen- good deeds, and the advantages the aped by him. This, however, does erfully; for sometimes we find the between both sides, and sometimes d. In the medals of cities and pro- head is usually the genius of the east some deity adored there, the le- me of the city, province, or deity, zether; and the reverse is some sym- y, &c. frequently without a legend, th that of one of its magistrates. Le- ly commemorate the virtues of prin- our and consecrations, signal events, nents, deities, vows, privileges, &c. her in Latin or Greek, or a mixture

ARY, *adj.* fabulous; of the nature

ER. *n. f.* [from *leger*, Dutch. To in a place.] Any thing that lies in a *leger* ambassador; a resident; one s at the court which he is sent; a book that lies in the compting-house. gelo, having affairs to heav'n, a for his swift ambassador,

I shall be an everlasting *leger*. *Sbak.*  
I've giv'n him that,  
he take, shall quite unpeople her  
or her sweet. *Sbak.*

assadors or agents were sent to re- courts of princes, to observe their were made choice of as were vigi-

Thou art Heav'n's *leger* here,  
gainst the states of death and hell.

*Herbert.*  
w not his confidence from any of ended his person, who, in truth, lay covenant, and kept up the spirits of men by their intelligence. *Clarendon.*  
I *leger* bait, which is fixed, or made : certain place, when you shall be : call that a walking bait which you notion. *Walton.*

. See BOOK-KEEPING, *Index.*  
ERDEMAIN. *n. f.* [contracted per- *gereté de main*, French.] Slight of ; power of deceiving the eye by

nimble motion; trick; deception; knuck.—

He so light was at *legerdemain*,  
That what he touch'd came not to light again.  
*Hubbard.*

—Of all the tricks and *legerdemain* by which men impose upon their own souls, there is none so common as the plea of a good intention. *South.*

(2.) *LEGERDEMAIN* is a denomination given to certain deceptive performances, which either depend altogether on dexterity and address, or derive a small degree of aid from philosophical principles. The former class, tho' they may be styled *arts* in one sense of the word, yet depend so entirely upon *trick* and *deception*, and have so little connection with real *science*, that we are persuaded none of our readers will regret our omitting them. Of the latter class, sufficient specimens of entertaining experiments, illusions, &c. of a philosophical nature, will be found under the articles *ACOUSTICS*, *CATOPTICS*, *CHROMATICS*, *DIOPTRICS*, *ELECTRICITY*, *HYDROSTATICS*, *MAGNETISM*, *PYROTECHNICS*, &c.

\* *LEGERITY*. *n. f.* [*legereté*, Fr.] Lightness; nimbleness; quickness. A word not in use.—

The organs though defunct and dead before,  
Break up their drowsy grave, and newly move  
With casted slough and fresh *legerity*. *Sbak.*

*LEGER LINE*, in music, one added to the staff of five lines, when the ascending or descending notes run very high or low: there are sometimes many of these lines both above and below the staff, to the number of four or five.

(1.) *LEGERWOOD*, a parish of Scotland, in Berwicksh. between Lauderdale and the Lamem- moor hills, about 3 miles long by 2½ broad, containing about 8 square miles. The soil is various; the surface hilly; the climate cold, rainy and windy. Husbandry is much improved; oats, barley, pease, and turnips are the chief crops. The population, in 1795, was 422; the increase 24 since 1755. The number of sheep was 2,769; black cattle, 559; and swine 59: the annual produce in corn 2,500l. wool 400l. sheep 1300l. and oxen 1070l. in all 7,270l.

(2.) *LEGERWOOD*, a village in the above parish, 4 miles SE. of Lauder.

\* *LEGGED*. *adj.* [from *leg*.] Having legs; furnished with legs.

*LEGHENICH*. See *LECHNICH*.

*LEGHORN*, a handsome town of Etruria, an- ciently called *LIBURNUS PORTUS*, but by the modern Italians *LIVORNO*, about 30 miles SW. of Florence, in the territory of Pisa. It is a free port. The only defect of the harbour is its being too shallow for large ships. Cosmo I. had this town in exchange for Sarzana, from the Genoese; and it is the only sea-port in the kingdom. It was then but a mean unhealthy place; but is now well built, with broad, straight, parallel streets. It is also well fortified; but wants good water, which must be brought from Pisa, 14 miles distant. It is about 2 miles in circuit, and its general form is square. It has the convenience of canals, one of which is 5 miles long, and joining the Arno, merchandise and passengers are thus conveyed to Pisa. The port consisting of two havens, one for the *king's* galleys, and the other for merchant ships, is surrounded with a double mole.



mole, above  
fepid.

great  
the  
are  
of  
com  
t  
A  
l  
g  
chief

to  
En  
Th  
astical  
are m  
out to c  
light house fl

is the Lazare, where quaranti  
A source, from which the duke  
a great revenue, is the monopoly  
bacco, and salt; which will do  
up by the king of Etruria. The  
are not slaves, live in a particular qu  
of the Jews. The common prostitutes also have  
a particular place assigned them, out of which  
they must not be seen, without leave from the  
commissary. The number of the rowers in the  
galleys, whether Turkish slaves, criminals, or vo  
lunteers, are about 2000. In the area before the  
darseria or inner harbour, is a fine statue of Duke  
Ferdinand, with four Turkish slaves, in bronze,  
chained to the pedestal. The ducal palace is one  
of the finest structures in the town, and the ordi  
nary residence of the governor. Leghorn is the  
see of a bishop, and has a noble cathedral; but  
the other churches are not remarkable. It was  
taken possession of, by the French under Bona  
parte, on the 28 June 1796; but restored in 1797.  
It was again taken on the 24th March 1799, but  
retaken by the Austrians, on the 9th July 1799.  
Long. 11. o. E. Lat. 43. 50. N.

\* LEGIBLE. *n. f.* [*legibilis*, Lat.] 1. Such as  
may be read.—You observe some clergymen with  
their heads held down within an inch of the cush  
ion, to read what is hardly *legible*. *Swift*.  
2. Apparent; discoverable.—People's opinions  
of themselves are *legible* in their countenances.  
*Collier*.

\* LEGIBLY. *adv.* [from *legible*.] In such a  
manner as may be read.

(1.) LEGIO, a town of Galilee, from which  
Jerom determines the distances of the places in  
Galilee, so named from a Roman Legion there.  
It lay 15 miles W. of Nazareth, between mount  
Tabor and the Mediterranean; now thought to  
be LEGUNE.

(2.) LEGIO VII. GEMINA, a town of station of

id a half in length, and de  
the town, by a good citan  
an Catholics, Jews, Greeks,  
ans, and the English facto  
public exercise of their re  
stants must be satisfied  
he trade carried on is very  
it passes through the hands of  
only two piastra, or scudi,  
sley, great or small, imported  
e duties on all provisions and  
ght from the continent to the  
heavy. The population is about  
ne third of these are Jews, who  
cular quarter, and have a fine syna  
y  
ngrossed the coral manufac  
able trade, and possess the  
lace. The garrison consists  
walks on the ramparts are  
good  
there are  
he Barbary  
horn c  
sition  
Roman  
s here, who ar  
e corsairs of R  
rock in the  
where quaranti  
from which the duke  
the monopoly  
which will do  
The  
that  
also have  
out of which  
without leave from the  
The number of the rowers in the  
criminals, or vo  
In the area before the  
in bronze,  
The ducal palace is one  
and the ordi  
Leghorn is the  
but  
It was  
Bona  
1796; but restored in 1797.  
1799, but  
1799.

the 7th legion in the Astures; now called  
Lon. 6. 5. W. Lat. 43. o. N.

(1.) \* LEGION. *n. f.* [*legio*, Latin.] 1  
body of Roman soldiers, consisting of  
5000.—The most remarkable piece in Ant  
pillar is, the figure of Jupiter Pluvius send  
on the fainting army of Marcus Aurel  
thunderbolts on his enemies, which is the  
confirmation possible of the story of the  
*legion*. *Addison*. 2. A military force.—

She to foreign realms  
Sends forth her dreadful legions.  
3. Any great number.—  
Not in the legions  
Of horrid hell, can come a devil more d

—The partition between good and evil is  
down; and where one sin has entered, leg  
force their way through the same breach.

(2.) A LEGION, in Roman antiquity,  
ed of different numbers at different period  
word comes from *legere*, (Lat.) to choose;  
when the legions were raised, they chose  
their youth as were most proper to bear ar  
the time of Romulus the legion consisted  
foot and 300 horse; though, after the rece  
the Sabines, it was augmented to 4000. In  
with Hannibal, it was raised to 5000, aft  
sunk to 4000 or 4500; this was the nu  
the time of Polybius. The number of  
kept in pay, differed according to circum  
During the consular state four legions wen  
up every year, and divided betwixt the t  
suls; yet there were sometimes 16 or 18  
situation of affairs required. Augustus r  
ed a standing army of 23 or 25 legions;  
number in after times is seldom found.

ferent legions were named or rather nu  
from the order in which they were raise  
*prima, secunda, tertia, &c.* but as there r  
many *prima, secunda, tertia, &c.* they w  
named from the emperors, as *Augusta, Cl  
Galbiana, Flavia, Ulpia, Trajana, Antonina*  
from the provinces which had been conqu  
their means, as *Partbica, Scythica, Gallie  
bica, &c.* or from the deities under whose  
tion the commanders had particularly plac  
selves, as *Minervia, Apollinaris, &c.* or f  
region where they were quartered, as  
*Cyrenaica, Britannica, &c.* or from partic  
idents, as *adjuvix, martia, fulminatrix  
victrix, &c.* Each legion was divided  
cohort, each cohort into 10 companies, a  
company into two centuries. The chi  
mander of the legion was called LEGAT  
lieutenant. The standards born by the  
were various; at first, the standard was a  
honour of Romulus's nurse; afterwards  
which animal was usually sacrificed at the  
sion of a treaty, to indicate that war is  
ken with a view to peace; sometimes a r  
to remind the general of his duty of sec  
which the minotaur, and labyrinth were e  
a horse was also born, also a boar; and  
was the first who changed all these for t

LEGIONARII. See EXAUCTORATIC

\* LEGIONARY. *adj.* [from *legion*.]  
tion to a legion. 2. Containing a legion.

reat indefinite number.—Too many ap-  
nelves betwixt jest and earnest, make  
nary body of error. *Brown.*

EGISLATION. *n. f.* [from *legislator*,  
: act of giving laws.—Pythagoras joined  
o his philosophy, and, like others, pre-  
velations from God, to give a more  
sanction to the laws he prescribed.

ELATION. See LEGISLATOR, § 2.

SLATIVE. *adj.* [from *legislator*.] Giv-  
lawgiving.—

*legislative* frenzy they repent,  
; it should make no precedent. *Demb.*  
t is a kind lawgiver, and those qualities  
to the *legislative* style. *Dryden.*

EGISLATOR. *n. f.* [*legislator*, Latin; *le-*  
rench.] A lawgiver; one who makes  
y community.—It spoke like a *legisla-*  
ing spoke was a law. *South.*—  
s in animated marble frown,  
sitors seem to think in stone. *Pope.*

ISLATORS, ANCIENT. The most cele-  
est legislators were MOSES among  
Thefus, Draco, and SOLON among the  
; LYCURGUS among the Lacedemoni-  
as among the Romans, &c. See these

The first laws amongst the Athenians  
ve been those of Thefusus. After him  
CO, whose laws were said, for their se-  
have been written with blood; by them  
nce was punished with death; so that  
apple, and betraying one's country,  
ed as equal crimes. These were repeal-  
m, except such as related to murder:

distinction, Draco's laws were called  
Solon's *Nepoi*. The laws of Solon were  
measure suspended during the usurpa-  
istratus; but, after the expulsion of his  
re revived with some additions by Clis-  
ifter this, the form of government was  
ged, first by the 400, and afterwards by  
ants; but the ancient laws were again  
the Archonship of Euclides, and others  
at the instance of Diocles, Aristophon,  
of all, of Demetrius the Phalerean.  
hort sketch of the history of the Athe-  
SLATION, before that state submitted  
man yoke. (See ATTICA, § 5—16.)

laws were enacted by the suffrages of  
on particular exigencies; the decrees  
te continued to have the force of laws  
than a year. If a new law was to be  
to the assembly, it was necessary to  
pon a white tablet, and fix it up some  
e the meeting, left their judgment should  
by surprize. The laws were carefully  
ery year; and if any of them, from a  
circumstances, were found unsuitable or  
l, they were repealed: This was called

*one repeal*, because the suffrages were  
olding up of hands. The first laws a-  
Grecians were not written, but com-  
erse, that the people might with more  
sit them to memory. Solon penned his  
wooden tablets, called *axones*, and some  
with great probability assert, that they  
ten in the manner called *επιγραφαι*, from  
III. PART I.

left to right, and from right again to the left. See  
BOUSTROPHEDON. It was against the law for a-  
ny person to erase a decree, and certain persons  
called *Γραμματοι*, were appointed to prevent any  
corruption; whose business it was also to transcribe  
the old and enter the new ones. At Rome the peo-  
ple were in a great measure their own legislators;  
though Solon may be said, in some sense, to have  
been their legislator, as the decemviri, who were  
created for the making of laws, borrowed a great  
number from those of Solon. See LEX. With us  
the legislative power is lodged in the king, lords,  
and commons assembled in parliament. See LAW,  
and PARLIAMENT.

\* LEGISLATURE. *n. f.* [from *legislator*, Lat.]  
The power that makes laws.—Without the con-  
current consent of all three parts of the *legislature*,  
no law is or can be made. *Hale.*—In the notion  
of a *legislature* is implied a power to change, re-  
peal, and suspend laws in being, as well as to make  
new laws. *Addison.*—By the supreme magistrate  
is properly understood the legislative power; but  
the word magistrate seeming to denote a single  
person; and to express the executive power, it  
came to pass that the obedience due to the *legis-*  
*lature* was, for want of considering this easy dis-  
tinction, misapplied to the administration. *Saunders.*

\* LEGITIMACY. *n. f.* [from *legitimate*.] 1. Law-  
fulness of birth.—In respect of his *legitimacy*, it  
will be good. *Ayliffe.* 2. Genuineness; not spu-  
riousness.—The *legitimacy* or reality of these ma-  
rine bodies vindicated, I now require by what  
means they were hurried out of the ocean.  
*Woodward.*

\* LEGITIMATE. *adj.* [from *legitimus*, Latin; *legitime*, French.] Born in marriage; lawfully be-  
gotten.—

*Legitimate* Edgar, I must have your land.

*Shak.*  
—An adulterous person is tied to make provision  
for the children begotten in unlawful embraces,  
that they may do no injury to the *legitimate*, by  
receiving a portion. *Taylor.*

\* To LEGITIMATE. *v. a.* *legitimer*, [from the ad-  
jective. 1. To procure to any the rights of *legiti-*  
*mate* birth.—*Legitimate* him that was a bastard.  
*Ayliffe.* 2. To make lawful.—it would be im-  
possible for any enterprize to be lawful, if that  
which should *legitimate* it is subsequent to it, and  
can have no influence to make it good or bad.  
*Decay of Piety.*

\* LEGITIMATELY. *adv.* [from *legitimate*.]  
1. Lawfully: 2 Genuinely.—

By degrees he rose to Jove's imperial seat,  
Thus difficulties prove a soul *legitimately* great.

*Dryden.*

(1.) \* LEGITIMATION. *n. f.* [*legitimation*,  
French; from *legitimate*.] 1. Lawful birth.—

I have disclaimed my land;

*Legitimation*, name, and all is gone:  
Then, good my mother, let me know my fa-  
ther. *Shak.*

—From whence will arise many questions of *legi-*  
*mitation*, and what in nature is the difference be-  
twixt a wife and a concubine. *Locke.* 2. The act  
of investing with the privileges of lawful birth.

(2.) LEGITIMATION, § 1. *def.* 2. See BASTARD,  
and LAW, PART III. *Chaf.* II. *Sci.* XXII.

**LEGITIME**, in Scots law, that share of the moveable effects belonging to a husband and wife, which upon the husband's death falls to the children.

**LEGIUNCARA**, a town of Naples, in Bari.

**LEGLANTIER**, a town of France in the department of Oise, 9 miles N. of Clermont.

**LEGNAGO**, or } a district of the late pro-  
(1.) **LEGNANO**, } vince of Veronese, anciently called **LINIACUS**, now included in the Italian republic, and depart. of the Mincio. The soil is fertile, and it abounds in rice, maize, fruits, flax, hemp, silk, honey, &c.

(2.) **LEGNANO**, a fortified and populous town of the Italian republic, capital of the above territory, now in the department of the Mincio, and district of Verona. It has a great trade in grain: rice alone draws 50,000 ducats weekly. It has a canal erected in 1762, which runs between the Adige, the Tartaro, and the Po. It surrendered to the French, Sept. 13th 1796; but on the 26th March 1799, the French attacked the Austrians under Gen. Kray here, and were defeated, with the loss of 1500 killed, 22 officers and 500 men taken prisoners; besides 15 cannons, 15 loaded waggons, &c. It lies 22 miles ESE. of Verona, and 28 NNW. of Ferrara.

(3.) **LEGNANO, PORTO**, a town of the Italian republic, on the NE. side of the Adige, opposite to Legnano. "It was one of the boundaries between the Cisalpine republic and Maritime Austria mentioned in the treaty of Campo Formio; but is now, with the rest of the Veronese, by the treaty of Luneville, included in the Cisalpine or Italian republic, and department of the Mincio.

**LEGO**, or **LEGO NEGRO**, a town of Naples, in the province of Basilicata, 8 miles NW. of Lauria.

**LE GRAND**. See **GRAND**, N° 3—5.

**LEGS**, TO BE UPON ONE'S, a modern metaphor, much used respecting public speakers in parliament, &c. The late prof. J. H. Beattie, in his Dialogue in the Shades, between Swift, a bookseller and Mercury, repeatedly quoted, (see **BEATTIE**, § 2, &c.) introduces the god of eloquence, as thus instructing the Dean, to "make English of the newest and best pattern." "Instead of—He spoke an hour on various topicks, you must say—He was an hour upon his legs, and went into a variety of matter: an idiom which is now very common, and much admired; because it is figurative, verbose, and ambiguous; three qualities of style, which are now, among fashionable writers and speakers, indispensable."

**LEGUIGNO**, a town of the Italian republic, in Parma, 18 miles SSE. of Parma.

(1.) \* **LEGUME**. } *n. f.* [*legume*, French; *l-*

(1.) \* **LEGUMEN**. } *gumen*, Lat.] Seeds not reaped, but gathered by the hand; as beans: in general, all larger seeds; pulse.—Some *legumens*, as peas or beans, if newly gathered and distilled in a retort, will afford an acid spirit. *Boyle*.—In the spring fell great rains, upon which ensued a most destructive mildew upon the corn and *legumes*. *Arb: tl. not.*

(2.) **LEGUMEN**, or **POD**. See **BOTANY**.

(1.) \* **LEGUMINOUS**. *adj.* [*leguminus*, French; from *legumen*.] Belonging to pulse; consisting of

pulse.—The properest food of the vegetable is taken from the farinaceous seed barley, and wheat; or of some of the *leguminous*; as, peas, or beans. *Arbut*

(2.) **LEGUMINOUS**, is applied to whose fruit is a **LEGUMEN**, or pod. See *Glossary*.

**LEHEIGH**, a river of Pennsylvania rises in Northampton county, and after 75 miles, falls into the Delaware, at E.

**LEHNBERG**, a town of Germany, vince of Nassau Weilburg; 3 miles E burg.

**LEHR**. See **LEER**, N° 4.

**LEIBEN**, two towns of Germany, the one 10 miles NW. the other 14 SW

(1.) **LEIBNITZ**, Godfrey William eminent mathematician and philosopher Leipzig in Saxony in 1646. At the age studied mathematics at Leipzig and Je 1663, maintained a thesis *de Principiis ationis*. In 1664, he was admitted M. deavoured to reconcile Plato with A he afterwards did Aristotle with Des C the study of the law was his principal he was admitted LL.B. in 1665. In 1666 have taken the degree of doctor; but it, on pretence that he was too young reality because he had rejected the p Aristotle and the schoolmen. Upon th to Altorf, where he maintained a thesis *Perplexis*, with such applause, that he gree of LL. D. conferred on him. He settled to great advantage at Paris; by sion to the Roman Catholic religion, refuse all offers. In 1673, he went to where he became acquainted with Jo F. R. S. and Mr Oldenburg, the Sec 1676, he returned to England, and t into Holland, in order to proceed to where he proposed to settle. Upon there, he applied himself to enrich the brary with the best books of all kinds. dying in 1679, his successor Ernest Au tinued to patronize him, and employ write the history of the house of Brun travelled over Germany and Italy to terials. Frederick I. king of Prussia, t of Brandenburg, founded an acadern by his advice; and appointed him per sident, though he could not reside c Berlin. He projected an academy o kind at Dresden, but the execution of was prevented by the confusions in P likewise proposed a scheme of an ur guage. His writings had long before famous over all Europe. Besides th privy-counsellor of justice, which kin then elector of Hanover had given hi peror appointed him in 1711 aulic and Peter the Great made him privy c justice, with a pension of 1000 ducat dertook the establishment of an acad ences at Vienna; but the plague pre execution of it. However, the emj mark of his favour, settled a pension 2000 florins, and promised him anothe he would come and reside at Vienna,

reverted by death in 1716. His memory was so strong, that to fix any thing in it, he had only to rite it once; and he could even in his old age repeat Virgil exactly. He professed the Lutheran religion, but never went to church; and upon his death bed, his favourite servant, desiring him to send for a minister, he replied, *he had no need of one*. Foreigners for some time ascribed to him the invention of Fluxions, which had been previously discovered by Sir Isaac Newton. See FLUXIONS, § 2—6.

(2.) LEIBNITZ, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 15 miles S. of Graz.

LEIBNITZIAN PHILOSOPHY, or the philosophy of LEIBNITZ, is a system formed and published by its author in the 17th century, partly in imitation of the Cartesian, and partly in opposition to the Newtonian. The basis of Mr Leibnitz's philosophy was that of Des Cartes, though in some things he differed from him; for he retained the Cartesian subtle matter, with the universal plenitude and vortices; and represented the universe as a machine, that should proceed forever by the laws of mechanism, in the most perfect state, by an absolute inviolable necessity. After Sir Isaac Newton's philosophy was published in 1687, he printed an essay on the celestial motions, *Act. Erud.* 1689, where he admits of the circulation of ether with Des Cartes, and of gravity with Sir Isaac Newton; though he has not reconciled these principles, nor shown how gravity arose from the impulse of this ether, nor how to account for the planetary revolutions, and the laws of the planetary motions in their respective orbits. That which he calls the *harmonical vibration*, is the angular velocity of any one planet which decreases from the perihelium to the aphelium in the same proportion as its distance from the sun increases; but this law does not apply to the motions of the different planets considered together; because the velocities of the planets, at their mean distances, decrease in the same proportion as the square roots of the numbers expressing those distances. Besides, his system is defective, as it does not reconcile the circulation of ether with the free motions of the comets in all directions, or with the obliquity of the planes of the planetary orbits; nor resolve other objections to which the hypothesis of the plenum and vortices is liable. Soon after this period, the dispute commenced concerning the invention of the method of fluxions, which led Mr Leibnitz to take a very decided part in opposition to the philosophy of Sir Isaac Newton. From the wisdom and goodness of the Deity, and his principle of a sufficient reason, he concluded that *the universe was a perfect work, or the best that could possibly have been made*; and that other things, which were incommensurable and evil, were permitted as necessary consequences of what was best: the material system, considered as a perfect machine, can never fall into disorder, or require to be set right; and to suppose that God interposes in it, is to lessen the skill of the author, and the perfection of his work. He expressly charges an impious tendency on the philosophy of Sir Isaac Newton, because he asserts, that the fabric of the universe and course of nature could not continue for ever in

its present state, but would require, in process of time, to be re-established or renewed by the hand of its Former. The perfection of the universe, by reason of which it is capable of continuing for ever by mechanical laws in its present state, led Mr Leibnitz to distinguish between the quantity of motion and the force of bodies; and, whilst he owns, in opposition to Des Cartes, that the former varies, to maintain that the quantity of force is for ever the same in the universe, and to measure the forces of bodies by the squares of their velocities. This system also requires the utter exclusion of atoms, or of any perfectly hard and inflexible bodies. The advocates of it allege, that according to *the law of continuity*, (as they call a law of nature invented for the sake of the theory,) all changes in nature are produced by insensible and infinitely small degrees; so that no body can, in any case, pass from motion to rest, or from rest to motion, without passing through all possible intermediate degrees of motion: whence they conclude, that atoms or perfectly hard bodies are impossible: because if two of them should meet with equal motions, in contrary directions, they would necessarily stop at once, in violation of the law of continuity. Mr Leibnitz proposes two principles as the foundation of all our knowledge; the first, that it is impossible for a thing to be and not to be at the same time, which, he says, is the foundation of speculative truth: the other is, that nothing is without a sufficient reason why it should be so rather than otherwise; and by this principle, according to him, we make a transition from abstracted truths to natural philosophy. Hence he concludes, that the mind is naturally determined, in its volitions and elections, by the greatest apparent good, and that it is impossible to make a choice between things perfectly like, which he calls *indiscernables*; whence he infers, that two things perfectly like could not have been produced even by the Deity: and he rejects a vacuum, partly because the parts of it must be supposed perfectly like to each other. For the same reason he also rejects atoms, and all similar particles of matter, to each of which, though divisible *in infinitum*, he ascribes a MONAD (*Act. Lipsie*, 1698, p. 435.) or active kind of principle, endued, as he says, with perception and appetite. The essence of substance he places in action or activity, or, as he expresses it, in something that is between acting and the faculty of acting. He affirms absolute rest to be impossible, and holds motion, or a sort of *nisus*, to be essential to all material substances. Each monad he describes as representative of the whole universe from its point of sight; and after all, in one of his letters he tells us, that matter is not a substance, but a *substantivum* or *phenomene bicus fonde*. He frequently urges the comparison between the effects of opposite motives on the mind, and of weights placed in the scales of a balance, or of powers acting upon the same body with contrary directions. His learned antagonist, Dr Clarke, denies that there is a similitude between a balance moved by weights, and a mind acting upon the view of certain motives; because the one is entirely passive, and the other not only is

acted upon, but acts also. The mind, he owns, is purely passive in receiving the impression of the motive, which is only a perception, and is not to be confounded with the power of acting after, or in consequence of, that perception. The difference between a man and a machine does not consist only in sensation and intelligence, but in this power of acting also. The balance, for want of this power, cannot move at all when the weights are equal; but a free agent, he says, when there appear two perfectly alike reasonable ways of acting, has still within itself a power of choosing; and it may have strong and very good reasons not to forbear. The translator of *Masbeim's Beckesfalsical History observes*, that the progress of Arminianism has declined in Germany and several parts of Switzerland, in consequence of the influence of the Leibnitzian and Wolfian philosophy. Leibnitz and Wolf, by attacking that liberty of indifference, which is supposed to imply the power of acting not only without, but against, motives, struck, he says, at the very foundation of the Arminian system. He adds, that the greatest possible perfection of the universe, considered as the ultimate end of creating goodness, removes from the doctrine of predestination those arbitrary procedures and narrow views, with which the Calvinists are supposed to have loaded it, and gives it a new, a more pleasing, and a more philosophical aspect. As the Leibnitzians laid down this great axiomatic as the supreme object of God's universal dominion, and the hope to which all his dispensations are directed; so they concluded, that if this end was proposed, it must be accomplished. Hence the doctrine of necessity, to fulfil the purposes of a predestination founded in wisdom and goodness; a necessity, physical and mechanical, in the motions of material and inanimate things, but a necessity moral and spiritual in the voluntary determinations of intelligent beings, in consequence of propellent motives, which produce their effects with certainty, though these effects be contingent, and by no means the offspring of an absolute and essentially immutable fatality. These principles, says this writer, are applicable to the main doctrines of Calvinism; by them predestination is confirmed, though modified with respect to its reasons and its end; by them irresistible grace (irresistible in a moral sense) is maintained upon the hypothesis of propellent motives and a moral necessity; the perseverance of the saints is also explicable upon the same system, by a series of moral causes producing a series of moral effects.

(1.) LEICESTER, or LEICESTERSHIRE, an inland county of England, about 170 miles in circumference, and in form almost circular. It has Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire on the N. Rutlandshire and Lincolnshire on the E. Warwickshire on the W. from which it is parted by the Roman military way called *Watling Street*; and by Northamptonshire on the S. As it is far from the sea, and free from marshes, the air is sweet and wholesome. It is a champaign country, and fertile in corn and grass, being watered by several rivers, as the Soar, which passes through it and abounds in excellent salmon. &c. the Wreke, Trent, Eye, Senke, Auker, and Aven. These rivers being mostly navigable, greatly facilitate trade. In

some parts there is a great scarcity of fuel, both wood and coal; but in the hilly parts there is plenty of both, with great flocks of sheep. Besides wheat, barley, oats, and peas, it produces the best beans in England. They grow so tall and luxuriant in some places, particularly about Barton in the Beans, that they look like a forest; and the inhabitants eat them all the year round; which reason their neighbours call them *Bean bellies*. They have plenty of very good wool, which they make great quantities of stockings and send much of it unmanufactured into other parts of England. They trade greatly in corn and pulse; and likewise breed great numbers of coach and dray horses, most of the gentlemen being graziers; and several grass farms run from 500 l. to 2000 l. a-year. It is in the middle circuit, and diocese of Lincoln; and sends 4 members to parliament, two for the city, and two for the county.

(2.) LEICESTER, the capital of the above county, upon the LEAS, now called Soar. From its situation on the Fosse-way, and the many coins and antiquities discovered here, it seems to have been a place of some note in the time of the Romans. In the time of the Saxons it was a bishop's see, and afterwards so repaired and fortified by Edelfleda, that it became a most wealthy place, having 32 parish churches; but in Henry II's reign it was quite ruined, for joining in rebellion against him with Robert earl of Leicester. In the reign of Edward III. however, it recovered by the favour of his son Henry Plantagenet, D. and B. of Lancaster, who founded and endowed a collegiate church and hospital. It is a borough and corporation, governed by a mayor, recorder, steward, bailiff, 24 aldermen, 48 common council men, a solicitor, a town-clerk, and two chamberlains. It had its first charter from K. John. The freemen are exempted from paying toll in all the fairs and markets of England. It has 3 hospitals; the above mentioned is capable of supporting 100 people decently; another erected in the reign of Henry VIII. for 12 lazars; and a 3d for 6 widows. The castle was a prodigious large building; the hall and kitchen are still entire; the former is very spacious and lofty; and in the tower over one of the gate-ways is kept the magazine for the county militia. There was a famous monastery, called, from its situation in the meadows, *St Mary a Pratis* or *Prez*. In these meadows is now the course for the horse-races. Richard III. lies interred in St Margaret's church. The chief business of Leicester is the stocking trade; which produces about 60,000 l. a-year. In a parliament held here in the reign of Henry V. the first law for burning heretics was made, against the followers of Wickliffe, who was rector of Lutterworth in this county, and where his pulpit is said still to remain. The town suffered greatly in the civil wars, by two successive sieges. Its market on Saturday is one of the greatest in England for corn and cattle and it has 4 fairs. It lies 27 miles NNE. of Coventry, and 98 NNW. of London. Lon. L. 3. W. Lat. 52. 38. N.

(3.) LEICESTER, a populous town of Massachusetts, in Worcester county, with an academy, Baptist church, &c. 55 miles W. by S. of Boston.

**IDORFF**, a town of Austria.

**ACH**, a river of Silesia.

**S**, a town of Germany, in the Tirolese.

**GH**, Charles, M. D. and F. R. S. an physician and naturalist, born in Lancashire, published, 1. *An Account of the Nativity of Virginia*; and several other works out 1701.

**GH**, Sir Edward, a very learned Englishman at Shawell in Leicestershire, and called Magdalen Hall, Oxford. He was a member of the long parliament, and one of those to sit in the assembly of divines. He afterwards colonel of a regiment for the parliament in 1648 was among the Presbyterians turned out, and in December he was banished. From this period to the Restoration employed himself in writing a number of valuable books, which show proficiency, a knowledge of the languages, critical sagacity; and of which a list is in Anthony Wood. Sir Edward died at Allington, in Staffordshire, June 2, 1671.

**GH**, a sea port of Essex, on a creek in the Thames, opposite Canvey Island, 10 miles SSE. of Chelmsford, and 24 E. of London. Lon.  $0. 42. E.$  Lat.  $51. 31. N.$

**GH**, a town of Lancashire, 7 miles N. of Leighton, and 164 NW. of London. Lon. Lat.  $53. 30. N.$

**LEIGH** is also the name of 16 villages; one in each, in Cheshire, Gloucester, Kent, Somerset, Stafford, Surry, and Worcester; and 2 each in Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and Wilts.

**LIN**, a borough of Ireland, in the county of Leinster; about 43 miles from Dubbock river Barrow. At the E. end of the town a famous well covered with great ash dedicated to St Lascarian. This place formerly a city, though now only a village, the cathedral has been kept in good repair. The bishopric, founded in 632, but joined to the see of Armagh in 1600. Gurmund, a Danish prince died in this church. This cathedral was burnt, and rebuilt, A. D. 1232; since which time it is used as a parish church.

**LIN-BRIDGE**, a post town, 2 miles from the village. It was destroyed by the Irish in 1690. Here are the remains of a castle and an abbey. It has fairs in May, September, and

**LINTON**, Alexander, a presbyterian divine, died at Edinburgh in 1585. descended of the house of Ulan, or Ulysses-haven, and remarkable for his sufferings under the tyranny of Abp. James VI. publishing some pieces against episcopacy: being the measures of K. Charles I. rather virulently, he was tried for sedition, condemned to be publicly whipped, to have his ears cut off, and his nose slit; which barbarous sentence was accordingly executed. As compensation for his sufferings, the parliament in 1640, appointed him keeper of Lambeth, which they had converted into a State Prison in 1644.

(2.) **LEIGHTON**, Robert, D. D. Abp. of Glasgow, the son of the preceding presbyterian martyr, was also born at Edinburgh.

During Cromwell's usurpation, he was minister of a church near Edinburgh, and distinguished himself by his charity, and his aversion to religious and political disputes. The ministers were then called over yearly in the synod; and were commonly asked, Whether they had preached to the times? "For God's sake (answered Leighton), when all my brethren preach to the times, suffer me to preach about eternity." His moderation, however, giving offence, he retired to a life of privacy. But soon after, he was called by the unanimous voice of the magistrates, to preside over the college of Edinburgh; where, during ten years, he displayed all the talents of a prudent, wise, and learned governor. In 1662, when the ill-judged affair of introducing episcopacy into Scotland was resolved on, Leighton was consecrated bishop of Dunblane, and immediately gave an instance of his moderation: for when Sharpe and the other bishops proposed to enter Edinburgh in a pompous manner, Leighton remonstrated against it; but finding that what he said he had no weight, he left them, and went to Edinburgh alone. Leighton, in his own diocese, set such a remarkable example of moderation, that he was revered even by the most rigid Presbyterians. He went about preaching without any pomp; gave liberally to the poor; and removed none of the ministers, however exceptionable he might think their political principles. But finding that none of the other bishops could be induced to join in his moderate plan, he went to the king, and resigned his bishopric, telling him he would not have a hand in such oppressive measures. Soon after, the king and council, partly induced by this good bishop's remonstrances, resolved to carry on the cause of episcopacy in Scotland on a different plan; and with this view, Leighton was persuaded, in 1669, to accept of the archbishopric of Glasgow, on which he made one effort more; but finding it not in his power to stem the violence of the times, he resigned his archbishopric, in 1673, and retired into Sussex, where he devoted himself to acts of piety. He died at London, in 1684. He was of a most amiable disposition; strict in his life, polite, cheerful, engaging in his manners, and profoundly learned. He wrote a *Commentary on St Peter*; besides many sermons and useful tracts, which are greatly esteemed. He bequeathed his library to the church and clergy of DUNBLANE; and sunk about 840 l. for burials and other charitable purposes, in the colleges of Edinburgh and Glasgow, and parish of Dunblane.

(3.) **LEIGHTON**, or **LEIGHTON-BUZZARD**, a large town of Bedfordshire, on the Ouzel; with a market on Tuesday;  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles WNW. of Dunstable, and 41 NW. of London. Lon.  $0. 35. W.$  Lat.  $51. 55. N.$

(4.) **LEIGHTON**, a town of Huntingdonshire, 5 miles N. of Kinbolton.

**LEIGNE**, a river of France, which runs into the Seine; S. of Bar.

**LEIMBACH**, a town of Germany, in Upper Saxony; one mile NE. of Mansfeld.

**LEIN**, a river of Germany, in Suabia.

**LEINA**, a river of Brunswick-Lunenbug, which rises on the borders of Hesse-Cassel, and passing by Göttingen, Calenberg, and Hanover, falls into the Aller.

(1.) **LEININGEN**, or **LINANGE**, a late county of Germany, in the palatinate of the Rhine, now included in the French republic, and dep. of Mont Tonnerre. It is fertile in corn, wine, and fruits.

(2.) **LEININGEN**, **NEW**, a town of the French republic, with a fort; late capital of the above county; 11 miles SW. of Worms, and 30 S. of Mentz. Lon. 8. 22. E. Lat. 49. 30. N.

(3.) **LEININGEN**, **OLD**, a town and castle, 3 miles SW. of New Leiningen.

**LEINSTER**, the eastern province of Ireland, bounded by Ulster on the N.; St George's, or the Irish Channel, on the E. and S.; and by the provinces of Connaught and Munster on the W. The capital of this province and of the kingdom is Dublin. It contains 12 counties, viz. Carlow, Dublin, Kildare, Kilkenny, King's-county, Longford, Louth, Meath, Queen's-county, West Meath, Wexford, and Wicklow. It is the most level, fertile, and best cultivated province in the kingdom; containing 2,642,958 Irish plantation acres, 858 parishes, 99 baronies, and 53 boroughs. It is about 124 miles long, and 74 broad, and extends from 51° 45' to 55° 45' Lat. N. Mr Cruttwell makes it only 104 miles long, 55 broad, and 360 in circuit. The chief rivers are the Barrow, Boyne, and Liffey. Dermot king of Leinster, marrying his daughter Eva to Strongbow earl of Pembroke, made him his heir; whereby the Earl inherited Leinster, and was afterwards infeoffed of it by Henry II. He died in 1176, and left an only daughter Isabel, espoused to William Marshal earl of Pembroke; by her he had five sons, who succeeded to his great estates in Leinster. In the early ages, this district was almost one continued forest.

**LEIPHEIM**, a town of Suabia, in Ulm, on the S. bank of the Danube; 11 miles NE. of Ulm, and 22 WNW. of Augsburg. It was pillaged in 1634.

**LEIPPE**, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

(1.) **LEIPSICK**, or } a large, strong, and popu-

(1.) **LEIPZIG**, } lous town of Misnia, with a castle, and a famous university. It is neat, and regularly built, and the streets are lighted in the night; it carries on a great trade, and has a right to stop and sell the merchandize designed to pass through it, and the country for 75 miles round has the same privilege. There are three great fairs every year; at the new year, Easter and Michaelmas, which last 15 days each. There are six handsome colleges belonging to the university, besides the private colleges; and the exchange is a fine structure. The town was taken by the king of Prussia, but given up by the peace in 1763. It is seated in a plain between the Saale and Muld, near the confluence of the Playffe, the Elster, and the Barde. Lon. 12. 55. E. Lat. 51. 19. N.

(2.) **LEIPZIG**, or **LEIPSICK**, a circle of Upper Saxony, comprehending the above city, (N. 1.) 32 towns, and above 1000 villages.

(1.) **LEIRE**, a town in Leicestershire, at the head of the Soar.

(2.) **LEIRE**, the ancient name of the SOAR.

**LEISDON**, a town of Kent, in Shep

**LEISEBACH**, a river of Silesia.

**LEISELSHEIM**, a town of the French lic, in the dep. of Mont Tonnerre, and lat ric of Worms; 3 miles WNW. of Wor

**LEISTENAU**, a town of Prussia, in O

\* **LEISUREABLE**. *adj.* [from *leisure*.] leisure; not hurried; enjoying leisure. tion inexcusable in his works of *leisural* the examination being as ready as the *Brown*.

\* **LEISUREABLY**. *adv.* [from *leisure* leisure; without tumult or hurry.—Let God, that when the hour of our rest is c patterns of our dissolution may be Jacob Joshua, and David, who *leisureably* end lives in peace, prayed for the mercies upon their posterity. *Hooker*.

\* **LEISURE**. *n. f.* [*loisir*, French.] 1. from business or hurry; a vacancy of mi er to spend time according to choice.— man fell very sick, and a friend said to t for a physician; but the sick man answe no matter; for if I die, I will die at *leisu* —Where ambition and avarice have ma trance, the desire of *leisure* is much mo than of business and care. *Temple*.—Y your quiet in a garden, where you have the *leisure* of thinking, but the pleasur of nothing which can discompose your m

*den*. 2. Convenience of time.—

We'll make our *leisures* to attend o

They summon'd up their meiny, f horse;

Commanded me to follow, and atten The *leisure* of their answer.

He sigh'd, and had no *leisure* more to —I shall leave with him that rebuke, to dered at his *leisure*. *Locke*. 3. Want Not used.—

More than I have said, loving cou The *leisure* and enforcement of the tir Forbids to dwell on.

(1.) \* **LEISURELY**. *adj.* [from *leisi* hafty; deliberate; done without hurry.

He was the wretch'dest thing wh young,

So long a growing, and so *leisurely*, That, if the rule were true, he should ous.

—The earl of Warwick, with a handfu fired Leith and Edinburgh, and returne *surely* march. *Hayw*.—The bridge is hu upon a *leisurely* survey of it, I found th sisted of threescore and ten intire arches

(2.) \* **LEISURELY**. *adv.* [from *leisure* a hurry; slowly; deliberately.—

It with caution *leisurely* we past, Their numerous gros might charge one.

—We descended very *leisurely*, my fri careful to count the steps. *Addison*.

**LEISZNIG**, a town of Upper Saxor circle of Leipzig on the Mulda. It has 2 and manufactures of cloth, lace, stock

**LEITA**, **LEYTA**, or **LEYTHA** a river many, which rises in Austria, joins the

Raab in Hungary; after which both fall into the Danube, 9 miles W. of Comorn.

(1.) LEITH, anciently called *Inverleith*, the port of Edinburgh, is seated on the banks of the Forth, about two miles from the capital. It is built on both sides of the harbour; by which it is divided into two parts, called NORTH and SOUTH LEITH. The communication between these was by a stone bridge of three arches, founded by Robert Ballentine abbot of Holyrood-house in 1493, and lately pulled down.—The harbour is formed by the conflux of the river, called the *Water of Leith*, with the Frith of Forth. The depth of water, at neap tides, is about 9 feet; but in high spring tides, it is about 16 feet. In the beginning of the 18th century, the town council of Edinburgh improved the harbour at an enormous expence, by extending a stone pier a considerable way into the sea. In 1777, they erected an additional stone quay towards its W. side. Upwards of 100 ships could then lie conveniently in this port; but it can now admit of a much greater number, in consequence of having lately undergone great improvements. The old bridge has been pulled down, and an elegant draw-bridge erected a little to the E. of the former site. It is accommodated with wet and dry docks, and other conveniences for ship-building, which is there carried on to some extent, as vessels come to Leith to be repaired from all parts of Scotland. The road of Leith affords good anchorage for ships of the greatest size. The harbour was granted to the community of Edinburgh by king Robert I. in 1326; but the banks of the harbour belonged to Logan of Restalrig, a turbulent baron, from whom the citizens purchased the bank between the houses and the river, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) for the purpose of erecting wharfs, shops and granaries. As the situation of Leith, however, is much more convenient for trade than that of Edinburgh, the inhabitants of the metropolis fell upon various methods to restrain the trade of Leith. They first purchased from Logan of Restalrig, an exclusive privilege of carrying on every species of traffic in the town of Leith, and of keeping warehouses and inns for the entertainment of strangers in that place; and in 1483, the town council prohibited, under severe penalties, the citizens of Edinburgh from taking into partnership any inhabitant of Leith. To free themselves from this oppression, the people of Leith purchased the superiority of their town from Logan, for 3000l. Scots, and it was erected into a burgh of barony by the queen regent, Mary of Lorraine, who promised to erect it into a royal borough. She died, however, before this was accomplished; and upon her death, Francis and Mary, in violation of the private rights of the people of Leith, re-sold the superiority to the town of Edinburgh, to whom it has since been confirmed by grants from successive sovereigns. On the breaking out of the disturbances at the Reformation, the queen regent caused the whole town to be fortified, that the French troops might have a more ready inlet into the kingdom. It was accordingly surrounded with a wall, having eight bastions: but this wall went no farther than the street now called *Bernard's Nook*, because at that time the sea came up the length of

that street. All that space, therefore, on which the row of houses nearest the harbour of Leith now stands, has been gained since that time from the sea. In the time of Charles I. a fortification was erected at Leith by the Covenanters. Cromwell built a strong fort at the place called the *Citadel* in North Leith; but it was pulled down on the restoration of Charles II. by order of government. The gate and portcullices still, however, remain. A palace also formerly stood here, situated at the NE. boundary of the former town, where the weigh-house now stands. It was destroyed by the English in the time of Henry VIII. The remains of this building, called the *king's work*, with a garden, and a piece of waste land that surrounded it, was erected into a barony by James VI. and bestowed upon Bernard Lindsay of Lochiell, his groom of the chamber; who repaired, and appropriated it to the recreations of the court; but it soon fell from its dignity. The tennis court was converted into a weigh-house; and the street which bounds it is still called *Bernard's Nook*. As Leith lay within the parish of Restalrig, the church of Restalrig was the place of worship for the inhabitants of Leith; but in 1650 the Assembly ordered that church to be pulled down as a monument of idolatry, so that Leith wanted a parish church for upwards of 50 years. During that period they resorted for worship to a large and beautiful chapel, dedicated to St Mary, now called *South Leith church*; and in 1609 this chapel was by authority of parliament declared to be the parish church of the district; so that Restalrig is now in the parish of South Leith, as the latter was formerly in that of Restalrig. (See N<sup>o</sup> 7.) In 1772 a Chapel of Ease was erected by the inhabitants. There are also an episcopal and several other dissenting congregations in Leith. North Leith church is situated at the site of the N. end of the old bridge. A very great trade is carried on between Leith and many foreign ports. In 1784, the trade in flax, hemp, iron, athes, tar, wood, tea, spirits, groceries, wine, hops, soap, candles, and ropes, amounted to 495,000l.; besides 190,000 bolls of grain imported, at 161,000l. For the particulars, see *Sir J. Simlair's Stat. Acc.* Vol. VI. p. 569, 570. In general, the imports from France, Spain, and Portugal, are wines, brandy, and fruits; from the West Indies and America, rice, indigo, rum, sugar, and logwood. But the principal foreign trade of Leith is by the eastern seas, for the navigation of which it is most happily situated. To Germany, Holland, and the Baltic, it exports lead, glass ware, linen and woollen stuffs, and a variety of other goods; and imports immense quantities of timber, oak-bark, hides, linen rags, pearl athes, flax, hemp, tar, and many other articles. In 1784, there were 1774 ships cleared at the custom-house of Leith. And from Nov. 13th 1786 to Nov. 13th 1787, there arrived in Leith harbour, 1708 vessels, carrying 105,223 tons. (*Vide ibid.*) The Baltic trade, however, is at present rather on the decline; the great extent to which it was carried on for some years past having been chiefly owing to the vast increase of new buildings in Edinburgh and its environs. The coasting trade is at present the principal branch that employs the shipping at Leith, including

the



other ports on the Forth, 4th of the tonnage of the Nov. 11th 1786, and Nov. 11th 1787, in from ports in the Frith with coals and other goods, The ships employed in in general of a large size, and furnished with excellent passengers. They make 4 voyages up and down in the year. Ships in this port, however, are those of the Great Britain and fishery. The demand for cordage, is very considerable. There were lately three different companies carried on these manufactures, by private persons who dealt less consistently. The first of those companies was established at the beginning of the 18th century; and made, it is said, larger dividends and profits than any trading or manufacturing company in the nation. There are also many private manufacturers. In the middle of the 17th century, a manufactory of green glass was established at the citadel of Leith. Chopin bottles were sold at 4s. 6d. per dozen, and other bottles in proportion. Soon afterwards this article was manufactured also in North Leith; and, in 1707, chopin bottles were sold at 2s. 6d. per dozen, and others in proportion. That house being burnt down in 1746, a new house was built the following year on South Leith sands, and an additional one in 1764. The annual expence of both houses was between 8000l. and 9000l. Another was afterwards added, and three more have lately been erected. They manufacture not only bottles, but also window glass and crystal ware of all sorts. Manufactures of soft soap and candles were erected by St Clair of Rossin and Tome merchants; the former in 1750, and the latter in 1770: a manufactory of hard soap was also established in 1770. There are also a considerable manufactory for making cards with which wool is combed, a great carpet factory, and several iron forges. The inhabitants of Leith were divided into 4 classes, erected into corporations by the queen dowager, Mary of Lorraine; viz. mariners, maltmen, trades, and traffickers. The first consisted of ship-masters and sailors; the 2d of malt-makers and brewers; the 3d of coopers, bakers, smiths, wrights, &c.; and the 4th of merchants and shop-keepers. Of these the mariners are the most considerable. They obtained from Mary of Lorraine a gift, afterwards ratified by William and Mary, of one penny duty on the ton of goods in the harbour of Leith, for the support of their poor. This duty, which some years ago did not amount to 40l. a-year, now rises from 70l. to 120l. whereby this corporation is enabled to pay from 600l. to 700l. a-year to their poor. Opposite to South Leith church there is a large house belonging to them, called the *Trinity-hospital*, wherein some of their poor used formerly to be maintained, but now they are all out-pensioners. This hospital contains a large handsome hall for the meetings of the corporation. Near the school-house there is another hospital called *King James's hospital*; which bears upon its front his cypher and arms. Here some poor women belonging to the other

corporations are maintained. As Leith well supplied with water, and the streets were either properly cleaned nor lighted, an act was passed in 1771, appointing certain magistrates Edinburgh, lords of session, inhabitants of Edinburgh and Leith, and members of the corporations of Leith, *commissioners of the police*, empowering them to levy a sum not exceeding in the pound upon the valued rent of Leith great change which has since taken place in the streets of Leith shows the good effect of it and that it has both been judiciously provided and attentively executed. Leith is computed to contain 13,000 inhabitants. (See § 5 and 7 government of the town is vested in a magistrate from Edinburgh, having admiral's jurisdiction and in two residing bailies elected by the council of Edinburgh. See EDINBURGH, § 2.)

(2.) LEITH, OR THE WATER OF LEITH, a town in Scotland, in Mid Lothian, which rises at *Head*, in the W. extremity of the parish of *Frith*, from 3 large springs; and after receiving numerous additions from various rivulets, in a 14 miles, falls into the Frith of Forth at *Leith*. In this short space it drives about 80 mills of several kinds, the rent of some of which, in the immediate vicinity of Edinburgh, is upwards of 20l. Ster. per foot of water fall.

(3.) LEITH, OF LEITH HILL, a hill in Surrey affords a fine prospect of the surrounding country.

(4.) LEITH, a village of York, near Wharfedale.

(5.) LEITH, NORTH, a parish of Scotland in Mid Lothian, originally belonging to that of *Leith*, from which it was disjoined in 1711 when it contained only the village of *North Leith* and the *Coal hill*; but it was enlarged in 1712 by the addition of the baronies of *Newhavill* and *House-field*. It extends about a mile in length, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a mile in breadth, along the coast of the Frith of Forth; and comprehends about 170 acres, of which 20 are in kitchen garden. The soil is light and sandy, but is all improved and produces wheat, barley, clover and pease. The population, in 1791 was 642 families, or 2568 souls; Increase 209 since 1755. The patronage of this parish is vested in the heads of families to their honour they have been unanimous in their choice of ministers for above 100 years.

(6.) LEITH, NORTH, a village in the parish of *Leith*, consisting of the NW. part of the town of *Leith*. See N° 1.

(7.) LEITH, SOUTH, a parish of Mid Lothian comprehending the whole town of *Leith*, as described, (See N° 1.) except the village of *Leith*, (N° 6.) together with the villages of *Talrig*, *Abbey-Hill*, and *Calton* of *Edinburgh* (See *CALTON*, N° 1. and 3.) The total population, in 1791, was 2,893 families, or 11,432 souls: Increase since 1755, no less than 4,232.

(8.) LEITH, WATER OF. See N° 2.

(9.) LEITH, WATER OF, a village of Mid Lothian, about a mile W. of Edinburgh, forming the *Leith*, in a very romantic situation.

LEITHEN, a river of Scotland, in the county of Tweeddale, which falls into the Tweed in the middle of the parish of *Innerleithen*.

LEITH-HILL, a town of Surrey, which

; from the top of LEITH HILL, on  
 cated, 5 miles from Darking, 6 from  
 d 12 from Epsom.

MERITZ, a fertile circle of Bohemia,  
 the Elbe, called the *Bohemian Para-*  
*s* for its *Podskalsky* wines, and its  
 al waters, tin mines, precious stones,  
 tains 89 scignories.

MERITZ, a populous town and bi-  
 the above circle, seated on the Elbe;  
 NW. of Prague, and 34 SSE. of Dres-  
 31. 48. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 25. N.

RIM, a county of Ireland in the pro-  
 nought, bounded on the N. by the bay  
 l and part of Fermanagh, on the S.  
 Sligo and Roscommon, and on the E.  
 29<sup>h</sup> and Cavan. It is fruitful, and  
 untainous, produces great herds of  
 ; but has few places of note. It con-  
 50 Irish plantation acres, 21 parishes,  
 two boroughs, and 4000 houses; and  
 miles long, and 17 broad.

RIM, the capital of the above county,  
 7 situated on the banks of the Shannon  
 of Dublin; and appears to have been for-  
 ce of some note. St Mac Liegus, son  
 was bishop here; and his festival is ob-  
 he 8th Feb. It has six fairs. Lon. 8.  
 53. 46. N.

RIN, a town of Brandenburg.

town of Ireland, in Queen's County.  
 P, or ) a town of Ireland in Kildare,  
 IP, { Leinster, about 8 miles W. of  
 year it are the ruins of the church and  
 nsty. The castle of Leixlip is beauti-  
 on the banks of the Liffey; it is a fine  
 1 large and pleasant gardens, at one  
 ch is a grand water-fall, called the *Sal-*  
*tere* being plenty of these fish hereabouts.  
 .mile from Castletown, the magnificent  
 Conolly. It has 3 fairs.

FIELD, a town of Yorkshire, in the  
 on the N. side of Beverly.

M, a town S. of Chippenham, Wilts.

AND, John, the great English anti-  
 s born in London about the year 1507.  
 t his parents when a child, he found a  
 patron in Mr Thomas Miles, who pla-  
 St Paul's school, of which the gram-  
 yle was master. From that school, he  
 o Cambridge, and after some years, to  
 From Oxford he went to Paris, chiefly  
 ign to study the Greek language, which  
 at little understood in this kingdom. On  
 to England he took orders, and was ap-  
 applain to Henry VIII. who also gave  
 ctory of Poppeling, in the marshes of  
 pointed him his librarian, and in 1533  
 king's antiquary; an office never born  
 her person before or since. By this com-  
 : was empowered to search for ancient  
 n all the libraries of colleges, abbeys,  
 &c. in his majesty's dominions. It is  
 he renounced popery soon after his re-  
 ngland. In 1536, he obtained a dispen-  
 keep a curate at Poppeling, and set out  
 ury in search of antiquities. In this em-  
 he spent six years, during which time  
 III. PART I.

he visited every part of England, where monuments  
 of antiquity were to be expected. After his re-  
 turn, in 1542, the king gave him the rich rectory  
 of Haseley in Oxfordshire; and in 1555, a pre-  
 bend of King's College, now Christ's church, in  
 Oxford, besides that of E. and W. Knowle, in Sal-  
 isbury. Being thus amply provided for, he re-  
 tired to a house of his own in the parish of St Mi-  
 chael le Querne in London, where he spent six  
 years in digesting the materials he had collected.  
 Henry VIII. died in 1547; and not long after,  
 Leland lost his senses. In this dreadful state he  
 continued till 1552, when he died. He was a  
 man of great learning, an universal linguist,  
 an excellent Latin poet, and a most indefatigable and  
 skilful antiquary. On his death, Edward VI. gave  
 all his papers to Sir John Checke, his tutor and  
 Latin secretary of state. The king dying, and Sir  
 John being obliged to leave the kingdom, he gave  
 4 folio volumes of Leland's collections to Hum-  
 phrey Purefoy, Esq; which, in 1612, were by his  
 son given to William Burton, author of the histo-  
 ry of Leicestershire. This gentleman also became  
 possessed of the *Itinerary* in 8 vols folio, which, in  
 1632, he deposited in the Bodleian library. Ma-  
 ny other of Leland's MSS. after the death of  
 Sir John Checke, fell into the hands of lord Pa-  
 get, Sir William Cecil, and others, and at last for-  
 tunately came into the possession of Sir John Cot-  
 ton. These MSS. were of great use to all our  
 subsequent antiquarians, particularly Cambden,  
 Sir William Dugdale, Stowe, Lambard, Dr Bat-  
 teley, Ant. Wood, &c. His *Itinerary throughout*  
*most parts of England and Wales*, was published  
 by Mr Hearne, in 9 vols 8vo. in 1710-11; as was al-  
 so his *Collectanea de rebus Britannicis*, in 6 vols 8vo,  
 in 1715.

(2.) LELAND, John, an eminent writer in de-  
 fence of Christianity, born at Wigan in Lanca-  
 shire in 1691, of pious and virtuous parents.  
 They took the earliest care to season his mind  
 with proper instructions; but, in his 6th year, the  
 small pox deprived him of his understanding and  
 memory, and expunged all his former ideas. He  
 continued in this deplorable state near a year,  
 when his faculties seemed to spring up anew; and  
 though he did not retain the least trace of any im-  
 pressions made on him before the distemper, he  
 now discovered a quick apprehension and strong  
 memory. In a few years after, his parents settled  
 in Dublin, which gave him an easy introduction  
 to learning and the sciences. When properly qual-  
 ified, he was called to be pastor to a congrega-  
 tion of Protestant dissenters in that city. He was  
 an able preacher, but his labours were not confin-  
 ed to the pulpit. The many attacks made on  
 Christianity, and by some writers of no contemp-  
 tible abilities, led him to examine the subject with  
 the strictest care. Upon the most deliberate in-  
 quiry, the truth and divine original, as well as  
 the excellence and importance of Christianity, ap-  
 pearing to him with great lustre, he published an-  
 swers to several authors who successively appear-  
 ed in that cause. He was indeed a master in  
 this controversy; and his history of it, entitled,  
*A view of the Dissical Writers, that have appeared*  
*in England, in the last and present Century*, &c. is  
 highly and justly esteemed. In the decline of life

he published another labours work, entitled, "The Advantage and Necessity of the Christian Revelation, shown from the State of Religion in the ancient Heathen World, especially with respect to the Knowledge and Worship of the One true God; a Rule of moral Duty, and a State of future Rewards and Punishments; to which is prefixed, a long preliminary Discourse on Natural and Revealed Religion." 2 vols 4to. This noble and extensive subject, the several parts of which have been slightly and occasionally handled by other writers, Leland has treated at large with the greatest care, accuracy, and candour. And, in his *View of the Deistical Writers*, his cool and dispassionate manner of treating their arguments, and his solid confutation of them, have contributed more to depress the cause of atheism and infidelity, than the angry zeal of warm disputants. But not only his learning and abilities, but also his amiable temper, great modesty, and exemplary life, recommended him to general esteem and affection. He died in 1766, or in 1761, according to Dr Watkins.

(3.) LELAND, Thomas, LL.D. a late learned writer, born at Dublin, in 1722. He was a member of the university in that city. He wrote, 1. *A History of Ireland*; 2. *The Life of Philip K. of Macedon*; and 3. *A translation of Demosthenes Oration*s. He died in 1785, aged 63.

(4.) LELAND, in geography, a small town in Cornwall, 5 miles from Penzance.

LELANONIUS, the name given by Ptolemy to the Leven. See LEVEN, N° I.

LELCZA, a town of Poland, in Volhynia.

LELEGEIS, the ancient name of MILETUS, from the LELEGES, the first inhabitants of it.

(1.) LELEGES an ancient people of Asia, of Greek original; the name denoting a collection of people. They first occupied the islands; then passing over to the continent, they settled partly in Mysia on the Sinus Adramyttenus, and partly in that part of Ionia next to Caria.

(2.) LELEGES, a people of Laconia, who went to the Trojan war with Altes their king. Achilles plundered their country, and obliged them to retire to the neighbourhood of Halicarnassus, where they fixed their habitation.

(3.) LELEGES, a name given to the inhabitants of Megara for some time, from LEX one of their kings.

LELEGIA, an ancient name of LACONIA.

(1.) LELLEX, an Egyptian, who came with a colony to Megara, where he reigned about 200 years before the Trojan war.

(2.) LELLEX, the first king of Laconia in Peloponnesus. His subjects were called LELEGES, and the country where he reigned LELEGIA.

LELONG, James, a French ecclesiastic, born in 1655. He wrote a curious work, entitled, *An Historical Library of France*. He died in 1721, aged 66.

LELOW, a town of Poland, in Cracow.

LELUNDA, a river of Africa, in Congo.

LELY, Sir Peter, an excellent painter, born in Westphalia in 1617. He was a disciple of Peter Grebber at Haerlem; and in 1641 was induced, by the encouragement Charles I. gave to the fine arts, to come to England. He became state pain-

ter to Charles II. who knighted him; an pleasure in conversing with him. As a painter, he was preferred before all his countrymen. Hence he became so perpetually in business, that he was prevented from going to Italy to finish his studies. To compensate this, he procured the best drawings, printings, of the most celebrated Italian artists. Among these were part of the Arundel collection, which he got from that family, many of which were sold after his death at prodigious prices, bearing upon them his usual mark of P. I. In his correct draught and beautiful coloring, but especially in the graceful airs of his figures, and the pleasing variety of his postures, with the gentle and loose management of his pencil, he excelled most of his predecessors. Critics remark, that he preserved in almost all his female faces a drowsy sweetness of the eye, peculiar to himself; for which he is reckoned a great artist. The hands of his portraits are remarkably fine and elegantly turned; and he frequented landscapes in the back grounds of his pictures, in a style peculiar to himself. He excelled likewise in crayon-painting. He became enamoured of a beautiful English lady, who was married; and he purchased an estate at Keyrey to which he often retired. He died of a poplexy in 1680, at London; and was buried in Covent-garden church, where a marble monument is erected to his memory, with his Latin epitaph.

(1.) \* LEMAN. *n. f.* [Generally supposed to be *lamant*, the lover, French; but imagined to be *lemant*, with almost equal probability, to be from *leef*, Dutch, or *lof*, Saxon, *beloved*. This etymology is strongly supported by the present orthography, according to which it is written *leueman*.] A sweetheart; a gallant or lover. *Hammer*.—

Hold for my sake, and doom him not  
But vanquish'd, thine eternal bondslave  
And me thy worthy meed unto thy *lem*

Drink unto the *leman* mine.

(2.) LEMAN, in geography, a river of the shire, which runs into the Eux, near Tivert.

(3.) LEMAN, or LAC LEMAN, a department of the French republic, comprehending the former republic of Geneva; so named from LEMANUS, the ancient name of the lake of Geneva, § I, 1; and 12, N° II.

LEMANIS, or LEMANNUS, in ancient geography, a town in S. Britain, where Julius Cæsar first landed; supposed to be either 1. Dorsetshire, or LIME-HILL in Kent.

LEMANUS, or LEMANNUS, the ancient name of the lake of Geneva. See GENEVA, § 12.

LEMBA, a town of Africa, in Congo.

LEMBACH, 2 towns of Germany: 1. in the principality of Aigen; 2. in Stiria, 3 m. S. of Marburg.

(1.) LEMBECK, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Escaut, and late prov. of Flanders; 8 miles S. of Ghent.

(2.) LEMBECK, a town of Germany, in the

**LEGE**, a town of France, in the dep. of France, 15 miles NW of Tarbe, and 15 mi.

**LEMBERG**, a town of France, in the dep. of France, 4 miles SW. of Bitche.

**LEMBERG**, a town of the French republic, dep. of Mont Tonnerre, 14 miles SW. of Mont, and 18 W. of Landau.

**LEMBERG**, or **LEMBURG**, a ci-devant palatinate, in Red Russia, which now forms the modern kingdom of Galicia. See GALICIA.

**LEMBERG**, a town of Poland, late capital of Russia, and of the ci-devant palatinate of Galicia, on the Peñter; now the capital of the Austrian kingdom of Galicia. See GALICIA, N° 3. It was originally named **LEO** after the emperor **LEO I.** who built it. It well fortified, and defended by two citadels of which is seated on an eminence with a square. The square, the churches and the buildings, are magnificent; and it is a large trading place. It has a Roman catholic church, and an Armenian as well as a Russian; but the protestants are not tolerated; was reduced to the last extremity by the Cossacks and Tartars, but was redeemed for the sum of money. In 1672, it was besieged by the Turks; but in 1704, was taken by Charles XII. It is 130 miles from Cracow, and 117 S. of Warsaw. Lon. 24. E. 49. 51. N.

**LEMBERG**, a town of Stiria, 5 miles N. of Trieste.

**LENGHE**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of the Scheldt; 6 miles S. of Ghent.

**LENGUE**, a river of France, which runs into the sea, near Moissac.

**LENGUE**, or **LENGUE**, an island of the Archipelago, on the coast of Romania, 22 miles in circumference; with a town, river, and harbor of the same name, anciently called **Imbros**; Lon. 26. 40. 25. N.

**LENGUE**. See **LEMBERG**, N° 3 and 4.

**LENGUE**, a river of Maritime Austria, in Friuli, runs into the Adriatic, near Caorla.

**LEMERY**, Nicholas, a celebrated chemist, born in Normandy in 1618. After having finished the tour of France, he, in 1672, contracted an acquaintance with **M. Martyn** apothecary; and performed several courses of experiments in his laboratory at the Hotel de Clugny, which brought him to the knowledge of the principles of the art. Having procured a laboratory of his own, he gave lectures on chemistry, attended by such numbers of scholars, that he was obliged to allow him room to perform his operations in the first modern chemical laboratory, who he dispensed the senseless jargon of barbarous terms, and endeavored to clear and simplify ideas; and nothing that he did not perform. In 1685, he was disturbed on account of his religion; he fled to England, where he was well received by the king; but affairs not promising tranquility, he returned to France, where the revocation of the edict of Nantz made him turn Catholic, and persecutor. He then became associate professor and pensionary in the royal academy of

sciences, and died in 1715. He wrote, 1. *A Course of Chemistry*; 2. *An Universal Pharmacopœia*; 3. *An Universal Treatise of Drugs*; and 4. *A Treatise on Antimony*.

(2.) **LEMERY**, Lewis, son of the preceding, was born at Paris in 1677. He became physician to the king, and member of the Academy of Sciences. He published several papers in the Academy's Memoirs, and a *Treatise on Food*. He died in 1743.

**LEMGO**, or **LEMGOW**, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Lippe; 17 m. SW. of Minden.

**LEMMINGTON**, a town of Northumberland, 3 miles from Alnwick, in the valley of Whittingham.

(1.) **LEMMA**, *n. f.* [*lemma*, French.] A proposition previously assumed.

(2.) **LEMMA**, [*lemma*, Latin.] in mathematics, denotes a proposition, laid down to clear the way for some following demonstration; and prefixed either to theorems, to render their demonstration less intricate; or to problems to make their resolution more easy. Thus, to prove a pyramid one third of a prism, or parallelepiped, of the same base and height with it, the demonstration whereof in the ordinary way is difficult and troublesome; this lemma may be premised, which is proved in the rules of progression, that the sum of the series of the squares in numbers in arithmetical progression, beginning from 0, and going on 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, &c. is always subscrip of the sum of as many terms, each equal to the greatest; or is always one 3d of the greatest term multiplied by the number of terms. Thus, to find the inflection of a curve line, this lemma is first premised, that a tangent may be drawn to the given curve in a given point. So in physics, to the demonstration of most propositions, such lemmata as these are necessary first to be allowed; that there is no penetration of dimensions; that all matter is divisible; and the like: and in medicine, that where the blood circulates, there is life, &c.

**LEMME**, a sea port of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Eems, and late prov. of Prinsland, on the Zuyder Zee, 15 miles W. from Stavoren, and 20 E. of Ewarden.

**LEMMING**, a small animal, in zoology. See **MUS**.

**LEMMA**, **DUCK'S MEAT**, in botany, a genus of the diandria order, belonging to the monocœcia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 14th order, *Alph. Musci*. The male calyx is monophyllous; there is no corolla; the female calyx monophyllous; there is no corolla, one style; the capsule unilocular. There are 7 species, all natives of Britain, growing in ditches and stagnant waters; all acceptable food for ducks and geese.

**LEMNIAN EARTH**, a medicinal, astringent, of a fatty consistence and reddish colour; used in the same cases as **BOLE**. It has its name from the island of Lemnos, whence it is chiefly brought. Many form it into round cakes, and impress a seal upon it; whence it is also called *terra sigillata*. A sort is said to be imported from Senegal, which is not properly an earth, though so called, but

composed of the dried pulp of the fruit of the **BAOBAB**.

**LEMNITZ**, a town of Saxony, in Neustadt.

**LEMNIUS**, Lævinius, a famous physician, born at Zeric-Zee in Zealand, in 1505. He practised physic with applause; and after his wife's death being made priest, became canon of Zeric-Zee, where he died in 1569. He wrote 1. An Account of the Plants mentioned in Scripture: 2. a book on Astrology: 3. *De oculis naturæ miraculis*.

**LEMNOS**, in ancient geography, an island in the Ægean sea, near Thrace, called also *Dipolis*, from its consisting of two towns. The first inhabitants were the PELASGI, or rather the Thracians, who were murdered by their wives. After them came the children of the Lemnian widows by the Argonauts, whose descendants were at last expelled by the Pelasgi, about A. A. C. 1109. Lemnos is about 112 miles in circumference according to Pliny; who says, that it is often shadowed by mount Athos, though at the distance of 87 miles! It has been called **HIPSIPYLE** from queen Hipsipyle. The inhabitants being mostly blacksmiths, the poets have fixed the forges of Vulcan in that island, and consecrated it to his divinity. Lemnos is also celebrated for a labyrinth, which, according to some, surpassed those of Crete and Egypt. Some remains of it were visible in the age of Pliny. Lemnos was reduced under the power of Athens by Miltiades. It is now called **STALIMENE**.

**LEMO**, a river of Italy, which rises in the Ligurian republic and runs into the Orba, in the Alexandrine.

(1.) \* **LEMON**. *n. f.* [*limon*. Fr. *limonium*, low Lat.] 1. The fruit of the lemon tree.—The juice of lemons is more cooling and astringent than that of oranges. *Arbutobot.*—The dyers use it for dyeing of bright yellows and lemon colours. *Mortimer*. Bear me, Pomona!

To where the lemon and the piercing lime,

Their lighter glories blend. *Thomson*.

2. The tree that bears lemons.—The lemon tree hath large stiff leaves; the flower consists of many leaves, which expand in form of a rose: the fruit is almost of an oval figure, and divided into several cells, in which are lodged hard seeds, surrounded by a thick fleshy substance, which for the most part, is full of an acid juice. There are many varieties of this tree, and the fruit is yearly imported from Lisbon in great plenty. *Miller*.

(2.) **LEMON**, in botany. See **CITRUS**, N<sup>o</sup> 1. § 2.

(3.) **LEMON**, George William, an English divine and lexicographer of considerable learning and industry. He was born in 1726; and published *An Etymological English Dictionary*, in one vol. 4to. which is esteemed. He died in 1797, aged 71.

(4.) **LEMON**, IMPREGNATED. See **COOK**, N<sup>o</sup> III, § 13.

(5.) **LEMON ISLAND**, one of the Skelig Islands, situated off the coast of Kerry, in Munster, Ireland. It is a round rock, always above water, and therefore no way dangerous to ships. An incredible number of gannets and other birds breed here; and it is remarkable that the gannets

nestles no where on the coast of Ireland but on this rock on the S. and another on the N. coast, though many of them are seen on all parts of our coasts on the wing.

(6.) **LEMON**, WATER. See **PASSIFLORA**.

\* **LEMONADE**. *n. f.* [from *lemou*.] Liquor made of water, sugar, and the juice of lemons.—Thou, and thy wife, and children, should walk in my gardens, buy toys, and drink lemonade. *Arbutobot*.

**LEMOSANO**, a town of Naples, in Molise.

**LEMOVICES**, a people of Aquitania, situated between the Bituriges Cubi on the N. the Arverni on the E. the Cadurci on the S. and the Pictones on the W. Before the revolution, this country was called LIMOSIN and LA MARCHE.

**LEMOVII**, an ancient people of Germany.

**LEMPACH**, a town of Austria, 14 miles WSW. of Vienna.

**LEMPDE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Loire, 24 miles N. of St Flour.

**LEMPES**, a town of France, in the dep. of Isere, 18 miles NW. of Grenoble, and 13 S. of Tou du Pin.

(1.) **LEMPTA**, a desert country of Africa, inhabited by a fierce people who rob the caravans between Constantina and Nubia. Lon. 9. 0 E. Lat. 26. 30. N.

(2.) **LEMPTA**, a town of Tunis, on the E. coast.

(3.) **LEMPTA**, a river of Africa, in Calbari.

**LEMPVIG**, a town of Denmark in Jutland.

**LEMUR**, the MAUCAUCO, in zoology a genus of the mammalia class of quadrupeds, and of the order of primates: The characters are these. There are 4 fore teeth in the upper jaw, the intermediate ones being remote; and six long, compressed, parallel teeth in the under jaw; the dog teeth are solitary, and the grinders somewhat lobated. See *Plates* 199 and 200. Mr Kerr and Dr Gmelin enumerates 13 species; viz.

1. **LEMUR BICOLOR**, the *American Maucauco* inhabits S. America. It has a tail; the upper parts of the body are a blackish grey, the under a dirty white colour; with a heart-shaped spot of the same colour on the fore-head. The head resembles a bull-dog; the toes have narrow sharp claws.

2. **LEMUR CATTÀ**, the *ring-tailed Maucauco*, inhabits Madagascar, Mauritius, Joanna, and the neighbouring African continent. It is of the size of a cat; has the hair on the top and hind part of the head of a deep ash-colour, the back and sides reddish, the belly and insides of the limbs white; all its hair is very soft, close and fine, and erect like the pile of velvet; the tail is twice the length of the body. It is very good natured, and has all the life of a monkey, without its mischievous disposition; it is very cleanly, and has a weak cry. In a wild state they go in troops of 30 or 40, but are easily tamed when taken young.

3. **LEMUR ECAUDATUS**, the *tail-less maucauco* a small animal found in Bengal and the island of Ceylon. It is of a very singular construction, and perhaps longer in proportion to its thickness than any other quadruped. The head is roundish, with a sharp-pointed nose, and small ears: the body is covered with short, soft, and silky ash-coloured and reddish fur: the toes are naked, and



Fig. 2.  
Common Hare



Fig. 8. PL  
Angora Rabbit



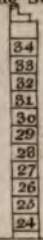
Fig. 6.  
Silver Haired Rabbit



Lemur Volans  
Fig. 1.



Levelling Staff.



Wild Rabbit Fig. 5.



Fig. 3. Varying Hare



Fig. 7.  
Hooded Rabbit



Domestic Rabbit Fig.



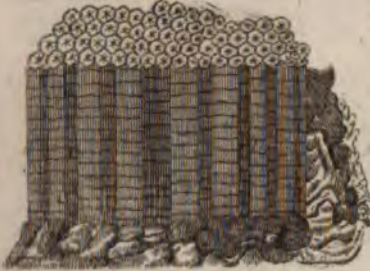
Libella



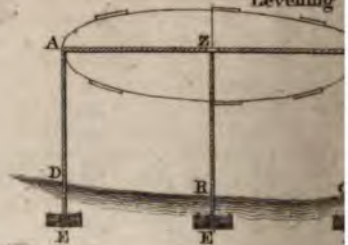
Lernaea



Lithostrotion



Levelling



excepting those of the inner toe on foot, which are long, crooked, and length from the nose to the rump is it lives in the woods, and feeds on same state, it appears to be fond of vours small birds. This animal less of the sloth, and creeps slowly along it is very tenacious of its hold, and native noise. Some confound this species: LORIS, (See N<sup>o</sup> 12.) Mr Kerr says, some confusion among authors in their of the two last animals: for *this* ought LEMUR TARDIGRADUS of Linnæus, at manners."

LE MUR INDRI, the *Indri*, inhabits Madag- is black and has no tail; is about 3½ us 8 canine teeth in each jaw; 2 cut- the upper jaw, and 4 close set in the the feet have 5 toes, with flat sharp great toes are very large; the hair is ick; grey on the face, white and cur- ump; all the rest black. It is easily voice resembles that of a child.

LE MUR LANIGER, the curly *Maucauco*, in- agascar. It is of a brick-dust colour er parts, and white on the under; the the tail a tawney red. The head and 12 inches long; the tail 9. It has 2 the upper, and 4 in the lower jaw: large; the ears small: the paws have the thumbs and great toes have flat ills; the rest pointed claws. The hair t and curled like wool; whence the

LE MUR MACACO, or CAUDATUS, the *ruffed* or the *VARI* of Buffon, is an inhabitant scar. It is somewhat larger than the (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) and has long hair standing out sides of the head like a ruff: a long tail; of the whole animal generally black, mes white spotted with black. In a it is very fierce; and makes such a se in the woods, that the cries of two easily mistaken for the noise made by Ker distinguishes 4 varieties of this spe- *Black, Brown, White and Pied Vari.*

LE MUR MONGOZ, the MONGOOZ, or *woolly* inhabits Madagafcar, and the islands ward as far as Celebes. It is about the it, and has the whole upper part of the the tail covered with long, soft and a little curled or waved, of a deep ash-colour; the tail is very long. It uits, turns its tail over its head to prom- rain, and sleeps on trees; it is very id good-natured; and very tender. Mr bes 5 varieties of the Mongous; viz. 1. he *Black-faced*; 2. *Negro*, the *Black*; 3. the *White-banded*; 4. *Fuscus*, the and 5. *Cinereus*, the *Grey Mongous*.

LE MUR MURINUS, the *Murine Maucauco*, in- dagascar; is of an ash colour, with a on tail; all the toes and fingers have flat ills.

LE MUR PODJI, the TARSIER of Buffon, nted visage; slender nose, bilobated at eyes large and prominent; ears erect, led, semitransparent; an inch and a half

long with a tuft of hair between them on the top of the head, and long hairs on each side of the nose and on the upper eye-brow. In each jaw are two cutting and two canine teeth; which form an exception in this genus. There are 4 long slender toes and a distinct thumb on each foot; the thumbs on the hind feet are very broad and greatly dilated at their ends: the tail is almost naked; the greater part round and scaly like that of a rat, but growing hairy towards the end, which is tufted. The penis is pendulous; and the scrotum and testicles are of a vast size in proportion to the animal. Its length from nose to tail is near 6 inches; to the hind toes 11½, the hind legs being of a great length; the tail is 9½ inches long. It inhabits the remotest islands of India, especially Amboina.

10. LEMUR POTTO, the *Potto*, inhabits Guinea; has a tail, and is all of a pale rusty brown colour. In other particulars it is very like the IN- DRI. See N<sup>o</sup> 4.

11. LEMUR PREHENSILIS, the *prebussle* or *lit- tle maucauco*, has a rounded head, sharp nose, long whiskers; two canine teeth in each jaw; 4 cut- ting teeth in the upper jaw, 6 in the lower: 7 grind- ers on each side; the nearest sharp, the more dis- tant lobated: the ears are large, roundish, naked, and membranaceous; the eyes very large and full. The toes are long, and of unequal lengths; the ends round; the nails round, and very short; the tail is hairy, as long as the body, and prehensile. The animal is rather less than the black rat; and in Mr Pennant's opinion, seems to be the same which Buffon calls *le rat de Madagafcar*. It is supposed to live in the palm-trees, and feed on fruits. It holds its food in its fore feet like a squirrel; is lively, and has a weak cry; and when it sleeps, it rolls itself up.

12. LEMUR TARDIGRADUS of Seba, the *Loris* of Buffon, or *SLOTH of Ceylon*, has a produced dog-like visage, with the forehead high above the nose: the ears are large, thin, and rounded: the body is slender and weak; the limbs are very long and slender; the thumb on each side is distinct, and separate from the toes: the hair on the body is universally short, and delicately soft; the co- lour on the upper part tawny, beneath whitish. From the tip of the nose to the anus, the animal is only 8 inches long. It differs totally in form and nature from the ECAUDATUS; (See N<sup>o</sup> 3.) and notwithstanding the epithet of *tardigradus* or *sloth* given in Seba, it is very active, and ascends trees most nimbly. It has the actions of an ape; and, Seba says, the male climbs the trees, and tastes the fruits, before it presents them to its mate.

13. LEMUR VOLANS; the *flying maucauco*, the *Colugo* of Pallas, or *flying cat of Ternate*, resembles a bat; being furnished with a strong membrane like that animal, by which it is enabled to fly. It inhabits the country about Guzarat, the Moluc- ca isles, and the Philippines; feeds on fruits, and is very distinct both from the bat and flying squir- rel. Mr Pennant says it is 3 feet long, nearly as broad when expanded; the tail one foot; the head long; mouth, teeth and ears small; the hair ash- coloured; the legs covered with yellow down; the paws five-toed; the claws crooked and very sharp.



**LEMURALIA:** See **LEMURIA**.

**LEMURES**, in antiquity, sprites or hobgoblins, venereal ghosts of departed persons, who were supposed to return to terrify and torment the living. These are the same with the **LARVÆ**; whom the ancients imagined to wander round the world, to frighten good people, and plague the bad. For which reason at Rome they had **LEMURIA**; or feasts instituted to appease the manes of the deceased. See **LARES**: Apuleius explains the ancient notion of manes thus: the souls of men released from the bands of the body, and freed from performing their bodily functions, become a kind of demons or genii, formerly called *lemures*. Of these *lemures*, those that were kind to their families were called *lemures familiares*; but those who, for their crimes, were condemned to wander continually, without meeting with any place of rest, and terrified good men and hurt the bad, are vulgarly called *larvæ*. See **LARVÆ**, N<sup>o</sup> 1. Apuleius observes, that, in the ancient Latin, *lemis* signified the soul of a man separated from the body by death.

**LEMURIA**, or **LEMURIALIA**, a feast solemnized at Rome on the 9th of May, to pacify the manes of the dead or in honour of the *lemures*. It was instituted by Romulus, to appease the ghost of his murdered brother Remus, which he thought was continually pursuing him to revenge the horrid crime.—The *lemuria* is therefore supposed to be a corruption of *Remuria*, i. e. the feast of Remus. Sacrifices continued for three nights, the temples were shut up, and marriages were prohibited during the solemnity. A variety of whimsical ceremonies were performed, magical words made use of; and the ghosts desired to withdraw, without endeavouring to hurt or affright their friends above ground. The chief formalities were abjuration, putting black beans into their mouths, and beating kettles and pans to make the goblins keep their distance.

**LEN**, a river of Kent, which joins the Medway, near Maidstone.

**LENA**, a great river of Asia, in Siberia, which rises in Lat. 52. 30. N. and Lon. 124. 30. E. of Ferro. After traversing a large tract of land, it divides into 5 branches, about Lat. 73°. Three of these run W. and two E. by which it runs into the icy Sea. Its three western mouths lie in 143° Lon. E. of Ferro, but the eastern one extends to 153°. The current is every where slow, and its bed entirely free from rocks. The bottom is sandy, and the banks are in some places rocky and mountains. In its course to the northern ocean, 16 large rivers fall into it.

**LENÆA**, [from *λενος*, a wine press:] a festival kept by the Greeks in honour of Bacchus, at which there was much feasting and Bacchanalian jollity, accompanied with poetical contentions, and the exhibition of tragedies. A goat was generally sacrificed on the occasion, and treated with various marks of cruelty and contempt, as being naturally fond of browsing on the vine shoots.

**LENÆUS**, a surname of **BACCHUS**.

**LENATA**, a town of the Italian republic, in the dept. of Olona, and district (late duchy) of Milan: 4 miles S. of Milan.

**LENBERAN**, a town of Persian Armenia,

**LENCICIA**, or **LENCICZ**, a strong town Poland, and capital of a palatinate so named, which is fort-seated on a rock, in a morass on the bank of the *Blura*. It was 3 times burnt; 1st. by accident in 1262; 2dly, by the Lithuanians in 1299, and, 3dly, by the Poles, in 1656, when it was garri-soned by the Swedes. It is now annexed to Prussia, and lies 60 miles SW. of Warsaw, or 110 N. by W. of Cracow. Lon. 18. 20. E. Lat. 52. 16. N.

**LENCLOS**, Ninon DE, a celebrated lady in the court of France, of a noble family, born at Paris in 1675; famous for her wit and gallantries. Her mother was a lady of exemplary piety, and wished her to become a nun; but her father early inspired her with the love of pleasure. Having lost her parents at 14 years of age, and finding herself mistress of her own fortune and actions, she refused never to marry: she had an income of 10,000 livres a year; and, according to the lessons she had received from her father, formed a plan of life and gallantry, which she pursued till her death. Never delicate with respect to the number, but always in the choice, of her lovers, she sacrificed nothing to interest; but loved only while her taste continued; and had among her lovers the greatest lords of the court. But though thus vicious in her amours, she had many virtues.—She was constant in her friendships, faithful to what she called the laws of honour, of strict veracity, disinterested, and remarkable for the most exact probity though, with all her boasted probity, she forgot that she owed legitimacy, inheritance, and maternal affection, to her own offspring. Women of the most respectable character were proud of having her for their friend; at her house was an assemblage of every thing that was agreeable in the city and the court; and mothers were anxious to send their sons to that school of politeness and good-taste, to learn sentiments of honour and gallantry. But the illustrious Madame de Sevigne very justly remarks in her letters, that this school was dangerous to religion and the Christian virtues because the seducing maxims of Ninon Lenclos were capable of depriving the mind of those invaluable treasures. She was esteemed beautiful even in old age; and is said to have inspired violent passion at 80. She died at Paris in 1706, aged 30. She had several children; one of whom, named *César valier de Villers*, ended his life tragically. He fell in love with Ninon, without knowing that she was his mother; and when, to get rid of his solicitations, she discovered to him the secret of his birth, he stabbed himself in her presence in a fit of despair. The letters of Ninon de Lenclos to the marquis de Sevigné, were published, but are reckoned spurious. A few of her genuine letters are preserved in the works of M. St Evremont.

**LENCZICZ**. See **LENCICIA**.

**LENCZNA**, a town of Poland, in Lublin.

\* **TO LEND**. *v. a.* preterite, and part. pass. *lent*, [*leanan*, Sax. *leuten*, Dutch.] 1. To assure or supply, on condition of repayment.—

In common wordly things 'tis call'd ungrate  
With dull unwillingness to pay a debt,  
Which, with a bounteous hand, was kindly lent  
Much more to be thus opposite with Heaven.

—The

lalt not give him thy money upon usury,  
im thy victuals for increase. *Levi.*—  
dare not give, and e'en refuse to lend,  
r poor kindred, or a wanting friend.

*Dryden.*  
fer to be used on condition that it be re-  
ll lend it thee, my dear, but have no  
give it from me. *Shak.*—

fair blessing we vouchsafe to send ;  
we spare you long, though often we  
y lend. *Dryden.*

ord ; to grant in general.—Covetousness,  
sea, receives the tribute of all rivers,  
like it in lending any back again. *Decay*  
-Painting and poetry are two sisters so  
they lend to each other their names and  
is called a dumb poetry, and the other  
picture. *Dryden.*—

thy new hope, and from thy growing  
we,  
and assistance, and relieve the poor. *Dryd.*  
lend me for a while thy patience,  
and descend to hear a young man speak,

*Addison.*

Cephisa, thou

and a hand to close thy mistress' eyes.

*A. Philips.*

BAR, a town of Maritime Austria, in the  
stian Istria, 19 miles E. of Capo of Istria.

ENARA. See LENDINARA.

DER. *n. f.* [from *lend.*] 1. One who lends  
2. One who makes a trade of putting  
interest.—Let the state be answered  
ll matter, and the rest left to the lender ;  
ement be final, it will not discourage  
he that took ten in the hundred, will  
scend to eight than give over his trade.

de droves of lenders crowd the bankers  
ers  
in money. *Dryden.*

would certainly encourage the lender to  
such a time of danger. *Addison.*

NDINARA, a district of Maritime Auf-  
ie polefin of Rovigo, between Rovigo  
, containing one town and 19 villages,  
: in corn and flax.

NDINARA, a town in the above district,  
digetto ; containing 9 churches, 4 con-  
academy, and several schools ; 8 miles  
vigo.

SIEDEL, a town of Franconia, in Ho-  
one mile W. of Kirchberg.

, LOUGH, a lake of Ireland, in W. Meath,  
f. of Mullingar.

Y. See CALLANDER, N° 7.

ANT, James, a learned French writer,  
551. After studying at Saumur, he went  
lberg, where he became minister of the  
hurch, in 1684, and chaplain to the elec-  
ager Palatine. The descent of the French  
Palatinate obliged him to leave Heidel-  
683. He went to Berlin, where the elec-  
eric, afterward king of Prussia, appointed  
of the ministers. There he continued to  
distinguishing himself by his writings. He  
acher to Charlotta Sophia, Q. of Prussia ;

and after her death, to Frederick the Great. In  
1707 he took a journey to England and Holland,  
where he preached before Q. Anne. In 1712, he  
went to Helmstadt, in 1715 to Leipzig, and in  
1725 to Breslaw, to search for rare books and  
MSS. He either planned the design of the *Bibli-*  
*otbeque Germanique*, which began in 1720 ; or it  
was suggested to him by one of the learned socie-  
ty, who took the name of *Anonymous*, and ordi-  
narily met at his house. He died in 1728. His  
principal works are, 1. The History of the Coun-  
cil of Constance, 2 vols 4to : 2. A History of the  
Council of Pisa, 2 vols 4to : 3. The New Testa-  
ment translated from the Greek into the French,  
with Notes by Beaufobre and Lenfant, 2 vols 4to :  
4. The History of Pope Joan, from Spanheim's  
Latin Dissertation : 5. Several pieces in the *Bibli-*  
*otbeque Choise, La Republique des Lettres, La Biblio-*  
*theque Germanique, &c.*

LENGFELD, } two towns of Franconia, in  
LENGFURT, } the county of Wertheim.

LENGIUM, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothia.

LENGLET, Nicholas, du Fresnoy, abbe, a ce-  
lebrated French author, born at Beauvois, in 1674.

He wrote on various subjects, historical, geogra-  
phical, political, and philosophical. The follow-  
ing merit notice : 1. A Method of Studying His-  
tory, with a Catalogue of the Principal Historians  
of every age and country ; 1713. This work was  
translated into most modern languages, particu-  
larly our own, with improvements, by Richard Raw-  
linson, LL. D. and F. R. S. and published at Lon-  
don in 1730, in 2 vols 8vo. 2. A Copious Abridg-  
ment of Universal History and Biography, in chro-  
nological order, under the title of *Tablettes chrono-*  
*logiques* ; which first appeared at Paris in 1744, in  
2 vols 8vo, and was universally admired. In the  
subsequent editions he made several corrections  
and improvements ; and from one of these, an  
English translation was published at London in  
1762, in 2 vols large 8vo. Another edition ap-  
peared in 1762, in which the general history was  
brought down to 1762. Du Fresnoy, however,  
loaded his work with catalogues of saints, mar-  
tyrs, councils, synods, heresies, schisms, and other  
ecclesiastical matters, fit only for the libraries of  
Popish convents. He was secretary to the French  
ambassador at Cologne in 1705, when he disco-  
vered a plot of delivering up Mons to the English.  
In 1721, he became librarian to Prince Eugene.  
He lived 82 years, but his end was tragical ; for,  
falling asleep by the fire, he fell into it, and his  
head was nearly burnt off, before the accident was  
discovered. This happened in 1756.

(1.) \* LENGTH. *n. f.* [from *lung, Sax.*] 1. The  
extent of any thing material from end to end ; the  
longest line that can be drawn through a body.—  
There is in Ticinum a church that is in *length* 100  
feet, in breadth 20, and in height near 50 : it re-  
porteth the voice 12 or 13 times. *Bacon.* 2. Ho-  
rizontal extension.—

Stretch'd at his *length* he spurns the swarthy  
ground. *Dryden.*

3. Comparative extent ; a certain portion of space  
or time : in this sense it has a plural.—

Large *lengths* of seas and shores

Between my father and my mother lay. *Shak.*

To

enemy, and Ralph, free;  
and foes, behind,  
three lengths the wind. *Hudib.*  
g with undiscover'd haste,  
length beyond the past. *Dryd.*  
or space.—  
lands, what oceans have you

ustal'd, and on what shores been  
*Dryden.*

idea of duration, the next  
measure of this common du-  
ge of its different lengths.  
tion or protraction.—

H great monarch, still augment

length of days, and every day like this.

*Dryden.*

Such toil requir'd the Roman name,

Such length of labour for so vast;  
—In length of time it will cover the  
and make one mountain with that  
now stands. *Addison.* 6. Reach of  
any thing.—I do not recommend te  
of sciences, to those extensive length—  
moderns have advanced. *Watt's*

7. Full extent; uncontracted  
who sent me this account, will  
the worthy gentleman's name; I  
length in one of my papers. *Spelt.*  
He had marched to the length of Exet  
had some thought of besieging. *Clare*  
latter part of any assignable time.—C  
ged of things burdensome, all was b  
length unto that wherein we now sta—

A crooked stick is not stuttened, unless it be bent  
as far on the clear contrary side, that so it may  
fettle itself at the length in a middle state of even-  
ness between them both. *Hooker.* 10. At LENGTH.  
[An adverbial mode of speech. It was formerly  
written at the length.] At last; in conclusion.—

At length, at length, I have thee in my arms,  
Tho' our malevolent stars have struggled hard,  
And held us long asunder. *Dryden.*

(2.) LENGTH, in duration, (§ 1. def. 5.) is ap-  
plied to any space of time, whether long or short.

(1.) \* To LENGTHEN. . . a. [from length.] 1.  
To draw out; to make longer; to elongate.—Re-  
laxing the fibres, is making them flexible, or easy  
to be lengthened without rupture. *Arbutnot.*—

Falling dews with spangles deck'd the glade,  
And the low sun had lengthen'd every shade. *Pope.*

2. To protract; to continue.—

Frame your mind to mirth and merriment,  
Which bars a thousand harms, and lengthens life.

*Shakesp.*

—Break off thy sins by righteousness, and thine  
iniquities by shewing mercy to the poor; if it may  
be a lengthening of thy tranquillity. *Dan.* iv. 27.—  
It is in our power to secure to ourselves an interest  
in the divine mercies that are yet to come, and to  
lengthen the course of our present prosperity. *At-*  
*terbury's Sermons.* 3. To protract pronunciation.  
—The learned languages were less constrained in  
the quantity of every syllable, beside helps of  
grammatical figures for the lengthening or abbre-  
viation of them. *Dryden.* 4. To LENGTHEN out.

[The particle out is only emphatical.] T  
tract; to extend.—

What if I please to lengthen out his da  
A day, and take a pride to cozen fate?

I'd hoard up every moment of my lif

To lengthen out the payment of my tears

—It lengthens out every act of worship, an  
duces more lasting and permanent impre  
the mind, than those which accompany an  
sient form of words. *Addison.*

(2.) \* To LENGTHEN. v. n. To grow  
to increase in length.—One may as well  
yard, whose parts lengthen and shrink, as  
sure of trade in materials, that have not a  
settled value. *Locke.*—

Still 'tis farther from its end;

Still finds its error lengthen with its way

LENGTHENING, part. adj. in ship car  
the operation of cutting a ship down ac  
middle, and adding a certain portion to her  
It is performed by sawing her planks aft  
different places of her length, on each sid  
midship frame, to prevent her from being to  
weakened in one place. The two ends  
drawn apart to a limited distance; which  
equal to the proposed addition of length.  
intermediate piece of timber is next adde  
keel, upon which a sufficient number of  
are erected, to fill up the vacancy produ  
the separation. The two parts of the ke  
afterwards united by an additional piece  
scored down upon the floor timbers, and  
beams as may be necessary are fixed ac  
ship in the new interval. Finally, the p  
the side are prolonged so as to unite with  
ther; and those of the ceiling refitted in t  
manner; by which the whole process is cor

\* LENGTHWISE. adv. [length and w  
ording to the length, in a longitudinal d

LENGUEGLIO, a town of the Lig  
public, 5 miles S. of Albenga.

LENHAM, a town of Kent, seated on  
nence, near the source of the Len, 9 mi  
Maidstone, and 48 ESE. of London. Lc  
E. Lat. 51. 18. N.

LENHOFDA, a town of Sweden, in S

(1.) \* LENIENT. adj. [leniens, Lat.] 1.  
five; softening; mitigating.—

In this one passion man can strength  
Time, that on all things lays his lenien  
Yet tames not this; it sticks to our last fa

2. With of.—

Consolatories writ

With study'd argument, and much p  
sought,

Lenient of grief and anxious thought.

3. Laxative; emollient.—Oils relax the si  
lenient, balsamick, and abate acrimony in t  
*Arbutnot.*

(2.) \* LENIENT. n. f. An emollient, or  
application.—I dressed it with lenients. H

\* To LENIFY. v. n. [lenifier, old Fr. le  
To assuage; to mitigate.—Used for squ  
and inflammations in the throat, it seemet  
a mollifying and lenifying virtue. *Bacon.*

All fest'ning simples, known of fove  
He presses out, and pours their noble

first infus'd, to *lenify* the pain, as with pincers, but he tugs in vain. *Dryd.*  
**LENITIVE.** *adj.* [*lenitis*, Fr. *lenio*, Lat.]  
 ; emollient.—Some plants have a milk  
 the cause may be an inception of putre-  
 for those milks have all an acrimony,  
 one would think they should be *lenitive*.  
 There is aiment *lenitive* expelling the  
 thout stimulating the bowels; such are  
 is. *Arbutmot.*

**LENITIVE.** *n. f.* 1. Any thing medicinally  
 o ease pain. 2. A palliative.—There are  
 hat friendship will apply, before it would  
 ht to decretory rigours. *South's Sermons.*  
**LENITY.** *n. f.* [*lenitas*, Lat.] Mildness; mercer-  
 nesses; softness of temper.—

Henry gives consent,  
 er compassion, and of *lenity*,  
 e your country. *Shakesp. Henry VI.*

*Lenity* must gain  
 ighty men, and please the discontent.

*Daniel.*  
 So ample a pardon was proclaimed touch-  
 on, yet could not the boldness be beaten  
 ner with severity, or with *lenity* be abated.

The old imprison'd king,  
 : *lenity* first pleas'd the gaping crowd.

*Dryden.*  
**LERU**, a town of Persia, in Ghilan.  
**LERE**, a small town in Hertfordshire.  
**LE**, a river of Germany, which rises near  
 , and falls into the Roer, 2 miles W. of

**LEP**, a town of Westphalia, in the duchy  
 20 miles ESE. of Dusseldorf.

**LENAPEN.** See DELAWARES.  
**LENO**, a town of the Italian republic, in the  
 e Mella, and district (late prov.) of Bres-  
 300 citizens, in 1797.

**LENOX**, or **DUNBARTON-SHIRE**, a coun-  
 and, 24 miles long, and 20 broad, bound-  
 S. by the river and frith of Clyde; on  
 Lochlong and Argyleshire; on the N.  
 mpians, and on the E. by Monteith and

Great part of it is fit for nothing  
 age and sport; even in the lower lands,  
 not very fertile; yet the face of the  
 agreeably diversified with hills, dales,  
 heath, rivulets, rivers, lakes, woods,  
 orn, and gentlemen's seats and planta-  
 t of it is washed by the Clyde, which,  
 e of Dunbarton, is two miles broad at  
 it continues extending in width and  
 it joins the ocean. From the mouth  
 e, the two bays of Lochlong and Loch-  
 ige indentations in the county. The  
 any consideration that runs through  
 is the Leven. See LEVEN. But the  
 osity of this county is LOCH-LOMOND,  
 of fresh water, supplied by subterra-  
 and rivulets, surrounded with huge  
 extending 25 miles in length, and in  
 5 in breadth, incredibly deep in every  
 rked with 24 verdant isles, some of  
 cked with red deer, and inhabited.  
 e more wildly romantic than this  
 ountry during summer, on the S. side  
**L. PARLI.**

of the lake: the high road runs in some places  
 through natural woods; overhung, on one hand,  
 by steep mountains, covered with flowery heath;  
 and on the other opening in long vistas upon the  
 lake, terminated by green islands that seem to  
 float upon the water. Among the rivers of this  
 county, we must not omit the BLANE, which,  
 though an inconsiderable stream, hath been ren-  
 dered famous by the birth of George Buchanan,  
 the celebrated Latin poet and historian, on its  
 banks. (See BUCHANAN, N<sup>o</sup> 2.) Near his birth-  
 place, (which, however, lies in Stirlingshire, see  
 KILLEARN,) is BUCHANAN HOUSE, an elegant  
 seat belonging to the duke of Montrose, head of  
 the noble family of GRAHAM, so often distinguish-  
 ed by its loyalty, integrity, and valour. The same  
 part of the country gave birth to the great mathe-  
 matician and naturalist, NAPIER, Lord Merchif-  
 ton, inventor of the logarithms. The title of *Le-*  
*nox*, with the property of great part of the shire,  
 was formerly vested in a branch of the royal fami-  
 ly of Stuart, with which it was reunited in the  
 person of K. James VI. whose father, Henry Lord  
 Darnley, was son to the E. of LENOX. This prince  
 conferred the title upon his kinsman Eime Stuart,  
 son of John Lord of Aubigny in France: but, his  
 race failing at the death of Charles duke of Lenox  
 and Richmond, and the estate devolving to the  
 crown, Charles II. conferred both titles on his  
 own natural son by the duchess of Portsmouth;  
 and they are still enjoyed by his posterity. The  
 people of Lennox are chiefly Lowlanders, though  
 in some parts of it divine service is performed in  
 the Eise language. The most numerous clans in  
 this district, are the Macfarlanes, the Colquhouns,  
 and the Buchanans. They generally profess the  
 Protestant faith, according to the Presbyterian  
 discipline; though some of the gentry follow the  
 English ritual. The people are sober, honest, and  
 industrious; and though they live poorly, are tall,  
 vigorous, and healthy.

(2.) **LENNOX**, a town of Massachusetts, the cap-  
 ital of Berkshire: 145 miles from Boston.

**LENOIR**, a county of N. Carolina, in New-  
 bern district, bounded N. by Glasgow; E. by Cra-  
 ven; S. by Jones, and SW. by Dauphine: contain-  
 ing 2484 citizens and 957 slaves, in 1795. King-  
 ston is the capital.

**LENONCOURT**, a town of France, in the dep.  
 of Meurthe, 4½ miles ESE. of Nancy, and 7½ NW.  
 of Lunéville.

**LENOX.** See LENNOX.

(1.) \* **LENS.** *n. f.* From resemblance to the seed  
 of a lentil.—A glass spherically convex on both  
 sides, is usually called a *lens*; such as is a burn-  
 ing-glass or spectacle-glass, or an object glass of a  
 telescope. *Newton.*—According to the difference  
 of the *lenses*, I used various distances. *Newton.*

(2.) **A LENS**, is a piece of glass, or any other  
 transparent substance, the surfaces of which are so  
 formed, that the rays of light, by passing through  
 it, are made to change their direction, either tend-  
 ing to meet in a point beyond the lens, or made to  
 become parallel after converging or diverging; or  
 proceeding as if they had issued from a point be-  
 fore they fell upon the lens.

(3.) **LENS**, in geography, a town of France, in  
 the dep. of the Straits of Calais and ci-devant prov.

of Artois; built in 1208, by Baldwin E. of Flanders and Artois. In 1553, it was taken and burnt by the French; in 1582, it was pillaged by the garrison of Cambrai; in 1648, it was taken by the Spaniards; but retaken by the Pr. of Condé; and in 1658, it was confirmed to the French by the peace of the Pyrenees. It is  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles NW. of Douay, and 95 NE. of Paris. Lon. 3. 5. E. Lat. 50. 26. N.

**LENSWYCK** a town of Norway.

(1.) \* **LENT**. *n. f.* [*lenten*, the Spring, Saxon.] The quadragesimal fast; a time of abstinence; the time from Ash Wednesday to Easter.—*Lent* is from springing, because it falleth in the Spring; for which our progenitors, the Germans, use *glent*. *Camden*.

(2.) **LENT** is a solemn time of fasting in the Christian church. Those of the Romish church, and some of the Protestant communion, maintain, that it was always a fast of 40 days, and, as such, of apostolical institution. Others think it was only of ecclesiastical institution, and that it was variously observed in different churches, and grew by degrees from a fast of 40 hours to a fast of 40 days. This is the opinion of Morton, Bp. Taylor, Du Moulin, Daillé, and others. The ancient manner of observing lent, among those who were piously disposed, was to abstain from food till evening: their only refreshment was a supper; and it was indifferent whether it was flesh or any other food, provided it was used with sobriety and moderation. Lent was thought the proper time for exercising, more abundantly, every species of charity. Thus what they spared from their own bodies by abridging them of a meal, was usually given to the poor; they employed their vacant hours in visiting the sick, and those that were in prison; in entertaining strangers, and reconciling differences. The imperial laws forbid all prosecution of men in criminal actions, that might bring them to corporal punishment and torture, during the whole season. This was a time of more than ordinary strictness and devotion, and therefore in many of the great churches they had religious assemblies for prayer and preaching every day. All public games and stage plays were prohibited; as well as the celebration of all festivals, birth-days, and marriages, as unsuitable to the occasion. The Christians of the Greek church observe 4 lents: the first commences on 15th of Nov. the 2d is the same with that of the church of England; the 3d. begins the week after Whitfuntide, and continues till the festival of St Peter and St Paul; and the 4th commences on the 1st of August, and lasts till the 15th. All these lents are observed with great strictness; but on Saturdays and Sundays they drink wine and use oil, which are prohibited on other days.

**LENTA**, a river of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra.

**LENTA**, a town of Germany, in Holstein.

**LENTELLA**, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra; 18 miles NE. of Civita Borella.

(1.) \* **LENTEN**. *adj.* [from *lent*.] Such as is used in lent; sparing.—My lord, if you delight not in man, what *lenten* entertainment the players shall receive from you. *Shak.*—

She quench'd her fury at the flood,

And with a *lenten* fallad cool'd her blood. *Dryd.*

(2.) **LENTEN**, a town of Norway, 20 miles N. of Berga.

\* **LENTICULAR**. *adj.* [*lenticulaire*, French] Doubly convex; of the form of a lens.—The crystalline humour is of a lenticular figure, convex on both sides. *Ray.*

\* **LENTIFORM**. *adj.* [*lens* and *forma*, Latin] Having the form of a lens.

\* **LENTIGINOUS**. *adj.* [from *lentigo*.] Scurfy; furfuraceous.

\* **LENTIGO**. [Latin.] A freckle or scurfy eruption upon the skin; such especially as is common to women in child-bearing. *Quincy.*

(1.) \* **LENTIL**. *n. f.* [*lens*, Latin; *lentille*, French] A plant.—It hath a papilionaceous flower, the point of which becomes a short pod, containing orbicular seeds, for the most part convex; the leaves are conjugated, growing to one middle and are terminated by tendrils. *Miller.*—The Philistines were gathered together, where was a piece of ground full of lentiles. 2 Sam. xxiii. 11.

(2.) **LENTIL**. In botany. See **ERVUM**.

(1.) **LENTINI**, a river of Sicily, in the valley of Noto, anciently called **TERIAS**. It runs into the Adriatic, 5 miles below the town, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

(2.) **LENTINI**, a town of Sicily, seated on the above river, anciently called **LEONTIUM**. It was almost destroyed by an earthquake, in 1609. It lies 10 miles NW. of Augusta, 17 SW. of Catania, and 19 NW. of Syracuse. Lon. 31. 41. Ferro. Lat. 37. 18. N.

(1.) \* **LENTISCK**. *n. f.* [*lentiscus*, Latin; *l'isque*, French.]—*Lentisc* wood is of a pale brown almost whitish, resinous, fragrant, and acrid: it is the tree which produces mastic, esteemed elegant and balsamick. *Hill.*—*Lentisc* is a beautiful evergreen, the mastic or gum of which is used for the teeth or gums. *Mortimer.*

(2.) **LENTISCK**, in botany. See **PISTACIA**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

(3.) **LENTISCK**, AFRICAN, } in botany. N<sup>o</sup> 3.

(4.) **LENTISCK**, PERUVIAN, } **SCHINUS**.

**LENTISCOSA**, a town of Naples, in Principato Citra; 9 miles SW. of Policastro.

\* **LENTITUDE**. *n. f.* [from *lentus*, Latin] Sluggishness; slowness. *Diſt.*

(1.) \* **LENTNER**. *n. f.* A kind of hawk—should enlarge my discourse to the observation of the haggard, and the two sorts of *lentners*. *Walt.*

(2.) **LENTNER**. See **FALCO**, N<sup>o</sup> 32.

**LENTO**, a town of the French republic, the island and dep. of Corfica; 11 m. S. of Ota.

**LENTON**, a town of Nottinghamshire, on the L. N. It has a fair for 7 days after Whitfuntide and a horse fair in November.

\* **LENTOR**. *n. f.* [*lentor*, Latin; *lenteur*, French] 1. Tenacity; viscosity.—Some bodies have a kind of *lentor*, and more depeccible nature than other. *Eacon.* 2. Slowness; delay; sluggish coldness.—The *lentor* or eruptions, not inflammatory, pass to an acid cause. *Arbutnot.* 3. [In physics] That fizy, viscid, coagulated part of the blood which, in malignant fevers, obstructs the capillary vessels. *Quincy.*

\* **LENTOUS**. *adj.* [*lentus*, Latin] Viscous; mucous; capable to be drawn out.—In this part of a *lentous* and transparent body, are to be discerned many specks which become black, a

are compacted and terrestrial than the  
it is rich not in distillation. *Brown.*

**STULUS**, the surname of a branch of  
ELIAN family at Rome which produced  
at men during the republic. See **ROME**.  
**STULUS**, Cneius Cornelius, surnamed  
was consul A. D. 26, and was also a  
tters. He wrote a history, mentioned  
ius, and Martial says he was a poet;  
orks are lost. He was put to death by  
who was jealous of his popularity.

**Z.**, a town of Prussia, in Marienburg.  
**ZBURG**, a town and extensive late  
of Helvetia, in the canton of Berne.

**ZEN**, a town of Saxony, in Prenzitz.

**ZIER**, a town of S. Walks, in Glamor-

It has a fair Oct. 10.  
**BURG**, a town of the Helvetic republic,  
one of the 4 municipal towns in the  
mous for its manufactures of flowered  
itons, &c. 16 miles W. of Zurich, and  
Berne.

**O**, in astronomy, the 5th sign of the  
See **ASTRONOMY**, § 548.

**o**, in zoology. See **FELIS**. N<sup>o</sup> VIII.

**o**, a native of Byzantium, who flourish-  
A. A. C. 350, and wrote some treatises  
and history, which are lost. His philo-  
sophy and political abilities, while  
used him to his countrymen, who em-  
as ambassador to Athens, Macedonia;  
ir most important business, excited the  
Philip III. of Macedonia; who saw his  
designs would be frustrated while such a  
triot lived. He therefore got a letter  
zo's name, offering to betray Byzan-  
K. of Persia, which produced the de-  
ous effect. The mob ran enraged to  
of the philosopher, who to avoid their  
himself.

**LEO**, the name of 6 emperors of the  
ing taken little notice of them in our  
tory of **CONSTANTINOPLE**, we shall  
brief biographical sketch of them.

Thracian, succeeded the emperor Mar-  
157: renewed the war with the Van-  
as unsuccessful, through the treachery  
ral Aspar, whom he put to death in  
he Goths, under pretence of reven-  
ath, ravaged the empire. Leo died

ie son of Zeno, by Ariadne daughter  
succeeded his grandfather, in 474; but  
d his health by debauchery, died the  
nd was succeeded by his father.

*he Isaurian*, was the son of a poor me-  
ntering the army, became one of the  
o Justinian II; and was made a general  
II. who, in 717, made him his col-  
empire. The Saracens having ravaged  
ged Constantinople, but Leo bravely  
and repulsed them. After this he  
nt, and burnt the library of Con-  
ontaining above 30,000 volumes, be-  
antiquity of medals and other antiqui-  
d in 741, and was succeeded by his  
ic V.

**LEO IV.** succeeded his father Constantine V. in  
775, and repulsed the Saracens in Asia. In his  
time the great controversy raged about images.  
See **ICONOCLASTÆ**. He died in 780, and was suc-  
ceeded by his son Constantine VI. whom he had  
associated in 776.

**LEO V.** *the Armenian*, rose to the rank of ge-  
neral by his valour, but was banished by the em-  
peror Nicephorus I. Michael I. recalled him in  
811, for which Leo showed his gratitude, by de-  
throning him in 813. He died detested for cruel-  
ty, in 820.

**LEO VI.** surnamed *the Philosopher*, the son of  
**BASIL I.** was associated by his father in 876, and  
succeeded him in 878. The Saracens, Bulgari-  
ans, and Hungarians having united against him,  
he imprudently called the Turks to his aid, who  
ravaged Bulgaria with fire and sword. He drove  
out and deposed the patriarchs Phocas and Ni-  
cholas; and died in 911. He wrote several books;  
the principal of which is a *Treatise on Tactics*;  
printed at Leyden in 1612.

(10—20.) **LEO** is also the name, real or assum-  
ed, of 11 popes of Rome. The transactions of se-  
veral of these are mentioned under the articles,  
**FRANCE**, § 15; **HISTORY Part II. Sect. IV.**; **I-**  
**TALY**, § 18, 20, &c. Only two of them are re-  
corded as authors, viz.

**LEO, I.** surnamed the **GRAT**, an Italian, who  
succeeded Sextus III. in 440. He showed great  
zeal against the Manichees and other heretics.  
His works amount to 3 vols folio. He died in 461.

**LEO X.** whose proper name was *John de Me-*  
*dicis*, is ever to be remembered by Protestants, as  
having proved the cause of the reformation, be-  
gun by Martin Luther. He was made a cardinal  
at 14 years of age, and some years after a legate,  
by Julius II. He was in that quality in the ar-  
my, which was defeated by the French near Ra-  
venna, in 1512, where he was taken prisoner. The  
soldiers, who took him, humbly asked his pardon  
for gaining the victory, besought him to give them  
absolution for it, and promised never to bear arms  
against the pope. When Julius died, Medicis was  
very ill of the venereal disease at Florence, and  
was carried to Rome in a litter. Hurrying about  
every night to the cardinals of his faction, his  
ulcer broke, and the matter which ran from it  
exhaled such a stench, that all the air in the con-  
clave was poisoned by it. Upon this the cardi-  
nals consulted the physicians, to know what the  
matter was. They, being bribed, said the car-  
dinal de Medicis could not live a month; which  
occasioned his being chosen pope. Thus cardinal  
de Medicis, then not 30 years of age, was elected  
pope; in consequence of his debaucheries, upon a  
false information; and as joy is a sovereign re-  
medy, he soon recovered his health. He was bet-  
ter calculated for a temporal than a spiritual  
prince, being ambitious, politic, luxurious, a cor-  
noisseur in the fine arts, and an accomplished fine  
gentleman: Thus qualified, it is no wonder that,  
neglecting the true interest of his church, he  
should avail himself of the folly of religious dupes,  
and publicly sell indulgences to support hi-  
prodigality; especially as he was known to disbelieve  
Christianity itself, which he called *A very profit-*  
*able*

able *suble* for him and his predecessors. In 1517, he published general indulgences throughout Europe (and ordered the priests to recommend them) in favour of those who would contribute any sum towards completing the church of St Peter; and thus paved the way for the reformation. (See INDULGENCE and LUTHER. Leo died in 1521, aged 45. It is but justice to add, that to this pope was principally owing the revival of literature in Italy. He spared neither pains nor expence to recover ancient MSS. and procure good editions of them; he favoured the arts and sciences; and gloried in being the patron of learned and ingenious men, who in return have been very lavish in his praise, particularly Mr Pope in his *essay on Criticism* :

But see! each Muse in Leo's golden days,  
Starts from her trance; and trims her wither'd  
bays, &c.

(21.) LEO, Abp. of Thessalonica, one of the revivers of Grecian literature, flourished in the 9th cent. y. and was deeply skilled in mathematics.

(22.) LEO ALLATIUS. See ALLATIUS.

(23.) LEO OF MODENA, a learned rabbi of Venice, who flourished in the 17th century. He wrote a history of the Jewish Rites and Ceremonies; and compiled a Hebrew and Italian dictionary.

(24.) LEO PILATUS, the first professor of Greek at Florence, about A.D. 1360. He was a man of great erudition; and went to Constantinople to procure MSS. but was shipwrecked on his return to Italy, in the Adriatic.

(25.) LEO, ST, a small but strong town of Italy, in the territory of the church, and duchy of Urbino, with a bishop's see. It is seated on a mountain, near the Marrechia. Lon. 12. 25. E. Lat. 43. 57. N.

LEOBEN, a town of Stiria, on the Muchr, 68 miles SW. of Vienna. At this town the preliminaries of peace between the emperor and the French republic, were agreed to, on the 20th April 1797.

LEOBSCHEZ, a town of Silesia, which was mostly burnt in 1603, and suffered much by the wars in 1626-7, 1634 and 1642. It is 27 miles WNW. of Ratibon.

LEOCATA. See ALICATA, N° 2.

(1.) LEOCHEL, [or *Leath-chuil*, Celt. *i. e.* the half of *Coul*] a hilly parish of Aberdeenshire, so named from part of the parish of Coul being annexed to it. It is an acute-angled triangle, with the acute angle to the E. 5 miles long and 4 broad. The climate is healthy and the soil fertile, tho' late, producing corn, bear, pease, and potatoes; but the old husbandry prevails. The population, in 1791, was 571; decrease since 1755, 215: number of sheep, 1300; horses 140; swine 40, and black cattle 800. About 200 acres are under wood. The chief manufacture is worsted stockings.

(2.) LEOCHEL, a river in the above parish, formed of 3 rivulets. It abounds with trouts and salmon; and runs into the Don below the church of Alford, 27 miles W. of Aberdeen.

(3.) LEOCHEL, a town of Aberdeenshire, 6 miles NN.W. of Kincardine O'Neil.

\* LEOID. *n. f.* *Leod* signifies the people; or, rather, a nation, country, &c. Thus *Leod* is

one of great interest with the people or nation of *Gibson*.

\* LEOF. *n. f.* *Leof* denotes love; so *leofwin* a winner of love; *leofstan*, best beloved; like the Agapetus, Erasmus, Philo, Amandus, &c. *Gibson*.

LEOGANE, a town of Hispaniola, seated in beautiful plain, on the W. side of the island. It was taken by the British in 1793, but retaken the 21st Oct. 1794, by the French and negroes (See HISPANIOLA, § 4.) In the beginning of 1800 it was totally burnt, by Toussaint Louverture's troops under Gen. Desalines, soon after the landing of the French under Gen. Leclerc.

(1.) LEOMINSTER, a large and populous borough of Herefordshire, seated on the Lug, which waters the N. and E. sides of it, and over which it has several bridges. It is a great thoroughfare betwixt S. Wales and London. In King John's reign it was burnt, but soon rebuilt. It was incorporated by Q. Mary I. and is governed by high steward, bailiff, recorder, 12 burgesses, and a town clerk. Its market is on Friday, and fairs, which are noted for horses and black cat, on February 13th, Tuesday after Midlent Sunday, May 13th, July 10th, Sept. 4th, and Nov. 2. It is noted for the best flax, wheat, barley, & bread. The inhabitants drive a considerable trade in wool, gloves, leather, hats, &c. and they have mills and other machines on the river. Near the church are some remains of its ancient priory. It has several good inns, and sends two members to parliament. It lies 26 miles W. by N. of Worcester and 137 WNW. of London. Lon. 2. 35. Lat. 52. 20. N.

(2.) LEOMINSTER, a town of Massachusetts, Worcester county; 46 miles W. of Boston; containing 1189 citizens in 1795. It has a post-office, and 8 mills; and carries on various manufactures of cloth, bricks, combs, &c.

(3.) LEON, Peter Cicca DE, author of the history of Peru. He left Spain, his native country at 13 years of age, to go into America, where he resided 17 years; and observed so many remarkable things, that he resolved to commit them to writing. The first part of his history was printed at Seville in 1553. He began it in 1541, and ended it in 1550. He was at Lima, the capital of the kingdom of Peru, when he gave the smallpox to it, and was then 32 years of age.

(4.) LEON, in geography, an ancient town of France, in the dep. of Finisterre, and chief province of Lower Bretagne, late capital of Leonnois; seated near the sea. Lon. 3. 55. Lat. 48. 41. N.

(5.) LEON, a province of Spain, anciently a kingdom; bounded on the N. by Asturias; on the E. by Galicia and Portugal; and on the S. and W. by Estremadura and Castile. It is about 125 miles long, 100 broad, and is divided into two almost equal parts by the Duero. It produces all the necessaries of life, and was the first Christian kingdom in Spain.

(6.) LEON, an ancient and large episcopal see, capital of the above kingdom, (N° 5.) built by the Romans in the time of Galba. It has the finest cathedral in all Spain. It was formerly more extensive and populous than at present, though it still contains about 1200 people. It is seated betwixt

rees of the river Egra, 150 miles NW. of Lon. 5. 31. W. Lat. 42. 25. N.

LEON, a town of the French republic, in Piedmontese, 4 miles N. of Savigliano and of Cherasco.

LEON, an island of Spain, in the Atlantic, and from the continent by a narrow strait; 12 miles long, and not quite 3 broad. The city 12 stands on its NW. extremity.

LEON, a town of Mexico, in Guadalajara; 5 E. of Guadalajara.

LEON DE CARACCAS. See CARACCAS, N° 2.

LEON DE GUANUCO. See GUANUCO.

LEON DE NICARAGUA, a town of New capital of the prov. of Nicaragua; the residence of the governor, and a bishop's see. It contains about 1200 houses, and has several monasteries and nunneries. At one end of the town the sea which ebbs and flows like the sea. It is at the foot of a volcano, which renders it subject to earthquakes. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1685, in fight of a Spanish army who killed 1000 of the Indians. Lon. 86. 10. W. Lat. 12. 25. N.

LEON, NEW, a populous province of N. America, in New Spain; bounded on the E. and W. by New Biscay; and N. by the country of the Aboriginal Indians. The chief cities are Monclova, St. Jago, Comargo, and St. Leon. The interior parts are full of mountains containing rich mines.

LEONARD, ST, a town of Austria, 6 miles N. of Waidthoven in Bavaria.

LEONARD, ST, two towns of France: 1. In the dep. of Vosges, 4½ miles S. of St. Die; 2. In the dep. of Upper Vienne; 10½ miles E. of Limoges.

LEONARD, ST, a town of Stiria.

LEONARD, ST, DE RACHEL, a town of the dep. of the North; 4 miles NE. of Valenciennes.

LEONARD, ST, DES BOIS, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine; 9 miles SW. of Alençon.

LEONARD, ST, LE NOBLET, an ancient town of France, in the dept. of Upper Vienne, and late of Guienne and territory of Limosin, with a considerable manufactory of cloths and paper. It is situated on the Vienne, 12 miles NE. of Limoges and 195 S. of Paris. Lon. 1. 35. E. Lat. 46. 5.

LEONARDO DA VINCI. See VINCI.

LEONARDO, ST; a town of Spain, in Old Castile, 11 miles N. of Oñate.

LEONARD'S HILL, ST, a hill of Mid Lothian, 1½ miles E. by S. of Edinburgh, near Arden and Salisbury Crags.

LEONARD'S TOWN, a post town of Maryland, in St. Mary's County; 113 miles S. of Baltimore and 217 SW. of Philadelphia.

LEONATUS, one of Alexander the Great's officers, who saved his life in India. (See INDIA.) After that monarch's death he got that country, which borders on the Hellespont, killed in battle, when assisting Antipater against the Athenians.

LEONBERG, a town of Suabia, in the duchy of Württemberg, 6 miles W. of Stuttgart.

LEONATIUS, John, one of the most learned men of the 16th century, was a native of Westphalia; he travelled into Turkey, and collected

excellent materials for composing *The Ottoman history*; and it is to him the public is indebted for the best account we have of that empire. To his knowledge in the learned languages, he had added that of the civil law; whereby he was very well qualified to translate the *Basilica*. His other works were esteemed. He died in 1593, aged 60.

LEONE, CAPE, or CAPE LEON, a cape on the coast of Greece, in the Gulf of Engia; 8 miles WSW. of Athens. It was anciently called *Artemisium*. See ARTEMISIUM, N° 1.

LEONESSA, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra, 19 miles NW. of Aquila.

LEONHARD, or } ST, a town of Carinthia,

(1.) LEONHART, } on the Levant, 104 miles WSW. of Vienna, and 42 E. of Clagenfurt. Lon. 15. 23. E. Lat. 46. 57. N.

(2.) LEONHART, ST, or ST LEONHARDT, a town of Austria, 10 miles SW. of St. Polten.

(1.) LEONI, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Principato Ultra; 12 miles W. of Conza.

(2.) LEONI, Giacomo, or James, a Venetian Nobleman, who settled in England, and published a fine edition of Palladio's works in folio, 1742. He died in 1742.

LEONICENUS, Nicolas, an eminent Italian physician, born in 1428. He was professor of Medicine at Ferrara, for above 60 years. He was the first who translated Galen's works, which he illustrated with commentaries. He also translated Hippocrates's Aphorisms, and the works of Lucian and Dion Cassius into Italian; and wrote *De Plinii and Plurium medicorum in medicina aliorum erroribus*. He died in 1524, aged 96.

LEONIDAS I, king of Sparta, a renowned warrior, slain in defending the straits of Thermopylae against Xerxes, 480 B. C. See SPARTA. There were other two Spartan kings of this name.

(1.) \* LEONINE, *adj.* [*Leonus*, Latin.] 1. Belonging to a lion; having the nature of a lion. 2. Leonine verses are those of which the end rhymes to the middle, so named from *Leo* the inventor: as, *Gloria facturum tenere conc ditur horum.*

(2.) LEONINE VERSES (§ 1, *def.* 2.) were much used in ancient hymns, epigrams, prophecies, &c. The origin of the word is uncertain: Pasquier derives it from one LEONINUS or *Leontius*, who excelled in this way; and dedicated several pieces to Pope Alexander III.; others derive it from Pope Leo; and others from *Leo*, the lion, esteeming it the loftiest of all verses, as the lion is styled the king of beasts.

LEONINUS. See last article, § 2.

LEONS, ST, a town of France, in the département of Aveiron, 18 miles ESE. of Rhodéz.

LEONSBERG. See LEONBERG.

LEONSPERG, a fort of Lower Bavaria, 5 miles N. of Dingeltingen.

LEONTARI, a town of European Turkey, in the Morea, 20 miles NW. of Mityla.

LEONTEUKA, a town of Russian Novgorod.

LEONTICA, feasts or sacrifices celebrated among the ancients in honour of the sun. They were called *Leontica*, and the priests who officiated at them *Leones*, because they represented the sun under the figure of a lion radiant, bearing a tiara, and gripping in his two fore-paws the horns of a bull, who struggled with him in vain to dis-



**LEPIDIUM LATIPOLIUM**, or the common **DITTANY**. It is a native of both Scotland and England. It hath small, white, creeping roots, by which it multiplies very fast, and is difficult to be eradicated after it has long grown in any place. The stalks are smooth, rise two feet high, and send out many side branches. The flowers grow in close bunches towards the top of the branches, coming out from the side; they are small, and composed of 4 small white petals. The seeds ripen in autumn. The whole plant has a hot biting taste like pepper; and the leaves have been often used by the country people to give a relish to their viands instead of that spice, whence the plant has got the appellation of *poor man's pepper*. It is reckoned an antiscorbutic, and was formerly used instead of the *horse radish scurvy-grass*.

**LEPIDOPTERA**, in zoology, an order of insects, with 4 wings, covered with imbricated squamulae. See **ENTOMOLOGY**, Sect. V.

**LEPIDUS**, M. Æmilius, one of the triumvirs, with Antony and Octavius. (See **ROME**.) He was forced to resign by Augustus, and died in obscurity at Cerchi; A. A. C. 13.

**LEPISMA**, in zoology; a genus of apterous insects, the characters of which are these: They have six feet formed for running; the mouth is furnished with 4 palpi, two of which are cetaceous and two capitated; the tail is terminated by extended bristles, and the body imbricated with scales. There are 7 species.

**LEPISMA SACCHARINA**, (Plate 199.) is an American species, so called because mostly found among sugar; but is now common in Europe. It is of a leaden colour, rather inclining to that of silver, by the small silvery scales with which it is covered; in which circumstance it resembles the silver fish, especially in its under part. It is found in gardens, under boxes, and in the crevices of window-sashes in houses, where it is very common. It runs with great swiftness, and is difficult to catch. When touched, it loses part of its scales, and its softness makes it easy to crush.

**LEPITHUS**. See **LAPATHUS**.

**LEPIUM**, in natural history, a genus of fossils of the harder gypsum, composed of very small particles, and of a less glittering hue. There is only one species of this genus, being one of the least valuable and most impure of the class of gypsums. It is of an extremely rude, irregular, coarse, and unequal structure; a little soft to the touch, of a very dull appearance, and of different degrees of a greyish white. It is burnt in plaster for the coarser works; it calcines very slowly and unequally, and makes but a very coarse plaster.

\* **LEPORINE**. *adj.* [*leporinus*, Lat.] Belonging to a hare; having the nature of hare.

**LEPPERSTOWN**, a town of Ireland, in the county of Waterford, Munster.

\* **LEPROSITY**. *n. f.* [from *leprous*.] Squamous disease.—If the crudities, impurities, and *leprositics* of metals were cured, they would become gold. *Bacon*.

(1.) \* **LEPROSY**. *n. f.* [*Ulcra*, Latin; *lepre*, Fr.] A loathsome distemper, which covers the body with a kind of white scales.—

So all the Athenian boys, and all  
Be general leprosy.

—It is a plague of *leprosy*. *Lev.* xiii. between the malice of my enemies and mens mistakes, I put as great a difference between the itch of novelty and the *leprosy*. *King Charles*.—Authors, upon the trance of the pox, looked upon it so heinous, that they ran away from it as much as Jews did from the *leprosy*. *Wijeman*.

(2.) *The* **LEPROSY** is a foul cutaneous appearing in dry, white, thin, scurfy scabs on the whole body, or part of it, and attended with a violent itching and of **See** **MEDICINE**, *Index*. The leprosy is of several kinds, but the Jews were particularly that called **ELEPHANTIASIS**. The Jews excluded all lepers from communion of kind, without excepting even kings. Solemn ceremonies were ordained to be performed by them after they were cleansed, prior to their re-admission into society. *See* **Lev.**—*59.* xiv. 1, —57.

\* **LEPROUS**. *adj.* [*Ulcra*, Lat. *lepro*] Infected with a leprosy.—

The silly amorous sucks his death,  
By drawing in a leprous harlot's breath.

**LEPSINA**, a town of Turkey in Livania.

**LEPTODECORHOMBES**, in natural history, a genus of fossils of the order of the selenitic, consisting of 10 planes, each so nearly equal opposite to it as very much to approach a caedral parallelipiped, though never regularly so. There are only five known, viz. 1. A thin, fine, pellucid, and slender kind, with transverse striae, found in considerable quantities in the strata of clay in Northamptonshire, particularly near Heddingfordshire. 2. A thin, dull-looking, opaque, slender-streaked sort, more scarce, found in Leicestershire and Staffordshire. 3. A thin fine-streaked species, with longitudinal striae, found in the clay pits at Richmond, at great depths. This has often on its top surface a very elegant smaller rhomboid, by 4 regular lines. 4. A rough kind, with transverse striae, and a scabrous surface, common in Leicestershire and Yorkshire. A very short kind, with thick plates, common in the clay-pits of Northamptonshire and Leicestershire.

**LEPTOROLYGINGLYMI**, in natural history, a genus of fossil shells, distinguished by the presence of minute teeth at the cardo; when numbers are found at Harwich cliffs, and in the marble pits of Sussex.

**LEPTUM**, in antiquity, a small piece of money, which, according to some, was only part of an obolus; but others will have it silver or brass drachm.

**LEPTURA**, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of coleoptera, the characters of which are these: The scutellum and the elytra are attenuated towards the apex, the thorax is somewhat cylindrical. There are 25 species, principally distinguished by their colours. *See* *Plate 198, fig. 7.*

(1.) **LEPUS**, the **PARA**, in astronomy,

the southern hemisphere. See ASTRO-  
18.

is, the HARE, in zoology, a genus of  
lia class of quadrupeds, and order of  
: characters are these: They have two  
each jaw; those in the upper jaw are  
: interior ones being smallest. The  
re 5 toes each, and the hind feet 4. See  
Dr Gmelin and Mr Kerr enumerate 15  
8 varieties.

ALPINUS, the *Mountain hare*, or *Al-*  
has short, broad, rounded ears; no  
head, and very long whiskers, with  
13 hairs above each eye: the colour of  
e bottom is dusky, towards the ends  
erruginous colour; the tips white, and  
are several long dusky hairs, though  
:ction the whole seems of a bright bay.  
of the animal is 9 inches. This spec-  
een on the Altaic chain; extends to  
thence to Kamtschatka; and is found  
lands. They inhabit always the mid-  
f the snowy mountains, in the rudest  
ded, and abounding with herbs and  
hey sometimes form burrows between  
id often lodge in the crevices. They  
r found in pairs: but in cloudy wea-  
llect together, and lie on the rocks,  
een whistle, very like that of a spar-  
e report of a gun, they run into their  
oon come out again. By wonderful  
provide against the rigorous season.  
of them, toward autumn, collect to-  
eaps of herbs and grasses, nicely dried,  
place either beneath the over-hanging  
een the chasms, or round the trunks of  
ny places the herbs appear scattered,  
ried in the sun. The heaps are form-  
or conoid ricks; and are of various  
ling to the number of the society em-  
rming them. They are sometimes of  
ght, and many feet in diameter, but  
t 3 feet. Without this provision of  
k they would perish during the storms  
hey select the best of vegetables, and  
hen in the fullest vigour, which they  
xcellent hay, by drying it. These  
n fertility amidst the rocks; for the  
ked with the dung of the animal, rot  
a chasms, and form a soil productive  
s. These ricks are also of great ser-  
people who hunt fables; for their  
l often perish, if they had not the pro-  
se little industrious animals to support  
h is easily to be discovered by their  
orm, even when covered with snow.  
of Jakutz feed both their horses and  
he reliques of the winter stock of these  
se animals are neglected as a food by  
it are the prey of fables and the Sil-

They are likewise greatly infested  
of gad fly, which lodges its egg in  
August and September, which often  
ictive to them.

AMERICANUS, the *American hare*, or  
as the ears tipped with grey: the upper  
tail is black, the lower white: the  
dy are mixed with cinereous, rust col-

our, and black; the legs are of a pale ferruginous  
colour; and the belly is white: the fore legs are  
shorter, and the hind legs longer, in proportion,  
than those of the common hare. It is 18 inches  
long, and weighs from 3 to 4½ lb. This species  
inhabits all parts of North America. In New Jer-  
sey, and the states S. of it, it retains its colour the  
whole year. In New England, Canada, and about  
Hudson's Bay, at the approach of winter, it changes  
its short summer's fur for one very long, silky,  
and silvery, even to the roots of the hairs; the ed-  
ges of the ears only preserving their colour. These  
hares are then in the highest season for the table;  
and are of vast use to those who winter in Hudson's  
Bay, where they are taken in great abundance in  
springs made of brass wire, to which they are led  
by a hedge made for that purpose, with holes left  
before the snares for the hares to pass through.—  
They breed once or twice a-year, and have from  
5 to 7 at a time. They do not migrate, but al-  
ways haunt the same places: neither do they bur-  
row, but lodge under fallen timber, and in hol-  
low trees. They breed in the grass; but in spring  
shelter their young in the trees, to which they al-  
so run when pursued; from which, in the southern  
states, the hunters force them by a hooked stick,  
or by making a fire, and driving them out by the  
smoke.

3. LEPUS BRASILIENSIS, the *Brazilian hare*,  
has very large ears, no tail, and generally a white  
ring round the neck. It is of the size and colour  
of a common hare, (See N° 21.) but resembles the  
rabbit in general appearance. It inhabits the  
woods in S. America and Mexico.

4. LEPUS CAPENSIS, the *Cape hare*, has long  
ears dilated in the middle; the outsidcs naked,  
and of a rose colour, the inside and edges covered  
with short grey hairs: the crown and back are of  
a dusky colour, mixed with tawny; the cheeks  
and sides cinereous; the breast, belly, and legs,  
rust-coloured: the tail is bushy, carried upwards;  
and of a pale ferruginous colour. This species is  
about the size of a rabbit. It inhabits the country  
3 days journey N. of the Cape of Good Hope;  
where it is called the *mountain hare*, for it lives  
only in the rocky mountains, and does not bur-  
row. It is difficult to shoot it, as, on the sight of  
any one, it instantly runs into the fissures of the  
rocks.

5. LEPUS CUNICULUS, the common RABBIT, has  
a very short tail, and naked ears. The colour of the  
fur, in a wild state, is brown; the tail black above,  
white beneath: in a tame state the general colour  
varies; and the eyes are of a fire red. The orig-  
inal native country of this species is Spain, where  
they were formerly taken with ferrets, as is now  
practised here. They love a temperate or warm  
climate, and are incapable of bearing great cold:  
In Sweden they are kept in houses. They abound  
in Britain. Their furs make a considerable article  
in the hat manufactories; and of late such part of  
the fur as is unfit for that purpose, has been found  
as good as feathers for stuffing beds and bolsters.  
Numbers of the skins are annually exported to  
China. The English counties most noted for rab-  
bits are Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and Cambridge-  
shire. Methwold is famous for the best kind for  
the table: the soil there is sandy, and full of mol-

tion, a varieties, viz. the *cornutus*, or horned hare; and the *melinus*, or yellow hare. The former he suspects to be fabulous.

13. *LEPUS TOLAI*, the *Baikal hare*, has a longer tail than that of a rabbit; and the ears are longer in the male in proportion than those of the varying hare, (N<sup>o</sup> 14.) the fur is of the colour of the common hare; and the size between that of the common and the varying hare. It inhabits the country beyond the lake Baikal, and extends through the great Gobece even to Thibet. The Tanguts call it *Rangwa*, and consecrate it among the spots of the moon. It agrees with the common rabbit in the colour of the flesh; but does not burrow, running instantly (without taking a ring as the common hare does) for shelter, when pursued, into holes of rocks. The fur is of no use in commerce.

14. *LEPUS VARIABILIS*, the *varying hare* of Pallas, has soft hair, which in summer is grey, with a slight mixture of black and tawny; the ears are shorter, and the legs more slender, than those of the common hare: the tail is entirely white, even in summer; and the feet are most closely and warmly furred. In winter, the whole hair changes to a snowy whiteness, except the tips and edges of the ears, which remain black, as well as the soles of the feet, on which, in Siberia, the fur is doubly thick, and of a yellow colour. It is less than the common species.—These animals inhabit the highest Scottish Alps, Norway, Lapland, Russia, Siberia, Kamtschatka, the banks of the Wolga, and Hudson's Bay. In Scotland, they keep on the tops of the highest hills, and never descend into the vales; nor do they ever mix with the common hare, though these abound in the neighbourhood. They do not run fast; and are apt to take shelter in clefts of rocks. They are easily tamed, and are very prolific. They are fond of honey and carraway comfits. They change their colour in September; resume their grey coat in April; and in the extreme cold of Greenland are always white. Both these and the common hares abound in Siberia, on the Wolga, and in the Orenburg government. The one never changes colour; the other, native of the same place, constantly assumes the whiteness of the snow during winter, not only in the open air and in a state of liberty, but, as experiment has proved, even when kept tame, and preserved in houses in the stove-warmed apartments, in which it experiences the same changes of colour as if it had dwelt on the snowy plains.—They collect together, and are seen in troops of 5, or 600, migrating in spring, and returning in autumn, in search of subsistence. In winter they quit the lofty hills, the S. boundaries of Siberia, and seek the plains and wooded parts, where vegetables abound; and in spring seek again the mountainous quarters. The flesh of the variable hare, in its white state, is excessively insipid. There have been several instances of what may be called monsters in this species, horned hares, having excrescences growing out of their heads, like the horns of the roebuck. Such are those figured in Geiner's history of quadrupeds, p. 634; in the *Museum Regium Hafniae* n<sup>o</sup> 48. tab. iv; and in Klein's history of quadrupeds, p. 32. tab. iii; and again described in

Wormius's museum, p. 321, and in Geeseum of the Royal Society. These instances occurred in Saxony, in Denmark, and in Tracan.

15. *LEPUS VIACACCIA*, the *Peruvian* the *Vistacbas*, or *Viacacha*, mentioned by Feuille, in their accounts of Peru, is called by M. Pennant nearly allied to the C (See N<sup>o</sup> 4.) Feuille says, they inhabit the parts of Peru. Their hair is very soft, a mouse colour; the tail is pretty long, as up; and the ears and whiskers are like the common rabbit. In the time of the hair was spun, and woven into cloth, which so fine as to be used only by the nobility.

LERAY, a town of France, in the dep. 8 miles N. of Sancerre, and 17 E. of Aul

LERCHBA, in botany; a genus of the dria order, belonging to the monadelph plants. The calyx is five-toothed; the funnel-shaped and quinquesid; there a there sitting on the tube of the germ; the style; the capsule is tubercular and polyis

LERE, n. f. *lere*, Sax. *lere*, Du lesson; lore; doctrine. Obsolete. This still retained in Scotland.—

Though he that had well ycond his Thus melled his talk with many a tear

LERGE, a town of Sweden in W. Ge

LERI, John DE, a Protestant minister gundy. He was studying at Geneva who reported there, that Villegagnon desired to send him some pastors into Brasil. In his voyage with two ministers, whom the of Geneva sent thither in 1556; and wrote count of that voyage, which has been mended by Thuanus and others.

(1.) LERIA, or LERIA, a strong town tugal in Estremadura, with a castle and see. It contains about 3500 inhabitants, formerly a royal residence. Lon. 7. 50. 39. 40. N.

(2.) LERIA. See LERO, N<sup>o</sup> 2. LERICE, a town of th: Ligurian rept miles SW. of Sarzana.

LERIDA, an ancient, strong, and lar of Spain, in Catalonia, with a bishop's see versity, and a strong castle. This place for king Charles, after the reduction of B in 1705; but was retaken by the duke of in 1707, after the battle of Almanza. It ed on a hill near the Segra, in a fertile miles W. of Barcelona. Lon. 0. 35. E. 31. N.

LERIN, a town of Spain, in Navarre.

LERINA, } or PLANASIA, in anci  
LERINAS, } graphy, one of the tv islands over against Antipolis, called also L now *St Honorat*. See next article.

LERINS, two islands in the Mediterra ing on the coast of the dep. of Var and li of Provence, in France. That nearest tl called ST MARGARET, is guarded by state-prisoners being sent to it. It was t the English in 1746, but marshal Belleisle it in 1747. The other is called *St Honor* is less than the former; but has a Bei abbey. It is hardly 6 miles S. of Antibes

, a town of Spain, in Old Castile, feat-  
Arlanza; 23 miles S. of Burgos. Lon.  
Lat. 42. 2. N.

INTL. See LEARMONTH, and THO-

ASZ, a village in Tyrol, where the em-  
nair IL died in a peasant's hut; A. D.  
s 12 miles SSE. of Reite.

, in ancient geography, a town, terrike,  
of Argolis, situated on the con-  
conica. Some suppose it to be a town  
2, on the borders of Argolis. Pausa-  
near Temenium, on the sea; with-  
whether it is town, river, or lake. Ac-  
Strabo, it is a lake, situated between  
ries of Argos and Mycene. If there was  
this name, it seems to have stood to-  
sea, but the lake to have been more  
fela calls it a well known town on the  
olicus; and Statius by Lerna seems to  
ething more than a lake. The lake,  
is that in which, Strabo says, was the  
dra of Hercules, and therefore called  
pifera. (Statius) The lake runs in a ri-  
to the sea, and perhaps arises from  
Tigil.) From the lake the proverb, *Lerna*  
(i. e. a pack of mischiefs,) took its rise;  
according to Strabo, religious purgations  
ormed in it; or, according to Helychius,  
he Argives threw all their filth into it.  
iere calls it "a country of Argolis cele-  
a grove and a lake, where the Dana-  
the heads of their husbands."

EA, a festival celebrated at LERNA, in  
Proserpina, Ceres and Bacchus.

EAN HYDRA. See HYDRA, N° 2.

A, in zoology; a genus of insects of  
f Vermes mollusca, the characters of  
these: The body fixes itself by its ten-  
tblong, and rather tapering; there are  
s like tails, and the tentacula are shap-  
is. See 3 specimens on Plate CC.

EA ASELLINA has a lunated body and  
orax, and inhabits the gills of the codg-  
of the northern ocean.

EA CYPRINACIA has 4 tentacula, two  
are lunulated at the top. It is about  
1 long, and of the thickness of a small  
body is rounded, of a pale greyish  
Ty on the surface, and somewhat pel-  
thrust out of a kind of coat or sheath,  
at the base, which is of a white colour  
: skin: towards the other extremity of  
there are 3 obtuse tubercles, one of  
uch larger than the rest: the mouth is  
the anterior part, and near it there are  
d fleshy procelles; and near these there  
ach side another soft process, which is  
the extremity. It is found on the sides  
um, carp, and roach, in many of our  
rivers, in great abundance.

EA SALMONEA, the salmon louse, has  
body, cordated thorax, and two linear  
saching nearly to each other.

EA, in ancient geography, a city of Cy-  
ears from its ruins; but now only a large  
ted on the S. coast, where there is a  
and a small fort for its defence.

LERNUPTIUS, John, a Latin poet of the 16th  
century, born at Buges. His works were pub-  
lished by Elzevir, under this title, *Jani Lernetii*  
*Basia, Ocelli, et alia Proematu*. He died in 1619.

(1.) LERO, in ancient geography, one of the  
two small islands in the Mediterranean, opposite  
to Antipolis, and half a mile distant from it on  
the S. Now called ST MARGARET, over against  
Antibes. See LERINS.

(2.) LERO, or } an island of the Archipelago,  
LEROS, } and one of the Sporades; an-  
ciently called LERIA; the birth-place of Patro-  
clus. Lon. 26. 15. E Lat. 37. 0. N.

LE ROY LE VEUT, [Fr. i. e. the King wills it.]  
the royal assent to public bills. See BILL, § 10—  
12; PARLIAMENT, and STATUTE.

LERRADILLA, a town of Spain, in the prov.  
of Leon; 12 miles SE. of Ciudad Rodrigo.

\* LERRY. [from *lere*.] A rating; a lecture.  
Rustick word.

LEERS, 2 rivers of France; 1. running into the  
Garonne, near Toulouse; 2. into the Rhone, near  
Beucaire.

(1.) LERWICK, a parish of Scotland, in the  
county of Zetland or Shetland; extending 6 miles  
from N. to S. by BRESSAY SOUND. The surface  
is hilly and rocky; the soil partly light sand,  
partly moss; the climate healthful. The popu-  
lation, in 1791, was 1291; increase 66, since  
1755; number of cows 200; of sheep 1500; be-  
sides many small horses. The chief manufacture  
is stockings; the principal fishery, ling and tusk,  
of which great quantities are exported. About 6  
tons of kelp are made annually. There are relics  
of two Pictish castles.

(2.) LERWICK, a town in the above parish, the  
capital of Zetland, situated in the island called  
*Mainland*. It contained 903 souls in 1791; and has  
many good houses, and as fashionable people as  
any town in Scotland, of its bulk. At the N.  
end there is a regular fort, which was built in the  
reign of Charles II; who during his first war with  
the Dutch, sent over a garrison of 300 men under  
colonel William Sinclair a native of Zetland; with  
Mr Milne architect, to build the fort, and 25 or 30  
cannons to plant upon it for protection of the  
country. A house was built within the fort to  
lodge 100 men. The garrison staid here three  
years; the charge of which, with the building the  
fort, is said to have cost 28,000 sterling. When  
the garrison removed, they carried off the cannon;  
and in the Dutch war which followed soon after,  
a Dutch frigate came into Bressay Sound, and burnt  
the house in the fort and several others of the best  
in the town. Lerwick is governed by a baillie.  
It chiefly subsists by the resort of foreigners; but  
has declined for several years past. Several pro-  
jects have been proposed which might be very be-  
neficial to Lerwick and Zetland; as that of the  
British merchants who carry goods from Muscovy  
and Sweden, for the plantations in America, (which  
must be entered at some British port) having them  
entered at Lerwick, which would save them a  
great deal of time and charges. (See *Giffard's De-  
script. of Zetland*. p. 7.) The Greenland and Her-  
ring Fishery companies of Britain also proposed  
Lerwick as a most commodious port for lodging  
their stores in, and repacking their herrings, melt-

ing their oil, and thence exporting it to foreign markets. The grand objection to these proposals is, that Lerwick is an open unfortified place; and in case of war, the merchants ships and goods would be exposed to the enemy. But it has been replied that, would government bestow a small garrison upon it of only 100 men, with 20 pieces of cannon, and be at the charge of repairing the old fort, and erecting a battery or two more, Lerwick would be sufficiently secure against any ordinary effort an enemy might make against it; and being thus fortified, all British ships from the E. or W. Indies, could come safely there in time of war; and be secure until carried thence by convoy, or otherwise. Thus Lerwick might become more advantageous to the trade of Great Britain than GIBRALTAR, or *Port Mahon*, for one tenth part of the charge of either of those places. Lon. 5. 46. W. Lat. 60. 20. N.

**LERY**, a river of Wales, in Cardigansh. which runs into the Irish Sea, 5 miles N. of Aberystwyth.

**LESA**, a river of Naples, which runs into the Neto, 5 miles W. of Cerenza.

**LESBIANS**, the ancient people of LESBOS. They were so debauched and dissipated that *Lesbian* was often used to signify debauchery and extravagance.

**LESBONAX**, a philosopher of Mytilene, who flourished in the first century. Two of his orations are inserted in Aldus's edition of Ancient Orators; and his treatise *De Figuris Grammaticis* was printed at Leyden in 1739.

**LESBOS**, a large island in the Ægean sea, on the coast of Æolia, about 168 miles in circumference. It was originally called PELASGIA, from the Pelasgi by whom it was first peopled; MACARIA, from Macareus who settled in it; and LESBOS, from Lesbus his son-in-law and successor. The chief towns of Lesbos were Methymna and Mytilene. It was originally governed by kings, but they were afterwards subjected to the neighbouring powers. The wine which it produced was greatly esteemed by the ancients, and still is in high repute among the moderns. Lesbos has given birth to many illustrious persons, such as Arion, Terpander, Sappho, &c. See MITYLENE.

(1.) **LESCAILLE**, James, a celebrated Dutch poet and printer, was born at Geneva, in 1610. He and his daughter; (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) excelled all the Dutch poets. He merited the poet's crown, with which the emperor Leopold I. honoured him in 1603. He died about 1677, aged 67.

(2.) **LESCATLE**, Katharine, daughter of the above, surnamed the *Sappho of Holland*, and the *ninth Muse*, died in 1711. A collection of her poems has been printed, in which are the Tragedies of Genesic, Wenceslaus, Herod and Mariamne, Hercules and Dejanira, Nicomedes, Ariadne, Cassandra, &c.

**LESCANO**, a town of Spain, in Guipuscoa.

**LESCAR**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Pyrenees and late prov. of Gascony, seated on a hill. It contains about 6000 citizens, and lies 3 miles NW. of Pau, and 6 SE. of Orthez. Lon. 0. 30. W. Lat. 43. 23. N.

**LESCHERES**, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Maine; 9 miles S. of Joinville.

**LESCIVIK**, a town of Persia, in Irak.

**LESCZYN**, a town of Poland, in Va.  
**LESER**, a river of the French repub dep. of the Rhine and Moselle, and is the rate of Trèves, which runs into the Meuse opposite Veldentz.

**LESGUIS**, a people of Asia, whose name is indifferently called by the Georgians, TARTAN and DAGHESTAN. It is bounded S. and E. by Persia and the Caspian, on and W. by Georgia, the Ossis, and Kist the N. by the Kisti and Tassar tribes. It is divided into a variety of districts, generally independent and governed by chiefs elected by the people. Guldenstaedt has remarked, in the language, 8 different dialects, and has classified the tribes in conformity to this observation. The dialect comprehends 15 tribes; viz. 1. Georgian Chumlaugh. The chief of this commonly called *Avar Khan*, is the most powerful prince of Lesquistan, and resides at on the river Kafruk. The village of A is the dialect of Andi, called *Harbul*. 2. in the high mountains, extending along of the Koisu, called *Karak*. This district is pendant on the Khan of the Kisti, Kuz Idatli, on the Koisu, joining on the A subject to the Avar Khan. 4. *Mukratli*, 5. the *Karak*, and subject to the Avar Khan. 6. *Onsekul*, subject to the same, and situated on the Koisu. 7. *Karakhle*, upon the *Karak*, 8. *Kafruk*, subject to the same. 9. *Ghumbet*, that joins the Koisu, 10. the chief of the *Comnyks*. 11. *Arakan Burtuma*, on the Koisu. 12. *Antsugh Samura*, subject to Georgia. 13. *Tebe*, same river, independent. 14. *Tamurg mural*, on the same river. 15. *Akhti*, *Rutal*, on the same. 16. *Dihar*, in a valley runs from the Alazan to the Samura. 17. formerly subject to Georgia, but is now independent. In this district are seen remains of the wall that begins at Derbent, and probably terminates at the Alazan.—The inhabitants of Derbent believe that their town was built by Alexander the Great, that this wall formerly extended as far as the Black Sea. From many inscriptions in Greek, Persian, Arabic, and Russian characters on the wall, and the aqueducts with their subterraneous passages, many of which are now filled up, must be of high antiquity. Derbent suffered greatly during its siege by Araks, who entirely destroyed the lower quarter inhabited by Greeks. It was again destroyed by Schach Abbas. (Gaerber.) This town is situated on the *Pyla Caspe*. The 2d dialect is spoken in the following districts: 1. *Dido*, or *Didonli*, the source of the Samura. This district is situated on a ridge of uninhabited mountain that runs from Caket. 2. *Unso*, on the small rivulet that join the Samura. These two districts containing together about 1000 families, were formerly subject to Georgia, but are now independent. The 3d dialect is that of *Kabutli*, lies on the Samura rivulet, E. of *Dido* of Caket. The 4th dialect is that of *Akhti*, situated on a rivulet that runs into the Koisu; of its villages are subject to the Avar Khan, the greater part to the khan of Axai. T

of about 800 families. The 5th dialect is divided into 4 districts; viz. 1. Akusha, on the western side of the Ufnei, or khan of the Caucasus; 2. Kara Caitak, containing about 1000 families.

The following custom is attributed by Gaerber to the subjects of this prince: Every man who has a son, he is carried from village to village, and alternately by every woman who has a child at her breast, till he is weaned. This custom, by establishing a kind of brotherhood between the prince and his subjects, singularly endears them to each other. 1. Balkar. 3. Zudakara, or Zudakh, subject to the Ufnei. 4. Koisu, near the Koisu. Colonel Gaerber, who gave an account of these countries in 1728, gives the following description of this very curious country. KUBESHA is a large strong town, situated in a valley between high mountains. Its inhabitants call themselves *Franki*, (FRANKS, or EUROPEANS), and relate, that their ancestors were driven from their country by some accident, the particulars of which are now forgotten. The common conjecture is, that they were mariners cast away upon the coast; but those who pretend to be better acquainted with their history, tell the story in this way: That several centuries ago, a considerable trade was carried on in the Black Sea, and likewise on the coast of the Caucasus, and were certainly acquainted with the mountains, from which they derived their trade with the inhabitants of the Caucasus, of silver, copper, and other minerals, which they sent hither by workmen to establish manufactures, and to the inhabitants. The subsequent invasion of the Arabs, Turks, and Mongols, during which the mines were filled up, and the manufactures abandoned, prevented the strangers from effecting their return, so that they continued here, and established themselves into a republic. What reason is the more probable is, that they were excellent artists, and make very good fire-arms, and articles in gold and silver, for exportation. They have likewise, for their own use, small copper cannons, of three pounds caliber, which they cast by themselves. They coin Turkish and Russian money, and even rubles, which are current, as they are of the full weight. In their valleys they have pasture and gardens, as well as gardens; but they pursue the greater part of their corn, trusting chiefly to the sale of their manufactures, which is much admired in Persia, Turkey, and Russia. They are generally in good circumstances, quiet and inoffensive, but high spirit-independent. Their town is considered a safe spot, where the neighbouring princes fit their treasures with safety. They elect magistrates, to whom they pay the most absolute obedience; and as all the inhabitants are of perfect equality, each individual is to have in his turn a share in the government. In 1725, their magistrates, as well as the prince, acknowledged the sovereignty of Russia, without paying any tribute." 5. Zudakara, down the Koisu, subject to the

Ufnei, contains about 2000 families. The 6th dialect belongs to the districts on the eastern slope of Caucasus, between Tarku and Derbent, which are, 1. Caitak; and, 2. Tabasseran, or Kara-Caitak, both subject to the Ufnei. The 7th dialect is that of Kasi-Coumyk, on a branch of the Koisu, near Zudakara. This tribe has a khan, whose authority is recognised by some neighbouring districts. The 8th dialect is that of Kurac, belonging to the khan of Cuba.—There are some other tribes of Lesguis, whose dialects Mr Guldenstaedt was unable to procure. From a comparison of those which he has obtained, it appears that the language of the Lesguis has no kind of affinity with any other known language, excepting the Samoyede, to which it has a remote resemblance. These people are probably descended from the tribes of the mountaineers, known to ancient geographers under the name of LESGÆ, or LIGYES. The strength of their country, which is a region of mountains, whose passes are known only to themselves, has probably at all times secured them from invasion. They subsist by raising cattle, and by predatory expeditions into the countries of their more wealthy neighbours. During the troubles in Persia, in the beginning of the 8th century, they repeatedly sacked the towns of Shamachie and Ardebil, and ravaged the neighbouring districts; and the present wretched state of Georgia and of part of Armenia, is owing to the frequency of their incursions. In their persons and dress, and in their general habits of life, they greatly resemble the Circassians.

LESQUISTAN. See DAGHESTAN.

LESIGNAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Aude, 11 miles W. of Narbonne, and 17 E. of Carcassonne.

LESIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of Vienne, on the Creuse, 9 miles E. of Châtellerault.

(1.) LESINA, an island of Maritime Austria, in the Adriatic, on the coast of Dalmatia, anciently called PHAROS; 44 miles long and 8 broad, containing a town, 32 villages, and 15,000 inhabitants; and abounding in corn, wine, fruits, wool, and flesh-coloured striped marble.

(2.) LESINA, the capital of the above island, seated at its W. end, has a good harbour, a castle on the top of a mountain of marble, and 1200 inhabitants, chiefly employed in ship-building, navigation, and fishing. It is 20 miles S. of Spolato. Lon. 34. 5. E. Ferro. Lat. 43. 33. N.

(3.) LESINA, a town and lake of Naples, in the prov. of Capitanata. The town was nearly destroyed by an earthquake in 1627. It is 86 miles NNE. of Naples.

(1.) LESKARD, a large and well built town of Cornwall, which has sent two members to parliament since the 23d of Edward I. It had formerly a castle, now in ruins. It has the greatest market in Cornwall. It was first incorporated by Edward earl of Cornwall; afterwards by Richard king of the Romans, and had privileges from Edward the Black Prince. Q. Elizabeth granted it a charter, by which it was to have a mayor and burgesses, with power to purchase lands, &c. It has a handsome town hall built on stone pillars, with a turret on it, and a clock with 4 dials that cost near 200 l. It has a large church, a meeting-house, an

eminent

eminent free school, and a curious conduit. The adjacent commons feed multitudes of sheep. It has a market on Saturday, 7 fairs, and a very great trade in all leather manufactures. Spinning has been of late encouraged by the clothiers of Devonshire.

(2.) **LESKARD, NORTH**, a hilly country between Leskard and Læneeston, abounding with mines of tin, which is cast at the blowing houses into blocks.

**LESKO**, a town of Poland, in the ci-devant palatinate of Lemberg, now the kingdom of Galicia; 68 miles SW. of Lemberg.

(1.) **LESLIE, Charles**, an Irish divine, and a zealous Protestant; but being attached to the house of Stuart, he left Ireland, and went to the pretender at Bar le Duc, and resided with him till near the time of his death; endeavouring to make him a Protestant, but without effect. He died in 1722. His principal works are, 1. A short and easy method with the Deists. 2. A short and easy method with the Jews. 3. The snake in the grass. 4. Hereditary right to the Crown of England asserted. 5. The Socinian controversy discussed. 6. The charge of Socinianism against Dr Tillotson considered; and many others. All his theological pieces, except the last, were collected and published by himself, in 2 vols. folio.

(2.) **LESLIE, John**, Bp. of Ross in Scotland, the son of Gavin Leslie an eminent lawyer, was born in 1526, and educated at the university of Aberdeen; of which diocese he was made official, when but a youth. He was soon after created LL. D. but being peculiarly addicted to the study of divinity, he took orders, and became parson of Uue. When the reformation began to spread in Scotland, and disputes about religion ran high, Dr Leslie, in 1560, distinguished himself at Edinburgh as a principal advocate for the Romish church, and was afterwards deputed by the chief nobility of that religion, to condole with Q. Mary on the death of her husband the king of France, and to invite her to return to her native dominions. Accordingly, they embarked together at Calais, in 1561, and landed at Leith. She immediately made him one of her privy council, and a senator of the college of justice. In 1564, he was made abbot of Lindores; and on the death of Sinclair was promoted to the bishopric of Ross. The influence derived from these accumulated honours he exerted for the good of his country. To him Scotland is indebted for the publication of its laws, commonly called *The black acts*, &c. parliament, from the Saxon character in which they were printed. At his desire, the revision and collection of them were committed to the great officers of the crown. In 1568, Q. Mary having fled to England for refuge, and being detained a prisoner, Q. Elizabeth appointed commissioners at York to examine into the dispute between Mary and her subjects. These commissioners were met by others from the Q. of Scots. The Bp. of Ross was of the number, and pleaded the cause of his royal mistress with great energy, though without success: Elizabeth had no intention to release her. Mary, disappointed in her expectations from the conference at York; sent the bishop ambassador to Elizabeth, who paid little attention to his complaints. He then began to negotiate a marriage

between his royal mistress and the duke of Norfolk, which negotiation proved fatal to her, and was the cause of Leslie's being confined in the Tower. In 1573 he was banished the country, and retired to Holland. The two following years he spent in fruitless endeavours, to procure the powers of Europe to espouse the cause of the queen. His last application was to the pope, the power of the heretic Elizabeth being then weighed with his holiness, than with the mass Catholic princes of Europe. His personal applications ineffectual, he had recourse to his pen in Q. Mary's vindication. His *ultima ratio regum* was too potent for his arguments. Bp. Leslie, during his exile, made coadjutor to the Abp. of Rouen. At Brussels when he received the account of Mary's execution; and immediately retired to a convent of Guirtenberg near that city, where he died in 1596. During the long captivity he wrote his *History of Scotland*, and of his knowledge and judgment as an historian he is equally to be commended. Where he is transcriber of Boece, there appear, indeed, the inaccuracies of that writer. But when he speaks in his own character, he has a candour, and a moderation, which appears even in authors of the Protestant party. His other works are, 1. *Afflicti animi*, &c. composed for the consolation of the queen. 2. *De origine, moribus, et gestis*. 3. *De titulo et jure serenissima Marie Scotorum, quo regni Angliæ successionem sibi jus*. 4. *Parænesis ad Anglos et Scotos*. 5. *De ministerio in republ. administranda*, &c. 6. *Ad reginam Elizabetham pro libertate in*. 7. *Parænesis ad nobilitatem populumque*. 8. An account of his proceedings durably in England from 1568 to 1572; M. S. 9. Apology for the bishop of Ross, conc. duke of Norfolk; M. S. Oxon. 10. *Sententia*, M. SS.

(3.) **LESLIE**, a parish of Scotland, is so named from the noble family of Ross banks of the Leven. The soil is good, and almost wholly arable. In 1785, and 1791, was 1212, and created 82 since 1755.

(4.) **LESLIE**, a small but populous town above parish, on the Leven, containing 1300 inhabitants in 1785. Spinning and weaving are the chief manufactures. It has fairs in April and October.

(5.) **LESLIE**, or } a parish of Aberde-  
(5.) **LESLEY**, } the district of Garioch,  
3 miles long and 3 broad. The soil is producing good crops of oats, barley, potatoes, with little cultivation. The population was 392; increase 94 since 1755; number of sheep 1200; and black cattle valued at L. 2920 sterling.

(6.) **LESLEY**, or **LESLEE**, a town in the parish, (N<sup>o</sup> 5.) 13 miles WNW. of Irvine.

(7.) **LESMAHAGOE**, a parish of Leinster, said to have been named after *St. Maccus* in the 6th century. It is 14 miles long and broad, and lies on the SW. bank of the

10 miles. The soil is various; the air moist and, but favourable to health and longevity, is not to vegetation. One native died lately 66. The chief crops are oats and barley. Population, in 1792, was 2810; decrease 1867, 55. Number of sheep about 7000; cows and horses 620. Coals, lime, lead, iron, and various petrifications, are found in the

LESMAHAGOE, a town in the above parish, 16 SW. of Lanark.

MONT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meuse, 15 miles NE. of Troyes, and 16½ NW.

NEVEN, a town of France, in the dep. of the Moselle; 7½ miles N. of Landernau, and 13 NE. of Metz.

NEY, a town of France, in the dep. of Jura; 10 N. of Arbois, and 4½ NW. of Salins.

ON, a river of France, which runs into the Meuse, opposite Wiseppe, in the dep. of the Meuse.

PARRE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Vendée; 11 miles NNW. of Bourdeaux.

PAUD, a town of France, in the dep. of the Moselle; 6 miles NW. of Evaux.

PINETA, a town of Naples, in Molise.

LESS. A negative or privative termination. [From *leas*, Dutch.] Joined to a substantive, it signifies the absence or privation of the thing expressed by that substantive: as, a *witless* man, a man without wit; *childless*, without children; *fatherless*, deprived of a father; *penniless*, wanting

LESS. *adj.* [*leas*, Saxon.] The comparative is opposed to *greater*, or to *so great*; not to *more*, or to *equal*.—Mary, the mother of James Mark xv. 40.—He that thinks he has an idea of indefinite space will find, that he can never have a positive idea of the greatest, or the least space; for in this latter he is capable only of a comparative idea of space, which will always be *less* than any other space we have the positive idea. *Locke*.—All things that are considered as having parts, and capable of increase by the addition of any effecting parts, afford us, by their repetition, the idea of infinity. *Locke*.—

\* *less* to conquer, than to make wars cease, without fighting, awe the world to peace. *Hallifax*.

LESS. *adv.* In a smaller degree; in a lower degree.—This opinion presents a *less* merry, but a dangerous temptation to those in adversity of Piety.—The *less* space there is between the object, and the more pure the species, so much the more the species are pre-eminently distinguished; and, on the contrary, the more space of air there is, and the *less* it is, so much the more the object is confused and soiled. *Dryden*.—Their learning lay chiefly in show; they were not much wiser than the vulgar multitude. *Collier on Pride*.—The more themselves want from others, they will be more careful to supply the necessities of the individual. *Colledge*.—

My, and happy still she might have prov'd, she *less* beautiful, or *less* belov'd. *Pope*.

LESS. *n. f.* Not so much; opposed to *more*.

more, or to *as much*.—They gathered some more, some *less*. *Exod.* xvi. 17.—Thy servant knew nothing of this, *less* or more. *1 Sam.*

Yet could he not his closing eyes withdraw, Though *less* and *less* of Emily he saw. *Dryden*.

LESSA, a fort of Portugal; 6 m. N. of Oporto.

LESSARD, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone, 16 miles E. of Chalons, and 7½ NW. of Louhans.

LESSAY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Channel; 12 miles WSW. of Carentan.

\* LESSEE. *n. f.* The person to whom a lease is given.

LESSEN, a town of Prussia, in Culm.

(1.) \* To LESSEN. *v. a.* [from *less*.] 1. To make *less*; to diminish in bulk. 2. To diminish the degree of any state or quality; to make *less* intense.—

Kings may give To beggars, and not *lessen* their own greatness. *Denham*.

—Though charity alone will not make one happy in the other world, yet it shall *lessen* his punishment. *Calamy*.—Collect into one sum as great a number as you please, this multitude, how great soever, *lessens* not one jot the power of adding to it. *Locke*.—This thirst after fame betrays him into such indecencies as are a *lessening* to his reputation. *Spekt*.—Nor are the pleasures which the brutal part of the creation enjoy, subject to be *lessened* by the uneasiness which arises from fancy. *Atterbury*. 3. To degrade; to deprive of power or dignity.—

Who seeks To *lessen* thee, against thy purpose serves To manifest the more thy might. *Milford*.—St Paul chose to magnify his office, when ill men conspired to *lessen* it. *Atterbury*.

(2.) \* To LESSEN. *v. n.* To grow *less*; to shrink; to be diminished.—All government may be esteemed to grow strong or weak, as the general opinion in those that govern is seen to *lessen* or increase. *Temple*.—The objection *lessens* much, and comes to no more than this, there was one witness of no good reputation. *Atterbury*.

(1.) \* LESSER. *adj.* A barbarous corruption of *less*, formed by the vulgar from the habit of terminating comparatives in *er*; afterwards adopted by poets, and then by writers of prose, till it has all the authority which a mode originally erroneous can derive from custom.—

What great despite doth fortune to thee bear, Thus lowly to abase thy beauty bright, That it should not deface all other *lesser* sight? *Fairy Queen*.

It is the *lesser* blot, modestly finds, Women to change their shapes than men their minds. *Shakespeare*.

—The mountains, and higher parts of the earth, grow *lesser* and *lesser* from age to age. *Burnet*.—Cain, after the murder of his brother, cries out, Every man that findeth me shall slay me. By the same reason may a man, in the state of nature, punish the *lesser* breaches of that law. *Locke*.—Any heat promotes the ascent of mineral matter, but more especially of that which is subtle, and is consequently moveable more easily, and with a *lesser* power. *Woodward*.



The larger here, and there the *lesser* lambs,  
The new-fall'n young herd bleating for their  
dams. *Pope.*

(2.) \* *LESSER*. *adv.* [formed by corruption from *lesser*.]—

Some say he's mad; others, that *lesser* hate him,  
Do call it valiant fury. *Shak. Macbeth.*

(3.) *LESSER TONE*, in music. See *TONE*.

\* *LESSES*. *n. s.* [*laiffées*, French.] The dung of  
beasts left on the ground.

*LESSINA*. See *LESINA*.

*LESSINES*, a town of the French republic, in  
the dep. of Gemappes, and late prov. of Austrian  
Hainault, seated on the Dender, 23 miles WSW.  
of Brussels; famous for its linen manufacture.  
Lon. 3. 53. W. Lat. 51. 41. N.

*LESSING*, Gotthold Ephraim, a German poet,  
the son of a clergyman, born at Kametz, and e-  
ducated at Meissen and Leipzig. He formed an  
acquaintance with Voltaire at Berlin, and became  
secretary to General Tauenzien at Breslaw. He  
wrote a comedy, entitled, the Young Scholar, and  
several other pieces.

*LESSIUS*, Leonard, a learned Jesuit, born near  
Artwerp, in 1554. He became professor of philo-  
sophy at Douay, and afterwards of theology at  
Louvain. He wrote several works on theological  
subjects, which have been esteemed. Two of his  
books, *on the Being of a God*, and the Immortality  
of the Soul, were translated into English by a  
friend of Sir Walter Raleigh. He died in 1623.

(1.) *LESSOE*, an island of Denmark, in the Scag-  
gerac, 9 miles long, and from 4 to 1 broad.

(2.) *LESSOR*, a town of Norway, in Aggerhuus.

(3.) \* *LESSON*. *n. s.* [*leçon*, Fr. *lectio*, Latin.]

1. Any thing read or repeated to a teacher, in or-  
der to improvement.—

I but repeat that *lesson*

Which I have learn'd from thee. *Denham.*

2. Precept; notion inculcated.—

This day's contempr hath this *lesson* dear

Deep written in my heart with iron pen,

That bliss may not abide in state of mortal men.

*Fairy Queen.*

—Be not jealous over the wife of thy bosom, and  
wrench her not an evil *lesson* against thyself. *Ecclef.*

is. 1. 1. Portions of scripture read in divine ser-  
vice.—Notw<sup>t</sup> standing so eminent properties,  
whereof *lessons* are happily destitute; yet *lessons*

being free from some inconveniencies whereunto  
others are most subject, they may, in this respect,

be less taken, than in other they must give the hand  
to which betokeneth pre-eminence. *Hooker.* 4. Tune

picked for an instrument.—Those good laws were  
of good *lessons* set for a flute out of tune; of

which *lessons* little use can be made, till the flute  
be made fit to be played on. *Darwin on Ireland.*

5. A raising lecture.—She would give her a *lesson*  
for walking so late, that should make her keep  
within doors for one fortnight. *Sidney.*

(4.) *LESSONS*, among ecclesiastical writers. See

*LESSON*. In the ancient church, reading the  
scriptures was part of the service of the catechu-  
men; at which all persons were allowed to be  
present, to obtain instruction. The church of

England, in the choice of lessons, proceeds as fol-  
lows: for the first lesson on ordinary days, she

directs, to begin at the beginning of the ye  
Genesis, and so continue on, till the books of

Old Testament are read over; only (u. i. t.)

Chronicles, which are for the most part ti

with the books of Samuel and Kings, an

particular chapters in other books, either

they contain names of persons, places, c

matters less profitable to ordinary readers

course of the first lessons for Sundays is re

after a different manner. From Advent

septuagesima Sunday, some particular chapt

saiah are appointed to be read, because th

contains the clearest prophecies concerning

Upon Septuagesima Sunday Genesis is beg

cause that book which treats of the fall o

and the severe judgment of God inflict

world for sin, best suits with a time of rep

and mortification. After Genesis, follow

ters out of the books of the Old Testam

they lie in order; only on festival Sunday

as Easter, Whituesday, &c. the particular

relating to these days is appointed to b

and on the saints days, the church appo

out of the moral books, such as Proverbs

saiftes, Ecclesiasticus, &c. as containing c

instructions for the conduct of life. As t

lessons, the church observes the same cou

on Sundays and week days: reading the

and Acts of the Apostles in the morning,

epistles in the evening, in the order they

the New Testament: excepting on fair

and holy days, when such lessons are app

either explain the mystery, relate the hil

enforce the example.

\* *To LESSON*. *v. a.* [from the noun.] *T*

to instruct.—

Even in kind love, I do conjure thee  
To *lesson* me. *Shak. Two Gent. 2*

Well hast thou *lesson'd* us, this shall

—Children should be seasoned betimes,  
*soned* into a contempt and detestation of t

*L'Esrange.*

\* *LESSOR*. *n. s.* One who lets any  
farm, or otherwise, by lease.—

Lords of the world have but for  
lease,  
And that too, if the *lessor* please, must

—If he demises the glebe to a layman, t<sup>e</sup>

must pay the small tithes to the vicar,  
great tithes to the *lessor*. *Ayliffe.*

(1.) *LESSUDDEN*, [Celt. *Lis-Aidan*,  
*residence of Aidan*,] a considerable village

land, in Roxburghshire, on the banks of the

so named from Aidan, Bp. of Lindisfarne.

good school, and contains about 300 inh:

(2.) *LESSUDDEN*. See *BOSWELL'S*, S7

\* *LEST*. *conj.* [from the adjectiv *lest*.]  
particle may be sometimes resolved into

meaning prevention or care lest any thi

happen.—Forty stripes he may give him,  
exceed, *lest* if he should exceed, then th

should seem vile. *Deut. xxv.*—

*Lest* they faint  
At the sad sentence rigorously urg'd,  
All terror hide.

My labour will sustain me, and *let* cold  
Or heat should injure us, his timely care  
Not unbesought provided. *Milton.*  
—*Eng.* Luitprand brought hither the corps, *let* it  
be abused by the barbarous nations. *Addi-*  
*ce.* 2. It sometimes means only *that*, with a kind  
of emphasis.—

One doubt  
Pursues me still, *let* all I cannot die,  
*Let* that pure breath of life, the spirit of man,  
Which God inspir'd, cannot together perish  
With this corporeal clog. *Milton.*

\* **LESTERCOCK**. *n. s.* They have a device of  
two sticks filled with corks, and crossed flatlong,  
one of whose midst there riseth a thread, and at  
the same hangeth a sail; to this engine, termed a  
*lestercock*, they tie one end of their boulder, so as  
the wind coming from the shore filleth the sail,  
and the sail carrieth the boulder into the sea, which,  
at the respite of some hours, is drawn in again  
by a cord fastened at the nearer end. *Carew.*

**LESTERP**, a town of France, in the dep. of  
Sarthe,  $\frac{1}{2}$  miles NNW. of St Junien.

**LESTIGNANO**, a town of Etruria, (ci-devant  
Volterra) 17 miles S. of Volterra.

**LESTOFF**. See LAYSTOFF. It has 6 eighteen  
batteries, but no battery. The coast is very  
high and steep.

**LESTRANGE**, Sir Roger, a noted writer in  
the 17th century, descended from an ancient fa-  
mily at Hunstanton Hall, in Norfolk, where he  
was born in 1416, being the youngest son of Sir  
monard L'Estrange, Bart. a zealous royalist.  
Living in 1644 obtained a commission from king  
Charles I. for reducing Lynn in Norfolk, then in  
possession of the parliament, his design was dis-  
covered, and his person seized. He was tried by  
court martial at Guildhall in London, and con-  
demned to die as a spy; but was reprieved, and  
imprisoned in Newgate for some time. He after-  
wards went beyond sea; and in August 1653 re-  
turned to England, where he applied to Oliver  
Cromwell, and having once played before him on  
his viol, he was by some nicknamed *Olive's*  
*Be.* Being a man of parts, but in narrow cir-  
cumstances, he set up a newspaper, entitled *The*  
*Le Intelligencer*, in 1663; but gave it up upon  
publication of the first London gazette in 1665,  
having been allowed, however, a consideration by  
the government. Sometime after the Popish plot, when  
Tories began to gain the ascendant, he, in a  
paper called the *Observer*, became a zealous  
advocate for them. He was afterwards knight-  
ed and served in the parliament called by James  
in 1687. But things soon taking a different  
course, his *Observers* were discontinued. How-  
ever, he continued licenser of the press till king  
William's accession, in whose reign he met with  
no trouble as a disaffected person. He died,  
never, in peace, after he had survived his in-  
dignities. He published many political tracts,  
and translated several works from the Greek, La-  
tin, and Spanish, viz. Josephus's works, Cicero's  
speeches, Seneca's Morals, Erasmus's Colloquies,  
Aesop's Fables, and Bonas's Guide to Eternity.  
His style has been variously represented; his lan-  
guage being esteemed by some easy and humo-  
rous, while others reckon it low and grovelling.

Mr Gordon says, "that his productions are not  
fit to be read by any who have taste or good breed-  
ing. They are full of phrases picked up in the  
streets, and nothing can be more low or nause-  
ous. Our readers will find a sufficient number of  
specimens of his style, in the various quotations  
given by Dr Johnson.

**LESTRE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the  
Channel,  $\frac{1}{2}$  miles N. of Carentan.

**LESTWITHIEL**, a well built town of Corn-  
wall, about 229 miles from London. In it are  
kept the common gaol, the weights and measures  
for the whole stannary, and the county courts.  
It stands on the Foy, which brought up vessels  
from Powey, before it was choked up with sand  
from the tin mines, and therefore its once flour-  
ishing trade is decayed; but it holds the bushel-  
age of coals, salt, malt, and corn, in the town of  
Fowey, as it does the anchorage in its harbour.  
It was incorporated by Richard E. of Cornwall,  
king of the Romans, and has had other charters  
since. It consists of 7 capital burgesses, (whereof  
one is a mayor), and 17 common council-men. It  
is part of the duchy of Cornwall, to which it pays  
17l. 19s. 10d. a year for its liberties. Its chief  
trade is the woollen manufactory. Its church has  
a spire, the only one except that of Helston in the  
county. It has a market on Friday, and 3 fairs.  
It first returned members to parliament in the 33d  
of Edward I. They are chosen by their burgef-  
ses and assistants. It was anciently the county  
town, and the knights of the shire are still chosen  
here.

(1.) **LESWALT**, a parish of Scotland, in Wig-  
tonshire, in a peninsula called the *Rims of Gal-*  
*loway*, 7 miles long, and from 5 to 6 broad, tho'  
in one place only 3. The surface is much diver-  
sified with hills and plains, valleys, meadows, and  
moor. Hence the soil is very various, and the  
parish is but partly improved. The climate is  
mild and salubrious, though moist, and instances  
of longevity are frequent. The chief crops are  
oats, barley, clover, and ryegrass. The popula-  
tion, in 1791, was 1193, and had increased no less  
than 542 since 1755. The number of sheep was  
near 3000; of black cattle 1500; horses 240; and  
carts 57.

(2.) **LESWALT**, "a town of Scotland, in Wig-  
tonshire; 4 miles NW. of Stranraer." (*Cruik-*  
*shank.*) We suppose it lies in the above parish, but  
it is not mentioned in the Statistical Account of  
it, though two other villages are particularised,  
called *Claybole* and *Hillbood*.

(1) \* **LET**. *n. s.* [from the verb.] Hindrance;  
obstacle; obstruction; impediment.—The secret  
lets and difficulties in public proceedings are in-  
numerable. *Hooker.*—Solyman without *let* present-  
ed his army before the city of Belgrade. *Knolles'*  
*Hist. of the Turks.*—

It had been done ere this, had I been confid;  
We had no stop, no *let*. *Ben Jonson.*

Just judge, two *lets* remove; that free from  
dread,

I may before thy high tribunal plead. *Sander.*  
—To these internal dispositions to sin, add the  
external opportunities and occasions concurring  
with them, and removing all *lets* and rubs out of  
the way, and making the path of destruction plain  
before.

before the snuer's face; so that he may run his course freely. *Saugh.*

(1) \* L.E.T. the termination of diminutive words, from *lyte*, Saxon, *little*, *small*; as, *rivulet*, a small stream; *bamlet*, a little village.

(2) \* To L.E.T. *v. n.* [*letan*, Saxon.] 1. To allow; to suffer; to permit.—

Nay, nay, quoth he, *let* be your strife and doubt.

—Where there is a certainty and an uncertainty, *let* the uncertainty go, and hold to that which is certain. *Sp. Saunderson.*

Back on your lives, *let* be, said he, my prey, And *let* my vengeance take the devil's way.

*Dryden.*  
Remember me; speak, Raymond, will you *let* him?

Should he remember Leonora? *Dryden.*

—We must not *let* go manifest truths, because we cannot answer all questions about them. *Collier.*—One who fixes his thoughts intently on one thing, so as to take but little notice of the succession of ideas in his mind, *lets* slip out of his account a good part of that duration. *Locke.*—A solution of mercury in aquafortis being poured upon iron, copper, tin, or lead, dissolves the metal, and *lets* go the mercury. *Newton.* 2. A sign of the optative mood used before the first and imperative before the third person. Before the first person singular it signifies resolution, fixed purpose, or ardent wish. —*Let* me die with the Philistines. *Judges.*—

Here *let* me sit,  
And hold high converse with the mighty dead.

*Thompson.*

3. Before the first person plural, *let* implies exhortation.—Rise; *let* us go. *Mark.*—*Let* us seek out some desolate shade. *Shak.* 4. Before the third person, singular or plural *let* implies permission.—

*Let* Euclid rest, and Archimedes pause. *Milt.*

5. Or precept.—*Let* the soldiers seize him from one of the assassimates. *Dryden.* 6. Sometimes it implies concession.

O'er golden sands *let* rich Pactolus flow. *Pope.*

7. Before a thing in the passive voice, *let* implies command.—*Let* not the objects which ought to be contiguous be separated, and *let* those which ought to be separated be apparently so to us; but *let* this be done by a small and pleasing difference. *Dryden.* 8. *Let* has an infinitive mood after it without the particle *to*, as in the former examples.—

But one submissive word which you *let* fall,  
Will make him in good humour with us all.

*Dryden.*

—The seventh year thou shalt *let* it rest, and lie still. *Exodus.* 9. To leave: in this sense it is commonly followed by *alone*—

If it were so, I might have *let* alone  
Th' insulting hand of Douglas over you. *Shak.*

—The public outrages of a destroying tyranny are but childish appetites, *let* alone till they are grown ungovernable. *L'Estrange.*

*Let* me alone to accuse him afterwards. *Dryd.*

—This is of no use, and had been better *let* alone.

*Nestor.*—Nestor, do not *let* us alone till you have morter'd our necks, and reduced them to their antient standard. *Addison.*—This notion might be *let* alone and despised, as a piece of harlequin's un-

intelligible enthusiasm. *Rogers.* 10. To not permit; to give.—There's a letter for you, your name be Horatio, as I am *let* to know

*Shak.* 11. To put to hire; to grant to a

—Solomon had a vineyard at Baal Hamon; the vineyard unto keepers. *Cant.* viii. 11.

thing deadens so much the composition of

ture, as figures which appertain not to the figure we may call them figures to be *let*. *Dryden.*

*let* her second floor to a very genteel man.

—A law was enacted, prohibiting all bishop or other ecclesiastical corporations, from *letting*

lands for above the term of 20 years. *Swift*

To suffer any thing to take a course which requires no impulsive violence. In this sense it is

only joined with a particle.—She *let* them do a cord through the window. *Job.*—Launce

into the deep, and *let* down your nets for a draught. *Luke*, v. 4.—*Let* down thy pitcher, that I

drink. *Gen.* xxiv. 14.—The beginning of strife when one *let*eth out water. *Prov.* xvii. 14.—

recreation doth meliorate fruit, so doth pruning vines or trees after they be of some growth thereby *letting* forth gum or tears. *Bacon.*—

And if I knew which way to do't,  
Your honour safe, I'd *let* you out. *Ho.*

—The *letting* out our love to mutual object but enlarge our hearts, and make them the

marks for fortune to be wounded. *Boyle.*—

Every slacken'd fibre drops its hold,  
Like nature *letting* down the springs of life.

—From this point of the story, the poet *lets*

down to his traditional poverty. *Pope.*—You *let* it down, that is, make it softer by tempering it. *Maxon.* 13. To permit to take any course.—He *let* loose his thoughts wholly to

sure. *Sidney.*—*Let* reason teach impossibility thing, and the will of man doth *let* it go. *P.*

—He was *let* loose among the woods as foot was able to ride on horseback, or carry a

*Speator.* 14. To *LET* blood, is elliptical *let* out blood. To free it from confinement; fer it to stream out of the vein.—

*Let's* purge this cholera without *letting*

His antient knot of dangerous adverser  
To-morrow are *let* bleed at Pomfret castle.

—Hippocrates *let* great quantities of blood, opened several veins at a time. *Arbutnot.*

*LET* blood, is used with a dative of the whose blood is let.—As terebration doth me fruit, so doth *letting* plants blood, as pricking thereby letting forth tears. *Bacon.* 16. To

*in.* To admit.—

*Let* in your king, whose labour'd spirit  
Crave harbourage within your city walls.

—Roscetes presented his army before the gate of the city, in hopes that the citizens would

some tumult, and *let* him in. *Knolles.*—

What boots it at one gate to make defence  
And at another to *let* in the foe,

Effeminately vanquish'd?

—The more tender our spirits are made by grief, the more easy we are to *let* in grief, cause be innocent. *Taylor.*

They but preserve the ashes, thou the  
True to his sense, but true to his fame,

his current, where thou find'st it low, thine own to make it rise and flow.

*Denham.*  
 a period to my life, and to his fears, come; here's a throat, a heart, or any ready to let in death, and receive his  
*Denham.* 17. If a noun follows, for it is required.—It is the key that lets heir very heart, and enables them to ill that is there. *Soub.*—There are pictures as have been distinguished by their inscriptions, with inscriptions, that let you see and history of the person represented.—Most historians have spoken of ill terrible events, as if they had been secrets of Providence, and made each that private conduct by which they were termed. *Addison.*—These are not my ordinary readers to be let into. *Addison.* de through the town, I was let into the of all the inhabitants; one was a dog, whelp, and another a cur. *Addison.* in, or into. To procure admission.—I speak properly and correctly, where I let their thoughts into other men's more easily. *Locke.*—As soon as they down any quantity of the rocks, they springs and reservoirs among their ofen. 19. To LET off. To discharge, used of an arrow dismissed from the therefore suffered to fly off the string: I to guns.—Charging my pistol with caution! the emperor not to be afraid, it off in the air. *Swift.* 20. To LET out. t; to give to hire or farm.

LET. v. a. [*lettan*, Sax.] 1. To hinder; to oppose.—Their senses are not enjoying their objects. *Sidney.*—To glow all things, is to do nothing; whereby a of Jew or Grecian, or any in the Christ, may be let or hindered. *Hooker.* ab, leave off, whatever wight thou be, weary wretch from her due rest?

*Fairy Queen.*  
 re do ye let the people from their ad. v. 4.—The mystery of iniquity doth letteeth will let, until he be taken out. 2 *Thebes*.—I will work, and who will let l. 11.—

ow no longer letted of his prey, up at it with enrag'd desire. *Dryden.*  
 , when it signifies to permit or leave, is preterite and part. passive; but when to binder, it is letted; as, *musta me*, many things have letted me. *Introd. to*

LET. v. n. To forbear; to withhold After king Fernando had taken upon sion of a fraternal ally to the king, he let to counsel the king. *Bacon.* ; a cape on the W. coast of Jersey.

LEADE. See LEACHLADE. This town t the junction of 4 rivers, which here THAMES. Lon. 2. 15. W. Lat. 51. 42.

AM, a thriving village of Scotland, in ire, in the parish of Dunnichen, on the

N. bank of the Vinny; begun to be built in 1788, by Geo. Dempster, Esq; and containing 20 families in 1790. It has a market once a fortnight on Thursday, for cloth, flax, and yarn.

\* LETHARGICK. *adj.* [*letbargique*, Fr. from *letbargy*.] Sleepy by disease, beyond the natural power of sleep.—Vengeance is as if minutely proclaimed by thunder from heaven, to give men no rest from their sins, till they awake from the *letbargick* sleep, and arise from so dead, so mortiferous a state. *Hammond.*—

Let me but try if I can wake his pity  
 From his *letbargick* sleep. *Denham.*  
 —A lethargy demands the same cure and diet as an apoplexy from a phlegmatic case, such being the constitution of the *letbargick*. *Arbutnot.*

\* LETHARGICKNESS. *n. f.* [from *letbargick*.] Morbid sleepiness; drowsiness to a disease.—

A grain of glory mixt with humbleness,  
 Cures both a fever, and *letbargickness*. *Herbert.*  
 \* LETHARGIED. *adj.* [from the noun.] Laid asleep; entranced.—

His motion weakens, or his discernings  
 Are *letbargied*. *Shak.*

(1.) \* LETHARGY. *n. f.* [*ληθαργια*; *letbargie*, Fr.] A morbid drowsiness; a sleep from which one cannot be kept awake.—

The *letbargy* must have his quiet course.  
*Shakespeare.*  
 So fast a *letbargy*

Has seiz'd his pow'rs towards publick cares and dangers,  
 He sleeps like death. *Denham.*

—Europe lay then under a deep *letbargy*; and was no otherwise to be rescued from it, but by one that would cry mightily. *Atterbury.*—A *letbargy* is a lighter sort of apoplexy, and demands the same cure and diet. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) LETHARGY is derived from *ληθη*, oblivion, and *αλγη*, numbness, or laziness. In this disease, the patient if awaked, remains stupid, without sense or memory, and presently sinks again into his former sleep. See MEDICINE; *Index*.

(3.) LETHARGY. See FARRIEKY, S. E.

(1.) LETHE, in the ancient mythology, one of the rivers of hell, signifying oblivion or forgetfulness; its waters having, according to poetic fiction, the peculiar quality of making those who drank them forget every thing that was past.

(2.) \* LETHE. *n. f.* [*ληθη*.] Oblivion; a draught of oblivion.—

The conquering wine hath steep't our sense  
 In soft and delicate *lethe*. *Shak.*

*Lethe*, the river of oblivion, rolls  
 Her wat'ry labyrinth, which who so drinks  
 Forgets both joy and grief. *Milton.*

(1.) LETHENDY, a parish of Perthshire, 5 miles long from E. to W. and 1½ broad. The climate is mild, the soil fertile, and husbandry much improved. The annual produce is about 1614 bolls of oats, 1100 of barley, 100 of wheat, 100 of pease, 225 of potatoes, and 250 stones of lint. About 60 acres are under wood. The population, in 1795, was 367: increase 21. The roads were bad, the school in ruins, and the parish ten years without a teacher. But the leases are long, the rents moderate, and the tenants almost independent. The number of horses, in 1795,

Herodian, Rufus Festus, Pliny, the Phœnicians; St Cyprian, to the Egyptians; some, to the Persians, to the Chinese; but, with all these, they can never be entitled to all their characters are the signs of writing without the use of letters; impossible to read and write their characters without the use of letters; and it is not possible to print it by any other manner but by engraving in wood. See PRINTING. See also various conjectures about the origin of letters used in different languages according to Crinitus, Moses in the Hebrew letters; Abraham, the Syriac: Phœnicians, those of Attica, those by Cadmus, thence into Italy; Nicostrotata, the Roman; Isis, Vulfilas, those of the Goths, at the Egyptian hieroglyphics manner of writing: but whether the Phœnicians learned the use of writing from the Egyptians, or from their neighbours the Samaritans, need hardly be a question. The books of the Old Testament, written in Hebrew, they are more likely to be the first letters than the hieroglyphics. But wheresoever the Phœnician art, it is generally agreed, that Agenor first brought letters into Europe, in following ages, they spread over the world. See ALPHABET, CHARACTER, and WRITING. The first part or elements of grammar of these compose syllables, these compose sentences. The language consists of a number of letters each to have a different sound, As the difference of articulate letters to express the different ideas of sound, and not, as at present, one sound and sometimes another has brought a great deal of confusion into the languages, and rendered the modern tongues much more difficult otherwise have been. This defect, with the deficiency of all letters, from their wanting some certain sounds, has occasioned the invention of a universal alphabet, to express all such single sounds or letters in any language. See ALPHABET. Grammarians distinguish letters into vowels, consonants, liquids, diphthongs, and small letters. They are also distinguished by the shape and turn of the letters, and in printing, Roman, Italic, and in Type, among printers, is not by the CAPITALS, SMALL CAPITALS, but all the points, figures, marks cast and used in printing; and ornamental letters, cut in wood

or metal, which took place of the illuminated letters used in manuscripts. The letters used in printing are cast at the ends of small pieces of metal, about three quarters of an inch in length; and the letter being not indented, but raised, easily gives the impression, when, after being blacked with a glutinous ink, paper is closely pressed upon it. See the articles PRINTING and TYPE. A fount of letters includes small letters, capitals, small capitals, points, figures, spaces, &c.; but besides, they have different kinds of two-line letters, only used for titles, and the beginning of books, chapters, &c. See FOUNT.

(5.) A LETTER is also a writing addressed and sent to a person. Epistle is seldom used but in poetry. (See EPISTLE, § 1, 2.) Letter-writing was esteemed a liberal art by the Romans, and Cicero mentions with pleasure, in his epistles to Atticus, the elegant specimen he had received from his son of his genius in this way. Mr. Locke thinks it ought to form a particular branch of education. But no man who has got a liberal education can be at any loss to write a good letter. It has been said that "a fine letter does not consist in saying fine things, but in expressing ordinary ones in an uncommon manner. It is the *proprie communiis dicere*, the art of giving grace and elegance to familiar occurrences, that constitutes the merit of this kind of writing." This is very just, but if laid down as a general rule, will lead a young person, whose taste is not properly formed, to write his letters in a style of the most ridiculous and affected bombast. Purity in the choice of words, and justness of construction, joined with perspicuity, are the chief properties of the Epistolary style. Seneca lays down a good general rule: "I would have my letters (says he) to be like my discourses, when we either sit or walk together, unstudied and easy." And what wise man, in common discourse, aims at bright figures, beautiful turns of language, or laboured periods? It is not even always requisite to attend to exact order and method. He that is master of what he writes, will naturally express his thoughts without perplexity and confusion; and more than this is seldom necessary, especially in familiar letters. But as the subjects of letters are exceedingly various, the style ought to be accommodated to the particular subject about which the letter is wrote. All such words and expressions, as are unbecoming in conversation, should be avoided in letters; and a manly simplicity, free of all affectation, plain, but decent and agreeable, should run through the whole.

(6.) LETTER OF ATTORNEY, in law, is a writing by which one person authorises another to do some lawful act in his stead; as to give seisin of lands, to receive debts, sue a third person, &c. The nature of this instrument is to transfer to the person to whom it is given, the power of the maker, to enable him to accomplish the act intended to be performed. It is either general or special: and sometimes it is made recoverable, which is when a bare authority is only given; and sometimes it is irrevocable, as where debts, &c. are assigned from one person to another. It is generally held, that the power granted to the attorney must be strictly pursued; and that where it is made to three persons, two cannot

it. In most cases, the power given by a letter of attorney determines upon the death of a person who gave it. No letter of attorney made by any seamen, &c. in any ship of war, or having letters of marque, or by their executors, &c. in order to empower any person to receive any share of prizes of bounty-money, shall be valid, unless the same be made revocably and for the use of such seamen, and be signed and executed before, and attested by, the captain and one other of the signing officers of the ship, or the mayor or chief magistrate of some corporation.

(7.) LETTER OF MARQUE, OR MART. See MARQUE.

(8.) LETTERS, PATENT, OR OVERT, are writings sealed with the great seal of England, whereby a man is authorized to do, or enjoy any thing, which, of himself, he could not do. See PATENT. They are so called, by reason of their form; as being open with the seal affixed, ready to be shown for the confirmation of the authority given by them.

\* To LETTER. *v. a.* [from *letter*.] To stamp with letters.—I observe one weight *lettered* on both sides; and I found on one side, written in the dialect of men, and underneath it, calamities; on the other side was written, in the language of the gods, and underneath, blessings. *Addison*.

LETTERE, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Principato Citra; 12 miles WNW. of Salerno.

\* LETTERED. *adj.* [from *letter*.] Literate; educated to learning.—A martial man, not fiveeetened by a *lettered* education, is apt to have a tincture of sourness. *Collier*.

LETTERHOUT, a town of the French republic, in the dept. of the Scheldt, and ci-devant prov. of Austrian Flanders; 6 miles W. of Aloft.

(1.) LETTERKENNY, a town of Ireland, in Donegal, Ulster, on the Swilly; 15 miles SW. of Londonderry, 20 NNE. of Donegal, and 113 from Dublin.

(2.) LETTERKENNY, a township of Pennsylvania, in Franklin County.

LETTON, 3 villages in Herefordshire, and one in Norfolkshire.

LETTRES, BELLES. See BELLES LETTRES.

LETTRES DE CACHET. See CACHET, N° 2.

(1.) \* LETTUCE. *n. f.* [*laſuca*, Latin.] The species are, common or garden *lettuce*; cabbage *lettuce*; Silesia *lettuce*; white and black *cos*; white *cos*; red capuchin *lettuce*. *Miller*.—

Fat colworts, and comforting purseline, Cold *lettuce*, and refreshing rosemarine. *Spenser*.—*Lettuce* is thought to be poisonous, when it is so old as to have milk. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—The medicaments proper to diminish milk, are *lettuce*, purslane, endive. *Wifeman*.

(2.) LETTUCE, in botany. See LACTUCA.

(3.) LETTUCE, HARES. See SONCHUS.

(4.) LETTUCE, WILD. See PRENANTHES.

LETUS, a mountain of Liguria. *Liv.* 41. 18.

LETWELL, a small town of Yorkshshire, between Rotherham and Nottinghamshire.

LETZ, a river of France, which runs into the Rhone, below Point St Esprit.

LETZNIG, a town of Holstein.

LEVA, a river of Sicily, which runs into the Mediterranean; 11 miles NW. of Saoca.

LEVADA, a market town of the Italic, in the dep. of the Mincio, in the late duchy of Mantua; seated on the

LEVALLZUI, a river of Servia.

LEVAN, ST, a village of Cornwall, point of the Land's End; near the fin

(1.) \* LEVANT. *adj.* [*levant*, Fr.] Thwart of those, as fierce,

Forth rush the *levant*, and the pone Eurus and Zephyr.

(2.) \* LEVANT. *n. f.* The east, those coasts of the Mediterranean east

(3.) LEVANT, in commerce and generally used for Turkey in Asia, com Natolia, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Barb &c. The word literally signifies rising, is used for the East from the rising Sun

(4.) LEVANT, OR TITAN, one of the

(5.) LEVANT SEA, the eastern part diterranean, bounded by Lesser Asia by Syria and Palestine on the E. by Barca on the S. and by Candia and the of the Mediterranean on the W.

LEVANTINA, VAL, or the } po

LEVANTINE VALLEY, } ley o vetic republic, between Mount St G Lake Maggiore, on the borders of Ita ing to the canton of Uri. It is abo long, but of no great breadth. The through it, and renders it fertile in ce flax, and pasturage. Ossogna is the cl

(1.) LEVANTO, a town of the L public, 6 miles S. of Brugnetto, and Spezza.

(2.) LEVANTO, an island on the V Sicily, 9 miles W. of Trapani.

LEVARLOW, a town of Poland, i

(1.) \* LEVATOR. *n. f.* [Latin.] A instrument, whereby depressed parts o are lifted up.—Some surgeons bring o in the bore; but it will be safer to with your *levator*, when it is but light in some part. *Wifeman*,

(2.) LEVATOR, in anatomy, a nan several muscles. See ANATOMY, § 201, 208.

LEUBITZ, a town of Hungary.

LEUBUS, a town of Silesia, on the

LEUCA, in antiquity, a geographic of length in use among the later Gau according to Jornandes, who calls it tained 1500 paces, or one mile and 2 h; the word LEAGUE, now reckoned at the lower age, called *leuca*.

LEUCADENDRON, in botany, the monogynia order, in the tetrand plants; in the natural method ranking 48th order, *Aggr. gat.* The florets lous, with one petal of each trisid; the is a little villous; there is no proper antherz are almost coalesced.

LEUCADIA, formerly called NERI insula of Acarnania; (*Homer*.) but after cutting through the peninsula, made a it is at this day, called ST MAURA. I in circumference, and lies 15 miles N phalonia. Lon. 20. 46. E. Lat 39. 4. I

(1.) LEUCAS, in ancient geography

Leucadia, formerly called Νεαίτος and Νεαίτις, situated near a narrow neck of land, or isthmus, on a hill facing the east and Acarnania: but or lower part of the town was a plain lying on the sea by which Leucadia was divided from Acarnania, (*Levy*); though Thucydides says Leucas more inward in the island, which was joined to the continent by a bridge: It was a famous city, the capital of Acarnania, and place of general assembly.

1) LEUCAS, in zoology. See DELPHINUS, N° 8.

LEUCATA, or LEUCATE, in ancient geography, a promontory of LEUCADIA, according to Strabo, a white rock projecting into the sea towards Cephalonia, on which stood a temple of Apollo, surnamed LEUCAPIUS. At Leucata, which was annually celebrated here, the people offered an expiatory sacrifice, to avert the head of the victim all the calamities with which they might be threatened. For this purpose they made choice of a criminal condemned to death; and leading him to the brink of the precipice, precipitated him into the sea amidst the shouts of the spectators. The criminal, however, seldom perished in the water: for it was usual to cover him with feathers, and to bind to his body, which by spreading their wings might serve to break his fall. No sooner was he cast into the sea, than a number of boats were sent for that purpose flew to his assistance, and drew him out; and after being thus saved, he was banished for ever from the territory of Leucata. Strabo, lib. 10. p. 452. According to ancient authors, a strange opinion concerning Leucata prevailed for some time among the Greeks. They imagined that the LEAP from Leucata was a potent remedy against the violence of love. Hence disappointed or despairing lovers, came to Leucadia; and, having ascended the promontory, offered sacrifices in the temple, engaged by a formal vow to perform the desperate act, they voluntarily precipitated themselves into the sea. Some are reported to have been freed from the effects of the fall; and among these is mentioned a citizen of Buthroton, a man whose passions always taking fire at the least object, he four times had recourse to the remedy, and always with the same success. He who made the trial, however, seldom took any precaution to render their fall less rapid, and were generally destroyed; and women often resorted to this act of desperation.—At Leucata is shown the tomb of Artemisia, that celebrated queen of Caria, who gave so many proofs of valor at the battle of Salamis. Inflamed with violent passion for a young man who in vain refused her love, she surprised him in his bed and put out his eyes. Regret and despair brought her to Leucata, where she perished in the waves notwithstanding every effort to save her. Such likewise was the end of the unhappy Phaon. Forsaken by her lover Phaon, she came to seek relief from her sufferings, and found it in death. *Memor. ap. Strab. lib. 10. p. 452.*

2) LEUCATE, a large lake of France, in the mountains of the Auvergne, and Eastern Pyrenees, &c.

and late province of Languedoc. It runs into the Mediterranean by two streams.

(3.) LEUCATE, a town of France, on the N. side of the above lake, 17 miles S. of Narbonne, and 20 NE. of Perpignan. In 1637, it was besieged by the Spaniards, who were at last defeated by Marl. Schomberg. Lon. 3. 9. E. Lat. 42. 0. N.

LEUCE, a triangular island, in the Euxine Sea, between the mouths of the Borysthene and the Danube. The poets fabled it to be a kind of Elysian receptacle for departed heroes, and hence styled it, the *Island of the Blessed*.

LEUCH. See LEUK.

(1.) LEUCHARS, [*Gael. i. e. a wet flat.*] a parish of Scotland in Fifeshire, 9 miles long from W. and SW. to E. and SE. and 5 broad; bounded on the NE. E. and SE. by the German Ocean, and by the Eden on the S. and SW. All kinds of soil are to be found in it, and husbandry being much improved, great quantities of wheat, barley, pease and beans are annually raised and exported. About 36 acres, formerly covered with water to a considerable depth, have been rendered excellent arable ground, producing luxuriant crops of all kinds, by a drain of 24 feet deep, 20 feet wide and 3 miles long; and the air, which, by the pestiferous effluvia of the stagnant water, formerly subjected whole families, every spring and autumn, to intermittent fevers of very long continuance, is now rendered pure and salubrious, and these diseases have totally disappeared. The population, in 1792, was 1620; increase 71 since 1755, owing to the monopoly of farms: Number of horses 420; sheep, 2,120; and black cattle, 1559. There are above 230 acres planted with trees, besides much old wood.

(2.) LEUCHARS, a village in the above parish, about 5 miles W. of St Andrews. It has fairs in April and October. Above 70 new and elegant houses have been lately built in it.

LEUCHSTENBERG, or LEUCHTENBERG, capital of a landgraviate so named, seated on a mountain, near the Elreimpt; 36 miles E. of Nuremberg, and 39 N. of Ratibon, according to Mr Cruttwell, or 50 NW. as Dr Brookes has it. Lon. 12. 26. E. Lat. 49. 40. N.

LEUCIPPUS, a celebrated Greek philosopher and mathematician; first author of the famous system of atoms and vacuums, and of the hypothesis of storms; since attributed to the moderns. He flourished about A. A. C. 428.

LEUCOGÆUS, in ancient geography, a hill of Italy, between Puteoli and Neapolis in Campania, abounding in sulphur; now *P. Alumera*. It had springs called *Leucogæi fontes*; the waters of which, according to Pliny, gave a firmness to the teeth, clearness to the eyes, and proved a cure in wounds.

LEUCOJUM, GREAT SNOW-DROP, a genus of the monogynia order, in the hexandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 9th order, *Spatheæ*. The corolla is campanulate, sixpartite; the segments increased at the points, the stigma simple. There are 3 species; viz.

1. *LEUCOJUM ÆSTIVUM*, the *summer leucojum*, has a large, oblong, bulbous root, crowned with several long, flat, broad leaves; and amidst them an upright, thick, hollow stalk, 15 or 18 inches high; terminated by a spatha, protruding many white flowers, on slender footstalks, drooping downwards; flowering in May.

2. *LEUCOJUM AUTUMNALE*, the *autumnal leucojum*, hath a large oblong bulbous root, crowned with many narrow leaves; an upright, naked, hollow stalk, terminated by a spatha protruding many white flowers on long weak footstalks, hanging downwards, and flowering in autumn.

3. *LEUCOJUM VERNUM*, the *spring leucojum*, has an oblong bulbous root, sending up several flat leaves six or eight inches long; and amidst them an upright, channelled, hollow, naked stalk, about a foot high, terminated by a spatha, protruding one or two white flowers on slender footstalks drooping downwards, and appearing in March. All the 3 species are very hardy, durable in the roots, and increase exceedingly by offsets, which may be separated every two or three years.

(1.) *LEUCOMA*, in antiquity, a public register amongst the Athenians, in which were inserted the names of all the citizens, as soon as they were of age to enter upon their paternal inheritance.

(2.) *LEUCOMA*, in surgery, a distemper of the eye, otherwise called *albuga*. See *ALBUGA*, and *SURGERY*.

*LEUCOPETRA*, in ancient geography, a promontory of Italy, so called from its white colour (*Strabo*); in the country of the Bruttii, and territory of Rhegium; the termination of the Apennine, and the outmost extremity of the Bruttii, or the modern *Calabria Ultra*; as the Japygium is of the ancient Calabria, or the modern Calabria *Citra*.

*LEUCOPETRIANS*, in ecclesiastical history, a fanatical sect, which sprang up in the Greek and Eastern churches towards the close of the 12th century; the fanatics of this denomination professed to believe in a double Trinity, rejected wedlock, abstained from flesh, treated with the utmost contempt the sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper, and all the various branches of external worship; placed the essence of religion in internal prayer alone, and maintained, as it is said, that an evil being, or genius, dwelt in the breast of every mortal, and could be expelled from thence by no other method than by perpetual supplication to the Supreme Being.

*LEUCOPETRUS*, the founder of the above enthusiastic sect. His chief disciple Tychicus, corrupted, by fanatical interpretations, several books of scripture, and particularly St Matthew's gospel.

*LEUCOPHÆA*. See *CAPRA*, § VII, N° 10.

*LEUCOPHÆUM*. See *GILDING*, § III.

\* *LEUCOPHLEGMACY*. *n. f.* [from *leucophlegmatick*.] Paleness, with viscid juices and cold sweatings.—Spirits produce debility, flatulency, fevers, *leucophlegmacy*, and dropsies. *Arbutnot.*

*LEUCOPHLEGMATIA*, in medicine, a kind of dropsy, otherwise called *anasarca*. See *MEDICINE. Index.*

\* *LEUCOPHLEGMATICK. adj.* [from *leucophlegma*.] Having such a constitution of body the blood is of a pale colour, viscid, and whereby it stuffs and bloats the habit, or white tumours in the feet, legs, or any other and such are commonly asthmatick and dropical. *Quincy*.—Asthmatic persons have voracious appetites, and for want of a right sanguification *leucophlegmatick. Arbutnot.*

*LEUCORYX*. See *CAPRA*, § VII, N°

*LEUCOS*, a river of Macedon, near Pyc

*LEUCOSIA*, an isle in the Tyrrhene Sea

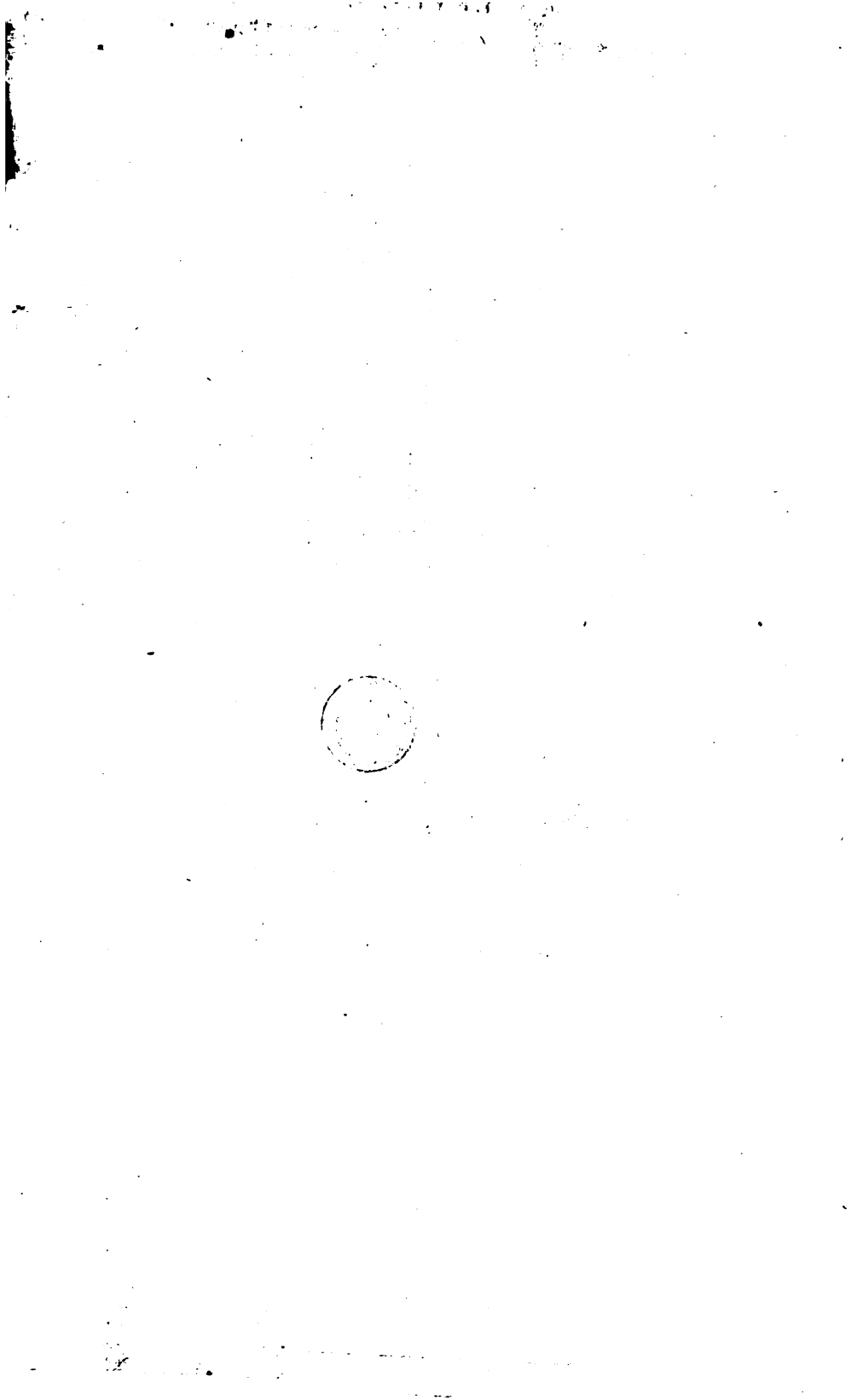
*LEUCOSYRII*, a name given the ancient padocians and Cilicians.

*LEUCOTHEA*, or } in the mythology

*LEUCOTHOE*, } wife of Athamas, called into a sea deity; see *INO*. She was called *ΜΑΤΑ* by the Romans. She had a temple at where all the people, particularly women, ed vows for their brother's children. They not intreat the deity to protect their own children because Ino had been unfortunate in her female slaves were permitted to enter the temple or if their curiosity tempted them to transgress this rule, they were beaten with great severity.

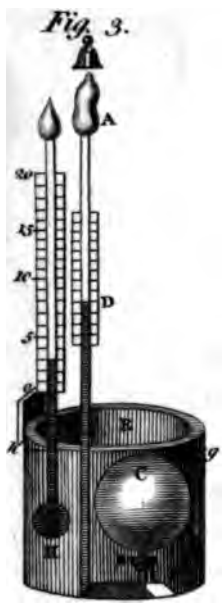
*LEUCTRA*, in ancient geography, a town in Bœotia, W. of Thebes, or between Plateæ and Thespizæ, where the Lacedæmonians were completely defeated by Epaminondas and Pelopidas the Theban generals. The Theban army consisted at most but of 6000 men, whereas the enemy was at least 18,000; but Epaminondas trusted most in his horse, wherein he had the advantage, both in their quality and management; the rest he endeavoured to overcome by the disposition of his men, and the vigour of the attack. He suffered none to serve under him in the engagement, but such as he knew to be fully resolved to conquer or die. He put Pelopidas at the head of the left wing, opposite to Cleombrotus king of Sparta, and placed the main body of the battle there; concluding, that if he could break the body of the Spartans, which was 12 men deep, while his own was 50, they would be soon put to flight. He closed his ranks with the sacred band, which was commanded by Pelopidas; and placed his horse in the front right, from which he had drawn so many, he ordered to fall back, in a slanting line, they declined to fight, that they might serve as a corps of reserve in case of need. This disposition of their few but resolute forces, succeeded according to the wish of the Theban general Epaminondas advanced with his left wing tending it obliquely, to draw the enemy's main body from the main body; and Pelopidas charged with such desperate speed and fury, at the head of his battalion, before they could reunite, their horse were forced back upon their infantry, which threw the whole into the greatest confusion: so that though the Spartans were of a Greek the most expert in recovering from surprize, yet their skill on this occasion proved them; for the Thebans, observing the impetuosity they had made with their horse, pushed fully upon the Spartan king, who fell with numbers of his troops. Upon the death of Cleombrotus, and several officers of note, the





**LEVELS.**

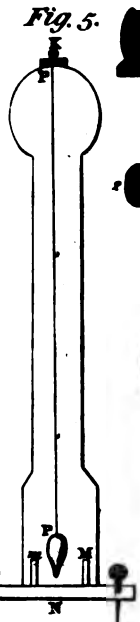
*Fig. 2.* **Plate**



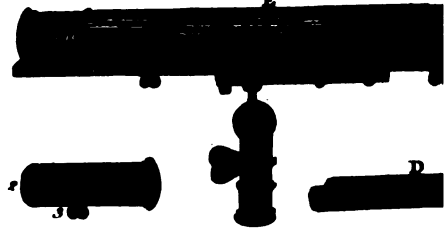
*Fig. 3.*



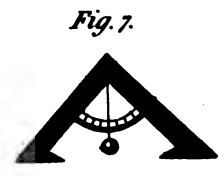
*Fig. 4.*



*Fig. 5.*



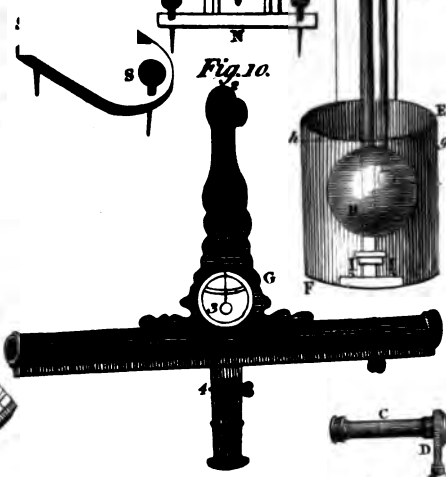
*Fig. 6.*



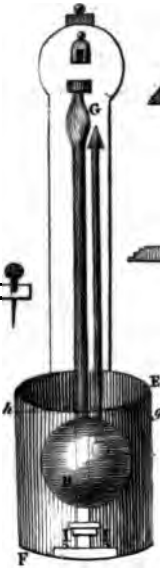
*Fig. 7.*



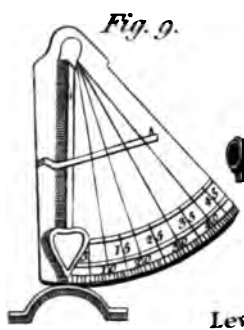
*Fig. 8.*



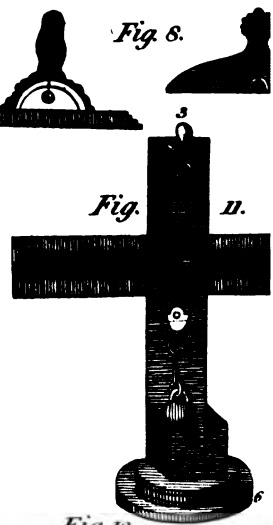
*Fig. 10.*



*Fig. 11.*

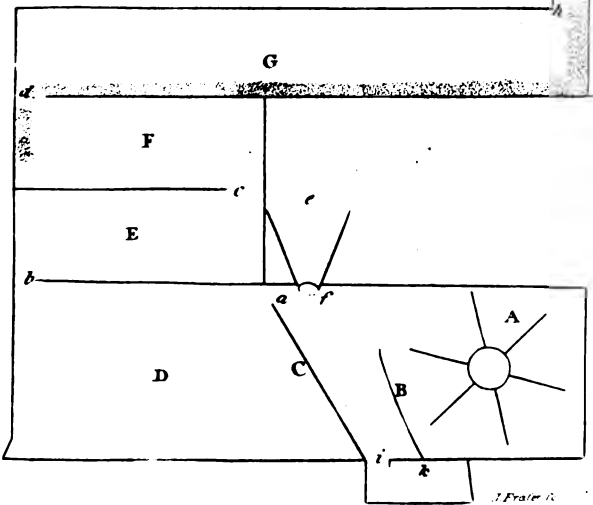


*Fig. 9.*



*Fig. 12.*

**Levigating Fanner.**



*Fig. 13.*

levelled the night with double fury, to record, which was such an established point as they could not give up without the disgrace. Epaminondas chose rather to die in that point, than to hazard the second onset; and, leaving them in possession of their king's corpse, marched straight against another wing, commanded by Archidamus, consisting chiefly of such auxiliaries as were so discouraged by the death of the rest of that wing, that they themselves to flight, and were presently attacked by the rest of the army. The Thebans, pursued them so closely, that they conducted dreadful slaughter among them; completed Epaminondas's victory, who was master of the field, and erected a trophy of it. In this famous battle of Leuctra the Lacedaemonians lost 4000 men, and were only 300.

**LEVEL**, a town of Laconia. *Strabo*, l. 8, c. 2. *E. n. f.* (Fr.) 1. The time of rising, or the course of those who crowd round a river in a morning.—

*d'it thou be first minister of state; thy levees crowded with resort, pending, gaping, servile court; Dryden.* of her Sylvan subjects made their court, and couches pass'd without resort.

**LEVEL**, *adj.* [*l. fel*, Saxon.] 1. Even; one part higher than another.—

The doors ample spaces o'er the smooth pavement. *Milton.* arden, seated on the level floor, behind. *Dryden.*

th any thing else; in the same line with — thing lies level to our wish. *Shak.*

haves with level wing the deep. *Milton.* a knowledge which is very proper to lies level to human understanding. 3. Having no gradations of superiority, in preferments, and you will soon be your learning. *Bentley.*

**LEVEL**, *n. f.* [from the adjective.] 1. A surface without protuberances or indentations. After draining of the level in Northampton, innumerable mice did upon a sudden. *Hale.*—Those bred in a mountainous crize those that dwell on low levels.

Rate; standard; customary height.—made us raise up our thoughts above level of the world. *Sidney.*—The military men inspired me with thoughts ordinary level. *Dryden.* 3. Suitable or its height.—

but perhaps advance their minds so far above level of subjection. *Daniel.* of equality.—The time is not far off all be upon the level. *Atterbury.*—Providence, the most part, sets us upon a level, as proportion in its dispensations to *Spectator.*—I suppose, by the file of, and the like, it must be somebody own level. *Swift.* 5. An instrument

whereby masons adjust their work.—The level is from two to ten feet long, that it may reach over a considerable length of the work: if the plumb-line hang just upon the perpendicular, when the level is set flat down upon the work, the work is level; but if it hangs on either side the perpendicular, the floor or work must be raised on that side, till the plumb-line hang exactly on the perpendicular. *Moxon.* 6. Rule; plan; scheme: borrowed from the mechanick level.—

Be the fair level of thy actions laid, As temperance wills, and prudence may persuade. *Prior.*

7. The line of direction in which any missile weapon is aimed.—

I stood i' th' level Of a full charg'd confederacy. *Shak.*

As if that name, Shot from the deadly level of a gun, Did murder her. *Shak.*

Thrice happy is that humble pair, Beneath the level of all care. *Waller.*

8. The line in which the fight passes.—From the bounded level of our mind Short views we take, nor see the lengths behind. *Pope.*

(3.) LEVEL is also an instrument wherewith to draw a line parallel to the horizon, by means of which the true level, or the difference of ascent or descent between several places, may be found, for conveying water, draining fens, &c. There are several instruments of different contrivance and matter, invented for the perfection of levelling; all of which, for the practice, may be reduced to the following:

(4.) LEVEL, AIR.—The air level is that which shows the line of level, by means of a bubble of air inclosed with some liquor in a glass tube of an indeterminate length and thickness, whose two ends are hermetically sealed. When the bubble fixes itself at a certain mark, made exactly in the middle of the tube, the plane or ruler wherein it is fixed is level. When it is not level, the bubble will rise to one end. This glass tube may be set in another of brass, having an aperture in the middle, whence the bubble of air may be observed. The liquor wherewith the tube is filled is oil of tartar, or aqua secunda; these not being liable to freeze as common water, nor to rarefaction and condensation, as spirit of wine is. This application of a bubble of air was the invention of Dr Hooke. There is one of these instruments made with sights, being an improvement upon the above, which, by the addition of more apparatus, becomes more commodious and exact. It consists of an air-level, (*fig. 1. Plate CCI.*) about 8 inches long, and 7 or 8 lines in diameter, set in a brass tube, 2, with an aperture in the middle, C. The tubes are carried in a strong straight ruler, a foot long; at whose ends are fixed two sights, 3, 3, exactly perpendicular to the tubes, and of an equal height, having a square hole, formed by two fillets of brass crossing each other at right angles, in the middle whereof is drilled a very little hole, through which a point on a level with the instrument is descried. The brass tube is fastened on the ruler by means of two screws; one whereof, marked 4, serves to

at pleasure, for bringing  
 e top of the ball and sock-  
 ruler that springs, one end  
 h screws to the great ruler,  
 has a screw, 5, serving to  
 instrument when nearly level.  
 nt, however, is still more  
 though the holes be ever  
 still take in too great a  
 determine the point of level precisely.  
 of an air-level, with telescope sights.  
 f. 2. is like the last; with this diffe-  
 at, instead of plain sights, it carries a  
 to determine exactly a point of level at  
 distance. The telescope is a little brass  
 about 15 inches long, fastened on the same  
 he level. At the end of the tube of the  
 , marked 1, enters the little tube 2, car-  
 eye-glass and a hair horizontally placed  
 -ocus of the object-glass, 2; which little  
 r be drawn out, or pushed into the great  
 he telescope to different sights:  
 the telescope is placed the ob-  
 w 3, is for raising or lower-  
 for carrying the hair, and  
 a the bubble of air when the  
 and the screw 4, is for mak-  
 r, D or E, agree with the te-  
 is fitted to a ball and socket.  
 to be the first inventor of this  
 has this advantage, that it may be  
 by turning the ruler and telescope half  
 id if then the hair cut the same point  
 before, the operation is just. A tele-  
 may be added to any kind of level, by ap-  
 plying it upon, or parallel to, the base or ruler,  
 when there is occasion to take the level of remote  
 objects. See § 10—13.

(5.) LEVEL, ARTILLERY FOOT, is in form of a  
 square, having its two legs or branches of an e-  
 qual length; at a juncture whereof is a little hole,  
 whence hangs a thread and plummet playing on a  
 perpendicular line in the middle of a quadrant.  
 It is divided into twice 45 degrees from the mid-  
 dle. Fig. 7. This instrument may be used on other  
 occasions, by placing the ends of its two branches  
 on a plane; for when the thread plays perpen-  
 dicularly over the middle division of the quadrant,  
 that plane is assuredly level. To use it in gunnery,  
 place the two ends on the piece of artillery, which  
 you may raise to any proposed height, by means  
 of the plummet, whose thread will give the degree  
 above the level.

(6.) LEVEL CARPENTER'S AND PAVIOR'S, con-  
 sists of a long rule, in the middle whereof is fit-  
 ted, at right angles, another somewhat bigger, at  
 the top of which is fastened a line, which, when  
 it hangs over a fiducial line at right angles with  
 the base, shows that the said base is horizontal.  
 Sometimes this level is all of one board. Fig. 8.

(7.) LEVEL, DR. DESAGULIERS'S. Dr Desaguliers  
 contrived an instrument, by which the differ-  
 ence of level of two places, which could not be  
 taken in less than 4 or 5 days with the best tele-  
 scope levels, may be taken in as few hours—To  
 the ball C (fig. 3. Plate 201.) is joined a recurve  
 tube BA, with a very fine bore, and a small bub-  
 ble at top A, whose upper part is open. It is e-

vident from the make of this instrument, that  
 it be inclined in carrying, no prejudice will  
 done to the liquor, which will always be rig-  
 both in the ball and tube, when the instrument  
 set upright. If the air at C be so expanded w-  
 heat, as to drive the liquor to the top of the tu-  
 the cavity A will receive the liquor, which w-  
 come down again and settle at D, or near it,  
 cording to the level of the place where the inst-  
 ment is, as soon as the air at C returns to t  
 same temperament as to heat and cold. To p-  
 serve the same degree of heat, when the differ-  
 observations are made, the machine is fixed in  
 tin vessel EF, filled with water up to g b, abo-  
 the ball, and a very sensible thermometer has a  
 its ball under water, that one may observe the  
 quor at D, in each experiment, when the th-  
 mometer stands at the same height as before. T-  
 water is poured out when the instrument is e-  
 ried; which may be done conveniently by me-  
 of the wooden frame, which is set upright by t  
 three screws, S, S, S, fig. 4. and a line and p-  
 ment PP, fig. 5. At the back part of the woo-  
 en frame, from the piece at top K, hangs t  
 plument P, over a brass point at N; M m a  
 brackets to make the upright board K N contin-  
 at right angles with the horizontal one at N. Fig  
 6. represents a front view of the machine, sup-  
 ing the fore part of the tin-vessel transparent; as  
 here the brass-socket of the recurve-tube, in  
 which the ball is screwed, has two wings at H  
 fixed to the bottom, that the ball may not beat  
 the tube by its endeavour to emerge when the w-  
 ter is poured in as g b. After the Doctor ha-  
 contrived this machine, he considered, that as t  
 tube is of a very small bore, if the liquor shou-  
 rise into the ball at A, fig. 3. in carrying the in-  
 strument from one place to another, some of it  
 would adhere to the sides of the ball A, and up-  
 on its descent in making the experiment, l  
 much might be left behind, that the liquor wou-  
 not be high enough at D to show the differenc-  
 of the level: therefore to prevent that inconven-  
 ency, he contrived a blank screw, to shut up t  
 hole at A, as soon as one experiment is mad-  
 that, in carrying the machine, the air in A m-  
 balance that in C, so that the liquor shall not r-  
 up and down the tube, whatever degree of he-  
 and cold may act upon the instrument, in go-  
 from one place to another. Now because one e-  
 periment may be made in the morning, the wat-  
 may be so cold, that when a second experime-  
 is made at noon the water cannot be brou-  
 to the same degree of cold it had in the morning  
 therefore, in making the first experiment, wa-  
 water must be mixed with the cold, and when t  
 water has stood some time, before it comes to  
 as cold as it is likely to be at the warmest part  
 that day, observe and set down the degree of t  
 thermometer at which the spirit stands, and fill  
 wise the degree of the water in the barometer.  
 D; then screw on the cape at A, pour out t  
 water, and carry the instrument to the place wh-  
 level you would know; than pour in your wat-  
 and when the thermometer is come to the sa-  
 degree as before, open the screw at top, and t-  
 serve the liquor in the barometer. The Doctor's se-  
 for the barometer is ten inches long, and divid-

; so that such an instrument will serve  
ght not exceeding ten feet, each tenth  
answering to a foot in height. The  
ide no allowance for the decrease of  
he air, because he did not propose this  
r measuring mountains (though, with  
lowance for the decreasing density of  
ill do very well), but for heights that  
to be known in gardens, plantations,  
onveyance of water, where an expe-  
answers 2 or 3 feet in a distance of 20  
render this a very useful instrument.

EL, GUNNER'S, for levelling cannons  
s, consists of a triangular brass plate,  
inches high, fig. 9. at the bottom of  
portion of a circle, divided into 45 de-  
cimum number is sufficient for the highest  
f cannons and mortars, and for giving  
atest range: on the centre of this seg-  
ment is screwed a piece of brass, by means of  
ay be fixed or screwed off at pleasure:  
this piece of brass is made so as to serve  
ument and index, in order to show the  
grees of elevation of pieces of artillery,  
ment has also a brass foot to set upon  
mortars, so as, when those pieces are  
the instrument will be perpendicular,  
f this instrument is to be placed on the  
e elevated, in such a manner, as that  
of the plummet may fall on the pro-  
: this is what they call *levelling the piece*.  
EL, MASON'S, is composed of three  
ined as to form an isosceles rectangle,  
like a Roman A; at the vertex whereof  
a thread, from which hangs a plummet,  
over a fiducial line, marked in the  
the base, when the thing to which the  
ied is horizontal; but declines, from the  
n the thing is lower on the one side  
: other.

VEL, MR HUYGENS'S, Mr Huygen's in-  
sists of a telescope *a*, fig. 11. in form  
er going through a ferril, in which it is  
the middle. This ferril has two flat  
s, one above, and the other below: at  
hereof are fastened little moving pieces,  
y two rings, by one of which the tele-  
pended to an hook at the end of the  
id by the other a pretty heavy weight  
d, to keep the telescope *in equilibrio*,  
it hangs in the box *s*, which is almost  
linsced oil, oil of walnuts, or other  
t will not easily coagulate, for more  
g the balance of the weight and tele-  
he instrument carries two telescopes  
ery parallel to each other; the eye-glass  
being against the object glass of the o-  
ne may see each way without turning  
In the focus of the object-glass of each  
little hair must be strained horizontal-  
ised and lowered as occasion requires  
crew. If the tube of the telescope be  
evel when suspended, a ferril or ring,  
a it, and is to be slid along till it fixes

The hook on which the instrument is  
ed to a flat wooden cross; at the ends  
m whereof there is a hook serving to  
lescope from too much agitation in using

or carriage. To the flat cross is applied another  
hollow one, that serves as a case for the instru-  
ment; but the two ends are left open, that the  
telescope may be secured from the weather and  
always in a condition to be used. The foot of  
this instrument is a round brass plate, to which are  
fastened three brass ferrils, moveable by means of  
joints whereon are put staves, and on this foot is  
placed the box. Fig. 12. marked *l*; is a balance  
level; which being suspended by the ring, the two  
sights when *in equilibrio*, will be horizontal, or on  
a level.

(11.) LEVEL, PLUMB, OR PENDULUM, that  
which shows the horizontal lines by another line  
perpendicular to that described by a plummet or  
pendulum. This instrument, fig. 10. consists of  
two legs or branches, joined together at right an-  
gles, whereof that which carries the thread and  
plummet is about a foot and a half long; the  
thread is hung towards the top of the branch, at  
the point *a*. The middle of the branch where the  
thread passes is hollow, so that it may hang free  
every where: but towards the bottom, where  
there is a little blade of silver, whereon is drawn  
a line perpendicular to the telescope, the said cr-  
vity is covered by two pieces of brass, making as  
it were a kind of case, lest the wind should agitate  
the thread; for which reason the silver blade is  
covered with a glass *G*, to the end that it may be  
seen when the thread and plummet play upon the  
perpendicular: the telescope is fastened to the o-  
ther branch of the instrument, and is about two  
feet long; having an hair placed horizontally across  
the focus of the object glass, which determines the  
point of the level. The telescope must be fitted  
at right angles to the perpendicular. It has a ball  
and socket, by which it is fastened to the foot,  
and was invented by M. Picard.

(12.) LEVEL, REFLECTING, that made by  
means of a pretty long surface of water represent-  
ing the same object inverted which we see erected  
by the eye, so that the point where these two ob-  
jects appear to meet is level with the plate where  
the surface of the water is found. This is the inven-  
tion of M. Marriotte. There is another reflecting  
level consisting of a mirror of steel, or the like,  
well polished, and placed a little before the object-  
glass of a telescope, suspended perpendicularly.  
This mirror must make an angle of  $45^{\circ}$  with the  
telescope, in which case the perpendicular line of  
the telescope is converted into a horizontal line,  
which is the same with the line of level. This is  
the invention of M. Cassini.

(13.) LEVEL, SPIRIT. The most accurate le-  
velling instrument, and that possessed of the greatest  
essential advantages in use, is the spirit level;  
which was first constructed by the late Mr Sisson,  
and to which some small additions and improve-  
ments have been since made. The following is a  
description of one of the best of these levels, as  
made by the principal mathematical instrument  
makers. Fig. 13. is a representation of the instru-  
ment mounted on its complete staves, copied (ex-  
cept the letters) from Mr Adams's Graphical Ef-  
says, Plate xvii. fig. 3. The telescope (ABC) is  
made from 15 inches to 2 feet in length, as may  
be required. It is achromatic, of the best kind,  
and shows the objects erect. In the focus of the

eye-glasses are exceedingly fine cross wires, the intersection of which is evidently shown to be perfectly in the axis of the tube; for by turning it round on its two supporters DE, and looking through the telescope, the intersection of the wires will constantly cut the same part of the object viewed. By turning the screw *a* at the side of the telescope, the object glass at *g* is moved; and thus the telescope is exactly adapted to the eye. If these cross wires are at any time out of their adjustment, which is discovered by their intersection not cutting the same part of the object during the revolution of the telescope on its axis, they are easily adjusted by means of the four screws *bbb*, placed on the telescope about an inch from the end for the eye. These screws act in perpendicular directions to one another, by unscrewing one and tightening the other opposite to the wire, so that if connected with it, it may be moved either way at pleasure; and in this manner the other wire perpendicular to it may be moved, and thus the intersection of the wires brought exactly in the axis of the tube. To the telescope is fixed, by two small screws *cc*, the level tube containing the spirits, with a small bubble of air: This bubble of air, when the instrument is well adjusted, will settle exactly in the same place, in or near the middle of its tube, whether the telescope be reversed or not on the supporters, which in this case are kept unmoved. It is evident, that the axis of the telescope, or the intersection of the wires, must be in this case truly level. In this facile mode of adjustment consists the new improvement of the instrument; and it is hereby capable of being adjusted by only one station and one object, which will at the same time determine it to be in a true level. If by change of weather, accident, or otherwise, the instrument should have lost its level adjustment, or state, it may thus be readily restored and readjusted at the first station; which is an advantage none of the other instruments formerly made have been capable of. The two supporters DE, on which the level rests and turns, are shaped like the letter Y. The telescope rests within the upper part of them; and the inner sides of each of these Ys are tangents to the cylindrical tube of the telescope, which is turned to a true cylinder, and each touches it but at one place only. The lower end of these supporters are inserted into a strong brass plate, FE, and so as to stand perpendicularly on it. One is kept fast by a tightening screw G, and to the other is applied a fine threaded screw H, to adjust the tube when on its supporters to a true level. To the supporter, D, is sometimes applied a line of tangents as far as 12 degrees, in order to take an angle of depression or elevation to that extent. Between the supporters is also sometimes fixed a compass box I, divided into 360 degrees, and again into four 90°; having a centre pin and needle, and trigger, at *d*, to throw off the needle from the centre when not used; so in this manner it constitutes a perfect circumference, connected with all the foregoing improvements. This plate is fixed on a conical brass ferrul K, which is adapted to the bell-metal frustum of a cone at top of the brass head of the slaves, having a ball and socket, with three bell-metal joints, two strong brass parallel plates LL,

the four screws *eee* for adjusting the horizontal motion, a regulating screw M to this motion; a fastening screw N, to lighten it on the cone when necessary. The fastening screw N, and the regulating screw M, by which the whole instrument moved with accuracy through a small space in horizontal direction, was an addition of Mr Rarden's. To adjust it at the first station, The whole level being placed steadily on its slaves, it must be rendered parallel to the axis of the telescope before adjusting the horizontal motion. To this end the telescope must be placed in a line with two of the screws *ee*, and then levelled thereby till the bubble of air in the spirit-tube keeps its position in the middle, while turned about to three points making nearly right angles at the centre to one another. The horizontal motion being thus adjusted, the rims *ff* of the Ys are to be opened, the telescope taken off and laid the contrary way on the supporters. If the bubble of air then rests exactly the same, the level and telescope are rightly adjusted to one another; but if the bubble does not remain the same, the end to which the bubble goes must be noticed, and the distance of it from the telescope altered; correcting one half the error by the screws *cc*, and the other half by the screws *ee*. Now the intersection of the wires being directed to any distant object, it may be one of the vanes of the slaves hereafter described; they continue to be against it precisely while the telescope is turned round on its Ys, it proves, as before mentioned, that the axis of the telescope coincides with the intersection of the wires, and thus the instrument will give the true level direction. The operation of levelling requiring the strictest accuracy, and the best instrument when out of its adjustment being of little use, it is absolutely necessary that every person using such an instrument should have it readily in his power to correct it, and the one above described appears to be the best adapted for that purpose of any hitherto contrived.

(14.) LEVEL, WATER, that which shows the horizontal line by means of a surface of water or other liquor; founded on this principle, that water always places itself level. The most simple made of a long wooden trough or canal, whose sides are parallel to the base; so that being equally filled with water, its surface shows the line of level. This is the chorobates of the ancients. S. CHOROBATA. It is also made with two cups fastened to the two ends of a pipe, 3 or 4 feet long, about an inch in diameter, by means whereof the water communicates from the one to the other cup; and this pipe being moveable on its stand by means of a ball and socket, when the two cups become equally full of water, their two surfaces mark the line of level. This instrument, instead of cups, may also be made with two short cylinders of glass 3 or 4 inches long, fastened to each extremity of the pipe with wax or mastic. Into the pipe is poured some common or coloured water, which shows itself through the cylinders, by means whereof the line of level is determined; the height of the water with respect to the centre of the earth, being always the same in both cylinders; this level, though very simple, is yet very convenient for levelling small distances.

(1.) \* To LEVEL. *v. a.* [from the adjective.]

to even; to free from inequalities: as, he walks. 2. To reduce to the same height mething else.—

Let's bright the moon,  
opposite in level'd west was set. *Milton.*  
will thy foes with silent shame confound,  
their proud structures level with the ground.

*Sandys.*  
lay flat.—All downright rains dis sever the  
of outrageous winds, and beat down and  
swelling and mountainous billows of the  
leigs.—  
levels mountains, and he raises plains.

*Dryden.*  
ring to equality of condition.—Reason can  
sent to the admission of those brutish ap-  
which would over-run the soul, and level  
rior with its inferior faculties. *Decay of*  
5. To point in taking aim; to aim.—  
Each at the head

of his deadly aim. *Milton.*  
aim for shame level their canon lower.

*Dryden.*  
on globe's which on the victor hoist  
of with such impetuous fury smote.

*Milton.*  
construction I believe is not, globes level'd  
not, but globes level'd smote on the hoist.  
direct to any end.—A few men, whose de-  
om the first were levelled to destroy both  
and government. *Saunders.* 7. To suit to  
ion.—

Thence, like limbecks, rich ideas draw,  
t the level'd use of humankind. *Dryden.*

To LEVEL. *v. n.* 1. To aim at; to bring  
or arrow to the same direction with the  
The glory of God, and the good of his  
was the thing which the apostles aimed  
therefore ought to be the mark whereat  
level. *Hooker.* 2. To conjecture; to at-  
o guess.—I pray thee overname them; and  
namest them I will describe them; and  
ng to my description level at my affection.  
3. To be in the same direction with a

to his engine flew,  
rais'd it till it level'd right,  
aft the glow-worm tail of kite. *Hudibras.*  
nake attempts; to aim.—  
nbitious York did level at thy crown. *Sbat.*  
fface distinction or superiority; as infamy  
is trying to level.

LEVELLER. *n. s.* [from level.] 1. One who  
any thing even. 2. One who destroys su-  
y; one who endeavours to bring all to the  
ate of equality.—You are an everlasting  
; you won't allow encouragement to ex-  
ary merit. *Collier.*

LEVELLERS. See ENGLAND, § 49.

LEVELLING, *n. s.* may be defined, the art  
nstructs us in finding how much higher or  
ny given point on the surface of the earth  
another; or, in other words, the differ-  
their distance from the centre of the earth.  
actice of levelling therefore consists, 1. In  
and marking two or more points that shall  
be circumference of a circle whose centre  
of the earth. 2. In comparing the points

thus found with other points, to ascertain the dif-  
ference in their distances from the earth's centre.—  
With regard to the theory of levelling, we must  
observe, that a plumb-line, hanging freely in the  
air, points directly towards the centre of the earth;  
and a line drawn at right angles, crossing the di-  
rection of the plumb-line, and touching the earth's  
surface, is a true level only in that particular spot;  
but if this line which crosses the plumb be conti-  
nued for any considerable length, it will rise a-  
bove the earth's surface, and the apparent level will  
be above the true one, because the earth is glo-  
bular; and this rising will be as the square of the  
distance to which the said right line is produced;  
that is to say, however much it is raised above  
the earth's surface at one mile's distance, it will  
rise four times as much at the distance of two  
miles, nine times at the distance of three, &c.  
This is owing to the globular figure of the earth;  
and this rising is the difference betwixt the true and  
apparent levels; the real curve of the earth being  
the true level, and the tangent to it the apparent  
level. Hence it appears, that the less distance we  
take betwixt any two stations, the truer will be  
our operations in levelling; and so soon does the  
difference betwixt the true and apparent levels be-  
come perceptible, that it is necessary to make an  
allowance for it, if the distance betwixt the two  
stations exceeds two chains in length. The fol-  
lowing is an infallible rule for determining the al-  
lowance to be made:—"Multiply the number of  
Gunter's decimal statute chains, that are contain-  
ed in length between any two stations where the  
levels are to be taken, by itself, and the product  
arising therefrom again by 124; which is a com-  
mon multiplier for all manner of distances for this  
purpose on account of the earth's curvature: then  
divide the second product arising therefrom by  
100,000; or which is also the same, with the dash  
of the pen cut off five figures on the right hand  
side of the product, and what remains on the left  
side is inches, and the five figures cut off decimal  
parts of an inch."

TABLE of CURVATURE of the EARTH showing  
the quantity below the apparent LEVEL at the end  
of every number of chains to 100.

Chains.	Inches.	Chains.	Inches.	Chains.	Inches.	Chains.	Inches.
1 0'00	125	14 0'24	17 0'93	40	2'00		
2 0'005		15 0'28	18 0'98	45	2'28		
3 0'01125		16 0'32	19 1'05	50	3'12		
4 0'02		17 0'36	20 1'12	55	3'78		
5 0'03		18 0'40	21 1'19	60	4'50		
6 0'04		19 0'45	22 1'27	65	5'31		
7 0'06		20 0'50	23 1'35	70	6'12		
8 0'08		21 0'55	24 1'44	75	7'03		
9 0'10		22 0'60	25 1'53	80	8'00		
10 0'12		23 0'67	26 1'62	85	9'03		
11 0'15		24 0'72	27 1'71	90	10'12		
12 0'18		25 0'78	28 1'80	95	11'28		
13 0'21		26 0'84	29 1'91	100	12'60		

(2.) LEVELLING is either *simple* or *compound*. The former is when the level points are determined from one station, whether the level be fixed at one of the points or between them. *Compound levelling* is nothing more than a repetition of many simple operations. An example of *simple levelling* is given *plate CC. fig. 1.* where AB are the station points of the level; CD the two points ascertained. Let the height from A to C be 6 feet: from B to D 9 feet: the difference, 3 feet shows that B is three feet lower than A. If the station points of the level are above the line of sight, as in *fig. 2.* and the distance from A to C be 6 feet, and from B to D 9 feet, the difference will still be 3 feet which B is higher than A.

(3.) LEVELLING STAVES, instruments used in levelling, serving to carry the marks to be observed, and at the same time to measure the heights of those marks from the ground. They usually consist of two mahogany staves 10 feet long, in two parts, that slide upon one another to about five or 10th feet for the more portable carriage. They are divided into 1000 equal parts, and numbered at every tenth division by 10, 20, 30, &c. to 1000; and on one side the feet and inches are also sometimes marked. See *plate 200. fig. 3.* A vane, A, slides up and down upon each set of these staves, which by brass springs will stand at any part. These vanes are about 10 inches long and 4 inches broad; the breadth is first divided into three equal parts, the two extremes painted white, the middle space divided again into three equal parts, which are left; the middle one of them is also painted white, and the two other parts black; and thus they are suited to all the common distances. These vanes have each a brass wire across a small square hole in the centre, which serve to point out the height correctly, by coinciding with the horizontal wire of the telescope of the level.

\* LEVELNESS. *n. f.* [from *level*.] Evenness; equality of surface. 2. Equality with something else.—The river Tiber is expressed lying along, for so you must remember to draw rivers, to express their *levelness* with the earth. *Peacbam.*

(1.) \* LEVEN *n. f.* [*levain*, French. Commonly, though less properly written *leaven*; see LEAVEN.] 1. Ferment; that which being mixed in bread makes it rise and ferment. 2. Any thing capable of changing the nature of a greater mass.—The matter fermenteth on the old *levain*, and becometh more acrid. *Wifeman.*—The pestilential *levains* conveyed in goods. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) LEVEN, in geography, [from *Le Gael. soft*, and *Avon*, a river,] a river of Scotland, in Dunbartonshire, remarkable for the softness and clearness of the water. It was anciently called LEVINAI, and by Ptolemy, LELANONIUS. It rises from the great lake of LOCH-LOMOND, of which it is the overflowing at Balloch, and after running a meandering course through a beautiful valley, adorned with gentlemen's seats, farms, woods, and plantations, falls into the Frith of Clyde at Dunbarton castle. Its whole course, owing to its various windings, will measure above 9 miles, tho' in a direct line it does not exceed 6. It is navigable for one half of the year above a 3d of its length by long and narrow vessels constructed on purpose. It produces salmon, reckoned the best

in Scotland, parr, and various kinds of trout have been taken in it weighing 45 lb.

(3.) LEVEN, a river of Argyllshire, in the north of Lismore, which falls into the Atlantic.

(4.) LEVEN, a river of Fifeshire, which from Loch Leven runs through several joins the Orr, 2 miles below Markinch, and to the Frith of Forth at the town of Leven. It produces salmon, pikes, trouts, eels, &c.

(5.) LEVEN, a river of England, in Lancashire, which runs through the lake Winander. It falls into Morecambe Bay in the Irish Sea.

(6.) LEVEN, a borough of Scotland, in Fifeshire, E. of Dyfart, on the Frith of Forth. It has fairs in April, June, July, Sept. and Oct.

(7.) LEVEN, a village in Yorkshire.

(8, 9.) LEVEN, BLACK, and WHITE, two rivers in Cumberland, which unite and fall into the Kirkcubbin.

(10, 11.) LEVEN, LOCH. See LOCH-LEVEN.

(12.) LEVEN SEAT, a hill of Scotland, in Lancashire, 1200 feet above the level of the sea.

LEVENANT, a river of Wales, in Cardiganshire, which runs into the Dovy.

LEVENNY, 2 rivers of Wales; 1. in Caeronshire; 2. in Denbighshire, running into the Clwyd, near Ruthin.

LEVENS, or LEVENEZ, a town of Hungary, near the Gran; where the Turks were defeated by Gen. Souches, in 1644. It is 84 miles from Vienna.

LEUENSTEDE, a town of Holstein.

LEVENTEN, a lake of Prussia.

LEVENTINA. See LEVANTINA.

(1.) \* LEVER. *n. f.* [*levier*, French.]—A second mechanical power, is a balance supported by a hypomochlion; only the centre is not in the middle, as in the common balance, but near one end; for which reason it is used to elevate a great weight; whence come the names *Harris*.—Have you any levers to lift me up being down? *Shak.*—

Some draw with cords, and some the lever drive

With rolls and levers.

—In a lever, the motion can be continued a short space, as may be answerable to the distance betwixt the fulcrum and the weight, which is always by so much lesser, as the portion betwixt the weight and the power is greater, and the motion itself more easy. *Wilk Magick.*—

Some hoisting levers, some the wheel and axle.

(2.) LEVER, in mechanics, is a bar of wood, one part of which being supported by a prop, all other parts turn upon that prop, which is the centre of motion. This instrument is of two sorts, the common sort, where the weight is fixed to raise, rests at one end of it, our strength is applied at the other end, and the prop is between both. When we stir up the fire with a poker, we make use of this lever; the poker is the weight, which rests upon one of the bars of the grate as the incumbent fire is the weight to be overcome and the other end held in the hand is the power. In this as in all the rest, we have to increase the distance between the fire and



prop to give the man that works the instrument greater power. The lever of the 2d kind, has the prop at one end, the strength is applied to the other, and the weight to be raised rests between them. Thus in raising the water plug in the streets, the workman puts his iron lever through the hole of the plug till he reaches the ground on the other side, and, making that his prop, lifts the plug with his strength at the other end of the lever. In this lever also, the greater the distance of the prop from the strength, the greater is the workman's power. These instruments assist the strength; but sometimes a workman is obliged to act at a disadvantage, in raising either a piece of timber or a ladder upon one end. We cannot, with grammatical propriety, call this a *lever*, since such a piece of timber in fact in no way contributes to raise the weight. In this case, the man, who is the strength or power, is in the middle, the part of the beam already raised is the weight, the part yet at the ground is the prop on which the beam turns or rests. Here the man's strength will be diminished, in proportion to the weight it sustains. The weight will be greater the farther it is from the prop, therefore the man will bear the greater weight the nearer he is to the prop. See MECHANICS.

(3, 4.) LEVER. See HETERODROMUS, and HETERODROMUS.

(5.) LEVER, Sir Ashton, a late celebrated collector of curiosities in Natural History, was the son of Sir D'Arcy Lever, Kt. of Alcaene, gentleman commoner of Corpus Christi College. On leaving it, he soon rendered his family seat famous by the best aviary in the kingdom. He afterwards extended his plan to all branches of Natural History and thus rendered his museum one of the most complete in the world. He died in 1788. The LEVERIAN MUSEUM was sold by lottery, and is now on the Surrey side of Blackfriars Bridge.

(1.) \* LEVERET. [*lievret*, Fr.] A young hare. Their travels o'er that silver field does show, Like track of leverets in morning snow. *Waller*.  
(2.) LEVERET, among sportsmen, is a hare in the first year of her age. See LEpus.

(3.) LEVERET, a township of Massachusetts, in Hampshire county, near the Connecticut, 95 m. N. of Boston. It has a copper mine, and had 524 inhabitants in 1795.

LEVERIAN MUSEUM. See LEVER, N<sup>o</sup> 5.

\* LEVEROOK. † *n. f.* [*lusfire*, Saxon.] This word is retained in Scotland, and denotes the lark. The smaller birds have their particular seasons; and the leverook. *Wulson's Angler*.—If the lust faa will simoure aw the *lev. ooks*. † *Scotch Prov.*

(1.) LEVET, a town of France, in the dep. of Cher, 6 miles S. of Bourges, and 12 SSE. of Chateaufort.

(2.) \* LEVET. *n. f.* [from *lever*, French.] A salt on the trumpet; probably that by which the trumpeters are called in the morning.—

He that led the cavalcade,

VOL. XIII. PART I.

† Dr JOHNSON generally blunders when he attempts to write in the Scotch dialect, which, by the by, is only obsolete English, and was once the language of the English court. LEVEROOK should be spelt Laverock, or Laverick. His assertion from our proverbs, too, is horribly mis-spelt. Lust for list, faa for ta, and aw for a, would be unintelligible in this side of the Tweed, were it not for the connection. The Doctor however, speaks his property elsewhere. *W. LIT.*, d. 5.

Wore a fowgelder's flaggell,  
On which he blew as strong a *Levet*;  
As well-see'd lawyer on his breviate. *Hudibras*  
LEUGAST, a town of Franconia, in Bamberg; 24 miles ENB of Bamberg.

LEVI. [לֵוִי, Heb. *i. e.* joined.] the son of Jacob by Leah, and the progenitor of the priests and LEVITES, was born about A. M. 2254. His treacherous and bloody combination with Simon, to murder the Schechemites, is recorded in Gen. xxxiv: as well as Jacob's detestation of it, and his curse denounced against them for it, on his death-bed, at the very time that he pronounced blessings on Judah, Joseph, and the rest of his sons. (See Chap. xlix, 5—7.) Those who view the old Testament history, as containing not only a record of facts, but also an allegorical prefiguration of the most important events, that are to take place in the Christian church to the end of time, for which they think they have St Paul's authority, in Gal. iv 24; (See ALLEGORY;) consider this shocking transaction as an emphatic type of the horrid consequences of the union of the civil and ecclesiastical powers; which, from the establishment of the Romish church by Constantine, to the repeal of the edict of Nantes, (to descend no later) has been productive of the most dreadful scenes of treachery, cruelty, persecution and massacre. Peuben having forfeited his birth-right, by his abominable incest, they consider Simon, the next eldest son, as the proper representative of the *civil* power; and, if this be granted, the propriety of supposing Levi the type of the *ecclesiastical* will hardly be disputed, as his posterity enjoyed it for so many ages exclusively. Levi died A. M. 2391, aged 137.

\* LEVIABLE. *adj.* [from *levy*.] That may be levied.—The sums which any agreed to pay, and were not brought in, were to be *leviable* by course of law. *Bacon*.

(1.) \* LEVIATHAN. *n. f.* [לֵוִיָּאֲתָן.] A water animal mentioned in the book of *Job*. By some imagined the crocodile, but in poetry generally taken for the whale.—

We may, as bootless, spend our vain command

Upon th' enraged foldiers in their spoil,  
As send our precepts to the *leviathan*,  
To come ashore. *Shak.*  
—Canst thou draw out *leviathan* with an hook? *Job*.—

More to embroil the deep; *leviathan*,  
And his unwieldy train, in dreadful sport  
Tempest the loolen'd brine. *Toung's Winter*.

(2.) LEVIATHAN. Zoologists and commentators have been much puzzled to determine what genus of animals the *leviathan* belongs to. Some suppose it to be the whale; others a species of land dragon, said to frequent the banks of the Red Sea; others the crocodile; while a 4th class do not reckon it an animal at all, but a *whirlpool*. This last opinion is too abused to require refutation, as the whole description

Y

tion

tion, in Job xli: of his parts, passions, motions, strength, invulnerability, &c. evidently refer to an animated being, and not to a collection of dead matter, such as a whirlpool. Of the dragon nothing yet certainly known; the description of the leviathan: (See DRACO, N<sup>o</sup>. III.) As to the whale, many parts of the description, particularly verses 6th and 7th, cannot, by any construction of language, be made to apply to it; for it is well known that the whale's "skin" is often "filled with barbed irons," and "his head with *fish-spears*;" and that those engaged in the whale-fishery "part him" (his blubber, bones, spermaceti, &c.) "among the merchants."—In a word no animal, that we have any certain knowledge of, comes any thing near the grand and majestic description given of the leviathan, by his Creator, except the crocodile; who, it is well ascertained, cannot be "drawn out," or taken "with an hook," or his "jaws bored through with a *storn*;"—whose "teeth are indeed terrible round about,"—whose scales may be said to be "his pride, shut up together as with a close seal;—one fo near to another, that no air can come between them;—so joined one to another, and sticking together, that they cannot be sundered," &c. See LACERTA, § II: N<sup>o</sup>. 2, 8, and 11.

LEVICO, a lake of Austria, in Tirol.

LEVIE, a town of the French republic, in the dep. and island of Corsica; 13 miles NW. of Porto Vecchio.

LEVIER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Doubs; 9 miles S. of Ornans.

\* To LEVIGATE. *v. a.* [*levigo*, Lat.] 1. To rub or grind to an impalpable powder. 2. To mix till the liquor becomes smooth and uniform.—The chyle is white, as consisting of salt, oil, and water, much *levigated* or smoothed. *Arbutnot.*

(1.) \* LEVIGATION. *n. s.* [from *levigate*.]—*Levigation* is the reducing of hard bodies, as coral, tutty, and precious stones, into a subtile powder, by grinding upon marble with a muller; but unless the instruments are extremely hard, they will so wear as to double the weight of the medicine. *Quincy.*

(2.) LEVIGATION, in pharmacy and chemistry, is performed by grinding hard and ponderous bodies to an impalpable powder, on a porphyry, or in a mill. A new method of reducing powders to a great degree of fineness has lately been invented by means of a fanner. This has the advantage over the other methods, in being much more expeditious, and attended with less trouble and expence; the degree of fineness to which they are reducible being thus also in a manner unlimited. The construction of the fanner employed for this purpose is different from that employed for winnowing clay; the blast net being collected into a small compass as in the latter, but diffused over a considerable space, left a violent blast should hurry off both coarse and fine together. For this purpose, the leaves of the fanner are made as long in the direction parallel to the axis as can be done conveniently. In the other direction projecting from it, they differ not from the ordinary length, nor do they in the general situation with respect to each other. Before the leaves is a wooden partition reaching half way up, to prevent the gross powder from falling in among the leaves, which

reach about half way from bottom to about two feet or less from this, according to the size of the fanner, is another partition in direction, reaching from the bottom of the box near the top. The whole is inclosed in a box 6 or 7 feet long, having in the end a slit equal to the space between the top of the box and the sloping already mentioned. On the top of this box, extending from the farthest end former to the hopper which holds the powder, with a hole in the end nearest to it and upon this another box, &c. as long as found that the air carries off with it any of powder. This will be best understood by the following description of the figure; A represents the fanner itself, having a hopper for the admission of the air, as usual first wooden division, to prevent the powder upon the leaves of the fanner. A second division reaching not quite to the top of the box. Its use is to direct the current produced by the fanner obliquely upwards it strikes the powder, falling down from the hopper, in the same oblique direction, and the fine parts, first through the aperture which some of them are lodged in the box, still finer particles are carried through the box into the second box E, where part of them are lodged: they next pass through the aperture to the box F, and through G into the box H, the powder becoming still finer and in small quantity as it ascends into the higher boxes, until the waste becomes so trifling, that the air is allowed to pass off entirely through the box in the fourth or some other box, as most convenient. Thus it is evident we may obtain powders of every degree of fineness, as neither sieve nor levigating mill can. Washing over with water may indeed produce powders equally fine; but the length of time requisite for settling, and the trouble of drying again, must decidedly give the preference to the fanner; especially when we consider, that not any occasion for taking out the powder in small quantities, as is the case in fitting, or levigating; but it may be allowed to remain as much is collected in the boxes as desired. The principal difficulty in the construction of the fanner is the letting down the powder in a manner, so that the stream of air, which is not to be very strong, may freely pass through. For this purpose, the hopper must not be in a large body, as in winnowing of corn, but a long and thin sheet, which can easily be directed. The best method seems to be to let the hopper extend the whole breadth of the box, leaving a narrow slit at bottom. Close on each part of this slit, a fluted roller ought to be placed, which shutting up the aperture exactly, will allow any powder to pass but what does not pass in consequence of the hollow flutes of the roller. It would be proper also that the fluted roller should be smooth round one would allow nothing to pass. It would be proper also that the fluted roller should be thin and nearly continued, so that the powder be always descending: for this purpose the tribute greatly to the fineness of the powder.

ccount the powder ought, before it is put  
opper, to be passed through a lawn sieve.  
gure, *e* represents the hopper, and *f* the  
ller. Motion is easily communicated to  
r by means of a wheel fastened on the ax-  
fanner. The coarse powder is kept back  
artition *C*, and descends through a slit i  
ttom of the lowermost box, into a recep-  
which may be removed occasionally. All  
s and seams of the machine must be very  
r the fine powder is very penetrating; for  
on also the hopper ought to have a lid.  
GNAC, a town of France, in the dep. of  
er Garonne,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles SW. of Grenade,  
NNW. of Toulouse.

LEVITE. [*Levita*, Latin, from *Levi*.] 1.  
he tribe of Levi; one born to the office of  
d among the Jews.—In the Christian  
the office of deacons succeed in the place  
*evites* among the Jews, who were as minist-  
l servants to the priests. *Ayliffe*. 2. A  
sed in contempt.

EVITES, in a general sense, include all the  
nts of LEVI, among whom were the Jew-  
s. In a more particular sense, the *Levites*  
order of officers in the Jewish church,  
re employ'd in performing the manual ser-  
ve temple. They were obedient to the  
be descendants of Aaron, in their ministrat-  
d brought them wood, water, and other  
es for the sacrifice. They sung and play-  
instruments in the temple and other place  
ey applied themselves to the study of the  
were the ordinary judges of the country,  
ye subordinate to the priests. Their sub-  
was the tythes of corn, fruit, and cattle,  
ut Israel: but the priests were entitled to a  
their tythes, by way of first-fruits to the  
8 cities were assigned for the residence  
vites, of which the priests claimed 13,  
of were appointed cities of refuge. They  
secrated, before they entered upon their  
by shaving their flesh, washing their  
and sprinkling with the water of expia-  
position of hands was used in consecra-  
l two bullocks were offered at the door  
bernacle. They waited weekly, and by  
the temple, beginning their attendance  
abbath and ending the next: During this  
were maintained out of the offerings,  
the time of Solomon, the number of *Le-*  
m the age of 20, capable of serving, was

TTICAL. *adj.* [from *levite*.] Belonging  
vites; making part of the religion of the  
by the *Levitical* law, both the man and the  
were stoned to death; so heinous a crime  
tery. *Ayliffe*.

ICUS, a canonical book of the Old Test-  
o called from its continuing the laws and  
ns relating to the priests, Levites, and fa-

TTY. *n. s.* [*Levitas*, Latin.] 1. Lightness;  
iness: the quality by which any body has  
ght than another.—He gave the form of  
that which ascended; to that which de-  
scended, the form of gravity. *Raleigh*.—This bub-  
reason of its comparative *levity* to the fluid

dity that enclaves it, would ascend to the top.  
*Bentley*. 2. Inconstancy; changeableness.—They  
every day broached some new thing; which ref-  
lects *levity* they did interpret to be their growing  
in spiritual perfection. *Hooker*.—

Where wigs with wigs, with sword-knots  
sword-knots strive,  
Beaus banish beaus, and coaches coaches drive,  
This erring mortals *levity* may call. *Pop.*  
3. Unsteadiness; laxity of mind.—  
I unbosom'd all my secrets to thee;  
Not out of *levity*, but over-pow'r'd  
By thy request. *Milton*.

4. Idle pleasure; vanity.—He never employed his  
omnipotence out of *levity* or ostentation, but as  
the necessities of men required. *Calamy*. 5. Tri-  
fling gaiety; wanting of seriousness.—

Our graver business frowns at this *levity*. *Shak.*  
—Hopton abhorred the licence, and the *levities*,  
with which he saw too many corrupted. *Clarend.*  
—That spirit of religion and seriousness vanished,  
and a spirit of *levity* and libertinism, infidelity and  
profaneness, started up in the room of it. *Atterb.*

LEVIZANO, a populous town of the Italian  
republic, in the dep. of Panaro, and district (late  
duchy) of Modena; 6 miles SE. of Modena.

LEUK, a town of Switzerland, almost in the  
middle of the VALAIS; remarkable for its natural  
strength, for the assembly of the states that often  
met there, and for its baths, whose water is so  
hot that it will boil eggs. Lon. 7. 39. E. Lat. 46  
12. N.

LEUN, or LEIN, a town of Germany, in the  
circle of the Upper Rhine and county of Solms  
Braunfels, on the Lahn; 4 m. NE. of Weilburg.

LEUNCLAVIUS, John, a learned German,  
descended of a noble family, and born at Amel-  
brun in Westphalia, in 1533. He travelled through  
most countries in Europe. While he was in Tur-  
key, he collected good materials for a *History of*  
*the Ottoman Empire*; which he published, and sev-  
eral other pieces concerning it, in Latin. He al-  
so translated Xenophon, Zosimus, &c. into Latin.  
To a knowledge of the learned languages he add-  
ed that of the civil law. He died at Vienna in  
1593, aged 60.

LEUPUSCH, a town of Silesia, in Niesse.

LEVRARA, an island of Maritime Austria, in  
the prov. of Quarnero, 4 miles in circumference,  
abounding with rabbits.

LEURE, a river of France, which runs into the  
Loire, below Old St Florent, in the dep. of Maine  
and Loire.

LEVROUX, an ancient town of France, in the  
dep. of the Indre; 17 miles E. of Chatillon, and  
35 SW. of Bourges. Lon. 1. 40. E. Lat. 46. 59. N.

LEUSCHEIDT, a town of Westphalia, in the  
duchy of Berg, 9 miles ESE. of Blankenberg.

LEUSDEN, John, a celebrated philologist, born  
in 1624. He studied the learned languages and  
mathematics at Utrecht; and then went to Am-  
sterdam, to converse with the rabbis, and perfect  
himself in the Hebrew tongue. After which he was  
professor of Hebrew at Utrecht, where he acqui-  
red a great reputation, and died in 1699. He  
wrote many valuable works; the principal of  
which are, 1. *Onomasticum Sacrum*, 8vo. 2. *Gla-*  
*vis Hebraica & Philologica Veteris Testamenti*, 4to.

3. *Novi Testamenti Clavis Græca, cum Annotationibus Philologicis*, 8vo. 4. *Compendium Biblicum Veteris Testamenti*, 8vo. 5. *Compendium Græcum Novi Testamenti*; the best edition of which is that of London, in 1668, 12mo. 6. *Philologus Hebraus*, 4to. 7. *Philologus Hebraeo-mixtus*, 4to. 8. *Philologus Hebraeo-Græcus*, 4to. 9. Notes on Jonas, Joel, Hosea, &c. He also gave correct editions of several learned works.

LEUSE, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Gemappes, and ci-devant province of Austrian Hainault, seated on the Dender; 14 miles NW. of Mons. Lon. 3. 45. E. Lat. 50. 35. N.

LEUTENBERG, a town of Upper Saxony, on the Sorbitz, near mines of silver and copper; 12 miles SSE. of Rudolstadt.

LEUTH, a town of the French republic, in the dept. of the Ourte, and late bishopric of Liege; 2 miles S. of Stockem.

LEUTHER, a river of Scotland, in Kincardineshire, which rises in the Grampians, runs through the parish of Lawrencekirk, and falls into the North Esk.

LEUTKIRCH, or } an imperial town of Suabia,  
LEUTKIRK, } in Algow, on a rivulet that falls into the Iller. Lon. 10. 10. E. Lat. 47. 53. N.

LEUTMERITZ. See LEITMERITZ, N<sup>o</sup> 1, 2.

LEUTMISCHL, a town of Bohemia.

(1.) LEUTSCH, a town of Carniola.

(2.) LEUTSCH, a town of Hungary.

LEUTZBURG, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Bern, 6 miles S. of Brugg.

LEUWENHOEK, Anthony DE, F. R. S. a celebrated Dutch physician and naturalist, born at Delft in 1632. He was of an ancient family, and acquired great reputation throughout all Europe, by his experiments and discoveries. He particularly excelled in making glasses for microscopes and spectacles, and died in 1723. His letters to the royal society of London were printed at Leyden, in 1722, in 4to.

\* LEVY. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of raising money or men.—Every new *levy* they make must be at the expence of their farms and commerce. *Addison*. 2. War raised.—

Treason has done his worst: nor steel, nor poison,

Malice domestick, foreign *levy*, nothing  
Can touch him further. *Shak.*

\* To LEVY. *v. a.* [*lever*, French.] 1. To raise; to bring together; applied to men.—He resolved to finish the conquest of Ireland, and to that end *levied* a mighty army. *Davies*. 2. To raise, applied to war. This sense, though *Milton's*, seems improper.—

They live in hatred, enmity, and strife,  
Among themselves, and *levy* cruel wars. *Milt.*  
3. To raise: applied to money.—*Levy* a tribute unto the Lord of the men of war. *Numbers*.—Instead of a ship he should *levy* upon his country such a sum of money. *Clarendon*.

LEFUZE, or LEUSE. See LEUSE.

LEWARDE, a town of France, in the dep. of the North, 4 miles E. of Douay, and 7 NW. of Bouchain.

LEWARDEN, a handsome, rich, and strong town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the

Eems, and late capital of Ostergow, West Sevenwolden, and W. Friesland. It was the place of residence of the Stadtholder; and in ings, as well public as private, is very magnificent. It has several canals running through the which are of great service to trade, especially they are continued to the sea and to the most considerable towns of the department. Lon. 5 Lat. 53. 12. N.

LEWCKOCE, a town of Poland, in Po  
\* LEWD. *adj.* [*Leawde*, Saxon.] 1. Le clerical; from *lead*, Saxon, *people*. It is son grofs: ignorant. Obsolete.—For *leawd* m book I writ. *B. Groffthead*.—

So these great clerks their little wifdo  
To mock the *leawd*, as learn'd in this as

2. Wicked; bad; dissolute.—If some be ad into the ministry, either void of learning, in life, are all the rest to be condemned? —Before they did oppress the people, only our of a *leawd* custom, they did afterwards same oppressions by warrant. *Davies*. 3. I libidinous.—

He is not lolling on a *leawd* love-bed,  
But on his knees at meditation. *R*  
Then *leawd* Anchemolus he laid in du  
Who stain'd his stepdame's bed with  
lust.

\* LEWDLY. *adv.* [from *leawd*.] 1. Wi naughtily.—

A sort of naughty persons, *leawdly* be  
Have practis'd dangerously against you

2. Libidiously; lustfully.—  
He lov'd fair lady Eltred, *leawdly* lov  
Whose wanton pleasures him too m  
please,  
That quite his heart from Guendeline i

So *leawdly* dull his idle works appear,  
The wretched texts deserve no comme

(1.) \* LEWDNESS. *n. f.* [from *leawd*.] licentiousness.—

Suffer no *leawdness*, nor indecent spe  
Th' apartment of the tender youth to

—Damianus's letter to Nicholas is an au record of the *leawdness* committed under of celibacy. *Atterbury*.

(2.) LEWDNESS. See FORNICATION. nefs is punishable by our law by fine, imprisonment, &c. And Mich. 15 Car. II. a per indicted for open *leawdness*, in showing h body on a balcony, and other misdemean was fined 2000 marks, imprisoned for and bound to his good behaviour for the 1 Sid. 168. Formerly when any man g lease of his house, it was usual to insert a covenant, that the tenant should not ente *leawd* women, &c.

\* LEWDSTER. *n. f.* [from *leawd*.] one given to criminal pleasures.—

Against such *leawdsters* and their lect  
Those that betray them do no teache  
LEWELLYN I. and II. Princes of Wal

of the last of these, Wales was annexed to the crown of England. See ENGLAND, § 27; and § 28.

**LIN**, a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Moravia; 8 miles NE. of Leitmeritz.

**LENTZ**, a town of Upper Hungary, in the county of Gran, and on the river so named, where the Hungarians were defeated in 1644. Lon. 18. 19. E. 45. N.

**LEWIS**, an ancient, large, and well-built town, situated on an eminence on the banks of the River Thames, 50 miles from London. A bloody battle was fought near it, wherein K. Henry III. was killed and taken prisoner by the barons. K. Henry III. appointed two mint-houses here; and in the reign of Edward the Confessor, it had 127 burgesses. It is a borough by prescription. The streets are chosen yearly. It has handsome streets and suburbs, with six parish churches. It carries on a good trade; and the Ouse, which runs through it, brings goods in barges from a port 8 miles from London.

On this river are several iron works, and lead mines, &c. are cast. A charity school was founded in 1711, where 28 boys are taught, and maintained. The soil is the richest in the county. The market is on Saturday, and on May 6, Whitsun-Tuesday, and Oct. 2. The corn is prodigiously large, and are sometimes carried to Maidstone and other places on the river, on a sort of carriage called a *tug*, by which they are then left for other tugs to carry it to London; and a tree is sometimes two or three years old when it is cut down; because, the roads being so bad, the rain is once set in, sometimes a summer is not dry enough to make the soil fertile. Living being cheap, and the town frequented by gentlemen, it is reckoned an agreeable retreat for half-pay officers. It sends members to parliament, and lies 30 miles E. of London, and 49 S. of London. Lon. 0. 5. E. 45. N.

**LEWIS**, [LOUIS, Fr.] the name of 16 kings of France. See FRANCE. Of these we shall only take notice of the following:

**VII.** A. D. 1137, was the first who had the courage to oppose the encroachments of the papal authority: Pope Innocent II. threatened him for appointing an Abp. of Sens, but Lewis defended his prerogatives, and put the priests to death who had been the authors of the quarrel. In 1147, he marched with an army of 20,000 men against the Saracens, (see § 24.) but was defeated; and returning was taken by the Greeks, but rescued by the emperor of Sicily. He died in 1180, aged 60.

**IX.** or **ST LEWIS**, was one of the greatest monarchs of France; equally memorable for his piety and his virtues, but unfortunately, misled by the superstition of the times, he sacrificed his private interest, and the welfare of his kingdom, to the policy of crusading. He succeeded his father, Louis IX. in 1226. In 1248, leaving France to the care of his son, he embarked for Egypt, attended by his three brothers, and the flower of the French nobility. At first his victories were great; he took Damietta in 1249; but in 1250 he was defeated and taken prisoner by the Turks, his nobles, and the greatest part of his

army. The sultan demanded an exorbitant sum for his ransom, and his answer deserves to be recorded: "Tell the sultan, that a king of France is not to be ransomed with money; I will give the sum required for my people, and Damietta for myself." These terms were accepted, and a peace of ten years ensued. Upon his return to France, he diminished the taxes, revoked those which the financiers had introduced; issued several salutary edicts; founded several churches and hospitals; and effectually overturned the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the court of Rome, by his pragmatic sanction in 1269, which established the independency of the Gallican church. Thirteen years residence in his capital indemnified his subjects for his absence; but his pious zeal prevented the enjoyment of this happiness: he embarked for the sixth crusade in 1270; and died the same year, at the siege of Tunis, aged 55.

**LEWIS XI.** was one of the greatest tyrants that ever existed. He began to reign A. D. 1461. His oppressions obliged his subjects to enter into a league against him, styled "*Ligue de bien publics*," in which his brother the duke of Berri and some of the principal nobility were concerned: they solicited succours from John duke of Calabria, who joined them with 500 Swiss; the first introduction of Swiss soldiers into the French armies. His reign was almost one continued scene of civil war; and it is computed that 4000 of his subjects were executed in public and private, either for being in arms against him, or suspected by him. In his last illness, he drank the warm blood of children, in the vain hope of restoring his decayed strength. He died in 1483, aged 60. The posts for letters were established in his reign, owing to his eagerness for news; the first institution of this nature in Europe.

**LEWIS XII.** A. D. 1492, styled *the Just*, and *the Father of his people*, is memorable for his valour in the field, and his wisdom in the cabinet. A great general, but unfortunate towards the end of his reign, when he did not command his troops in person: his orders transmitted from home were misunderstood, or wilfully disobeyed; and he had the mortification, before he died, to see the total expulsion of the French from the possessions he had acquired for them by his personal bravery. At 53 years of age, he married the princess Mary of England, sister of Henry VIII. and being of a delicate constitution, fell a victim (according to the French historians) to an atrocious dalliance; for he died about 2 months after his nuptials, in 1515.

**LEWIS XIII.** A. D. 1610, increased the military reputation of his country, and made considerable additions to its domains. The beginning of his reign was occupied in civil wars with his mother and his Protestant subjects; in which he was excited to continue by his famous minister cardinal Richelieu, who attended him to the siege of Rochelle, the bulwark of the Hugonot party; which surrendered in 1628, after a siege of more than a year. Upon this and other occasions, the king gave proofs of great personal bravery. His attachment to his ally the duke de Nevers, who succeeded to the duchy of Mantua, but was refused the investiture by Charles VI. emperor of Germany, involved him in a war with that prince, the Spaniards,

Spaniards, and the duke of Savoy; in which Lewis was victorious; and obtained a treaty of peace, by which the duke of Mantua was guaranteed in the possession of his dominions. In 1635, a new war broke out between France and Spain, and the emperor took part with the latter: it lasted 13 years against the emperor, and 25 against Spain, with various success; and the military experience acquired by the different armies kept on foot, in the Low Countries, on the frontiers of France, and in Italy, paved the way for the successes of Lewis XIV. Lewis XIII. died in 1643, aged 41.

LEWIS XIV. falsely styled THE GREAT, became king at 5 years of age, in 1643. He was at first styled *Dieu-donne*, because the French considered him as the *gift of heaven*, granted to their prayers after the queen had been barren 22 years. This princess (Anne of Austria) was declared regent by Lewis XIII. and saw herself under a necessity to continue the war against Philip IV. king of Spain, her brother. The duke d'Enguin was made general of the French armies; and so signal was the success of this renowned warrior (afterwards prince of Condé, and known by the style of *the Great Condé*), that his victories brought on the advantageous treaties of Munster in 1648, between France, the emperor Ferdinand III. and Christina queen of Sweden: the basis of the aggrandisement of France in this reign, the principal events of which, and of the next, will be found related under the articles ENGLAND, § 69-83; FRANCE, § 46-49; UNITED PROVINCES, &c. Lewis XIV. died in 1715, aged 77.

LEWIS XV. great-grandson of the preceding, succeeded in 1715. He was styled, in the course of his reign, *the well-beloved*, which he lost some years before he died, and was detested and despised by his subjects for his shameful attachment to Madame Pompadour, the wife of M. DE TOULOUSE, who, by the ministry of her patron the duke d'Albion, governed the kingdom, and invaded the rights of the people. He died in 1774, in the 64th year of his age and 50th of his reign.

LEWIS XVI. the last French monarch of the race of CAPET, and house of BOURBON, succeeded his grandfather in 1774. We cannot stile him the *last monarch of France*, now that Napoleon Bonaparte is elected First Consul *for Life*. The principal events of this unfortunate king's reign to the revolution, in 1789, are related under FRANCE, § 50-57. His character is universally allowed to have been such, as, in times of less disturbance, would have insured him a high degree of popularity to the end of his life. He was naturally of a mild and humane disposition; and has the peculiar merit of having been the first who instituted a society for the instruction and employment of the blind; an example of benevolence which has been since successfully followed in this and other countries. He was also an author, and translated 5 vols. of *Gibbons's History*, and *Walpole's Historical Doubts* into French. His last will and testament, written by himself, exhibits a strong picture of his piety, resignation, and affection for his relations. At his trial, he showed an uncommon degree of spirit, recollection, and undaunted fortitude. On the 21<sup>st</sup> of Jan. 1793, this unfortunate monarch,

one of the best of his race, and whose projects, as well as his repeated concessions to subjects, merited a better fate, fell by the guillotine, a sacrifice to that democratic jealousy, and popular fury,—which exhausted its rage by off many of the greatest men in France.

(17-21.) LEWIS is also the name of 3 m of Germany:

LEWIS I. emperor of Germany and France, succeeded his father Charlemagne, but was very unfortunate. (See FRANCE) He died in 841.

LEWIS II, the only son of Lothaire I, and son of Lewis I. was made king of Italy and succeeded his father as emperor in 854, and drove the Saracens out of Italy, (see ITALY) and died in 875.

LEWIS III, grandson of Lewis II. by his sister Ermengarde, succeeded his brother, Ch in 877, at 10 years of age. Berenger displaced imperial throne with him, and having taken prisoner at Verona, put out his eyes. He died in 879.

LEWIS IV. the son of the emperor Arn succeeded his father A. D. 900, and 103 years, during which the empire was one scene of desolation; and was dreadfully invaded by the Hungarians. He died in 911.

LEWIS V. the son of Lewis D. of Bavaria Matilda daughter of the emp. Rodolph I. was elected emperor in 1314; but his election was disputed by Frederick, whom he deposed, took prisoner, and compelled to renounce his claim to the empire. But in 1322, he was deposed by pope John XXII, on which he fled to Rome, and was crowned emperor by the pope Peter de Colbiere. He was killed from his horse in 1347.

(22.) LEWIS, King of Poland. See POLAND.  
(23.) LEWIS, John, M. A. & learned Divine, born at Baffel, in 1675, and educated at Exeter college, Oxford. Altho' Tenison was the vicar of Miffon in the life of Than published, 1. The Life of John Wickliffe 8vo, 1721. 2. The History and Antiquities of the Isle of Thanet; 4to, 1721. 3. History of the bay and Church of Faversham; 4to, 1727. 4. The History of the Isle of Thanet, from the first settlement in 8vo. 5. A complete history of the Isle of Thanet into English; 8vo. He also translated Wickliffe's Translation; and died in 1751.

(24.) LEWIS, in geography, one of the islands of the Western Islands of Scotland, extends about 60 miles in length from N. to S. and 12 to 14 in breadth, consisting of a great number of hills and rocks, and connected by an 6 or 6 miles with the Isle of Harris. See HARRIS. Lewis belongs to the county of Inverness, and is divided by several channels, distinguished by different names, and partitioned out among different proprietors; but *Lewis*, strictly so called, is about 36 miles in length, from the N. to the S. Bowling-head to the S. extremity of Huf Harris. The air is moderately cold, not unhealthy; great part of the low ground is covered with lakes; the soil is fertile in many places, and produces oats, barley, rye, flax, and hemp; but the best part is a light sand, which is

nature with foot and sea-ware; but great the island is covered with heath. The people dig the land with spades, and the clods with small harrows, the foremost which are made of wood, and the remainder heath, which smooths what the oxe broken; and this harrow is drawn by a horse, having a strong trace of horse-hair across it. Of their corn they not only make malt but likewise a strong spirit called *tre-flareg*, which is whisky 3 times distilled. Lewis abounds in convenient bays and harbours, in which are in great plenty, cod, ling, and herring: of different sizes are also often driven into the bays, and killed with harpoons. These bays contain plenty of shell-fish, such as clams, cockles, muscles, limpets, welks, and such a quantity of spout-fish is sometimes driven from the sand off Loch-tua, that they in-crease, and render it unhealthy to the neighbouring inhabitants, who are not able to consume either as food, or manure. Some of these islands likewise produce small corals and shells. The fresh water lakes are well stored with trout and eels, and the rivers yield plenty of salmon. Along the coast are numbers of caves, which serve as shelter for seals and otters, which are hunted by the inhabitants; and vast numbers of seals build upon the rocks and promontories. Lewis is well stocked with horses, cows, sheep, hogs, and deer, of a diminutive size; but the beef, mutton, and pork, are juicy and delicious; the horses are hardy: the deer, which are of the red kind, confine themselves to the chase of Oservaul, which is 5 miles in compass, which affords tolerable sport; but in winter, when the ground is covered with snow, these animals feed on sea-ware, and are all the rigour of the season, without shelter from wood or copse, for there is not a tree to be seen; and though roots of very large trees have been cut by the ax, are found in dis-places. There is likewise a small grove of hazel on the SW. side of Loch-Stornaway. The inhabitants of Lewis are well-proportioned, fair, sanguine, strong, and healthy. They are in general sober, circumspect, and hos- pitable; dexterous in shooting, swimming, and sailing; bold and skilful mariners: and so temperate that they will sleep at the oar all day, without any other provision than bread and water. On this coast are several natural mounts or hills called *Duns*; such as Dun-rowly, Dun- galloway, and Dun-sisten. There are also the remains of several castles, and other monuments of antiquity. At Stornaway village are the ruins of a castle destroyed by the English garrison sent by Oliver Cromwell. To the N. of Brage is a round tower built of large stones, 12 feet high, tapering to the top, with a double spiral and a circular staircase between, by which you go quite round the building. On the top of the hills there are several cairns. In the bay of Barvas there is a single stone called the standing stone, standing upright, above 20 feet high, and is much in breadth. Three stones, about 10 feet high each, stand on the N. side of Loch- tua; and many others standing singly at great distances, and in remote parts of the island. But

the most remarkable monument of this kind ap- pears by the village of Claskniss. Here we find 39 pyramidal stones standing upright, about 6 or 7 feet high from the surface, each about 2 feet in breadth. They are placed in form of an avenue, 8 feet wide; the distance between every stone be- ing 6 feet, and a single piece stands at the en- trance. This avenue leads to a circle of 12 stones of the same dimensions, with one in the centre 13 feet in length, and shaped like a rudder: on the E. S. and W. sides of this circle, are 4 stones forming three lines, or as it were rays from the body of the circle. This is supposed to have been a Druid temple; and tradition reports, that the chief Druid stood by the large stone in the centre, and harangued the audience. At the distance of a quarter of a mile there is another circle of the same nature; but without the range and avenue. In all probability, these were places of worship erected by the Druids in time of Pagan supersti- tion. The chief town is STORNAWAY. There is a considerable number of inferior adjacent isles and rocks, such as Garve at the mouth of Loch Carlvay, Berinsfay, Fladda, Bernera Minor and Ma- jor, Kialisy, Cavay, Carvay, Grenim, Pabbay, Shi- rem Vexay, Wuya Larger and Lesser, the isle of Pigmies, and the Flannan islands, which the sea- men denominate the *northern hunters*. These are visited every summer by the inhabitants of the Lewis, who go thither in quest of fowls, eggs, down, quills, and feathers, as well as to shear or kill the sheep that are kept here for pasture. In the largest island are the ruins of a chapel dedi- cated to St Flannan, from whom the isles derive their name. Lewis is divided into the two pa- rishes of Barvas and Eye, and in each of these one minister is settled; but there is a great number of churches and chapels dedicated to different saints, in the different isles which compose this cluster. All these were sanctuaries before the reformation, but now they are divested of that privilege. The people of these islands are Presbyterians, with a few Protestants of the English communion, and a still smaller number of Roman Catholics. The Protestants observe the festivals of Christmas, Good Friday, Easter, and Michaelmas; on the last of which the individuals of both sexes perform an anniversary cavalcade.

(25, 26.) LEWIS, two towns of Virginia; the one 23 miles E. of West Point; the other 30 miles WNW. of Richmond.

(27.) LEWIS, a town of Vermont, SW. of Lem- ington; 8 miles S. of the Canada Line.

(1.) LEWISBURG, a town of N. Carolina, the capital of Franklin county, on the Tar River, 56 miles from Tarborough, and 411 from Philadel- phia.

(2.) LEWISBURG, a county of S. Carolina.

(3.) LEWISBURG, or TARTOWNS, a town of Pennsylvania, on the W. bank of the Susquehan- na, 7 miles above Northumberland.

(4.) LEWISBURG, a post town of Virginia, capi- tal of Greenbrier county; 250 miles W. by N. of Richmond.

(5.) LEWISBURG. See LOUISBURG.

LEWIS CREEK, a small river of Delaware, which runs into Delaware Bay.

\* LEWIS D'OR. *n. f.* [French.] A golden Plover

coin, in value 12 livres, now settled at 17 shillings.  
*Dis.*

**LEWISHAM**, a large village in Kent, on the road to Seven-Oaks; 5 miles SE. by S. of London.

(1.) **LEWISTOWN**, a town of Delaware, late capital of Sussex county, seated on Lewis Creek, 4 miles above Delaware bay, and 113 S. of Philadelphia.

(2.) **LEWISTOWN**, a town of Pennsylvania, capital of Mifflin county, on the N. bank of the Juniata, 115 miles WNW. of Philadelphia. Lon. 77.38. W. Lat. 40.35. N.

**LEWUNAKHANNEK**, a town of N. America on the Ohio, inhabited by Christian Indians, settled under the care of Moravian missionaries.

(1.) **LEX, LAW.** See *LAW*, Part I. The Roman laws were of three kinds: 1st, Such as were made by their kings. 2d, The laws of the XII tables brought by the *Decemviri* from Athens, &c. And, 3d, Such as were proposed by the superior magistrates in the times of the republic.

Romans made laws by his sole authority; but his successors sought the approbation of the people. The laws of the 3d class were enacted in the following manner. No law could be proposed but by some of the following magistrates, viz. the *Pretor*, *Consul*, *Dictator*, *Interrex*, *Decemviri*, *Military Tribunes*, *Triumviri*, *Tribunes* of the people. If any of these proposed a law, it was first committed to a *Comitia*, and privately examined as to its utility and probable consequences, by persons qualified for the task; sometimes it was referred to the whole senate for their sentiments. It was then being up publicly for 3 market days, that all the people might have time to examine it, and consider its tendency: This was called *legis promulgatio*, *quasi promulatio*. If the person who framed the bill did not in the mean time drop it, the people were convened in *comitia*, and he addressed them in an oration, being also seconded by his friends, setting forth the expediency and probable utility of such a law: This was called *rogatio legis*, because the address was always preface with this petitionary form of words, *Velitis, jubetisne, Quirites?* "Will you, O Romans, consent and order this law to pass?" This being done, those that disliked the motion delivered their sentiments in opposition to it. An urn was then brought to certain priests who attended upon the occasion, into which were cast the names of the tribes, centuries, or *curia*, as the *COMITIA* happened to be *tributa*, *centuriata*, or *curiata*. (See *COMITIA*, § 3—5.) The names were shaken together; and the first drawn tribe or century was called *pr. rogativa*, because their suffrages were first asked. The *curia* first drawn was called *principium* for the same reason. The other tribes, centuries, &c. were called *tribus jure vocata*, *centurie jure vocatae*, &c. In this situation, the *velis* or negative voice of the tribunes of the people might put an end to the proceedings, and dissolve the assembly. The tribune's interference was called *intercessio*. The consul also had it in his power to stop further proceedings, by commanding any of the holidays called *ferie imperatorie* to be observed. The *comitia* would also be dissolved by any person being seized with the falling sickness, or upon the appearance of any unlucky omen. If it met with no interruption of this sort, the people were presented with two tables of which was written A. on the other U. disapprobation of the bill was expressed by throwing into an urn the tablet inscribed A. Their assent by throwing in the one marked U. According to the majority of these tables the law passed or not. If it passed, it was upon record, and carried into effect; if not, it was called *legem ferre*. After it was engraved upon plates of brass and in the most public and conspicuous place, it was termed *legem figere*, and a future law this was *legem referere*. If a law passed *mitis curiata*, it was called *lex curiata*, *comitia centuriata*, it had the name of *lex curiata*; but if it passed in the *comitia tributa* termed *plebis citum*. The laws, too, gen. the names of the proposers, as *lex Elia*, &c.

(2.) **LEX RHODIA.** See *LAW*, § 9.

**LEXAWACSEIN**, a river of Persia which rises in Northampton county, side of Mount Ararat, and falls into the Caspian Sea, 174 miles above Philadelphia.

**LEXIARCHI**, at Athens, six officers or 30 inferior ones, whose business it was to preside at the public assemblies, an scrutiny among such as were present. They were a register of the age, manners, and abilities of the citizens, who were enrolled at the age of 18.

\* **LEXICOGRAPHER.** *n. f.* [*λεξικον* & *lexicographe*, French.] A writer of dictionaries, a harmless drudge, that busies himself with the original, and detailing the signification of words.—Commentators, and *lexicographers*, are acquainted with the Syriac language, and give these hints in their writings on scripture.

\* **LEXICOGRAPHY.** *n. f.* [*λεξικον* & *γραφω*.] The art or practice of writing dictionaries.

\* (1.) **LEXICON.** *n. f.* [*λεξικον*.] A dictionary, a book teaching the signification of words. A linguist should pride himself to have a tongue that Babel cleft the world into had not studied the solid things in the as the words and *lexicons*, he were much to be esteemed a learned man a man competently wise in his mother di.  
*Milton.*

(2.) **LEXICON** is chiefly used in foreign Greek dictionaries: it is derived from *λεξω*, a word, or *λεξικον*.

(1.) **LEXINGTON**, a town of Massachussetts Middlesex county, 10 miles NW. of Boston famous for being the scene of the first battle between the British and Americans at the commencement of the American war, on the 19th of April 1775. (See *AMERICA*, § 14.) It contains a church and about 1000 citizens in 1794. 42. E. of Philadelphia. Lat. 42. 31. N.

(2.) **LEXINGTON**, a town of Georgia, on the bank of the Ogeechee, 3 miles from Milledgeville.

(3.) **LEXINGTON**, a county of S. Carolina, in the district of Orangeburgh.

(4.) **LEXINGTON**, a flourishing town in Kentucky, formerly capital of the state,

pearance of any unlucky omen. If it met with no interruption of this sort, the people were presented with two tables of which was written A. on the other U. disapprobation of the bill was expressed by throwing into an urn the tablet inscribed A. Their assent by throwing in the one marked U. According to the majority of these tables the law passed or not. If it passed, it was upon record, and carried into effect; if not, it was called *legem ferre*. After it was engraved upon plates of brass and in the most public and conspicuous place, it was termed *legem figere*, and a future law this was *legem referere*. If a law passed *mitis curiata*, it was called *lex curiata*, *comitia centuriata*, it had the name of *lex curiata*; but if it passed in the *comitia tributa* termed *plebis citum*. The laws, too, gen. the names of the proposers, as *lex Elia*, &c.

(2.) **LEX RHODIA.** See *LAW*, § 9.

**LEXAWACSEIN**, a river of Persia which rises in Northampton county, side of Mount Ararat, and falls into the Caspian Sea, 174 miles above Philadelphia.

**LEXIARCHI**, at Athens, six officers or 30 inferior ones, whose business it was to preside at the public assemblies, an scrutiny among such as were present. They were a register of the age, manners, and abilities of the citizens, who were enrolled at the age of 18.

\* **LEXICOGRAPHER.** *n. f.* [*λεξικον* & *lexicographe*, French.] A writer of dictionaries, a harmless drudge, that busies himself with the original, and detailing the signification of words.—Commentators, and *lexicographers*, are acquainted with the Syriac language, and give these hints in their writings on scripture.

\* **LEXICOGRAPHY.** *n. f.* [*λεξικον* & *γραφω*.] The art or practice of writing dictionaries.

\* (1.) **LEXICON.** *n. f.* [*λεξικον*.] A dictionary, a book teaching the signification of words. A linguist should pride himself to have a tongue that Babel cleft the world into had not studied the solid things in the as the words and *lexicons*, he were much to be esteemed a learned man a man competently wise in his mother di.  
*Milton.*

(2.) **LEXICON** is chiefly used in foreign Greek dictionaries: it is derived from *λεξω*, a word, or *λεξικον*.

(1.) **LEXINGTON**, a town of Massachussetts Middlesex county, 10 miles NW. of Boston famous for being the scene of the first battle between the British and Americans at the commencement of the American war, on the 19th of April 1775. (See *AMERICA*, § 14.) It contains a church and about 1000 citizens in 1794. 42. E. of Philadelphia. Lat. 42. 31. N.

(2.) **LEXINGTON**, a town of Georgia, on the bank of the Ogeechee, 3 miles from Milledgeville.

(3.) **LEXINGTON**, a county of S. Carolina, in the district of Orangeburgh.

(4.) **LEXINGTON**, a flourishing town in Kentucky, formerly capital of the state,



the head waters of the Elkhorn. It about 250 houses, built on a regular 1000 citizens in 1796. It has 2 print- and 2 weekly gazettes. Near it are 70 ancient forts, with ditches and bas- several curious sepulchres. It lies 24 Frankfort, and 774 SW. of Philadel- 85. 8. W. Lat. 38. 6. N.

INGTON, a post town of Virginia, Ca- ckbridge county, 159 miles W. by N. rd, and 398 from Philadelphia.

*v. s. Ley, lee, lay*, are all from the Saxon or pasture, by the usual melting of the *s. Gibson's Cambden*.

RN, a town of Yorkshire.

JRN, William, an English mathemati- 17th century, originally a printer in e published 1. *The Trader's Sure Guide*, gone through many editions; 2. *Cur- aricus*; 3, 4. Treatises on Surveying; , &c. He died about 1699.

DEN, (in Latin LUGDUNUM BATA- ae of the largest and finest cities of the public, in the department of Delft, and x of S. Holland, abounding with ca- which are rows of lofty trees, that af- leasant walks. A small branch of the through it. Over the canals are 145 ily of stone or brick. The university

in the republic, and has a library rich yfic garden well stocked with exotic anatomy hall, and an observatory. The who are generally very eminent, read res 4 times a week, for which they ney, but about three guineas are paid : of private lectures, which lasts 4 year. es are from 100l. to 200l. a-year; and es are in Latin. The cloth manufac- rily-flourished to such a degree, that eces have sometimes been made in a city sustained a long and severe siege

ainst the Spaniards. That illustrious Adrian de Verf, when the citizens re- o him the havoc made by the famine siege, and insisted upon his surrend- rds (said he) here is my body, divide ou to satisfy your hunger, but banish s of surrendering to the cruel and per- niard." They took his advice, and aniards, they would hold out as long l one arm to eat and another to fight. some fine churches, and many long, dsome streets. The citizens opened to the French under Gen. Pichegru, 1 Jan. 1795. It is 15 miles S. of Haar- o SW. of Amsterdam. Lon. 4. 33. E. . N.

DEN, an island on the coast of Java.

DEN, Lucas VAN. See LUCAS.

DEN PHIAL, a phial coated on the in- side with tinfoil, or other proper con- stance, and furnished with a brass wire for giving the electrical shock. See IRY, *Index*.

N, a town of Germany in the circle er Rhine; 8 miles S. of Heidelberg.

a town of Bohemia, in Leitmeritz.

II. PART I.

LEYRE, a town of Spain, in Navarre.

LEYRIA, a city of Portugal, in Estremadura.

LEYSERA, in botany, a genus of the polyga- mia superflua order, belonging to the syngesia class of plants; and in the natural method rank- ing under the 49th order, *Compositae*. The recep- tacle is naked; the pappus paleaceous; that of the disc plumy; the calyx scarious.

LEYSSARD, a town of France, in the depart- of the Ain, 5 m W. of Nantua, and 10; E. of Bourg.

LEYTA, or LEYTHA. See LEITA.

LEYTE, or LEITE, one of the Philippine islands, in the East Indian Ocean, about 40 leagues long, and in circumference about 90 or 100. Its soil on the E. side is very fruitful; but there are very high mountains which almost divide it, and oc- casion so great a difference in the air, that when it is winter on the N. side, it is summer on the S. When the inhabitants on the one side reap, the o- thers sow; and they have two plentiful harvests in the year. It contains about 9000 inhabitants, who pay tribute to the Spaniards in rice, wax, and quilts. Lon. 118. 0. E. Lat. 11. 0. N.

LEZANDRIEUX, a town of France, in the dep. of the North Coasts; 5 m. N. of Pontreuc.

LEZARS, an Indian nation, who reside in the North Western Territory, between the mouths of the Wabash and Ohio.

LEZAT, a town of France, in the dep. of Ar- rierge, 26 miles N. of Mirepoix.

LEZAY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Two Seves; 6 miles ENE. of Melle.

LEZOUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, 13½ miles E. of Clermont.

LHAN, a river of Germany, which rises in Hesse, and passing Marburg, Wetzlar, and Nas- sau, falls into the Rhine above Coblenz.

(1.) LHOYD, } or LHWYD, Humphrey, a learn- (1.) LHUYD, } ed antiquarian of the 17th cen- tury, born at Denbigh, who applied to the study of physic; and living mostly within the walls of Denbigh castle, practised there as a physician; and died in 1570, with the character of a well- bred gentleman. He wrote and translated several pieces relative to history and antiquities; in particular, the *History of Cambria*, now called *Wales*, from Caradoc of Langarvan, &c. but died before it was finished: however, Sir Henry Sidney, lord president of Wales, employed Dr David Powel to finish it, who published it in 1584. A new and improved edition of this work was published in 1774.

(2.) LHUYD, Edward, keeper of the Museum at Oxford, was a native of S. Wales, the son of Charles Lhuyd, Esq. of Lhanvordc. He was edu- cated at Jesus College, Oxford, where he was created M. A. July 21, 1701: He was bred un- der Dr Plot, whom he succeeded as keeper of the Ashmolean museum, and had the use of all Vaughan's collections. With incessant labour and great exactness he searched into the Welsh anti- quities; perused or collected a great deal of an- cient and valuable matter from their MSS.; tran- scribed all the old charters of their monasteries that he could find; travelled several times over Wales, Cornwall, Scotland, Ireland, Armoric Bre- tagne, countries inhabited by the same people,

Z. com-

compared their antiquities, and made observations on the whole; but died in July 1709, before he had digested them into the form of a discourse, as he intended, on the ancient inhabitants of this island. His untimely death prevented the completing of many admirable designs. For want of proper encouragement; he did very little towards understanding the British bards, having seen but one of those of the 6th century and not being able to procure access to two of the principal libraries in the country. He communicated many observations to Bp. Gibson, whose edition of the *Britannia* he revised; and published "*Archæologia Britannica*, giving some account, additional to what has been hitherto published, of the languages, histories, and customs of the original inhabitants of Great Britain, from collections and observations in travels through Wales, Cornwall, Bas Bretagne, Ireland, and Scotland. Vol. I. Glosography, Oxford, 1707," fol. He left in MS. a Scottish or Irish-English dictionary, proposed to be published in 1732 by subscription, by Mr David Malcolm, a minister of the church of Scotland, with additions; as also the elements of the said language; with necessary and useful informations for propagating more effectually the English language, and for promoting the knowledge of the ancient Scottish or Irish, and very many branches of useful and curious learning. Lhuyd, at the end of his preface to the *Archæologia*, promises an historical dictionary of the British persons and places mentioned in ancient records. It seems to have been ready for the press, though he could not set the time of publication. His collections for a 2d volume, which was to give an account of the antiquities, monuments, &c. in the principality of Wales, were numerous and well chosen; but, on account of a quarrel between him and Dr Wynne, then fellow, afterwards principal of the college, and Bp. of St Asaph, he refused to buy them, and they were purchased by Sir Thomas Scabright, of Beachwood in Hertfordshire, in whose library the greatest part still remain, but so indigested, and written with so many abbreviations, that nobody can undertake to publish them. They consist of about 40 volumes in folio, 10 in 4to, and above 100 smaller, all relating to Irish or Welsh antiquities, and chiefly in those languages. Cante made extracts from them about or before 1736; but these were chiefly historical. Sir John Scabright gave to Mr Pennant 23 of Lhuyd's MSS. Latin and English. Many of his letters to Lister, and other learned contemporaries, were given by Dr Fothergill to the university of Oxford, and are now in the Ashmolean museum. Lhuyd undertook more for illustrating this part of the kingdom than any one man but he ever did, or than any one man can be equal to.

LI, a town of China, in the province of Chenli.

\* LIABLE. *n. f.* [*liable*, from *lier*, old French.] Omit us; not exempt; subject; with *to*.—

But what is strength without a double share

O' wife's?—wait, in wild, burthenome,

Pronely's figure, yet *liable* to fall

By weaker subtleties.

Milton.

—The English boast of Spenser and Milton, who neither of them wanted genius or learning; and

yet both of them are *liable* to man Dryden.—This, or any other scheme from a private hand, might be *liable* to sects. *Swift*.

LIANCOURT, a town of France, in of the Oise, 4 miles S. of Clermont.

LIANE, a river of France, which runs Sea, near Boulogne.

\* LIAR. *n. f.* [from *lie*. This word analogically be *lier*; but this orthography is disapproved, and the convenience of distinguishing, he who lies down, is sufficient to distinguish.] One who tells falsehood; one who swears.

She's like a *liar*, gone to burning  
'Twas I that kill'd her.

He approves the common *liar*, false  
Who speaks him thus at Rome.

—I do not reject his observation as unavailing, unless condemn the person himself as a *liar*, soever it seems to be contradicted. *Boylston*

Thy better soul abhors a *liar's* pain

\* LIARD. *adj.* 1. Mingled roan. *Milton*  
*Liard* in Scotland denotes gray-haired; *liard* old man.

LIART, a town of France in the department of the Gers, 12 miles SW. of Rocroy.

LIBANIUS, a famous Greek rhetorician and sophist in the 4th century, born at Antioch, had a great share in the friendship of the Emperor Constantine, who offered him the dignity of *Prætorius*; but Libanius refused it, and preferred the name of *sophist*, or *professor of eloquence*, more honourable. There are full extant copies of his letters and Greek orations, by which he acquired great reputation; but his style is somewhat affected and obscure. He was a pupil of Chrysostom, and his disciples at Antioch were 360. His letters were published at Antwerp, 1738; his orations at Venice, in 1753.

LIBANOMANTIA, in antiquity, a divination performed with frankincense, if it presently caught fire, and sent forth a sweet odour, was esteemed a happy omen, and a sign of good success.

LIBANUS, a chain of mountains of Syria, which lie between Syria Proper and the Mediterranean, extending from W. to E. from the Mediterranean sea as far as Arabia. The mountains are always covered with snow, but below them are very pleasant and fertile valleys. They were formerly famous for great numbers of cities, but now there are very few remaining. The chain is distinguished into *Libanus* and *Libanus*; the latter of which lies on the eastern side of the valley, rising near the ruins of Hama, and terminates at others in Arabia, in the Gulf of Persia. They are separated from each other at intervals by a distance throughout; by a country, called *Calo-Syria*.

(1.) \* LIBATION. *n. f.* [*libatio*, Lat.] An act of pouring wine on the ground in honour of some deity.—In digging new earth pour wine, that the vapour of the earth and comfort the spirits, provided it be not a heathen sacrifice, or *libation* to the earth. 2. The wine so poured.—They had no objection to offer up *libations*, and the smoke of incense to dead men. *Stillingfleet*.—

e goblet then she took, with nectar  
rown'd,  
king the first libations on the ground.

*Dryden.*

LIBATION, amongst the ancient Greeks  
nans, was an essential part of solemn sa-

It was also performed alone, as a drink  
by way of procuring the protection and  
of the gods, in the ordinary affairs of life.

According to the different attributes of  
s in honour of whom they were made,  
l of different liquids, but wine was the  
l. It was always unmixed with water.

s of water, of honey, of milk, and of oil;  
led *νεβδα ληα*. They were all made with  
deportment and solemn prayer. At sa-

the libations, after it had been tasted by  
st, and handed to the bystanders, was  
upon the victim. At entertainments, a

ic was generally poured out of the cup,  
ic liquor began to circulate, to show their  
e to the gods for the blessings they en-

Libations were also in use among the He-  
who poured an hin of wine on the victim  
was killed, and the several pieces of the  
were laid on the altar, ready to be burnt.

U, or } a sea-port town of Courland, on  
W, } the coast of the Baltic, consisting  
of wooden houses. Lon. 21. 27. E. Lat.  
N.

LIBARD. *n. f.* [*liebard*, German; *leopardus*,  
leopard.—  
Make the libbard stern,  
roaring, when in rage he for revenge did  
earn.

*Spens.*  
libbard and tiger, as the mole  
the crumbled earth above them threw.

*Milton.*  
horrid parts of Africk are by Piso resem-  
a libbard's skin, the distance of whose  
resent the disperseness of habitations, or  
Africk. *Brewerwood.*

LIBBERTON, a parish of Scotland in  
ire, united with that of QUOTHQUAN,  
7 miles long from N. to S. and 4 broad.

part of this united parish is a deep rich  
ich being often overflowed by the Clyde,  
ed uncommonly fertile without any ma-

he E. part is a striking contrast to it, be-  
and covered with heath. The air is dry  
p, but healthy. Of above 6000 acres,  
e parish contains, 2,500 are barren, and  
ler cultivation. Of these 2,123 were under

1791; 1188 in pasture, and 189 under  
tax, turnips, and potatoes. The num-  
orics was 219; sheep 1149, and black  
s. The population, in 1791, was 750;  
12, since 1755. In this parish, Gilbert,  
merville, an ancestor of the present lord,

ed K. James V. with his court, at his  
Cathalkey for several weeks. There is  
it camp and several other antiquities in  
l. See QUOTHQUAN.

LIBERTON, a village in the above parish,  
of considerable note, having been sur-  
with a strong earthen mound, and ves-  
being visible of 3 large panned vaults.

Near it are relics of a strong fortification and 3  
tumuli.

(3, 4.) LIBBERTON. See LIBERTON, N° 1  
and 2.

(1.) \* LIBEL. *n. f.* [*libellus*, Lat. *libelle*, Fr.] 1.  
A satire; defamatory writing; a lampoon.—Are we  
reproached for the name of Christ? that ignomi-  
ny serves but to advance our future glory; every  
such libel here becomes panegyrick there. *Decay  
of Piety.*—

Good heav'n! that fots and knaves should  
be so vain,

To with their vile resemblance may remain!  
And stand recorded, at their own request,

To future days, a libel or a jest. *Dryden,*

2. [In the civil law.] A declaration or charge in  
writing against a person exhibited in court.

(2.) LIBEL, [LIBELLUS FAMOSUS], taken in  
its largest and most extensive sense, signifies any  
writing, picture, or the like, of an immoral or  
illegal tendency; but, in a peculiar sense, is used

to denote a malicious defamation of any person,  
and especially a magistrate, made public by either  
printing, writing, signs or pictures, in order to  
provoke him to wrath, or expose him to public  
hatred, contempt, and ridicule. The direct ten-

dency of these libels is the breach of the public  
peace, by stirring up the objects of them to re-  
venge, and perhaps to bloodshed. The commu-  
nication of a libel to any one person is a publica-

tion in the eye of the law: and therefore the send-  
ing an abusive private letter to a man is as much  
a libel as if it were openly printed, for it equally  
tends to a breach of the peace. With regard to

libels in general, there are two remedies; one  
by indictment, and another by action. The for-  
mer for the public offence; for every libel has a  
tendency to break the peace, or provoke others

to break it: which offence is the same whether  
the matter contained be true or false; and there-  
fore the defendant, on an indictment for publish-  
ing a libel, is not allowed to allege the truth of it

by way of justification. But in the remedy by  
action on the case, which is to repair the party in  
damages for the injury done him, the defendant  
may, as for words spoken, justify the truth of the

facts, and show that the plaintiff has received  
no injury at all. What was said with regard to  
words spoken, will also hold in every particular  
with regard to libels by writing or printing, and

the civil actions consequent thereupon: but as to  
signs or pictures, it seems necessary always to  
show, by proper innuendos and averments of the

defendant's meaning, the import and application  
of the scandal, and that some special damage has  
followed; otherwise it cannot appear, that such  
libel by picture was understood to be levelled at

the plaintiff, or that it was attended with any re-  
asonable consequences. In a civil action, then, a  
libel must appear to be false, as well as scanda-  
lous; for, if the charge be true, the plaintiff has

received no private injury, and has no ground to  
demand a compensation for himself, whatever  
offence it may be against the public peace: and  
therefore, upon a civil action, the truth of the  
accusation may be pleaded in bar of the suit. But,  
in a criminal prosecution, the tendency which all

libels have to create animosities, and to disturb the public peace, is the sole consideration of the law. And therefore, in such persecutions, the only points to be considered are, first, the making or publishing of the book or writing; and, secondly, whether the matter be criminal: and, if both these points are against the defendant, the offence against the public is complete. The punishment of such libellers, for either making, repeating, printing, or publishing the libel, is a fine, and such corporal punishment as the court in its discretion shall inflict; regarding the quantity of the offence, and the quality of the offender. By the law of the XII tables at Rome, libels, which affected the reputation of another, were made a capital offence: but, before the reign of Augustus, the punishment became corporal only. Under Valentinian it was again made capital, not only to write, but to publish, or even to omit destroying them. Our law, in this and many other respects, corresponds rather with the middle age of Roman jurisprudence, when liberty, learning and humanity, were in their full vigour, than with the cruel edicts that were established in the dark and tyrannical ages of the ancient decemviri, or the latter emperors. In this, and other instances, where blasphemous, immoral, treasonable, schismatical, seditious, or scandalous libels are punished by the English law, some with a greater, others with a less degree of severity; the *liberty of the press*, properly understood, is by no means infringed or violated. See LIBERTY, § 6.

(1.) \* *To LIBEL. v. a.* [from the noun.] To satirise; to lampoon.—Is the peerage of England dishonoured when a peer suffers for his treason? if he be *libelled*, or any way defamed, he has his *scandalum magnatum* to punish the offender. *Dryden.*—

But what so pure which envious tongues will spare?

Some wicked wits have *libelled* all the fair. *Pope.*

(2.) \* *To LIBEL. v. n.* To spread defamation; written or printed; it is now commonly used as an active verb, without the preposition *against*.—

Sweet crawls to fly about the streets of Rome:  
What's this but *libelling against* the senate? *Shak.*

He, like a privileg'd spy, whom nothing can,  
Discredit, *libels* now 'gainst each great man.

*Donne.*

(1.) LIBELLA, a piece of money amongst the Romans, being the tenth part of the denarius, and equal in value to the as. It was called *libella*, as being a little pound, because equal to a pound of brass. Its value in our money is 1 ob. 1 qu. or a half-penny farthing. See MONEY.

(2.) LIBELLA, or LIBELLULA, in zoology, a genus of four-winged flies, called in English *dragee flies* or *adder flies*. The characters are these: The mouth is furnished with jaws; the feelers are shorter than the breast; and the tail of the male terminates in a kind of hooked forceps. See *Plate CC.* There are 21 species, chiefly distinguished by their colour. They have all two very large and reticulated eyes, covering the whole surface of the head. They fly very swiftly; and prey upon the wing, clearing the air of innumerable small flies. They are found in Aug. and Sep. in our fields and gardens, especially near

places where there are waters, as they have their origin from worms living in that element. The great ones usually live all their time about water, but the smaller are common among hedges, and the smallest frequent gardens. The smaller kind often settle upon bushes, or upon the ground. But the large ones are almost always upon the wing, so that it is very difficult to take them. Their eyes are beautiful objects for the microscope. The largest species is produced from a water-worm that has six feet, which, while young and very small, is transformed into a chrysalis, that has its dwelling in the water. Some think they have gills like fishes. It wears a mask as perfectly formed as those worn at a masque; and this mask, fastened to the insect's neck, and which it moves at will, serves to hold its prey while it devours it. The period of transformation being come, the chrysalis makes to the water side, swims in search of a convenient place; fastens on a plant, or sticks fast to a bit of dry wood. Its skin, grown parched, splits at the upper part of the thorax. The winged insect issues forth gradually, throws off its slough, expands its wings, flutters, and then flies off with gracefulness and ease. The elegance of its slender shape, the richness of its colours, the delicacy and resplendent texture of its wings, are admirable. The few parts of the libellulæ are differently situated in the male and female. It is under the body at the joining of the thorax, that those parts are discovered in the males: those of the females are known by a slit placed at the extremity of the body. Their amours conclude in a rape. The male, while hovering about, watches, and seizes the female by the head with the pincers with which the extremity of his tail is armed. The ravisher travels thus through the air, till the female yielding to superior strength, or inclination, forms her body into a circle that terminates at the genital of the male. These kind of rapes are common. Libellulæ are seen thus coupled in the air, exhibiting the form of a ring. The female deposits her eggs in the water, from whence spring water-worms, which afterwards undergo the same transformations.

\* LIBELLER, *n. f.* [from *libel*.] A defamer; writing; a lampooner.—Our common *libellers* are as free from the imputation of wit, as of morality. *Dryden.*—The squibs are those who, in the common phrase, are called *libellers* and lampooners. *Tatler.*—The common *libellers*, in their invective, tax the church with an insatiable desire of power and wealth. *Swift.*

(1.) LIBELLI, was the name given to the bills which were put up amongst the Romans, given notice of the time when a show of gladiators was to be exhibited, with the number of combatants, and other circumstances. This was called *manus promunciare* or *proponere*.—These bills were sometimes termed *edicta*. These public notices were given to the person who designed to oblige the people with the show, and were frequently attended with pictures representing the engagement of some celebrated gladiators. This custom is alluded to in Horace, lib. ii. sat. vii. ver. 96, &c.

(2.) LIBELLI FAMOSI, defamatory libels, *Serca* calls them *contumeliosi libelli*, infamous rhymes which

by a Roman ordinance were punishable with death.

**LIBELLOUS.** *adj.* [from *libel*.] Defamatory; the most malicious surmise that had ever spread, howsoever countenanced by a *libel*-ephet. *Wotton*.

**LIBELLA.** See **LIBELLA**, N° 2.

**LIBELLUS**, in the civil law, signifies declaration of the prosecutors charge against the defendant; and it has the same signification in our courts.

**LIBENTINA**, a surname of Venus, who had a temple at Rome, where young girls, arrived at puberty, dedicated their juvenile toys. *Varro*.

**LIBER**, in botany, the bark or rind, principle of trees. This is conceived as consisting of a number of cylindrical and concentric surfaces. The texture is reticular, and in some trees plain-fibre every way, as the fibres are soft and pliable.

While in this condition, they are either regular canals, or have interstitial spaces which serve the office of canals. The nutritious matter which they are continually receiving, remain part in them, makes them grow in thickness, and strengthens and brings them closer together; and thus the texture which before reticular becomes an assemblage of fibres ranged vertically and parallel to each other; that is, as they are thus altered become another, they by degrees become a new wood, more woody, called *blea*.

**LIBER**, [Lat. *i. e.* free.] in mythology, a name conferred on **BACCHUS** in memory of the boon which he granted to the people of Bœotia, perhaps, because wine, whereof he was reputed deity, delivers men from care, and enlarges their mind at ease and freedom.

**LIBERA**, in mythology, a goddess whom **Cicero** in his book *De Nat. Deor.* styles the daughter of **Jupiter** and **Ceres**. **Ovid** in his *Fæsti* says her name was given by **Bacchus** to **Ariadne**. She is exhibited on medals as a kind of female figure, crowned with vine leaves.

**LIBERAL.** *adj.* [*liberalis*, Lat. *liberal*, Fr.] mean; not low in birth; not low in mind. denoting a gentleman. 3. Munificent; generous; not parsimonious.—

Her name was **Mercy**, well-known over all, and she is both gracious and eke *liberal*. *Spenser*.  
The name of his way should be most *liberal*,  
As 're set here for examples. *Henry VIII.*

Needs must the pow'r  
Be made us, and for us this ample world,  
Be infinitely good, and of his good  
Be liberal and free, as infinite. *Milton*.  
The liberal are secure alone. *Granv.*

is of before the thing, and to before the thing.—There is no art better than to be *liberal* in commendation to others, in that a man's self hath any perfection. *Bacon*.  
All clergy-men, otherwise little fond of obtrusiveness, are in their sermons, very *liberal* of those which they find in ecclesiastical writers, and were our duty to understand them. *Swift*.

**LIBERAL ARTS**, are such as depend more on labour of the mind than on that of the hand, or, that consist more in speculation than in practice; and have a greater regard to amuse-

ment and curiosity than to necessity. The word is derived from the Latin *liberalis*, which among the Romans signified a person who was not a slave; and whose will, of consequence, was not checked by the command of any master. Such are grammar, rhetoric, painting, sculpture, architecture, music, &c. See **ART**, § 1, 3; 8—12.

**LIBERALIA**, feasts celebrated by the ancient Romans, in honour of **LIBER**, or **BACCHUS**, the same with those which the Greeks called **DIONYSIA**, and *Dionysia*. **Varro** derives the name of this feast from *liber*, considered as a noun adjective, and signifying *free*; because the priests were free from their function, and eased of all care, during the time of the *liberalia*: as the old women officiated in the ceremonies and sacrifices of these feasts. See **LIBER**, N° 2.

\* **LIBERALITY.** *n. f.* [*liberalitas*, Lat. *liberalité*, Fr.] Munificence; bounty; generosity; generous profusion.—

Why should he despair, that knows to court  
With words, fair looks, and *liberality*? *Shak.*  
That *liberality* is but cast away,  
Which makes us borrow what we cannot pay.

*Denham*.  
\* **LIBERALLY.** *adv.* [from *liberal*.] 1. Bountifully; bountifully; largely.—If any of you lack wisdom, let him ask of God, that giveth to all men *liberally*, and upbraideth not. *James*, i. 5.  
2. Not meanly; magnanimously.

**LIBERIA**, in Roman antiquity, a festival observed on the 16th of the kalends of April, at which time the youth laid aside their juvenile habit for the *togâ virilis*, or habit peculiar to grown men. See **TOGA**.

**LIBERTAS.** See **LIBERTY**, § 3.

**LIBERTE**, PORT LA, a seaport town, fort, and jurisdiction of Hispaniola, formerly called *Port Dauphin*. See **DAUPHIN**, N° 6—8.

**LIBERTICIDE.** *adj.* [from *libertas*, and *cædo*, to kill.] killing or conspiring against liberty, a word originally applied to the combined powers by the French democrates. This word, which owes its origin to the French revolution, in all probability will perish with it; as liberty seems no-where more completely murdered than it is now (1802) in the French republic.

(1.) \* **LIBERTINE.** *adj.* [*libertin*, Fr.] Licentious; irreligious.—There are men that marry not, but chuse rather a *libertine* and impure single life, than to be yoked in marriage. *Bacon*.—Might not the queen make diligent enquiry, if any person about her should happen to be of *libertine* principles or morals? *Swift's Project*.

(2.) \* **LIBERTINE.** *n. f.* [*libertin*, Fr.] 1. One unconfined; one at liberty.—

When he speaks,  
The air, a charter'd *libertine*, is still. *Shak.*  
2. One who lives without restraint or law.—

Man, the lawless *libertine*, may rove,  
Free and unquestion'd. *Rowe's Jane Shore*.  
—Want of power is the only bound that a *libertine* puts to his views upon any of the sex. *Clarissa*.  
3. One who pays no regard to the precepts of religion.—

They say this town is full of cozenage,  
Disguis'd cheaters, prating mountebanks,  
And many such like *libertines* of sin. *Shak.*

—That

—That word may be applied to some few *libertines* in the audience. *Collier's View of the Stage*.—4. [In law; *libertinus*, Latin.] A freedman; or rather the son of a freedman.—Some persons are forbidden to be accusers on the score of their sex, as women; others on the score of their condition, as *libertines* against their patrons. *Apliffs*.

(3.) **LIBERTINES, LIBERTINI**, in ecclesiastical history, a religious sect, which arose in 1525, whose principal tenets were, that the Deity was the sole operating cause in the mind of man, and the immediate author of all human actions; that, consequently, the distinctions of good and evil, which had been established with regard to those actions, were false and groundless, and that men could not, properly speaking, commit sin; that religion consisted in the union of the spirit or rational soul with the Supreme Being; that all those who had attained this happy union, by sublime contemplation and elevation of mind, were then allowed to indulge, without exception or restraint, their appetites or passions; that all their actions and pursuits were then perfectly innocent; and that, after the death of the body, they were to be smited to the Deity. They likewise said that Jesus Christ was nothing but a mere *je ne sçai quoi*, composed of the spirit of God, and of the opinion of men.—These maxims occasioned their being called *Libertines*; and the word has been used in an ill sense ever since. They spread principally in Holland and Brabant. Their leaders were Quintin, Picard, Pockefius, Ruffus, and Chopin, who joined with Quintin, and became his disciple. This sect obtained a footing in France through the favour of Margaret, Q. of Navarre, and sister to Francis I. and found patrons in several of the reformed churches.

(4.) **LIBERTINES OF GENEVA**, were a cabal of rakes rather than of fanatics; for they made no pretences to any religious system, but pleaded only for the liberty of leading voluptuous and immoral lives. This cabal was composed of a certain number of licentious citizens, who could not bear the severe discipline of Calvin, who punished with rigour not only dissolute manners, but also whatever bore the aspect of irreligion and impiety. In this turbulent cabal there were several persons who were not only notorious for their dissolute manner of living, but also for their atheistical impiety, and contempt of all religion. To this class belonged one Gruet, who denied the divinity of the Christian religion, the immortality of the soul, the difference between moral good and evil, and rejected with disdain the doctrines that are held most sacred among Christians; for which impieties he was at last brought before the civil tribunal, in 1550, and condemned to death.

\* **LIBERTINISM**. *n. f.* [from *libertine*.] Irreligion; licentiousness of opinions and practice.—That spirit of religion and seriousness vanished all at once, and a spirit of liberty and *libertinism*, of infidelity and profaneness, started up in the room of it. *Atterbury*.

**LIBERTINUS**. See **LIBERTUS**.

(1.) **LIBERTON**, an extensive parish of Mid Lothian, S. of Edinburgh, comprehending 4,140 acres of arable land. The population, in 1792, was 3,457 souls, of whom 755 resided in the vil-

lage of *Gilmerton*, and 131 were carters. Its increase, since 1755, was 664. Craigmillar a favourite residence of Q. Mary, is in this (see **CRAIGMILLAR**;) as well as the seats of Somerville and Mr Wauchope of Niddry. There are 8 mills in the parish, and 3 lime-stone quarries, which have yielded 100,000 bolls yearly. The quarry at Gilmerton produces 600,000 bolls annually, and employs 35 men. Greasers are also employed at the collieries. There are above 20 seams of coal at Gilmerton fit to 10 feet thick.

(2.) **LIBERTON**, or **KIRK LIBERTON**, a town nearly in the centre of the above parish, 3 miles S. of Edinburgh; with an ancient castle seated on the slope of a rising ground, which affords a magnificent prospect of the metropolis and surrounding country.

(3.) **LIBERTON DAMS**, } three of  
(4.) **LIBERTON, NETHER**, and } lages in  
(5.) **LIBERTON, UPPER**, } above parish  
within a mile of Liberton, the 1st within a quarter of a mile.

(6, 7.) **LIBERTON**. See **LIBERTON**.  
**LIBERTUS**, or **LIBERTINUS**, among the Romans, a freed man, or a person set free from legal servitude. These still retained some of their ancient state: he who made a slave finding a right of patronage over the *libertus*; if the latter failed of showing due respect to his patron, he was restored to his servitude; the *libertus* died without children, his patrimony went to his heir. See **SLAVE**. In the beginning of the public, *libertinus* denoted the son of a *liber* freedman; but afterwards, before the time of Nero, and under the emperors, the terms *liber* and *libertinus*, as Suetonius remarks, were used synonymously.

(1.) \* **LIBERTY**. *n. f.* [*liberté*, Fr. *libertas*.] Freedom, as opposed to slavery.—My master knows of your being here, and hath threatened to put me into everlasting slavery, if I tell you for he swears he'll turn me away. *Shak.*

O Liberty! thou goddess, heav'nly birth,  
Profuse of bliss, and pregnant with delight,  
Eternal pleasures in thy presence reign.

2. Exemption from tyranny or inordinate government.—

Justly thou abhorrest

The son, who, on the quiet state of man,  
Such trouble brought, affecting to subvert  
Rational liberty; yet know withal,  
Since thy original lapse, true liberty  
Is lost, which always with right reason

3. Freedom, as opposed to necessity.—Liberty is the power in any agent to do, or forbear, a particular action, according to the determination of thought of the mind, whereby either of two things is preferred to the other. *Locke*.—As it is in the motions of the body, so it is in the thoughts of the mind: where any one is such, that we have to take it up, or lay it by, according to the preference of the mind, there we are at *liberty*.

4. Privilege: exemption; immunity.—His father gave not an intire country to any, much less he grant jura regalia, or any extraordinary liberties. *Darwin*. 5. Relaxation of restraint: as, I will give myself at *liberty*, to change his condition.—

License they mean, when they cry *liberty*.

ave; permission.—I shall take the *liberty* to  
 der a third ground, which, with some men,  
 the same authority. *Locke*.

LIBERTY (§ 1, *def.* 1, 2.) may be consider-  
 either *natural* or *civil*.

LIBERTY, NATURAL. The absolute rights  
 n, considered as a free agent, endowed with  
 nment to know good from evil, and with  
 of choosing those measures which appear  
 n to be most desirable, are usually summed  
 one general appellation, and denominated  
*natural liberty of mankind*. This natural liber-  
 nists properly in a power of acting as one  
 fit, without any restraint or controul, un-  
 y the law of nature; being a right inherent  
 by birth, and one of the gifts of God to man  
 creation, when he endued him with the fa-  
 of free-will. But every man, when he en-  
 to society, gives up a part of his natural li-  
 , and, in consideration of receiving the ad-  
 ges of mutual commerce, obliges himself to  
 m to those laws which the community has  
 ht proper to establish. And this species of  
 obedience and conformity is infinitely more  
 able than that wild and savage liberty which  
 rished to obtain it. For no man, who con-  
 a moment, would wish to retain the abso-  
 uncontrouled power of doing whatever  
 as: the consequence of which would be,  
 very other man would also have the same  
 r; and then there would be no security to  
 duals in any of the enjoyments of life.

LIBERTY, POLITICAL, therefore, or CIVIL  
 TY, which is that of a member of society,  
 other than natural liberty, so far restrained  
 man laws (and no farther) as is necessary  
 pedient for the general advantage of the  
 . Hence we may collect, that the law,  
 restrains a man from doing mischief to his  
 citizens, though it diminishes the natural,  
 ses the civil liberty of mankind: but every  
 n and causeless restraint of the will of the  
 k, whether practised by a monarch, a nobi-  
 or a popular assembly, is a degree of tyran-  
 Ny, that even laws themselves, whether  
 with or without our consent, if they regu-  
 d constrain our conduct in matters of mere  
 nce, without any good end in view, are  
 destructive of liberty: whereas, if any pub-  
 rantage can arise from observing such pre-  
 , the controul of our private inclina-  
 in one or two particular points will con-  
 to preserve our general freedom in others  
 ore importance, by supporting that state  
 icty which alone can secure our independ-  
 . Thus the statute of Edward IV. which  
 d the fine gentlemen of those times (under  
 egre of a lord) to wear pikes upon their  
 or hoods of more than two inches in length,  
 law that favoured of oppression; because,  
 ver ridiculous the fashion then in use might  
 r, the restraining it by pecuniary penalties  
 l serve no purpose of common utility. But  
 atute of Charles II. which prescribes a thing  
 ngly as indifferent, *viz.* a dress for the dead,  
 were all ordered to be buried in woollen, is

a law consistent with public liberty; for it encour-  
 ages the staple trade, on which in great measure  
 depends the universal good of the nation. So  
 that laws, when prudently framed, are by no  
 means subversive, but rather introductive, of li-  
 berty; for (as Mr Locke has well observed) where  
 there is no law there is no freedom. But on the  
 other hand, that constitution or frame of govern-  
 ment, that system of laws, is alone calculated to  
 maintain civil liberty, which leaves the subject en-  
 tire master of his own conduct, except in those  
 points wherein the public good requires some di-  
 rection or restraint. The idea and practice of this  
 political or civil liberty flourish in their highest  
 vigour in these kingdoms, where it falls little short  
 of perfection, and can only be lost or destroyed  
 by the folly or demerits of its owner; the legisla-  
 ture, and of course the laws of Britain, being pe-  
 culiarly adapted to the preservation of this ines-  
 timable blessing even in the meanest subject. Ve-  
 ry different from the modern constitutions of o-  
 ther states on the continent, and from the genius  
 of the imperial law; which in general are calcu-  
 lated to vest an arbitrary and despotic power, of  
 controuling the actions of the subject, in the  
 prince, or in a few grandees. And this spirit of  
 liberty is so deeply implanted in our constitution,  
 and rooted even in our very soil, that a slave or a  
 negro, the moment he lands in Britain, falls un-  
 der the protection of the laws, and so far becomes  
 a freeman; though the master's right to his ser-  
 vice may possibly still continue. The absolute  
 rights of every Briton (which, taken in a political  
 and extensive sense, are usually called their *liber-  
 ties*), as they are founded on nature and reason, so  
 they are coeval with our form of government;  
 though subject at times to fluctuate and change,  
 their establishment (excellent as it is) being still  
 human. At some times they have been depressed  
 by tyrannical princes; at others, so luxuriant as  
 even to tend to anarchy, a worse state than tyran-  
 ny itself, as any government is better than anar-  
 chy. But the vigour of our free constitution has  
 always delivered the nation from these embarrass-  
 ments: and, as soon as the convulsions consequent  
 on the struggle have been over, the balance of our  
 rights and liberties has settled to its proper level;  
 and their fundamental articles have been from  
 time to time asserted in parliament, as often as  
 they were thought to be in danger; first, by the  
 great charter of liberties, which was obtained,  
 sword in hand, from King John, and afterwards,  
 with some alterations, confirmed in parliament  
 by Henry III. his son. (See MAGNA CHARTA.)  
 Which charter contained very few new grants;  
 but, as Sir Edward Coke observes, was for the  
 most part declaratory of the principal grounds of  
 the fundamental laws of England. Afterwards,  
 by the statute called *confirmatio cartarum*, where-  
 by the great charter is directed to be allowed as  
 the common law; all judgments contrary to it are  
 declared void; copies of it are ordered to be sent to  
 all cathedral churches, and read twice a-year to  
 the people; and sentence of excommunication is  
 directed to be as constantly denounced against all  
 those that by word, deed, or counsel, act contra-  
 ry thereto, or in any degree infringe it. Next  
 by a multitude of subsequent corroborating sta-  
 tutes

...ckons 32), from Ed-  
 ... after a long interval,  
 ... which was a parliamenta-  
 ... ties of the people, af-  
 ... the beginning of his  
 ... closely followed by the still more  
 ... that unhappy prince to  
 ... before the fatal rupture between  
 ... salutary laws, particular-  
 ... ed under Charles II.  
 ... of rights, or declara-  
 ... and commons to the  
 ... range, 13th February  
 ... parliament, when they be-  
 ... en: which declaration con-  
 ... able words; "and they do  
 ... st upon, all and singular  
 ... quibted rights and liber-  
 ... ament itself recognises  
 ... liberties anciently  
 ... n to be the true,  
 ... of the people of  
 ... e liberties were again  
 ... cement of the 18th centu-  
 ... ment, whereby the crown  
 ... present majesty's illustrious  
 ... provisions were added, at  
 ... for better securing our re-  
 ... ies; which the statute de-  
 ... the right of the people of Eng-  
 ... ling to the ancient doctrine of the  
 ... The rights thus defined by these  
 ... consist in a number of private im-  
 ... ich appear to be indeed no other,  
 ... that *residuum* of natural liberty, which  
 ... is not required by the laws of society to be sacri-  
 ... ficed to public convenience; or else those civil  
 ... privileges, which society hath engaged to provide,  
 ... in lieu of the natural liberties so given up by in-  
 ... dividuals. These therefore were formerly, either  
 ... by inheritance or purchase, the rights of all man-  
 ... kind; but in most other countries in the world,  
 ... being now more or less debased and destroyed,  
 ... they at present may be said to remain, in a pecu-  
 ... liar and emphatical manner, the rights of the peo-  
 ... ple of Britain. And these may be reduced to three  
 ... principal or primary articles; the right of personal  
 ... security, the right of personal liberty, and the  
 ... right of private property: because, as there is no  
 ... other known method of compulsion, or of a-  
 ... bridging man's natural free-will, but by an in-  
 ... fringement or diminution of one or other of these  
 ... important rights, the preservation of these invio-  
 ... late may justly be said to include the preservation  
 ... of our civil immunities in their largest and most  
 ... extensive sense. See RIGHTS. In vain, however,  
 ... would these rights be declared, ascertained, and  
 ... protected by the dead letter of the laws, if the  
 ... constitution had provided no other method to se-  
 ... cure their actual enjoyment. It has therefore es-  
 ... tablished certain other auxiliary subordinate rights  
 ... of the subject, which serve principally as barriers  
 ... to protect and maintain inviolate the three  
 ... great and primary rights, of personal security,  
 ... personal liberty, and private property. These  
 ... are, 1. The constitution, powers, and privile-  
 ... ges of parliament. See PARLIAMENT. 2. The  
 ... limitation of the king's prerogative, by bounds

so certain and notorious, that it is impossible he  
 should exceed them without the consent of the  
 people; as to which, see PREROGATIVE. The  
 former of these keeps the legislative power in due  
 health and vigour, so as to make it improbable  
 that laws should be enacted destructive of gene-  
 ral liberty: the latter is a guard upon the exe-  
 cutive power, by restraining it from acting either  
 beyond or in contradiction to the laws that are  
 framed and established by the other. 3. A third  
 subordinate right of every Briton is that of applying  
 to the courts of justice for redress of injuries.  
 Since the law is, in this realm, the supreme arbiter  
 of every man's life, liberty, and property, courts  
 of justice must at all times be open to the sub-  
 ject, and the law be duly administered therein.  
 The emphatical words of *magna charta*, spoken  
 in the person of the king, are these: *Nulli vendemur, nulli negabimus, aut differemus rectum vel justitiam*; "and therefore every subject (says Sir Edw. Coke) for injury done to him *in bonis, in terris, vel persona*, by any other subject, be he ecclesiastical or temporal, without any exceptions, may take his remedy by the course of the law, and have justice and right for the injury done to him, freely without sale, fully without any denial, and speedily without delay." It were endless to enumerate all the *affirmative* acts of parliament, wherein justice is directed to be done according to the law of the land; and what that law is, every subject knows, or may know if he pleases; for it depends not upon the arbitrary will of any judge, but is permanent, fixed, and unchangeable, unless by authority of parliament. We shall however just mention a few *negative* statutes, whereby abuses, perversions, or delays of justice, especially by the prerogative, are restrained. It is ordained by *magna charta*, that no freeman, shall be outlawed, that is, put out of the protection and benefit of the laws, but according to the law of the land. By 2 Edw. III. c. 8. and 11 Ric. II. c. 10. it is enacted, that no commands or letter shall be sent under the great seal, or the little seal, the signet or privy seal, in disturbance of the law; or to disturb or delay common right: and, though such commandments should come, the judge shall not cease to do right: which is also made part of their oath by a statute 18 Edw. III. st. 1. And by 1 W. & M. st. 2. c. 2. it is declared, that the pretended power of suspending or dispensing with laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority without consent of parliament, is illegal. Not only the substantial part or judicial decision of the law, but also the formal part or method of proceeding, cannot be altered but by parliament; for, if once those outworks were demolished, they would be an inlet to all manner of innovation in the body of the law itself. The king, it is true, may erect new courts of justice; but then they must proceed according to the old established forms of the common law. For which reason it is declared in stat. 1 Car. I. c. 10. upon the dissolution of the court-chamber, that neither his majesty, nor his council, have any jurisdiction, power or authority, by English bill, petition, articles, libel (were the course of proceeding in the star-chamber, borrowed from the civil law), or by any other arbitrary way whatsoever, to examine, or



into question, determine, or dispose of the lands or goods of any subjects of this kingdom; but that the same ought to be tried and determined in the ordinary courts of justice, and by *course of law*. 4. If there should happen any uncommon injury, or infringement of the rights before mentioned, which the ordinary course of law is too defective to reach, here still remains a 4th subordinate right, appertaining to every individual, namely, the right of petitioning the king, or house of parliament, for the redress of grievances. In Russia Peter the Great established a law, that no subject might petition the throne till he had first petitioned two different ministers of state. In case he obtained justice from neither, he might then present a petition to the prince; but upon pain of death, if found to be in the wrong. The restrictions, for some there are, which are laid upon petitioning in Britain, are of a nature extremely different; and while they promote the spirit of peace, they are no check upon that of liberty. Care only must be taken, lest, under the pretence of petitioning, the subject be guilty of any riot or tumult; as appeared in the opening of the memorable parliament in 1640: and, to prevent this, it is provided by the statute 13 Car. II. ft. 1. c. 5. that no petition to the king, or either house of parliament, for any alteration in church or state, shall be signed by above 20 persons, unless the matter thereunto be approved by three justices of the peace, or the major part of the grand jury, in the county; and in London, by the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council: nor shall any petition be presented by more than 10 persons at a time. But under these regulations, it is declared by the statute, 1 W. & M. ft. 2. c. 2. that the subject hath a right of petition; and that all commitments and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal. 5. The 2d and last auxiliary right of the subject, that shall mention, is that of having arms for their defence, suitable to their condition and degree, and such as are allowed by law: Which is also declared by the same statute, 1 W. & M. ft. 2. c. 2. to be indeed a public allowance, under two restrictions, of the natural right of resistance and self-preservation, when the sanctions of society and laws are found insufficient to restrain the violence of oppression. In these several articles concerning the *rights or liberties of Britons*: liberties more generally talked of, than thoroughly understood; and yet highly necessary to be perfectly known by every man of rank or property, lest his ignorance of the points whereon they are founded should hurry him into faction and licentiousness on the one hand, or a pusillanimous indifference to criminal submission on the other. So long as the rights of personal security, personal liberty, and private property, remain inviolate, the subject is perfectly free; for every species of compulsory tyranny and oppression must act in opposition to one or other of these rights, having no other way upon which it can possibly be employed. To reserve these from violation, it is necessary that the constitution of parliament be supported in its full vigour; and limits, certainly known, not to the royal prerogative. And, lastly, to vindicate these rights, when actually violated or

Vol. XIII. PART I.

attacked, the subjects of Britain are entitled, in the first place, to the regular administration and free course of justice in the courts of law; next, to the right of petitioning the king and parliament for redress of grievances; and, lastly, to the right of having and using arms for self preservation and defence. And all these rights and liberties it is our birthright to enjoy entire; unless where the laws of our country have laid them under necessary restraints: Restraints in themselves so gentle and moderate, as will appear upon farther inquiry, that no man of sense or probity would wish to see them slackened. For all of us have it in our choice to do every thing that a good man would desire to do; and are restrained from nothing, but what would be pernicious either to ourselves or our fellow citizens. So that this review of our situation may fully justify the observation of a learned French author, who indeed generally both thought and wrote in the spirit of genuine freedom; that the British is the only nation in the world where political or civil liberty is the direct end of its constitution. The United States of America, need hardly be mentioned as an exception, as the spirit of liberty which pervades their constitution owes its origin to that of Britain: We shall therefore close our remarks upon it with the expiring wish of the famous Father Paul to his country, "ESTO PERPETUA!"

(3.) LIBERTY, in mythology, was a goddess both among the Greeks and Romans. Among the former she was invoked under the title ELEV-  
THERIA, and by the latter she was called LIBERTAS, and held in singular veneration; temples, altars, and statues, were erected in honour of her. A very magnificent temple was consecrated to her on mount Aventine, by Tiberius Gracchus, before which was a spacious court, called *atrium libertatis*. The Romans also erected a new temple in honour of Liberty when Julius Cæsar established his empire over them, as if their liberty had been secured by an event which destroyed it. The French have acted a similar part by installing Bonaparte *First Consul for life*, upon the 14th July 1802, the anniversary of that liberty which they had established in 1791, and which he has totally overthrown. In a medal of Brutus, Liberty is exhibited under the figure of a woman, holding in one hand a cap, the symbol of Liberty, and two poniards in the other, with the inscription IDIVS MARTIIS.

(4.) LIBERTY, in geography, a post town of Virginia, 15 miles from New London, and 35 from Martinsburg, and Fincastle.

(5.) LIBERTY AND NECESSITY. See METAPHYSICS.

(6.) LIBERTY OF THE PRESS. The art of printing, soon after its introduction, was looked upon in England, as well as in other countries, as merely a matter of state, and subject to the coercion of the crown. It was therefore regulated with us by the king's proclamations, prohibitions, charters of privilege and licence, and finally by the decrees of the court of star-chamber, which limited the number of printers, and of presses which each should employ, and prohibited new publications unless previously approved by proper licensers. On the demolition of this odious jurisdiction in 1641, the long parliament of Charles I. after their

assumed the same power and exercised with respect books: and in 1643, 1647, 1649, 1714, ii. 88. 230.) issued purpose, founded printer's decree of 1637. In statute 13 & 14 Car. II. c. alterations, was copied ordinances. This act expired revived by statute 1 Jac. I. till 1692. It was then longer by statute 4 W. III. frequent attempts were made to revive it, in the subseq. Dom. Journ. 11 Feb. 1694, 1696, 9. Feb. 1697, 31 parliament resisted it so expired, and the press became a free state, of a free state, criminal matter in laying no previous laws. Every freeman has what sentiments he pleases; to forbid this, is to destroy press: but if he publishes what evous, or illegal, he must take his own tenuity. See LIBEL, as to the restrictive power above mentioned, is to prevent to the prejudices the arbitrary and iniquitous points in learning, re- But to punish (as the writings which, when published, shall, on a fair and impartial trial, be adjudged of a pernicious tendency, is necessary for the preservation of peace and good order, of government and religion, the only solid foundations of civil liberty. Thus the will of individuals is still left free; the abuse only of that free-will is the object of legal punishment. Neither is any restraint hereby laid upon freedom of thought or inquiry; liberty of private sentiment is still left; the disseminating or making public of bad sentiments, destructive of the ends of society, is the crime which society corrects. A man (says a fine writer on this subject) may be allowed to keep poisons in his closet, but not publicly to vend them as cordials. And to this we may add, that the only plausible argument heretofore used for restraining the just freedom of the press, "that it was necessary to prevent the daily abuse of it," will entirely lose its force, when it is shown (by a reasonable exertion of the laws) that the press cannot be abused to any bad purpose without incurring a suitable punishment: whereas, it can never be used to any good one when under the controul of an inspector. So true will it be found, that to censure the licentiousness, is to maintain the liberty of the press.

(7.) LIBERTY, PORT, a port of Guadaloupe.

(8.) LIBERTY TOWN, a town of Maryland, in Frederick county, 42 miles WNW. of Baltimore; near some copper mines.

(9.) LIBERTY, WEST, a town of Virginia, capital of Ohio county, seated at the head of Short

Creek, 6 m. from Ohio, 2 W. of the Pennsylvania Line, 18 NW. of Wheeling, 23 W. of Washington in Pennsylvania, and 348 from Philadelphia.

LIBETHRA, in ancient geography, a town and fountain of Thessaly. The latter was called the fountain of song, and was situated in Magnesia a district of Macedonia annexed to Thessaly. The town stood on Mount Olympus, where it verge towards Macedonia; hence the Muses are called LIBETHRIDES. (*Virgil.*) Strabo places on Helicon, not only Hippocrene, and the temple of the Muses, but also the caves of the nymphs Libethrides.

LIBETHRIDES. See last article.

LIBETHRIUS MONS, } in ancient geography  
LIBETHRUS, } a mountain of Bœotia 40 stadia from Coronea; where stood the statues of the Muses, and of the *Libethrides*. It was either conjoined with, or at least very near to, Helicon.

\* LIBIDINOUS. *n. f.* [*libidinosus*, Lat.] Lewd; lustful.—If wanton glances and *libidinous* thoughts had been permitted by the gospel, they would have apostatized nevertheless. Bentley.

\* LIBIDINOUSLY. *adv.* [from *libidinosus*.] Lewdly; lustfully.

LIBITINA, in the Roman mythology, a goddess who presided over funerals. She was the same with the *Venus infera* or *Epithymia* of the Greeks. She had a temple at Rome, where was lodged a certain piece of money for every person who died, whose name was recorded in a register called *Libitine ratio*. This practice was established by Servius Tullius, in order to obtain an account of the number of annual deaths in the city of Rome, and consequently the increase or decrease of its inhabitants. All things requisite for funerals were sold in the temple of Libitina.

LIBITINARII, [from LIBITINA,] were undertakers whose office it was to take care of funerals, prepare all things necessary upon the solemn occasion, and furnish every article required. They kept a number of servants to perform the work part of the profession, such as the *polintiores*, *pillones*, &c. See FUNERAL, § 9.

LIBNA, in ancient geography, a sacerdotal city in the tribe of Judah, a place of strength, as it appears from Sennacherib's laying siege to it. 2 Kings ix. If. xxxvii. In Jerome's time, it was a village called LOBNA, in the territory of Eleutheropolis.

LIBON, a Greek architect who built the celebrated temple of Jupiter Olympius. He flourished about A. A. C. 450.

LIBOURNE, a town of France, in the department of Gironde, and late province of Guienne, contains about 5000 citizens. It is a trading town, seated on the Dordogne, 20 m. NE. of Bourdeaux, and 2 S. by W. of Paris. Lon. c. 10. W. Lat. 44. 55.

(1.) LIBRA, OR BALANCE, one of the mechanical powers. See BALANCE.

(2.) LIBRA, in astronomy, one of the 12 signs of the zodiac, exactly opposite to Aries; so called because when the sun is in this sign at the autumnal equinox, the days and nights are equal, as weighed in a balance. See ASTRONOMY, § 54.

(3.) LIBRA also denotes the ancient Roman pound, borrowed from the Sicilians, who call it *lira*. The libra was divided into 12 *uncia* ounces, and the ounce into 24 scruples. The divisions of the libra were, the *uncia*, one twelfth

one sixth; *quadrans*, one fourth; *triens*, 1; *quincunx*, five ounces; *semiss*, the half; 6 oz. *septans*, seven; *bes*, eight; *dodrans*, *strans*, ten; *denus*, eleven; lastly, the *as* 12 oz. or one libra. The Roman libra in France for the proportion of their the time of Charlemagne, or perhaps of Philip I. in 1093, their sols being so used, as that 20 of them were equal to

By degrees it became a term of account; thing of the value of 20 sols was called Hence 100 L. stands for pound Sterling, or a pound in weight.

**LIBRA PUNSA**, in law books, denotes a money in weight. It was anciently only to tell the money but to weigh it: many cities, lords, and bishops, having it, coined money, and often bad, or too for which reason, though the pound contained shillings, they always weighed it.

**LIBRALIS**, *adj.* [*libralis*, Latin.] Of a pound weight.

**LIBRARIAN**, *n. f.* [*librarius*, Latin.] 1. One the care of a library. 2. One who transcribes books.—Charybdis thrice swall thrice refunds, the waves: this must be of regular tides. There are indeed tides in a day, but this is the error of the *Broome*.

**LIBRI**, among the ancients, were a sort of who transcribed in beautiful or at least characters, what had been written by the notes and abbreviations.

**LIBRARY**, *n. f.* [*libraris*, Fr.] A large of books, publick or private.— as they gan his library to view, tique registers for to advise, chanced to the prince's hand to rise lent book, hight Briton's monuments.

*Fairy Queen.*

given you the library of a painter, and a of such books as he ought to read. *Dryd.* **LIBRARY** signifies also an edifice or apartment for holding a considerable number placed regularly on shelves. Some authors sign of libraries to the Hebrews; and obtain the care they took to preserve their laws, and the memory and actions of their became an example to other nations, by to the Egyptians. Of mandyas, king is said to have taken the hint first; who, to Diodorus, had a library built in his ith this inscription over the door,  $\Psi\text{TKH}\Sigma$

Nor were the Ptolemies, who reigned the country, less curious and magnificent

A library of the kings of Persia, called a *rolls*, or books, is mentioned in Ezra vi. i. we imagine to have consisted of the history of the nation, and of memoirs of the affairs of it seems rather to have been a depositary charters, and ordinances of the kings. In 7. it is called *the king's treasure house*. with more certainty, call that a library, l in the 2d of Esdras to have been built uah, in which were preserved the books phets, and the letters of their kings. The rrected a library at Athens, was the tyr- ratus; though Strabo ascribes the ho-

nour to Aristotle. That of Pisistratus was transported by Xerxes into Persia, and was afterwards brought back by Seleucus Nicator to Athens. Long after, it was plundered by Sylla, and re-established by Adrian. Plutarch says, that under Eumenes there was a library at Pergamus, containing 200,000 books. Tyrannion, a celebrated grammarian, contemporary with Pompey, had a library of 30,000 volumes. That of Ptolemy Philadelphus, according to A. Gellius, contained 700,000, all in rolls, burnt by Caesar's soldiers. Constantine, and his successors, erected a magnificent one at Constantinople; which in the 8th century contained 300,000 volumes, all burnt by order of Leo III; and among the rest, one wherein the Iliad and Odysey were written in letters of gold, on the guts of a serpent. The most celebrated libraries of ancient Rome, were the Ulpian, and the Palatine. Those of Paulus Emilius, who conquered Perseus; of Lucilius, Lucullus, of Asinius Pollio, Asinius, Julius Severus, Domitius Serenus, Pamphilius Martyr, and the emperor Gordian and Trajan, are also much celebrated. Anciently, every large church had its library; as appears by the writings of St Jerome, Anastasius, and others. Pope Nicholas laid the foundation of that of the Vatican, in 1450. It was destroyed by the constable Bourbon, in the sack of Rome; restored by Pope Sixtus V. and considerably enriched with books from that of Heidelberg, plundered by Count Tilly in 1688. One of the most complete libraries in Europe, was said to be that erected at Florence by Cosmus de Medicis, over the gate whereof is written, **LABOR ASSQUE LABOR**; though it was afterwards exceeded by that of the French king, begun by Francis I. augmented by Cardinal Richelieu, completed by M. Colbert, and now the national library. The emperor's library at Vienna, according to Lambecius, consists of 80,000 volumes, and 3,940 curious medals. The BODLEIAN library at Oxford, built on the foundation of that of Duke Humphry, exceeds that of any university in Europe, and even those of all the sovereigns of Europe, except the emperor's and the French one, which are each of them older by 100 years. It was first opened in 1602, and has since found a great number of benefactors; particularly Sir Robert Cotton, Sir H. Savil, Abp. Laud, Sir Kenelm Digby, Mr Allen, Dr Pococke, Mr Selden, and others. The Vatican, the Medicean, that of Beffarion at Venice, and those just mentioned, exceed the Bodleian in Greek MSS. but in oriental MSS. it excels them all. As to printed books, the Ambrosian at Milan, and that of Wolfenbuttle, are two of the most famous, and yet both inferior to the Bodleian. There are also many public libraries belonging to the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge. The principal public libraries in London, besides that of the Museum, are those of the college of Herolds, of the college of physicians, of Doctors Commons, to which every bishop, at the time of his consecration, gives at least 20 l. sometimes 50 l. for the purchase of books; those of the Gray's Inn, Lincoln's Inn, Inner Temple; and Middle Temple; that of Lambeth, founded by Abp. Bancroft in 1610, for the use of succeeding archbishops of Canterbury, and increased by the

benefactions of ~~James~~ Abbot, Sheldon, and Tenison, and said to consist of at least 15,000 printed books, and 617 volumes in MS.; that of Red-Cross Street, founded by Dr Daniel Williams, a Presbyterian divine, and since enriched by many private benefactions; that of the Royal Society, called the *Arundelian* or *Norfolk library*, because the principal part of the collection formerly belonged to the family of Arundel, and was given to the society by Henry Howard, afterwards duke of Norfolk, in 1666, which library has been increased by the valuable collection of Francis Aston, Esq; in 1713, and is still increasing by the numerous benefactions of the works of its learned members, and others; that of St Paul's, of Sion College; the queen's library, erected by Q. Caroline in 1737; and the surgeon's library, kept in their hall in the Old Bailey, &c. In Edinburgh there is a good library belonging to the university, well furnished with books; which are kept in good order. There is also a noble library of books and MSS, belonging to the faculty of advocates. See *ADVOCATE*, and *EDINBURGH*, § 37. There are likewise several valuable public libraries in the different colleges belonging to the Universities of Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St Andrews, wherein are many curious and beautifully illuminated ancient MSS.

(3.) *LIBRARY, THE COTTONIAN*, originally consisted of 958 volumes of original charters, grants, instruments, letters of sovereign princes, transactions between this and other kingdoms and states, genealogies, histories, registers of monasteries, remains of Saxon laws, the book of Genesis, thought to be the most ancient Greek copy extant, and said to have been written by Origen in the 2d century, and the curious Alexandrian MS. copy, in Greek capitals. This library is kept in the British Museum, with the large and valuable library of Sir Hans Sloane, amounting to upwards of 42,000 volumes, &c.

(4.) *LIBRARY, THE KING'S*, at St James's, was founded by Henry, eldest son of James I. and made up partly of books, and partly of MSS. with many other curiosities, for the advancement of learning. It has received many additions from the libraries of Isaac Casaubon and others.

*LIBRASIO*, a town of the Italian republic, in the department of the Upper Po, and district (late duchy) of Cremona; seated on the canal of Oglio.

\* *To LIBRATE*. *v. a.* [*libro*, Latin.] To poise, to balance; to hold in equipoise.

(1.) \* *LIBRATION*. *n. f.* [*libratio*, Latin; *libration*, French.] 1. The state of being balanced.—This is what may be said of the balance, and the *libration*, of the body. *Dryden*—

Their pinions still

In loose *librations* stretch'd.

*Thomson*.

2. [In astronomy.]—*Libration* is the balancing motion or trepidation in the firmament, whereby the declination of the sun, and the latitude of the stars, change from time to time. Astronomers likewise ascribe to the moon a *libratory* motion, or motion of trepidation, which they pretend is from E. to W. and from N. to S. because that, at full moon, they sometimes discover parts of her disk which are not discovered at other times. *These kinds are called*, the one a *libration* in lon-

gitude, and the other a *libration* in latitude. If this, there is a third kind, which is an apparent *libration*, and which consists that when the moon is at her greatest distance from the south, her axis being then perpendicular to the plane of the ecliptic, she must enlighten towards the north pole some parts which she did not before; that, on the contrary, some parts of the moon are enlightened towards the opposite pole; and this produces the same effect as the *libration* in latitude does. *DiS. Tre* planets which move upon their axis, do not make intire revolutions; for the moon only a kind of *libration*, or a reciprocation on her own axis. *Greav*.

(2.) *LIBRATION*, § 1. *def. 2.* See *ASTRONOMY, Index*; under *MOON*.

\* *LIBRATORY*. *adj.* [from *libro*, Latin.] *Libratory*, playing like a balance.

*LIBUN*, a town of Bohemia, in Bole.

*LIBURNA*, or *LIBURNICA*, denoted a light and swift skiff, used by the Liburnians, for which they were noted.

*LIBURNIA*, in ancient geography, a country of Illyricum, extending towards the Adriatic, between Istria on the W. Dalmatia on the E. and mount Albus on the N.

*LIBURNIANS*, } *LIBURNI*, the people of }  
*LIBURNII*, or } *BURNIA*. The emperor Augustus, who was at the command of the Roman army, summoned the people from the country called *Liburnii*, because generally from thence they sailed.

*LIBURNUM* was a species of little boats, or form of Liburnian skiffs, wherein the soldiers of Rome were carried, and where they ate, either reading or writing. *Juvena*.

(1.) *LIBURNUS*, in ancient geography, a town of Campania.

(2.) *LIBURNUS*, an ancient port of Italy, now called *LIVORNO*, or *LEGHORN*.

(1.) *LIBYA*, in a general sense, a name which the Greeks, denoted Africa, a name derived from the thirst, being a dry and thirsty country. See *Pliny*.

(2.) *LIBYA*, in a more restrained sense, the middle part of Africa, extending N. and S. according to Pliny; between the Mediterranean N. and Ethiopia on the E. and was divided into the *Hither* or *Exterior Libya*; and the *Farther* or *Interior Libya*. The former lay between the Nile on the N. and the *Farther Libya*, which was beyond Egypt on the S. (*Ptolemy*) The *Farther* or *Interior Libya*, was a vast country lying between the *Hither Libya* on the N. the Atlantic ocean on the W. the Ethiopic and Ethiopia beyond Egypt on the E.

(3.) *LIBYA*, in a still more restrained sense, for distinction's sake, *Libya Propria*, the northern district of Africa, and a part of the *Farther Libya*; situated between Egypt on the Mediterranean on the N. the Syrtis Major Regio Tripolitana on the W. the Garar Regio on the E. Ethiopia beyond Egypt on the S. novus domus and desert of Barea. This Libya was subdivided into *Libya* taken in the strictest sense, and into Marmarica and Cyrenai.

(4.) *LIBYA* in the strictest sense, or *Exterior*, was the most eastern part of

xt to Egypt, with Marmarica on the W.iterranean on the N. and the Nubi, now LUBIA on the S.—*Ptolemy*.

ANS, the natives of Lybia, or Africa.

CUM MARE, the LIBYAN SEA, a part ofiterranean on the coast of Cyrene.

SSA, a town and river of Bithynia, whereb of Hannibal the Great was visible inime.

TES, an ancient people of Germany inia, now part of Ssabria and Bavaria.

VO, a town of the French republic, in thepartment of Corfica; 20 miles E. of

E, the plural of *louse*.—

lammy dew, that loathsome *lice* beget; he slow creeping evil eats his way. *Dryd.*

EBANE. *n. f.* [*lice* and *bane*.] A plant.

GNANO, a river of Naples, which runs Gulph of Gaeta, 2 m. NW of the Volturmo.

ENCE. *n. f.* [*licentia*, Latin; *licence*, Fr.]

bitant liberty; contempt of legal and ne-restraint.—Some of the wifer seeing that a licence is indeed the many-headed tyrantailed with the rest to make *Mufidorus* ief. *Sidney*.—

Taught my faults  
such full licence, as both truth and malice  
power to utter. *Shak.*  
ence they mean, when they cry liberty. *Milton.*

e privilege that antient poets claim,  
turn'd to licence by too just a name. *Rofcommon.*

ugh this be a state of liberty, yet it is not  
of licence. *Locke*. 2. A grant of permission.

sent some to bring them a licence from the  
*Judith* xi. 14.—Those few abstract names

schools forged, could never yet get ad-e  
to common use, or obtain the licence of

approbation. *Locke*.—We procured a li-  
he duke of Parma to enter the theatre and

*Addison*.—It is not the manner of the

to deliver any man to die before that  
h is accused have the accusers face to

nd have licence to answer for himself.

LICENCE. *v. a.* [*licencier*, French.] 1. To  
by a legal grant.—

Wit's Titans brav'd the skies,  
the prefs groan'd with *licenc'd* blasphemies. *Pope.*

ifmis; to send away. Not in use.—He  
play well, and willingly, at some-games of

attention, which shewed, that when he  
could *license* his thoughts. *Wotton*.

ENSER. [from *license*.] A granter of per-  
; commonly a tool of power.

LICENSER OF THE PRESS. See LIBERTY,

LICENTIATE. *n. f.* [*licentiatus*, low La-  
A man who uses licence. Not in use.—

entiates somewhat licentiously, left they  
prejudice poetical liberty, will pardon

res for doubling or rejecting a letter, if the  
ll aptly. *Camden*. 2. A degree in Spanilh

ties.—A man might, after that time, sue

for the degree of a *licentiate* or master in this fa-  
culty. *Ayliff*.

2.) LICENTIATE, in England, usually means a  
physician who has a licence to practise, granted  
by the college of physicians.

(3.) LICENTIATE (§ 1, def. 2.) The greatest  
number of the officers of justice in Spain are dis-  
tinguished by no other title than that of *licentiate*.  
To pass *licentiate* in common law, civil law, and  
physic, they must have studied 7 years, and in di-  
vinity 10.

\* To LICENTIATE. *v. a.* [*licencier*, French.] To  
permit; to encourage by license.—We may not  
hazard either the stifling of generous inclinations, or  
the *licentiating* any thing that is coarse. *L'Esfrange*.

\* LICENTIOUS. *adj.* [*licenciosus*, French; *li-*  
*centiosus*, Lat.] Unrestrained by law or morality.

Later ages pride, like corn-fed steed,  
Abus'd her plenty, and fat swoln encrease,

To all *licentious* lust. *Spenser's F. Queen.*

How would it touch thee to the quick,  
Should'st thou but hear I were *licentious*? *Shak.*

1. Presumptuous; unconfined.—

The Tyber, whose *licentious* waves,  
So often overflow'd the neighbouring fields,  
Now runs a smooth and inoffensive course.

\* LICENTIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *licentious*.]  
With too much liberty; without just restraint.—

The *licentiates* somewhat *licentiously*, will pardon  
themselves. *Camden's Remains*.

\* LICENTIOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *licentious*.]  
Boundless liberty; contempt of just restraint.—

One error is so fruitful, as it begetteth a thousand  
children, if the *licentiousness* thereof be not time-

ly restrained. *Raleigh*.—This custom has been al-  
ways looked upon, by the wisest men, as an effect

of *licentiousness*, and not of liberty. *Swift*.—Dur-  
ing the greatest *licentiousness* of the press, the cha-  
racter of the queen was insulted. *Swift*.

LICETUS, a celebrated physician of Italy, born  
at Rappollo, in Genoa, in 1577. He came into

the world, before his mother had completed the  
7th month of her pregnancy; but his father, be-  
ing an ingenious physician, wrapped him up in

cotton, and nurtured him so, that he lived to be  
77 years of age. He was trained with great care,

and became a very distinguished man in his pro-  
fession; and was the author of a great number of

works: his book *De Monstris* is well known. He  
was professor of philosophy and physic at Padua,

where he died in 1655.

(1.) LICH, a town of Germany, in the circle  
of the Upper Rhine, on the Wetter, 12 miles

ESE. of Wetzlar, and 36 NE. of Mentz.

(2.) \* LICH. *n. f.* [*lice*, Saxon.] A dead car-  
case; whence *lichwake*, the time or act of watch-

ing by the dead; *lichgate*, the gate through which  
the dead are carried to the grave; *Lichfield*, the

field of the dead, a city in Staffordshire, so na-  
med from martyred christians. *Salve magna pa-*

*rens*. *Lichwake* is still retained in Scotland in the  
same sense. †

LICHART, a river of Scotland, in Ross-shire,  
which rises on the borders of Gairloch, joins the  
Meig, and forms one of the head waters of the  
Connon. See CONNON, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

LICH-

† LATE WAKE, not LICHWAKE, is the term still used in Scotland.

**LICHEN**, LIVER WORT, in botany; a genus of the natural order of algæ, belonging to the cryptogamia class of plants. The male receptacle is roundish, somewhat plain and shining. In the female the leaves have a farina or mealy substance scattered over them. There are about 130 species, all found in Britain. The following are among the most remarkable.

1. **LICHEN APHTHOSUS**, the green ground liverwort with black warts, grows upon the ground at the roots of trees in woods, and other stoney and mossy places. It differs very little from the **CANINUS**, (see N<sup>o</sup> 6.) and according to some is only a variety of it. Linnæus informs us, that the country people of Upland in Sweden give an infusion of this lichen in milk to children that are troubled with the *thrush* or *apthæ*, which induced that ingenious naturalist to bestow upon it the trivial name of *apthosus*. He also says, that a decoction of it in water purges upwards and downwards, and destroys worms.

2. **LICHEN BARBATUS**, the bearded lichen, grows upon the branches of old trees in thick woods and pine-forests. The stalks or strings are slightly branched and pendulous, from half a foot to two feet in length, little bigger than a common sewing thread; cylindrically jointed towards the base; but surrounded every where else with numerous, horizontal, capillary fibres, either simple or slightly branched. Their colour is a whitish green. This has an astringent quality. When steeped in water, it acquires an orange colour; and, according to Dillenius, is used in Pennsylvania for dyeing that colour.

3. **LICHEN CALCAREUS**, the black-nobbed dyer's lichen, is frequent on calcareous rocks; and hath a hard, smooth, white, stoney, or tartareous crust, cracked or tessellated on the surface, with black tubercles. Dillenius says, that this species is used in dyeing, in the same manner as the **TARTARIUS**. See N<sup>o</sup> 19.

4. **LICHEN CALICARIS**, the beaked lichen, grows sometimes upon rocks, especially on the-coasts, but is not very common. It is smooth, glossy, and whitish, producing flat or convex shields, of the same colour as the leaves, very near the summits of the segments, which are acute and rigid, and, being often reflected from the perpendicular by the growth of the shields, appear from under their limbs like a hooked beak. This will dye a red colour; and promises, in that intention, to rival the famous *Lichen Rocollâ* or *Argol* which is brought from the Canary Islands, and sometimes sold at the price of 80l. per ton. It was formerly used instead of starch to make hair-powder.

5. **LICHEN CANDELARIUS**, or yellow farinaceous lichen, is common upon walls, rocks, boards, and old pales. There are two varieties. The first has a farinaceous crust of no regular figure, covered with numerous, small, greenish yellow, or olive shields, and grows commonly upon old boards. The other has a smooth, hard, circular crust, wrinkled and lobed at the circumference, which adheres closely to rocks and stones. In the centre are numerous shields of a deeper yellow or orange colour, which, as they grow old, swell in the middle, and assume the figure of tubercles. The inhabitants of Sinaland in Sweden scrape this

lichen from the rocks, and mix it with their tallow, to make golden candles to burn on festival-days.

6. **LICHEN CANINUS**, the ash-coloured ground liverwort, grows upon the ground among moists, at the roots of trees in shady woods, and in heaths and stoney places. The leaves are large, gradually dilated towards the extremities, and divided into roundish elevated lobes. Their upper side, in dry weather, is ash-coloured; in rainy weather, of a dull fuscous green colour; the under side white and hoary, having many thick downy nerves, from which descend numerous, long, white, pencil-like radicles. The plectæ, or shields, grow at the extremities of the elevated lobes, shaped like the human nail; of a roundish oval form, convex above, and concave beneath; of a chocolate colour on the upper side, and the same colour with the leaves on the under. There are two varieties, the one called *reddish*, and the other *many-fingered*, ground liverwort. The former is most common. This species was recommended by the celebrated Dr Mead, as an infallible preventative of the dreadful consequences attending the bite of a mad dog. He directed half an ounce of the leaves dried and pulverised to be mixed with two drachms of powdered black pepper; divided into 4 doses, one to be taken by the patient every morning fasting, for 4 mornings successively, in half a pint of warm cow's milk; after which to use the cold bath every morning for a month. But the success hath not always answered the expectation.

7. **LICHEN COCCIFERUS**, the scarlet-tipped cup lichen, is frequent in moors and heaths. It has in the first state a granulated crust for its ground, which is afterwards turned into small lacinated leaves, green above, and hoary beneath. The plant assumes a very different aspect, according to the age, situation, and other accidents of its growth; but may be in general readily distinguished by its fructifications, which are fungous tubercles of a fine scarlet colour, placed on the rim of the cup, or on the top of the stalk. These tubercles, steeped in an alkaline lixivium, are said to dye a fine durable red colour.

8. **LICHEN GEOGRAPHICUS**, is frequent in rocks, and may be readily distinguished at a distance. The crust or ground is of a bright greenish yellow colour, sprinkled over with numerous plain black tubercles; which frequently run into one another, and form lines resembling the river in a map, from which circumstance it has its trivial name.

9. **LICHEN ISLANDICUS**, the eatable Iceland lichen, or rock grass, grows on many mountains both of the Highlands and Lowlands of Scotland. It consists of nearly erect leaves about two inches high, of a stiff substance when dry, but soft and pliant when moist, variously divided without order into broad distant segments, bifid or trifid at the extremities. The upper or exterior surface of the leaves is concave, chestnut colour, smooth and shining, but red at the base; the under or exterior surface is smooth and whitish, a little pitted and sprinkled with very minute black warts. The margins of the leaves and all the segments from bottom to top are ciliated with small, short, stiff hair-like spinules, of a dark chestnut colour, turn

tards the upper side. The shields are very produced. The Icelanders use it as an esherb. See ICELAND, § 10. Made into or gruel, it is said to be very useful in and consumptions; and, according to Hal-Scopoli, is much used in these complaints na.

LICHEN JUNIPERINUS, the common *yellow lichen*, is common upon the trunks and boughs and many other trees. Linnæus says very common upon the juniper. The Goth-wedes dye their yarn of a yellow colour, and give it as a specific in the jaundice.

LICHEN OMPHALOIDES, the *dark-coloured lichen*, is frequent upon rocks. It forms a widely expanded crust of no regular figure, of numerous imbricated leaves of a or dark purple colour, divided into small parts. The margins of the shields are a little raised and turned inwards, and their outsidess outward. The lichen is much used by the Icelanders in dyeing a reddish brown colour. To keep it in urine for a considerable time, till it becomes soft and like a paste: then, forming the into cakes, they dry them in the sun, and use them for use as they do the TARTARIUS.

19. LICHEN PARELLUS, the *crawfish-eye lichen*, upon walls and rocks, but is not very common. The crusts spread closely upon the place they grow, and cover them to a considerable extent. They are rough, tartareous, and coloured, of a tough coriaceous substance. Shields are numerous and crowded, having of ash-coloured, shallow, plain discs, with margins. This is used by the French for a red colour.

LICHEN PARIETINUS, the common yellow lichen, is very common upon walls, rocks, houses, and trunks of trees. It generally forms in circles of 2 or 3 inches diameter, and is dyed a good yellow or orange colour with

LICHEN Plicatus, the *official stringy lichen*, on the branches of old trees, but is not very common. The stalks are a foot or more in length, thick, rigid, and string-shaped, very irregularly branched, the branches entangled together, greenish or ash-colour, brittle and stringy if dried short, otherwise tough and pliant, and dependent from the trees on which they grow. Shields grow generally at the extremities of 2 inches, are nearly flat, or slightly concave, ash-coloured above, pale brown underneath, striated with fine rigid fibres. As the plant grows old, the branches become covered with a rough, warty crust; but the young ones are smooth. It was formerly used in the medicine as an astringent to stop hæmorrhagies, and in the treatment of ruptures; but is out of the modern practice. Linnæus says, the Laplanders apply it to the feet to relieve the excoriations occasioned by walking.

LICHEN PRUNASTRI, the common *ragged lichen*, grows upon all sorts of trees, but is most commonly white and hoary on the snow and on the trees, or upon old pales. This is the variable of the whole genus, appearing dif-

ferent in figure, magnitude, and colour, according to its age, place of growth, and sex. The young plants are of a glaucous colour, slightly divided into small acute crested segments. As they grow older, they are divided like a stag's horn, into more and deeper segments, somewhat broad, flat, soft, and pitted on both sides, the upper surface of a glaucous colour, the under one white and hoary.—The male plants are short, seldom more than an inch high, not hoary on the under side; and have pale glaucous shields situated at the extremities of the segments, standing on short peduncles, which are only small stiff portions of the leaf produced.—The females have numerous farinaceous tubercles both on the edges of their leaves, and the wrinkles of their surface. The pulverised leaves have been used as a powder for the hair, and also in dyeing yarn of a red colour.

16. LICHEN PULMONARIUS, the *lung-wort lichen*, grows in shady woods upon the trunks of old trees. The leaves are as broad as a man's hand, of a kind of leather-like substance, hanging loose from the trunk on which it grows, and lacinated into wide angular segments. Their natural colour, when fresh, is green; but in drying, they turn first to a glaucous and afterwards to a fuscous colour. It has an astringent, bitter taste; and, according to Gmelin, is boiled in ale in Siberia, instead of hops. The ancients used it in coughs and asthmas, &c. but it is not used in modern practice.

17. LICHEN RANGIFERINUS, the *rein-deer lichen*, is common in woods, heaths, and mountainous places. Its general height, when full grown, is about two inches. The stalk is hollow, and very much branched from bottom to top: the branches are divided and subdivided, and at last terminated by 2, 3, 4, or 5 very fine, short, nodding horns. The axillæ of the branches are often perforated. The whole plant is of a hoary white or grey colour, covered with white farinaceous particles, light and brittle when dry, soft and elastic when moist. The fructifications are very minute, round, fuscous, or reddish-brown tubercles, which grow on the very extremities of the finest branches; but these tubercles are very seldom found. The plant seems to have no foliaceous ground for the base, nor scarcely any visible roots. Linnæus says, that in Lapland this moss grows so luxuriant that it is sometimes found a foot high. There are many varieties of this species, of which the principal is the *sylvaticus*, or *brown-tipt rein-deer lichen*. The most remarkable difference between them is, that the *sylvaticus* turns fuscous by age, while the other always continues white. For the uses of this species, see LAPLAND, § 11 and 13.

18. LICHEN SAXATILIS, the *grey-blue pitted lichen*, is very common upon trunks of trees, rocks, tiles, and old wood. It forms a circle 2 or 3 inches diameter. The upper surface is of a blue-grey and sometimes of a whitish ash colour, uneven, and full of numerous small pits or cavities; the under side is black, and covered all over, even to the edges, with short simple hairs or radicles. A variety sometimes occurs with leaves tinged of a red or purple colour. This is used by ducks and other small birds in constructing the outside of their curiously formed nests.

**ARIUS**, the large *yellowish* frequent on rocks, both in lowlands of Scotland. The *gh*, either white or greenish rough warted surface. The *buff*-coloured, of various in's head to the diameter of its margins are of the same *rust*. This lichen is much used by dyeing a fine claret or pom-  
CROTEL, and CUTBEAR.

**ROSUS**, the *red spangled tartarous lichen*, hath a hard tartarous crust, cracked and tessellated on the surface, of a pale yellow colour when fresh, and a light olive when dry. The tubercles are of a blood-red colour at top, their margin and base of the same colour as the crust. The texture and appearance of this, (says Light-foot), indicate that it would answer the purposes of dyeing as well as some others of this tribe, if proper experiments were made.

21. **LICHEN VULPINUS**, the *gold-wiry lichen*, grows upon the trunks of old trees, but is not very common. It is produced in erect tufts, from half an inch to two inches in height, of a fine yellow or lemon colour, which readily discovers it. The filaments which compose it are not cylindrical, but a little compressed and uneven in the surface, variously branched, the angles obtuse, and the branches straggling and entangled one with another. Linnæus informs us, that the inhabitants of Smaland in Sweden dye their yarn of a yellow colour with this lichen; and that the Norwegians destroy wolves by stuffing dead carcases with this moss reduced to powder, and mixed with pounded glass, and so exposing them in the winter season to be devoured by those animals.

**LICHFIELD**. See LITCHFIELD.

(1.) \* **LICHOWL**. *n. f.* [*lich* and *owl*.] A sort of owl, by the vulgar supposed to foretel death.

(2.) **LICH-OWL**. See STRIX, N° 7.

**LICHSTALL**. See LICHTSTALL.

**LICHTENBERG**. See LICHTENBERG.

**LICHTENAU**, the name of six towns of Germany: viz. 1. in Austria, 6 miles SE. of Aigen: 2. in ditto, 12 miles W. of Krems: 3. in Franconia, with a fort, 22 miles SW. of Nuremberg: 4. in Hanau, 12 miles NE. of Straßburg: 5. in Hesse-Cassel, 13 m. SE. of Cassel: and 6. in the bishopric of Paderborn, 9 miles SSE. of Paderborn.

(1.) **LICHTENBERG**, a town and castle of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine, and late prov. of Alsace; seated on a rock, near the Vosges, and considered as impregnable. It is 12 miles NNW. of Haguenau. Lon. 7. 35. E. Lat. 48. 55. N.

(2.) **LICHTENBERG**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Mont Tonnere, and ci-devant duchy of Deux Ponts.

(3.) **LICHTENBERG**, a town of Silesia.

(4.) **LICHTENBERG**, a town of Upper Saxony.

**LICHTENBURG**, a town of Franconia, in the margravate of Cullembach. Lon. 12. 0. E. Lat. 50. 26. N.

(1.) **LICHTENFELS**, a town of Austria, on the Kamp, 7 miles E. of Zwetl.

(2.) **LICHTENFELS**, a town of Franconia, in the bishopric of Bamberg, on the Mayne. Lon. 11. 10. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

**LICHTENHAIN**, and } two towns of  
**LICHTENHANNA**, } Saxony.

(1.) **LICHTENSTEIN**, a principality many, in Suabia, near lake Constance.

(2.) **LICHTENSTEIN**, a town and fort in

(3.) **LICHTENSTEIN**, a town of the He public, in Tockerberg, seated on the Th 2: 15. E. Lat. 47. 25. N.

**LICHTENVORD**, a town of the Bat public, in the dep. of the Rhine, and lat of Zutphen, 6 miles SSW. of Groll.

**LICHTSTALL**, a handsome town of vetic republic, in Basse; seated on the Lon. 7. 57. E. Lat. 47. 40. N.

**LICHWAKE**. See LICH, N° 2; and

(1.) **LICINIUS STOLO**, Caius, a famous tribune, styled *Stolo* on account of a law that no Roman citizen should possess more than 500 acres of land; alleging, that when cupied more, they could not cultivate it nor pull up the useless shoots (*stolonæ*) from the roots of trees. He is memorable enacting, that one of the consuls should be of a plebeian family. He lived about A. C.

(2.) **LICINIUS TEGULA**, a Latin com who flourished about A. A. C. 200. His ments were published by H. Stephens; taire.

\* **LICK**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A blow usage: a low word.—He turned upon me as a chafed boar, and gave me a *lick* a face. *Dryden*.

\* **To LICK**. *v. a.* [*liccan*, Saxon; *lecken* 1. To pass over with the tongue.—Æ went about with a dog and a she-goat, but he used much in his cures; the first for ulcerated wounds, and the goat's milk for cafes of the stomach and lungs. *Temple-*

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

He with his tepid rays the rose rene  
And *licks* the drooping leaves, and  
dews.

—I have seen an antiquary *lick* an old coin other trials, to distinguish the age of it by *Addison*. 2. To lap; to take in by the t

At once pluck out  
The multitudinous tongue; let them  
The sweet which is their poison. *S*

3. **To LICK UP**. To devour.—Now shall many *lick up* all that are round about us, *licketh up* the grass. *Numb. xxii. 4.*

When luxury has *lick'd up* all thy p  
Curs'd by thy neighbours, thy trustees  
Think how posterity will treat thy nar

\* **LICKERISH**. **LICKEROUS**. *adj.* [a glutton, Saxon. This seems to be the pro of spelling the word, which has no affi *liquour*, but with *like*.] 1. Nice in the food.—Voluptuous men sacrifice all subistisfactions to a *liquorish* palate. *L'Espr.* : greedily to swallow; eager not with hu gust.—It is never tongue-tied, where fit dation, whereof womankind is so *licker*fered unto it. *Sidney*.—

Strephon, fond boy, delighted, did r



It was love that shin'd in shining maid;  
It lick'rous, poison'd, fain to her would go.

*Sidney.*

ain rare manuscripts, fought in the most re-  
marks by Erpenius, the most excellent lin-  
ad been left to his widow, and were upon  
the Jesuits, *liquorish* chapmen of all such  
*Watson.*—

vain he proffer'd all his goods to save  
body, destin'd to that living grave;  
*liquorish* hag rejects the pelf with scorn,  
nothing but the man would serve her turn.

*Dryden.*

one provinces they were so *liquorish* after  
less, that they would suck the blood as it  
in the dying man. *Locke.* 3. Nice; deli-  
empting the appetite. This sense I doubt,  
ould'st thou seek again to trap me here

*lickerish* baits, fit to ensnare a brute? *Mil-  
KERISHNESS.* *n. f.* [from *lickerish*.] Nice-  
palate.

LICKING, a navigable river of Kentucky,  
runs N. through a mountainous country  
miles, then turns NW. and falls into the  
24 miles below Pittsburg. It is 200 yards  
t its influx into the Ohio, and is navigable  
s up.

LICKS, in geography, a name given to fe-  
ces in the United States of America, par-  
ticularly in the N. Western Territory, abounding  
t springs; where the earth is furrowed up  
y curious manner by the deer and buffa-  
bich lick it on account of the saline par-  
ith which it is impregnated. Streams of  
water run through these licks, the soil of  
s a soft clay. They are distinguished by  
names; but the most remarkable are

LICKS, BIG BONE, lying on each side of  
e Creek, a river of Kentucky, so named  
umber of extraordinary large bones found

These bones, which are said by the na-  
belong to the *Mammoth*, still puzzle the  
rned zoologists to determine what animal  
e belonged to. A thigh-bone, found here  
Parsons, measured 49 inches in length.  
of this animal is deposited in Yale College.  
rson, (now president of the United States,)  
xamined the skeleton of one of these ani-  
s, that "The bones bespeak an animal of  
times the cubic volume of an elephant, as  
on has admitted. Of this animal the na-  
ans have the most extravagant traditions,  
affirm that it was carnivorous, which is  
ral opinion, and was admitted by the late  
er of London after examining the tusks."

MEMOTH. Big Bone Licks lie 8 miles a-  
mouth of Big Bone Creek; which falls  
Ohio, in Lon. 85. 54. W. Lat. 39. 17. N.  
Y, a river of Ireland, in Waterford, run-  
o the Black-water, 4 miles N. of Yough-

LENA, a town of Spain, in Arragon.

LEON, in the Dionysian solemnities, the  
van of Bacchus; a thing so essential to  
lemnities of this god, that they could not  
celebrated without it. See DIONYSIA.  
LOPHORI, in the Dionysian solemnity,  
so carried the LICNON.

XIII. PART I.

LICOLA, a lake of Naples, formerly famous  
for plenty of excellent fish; but in 1538 an ex-  
plosion of a volcano changed one part of it into a  
mountain of albes 1000 feet high, and 4 miles in  
circumference, and the other into a morass. It  
was anciently called LUCRINUS LACUS.

LICONIA, in botany, a genus of the digynia  
order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants.  
There are 5 petals inlaid in the pit of the nectar-  
ium at its base; the capsule is bilocular and seed-  
bearing.

(1.) \* LICORICE. *n. f.* [*γλυκύριζα*; *liquoricia*, I-  
talian.] A root of sweet taste.—*Liquorice* root is  
long and slender, externally of a dusky reddish  
brown, but within of a fine yellow, full of juice;  
and of a taste sweeter than sugar; it grows wild  
in many parts of France, Italy, Spain and Ger-  
many. The inspissated juice of this root is brought  
to us from Spain and Holland; from the first of  
which places it obtained the name of Spanish juice.  
*Hill's Mat. ria Medica*

(2.) LICORICE. See GLYCIRRHIZA.

LICOSTAMO, a town of European Turkey;  
in Thessaly; 16 miles ESE. of Larissa.

LICQUES, a town of France, in the dep. of  
the Straits of Calais; 10½ miles S. of Calais.

(1.) \* LICTOR. *n. f.* [Latin.] A beadle, that at-  
tended the consuls to apprehend or punish cri-  
minals.—

Saucy *licōrs*

Will catch at us like strumpets. *Ant. and Cleop.  
Licōrs* and rods the ensigns of their power.

*Milton:*

Though in his country town no *licōrs* were;  
Nor rods, nor ax; nor tribune. *Dryd.*

(2.) LICATORS, among the ancient Romans, were  
officers established by Romulus, who attended the  
consuls when they appeared in public. The du-  
ties of their office were these: 1. *Submotio*, or  
clearing the way for the magistrate they attend-  
ed: this they did by word of mouth; or, if there  
was occasion, by using the rods they always car-  
ried along with them. 2. *Animadvertio*, or caus-  
ing the people to pay the usual respect to the ma-  
gistrate; as, to alight, if on horse back or in a  
chariot; to rise up, uncover, make way, and the like.  
3. *Præstitio*, or walking before the magistrates: this  
they did, not confusedly, or all together, nor by  
two or three abreast, but singly following one an-  
other in a straight line. They also preceded the  
triumphal car in public triumphs; and it was al-  
so part of their office to arrest criminals, and to  
be public executioners in beheading, &c. Their  
ensigns were the FASCES and SECURIS. As to  
the number of lictors allowed each magistrate, a  
dictator had 24; a master of the horse 6; a con-  
sul 12; a prætor 6; and each vestal virgin, when  
she appeared abroad, had one.

(1.) LID, or LYD, a river of Devonsh. which runs  
into the Tamar, 4 miles NNW. of Tavistock; at  
Lidford bridge it is pent up with rocks, and has  
made itself so deep a fall, by its continual work-  
ing, that passengers only hear the noise of the wa-  
ter without seeing it.

(2.) \* LID. *n. f.* [*blid*, Saxon; *lied*, Ger.] 1. A  
cover; any thing that shuts down over a vessel;  
any stopple that covers the mouth, but not enters  
it.—Hope, instead of flying off with the rest, stuck

B b

65

so close to the *lid* of the cup, that it was shut down upon her. *Addison*. 2. The membrane that, when we sleep or wink, is drawn over the eye.—

Do not for ever with thy veiled *lids*,  
Seek for thy noble father in the dust. *Shak.*  
Our eyes have *lids*, our ears still open we keep. *Darvies.*

That eye dropp'd sense distinct and clear,  
As any muse's tongue could speak;  
When from its *lid* a pearly tear  
Ran trickling down her beautiful cheek. *Prior.*

The rod of *Hermes*  
To sleep could mortal eye-*lids* fix,  
And drive departed souls to *Styx*:  
That rod was just a type of *Sid's*,  
Which o'er a British senate's *lids*  
Could scatter opium full as well,  
And drive as many souls to hell. *Swift.*

(1.) *LIDA*, a river of Sweden, which runs into lake *Wenner* at *Lidkiöping*.

(2.) *LIDA*, a town of Lithuania, in *Wilna*.

*LIDD*. See *LYDD*.

*LIDDAL*. See *LIDDEL*, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

(1.) *LIDDEL*, *Duncan*, M. D. professor of mathematics and medicine in the university of *Helmstadt*, was born in 1561 at *Aberdeen*, where he received the first part of his education. About the age of 18, he went to the university of *Francfort*, where he spent three years in studying mathematics and philosophy. From *Francfort* he proceeded to *Breslaw*, where he made uncommon progress in mathematics, under prof. *Paul Wittichius*. After a year he returned to *Francfort*, where he studied physic for three years. A contagious distemper having broke out at that place, *Liddel* retired to the university of *Rostock*; where he renewed his studies, rather as a companion than a pupil of the celebrated *Brucæus*; whom, though an excellent mathematician, he instructed in the more perfect knowledge of the *Copernican* system, and other astronomical subjects. In 1590 he returned again to *Francfort*. But having there heard of the increasing reputation of the *Academia Julia*, established at *Helmstadt* by *Henry duke of Brunswick*, he removed thither; and soon after his arrival was appointed to the lower professorship of mathematics. From thence he was promoted to the more dignified mathematical chair, which he occupied for 9 years, with much credit to himself and to the *Julian Academy*. In 1596 he obtained the degree of M. D. began to teach physic, and by his teaching and writings became the chief support of the medical school at *Helmstadt*; was employed as first physician at the court of *Brunswick*, and had much practice among the principal inhabitants. Having been several times elected dean of the faculties both of philosophy and physic, he, in 1604, was chosen pro-rector of the university. But neither academical honours, nor the profits of an extensive practice, abroad, could make him forget his native country. In 1600 he took leave of the *Academia Julia*; and after travelling through *Germany* and *Italy*, at length settled in *Scotland*. He died in 1613, in the 52d year of his age. By his last will he bestowed certain lands near *Aberdeen* upon the university there, for the education of 6 poor scholars. Among various regulations and injunctions for the

management of this charity, he appointed 12 magistrates of *Aberdeen* his trustees, and solemnly pronounced the curse of God on any person who should abuse or misapply it. His works are, *putationes Medicinales. Helmstadt, 1603, 4.* *Ars Medica succinæ et perspicue explicata. burgi, 1607, 8vo.* dedicated to *K. James V* divided into 5 books, viz. *Introductio in totam medicinam; De Physiologia; De Pathologia; de morum doctrina; De Therapeutica.* 3. *De Libri tres, Hamburgi, 1610, 12mo.* 4. *Tractatus de dente aureo, Hamburgi, 1628, 12mo.* This last was published to refute a ridiculous story the current, of a poor boy in *Silesia*, who, at 7 years of age, having lost some of his teeth, brought to the astonishment of his parents, a new tooth of pure gold. *Jacobus Horstius, M. D. et c.* of the *Academia Julia*, had published a book, he dedicated to the Emperor *Rudolphus* prove that this wonderful tooth was a present from heaven to encourage the German at war with the Turks, &c. The imposture soon after discovered to be a thin plate of gold skilfully drawn over the natural tooth by a surgeon of that country, to excite the public admiration and charity. 5. *Artis conservandi Sanitatem, sive Medicinae, Aberdeen, 1651, 12mo;* a posthumous work, the style is plain and perspicuous, and somewhat elegant.

(2.) *LIDDEL*, a river of *Scotland*, which rises at the upper extremity of *Liddisdale*, and runs the course of 24 miles, in the parish of *Castletown* on the borders of *Cumberland*; 3 miles of *Langholm*, in *Dumfriesshire*; after which it united stream runs SW. 7 miles and falls into *Solway Frith*.

*LIDDEN*, a river of *England*, which runs into the *Severn*, at *Gloucester*.

*LIDDISDALE*, an extensive district of *Scotland* so named from the *LIDDEL*, which runs from E. to W. & S. It was anciently styled *Liddisdale*; and *lordship*, and comprehends the whole *Scottish* angle of *ROXBURGHSHIRE*. The greater part of it is contained in the parish of *Castletown*; *CASTLETOWN*, N<sup>o</sup> 1. and 2. Being mountainous, it is chiefly adapted for pasture, though the soil of the low land is excellent, and produces very good crops of wheat, barley, oats, flax, turnips, potatoes, and clover. The principal mountains are *Tudhope*, *Windhead*, *moor*, *Dun*, *Dod*, *Hermitage*, *Carby*, *Lav*, *Tinnis*; and *Lariston*, *Millenwood*, *Peel*, and *Fells*. The number of sheep fed upon there in 1793, was 36,000; and that of black cattle *Limestone* abounds, and there are many *Druidical* temples, *Pictish* camps, and other antiquities in this district, besides a natural bridge and other curiosities. See *BRIDGES*, § 10; *PENNING WATER*, &c.

*LIDFORD*, a village of *Devonshire*, 3 miles E. of *Brent Tor*, formerly a town, with a castle, which was always open to men of quality, and twice sent burgesses to parliament. It was sadly shattered by the *Dartmoor* in 1797; and though now only a village, the manor in which it lies may, for lands and liberties, compare with any in the kingdom, the whole of *Dartmoor* being in the verge of it.

*LIDKIO*.

OPPING, a town of Sweden, in W. on the S. side of Lake Wenner, at the he Lida; 42 miles ENE. of Udterval-SW. of Orebro. Lon. 13. 40. E. Lat. Perhaps it is the same with LINDKIO-

1. Y, a town of Gloucestershire, 71 miles on, seated on the W. bank of the Seas two fairs. Near it are the remains Roman encampment, with foundations ancient buildings, among which are the Roman hypocaust of an oval form; and antiquities and coins are often found in pits. Mr Bathurst has a fine seat called Yark, with extensive woods adjoining. O, a district of Maritime Austria, in S. of Venice.

DI SOTTOMARINO, a town of Maritima, near Chioggia, containing 2600 souls; it is built on a bank, which separates it from the sea, and protected by a wall, with walls composed of enormous freestone, 32 feet thick, and many fathoms high.

E. n. f. [*lie*, French.] Any thing imputed to some other body; as, soap or salt. *Sake* lie breads fleas like a loach. *Sake* lie things concocted by heat become yellow, wort, &c. *Peucham on Drawing*.

E. n. f. [*lige*, Saxon.] 1. A criminal

and a lieft, abhorred tyrant; with my sword I will cut the *lie* thou speak'st.

*Sake*.—The *lie* properly an outward signification of the contrary to, or at least beside, the intention of the mind; so that when one thing is expressed, and the same thing not intended, that is properly a *lie*. *South*.—The *lie* is the object of our understanding, as good or ill; and the understanding can no more be deceived with a *lie*, than the will can be deceived with evil. *Dryden*.—When I hear my neighbour say that which is not true, and I say to him that it is not true, or this is false, I only contradict the naked idea of his error; this is the *lie*: but if I say it is a *lie*, the word *lie* is a secondary idea; for it implies both the truth of the speech, and my reproach and the speaker. *Watts*.

2. A charge of *lie*. *South*.—The *lie* is a formulary phrase.—The *lie* shall lie so heavy on my sword, shall render vengeance and revenge; the *lie* giver, and that *lie*, rest shall be quiet as thy father's skull. *Sake*.

3. A contradiction to suppose, that whole nation should unanimously give the *lie* to him who is most invincible evidence, every man knew to be true. *Locke*.—Men will give the *lie*, rather than admit of disagreeing with these tenets. *Locke*.

4. This sense is ludicrous.—The *lie* and fox, the fool and knave imply; the *lie* is moral, though the tale a *lie*. *Dryden*. in morals, § 2. def. 1, 3. Mr Paley, observes, that there are falsehoods of lies; that is, which are not crimes are lies which are not literally and

5. I. Cases of the first class are those,

1. Where no one is deceived: as for instance in parables, fables, novels, jests, tales to create mirth, or ludicrous embellishments of a story, in which the declared design of the speaker is not to inform, but to divert; compliments in the subscription of a letter; a prisoner's pleading not guilty; an advocate asserting the justice, or his belief of the justice, of his client's cause. In such instances no confidence is destroyed, because none was reposed; no promise to speak the truth is violated, because none was given or understood to be given.

2. Where the person you speak to has no right to know the truth, or more properly where little or no inconvenience results from the want of confidence in such cases; as where you tell a falsehood to a madman for his own advantage; to a robber to conceal your property; to an assassin to defeat or to divert him from his purpose. It is upon this principle, that, by the laws of war, it is allowed to deceive an enemy by feints, false colours, spies, false intelligence, and the like: but, by no means, in treaties, truces, signals of capitulation, or surrender: and the difference is, that the former suppose hostilities to continue, the latter are calculated to terminate or suspend them. II. As there may be falsehoods which are not lies, so there may be lies without literal or direct falsehood. An opening is always left for this species of prevarication, when the literal and grammatical signification of a sentence is different from the popular and customary meaning. It is the wilful deceit that makes the lie; and we wilfully deceive, when our expressions are not true, in the sense in which we believe the hearer apprehends them. Besides, it is absurd to contend for any sense of words, in opposition to usage; for all senses of all words are founded upon usage, and upon nothing else. Or a man may *act* a lie; as by pointing his finger in a wrong direction, when a traveller inquires of him his road; or when a tradesman shuts up his windows, to induce his creditors to believe that he is abroad: for to all moral purposes, and therefore, as to veracity, speech and action are the same; speech being only a mode of action.

(1.) \* To LIE. v. n. [*leogan*, Saxon; *liegen*, Dutch.] 1. To utter criminal falsehood.—I know not where he lodges; and for me to devise a lodging, and say, He lies here, or he lies there, were to lie in mine own throat. *Sake*.—If a soul lie unkind to his neighbour in that which was delivered him to keep, he shall restore that which was delivered. *Lev*.—Should I lie against my right? *Job*, xxxiv. 6. 2. To exhibit false representation.—

Inform us, will the emperor treat?

Or do the prints and papers lie? *Swift*.

(2.) \* To LIE. v. n. pret. I lay; I have lain or *lein*. [*liegan*, Saxon; *liggen*, Dutch.] 1. To rest horizontally, or with very great inclination against something else. 2. To rest; to press upon.—

Death lies on her like an untimely show'r

Upon the sweetest flow'r of all the field. *Sake*.

Lie heavy on him, earth, for he

Laid many a heavy load on thee.

*Epitaph on Vanbrugh*

3. To be repositied in the grave.—All the kings of the nations lie in glory, every one in his own house. *Isa*. xiv. 18.—I will lie with my fathers,

and thou shalt carry me out of Egypt, and bury me in your burying-place. *Gen.* xlvii. 30. 4. To be in a state of decumbiture.—How many good young princes would do so; their fathers *lying* so sick as you are at this time is? *Sbak.*—My little daughter *lieth* at the point of death: I pray thee come and lay thy hands on her, that she may be healed. *Mark.* 5. To pass the time of sleep.—

The watchful traveller,  
That by the moon's mistaken light did rise,  
Lay down again, and clos'd his weary eyes.

*Dryden.*

Forlorn he must, and persecuted lie;  
Climb the steep mountain, in the cavern lie.

*Prior.*

6. To be laid up or reposit.—I have seen where copperas is made great variety of them, divers of which I have yet *lying* by me. *Borle.* 7. To remain fixed.—The Spaniards have but one temptation to quarrel with us, the recovering of Jamaica; for that has ever *lied* at their hearts. *Temple.* 8. To reside.—If thou dost well, shalt thou not be accepted? and if thou dost not well, sin *lieth* at the door. *Gen.* iv. 7. 9. To be placed or situated, with respect to something else.—Deserts, where there *lay* no way. *Wisdom.*—

I fly

To those happy climes that lie,  
Where day never shuts his eye.

*Milton.*

There *lies* our way, and that our passage home.

*Dryden.*

Envy *lies* between beings equal in nature, though unequal in circumstances. *Collier on Envoys.*—The business of a tutor, rightly employed, *lies* out of the road. *Locke.*—What *lies* beyond our positive idea towards infinity, *lies* in obscurity, and has the undeterminate confusion of a negative idea. *Locke.* 10. To press upon afflictively.—Thy wrath *lieth* hard upon me, and thou hast afflicted me with all thy waves. *Psalms.*—

He that commits a sin shall find

The pressing guilt *lie* heavy on his mind. *Creech.*—Shew the power of religion, in abating that particular anguish which seems to *lie* so heavy on Leonora. *Addison.* 11. To be troublesome or tedious.—Suppose kings, should have spent their time, at least what *lay* upon their hands, in chemistry, it cannot be denied but princes may pass their time advantageously that way. *Temple.*—I would recommend the studies of knowledge to the female world, that they may not be at a loss how to employ those hours that *lie* upon their hands. *Addison.* 12. To be judicially imputed.—If he should intend his voyage towards my wife, I would turn her loose to him; and what he gets more of her than sharp words, let it *lie* on my head. *Sbak.* 13. To be in any particular state.—If money go before, all ways do *lie* open. *Sbak.*—The highways *lie* waste, the wayfaring man ceaseth. *Isa.*—The seventh year thou shalt let it rest and *lie* still. *Exod.*—Do not think that the knowledge of any particular subject cannot be improved, merely because it has *lain* without improvement. *Watts.* 14. To be in a state of concealment.—Many things in them *lie* concealed to us, which they who were concerned understood at first sight. *Locke.* 15. To be in prison.—

Your imprisonment shall not be long  
I will deliver you, or else *lie* for you.

16. To be in a bad state.—Why will you *ying* and pinching yourself in such a lonsefaring course of life? *L'Esfrange.*—The gene mankind *lie* pecking at one another, till one they are all torn to pieces. *L'Esfrange* the gods to do your drudgery, and you *lie* ing with your finger in your mouth? *L'1* 17. To be in a helpless or exposed state.—a hated person superior, and to *lie* under guile of a disadvantage, is far enough from lion. *Collier.*—It is but a very small coin a plain man, *lying* under a sharp fit of tl for a week, receives from this fine f *Villoison.*—As a man should always be guard against the vices to which he is posed, so we should take a more than care not to *lie* at the mercy of the weather moral conduct. *Addison.*—The mainten the clergy is precarious, and collected most miserable race of farmers, at whol every minister *lies* to be defrauded. *Swift.* consist.—The image of it gives me content; and I trust it will grow to a most prosper section.—It *lies* much in your holding up—He that thinks that diversion may not *lie* labour, forgets the early rising, and hav of huntsmen. *Locke.* 19. To be in the to belong to.—Do'st thou endeavour, a as in thee *lies*, to preserve the lives of a *Duppa's Rules for Devotion.*—He shews very malicious if he knows I deserve cre yet goes about to blast it, as much as in *Stillingfleet.*—

Mars is the warrior's god; in him it

On whom he favours to confer the priz  
20. To be valid in the court of judicature action *lieth* against one. 21. To cost; a me in more money. 22. To *LIE* at. To tune; to teaze. 23. To *LIE* by. To rest main still.—

Ev'n the billows of the sea,

Hung their heads, and then *lay* by.

24. To *LIE* down. To rest; to go into a repose.—The leopard shall *lie* down with *Isa.* xi. 6.—The needy shall *lie* down in saf xiv. 30. 25. To *LIE* down. To sink i grave.—His bones are full of the sin of hi which shall *lie* down with him in the du xx. 11. 26. To *LIE* in. To be in child for all other good women that love to do tle work, how handsome it is to *lie* in an *Spenser.*—You confine yourself most unrea Come; you must go visit the lady that *Sbak.*—She had *lain* in, and her right b been apostemated. *Wijeman.*—The doct practised both by sea and land, and t cures the green sickness and *lyings* in. *Spee*

When Florimel design'd to *lie* private  
She chose with such prudence her pi  
conceal,

That her nurse, nay her midwife, scarc  
her once squeal.

—Hysterical affections are contracted by ac in *lying* in. *Sabatnot.* 27. To *LIE* und be subject to; to be oppressed by.—A g

ill *lie under* a great disadvantage. *Small-ermans*.—This mistake never ought to be to Dryden, but to those who suffered so genius to *lie under* necessity. *Pope*.—Eu-then *under* a deep lethargy. *Attrib.* 28. *yon*. To become the matter of obligati-ty.—These are not places merely of fa-charge of souls *lies upon* them. *Bacon*. *ld lie upon* him to make out how matter, ected motion, could at first necessarily out ever erring or miscarrying, into such formation of human bodies. *Bentley*. 29. *with*. To converse in bed.—

Pardon me, Bassanio,  
r this ring she *lay with* me. *Shak*.  
ay be observed of this word in general,  
ommonly implies something of sluggish-  
tion, or steadiness, applied to persons;  
e gravity or permanency of condition, ap-  
things.

ENAU; 4 towns of Germany; viz 1. in  
2. in Stiria; 3. and 4. in Silesia.

ENTHAL; 3 towns of Germany, in Bo-  
hil-stia and Stiria.

STADT, a town of Prussia, in Oberland,  
afte built in 1329. It suffered much in  
dish wars.

HTENAU, a town of Franconia, in the  
te of Anspach, subject to Nurenburg.  
c. E. Lat. 48. 43. N.

ERBACH, a river of Germany, in the  
the Upper Rhine, which runs into the

LIEF. *adj.* [*leaf*, Sax.; *lief*, Dutch.] Dear;  
Obsolete.—

*liefst* lord she thus beguiled had,  
: was flesh; all flesh doth faintly breed.

*Fairy Queen*.

You, with the rest,  
cfs have laid disgraces on my head;  
with your best endeavour have stir'd up  
*liege* to be mine enemy. *Hen. VI*.  
LIEF. *adj.* Willingly: now used only in fa-  
veech.—To say the truth, I had as *lief*  
: soppery of freedom, as the moral-  
: risonment. *Shak*.

LENSHOEK, a fort of the Batavian re-  
in the dep. of the Meuse, and late prov.  
h Flanders; seated on the W. side of the  
opposite Fort LILLO; 7 miles NW. of  
e. Lon. 4. 22. E. Lat. 51 17. N.

EGE, a ci-devant principality and bishop-  
rmanly, in the circle of Westphalia, ced-  
he French republic, by the treaties of  
Forinjo and Luneville, and finally annex-  
by the peace of 1801—2. It was bound-  
e N. by the late Austrian Brabant, on the  
ampagne and Luxemburg, on the E. by

and Juliers, and on the W. by Brabant,  
nd Hainault. It is very unequal both in  
nd breadth; the former being in some  
ave 90 miles, in others not half so much;  
atter in some places 45, in others hardly  
e air is very temperate; and the soil fer-  
m, wine, wood, and pasture. It has al-  
of lead and iron, pits of coal, quarries  
e and stone, and some celebrated mineral  
as those of Spa and Chau-fontaine. The

principal rivers are the Meuse, the Sambre, and the  
Ourte. The manufactures are chiefly beer, arms,  
nails, serge, leather, &c. This country is very  
populous and extensive, and before the late war  
co-tained 1500 parishes, 24 walled towns, 400 vi-  
lages, 52 baronies, besides counties and seignio-  
ries, 17 abbeys for men, and 11 for ladies. It  
was over-run by the French in 1792, by the allies  
in 1793, and by the French again in 1794. It was  
annexed to the French republic, in 1796, and  
now forms the department of the OURTE.

(2) LIEGE, a town of the French republic, ca-  
pital of the department of the Ourte, as it formerly  
was of the ci-devant bishopric of Liege (N<sup>o</sup> 1.)  
is 4 miles in circumference, and is seated on the  
Meuse, in a fine valley surrounded with hills and  
woods. The Meuse at this city is divided into 3  
branches, which after passing through it, under  
several bridges, unite again below it. It was a  
free imperial city of Germany, and one of the larg-  
est and most eminent in Europe. Though it is 100  
miles from the sea by water, the Meuse is navigable  
up to it. The city has 16 gates; 17 bridges,  
some of them very handsome; 154 streets, many  
of them straight and broad; a fine episcopal pa-  
lace; a very large stately cathedral, in which, be-  
sides five great silver coffers full of reliques, are  
(or at least *were* before the late war,) several sil-  
ver statues of saints, and a St George on horse-  
back of many gold, presented to the cathedral by  
Charles the Bold, by way of atonement for using  
the inhabitants cruelly, in 1468. Of the ten  
churches, that of St Paul is the most remarkable,  
both for structure and ornaments in painting and  
marble. The city is well fortified, and there are  
also two castles on the mountain of the Holy Wal-  
burg for its defence. Besides a great number of  
other convents of both sexes, it had a college of  
English Jesuits, founded in 1616, and a fine nun-  
nery of English ladies. Churches, convents, and  
other religious foundations, take up the greater  
part of it, whence it was called the *paradise of*  
*priests*, but the *purgatory of men* and the *hell of*  
*women*. It is divided into the old and new, or  
the upper and lower town; and the latter again  
into the island, and the quarter beyond the Meuse.  
The houses are high, and built of bluish marble.  
In the town and suburbs are 12 public squares, 10  
hospitals, a beguin-house, and two fine keys,  
planted with several rows of trees; great part of  
the city within the walls is taken up with orch-  
ards and vineyards. In St William's convent,  
without the city, is the tomb of the famous Eng-  
lish traveller Sir John Mandeville. Near it are  
kept the saddle, spurs, and knife, that he used in  
his travels. After having seen most of the cities  
of any note in the world, he made choice of Liege  
to end his life in. At this place is made a great  
quantity of fire-arms, which are exported to dif-  
ferent countries. It was bombarded in 1691, and  
delivered up to the French in 1701. The allies  
retook it in 1702, and the French besieged it a-  
gain in 1705, but were obliged to raise the siege,  
on the approach of the duke of Marlborough. In  
1734 a fire happened in it, which consumed the  
bishop's palace, with all the furniture and MSS.  
In 1789, the inhabitants having complained of  
the oppression which they experienced under the go-

vernment of their bishop, at last insisted upon a charter of privileges. As the bishop and chapter did not comply with their demands, they had recourse to arms; and the bishop, apprehensive for his safety, left the city, and appealed to the imperial chamber of Wetzlar. That chamber issued decrees in his favour: the king of Prussia, in 1790, seemed to act as a mediator for the citizens: the sentences, however, issued by the imperial chamber against the insurgents, were followed by requisitorial letters, addressed to the government of the Austrian Netherlands, desiring that his imperial majesty's troops would assist those of the electoral princes in enforcing their decrees; in consequence of which the Austrians entered Liege in 1791, restored the old magistracy who had been expelled, to their functions, and reinstated the bishop and chapter. In Nov. 1792, the French, under Dumouriez, took the city, and effected another revolution; but being driven thence by the allies in March 1793, the citizens were once more obliged to submit. But early in 1794, it was again taken by the French under Pichegru, and finally annexed to the republic in 1796. Liege is 15 miles S. of Maastricht, and 62 SW. of Cologne. Lon. 5. 40. E. Lat. 50. 37. N.

(3.) \* LIEGE, *adj.* [*liege*, French; *ligio*, Italian; *ligius*, low Latin.] 1. Bound by some feudal tenure; subject: whence *liegeman* for subject. 2. Sovereign. [This signification seems to have accidentally risen from the former, the lord of *liege men*, being by mistake called *liege lord*.]—Did not the whole realm acknowledge Henry VIII. for their king and *liege lord*? *Spenser*.—

My lady *liege*, said he,

What all your sex desire is sovereignty. *Dryd.*  
—A devotedness unto God our *liege lord*, so as to act in all things according to his will. *Grew*.

(4.) \* LIEGE, *n. f.* Sovereign; superior lord: scarcely in use.—

O pardon me, my *liege!* but for my tears  
I had forestall'd this dear and deep rebuke.

*Shakef.*

For that my sovereign *liege* was in my debt.

*Shakef.*

The natives, dubious whom  
They must obey, in consternation wait  
Till rigid conquest will pronounce their *liege*.

*Philips.*

(5.) LIEGE, in law, properly signifies a vassal, who holds a kind of fee, that binds him in a closer obligation to his lord than other people. The term seems to be derived from the French *lier to bind*; on account of a ceremony used in rendering faith or homage; which was by locking the vassal's thumb or his hand in that of the lord, to show that he was fast bound by his oath of fidelity. Cujas, Vignere, and Bignon, choose rather to drive the word from the same source with *leudis* or *lodi*, i. e. *loyal* or *faithful*. But Du Cange agrees with those who derive it from *liti*, a kind of vassals, so firmly attached to their lord, on account of lands or fees held of him, that they were obliged to do him all manner of service, as if they were his domestics. He adds, this was formerly called *litium servitium*, and the person *litge*. In this sense, the word is used, *Lege*. *Edw. cap. 29. Judei sub tutela regis ligean debent esse*, that is,

wholly under his protection. By liege homage a vassal was obliged to serve his lord towards: against all, excepting his father. In which sense the word was used in opposition to simple homage, which last only obliged the vassal to pay the usual and accustomed dues to his lord; and not to take arms against the emperor, prince, or other superior lord; so that liege man was a person devoted to his lord, and entirely under his command *Omnibus, &c. Reginaldus, rex Insuper salutem. Sciatis quod deveni homo ligeus regis Anglie Johannis, contra omnes mortales deum vivere; &c.* MS. penes W. Dugdale. It must be observed, there were formerly two kinds of liege homage: the one, by which the vassal was obliged to serve his lord, against all out exception even of his sovereign; the other, which he was to serve him against all, such other lords as he had formerly owed homage to. In the old English statutes, liege liege people, are terms peculiarly appropriated to the king's subject; as being *liges, ligi*, or *liged*, obliged to pay allegiance to him; 8 Henry Hen. VIII. &c. though private persons had lieges too. Vide Lib. Rames.

\* LIEGEMAN, *n. f.* [from *liege* and *man* subject: not in use.—

This *liegeman* began to wax more bold.  
—The ancestors of those that now live,  
themselves then subjects and *ligemen*.

Stand, ho! who is there?

—Friends to this ground, *liegemen* to the

LIEGE-POUSTIE, in Scots law, is opposed to deathbed; and signifies a person's enjoyments in a state of health in which only he can dispose of his property at pleasure.

\* LIEGER, *n. f.* [more proper *legier*, or *legier*.] A resident ambassador.—

His passions and his fears

Lie *liegers* for you in his breast, and the  
Negotiate your affairs. *L*

LIEGNITZ. See LIGNITZ.

LIEN, the SPLEEN. See ANATOMY,

\* LIEN, the participle of *lie*—One of the spleen might lightly have *lien* with thy will xxvi. 10.

LIEN-HOA. See NYMPHÆA, N° II,

\* LIENTERICK, *adj.* [from *lientary*, pertaining to a lientery. There are many medicinal preparations of iron, but none equal to that prepared without acids; especially in ointments, and to strengthen the tone of the spleen in *lienterick* and other like cases. *Grew's M*

(1.) \* LIENTERY, *n. f.* [from *λυω, livo*, I loosen, and *ήνιον, intestinum*, gut; *lienteric*, French particular looseness, or diarrhœa, when food passes so suddenly through the stomach, as to be thrown out by stool with little alteration. *Quincy*.

(2.) LIENTERY. See MEDICINE, Index

LIENTZ. See LINTZ.

(1.) LIEOU-KIEOU, a kingdom of Asia consisting of 36 islands, subject to China, hitherto known to geographers, tho' they formed an immense and extensive empire; the inhabitants which are civilized. Father Gabil, a Jesuit, has furnished some interesting details respecting the

which he extracted from a Chinese work, published in 1721, in 2 vols by *Su-pao Koang* a Chinese Doctor, who was sent ambassador by the emperor *Koang-hi*, in 1719, to the king of Lieou. Being on the spot, he examined, according to the emperor's orders, whatever he considered interesting, respecting the number, situated productions of these isles; as well as their language, religion, manners, and customs of the natives. These isles are situated between *Comosa*, and Japan. The natives pretend, that the origin of their empire is lost in the remotest antiquity. They reckon up 25 successive dynasties, the duration of which forms a period of an 18,000 years. It would be useless to dispute the absurdity of these pretensions. It is not, that the existence of the country called *Lieou* was not known in China before the commencement of the Christian æra. In the course of the reign of *Yi*, one of the emperors of the dynasty of *Yi*, having heard of these isles, wished to know more of them. He first sent some Chinese for the purpose, but their expedition proved fruitless, and they returned without interpreters. They, however, brought back the islanders with them to *Signan*, the capital of *Chen-fi*, and the usual residence of the emperor of that dynasty. An ambassador of the king of Japan being then at court, he and his attendants knew the strangers to be natives of Lieou; but they described these isles as a barbarous and uncivilized country, the inhabitants of which had never been civilized. The emperor of China afterwards learned, that the principal island lay East of *Fou-tcheou*, the capital of *Fo-kien*; and that a passage of 3 days, one might reach the isle, and where the king kept his court. On the occasion of the emperor *Yang-ti* sent a party of interpreters, to summon the prince to do homage to the emperor of China, and to pay him tribute. The king of Lieou-kieou sent back the interpreters, telling them, sternly, that he acknowledged no prince to be his superior. This answer displeased the emperor, who caused a fleet to be sent to Fo-kien, in which he embarked 10,000 men. This fleet arrived in safety at *Napa-kiang*. The army, in spite of the effort made by the natives, landed on the isle; and the king, who had put himself at the head of his troops, having fallen in battle, the isle was pillaged, sacked, and burnt the royal city; more than 5000 slaves, and returned to the emperor of the dynasty of *Twang*, the first of the short dynasties that followed, (see § 7.) and those of the dynasty of *Song*, attempted to render these isles tributary.

*Chi-tsou*, emperor of the dynasty of *Yi*, wished to revive the pretensions of his ancestors. He fitted out a fleet to subdue the isles; but schemes of conquest had become disagreeable to the Chinese, since the disaster of their army in an expedition against *Lieou*. The fleet of *Chi-tsou* went no farther than the isles of *Pong-hou*, and the West coast of *Yi*, whence they returned to *Fo-kien*. But in the reign of *Hong-vou*, founder of the dynasty of *Ming*, these isles submitted voluntarily to the Chinese government. *Hong-vou* had ordered the grandees of his court to *Tsay-tou*,

then reigning at *Lieou-kieou*, to inform him of his accession to the throne. The Chinese ambassador acquitted himself of his commission with all the address of an able minister. In a private audience he exhorted *Tsay-tou*, to own himself a tributary of the empire, and laid before him various advantages he would derive from this step. His reasoning made so much impression on *Tsay-tou*, that he sent immediately to the emperor to demand the investiture of his states. *Hong-vou* received his envoys in a magnificent manner, and loaded them with presents. He solemnly declared *Tsay-tou* a vassal of the empire; and, after having received his first tribute (consisting of horses, aromatic wood, sulphur, copper, tin, &c.) he sent to this prince a golden seal, and confirmed the choice he had made of one of his sons for successor. *Hong-vou* afterwards sent 36 families, almost all from *Fo-kien* to *Lieou-kieou*. *Tsay-tou* assigned them lands near *Napa-kiang*, and appointed certain revenues for their use; at the same time that *Hong-vou* made them considerable remittances. These families first introduced into *Lieou-kieou* the learned language of the Chinese, the use of their characters, and the ceremonies practised in China in honour of *Confucius*. On the other hand, the sons of several of the grandees of the court of *Tsay-tou* were sent to *Nan-king*, to study Chinese in the imperial college, where they were treated with distinction, and maintained at the emperor's expence. The isles of *Lieou-kieou* had neither iron nor porcelain. *Hong-vou* caused a great number of utensils and instruments of iron to be made, which he sent thither, with a quantity of porcelain vessels. Commerce, navigation, and the arts soon flourished. These islanders learned to cast bells for their temples, to manufacture paper and the finest stuffs, and to make porcelain. The celebrated revolution which placed the Tartars on the imperial throne of China, (see *CHINA*, § 13.) produced no change in the conduct of the kings of *Lieou-kieou*. *Chang-tché*, who was then reigning, sent ambassadors to acknowledge *Chun-tchi*, and received a seal from him, on which were engraven some Tartar characters. It was then settled, that the king of *Lieou-kieou* should pay his tribute only every two years, and that the number of persons in the train of his envoys should not exceed 150. The emperor *Kang-hi* paid more attention to these isles than any of his predecessors. He caused a superb palace to be erected in honour of *Confucius*, and a college where he maintained masters to teach the sciences, and the Chinese characters. He also instituted examinations for the different degrees of the literati. He ordained, that the king of *Lieou-kieou* should send in tribute nothing but the productions of the country; particularly a fixed quantity of sulphur, copper, tin, shells, and mother of pearl, which is remarkably pretty in these islands; besides horse-furniture, pistol-cases, &c. which these islanders manufacture with great taste and neatness. It is above 900 years since the bonzes of China introduced at *Lieou-kieou* the principal books belonging to their sect, with the worship of *Fo*, which is now the established religion. There is in the royal city a magnificent temple, erected in honour of another idol of the Chinese, named *Tsin-fy*, which

which signifies *celestial queen*. These islands do not make promises or swear before their idols; but burn perfumes, present fruits, and stand respectfully before some stone, which they call to witness the solemnity of their engagements. Numbers of stones are to be seen in the courts of their temples, in most public places, and upon their mountains, appropriated to this purpose. They have also women consecrated for the worship of spirits, who are supposed to have great influence over these beings. They visit the sick, distribute medicines, and pray for their recovery. They respect the dead as much as the Chinese, and are no less ceremonious in mourning; but their funerals are neither so pompous, nor attended with so much expence. (See CHINA, § 36, and CHINESE, § 12.) Their coffins, which are of an hexagonal or octagonal figure, are 3 or 4 feet high. They burn the bodies of their dead, but preserve the bones. They never offer provisions to them, but place lamps round them, and burn perfumes. Families are distinguished in Licou-kieou by surnames, but a man and a woman of the same surname cannot marry. The king is not permitted to marry but in 3 grand families, which always enjoy the highest offices. There is a 4th of equal distinction with the 3 former; but neither the king nor the princes contract any alliances with this family; for it is doubtful, whether it be not sprung from the same stem as the royal line. A plurality of wives is allowed. Young men and women enjoy the liberty of seeing one another, and of conversing together; and their union is always in consequence of their own choice. The women are very reserved; they collect their hair on the top of their heads in the form of a curl, and fix it by long pins made of gold or silver. Besides his vast domains, the king receives the produce of all the sulphur, copper, and tin mines, and of the salt pits, together with what arises from taxes. From these revenues he pays the salaries of the mandarins and officers of his court. These salaries are estimated at a certain number of sacks of rice. There are 9 orders of mandarins, distinguished by the colours of their caps, or by their girdles and cushions. The greater part of the titles of these mandarins are hereditary, but some are only acquired by merit. In the royal city there are tribunals established for managing the revenue and affairs of all the islands. There are also particular tribunals for civil and criminal matters; and for regulating the affairs of religion, the public granaries, revenues, duties, commerce, manufactures, ceremonies, navigation, public edifices, literature, and war. The vessels built in this country are greatly valued by the people of China and Japan. In these the natives go to China, Tong-king, Cochinchina, Corea, Nangaza-ki, Satsuma, the neighbouring isles, and Formosa, where they dispose of their silk, cotton, paper, arms, copper utensils, mother of pearl, tortoise and other shells, coral and whet-stones, &c. which are in great request both in China and Japan.

(2.) LIEOU KIEOU, the principal and largest of the above islands, extends from N. to S. almost 440 lys, and 120 or 130 from E. to W.; but on the S. side, the extent from E. to W. is not 100 lys. The SE. part of it, where the court resides,

is called *Cheouli*; and Kint-ching, the city is situated in it. The king's palace, which is 12 miles in circumference, is by neighbouring mountain. It has 4 gates corresponding to the 4 cardinal points; and it fronts the W. forms the grand entry. In which this palace commands is most extensive and delightful; it reaches as far as the port of Kiang, at the distance of 20 lys, to the Kint-ching, and to a great number of other towns, villages, palaces, temples, and gardens, and pleasure houses. It stands 146° 26' E. and in lat. 26° 2' N.

\* LIER. *n. f.* [from *to lie*.] One that lies down; or remains concealed.—There was a French in ambush against him behind the city.

LIERE, a town of the French republic in the department of Deux Nattes, and late province of Austrian Brabant. On the 28th Nov. 1792, the French were defeated near it, by the British under the D. of York. It is seated on the Rhine, 10 miles SE. of Antwerp, and 18 N. of Brussels.

LIEREGNO, a town of Germany, in the principality of Trent, 7 miles E. of Trent.

LIERGANES, a town of Spain, in the province of Biscay.

LIERNA, a flourishing town of the French republic, in the department of the Lario, in the district of Como, seated on the E. bank of the lake of Como.

LIERNAIS, a town of France, in the department of Cote d'Or, 10 miles NW. of Auxerre.

LIES, a small town of Cumberland.

LIESHORN, a town of Westphalia.

LIESSE, a town of France, in the department of Aisne, and late province of Picardy, 4 ENE. of Laon, and 4 NW. of Sissonne. It is seated on the Somme.

LIESSER, a town of France, in the department of the Doubs, 4 miles S. of Ornans, and 10 E. of Salins.

LIETTRE, a town of France, in the department of the Straits of Calais; 3 miles S. of Arras.

(1.) \* LIEU. *n. f.* [French.] Place; or only used with *in*: *in lieu*, instead.—George III. had determined, *in lieu* of his former endeavours, to bestow the same by that justice which best befiecmeth him. *In lieu* of such an increase of dominion, business to extend our trade. *Addison*.

(2.) LIEU, or } in geography, a river  
LIEVE, } French republic, in the department of the Scheldt, and late province of Flanders, running from Damme, Scheldt at Ghent.

\* LIEVE. *adv.* [See LIEF.] Willingly, cheerfully, mouth it, as many of our players do, *lieve* the town crier had spoke my lines. Action is death to some sort of people, should as *lieve* hang as work. *L. Esfrang*

LIEVENS, John, a celebrated painter born at Leyden in 1607. He was the disciple of Schooten, and afterwards of Peter Lastman, excelled principally in portraits; but he painted several historical pieces with great success. He resided 3 years in England, and painted portraits of Charles I. the queen, the princess of Orange, and several of the nobility; after which he returned to Antwerp, where he met with full employment. There are several of his etchings extant,



ight, but masterly manner. The chiaro very skillfully managed in them, so as to a most powerful effect. His style of etchables that of Rembrandt; but is coarser finished.

GAUD, Joseph, M. D. counsellor of state physician at the court of France, was six in Provence, and resided principally he took his degree. After this he stumome years at Montpellier. He returned here he soon acquired extensive practice, me eminent for his literary abilities. He ere till 1750, when he was invited to actian to the royal infirmary at Versailles practised with such reputation and sucbe soon arrived at the head of his prood in 1774, upon the death of M. Senac, ppointed archiater. He published many works; particularly, 1. *Elementa Philo-Precis de la Medicines*. 3. *Pratique Precis de Medicale*. 4. *Essais Anatomiques*. 5. *Synop-se Praxois Medicines*. 6. *Historia Anato-ica*. He died at Versailles in 1780, aged 78.

LIEUTENANCY. *n. f.* [*lieutenance*, French; *tenant*.] 1. The office of a lieutenant.—icks as these strip you out of your leu: had been better you had not kissed your ers so oft. *Shak.* 2. The body of lieutenants.—The list of undisputed masters, is hard; as the list of the *lieutenancy* of our me-Felton.

LIEUTENANT. *n. f.* [*lieutenant*, Fr.] 1. ; one who acts by vicarious authority.—

Here the *lieutenant* comes. *Shak.* put you in mind of the lords *lieutenants*, by *lieutenants*, of the counties; their profor ordering the military affairs, in orpose an invasion from abroad, or a re-a sedition at home. *Bacon*.—Killing, as idered in itself without all undue ciras, was never prohibited to the lawful , who is the vicegerent or *lieutenant* of a whom he derives his power of life and ramball against *Hobbes*.—

by our new *lieutenant*, who in Rome, ce from me, has heard of your renown: to offer peace.

*Philips*. one who holds the next rank to a superior nomination; as, a general has his *lieutenants*, as a colonel his *lieutenant colonel*, ain simply his *lieutenant*.—It were meet captains only were employed as have erved in that country, and been at least there. *Spenser*.—According to military e place was good, and the *lieutenant* of l's company might well pretend to the nt captainship. *Watton*.—The earl of made *lieutenant* general of the army. —His *lieutenant*, engaging against his ders, being beaten by *Lyfander*, Alcias again banished. *Swift*.—

t thou so many gallant soldiers see, stains and *lieutenants* flight for me? *Gay*.

LIEUTENANT is an officer who supplies and discharges the offices of a superior ence. Of these, some are civil, as the tenants of kingdoms and counties; o-III. PART I.

thers military, as the lieutenant general; lieutenant colonel, &c.

(3.) LIEUTENANT, in the land service, is the second commissioned officer in every company of both foot and horse, next to the captain, and takes the command upon the death or absence of the captain.

(4.) LIEUTENANT COLONEL, the 2d officer of a regiment, who commands in the absence of the colonel. See COLONEL, § 2.

(5.) LIEUTENANT GENERAL is the next in command after the general; and provided he should die or be killed, the order is, that the oldest lieutenant general shall take the command. This office is the first military dignity after that of a general. One part of their function is, to assist the general with their counsel: they ought therefore, if possible, to possess the same qualities with the general himself; and the more, as they often command armies in chief. Lieutenant generals have been multiplied of late in Europe, in proportion as the armies have become numerous. They serve either in field or in the sieges, according to the dates of their commissions. In battle, the oldest commands the right wing of the army; the 2d the left wing, the 3d the centre, the 4th the right wing of the second line, the 5th the left wing, the 6th the centre; and so on. In sieges the lieutenant generals always command the right of the principal attack, and order what they judge proper for the advancement of the siege during the 24 hours they are in the trenches; except the attacks, which they are not to make without an order from the general in chief.

(6.) The LIEUTENANT GENERAL OF ARTILLERY ought to be a very good mathematician, and an able engineer; to know all the powers of artillery; to understand the attack and defence of fortified places, in all its different branches; how to dispose of the artillery in the day of battle to the best advantage; to conduct its march and retreat; as also to be well acquainted with all the numerous apparatus belonging to the train, and to the laboratory, &c.

(7.) LIEUTENANT GENERAL OF THE ORD-NANCE. See ORD-NANCE.

(8.) LIEUTENANT, LORD, OF IRELAND, before the Union, was properly a viceroy; and had all the state and grandeur of a king of England, except being served upon the knee. He had the power of making war and peace, of bestowing all the offices under the government, of dubbing knights, and of pardoning all crimes except high treason; he also called and prorogued the parliament, but no bill could pass without the royal assent. He was assisted in his government by a privy council; and on his leaving the kingdom, he appointed the lords of the regency, who governed in his absence.

(9.) LIEUTENANT OF ARTILLERY. Each company of artillery hath four; one first and 3 second lieutenants. The first lieutenant hath the same detail of duty with the captain; because in his absence he commands the company: he is to see that the soldiers are clean and neat; that their clothes, arms, and accoutrements, are in good and serviceable order; and to watch over every thing

thing else which may contribute to their health. He must attend to their being taught the exercise, see them punctually paid, their messes regularly kept, and visit them in the hospitals when sick. He must assist at all parades, &c. He ought to understand the doctrine of projectiles and the science of artillery, with the various effects of gun powder, however managed or directed; to enable him to construct and dispose his batteries to the best advantage; to plant his cannon, mortars, and howitzers, so as to produce the greatest annoyance to an enemy. He is to be well skilled in the attack and defence of fortified places; and to be conversant in arithmetic, mathematics, mechanics, &c.

(10.) LIEUTENANT OF ARTILLERY, SECOND, is the same as an ensign in an infantry regiment, being the youngest commissioned officer in the company, and must assist the first lieutenant in the detail of the company's duty. His other qualifications should be equal with those of the first lieutenant.

(11.) LIEUTENANT OF A SHIP OF WAR, the officer next in rank and power to the captain, in whose absence he is charged with the command of the ship, and the execution of whatever orders he may have received from the commander relating to the king's service. The lieutenant who commands the watch at sea, keeps a list of all the officers and men thereto belonging, in order to muster them when he judges it expedient, and reports to the captain the names of those who are absent from their duty. During the night-watch, he occasionally visits the lower decks, or sends thither a careful officer, to see that the proper centinels are at their duty, and that there is no disorder amongst the men; no tobacco smoked between decks, nor any fire or candles burning there, except the lights which are in lanthorns, under the care of a proper watch, on particular occasions. He is expected to be always upon deck in his watch, as well to give the necessary orders with regard to trimming the sails and superintending the navigation, as to prevent any noise or confusion; but he is never to change the ship's course without the captain's directions, unless to avoid an immediate danger. The lieutenant, in time of battle, must particularly take care that all the men are present at their quarters, where they have been previously stationed according to the regulations made by the captain. He should exhort them every where to perform their duty; and acquaint the captain at all times of the misbehaviour of any person in the ship, and of whatever else concerns the service. The youngest lieutenant in the ship, who is also styled *lieutenant at arms*, besides his common duty, is particularly ordered, by his instructions, to train the seamen to the use of small arms, and frequently to exercise and discipline them therein. His office, in time of battle, is chiefly to direct and attend them; and at all other times to have a due regard to the preservation of the small arms that they be not lost or embezzled, and that they be kept in good condition for service.

(12.) LIEUTENANT, REFORMED, he whose company or troop is broke or disbanded, but himself

continued in whole or half pay, still retains his right of seniority and rank in the army.

(13.) LIEUTENANTS, LORDS, OF COLOURS, are officers, who, upon any invasion or rebellion, have power to raise the militia, and to give commissions to colonels and other officers, to form them into regiments, troops, and companies. Under the lords lieutenants, are deputy lieutenants, who have the same power; these are chosen by the lords lieutenants, out of the gentlemen of each county, and presented to the king for his approbation.

\* LIEUTENANTSHIP. *n. s.* [from *lieutenant*]. The rank or office of lieutenant.

LIEUVILLER, a town of France, in the department of Oise, 7½ miles NNE. of Clermont.

(1.) \* LIFE. *n. s.* plural *lives*. [*visio*, to see]. 1. Union and co-operation of soul with body; animation, opposed to an *inanimate* existence.

On thy *life* no more.

—My *life* I never held but as a pawn.

To wage against thy foes. *Shak.*

She shews a body rather than a *life*.

A statue than a breather.

—Let the waters bring forth abundantly every living creature that hath *life*. *Gen. i. 20.*—The immortality of the same man consists in nothing but the participation of the same continued *life*, by the successive particles of matter, in successively united to the same organized body. 2. Present state; as distinct from other human existence.—

O *life*, thou nothing's younger brother,  
So like, that we may take the one for the other.

When I consider *life*, 'tis all a cheat,  
Yet fool'd by hope men favour the deceit.  
Live on, and think to-morrow will remain;  
To-morrow's falser than the former day;  
Lies more; and when it says we shall  
With some new joy, takes off what we  
Strange coz'nage! none would live again.

Yet all hope pleasure in what yet remains,  
And from the dregs of *life* think to remain;  
What the first sprightly running could  
I'm tir'd of waiting for this chemick gain,  
Which fools us young, and beggars grows  
old.

How'er 'tis well that while mankind  
Through *life*'s perverse meanders errs  
He can imagin'd pleasures find,  
To combat against real cares.

So peaceful shalt thou end thy bliss,  
And steal thyself from *life* by slow degrees.  
3. Enjoyment, or possession of existence; as opposed to *death*.—

Then avarice 'gan thro' his veins to  
His greedy flames, and kindle *life*'s  
fire. *Fa.*

Their complot is to have my *life*.  
Nor love thy *life*, nor hate; but what  
Live well, how long or short permit them.

—He entreated me not to take his *life*,  
a sum of money. *Broome on the Odyssey*.  
the supposed vehicle of life.—

ushing entrails smok'd upon the ground,  
warm *life* came inuing thro' the wound.

*Pope.*

It; manner of living with respect to vir-

—  
with perhaps in some nice tenets might  
og, his *life* I'm sure was in the right.

*Cowley.*

ry and Edward, brightest sons of fame,  
tuous Alfred, a more sacred name;  
*life* of glorious toils enur'd,  
heir long glories with a sigh.

*Pope.*

th my family to lead good *lives*. *Mrs*  
5. Condition; manner of living with re-  
ppiness and misery.—

was the *life*: the frugal Sabines led;  
us and his brother god were bred. *Dryd.*  
ance of our present state: as, half *life*  
in study.—Some have not any clear i-  
ir *lives*. *Locke.*—

rd and fierce the tyger still remains,  
his *life*: with biting on his chains. *Prior.*  
ministration of this bank is for *life*, and  
e hands of the chief citizens. *Addison.*  
ng form: opposed to *copies*.—That is  
it of beauty which a picture cannot ex-  
nor the first sight of the *life*. *Bacon.*—

fit eminent persons of great name a-  
he may tell how the *life* agreeth with  
*Bacon*.—He that would be a master,  
by the *life* as well as copy from origi-  
oin theory and experience together.  
Exact resemblance: with to before it.

no character of any person was ever  
n to the *life* than this. *Denham.*—  
y figure to the *life* express'd  
head's pow'r. *Dryden.*

r in order painted on the wall  
; that fame around the world had blown,  
: *life*, and every leader known. *Dryd.*  
l state of man.—

Studious they appear  
hat polish *life*; inventors rare!  
ul of their Maker. *Milton.*

All that cheers or softens *life*,  
er sister, daughter, friend, and wife.

*Pope.*

on occurrences; human affairs; the  
ings.—This I know, not only by read-  
es in my study, but also by experience  
ad in the world. *Afham.*—

To know

ich before us lies in daily *life*,  
ime wisdom. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

person.—  
should I play the Roman fool, and die  
wn sword? whilst I see *lives* the gashes  
r upon them. *Shak. Macbeth.*  
ive of a life past.—

Plutarch, that writes his *life*,  
that Cato dearly lov'd his wife. *Pope.*  
briskness; vivacity; resolution.—The  
t thitherward with a new *life* of resolu-  
r.—They have no notion of *life* and fire  
d in words. *Felton.*—

ith half the fire and *life*,  
ich he kiss'd Amphytrion's wife. *Prior.*

15. Animal, animated existence; animal being.—  
Full nature swarms with *life*. *Tbomson.*

16. System of animal nature.—

Lives through all *life*.

*Pope.*

17. *Life* is also used of vegetables, and whatever  
grows and decays.

(2.) LIFE, in the new system of medicine, is de-  
fined to be a *forced state*. See BRUNONIAN SYS-  
TEM, § 4. The author of that doctrine, after de-  
fining and illustrating EXCITABILITY, the EXCIT-  
ING POWERS, and their effects in producing EX-  
CITEMENT, &c. concludes thus, "From all that  
has hitherto been said, it is certain, that LIFE is  
not a *natural*, but a *forced state*; that the tenden-  
cy of animals every moment is to dissolution; that  
they are kept from it, not by any powers in them-  
selves, but by foreign powers, and even by these  
with difficulty, and only for a time; and then,  
from the necessity of their fate, they yield to  
death." (*Brown's Elem. of Med.* § lxxii.) In his  
lectures he sometimes enforced this doctrine, by  
quoting the original sentence pronounced on our  
common progenitor. (See *G. n.* iii. 19.) The cele-  
brated Dr Harvey, and the late J. Hunter, were  
of opinion, that the principle of animal life is in  
the blood. See ANATOMY, *Index*; and BLOOD,  
§ 12, 13.

(3.) LIFE ANNUITIES. See ANNUITIES, and  
SURVIVORSHIP.

(4.) LIFE, PROLONGATION OF. Lord Bacon,  
observes, that the prolongation of life is to be ex-  
pected, rather from stated diets, than either from  
any ordinary regimen, or any extraordinary medi-  
cines. See LONGEVITY.

(5.) LIFE, TREE OF. See THUJA.

(6.) LIFE, VEGETABLE. See PLANTS.

(7.) LIFE, WOOD OF. See GUAIAACUM, N° II.

\* LIFE BLOOD. *n. f.* [*life and blood*.] The blood  
necessary to life; the vital blood.—

This sickness doth infect

The very *lifeblood* of our enterprise. *Shak.*

How could't thou drain the *lifeblood* of the  
child? *Shak.*

His forehead struck the ground,  
*Lifeblood* and life rush'd mingled through the  
wound. *Dryden.*

—They loved with that calm and noble value  
which dwells in the heart, with a warmth like  
that of *lifeblood*. *Spectator.*—

Money, the *lifeblood* of the nation,

Corrupts and stagnates in the veins,

Unless a proper circulation,

Its motion and its heat maintains. *Swift.*

(1.) \* LIFE-EVERLASTING. An herb. *Ainsw.*

(2.) LIFE-EVERLASTING. See GNAPHALIUM.

\* LIFE GIVING. *n. f.* [*life and giving*.] Having  
the power to give life.—

His own heat,

Kindled at first from heav'n's *life-giving* fire.

*Spenser.*

He sat devising death

To them who liv'd; nor on the virtue thought  
Of that *life-giving* plant. *Milton.*

\* LIFE GUARD. *n. f.* [*life and guard*.] The guard  
of a King's person.

\* LIFELESSLY. *adv.* [from *lifeless*.] Without  
vigour; frigidly; jejunctly.

\* LIFELESS. *adj.* [from *life*.] 1. Dead; deprived of life.—

I who the triumph of to-day,  
May of to-morrow's pomp one part appear,  
Ghastly with wounds, and *lifeless* on the bier.  
*Prior.*

2. Unanimated; void of life.—

Was I to have never parted from thy side?  
As good have grown there still a *lifeless* rib! *Milt.*  
Thus began

Outrage from *lifeless* things. *Milton.*  
—If this power were suspended, they would become a *lifeless*, unactive heap of matter. *Chryse.*  
And empty words she gave, and sounding strain,

But senseless, *lifeless*! idol void and vain. *Pope.*

3. Wanting power, force, or spirit.—

Hopeless and helpless doth Ægeon wend,  
But to procrastinate his *lifeless* end. *Shak.*  
A *lifeless* king, a royal shade I lay. *Prior.*

4. Wanting or deprived of physical energy.—

The other victor-flame a moment stood,  
Then fell, and *lifeless* left th' extinguish'd wood.  
*Dryden.*

\* LIFE LIKE. *n. f.* [*life* and *like*.] Like a living person.—

Minerva, *life-like*, on embodied air  
Impres'd the form of Iphigæa the fair. *Pope.*

LIFE-RENT, in Scots law. When the use and enjoyment of a subject is given to a person during his life, it is said to belong to him in life-rent.

\* LIFE STRING. *n. f.* [*life* and *string*.] Nerve; strings imagined to convey life.—

These lines are the veins, the arteries,  
The undecaying *lifestrings* of those hearts  
That still shall pant. *Daniel.*

\* LIFETIME. *n. f.* [*life* and *time*.] Continuance or duration of life.—Jordan talked prose all his *life-time*, without knowing what it was. *Addison.*

\* LIFEWEARY. *adj.* [*life* and *wear*.] Wretched; tired of living.—

Let me have  
A dram of poison, such soon speeding geer,  
As will disperse itself through all the veins,  
That the *life-weary* taker may fall dead. *Shak.*

(1.) LIFF, a parish of Scotland, in Forfar-shire, united with that of BERVIE, in 1758, and with those of INVERGOWRIE and LOGIE, in the 17th century. The extent of the whole does not exceed 3 miles square, but the form is very irregular. The surface is agreeable, as it mostly rises with an easy ascent from the Tay, and has the hill of Balgay on the SE. The air is pure, the soil various, but fertile. The population, in 1792, was 1790; increase, 479 since 1755, owing to fees granted by Lord Duncau. The number of horses was 180; of cows 382. Coarse linens are the chief manufacture; 4,860 webs have been made in one year; worth L. 12,520. There are a Druidical temple, a Roman camp, and some other antiquities in these parishes.

(2.) LIFF, a village in the above parish, a mile from Bervie, and 4 NW. of Dundee.

LIFFEY. See ANNA-LIFFEY. This river, after passing through the Leinster aqueduct, under the grand canal, is precipitated from the rocks of *Leixlip*, forming a beautiful cataract; and thence

gliding through the county and city falls into Dublin Bay.

LIFFORD, a borough of Ireland, in seated on the Foyle, 11 miles SSW. of according to Mr Cruttwell; but according to Brookes and J. Walker, 24 miles NE. gal. Lon. 5. 45. W. Lat. 54. 47. N.

LIFFRE, a town of France, in the d and Vilaine, 9 miles NE. of Rennes, and of St Aubin.

\* LIFT. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. The act of lifting.—In the *lift* of the feet, when eth up the hill, the weight of the body rests most upon the knees. *Bacon.*—In races the large stride, or high *lift*, that makes *Bacon.* 2. The act of lifting.—The goat fox a *lift*, and out he springs. *L'Esstran* fort; struggle, *Dead lift* is an effort to with the whole force cannot be moved relatively any state of impotence and inaction.

Myself and Trulla made a shift  
To help him out at a *dead lift*.  
You freely must own, you were at

4. *Lift*, in Scotland, denotes a load or of any thing; as also, if one be disguised in liquor, they say, *He has got a great lift* (Scottish.) The sky: for in a starry night *How clear the lift is!* 6. *Lifts* of a sail to raise or lower them at pleasure.

(1.) \* To LIFT. *v. a.* [*lyfta*, Swedish Danish. I *lifted*, or *lift*; I have *lifted* 1. To raise from the ground; to heave up; to hold on high.—

Filial ingratitude?  
Is it not as this mouth should tear th  
For *lifting* food to't?

*Lift* up your countenance, as 'twere  
Of celebration of that nuptial.

Propp'd by the spring, it *lifts* aloft

2. To bear; to support. Not in use.—  
So down he fell, that th' earth him up  
Did groan, as feeble so great load to  
*F*

3. To rob; to plunder. Whence the *lifter*.—

So weary bees in little cells repose,  
But if night robbers *lift* the well-stor'd  
An humming thro' their waxen cit

4. To exalt; to elevate mentally.—My *lift* up in the ways of the Lord. 1 *Cbron*  
Of Orpheus now no more let poet  
To bright Cæcilia greater pow'r is giv'  
His numbers rais'd a shade from heav'n  
Here *lifts* the soul to heav'n.

5. To raise in fortune.—The eye of the *ed* up his head from misery. *Ecclus.* 6  
in estimation.—Neither can it be thought  
some lessons are chosen out of the A  
that we do offer disgrace to the word c  
*lift* up the writings of men above it. 1  
To exalt in dignity.—

See to what a godlike height  
The Roman virtues *lift* up mortal man

8. To elevate; to swell, as with pride.—

with pride. *Tim.* iii. 6.—Our successes have been great, and our hearts have been too much *lifted* up by them. *Atterbury.* 9. *Up* is sometimes emphatically added to *lift*.—He *lift up* his spear against *Ac*, whom he slew at one time. 2 *Sam.* xxiii. 8.—Arise, *lift up* the lad, and hold him in thine hand. *Genes.*

(1.) \* *To LIFT.* v. n. To strive to raise by strength.—

Pinch cattle of pasture while summer doth last,  
And *lift* at their tails ere a winter be past. *Tuff.*  
—The mind, by being engaged in a task beyond its strength, like the body strained by *lifting* at a weight too heavy, has often its force broken. *Lak.*

\* *LIFTER.* n. f. [from *lift*.] One that lifts.—  
Thou, O Lord, art my glory, and the *lifter* up of mine head. *Pf.* iii. 3.

*LIFTON*, a small town of Devonshire, 4 miles E. of Launceston, in Cornwall.

\* *To LIG.* v. n. [*leggen*, Dutch.] To lie.—

Thou kenst the great care  
I have of thy health and thy welfare,  
Which many wild beasts *liggen* in wait,  
For to entrap in thy tender state. *Spenser.*

\* *LIGAMENT.* n. f. [*ligamentum*, from *ligo*, Latin; *ligament*, French.] 1. *Ligament* is a white and solid body, softer than a cartilage, but harder than a membrane; they have no conspicuous cavities, neither have they any sense, lest they should suffer upon the motion of the joint: their chief use is to fasten the bones, which are articulated together for motion, lest they should be dislocated with exercise. *Quincy.*—

Be all their *ligament* at once unbound,  
And their disjointed bones to powder ground.

*Sandys.*  
—The *incus* is one way joined to the malleus, the other end being a process is fixed with a *ligament* to the stapes. *Holder.* 2. [In popular or poetical language.] Any thing which connects the parts of the body.—

Though our *ligaments* betimes grow weak,  
We must not force them till themselves they break. *Denham.*

3. Bond; chain; entanglement.—Men sometimes, upon the hour of departure, do speak and reason above themselves; for then the soul, beginning to be freed from the *ligaments* of the body, reasons for herself, and discourses in a strain above morality. *Spectator.*

(2.) *LIGAMENT*, in its general sense, denotes a by thing that ties or binds one part to another.

(3.) *LIGAMENT.* See ANATOMY, *Index.*

\* *LIGAMENTAL.* } n. f. [from *ligament*.]  
\* *LIGAMENTOUS.* } Composing a ligament.

—The *urachus* or *ligamental* passage is derived from the bottom of the bladder, whereby it discharges the watery and urinary part of its aliment. *Brown.*—The clavicle is inserted into the first bone of the sternon, and bound in by a strong *ligamentous* membrane. *Wise*man.

*LIGARIUS*, Quintus, a Roman proconsul in Africa, 49 B. C. Taking part with Pompey, he was forbid by Julius Cæsar to return to Rome: to obtain his pardon, Cicero made that admired oration in his defence, which has immortalized the

memory of the client with that of his celebrated advocate.

\* *LIGATION.* n. f. [*ligatio*, Latin.] 1. The act of binding. 2. The state of being bound.—The slumber of the body seems to be but the waking of the soul: it is the *ligation* of sense, but the liberty of reason. *Addison.*

(1.) \* *LIGATURE.* n. f. [*ligature*, French; *ligatura*, Latin.] 1. Any thing tied round another; bandage.—He deludeth us also by philters, *ligatures*, charms, and many superstitious ways in the cure of diseases. *Brown.*—If you slit the artery, and thrust into it a pipe, and cast a strait *ligature* upon that part of the artery; notwithstanding the blood hath free passage through the pipe, yet will not the artery beat below the *ligature*; but do but take off the *ligature*, it will beat immediately. *Ray.*—The many *ligatures* of our English dress check the circulation of the blood. *Spectator.*—I found my arms and legs very strongly fastened on each side to the ground; I likewise felt several slender *ligatures* across my body, from my armpits to my thighs. *Swift.* 2. The act of binding.—The fatal noose performed its office, and with most strict *ligature* squeezed the blood into his face. *Arbut.*—Any stoppage of the circulation will produce a dropsy, as by strong *ligature* or compression. *Arbut.* 3. The state of being bound. Not very proper.—Sand and gravel grounds easily admit of heat and moisture, for which they are not much the better, because they let it pass too soon, and contract no *ligature*. *Mortimer.*

(2.) *LIGATURE*, in surgery, is a cord, band, or string; or the binding any part of the body with a cord, band, fillet, &c. whether of leather, linen, or any other matter. *Ligatures* are used to extend or replace bones that are broken or dislocated; to tie the patients down in lithotomy and amputations; to tie upon the veins in phlebotomy, on the arteries in amputations, or in large wounds; to secure the splints that are applied to fractures; to tie up the processes of the peritoneum with the spermatic vessels in castration; and, lastly, in taking off warts or other excrescences by *ligature*.

(3.) *LIGATURE* is also used for a state of impotency, in respect to venery, pretended to be caused by some charm. *Kœmpfer* tells of a kind of *ligature* or knotting, used among the people of Massacar, Java, Malaja, Siam, &c. whereby a man binds up a woman, and a woman a man, so as to put it out of their power to have to do with any other person. *M. Marshall* also mentions a ridiculous form of *ligature*, which he received from a bramin at Indostan for this superstitious purpose. See *Pbil. Transf.* N° 268.

(4.) *LIGATURE*, in the Italian music, signifies a binding together of notes. Hence syncopes are often called *ligatures*, because they are made by the *ligature* of many notes. There is another sort of *ligatures* for breves, when there are many of these on different lines, or on different spaces, to be sung to one syllable.

(5.) *LIGATURES*, among printers, are types consisting of two letters or characters joined together; as *ß*, *Œ*, *ff*, *ſſ*, *ſſ*. The old editions of Greek authors are extremely full of *ligatures*; those

those

Some of the most beautiful  
lately printed without  
any ligatures at all; there was a design to ex-  
plode them quite out of printing. Had this suc-  
ceeded, the finest ancient editions would in time  
have grown useless; and the reading of old MSS.  
would have been rendered almost impracticable to  
the learned themselves.

(1.) **LIGER**, Lewis, a French author, born at  
Auxerre in 1658. He published some tracts on  
gardening; a Paris Guide, &c. He died in 1717.

(2.) **LIGER**, or } a large river of ancient Gaul,  
**LIGERIS**, } now called the **LOIRE**.

**LIGH**, a village in Wilts, near Westbury.

(1.) \* **LIGHT**. *adj.* [*lcobt*, Sax.] 1. Not tend-  
ing to the center with great force; not heavy.—

Hot and cold were in one body fixt,  
And soft with hard, and *light* with heavy mixt.

*Dryden.*

—These weights did not exert their natural gra-  
vity till they were laid in the golden balance, in-  
fomuch that I could not guess which was *light* or  
heavy whilst I held them in my hand. *Addison.*

2. Not burdensome; easy to be worn, or carried,  
or lifted; not onerous.—

Horse, oxen, plough, tumbrel, cart, waggon,  
and wain,

The *lighter* and stronger the greater thy gainc.

*Tupper.*

It will be *light*, that you may bear it. *Shak.*  
—A king that would not feel his crown too hea-  
vy, must wear it every day; but if he think it too  
*light* he knoweth not of what metal it is made.  
*Bacon.* 3. Not afflictive; easy to be endured.—  
Every *light* and common thing incident into any  
part of man's life. *Hooker.*

*Light* suff'rings give us leisure to complain;  
We groan, but cannot speak, in greater pain.

*Dryden.*

4. Easy to be performed; not difficult.—  
Well pleas'd were all his friends, the task was  
*light*;

The father, mother, daughter, they invite. *Dryd.*

5. Easy to be acted on by any power.—  
Apples of a ripe flavour, fresh and fair,  
Mellow'd by winter from their cruder juice,  
*Light* of digestion now, and fit for use. *Dryden.*

6. Not heavily armed.—Paulus Bachitius, with a  
company of *light* horsemen, lay close in ambush,  
in a convenient place for that purpose. *Knolles.*

7. Active; nimble.—  
He so *light* was at legerdemain,  
That what he touch'd came not to *light* again.

*Spenser.*

—Asahel was as *light* of foot as a wild roe. 2 *Sam.*  
ii. 18.—

There Stamford came, for his honour was lame  
Of the gout three months together;

But it prov'd, when they fought, but a running  
gout,

For his heels were *lighter* than ever. *Denham.*

*Light* bounding from the earth at oncè they  
rise,

Their feet half viewless quiver in the skies. *Pope.*

8. Unencumber'd; unembarrassed; clear of im-  
pediments.—Unmarried men are best masters, but  
not best subjects; for they are *light* to run away.

*Bacon.* 9. Slight; not great.—A *light* erro-  
r manner of making the following trials was  
to render some of them unsuccessful. *Boyl.*  
Not dense; not gross.—Our soul loathe  
*light* bread. *Numb.* xxi. 5.—

*Light* fumes are merry, grosser fumes a  
Both are the reasonable soul run mad.

11. Easy to admit any influence; unstead-  
fettled; loose.—False of heart, *light* of ear.

These *light* vain persons still are drunk a  
With fancifings, and pleasures of their

—They are *light* of belief, great listener  
news. *Howell.*—There is no greater argu-  
a *light* and inconsiderate person, than pri-  
to scoff at religion. *Tillotson.* 12. Gay;  
wanting dignity or solidity; trifling.—Sene-  
not be too heavy, nor Plautus too *light.* S.

Forgive

If fiction's *light* I mix with truth divine.

13. Not chaste; not regular in conduct.—

Let me not be *light*,

For a *light* wife doth make a heavy husband.

14. [From *light*. *n. f.*] Bright; clear.—  
as the morning was *light*, the men were sent  
*Gen.* xiv. 3.—The horses ran up and down  
their tails and mains on a *light* fire. *Knolles.*

Not dark; tending to whiteness.—In painting  
*light* and a white colour are but one and the  
thing: no colour more resembles the a  
white, and by consequence no colour w  
*lighter.* *Dryden.*—Two cylindrical bodies w  
mular fulci, found with sharks' teeth, and  
shells, in a *light* coloured clay. *Woodward.*

(II.) \* **LIGHT**. *adv.* [for *lightly*, by col-  
corruption.] Lightly; cheaply.—Shall  
*light* by that custom of reading, from who

precious a benefit hath grown? *Hooker.*

(III. 1.) \* **LIGHT**. *n. f.* [*lhoght*, Saxo  
That material medium of sight; that b  
which we see; luminous matter.—*Light*  
pagated from luminous bodies in time, and  
about seven or eight minutes of an hour in  
from the sun to the earth. *Newton.* 2. 5  
the elements, in which things become visibl  
posed to *darkness*.—God called the *light* d  
the darkness he called night. *Genesis.*

So alike thou driv'st away

*Light* and darkness, night, and day.

3. Power of perceiving external objects  
eye: opposed to *blindness*.—My strength  
me; as for the *light* of mine eyes, it also  
from me. *Psalms.*

If it be true that *light* is in the soul,

She all in every part, why was the *light*

To such a slender ball as th' eye confin'

So obvious and so easy to be quench'd,

And not as feeling through all parts dis-

That she might look at will through ev'

4. Day.—The murderer rising with the *light*  
the poor. *Job.*

Ere the third dawning *light*

Return, the stars of morn shall see him

Out of his grave, fresh as the dawning

Infants that never saw *light*. *Job*.—  
roll the years, and rise the expected  
n!  
to *light*, auspicious babe be born!

*Pope*.  
Illumination.—Seven lamps shall give  
b. 7. Illumination of mind; instructive  
ledge.—Of those things which are for  
f all the parts of our life needful, and  
ble to be discerned by the *light* of na-  
are there not many which few men's  
pacity hath been able to find out?  
*light* may be taken from the experiment  
te-tooth ring, how that those things  
age the strife of the spirits, do help  
strary to the intention desired. *Bacon*.  
place within them as a guide  
are conscience, whom if they will hear  
er *light* well us'd they shall attain.

*Milton*.  
I Ariosto in Italian, and the very first  
gave me *light* to all I could desire.  
f internal *light*, or any proposition  
take for inspired, be conformable to  
les of reason, or to the word of God,  
attested revelation, reason warrants it.  
ie ordinary words of language, and our  
se of them, would have given us *light*  
ature of our ideas, if considered with  
*Locke*.—The books of Varro concern-  
tion are lost, which no doubt would  
us great *light* in those matters. *Ar*.

The part of a picture which is drawn  
t colours, or in which the light is sup-  
fall.—Never admit two equal *lights* in  
icture; but the greater *light* must strike  
those places of the picture where the  
figures are; diminishing as it comes  
borders. *Dryden*. 9. Reach of know-  
ntal view.—*Light*, and understanding,  
m, like the wisdom of the gods, was  
im. *Dan*. v. 11.—We saw as it were  
ls, which did put us in some hope of  
ring how that part of the South Sea  
unknown, and might have islands or  
that hitherto were not come to *light*.  
hey have brought to *light* not a few  
experiments. *Bacon*. 10. Point of view;  
direction in which the light falls.—  
consideration of a thing wears off the  
of it; and shews it in its several *lights*,  
is ways of appearance, to the view of  
*South*.—It is impossible for a man of the  
rts to consider any thing in its whole  
l in all its variety of *lights*. *Spectator*.—  
who has not learned the art of ranging  
ts, and setting them in proper *lights*,  
rnsel in confusion. *Spectator*. 11. Pub-  
ublic notice.—  
m I ask'd what next shall see the *light*;  
! was I born for nothing but to write?

*Pope*.  
Public.—  
epistles bring vice to *light*,  
a king might read, a bishop write. *Pope*.  
ation.—I have endeavoured, through-  
discourse, that every former part might  
h unto all that follow, and every lat-

ter bring some *light* unto all before. *Hooker*.—  
One part of the sacred text could not fail to give  
*light* unto another. *Locke*. 14. Any thing that  
gives light; a pharos; a taper; any luminous bo-  
dy.—

That *light* you see is burning in my hall;  
How far that little candle throws his beams,  
So shines a good deed in a naughty world.

*Shak*.  
—Then he called for a *light*, and sprang in, and  
fell down before Paul. *Acts*. xvi. 29.—I have set  
thee to be a *light* of the Gentiles, for salvation un-  
to the ends of the earth. *Acts*. xiii. 47.—

Let them be for *lights*, as I ordain  
Their office in the firmament of heav'n,  
To give light on the earth. *Milton*.  
—I put as great difference between our new *lights*  
and ancient truths, as between the sun and a me-  
teor. *Glanvill*.—

Several *lights* will not be seen,  
If there be nothing else between;  
Men doubt because they stand so thick i' th'  
sky,

If those be stars that paint the galaxy. *Cowley*.  
—I will make some offers at their safety, by fix-  
ing some marks like *lights* upon a coast, by which  
the ships may avoid at least known rocks. *Temple*.

The sun, and moon, and ev'ry stary *light*,  
Eclips'd to him, and lost in everlasting night.

*Prior*.  
(2.) LIGHT, (§ 1, def. 1.) See ASTRONOMY,  
CHEMISTRY, and ELECTRICITY, *Indexes*; FIRE,  
HEAT, OPTICS, &c.

(3.) LIGHT, ANCIENT OPINIONS RESPECTING.  
The nature of light hath been a subject of specu-  
lation from the earliest ages of philosophy. Some  
of the most ancient philosophers doubted whether  
objects became visible by means of any thing pro-  
ceeding from them, or from the eye of the spec-  
tator. The fallacy of this notion must soon have  
become apparent, because, in that case, men ought  
to see as well in the night as in the day. The o-  
pinion was therefore qualified by Empedocles and  
Plato; who maintained, that vision was occasion-  
ed by particles continually flying off from the sur-  
faces of bodies, which met with others proceed-  
ing from the eye; but Pythagoras ascribed it tole-  
ly to the particles proceeding from the external  
objects and entering the pupil of the eye.

(4.) LIGHT, DIFFERENT MODERN THEORIES  
OF. Among the moderns there have been two  
celebrated opinions, viz. the Cartesian and New-  
tonian. According to the former, light is an in-  
visible fluid present at all times and in all places,  
but which requires to be set in motion by an ig-  
nited or otherwise properly qualified body in or-  
der to make objects visible to us. "HUYGENS,"  
(says Dr Thomas Thomson of Edinburgh) "con-  
sidered it as subtile fluid filling a space, and ren-  
dering bodies visible by the undulations into which  
it is thrown. According to his theory, when the  
sun rises it agitates this fluid, the undulations gra-  
dually extend themselves, and at last striking a-  
gainst our eye we see the sun. This opinion was  
adopted also by EULER, who exhausted the whole  
of his consummate mathematical skill in its de-  
fence." (*Syst. of Chem.* 1802, vol. i. p. 240.) The  
Newtonians maintain, that light is not a fluid par-

it, but consists of a vast number of exceedingly small particles shaken off in all directions from the luminous body with inconceivable velocity by a repulsive power; and which most probably never return again to the body from which they were emitted. These particles are also said to be emitted in right lines by the body from which they proceed: and this rectilinear direction they preserve until they are turned out of their original path by the attraction of some other body near which they pass, and which is called INFLECTION; by passing through a medium of different density, which is called REFRACTION, or by being thrown obliquely or directly forward by some body which opposes their passage, and which is called REFLECTION; or, lastly, till they are totally stopped by the substance of any body into which they penetrate, and which is called their EXTINCTION. (See OPTICS.) A succession of these particles following one another in an exactly straight line is called a *ray of light*; and this ray, in whatever manner it hath its direction changed, whether by refraction, reflection, or inflection, always preserves its rectilinear course; neither is it possible by any art whatever to make it pass on in the segment of a circle, ellipsis, or other curve.—From some observations on the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, and also on the ABERRATION of the fixed stars, it appears that the particles of light move at the rate of little less than 200,000 miles in a second. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*. To this doctrine concerning the nature of light several objections have been made; the most considerable of which is, That in this case, as rays of light are continually passing in different directions from every visible point, they must necessarily interfere with and destroy each other in such a manner as entirely to confound all distinct perception of objects, if not to destroy the sense of seeing altogether; not to mention the continual waste of substance which a constant emission of particles must occasion in the luminous body, and which since the creation ought to have greatly diminished the sun and stars, as well as increased the bulk of the earth and planets by the vast quantity of particles of light absorbed by them in such a long period of time. In answer to this, Mr Melville gives some ingenious illustrations concerning the extreme subtilty of light, or the smallness of the particles of which it consists, and of which few persons, even of those who admit the hypothesis, have any idea. He observes, that there is probably no physical point in the visible horizon that does not send rays to every other point, unless where opaque bodies interpose. Light, in its passage from one system to another, often passes through torrents of light issuing from other suns and systems, without ever interfering or being diverted in its course, either by it, or by the particles of that elastic medium which some phenomena give us reason to suppose are diffused through all the mundane space. To account for this fact and others similar to it, he concludes, that the particles of which light consists must be incomparably rare, even when they are the most dense; that is, that the semidiameters of the two nearest particles, in the same or in different beams, soon after their emission, are incomparably less than their distance from one ano-

ther. This difficulty concerning the non-interference of the particles of light is not solved by supposing with Mr Boscovich and others, that each particle is endued with an insuperable impulsive force; because, in that case, their spheres of impulsion would even be more liable to interfere and they would on that account be more likely to disturb one another. The difficulty, according to Mr Canton, will nearly vanish, if a very small portion of time be allowed between the emission of every particle and the next that follows in the same direction. Suppose, for instance, that one lucid point of the sun's surface emits 150 particles in a second, which are more than sufficient to give continual light to the eye without the least appearance of intermission; yet still the particles of which it consists, will on account of their great velocity be more than 1000 miles behind each other, and thereby leave room enough for others to pass in all directions.

(5.) LIGHT, EXPERIMENTS TO DETERMINE THE MOMENTUM OF. To determine whether light consists of particles emitted from the luminous body, or only in the vibrations of a subtle fluid, it has been attempted to find out its momentum, or the force with which it moves. The first who set about this matter with any tolerable pretensions to accuracy was M. Mairan. Haffoeker and Homberg, had indeed pretended, that in certain cases this momentum was very perceptible; but M. Mairan proved, that the effects mentioned by them were owing to currents of heated air produced by the burning-glasses used in their experiments, or to some other cause overlooked by these philosophers. To decide the matter therefore, he began with trying the effect of rays collected by lenses of 4 and 6 inches diameter, and thrown upon the needle of a compass, but the result was nothing more than some tremulous motion from whence he could draw no conclusion. After this, he and Mr du Fay constructed a kind of mill of copper, which moved with an exceeding slight impulse; but though they threw upon it the focus of a lens of 7 or 8 inches diameter, they were still unable to draw any conclusions from the result. M. Mairan afterwards procured a horizontal wheel of iron three inches in diameter, having six radii, at the extremity of each of which was a small wing fixed obliquely. The axis of the wheel, which was also of iron, was suspended by a magnet. The wheel and the axis together did not weigh more than 30 grains, but though a motion was given to this wheel when the focus of the burning glass was thrown upon the extremities of the radii, yet it was so irregular, that he could not but conclude that it was occasioned by the motion of the heated air. He then intended to have made his experiment *in vacuo*, but he concluded that it was unnecessary: For, besides the difficulty of making a vacuum, he was persuaded that there was in our atmosphere a thinner medium which freely penetrates even glass itself, the existence of which he imagined he had fully proved in his treatise on the aurora borealis. See AURORA BOREALIS, &c. Mr Michell some years ago endeavoured to ascertain the momentum of light in a manner still more accurate. The instrument he made use of con-



of a very thin plate of copper, a little more than an inch square, which was fastened to one end of a slender harpsichord wire about ten inches long.

To the middle of this was fixed an agate needle as is commonly used for small mariner's compasses, after the manner of which it was intended to turn; and at the other end of the wire was fixed middling sized shot corn, as a counterpoise to the copperplate. The instrument had also fixed in the middle, at right angles to the length of the wire, and in an horizontal direction, a bit of a very slender sewing needle, about half an inch or perhaps half an inch long, which was magnetical. In this state the whole instrument weighed about 10 grains. It was placed very sharp-pointed needle, on which the agate needle turned extremely freely; and to prevent it from being disturbed by any motion of the air, it was enclosed in a box, the lid and front of which were of glass. This box was about 12 inches long and 7 inches deep, and about as much in diameter as the needle standing upright in the middle.

At the time of making the experiment, the box was placed, that a line drawn from the sun at right angles to the length of it; and the instrument was brought to range in the same direction with the box, by means of the magnetical needle above mentioned, and a magnet produced on the outside, which would retain the needle with extremely little force, in any situation. The rays of the sun were now thrown upon the copperplate from a concave mirror of about 20 feet diameter, which, passing through the glass of the box, were collected into the focus of the mirror upon the plate. In consequence of this the plate began to move, and in a short time of about an inch in a second of time, and moved through a space of about two inches and a half, when it struck against the back of the box. The mirror being removed, the instrument returned to its former situation by means of the needle and magnet; and the rays of the sun being then again thrown upon it, it again moved, and struck against the back of the box before; and this was repeated 3 or 4 times with the same success. The instrument was then placed the contrary way in the box to that in which it had been placed before, so that the end of the copperplate was affixed, and which in the former experiment, towards the end, now lay towards the left; and the sun being again thrown upon it, it began to move with a slow motion, and struck against the back of the box as before; and this was repeated once or twice with the same success. At this time the copperplate was so much altered in its form, by the extreme heat which it was in each experiment, and which brought it into a state of fusion, that it became vehement, and the more so as it had been supported by the middle, half of it lying half below the wire to which it was

By these means it now varied so much in its vertical position, that it began to act in a manner as the sail of a windmill, being by the stream of heated air which moved towards it, with a force sufficient to drive it in any direction to the impulse of the rays of light. *See* KILL, PART I.

we impute (says Dr Priestley) the motion produced in the above experiment to the impulse of the rays of light, and suppose that the instrument weighed ten grains, and acquired a velocity of one inch in a second, we shall find that the quantity of matter contained in the rays falling upon the instrument in that time amounted to no more than one 1200 millionth part of a grain, the velocity of light exceeding the velocity of one inch in a second in the proportion of about 1,200,000,000 to 1. The light was collected from a surface of about three square feet, which reflecting only about half what falls upon it, the quantity of matter contained in the rays of the sun incident upon a square foot and an half of surface in one second of time, ought to be no more than the twelve-hundred-millionth part of a grain, or, upon one square foot only, the 1800 millionth part of a grain. But the density of the rays of light at the surface of the sun is greater than at the earth in the proportion of 45,000 to 1; there ought, therefore, to issue from one square foot of the sun's surface in one second of time, in order to supply the waste by light, one 40,000th part of a grain of matter; that is, a little more than two grains in a day, or about 4,752,000 grains, or 670 pounds avoirdupois nearly, in 6000 years; a quantity which would have shortened the sun's semidiameter no more than about ten feet, if it was formed of the density of water only." The Newtonians, besides the answer just given to the most formidable objections of their opponents, have endeavoured to prove the impossibility of light being a vibration in any fluid. Sir Isaac in his *Principia*, demonstrates, that no rectilinear motion can be propagated among the particles of a fluid unless these particles lie in right lines; and that all motion propagated through a fluid diverges from a rectilinear progress into the unremoved spaces. Hence he concludes, "a pressure on a fluid medium (i. e. a motion propagated by such a medium beyond any obstacle, which impedes any part of its motion), cannot be propagated in right lines, but will be always infecting and diffusing itself every way, to the quietest medium beyond that obstacle. The power of gravity tends downwards; but the pressure of water rising from it tends every way with an equal force, and is propagated with equal ease, and equal strength, in curves, as in straight lines. Waves, on the surface of the water, gliding by the extremes of any very large obstacle, infect and dilate themselves, still diffusing gradually, into the quietest water beyond that obstacle. The waves, pulses, or vibrations of the air, which in sound consists, are manifestly infected, though not so considerably as the waves of water; and sounds are propagated with equal ease, though crooked tubes and through straight lines; but light was never known to move in any curve, nor to infect itself *ad unbram*." To this Mr Rowning adds another proof: "The Cartesian notion of light (says he), was not that it is propagated from luminous bodies by the emission of small particles, but that it was communicated to the organ of sight by their pressure upon the *materia subtilis*, with which they supposed the universe to be full. But according to this hypothesis, it could never be

use, when a fluid sustains any pressure, fills all the space it takes up, absolutely, leaving any pores, which is the case of the *ateria subtilis*, then that pressure must be communicated equally and instantly to every part. And therefore, whether the light is above or below the horizon, the pressure is equal, and consequently the light, would be the same. And farther, as the pressure would be the same, so would the light, which is contained in the receiver, as is collected from the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites." But whatever side we take of the nature of light, many, indeed almost all, circumstances concerning it, are incomprehensible, and beyond the reach of human understanding.

**LIGHT, EXPERIMENTS UPON THE PRODUCTION OF, BY INFLAMMATION.** In the *Philos. Trans.* for 1776, Dr Fordyce gives an account of experiments upon the light thus produced. He was made to determine, whether there is any light produced by the inflammation independent of ignition. Substances, he observed to be luminous in the dark when the temperature is between 6 and 700 degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer. If the substances be coloured, they first emit a red light; then a red mixed with yellow; and lastly, with a great degree of heat, a pure white. This whiteness, however, depends greatly upon the density of the substance, or the vapour at the end of flame urged by a w-pipe is not visibly luminous, though its heat is sufficiently great to give a white heat to the colour of the ignited matter, according to our author, has an effect upon the colour of the light emitted. Thus, during the calcination of zinc, the calx of which is white, a light is produced scarce inferior in beauty to that of the sun himself. A beautiful green is communicated by the green calx of copper to the flame of a fire into which it is thrown; and the yellow empyreumatic oil into which tallow or any common oil is converted in burning, communicates a part of its own colour to the flame, which very much alters the appearance of bodies seen by candle-light from what is by day-light. But this does not always hold good; for the flame of burning iron is intensely white; and yet neither the metal itself nor any of its calces are of that colour. Light produced by the decomposition of bodies by inflammation without ignition is always blue, and produces very little heat. Thus phosphorus of urine is decomposed by mere exposure to the air, and gives but very little heat, though a considerable light is emitted. The following proof is adduced by our author that this emission of light is a true inflammation. "Take a receiver of white glass, capable of holding 6 or 8 gallons; put into it a drachm of phosphorus finely powdered, and half an ounce of water; cork the mouth of the receiver, and tie it over with a bladder, so as to exclude the external air; incline the receiver to all sides gently, and afterwards set it to rest; the powder will adhere to the sides, and the water will drain from it. As soon as the water is sufficiently drained off, the particles of the phosphorus will become luminous, and emit a thick smoke: this will continue for some days; but at last no

more light or vapour will appear. Open the receiver, and the air will have contracted, as it does from the inflammation of a candle in Van Helmont's experiment; that is, about a 20th part. It is become unfit for inflammation; for if a lighted candle be immersed in it, it will be extinguished as well as the phosphorus, and an animal will be suffocated by it. The air then has suffered the same change as that which has served for the inflammation of other bodies; and the phosphorus is partly decomposed. Blow fresh air into the receiver, and the light and smoke will immediately re-appear. In like manner sulphur will burn and give light without heat sufficient for ignition. Take a piece of iron heated nearly red hot, and throw a little gun-powder upon it. If the heat be of a proper degree, the sulphur will burn with a blue flame, without heat sufficient for ignition; for if such heat had been produced, the gun-powder would certainly have taken fire.

It is the inflammation and decomposition of the sulphur, and not its evaporation, which produces the light; for if we sublime sulphur in vessels of the most transparent glass, no light will be visible except at the very beginning, when a small portion of it burns till the air in the vessel be saturated, and rendered unfit for inflammation." Our author is of opinion, that the light produced by inflammation is of a blue colour, from whatever body it is derived. This he endeavours to prove from an observation on the flame of a candle, the lower part of which, where the inflammation is, always appears of a blue colour. "Or (says he) take a candle which has burned for some time; extinguish it by applying tallow to the wick, and let it stand to cool; afterwards set it on fire by the flame of another candle; at first no more vapour will arise than can be acted upon by the air at once; inflammation, therefore, will go on in the whole small flame, and it will be blue. When the candle burns, the following process takes place. The tallow boils in the wick; and is converted into empyreumatic oil, rising from it in the form of vapour. As it rises from every part of the wick, the volume is increased till it comes to the top, and gives to the lower part of the flame the form of the frustum of an inverted cone. The air is applied to the outer surface of the column of vapour; and there decomposing the empyreumatic oil, produces heat and blue light: the frustum of vapour, within the outer burning surface is heated white-hot; the heat diminishes toward the centre, which, if the flame be large, is scarce red hot; as the column rises, decomposition takes place constantly on its surface, it necessarily diminishes, and the upper part of the flame is conical.

(7.) LIGHT, HYPOTHESIS OF MR MORGAN RESPECTING. In the 75th vol. of the *Transactions* Mr Morgan treats the subject of light at some length. As a foundation for his reasoning he assumes the following data. 1. That light is a body, like all others, subject to the laws of attraction. 2. That light is an heterogeneous body and that the same attractive power operates with different degrees of force on its different parts. That the light which escapes from combustible when decomposed by heat, or by any other means, was, previous to its escape, a component part

stances. Hence he concludes, that when ractive force by which the several rays of e attached to a body is weakened, some e rays will escape sooner than others; it rident that those which are detained by allest power will soonest go off when the attractive force is weakened. This he il- s by the example of a mixture of spirit of water, and other more fixed substances. plication of a gentle heat will carry off the wine only; a heat not much greater will ate the spirits and water mixed together; ill greater degree will carry off a mixture the particles together. "In like manner :), when the surface of a combustible is in of decomposition, those parts of it which least fixed, or which are united with the ree, will be separated first. Among these igo rays of light will make the earliest ap- x. By increasing the heat, we shall mix let with the indigo: by increasing it still we shall add the blue and the green to the ; till at length we reach that intensity of igh will cause all the rays to escape at the ant, and make the flame of a combustible y white. By examining the flame of a a candle, we may observe, that its lowest ick, or the part in which the black colour icks terminates, discharges the least heat; s, as the vertex of the flame is approached, five order of parts is passed through, in e lowest is continually adding to the heat hich is just above it, till we come to the e flame, near which all the heat is collec- a focus. At the lowest extremity, how- ere the heat is inconsiderable, a blue co- r always be observed; and from this ap- , amongst others, I think it may be con- that the blue rays are some of those which rom combustibles in an early period of omposition; and that if the decomposi- d be examined in a period still more ear- colour of the flame would be violet." etc and other facts Mr Morgan infers: ht, as a heterogeneous body, is gradually sed during combustion; that the indigo pe with the least heat, and the red with est; and from this again he explains the y flames assume different colours." He s the subject with a criticism upon Sir wton's definition of flame, viz. that it is heated red hot. In his opinion, "flame ance of combustion whose colour will be ed by the degree of decomposition which ce. When very imperfect, only the most le rays will appear. If very perfect, all will appear, and its flame will be brilli- ortion." Thus we have a most elabor- y for solving phenomena which seem y to admit of any solution. The data h he builds his system are altogether hy- al. That light is subject to the laws of n, cannot be proved, unless we could ex- independent of any other substance what- at is to say, in a perfect vacuum. But in perfect vacuum that can be formed, we om being certain that no other matter is Light is inflected and turned out of its

course in many different ways when acting in the common atmosphere, but we have no reason to suppose that it would be the same in a perfect vacuum; at least we have no right to lay it down as a principle to argue from, unless it were verified by experience. His 3d position, that the light emitted by combustible bodies formed part of their substance before combustion, seems still worse founded; for instead of being fixed in solid substances, all the light and heat proceeding from combustion seem entirely to come from the air. See COMBUSTION, FIRE, FLAME, &c.

(8.) LIGHT, MR MORGAN'S EXPERIMENTS ON ELECTRICAL. In the same paper Mr Morgan has some curious observations upon the electric light. There is neither fluid nor solid, he says, through which the electric fluid in its passage will not appear luminous, if we do not make the quantity, through which it has to pass, too great. In his experiments on fluids, he puts them into a tube about  $\frac{3}{4}$ ths of an inch diameter and  $\frac{1}{4}$  inches long. The orifices are then stopped up with two corks, through which two pointed wires are thrust, so that the points may approach within  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch of each other; and in this case the electric matter which passes through the fluid is always luminous, provided a sufficient force be used. The experiment, however, is dangerous, unless great care be taken; and the tube, unless it be very strong, will be broken by a very slight discharge. With acids the experiment succeeds more difficultly; they must be put into capillary tubes, and the wires placed very near to each other. Some of his experiments with gold leaf, &c. are described under ELECTRICITY. The better a conductor than any substance is, the greater is the difficulty of making the electric spark visible in it. The rarity of any body greatly increases the ease with which the electric spark is made visible in it; as appears from discharging a vial through rarefied air, the vapour of either, spirit of wine, or water. In the prosecution of his experiments, our author cemented a ball of iron into the orifice of a tube  $\frac{1}{8}$  inches long, and two thirds of an inch diameter, so that it could bear the weight of the quicksilver with which the tube was filled all to a small space at the open end, which contained a few drops of water. Having inverted the tube, and plunged the open end of it into a basin of mercury, that in the tube stood nearly half an inch lower than in a barometer with which it was compared at the same time, owing to the vapour which was formed by the water; but the spark passed as brilliant through the rarefied water as it does through rarefied air. If spirit of wine be employed instead of water in this experiment, the spark will not be so luminous. In the vapour of ether a great force is requisite to make the spark luminous, but good ether will press the mercury down as far as 16 or 17 inches. By rarefying the vapour, however, the spark will pass through it with more ease. On examining the mineral acids *in vacuo*, Mr Morgan could not find that any vapour escaped from them. To give them the requisite degree of tenuity, therefore, he traced a line upon glass about an eighth part of an inch broad, with a camel's hair pencil dipped in the acids: the line extended sometimes to

the length of 27 inches; in which case, the electric spark would pass over the whole with great brilliancy. If by widening the line, however, or putting on a drop of acid in any particular part, the quantity was increased, the spark never appeared in that part. The brightness of the electric light is always in proportion to its condensation. Thus, if a spark taken from a powerful electrical machine divides itself into brushes, or throws out sparks from the sides, by which the light is diffused over a larger surface, it thus becomes less brilliant; and in all cases in which any diffusion of light, whether electric or not, takes place, the case will be same. In some cases, Mr Morgan is of opinion, that even with the electric fluid, only the more refrangible rays of light make their escape. Thus, the electrical brush is always of a purplish or bluish colour; and if you convey a spark through a Torricellian vacuum not very perfectly made, it will be of an indigo colour. This, however, does not seem to arise from any other cause than the mere weakness of the light, which, in passing through the vapours of the atmosphere; or perhaps through the humours of the eye itself, affects our organs of sight in that manner. He next examines the influence of media upon electric light; which, he says, is similar to their influence upon solar light, and serves to explain several phenomena. "Let a pointed wire (says he), having a metallic ball fixed to one of its extremities, be forced obliquely into a piece of wood, so as to make a small angle with its surface; and to make the point lie about one eighth of an inch below it. Let another pointed wire, which communicates with the ground, be forced in the same manner into the same wood, so that its point may in like manner be about  $\frac{1}{8}$  of an inch below the surface, and about two inches from the point of the first wire. Let the wood be insulated, and a strong spark, which strikes on the metallic ball, will force its way through the interval of wood which lies between the points, and appear as red as blood." Mr Morgan mentions some experiments which seem to militate against his hypothesis rather than to support it; viz. 1. If into a Torricellian vacuum of any length a few drops of ether are conveyed, and both ends of the vacuum stopped up with metallic conductors, so that a spark may pass thro' it, the spark in its passage will make the following appearances. When the eye is placed close to the tube, the spark will appear perfectly white; if the eye is removed 2 yards, it will appear green; but at the distance of 6 or 7 yards it will appear reddish. "These changes evidently depend (says our author) on the quantity of medium through which the light passes; and the red light more particularly, which we see at the greatest distance from the tube, is accounted for on the same principle as the red light of the beclouded sun, or lighted candle." 2. Dr Priestley long ago observed the red appearance of the electric spark, when passing through inflammable air. But this appearance is very much diversified according to the quantity of medium through which the spark is beheld. At a very considerable distance the red comes unmixed to the eye; but if the eye be placed close to the tube, the spark appears white

and brilliant. By increasing, however, the quantity of fluid conveyed through any inflammable air, or by condensing the spark may be made perfectly white explosions and sparks, viewed at a distance, have a reddish appearance. The reason that the weaker the spark or explosion it is disposed to assume a red colour at a distance. This seems to conform to what already been mentioned as a probability that the different colours of light arising to the medium through which they

(9.) LIGHT, MR MORGAN'S EXPERIMENT PHOSPHORIC. On phosphoric light makes some curious observations; but on the same principles: "Some shells prepared according to Mr Wilson (see PHOSPHORUS.) after being exposed to the flash of a battery, emit a green, and others a reddish light.

Wilson, we suppose that these shells of slow combustion, may we not think some are just beginning to burn, admitting the most refrangible rays: are in a more advanced state of combustion therefore emitting the least refrangible conclusion be right, the shells emitting the purple or green, must still be low, the orange, and the red, will make their appearance as soon as this is sufficiently increased." In confirmation Mr Morgan adduces the following viz. that if a shell, while emitting it be placed upon a warm shovel, it soon be changed into a yellow mix To the theory of slow combustion N objects, 1. "If phosphoric shells owe this cause, we must consider the variation, when applied to them, as in circumstances which usually attend on fire. On this supposition there is an increase of the heat as well as of the extension of the combustible. But neither place, for a phosphoric body never emits light entirely in a certain degree of losing the power of becoming phosphoric when it has been sufficiently cooled hot, the charge of the strongest battery over it has no effect. 2. When bodies by combustion, they can never be assume the appearances which they display. "No power (says he) can the phenomena of a burning coal. Phosphoric bodies are very different in this phosphoric shell may be made to become luminous as ever by exposure to Some bodies which are most beautiful, are at the same time the most conspicuous fire. "Let us now see (says the consequence of admitting the combustion, that the detention of those rays upon phosphoric is owing to some faults their immediate reflection, but quite to their entire absorption. However it be, cannot well be supposed with equal power on all these rays not the case, we cannot avoid con-

phoric shells will assume different colours, going to the earlier and later escape of the different rays of light. This conclusion is justified by an experiment already mentioned; viz. that when the force is such as to admit the escape of the purple, blue, and green, we have only to lessen that force, by warming the body, and the yellow, the orange, and red escape. Beccaria has proved, that there is scarcely any body which is not phosphoric, or may not become so by heat. But as the phosphoric force is most powerful when the heat rays only escape, so we are to conclude, that it is weakest when it is able to retain the red rays only. This is agreeable to several facts. Pearls, oyster-shells, together with those phosphoric bodies whose goodness has been very much impaired by long keeping, when finely powdered, and placed within the circuit of an electrical battery, will exhibit, by their scattered particles, a power of light; but these particles will appear white, or their phosphoric power will be sufficient only to detain the yellow, orange, and red rays. When spirit of wine is in a similar manner placed within the circuit of a battery, a similar result may be discovered: its particles diverge in several directions, displaying a most beautiful golden appearance. The metallic calces are rendered phosphoric with the greatest difficulty; but even these may be scattered into a shower of red luminous particles by the electric stroke." In a letter to this paper, by Dr Price, it is observed, that by phosphoric force, Mr Morgan seems to mean, not the force with which a phosphoric body emits, but that with which it absorbs and retains the light. This last force is proportioned to the degree of attraction between the phosphoric body and light; and therefore must, according to Morgan's theory, be weakest when it so frequently lets the light it has imbibed as not to retain the rays which adhere to it most strongly. According to Mr Morgan's theory, these are the rays which are the least refrangible. "It is, however," says Dr Price, "an objection to it, that the less refrangibility of rays seems to imply a less force of attraction between them and the substances which refract them; but it should be considered, possibly, the force of cohesion, which unites the rays of light to bodies, may be a different power from that which refracts them."

(10.) LIGHT, PECULIAR PROPERTIES; OF. Dr Thomson, above quoted, (§ 4.) after enumerating the general properties of light mentioned above, and under CHEMISTRY, ELECTRICITY, concludes thus: "Such are the properties of light as far as they have been examined. They are sufficient to convince us, that it is a body, and possesses many qualities in common with other bodies. It is attracted by them, and combines with them precisely as other bodies do. But it is distinguished from all other substances, by possessing three peculiar properties of which they are destitute: The first is the power which it has of exciting in us the sensation of vision, by moving from the object seen and entering the eye. The second is the phenomena of colours," (See CHROMATICS, &c.)—III. "and the prismatic spectrum, indicating the existence of 7 different species of light; and to what the difference of these species is owing,

has not been ascertained. We are altogether ignorant of the component parts of every one of these species. The 2d peculiar property of light is the prodigious velocity with which it moves, whenever it is separated from any body with which it was formerly combined." (See § 4, 5.) "This velocity it acquires in a moment, and in all cases, whatever the body be from which it separates. The 3d and not the least singular of its peculiar properties, is, that its particles are never found cohering together so as to form masses of any sensible magnitude. This difference between light and other bodies can only be accounted for, by supposing that its particles repel each other. This seems to constitute the grand distinction between light and other bodies. Its particles repel each other, while the particles of other bodies attract each other; and accordingly are found cohering together, in masses of more or less magnitude." *Syst. of Chem.* vol. I. p. 252, 253.

(11.) LIGHT, PHENOMENA RESPECTING, IN PLANTS. Most of the discous flowers, by some power unknown to us, follow the sun in his course. They attend him to his evening retreat, and meet his rising lustre in the morning with the same unerring law. If a plant is shut up in a dark room, and a small hole is afterwards opened, by which the light of the sun may enter, the plant will turn towards that hole, and even alter its own shape in order to get near it; so that though it was straight before, it will in time become crooked, that it may get near the light. It is not the heat but the light of the sun, which it thus covets; for, though a fire be kept in the room, capable of giving a much stronger heat than the sun, the plant will turn away from the fire to enjoy the sun's light.—The green colour of plants also depends on the sun's light being allowed to shine upon them; for without this they are always white.

(12.) LIGHT PROCEEDING FROM ANIMAL SUBSTANCES, &c. INDEPENDENT OF HEAT. In general, a very considerable degree of heat is requisite to the emission of light from any body; but there are several exceptions, especially in light proceeding from putrescent substances and phosphorus, together with that of luminous animals, and other similar appearances. Light proceeding from putrescent animal and vegetable substances, as well as from glow worms, is mentioned by Aristotle. Thomas Bartholin mentions 4 kinds of luminous insects, two with and two without wings; but in hot climates they are found in much greater numbers, and of different species. (See FIRE-FLIES and LAMPYRIS.) Columna, an industrious naturalist, observes, that their light is not extinguished immediately upon the death of the animal. The first distinct account that we meet with of light proceeding from putrescent animal flesh is that which is given by Fabricius ab Aquapendente; who says, that when three Roman youths, residing at Padua, had bought a lamb, and had eaten part of it on Easter day 1592, several pieces of the remainder, which they kept till the day following, shone like so many candles when viewed in the dark. Part of this luminous flesh was sent to Aquapendente, professor of anatomy in that city. He observed, that both the lean and the fat shone with a whitish kind of light;

light;

light; and that some pieces of kid's flesh, which had lain in contact with it, were luminous as well as the fingers of the persons who touched it. Those parts, he observed, shone the most which were soft to the touch, and seemed to be transparent in candle light; but where the flesh was thick and solid, or where a bone was near the outside, it did not shine. After this, we find no account of any similar appearance, before that which was observed by Bartholin, at Montpellier in 1641, when a poor old woman had bought a piece of flesh in the market, intending to make use of it the day following. But happening not to be able to sleep well that night, and her bed and pantry being in the same room, she observed so much light come from the flesh, as to illuminate all the place where it hung. A part of this luminous flesh was carried as a curiosity to the D. of Conde, governor of the place, who viewed it with astonishment. This light was whitish; and did not cover the whole surface of the flesh, but certain parts only, as if gems of unequal splendor had been scattered over it. This flesh was kept till it began to putrify, when the light vanished. Mr Boyle tried the effect of his air pump upon luminous substances, when he found that the light of the rotten wood was extinguished *in vacuo*, and revived again on the admission of the air, even after a long continuance *in vacuo*; but the extinguishing of this light was not so complete immediately upon exhausting the receiver, as some little time afterwards. He could not perceive, however, that the light of rotten wood was increased in condensed air; but the light of a shining fish, which was put into a condensing engine before the Royal Society, in 1668, was rendered more vivid. Mr Boyle's experiments were made in Oct. 1667. He observed, that change of air was not necessary to the maintenance of this light; for it continued a long time when a piece of the wood was put into a very small glass hermetically sealed, and it made no difference when this tube which contained the wood was put into an exhausted receiver. This he also observed with respect to a luminous fish, which he put into water, and placed in the same circumstances. He also found, that the light of shining fishes had other properties in common with that of shining wood; but the latter, he says, was presently quenched with water, spirit of wine, various saline mixtures, and other fluids. Water, however, did not quench all the light of some shining veal on which he tried it, though spirit of wine destroyed it instantly. Mr Boyle's observation of light proceeding from flesh was quite casual. On the 15th Feb. 1662, one of his servants was greatly alarmed with the shining of some veal, which had been kept a few days, but had no bad smell, and was in a state very proper for use. The servant immediately acquainted his master with this extraordinary appearance; and he examined it with the greatest attention. Suspecting that the state of the atmosphere had some share in producing this phenomenon, he takes notice, after describing the appearance, that the wind was S.W. and blustering, the air hot for the season, the moon past its last quarter, and the mercury in the barometer at 29t hree 16ths inches. Mr Boyle was

often disappointed in his experiments on fishes; finding that they did not always the very same circumstances, with others had shined before. At one time that they shined, he observed that the weather was able. In general he made use of whitening them the fittest for his purpose. In a dialogue however, upon this subject at the Royal in 1681, it was asserted, that, of all situations, the eggs of lobsters, after they had boiled, shone the brightest. Olig. Jacoba serves, that, upon opening a sea polypus, so luminous, as to startle several persons who saw it; and he says, that the more putrid the fish the more luminous it grew. The nails at the fingers of the persons who touched it, were luminous; and the black liquor which issued from the animal, and which is its bile, shone al with a very faint light. Mr Boyle draws a nute comparison between the light of l coals and that of shining wood or fish, showing what particulars they agree, and in what differ. He observes, that extreme cold extinguishes the light of shining wood, as appeared in a piece of it was put into a glass tube, and a frigorific mixture. He also found that wood did not waste itself by shining, and the application of a thermometer to it did not ever the least degree of heat. There is a remarkable shell-fish called PHOLAS, which forms itself holes in various kinds of stone, &c. This fish is luminous, was long ago noticed by and among the moderns, various experiments have been made upon it, by Mess. Reaumur, Bec Marfilus, Galeatius, Montius, &c. See P) Similar, in some respects, to the light of the pholas, was that which was observed to proceed from wood which was moist, but not in a putrid state, which was very conspicuous in the dark. Curious observations on the shining of fern and the pickle in which they were immersed were made by Dr Beal, in May 1665. Having put boiled mackerel into water, together with sweet herbs; when the cook was, some time stirring it, she observed, that, at the first, the water was very luminous; and that, when shining through the water added much light which the water yielded. The water was thick and blackish, rather than of any other color; and yet it shined on being stirred, the same time the fishes appeared more luminous than the water. Whenever the drops of water, after it had been stirred, fell to the bottom, they shined; and the children in the far neighborhood, who were taking the drops, were as broad as a penny, and running wit about the house. The cook observed, that she turned up that side of the fish that was next the water, no light came from it; and that, when the water had settled for some time, it did not shine at all. The day following, the water gave a little light, and only after a brisk agitation the fishes continued to shine as well from the inside as the outside, and especially about the head and such places as seemed to have been broken in the boiling. When, in the light of day, he examined, with a microscope, a piece of fish which had shined very much the

found nothing remarkable on its sur-  
 pt that he thought he perceived what  
*steam*, rather dark than luminous, aris-  
 very small dust from the fish, and here  
 a very small and almost imperceptible  
 Of the sparkles he had no doubt; but  
 it possible that the steam might be a  
 of the light, or some dust in the air.  
 the fish quite dry, he moistened it with  
 , and observed that it gave a little light,  
 ut for a short time. The fish was not  
 yet insipid to the best discerning palate.  
 he fishes he kept two or three days long-  
 ther trial: but, the weather being very  
 became fetid; and, contrary to his ex-  
 , there was no more light produced eie  
 agitation of the water or in the fish.

#### LIGHT PROCEEDING FROM SEA WATER.

sea is sometimes luminous, especially  
 in motion by the dashing of oars or the  
 it against a ship, has been observed  
 iration by many persons. Mr Boyle, af-  
 g all the circumstances of this appear-  
 ar as he could collect them from the ac-  
 navigators; as its being extended as far  
 could reach, and at other times being  
 ly when the water was dashed against  
 r body; that in some seas, this pheno-  
 accompanied by some particular winds,  
 others; and that sometimes one part  
 will be luminous, when another part,  
 om it, will not be so; concludes with  
 at he could not help suspecting that these  
 omena, belonging to great masses of  
 re in some measure owing to some cos-  
 or custom of the terrestrial globe, or  
 the planetary vortex. Father Bourzes,  
 age to the Indies in 1704, took particu-  
 of the luminous appearance of the sea.  
 was sometimes so great, that he could  
 l the title of a book by it, though he  
 o feet from the surface of the water.  
 s he could distinguish, in the wake of  
 the particles that were luminous from  
 werenot; and they appeared not to be all  
 ne figure. Some were like points of  
 ers like stars: Some were like globes,  
 r two in diameter; and others as big as  
 l. Sometimes they formed themselves  
 es of 3 or 4 inches long, and one or two  
 ometimes all these different figures were  
 the same time; and sometimes there  
 t he calls *vortices* of light which at one  
 time appeared and disappeared imme-  
 ke flashes of lightning. Nor did only  
 of the ship produce this light, but fish-  
 swimming, left so luminous a track be-  
 , that both their size and species might  
 uished by it. When he took some of  
 out of the sea, and stirred it ever so little  
 and, in the dark, he always saw in it an  
 mber of bright particles; he had the  
 arance when he dipped a piece of linen  
 and wrung it in a dark place; and when  
 s fell upon any thing that was solid, it  
 itinue shining for hours together. He  
 it depends very much upon the *quality*  
 r; and that this light is greatest when

the water is fattest, and fullest of foam. For sea  
 water is not always equally pure, and sometimes,  
 if linen be dipped in the sea, it is clammy when  
 it is drawn up again: When the wake of the  
 ship was the brightest, the water was the most fat  
 and glutinous, and linen moistened with it pro-  
 duced a great deal of light, if it was stirred or  
 moved briskly. In some parts of the sea, he saw  
 a substance like saw-dust, sometimes red and some-  
 times yellow; and when he drew up the water  
 in those places, it was always viscous and glutin-  
 ous. The sailors told him, that it was the spawn  
 of whales; that there are great quantities of it in  
 the north; and that sometimes, in the night, they  
 appeared all over of a bright light, without being  
 put in motion by any vessel or fish passing by them.  
 One day they took a fish called a *bonite*, the in-  
 side of the mouth of which was so luminous, that,  
 without any other light, he could read. The  
 mouth was full of a viscous matter, which, when  
 rubbed upon a piece of wood, made it immediat-  
 ly all over luminous; though, when the moisture  
 was dried up, the light was extinguished. The  
 abbe Nollet was much struck with the luminous-  
 ness of the sea, when he was at Venice in 1749;  
 and, after taking a great deal of pains to ascertain  
 the circumstances, of it, concluded that it was  
 occasioned by a shining insect; and having exam-  
 ined the water very often, he at length did  
 find a small insect, which he particularly describes,  
 and to which he attributes the light. The same  
 hypothesis had also occurred to M. Vianelli, pro-  
 fessor of medicine in Chiogga near Venice; and  
 both he and M. Grixellini, a physician in Venice,  
 have given drawings of the insects from which  
 they imagined this light to proceed. A similar  
 discovery and conclusion were made by Capt.  
 Cook, in his 2d voyage. (See Cook, N° III, §  
 9.) M. le Roi, making a voyage on the Mediter-  
 ranean, took notice, that in the day-time, the  
 prow of the ship in motion threw up many small  
 particles, which, falling upon the water, rolled  
 upon the surface of the sea for a few seconds be-  
 fore they mixed with it; and in the night they  
 had the appearance of fire. Taking a quantity of  
 the water, the same small sparks appeared when-  
 ever it was agitated; but every successive agita-  
 tion produced a less effect than the preceding, ex-  
 cept after being suffered to rest a while; for then  
 a fresh agitation would make it almost as lumi-  
 nous as the first. This water retained its prop-  
 erty of shining by agitation a day or two; but it  
 disappeared on being set on the fire, though it  
 was not made to boil. He concludes, that it is  
 not occasioned by shining insects, as the abbe  
 Nollet imagined; especially after carefully examin-  
 ing some of the luminous points, which he caught  
 upon an handkerchief, he found them to be round  
 like large pins heads, but with no appearance of  
 any animals though viewed with a microscope.  
 The mixture of a little spirit of wine with water,  
 just drawn from the sea, gave the appearance of  
 a great number of little sparks, which continued  
 visible longer than those in the ocean. All the  
 acids, and various other liquors, produced the  
 same effect, though not quite so copiously;  
 but no fresh agitation would make them luminous  
 again. M. le Roi is far from asserting that there

are no luminous insects in the sea. He even supposes that the abbé Nollet and M. Vianelli had found them. But he was satisfied that the sea is luminous chiefly on some other account, though he does not advance a conjecture what it is. M. Ant. Martin made many experiments on the light of fishes, with a view to discover the cause of the light of the sea. He thought that he had reason to conclude, from a great variety of experiments, that all sea-fishes have this property; but that it is not to be found in any that are produced in fresh water. Nothing depended upon the colour of the fishes, except that he thought that the white ones, and especially those that had white scales, were more luminous than others. This light, he found, was increased by a small quantity of salt; and also by a small degree of warmth, though a greater degree extinguished it. This agrees with another observation of his, that it depends entirely upon a kind of moisture which they had about them, and which a small degree of heat would expel, when an oiliness remained which did not give this light, but would burn in the fire. Light from the flesh of birds or beasts is not so bright as that which proceeds from fish. From some experiments made by Mr Canton, he concludes, that the luminousness of sea water is owing to the limy and other putrescent substances it contains. On the evening of the 14th June 1768, he put a small fresh whiting into a gallon of sea-water, in a pan which was about 14 inches in diameter, and took notice that neither the whiting nor the water, when agitated, gave any light. A Fahrenheit's thermometer, in the cellar where the pan was placed, stood at 54°. The 15th, at night, that part of the fish which was even with the surface of the water was luminous, but the water was dark. He drew the end of a stick through it, from one side of the pan to the other; and the water appeared luminous behind the stick all the way, but gave light only where it was disturbed. When all the water was stirred, the whole became luminous, and appeared like milk, giving a considerable degree of light to the sides of the pan; and it continued to do so for some time after it was at rest. The water was most luminous when the fish had been in it about 28 hours; but would not give any light by being stirred, after it had been in it 3 days. He then put a gallon of fresh water into one pan, and an equal quantity of sea-water into another, and into each pan he put a fresh herring of about 3 oz. The next night the whole surface of the sea-water was luminous, without being stirred; but it was much more so when it was put in motion; and the upper part of the herring, which was considerably below the surface of the water, was also very bright; while at the same time, the fresh water, and the fish that was in it, were quite dark. There were several very bright luminous spots on different parts of the surface of the sea-water; and the whole, when viewed by the light of a candle, seemed covered with a greasy scum. The third night, the light of the sea-water, while at rest, was very little, if at all, less than before; but when stirred, its light was so great as to discover the time by a watch, and the fish in it appeared as a dark substance. After this, its light was evidently decreasing, but

was not quite gone before the 7th night. Fresh water and the fish in it were perfectly during the whole time. The thermometer was generally above 60°. These experiments were made with sea water; but he now made use of fresh water, into which he put common salt, till found, by a hydrometer, that it was of the same specific gravity with the sea water; and, at the same time, in another gallon of water, he dissolved two pounds of salt; and into each of these waters he put a small fresh herring. The next evening the whole surface of the artificial sea water was luminous without being stirred; but gave more light when it was disturbed. It appeared exactly like the real sea water in the preceding experiment; its light lasted about the same time, and went off in the same manner: while the other water, which was almost as salt as it could be made, never gave any light. The herring which was taken out of it the 7th night, and washed from its salt, was found firm and sweet; but the other herring was very soft and putrid, much more so than that which had been kept as long in fresh water. If a herring, in warm weather, be put into 10 gallons of artificial sea water, instead of fresh water, he says, will still become luminous; but its light will not be so strong. Mr Canton observes, that though the greatest summer heat promotes putrefaction, yet 20 degrees more than that of the human blood seems to hinder it. By putting a small piece of a luminous fish into a glass ball, he found, that water of the heat of 100 degrees would extinguish its light in less than half a minute; but that, on taking it out of the water, it would begin to recover its light in about 10 seconds; but it was never afterwards so bright as before. Mr Canton observed, that several kinds of river fish could not be made to give light, in the same circumstances in which any sea-fish became luminous; but that a piece of carp made the water very luminous, though the outside, or scaly part of it, did not shine at all. He adds, that artificial sea water may be made without the use of an hydrometer, by the proportion of 400 avoirdupois of salt to 7 pints of water, wine-measure. From undoubted observations, however, it appears, that in many places of the ocean it is covered with luminous insects to a very considerable extent. Mr Dagelet, a French astronomer who returned from the Terra Australis in 1774, brought with him several kinds of worms which shine in water when it is set in motion; and M. Kirwan, in a paper inserted in the *Journal des Sçavans* in March 1770, affirms, that the luminous surface of the sea, from Brest to the Antilles, contains an immense quantity of little, round, shining polypuses of about a quarter of a line in diameter. Other learned men, who acknowledge the existence of these luminous animals, cannot, however, be persuaded to consider them as the cause of all the light and scintillation that appear on the surface of the ocean: they think that some subterranean phosphorus kind, arising from putrefaction, is a cause of this phenomenon. M. Godé published curious observations on the fish *bonite*; and though he has observed and described several of the luminous insects that are found in sea-water, he is, nevertheless, of opinion,



incandescence and flaming light of the sea proceed from the oily and greasy substances with which it is impregnated. The abbé Nollet was long of opinion, that the light of the sea proceeded from electricity, though he afterwards seemed inclined to think, that this phenomenon was caused by small animals, either by their luminous aspect, or at least by some liquor or effluvia which they emitted. He did not, however, exclude other causes; among these, the fry of fish deserves to be noticed. M. Dagelet, sailing into the bay of Antongil, in the island of Madagascar, observed a prodigious quantity of fry, which covered the surface of the sea above a mile in length, and which he at first took for banks of sand on account of their colour; they exhale a disagreeable odour, and the sea had appeared with uncommon splendour some days before. The same accurate observer, perceiving the sea remarkably luminous in the road of the Cape of Good Hope during a perfect calm, remarked, that the oars of the *casques* produced a whitish and pearly kind of lustre; when he took in his hand the water which contained this phosphorus, he discerned in it, for some minutes, globules of light as large as the heads of pins. When he pressed these globules, they appeared to his touch like a soft and thin pulp; and some days after the sea was covered near the coasts with whole banks of these little fish.

(14.) LIGHT, REMARKABLE APPEARANCES OF, IN THE FORM OF *IGNES FATUI*, &c. To putrefaction, some attribute that luminous appearance called *IGNIS FATUUS*, which is most frequently observed in boggy places and near rivers, though sometimes also in dry places. By its appearance beighted travellers are said to have been sometimes misled into marshy places, taking it for a candle at a distance; from which seemingly mischievous property it has been thought by the vulgar to be the spirit of a malignant nature, and been named accordingly *Will with a wisp*, or *Jack with a lantern*; for the same reason that it had its Latin name *ignis fatuus*. This light is frequent about burying places and dung-hills. Some countries are also remarkable for it, as about Bologna in Italy, and some parts of Spain and Ethiopia. Its appearances are so uncertain and variable that they can scarce be described, especially as philosophical observers seldom meet with it. Dr Derham, however, one night perceived one of them, and got so near that he had a very advantageous view of it. This is very difficult to be obtained; for, among other singularities of the *ignis fatuus*, it avoids the approach of any person, and flies from place to place as if it were animated. That which Dr Derham observed was in some boggy ground betwixt two rocky hills; and the night was dark and dim; by which means he was enabled to advance within 2 or 3 yards of it. It appeared like a complete body of light without any division, so that it was sure it could not be occasioned by insects. It kept dancing about a dead thistle, till a very slight motion of the air, occasioned, as he supposed, by his near approach to it, made it jump to another place; after which it kept flying before him as he advanced. M. Beccari obtained information that two of these lights appeared in the *aisis* about Bologna, the one N. the other S. of

that city, and were to be seen almost every dark night, especially that to the eastward, giving a light equal to an ordinary faggot. The latter appeared to a gentleman of his acquaintance as he was travelling; moved constantly before him for about a mile; and gave a better light than a torch which was carried before him. Both these appearances gave a very strong light, and were constantly in motion. Sometimes they would rise, sometimes sink; but commonly they would hover about six feet from the ground; they would also frequently disappear on a sudden; and appear again in some other place. They differed also in size and figure, sometimes spreading pretty wide, and then contracting themselves; sometimes breaking into two, and then joining again. Sometimes they would appear like waves; at others they would seem to drop sparks of fire: they were but little affected by the wind; and in wet and rainy weather were frequently observed to cast a stronger light than in dry weather: they were also observed more frequently when snow lay upon the ground, than in the hottest summer; but he was assured that there was not a dark night throughout the whole year in which they were not to be seen. The ground E. of Bologna, where the largest of these was observed, is a hard chalky soil mixed with clay, which retains moisture long, but breaks and cracks in hot weather. On the mountains, where the soil is looser, the *ignes fatui* were less. From the best information, M. Beccari found that these lights were very frequent about rivers and brooks. He concludes his narrative with the following singular account. "An intelligent gentleman travelling in the evening, between 8 and 9, in a mountainous road about 10 miles S. of Bologna, perceived a light which shone very strangely upon some stones which lay on the banks of the Rio Verde. It seemed to be about two feet above the stones, and near the water. In size and figure it had the appearance of a parallelopiped, above a foot in length, and half a foot high, the longest side being parallel to the horizon. Its light was so strong, that he could plainly see by it part of a neighbouring hedge and the water of the river; only in the E. corner of it, the light was rather faint, and the square figure less perfect, as if it was cut off or darkened by the segment of a circle. On examining it a little nearer, he was surprised to find that it changed gradually from a bright red to a yellowish, and then to a pale colour, in proportion as he drew nearer; and when he came to the place itself, it quite vanished. Upon this he stepped back, and not only saw it again, but found that the farther he went from it, the stronger and brighter it grew. When he examined the place of this luminous appearance, he could perceive no smell nor any other mark of fire." Another gentleman informed M. Beccari, that he had seen the same light five or six different times in spring and autumn; and that it always appeared of the same shape, and in the very same place. One night in particular, he observed it come out of a neighbouring field to settle in the usual place. A very remarkable account of an *ignis fatuus* is given by Dr Shaw in his *Travels to the Holy Land*. It appeared in the valleys of mount Ephraim, and attended him and his company for

above an hour. Sometimes it appeared globular, or like the flame of a candle; at others it spread to such a degree as to involve the whole company in a pale inoffensive light; then contracted itself, and suddenly disappeared, but in less than a minute it would appear again; sometimes running swiftly along, it would expand itself at certain intervals over more than two or three acres of the adjacent mountains. The atmosphere from the beginning of the evening had been remarkably thick and hazy; and the dew, as they felt it on the bridles of their horses, was very clammy and unctuous. Lights resembling the *ignis fatuus* are sometimes observed at sea, skipping about the masts and rigging of ships; and Dr Shaw informs us, that he has seen these in such weather as that just mentioned when he saw the *ignis fatuus* in Palestine. Similar appearances have been observed in various other situations; and we are told of one which appeared about the bed of a woman in Milan, surrounding it as well as her body entirely. This light fled from the hand which approached it; but was at length entirely dispersed by the motion of the air. Of the same kind also, most probably, are those small luminous appearances which sometimes appear in houses or near them, called in Scotland *Elf-candles*, and which are supposed to portend the death of some person about the house. In general these lights are harmless, though not always; for some of them have encompassed stacks of hay and corn, and set them on fire; so that they became objects of great terror to the country people. Of these it was observed, that they would avoid a drawn sword, or sharp-pointed iron instrument; and that they would be driven away by a great noise. Several philosophers have endeavoured to account for these appearances, but hitherto with no great success; nor indeed does there seem to be sufficient data for solving all their phenomena. Sir Isaac Newton calls it a vapour shining without heat; and supposes that there is the same difference between the vapour of an *ignis fatuus* and flame, that there is between the shining of rotten wood and burning coals. But though this seems generally to be the case, there are exceptions, as has been instanced in the vapours which set fire to the stacks of corn. Dr Priestley supposes that the light is of the same nature with that produced by putrescent substances; others that the electrical fluid is principally concerned; but none have attempted to give any particular solution of the phenomena. From the frequent appearance of the *ignis fatuus* in marshes, moist ground, burying places, and dunghills, putrefaction seems to be concerned in the production of it. This process is attended with the emission of an aqueous steam, together with a quantity of fixed, inflammable, and alkaline airs, mixed together in one common vapour. It is likewise attended with some degree of heat; and there are some vapours, that of sulphur particularly, which become luminous, with a degree of heat much less than that sufficient to set fire to combustibles. The putrid vapour, therefore, may be capable of shining with a still smaller degree of heat than that of sulphur, and consequently become luminous by that which putrefaction alone affords. This would account for the *ignis fatuus*, were it

only a steady luminous vapour arising from places where putrid matters are contained; but its extreme mobility, and flying from one place to another on the approach of any person, cannot be accounted for on this principle. If one quantity of the putrid vapour becomes luminous by means of heat, all the rest ought to do so likewise; so that though we may allow heat and putrefaction to be concerned, yet of necessity we must have recourse to some other agent, which can be no other than electricity. Without this it is impossible to conceive how any body of moveable vapour should not be carried away by the wind; but, so far is this from being the case, that the *ignis fatuus* described by M. Beccari were but little affected by the wind. It is besides proved by undoubted experiment, that electricity is always attended with some degree of heat; and this, however small, may be sufficient to give a luminous property to any vapour on which it acts strongly; not to add, that the electric fluid itself is no other than light, and may therefore by its action easily produce a luminous appearance independent of any vapour. We have a strong proof that electricity is concerned, or indeed the principal agent, in producing the *ignis fatuus* from an experiment related by Dr Priestley of a flame of this kind being artificially produced. A gentleman, who had been making many electrical experiments for a whole afternoon in a small room, on going out of it, observed a flame following him at some little distance. This, was doubtless, a true *ignis fatuus*, and the circumstances necessary to produce it were then present, viz. an atmosphere impregnated with animal vapour, and likewise strongly electrified: for the quantity of perspiration emitted by a human body is by no means inconsiderable; and it as well as the electricity would be collected by reason of the smallness of the room. In this case, however, there seems to have been a considerable difference between the artificial *ignis fatuus* and those commonly met with; for this flame followed the gentleman as he went out of the room; but the natural ones commonly fly from those who approach them. This may be accounted for, from a difference between the electricity of the atmosphere in the one room and the other; in which case the flame would naturally be attracted towards that place where the electricity was either different in quality or in quantity; but in the natural way, where all bodies may be supposed equally electrified for a great way round, a repulsion will as naturally take place. Still, however, this does not seem to be always the case. In those instances where travellers have been attended by an *ignis fatuus* we cannot suppose it to have been influenced by any other power than what we call attraction, and which electricity is very capable of producing. Its keeping at some distance is likewise easily accounted for; as we know that bodies possessed of different quantities of electricity may be attracted to attract one another for a certain space, then repel without having ever come into contact. On this principle we may account for the light which surrounded the woman at Milan, but not for the light which followed her, as it was not supplied from the hand of any other person. On the same principle may we account for these mischiefs

is vapours which set fire to the hay and corn stacks, but were driven away by presenting to them a pointed iron instrument, or by making a fire. Both these are known to have a great effect upon the electric matter; and, by means of which, lightning may occasionally be made to fall upon or to avoid particular places, according to circumstances by which the general mass happens to be affected. On the whole, therefore, it seems most probable, that the *ignis fatuus* is a collection of vapours of the putrescent kind, very much affected by electricity; according to the degree of which, it will either give a weak or strong light, or even set fire to certain substances. This notion seems to be confirmed from some luminous appearances observed in privies, where the putrid vapours have been collected into balls, and exploded violently on the approach of a candle, in its last effect, however, we cannot so well ascribe to the electricity, as to the accension of the inflammable air which abounds in such places. In the appendix to Dr Priestley's 3d volume of *Experiments and Observations on Air*, Mr Warltire gives an account of some very remarkable *ignis fatuus*, which he observed on the road to Bromwich, about 5 miles from Birmingham. The date of observation was the 12th of December 1781, before day-light. Many of these lights were playing in an adjacent field, in different directions; from some of which there suddenly sprung up bright branches of light, something resembling the explosion of a rocket that contained many brilliant stars, if the discharge was upwards, instead of the usual direction, and the hedge and trees on each side of the hedge were illuminated. This appearance continued but a few seconds, after which the jack-a-lanterns played as before. Mr Warltire was not near enough to observe if the apparent explosions were attended with any report. Cronstedt gives it as his opinion, that *ignis fatuus* as well as *falling stars*, are owing to sections of inflammable air raised to a great height in the atmosphere. But, with regard to the latter, the vast height at which they move evidently shows that they cannot be the effect of any grossening vapour whatever; for the lightest inflammable air is one 12th of that of the common atmosphere: and we have no reason to believe, that at the distance of 40 or 50 miles from the earth, the latter has near one 12th of its weight above the surface. From the account given by Mr Warltire, we should be apt to conclude, that there is a strong affinity betwixt the *ignis fatuus* and fire-balls, inasmuch that the one might be very easily converted into the other. Electricity may assume both these appearances, as is evident in the case of points; or even when the atmosphere is violently electrified, as around the string of an electrical kite, which always will appear to be surrounded with a blue flame in the night, if the electricity be very strong. On the whole, it appears, that electricity acting upon a small quantity of atmospherical air, with a certain degree of force, will produce an appearance resembling *ignis fatuus*; with a superior force it will produce a fire-ball; and a sudden increase of electrical power might produce those sparks and apparent explosions observed by Mr Warltire. With

regard to the uses of the *ignis fatuus* in the system of nature, we can only say, that they seem to be accidental appearances resulting from the motion of the electric fluid, and are, no doubt, like other meteors, subservient to the preservation of its equilibrium, and thus are useful in preventing those dreadful commotions which ensue when a proper medium for so doing is deficient. A light in some respects similar to those above mentioned has been found to proceed from that celebrated chemical production called *phosphorus*, which always tends to decompose itself, so as to take fire by the access of air only. See PHOSPHORUS. The easiest method of accounting for all these kinds of lights, is from electricity. If light consists in a certain vibration of the electric fluid, then it follows, that in whatever substances such a vibration takes place, there light must appear, whether in putrescent animal substances, sea-water, phosphorus, or any thing else. We know that the electric matter pervades all terrestrial substances, and is very liable to be set in motion from causes of which we are ignorant. The action of the air by which putrefaction is produced may be one of these causes; and it can by no means appear surprising, that the electric matter should act in the bodies of living animals in such a manner as to produce a permanent light, when we know it acts in some of them so powerfully as to produce a shock similar to that of a charged vial. When this vibration becomes so powerful as to penetrate the solid substance of the body itself, the luminous body then becomes transparent, as in M. Beccarius's experiment with the pholades in milk; (See PHOLAS.) but, when it is only superficial, the body, though it emits light, is itself opaque.

(15.) LIGHT SHINING IN THE DARK FROM DIAMONDS, &c. Among luminous bodies the diamond is to be reckoned; as some diamonds are known to shine in the dark. But on account of the feebleness of their splendor, it is necessary for the person who is to observe them, previously to stay in the dark about a quarter of an hour; that the pupil of the eye may be dilated and enlarged, and so rendered capable of receiving a larger quantity of the rays of light. M. du Fay has also observed, that the eyes ought to be shut for this time, or at least one of them; and that, in that case, the light of the diamond is afterwards only seen by that eye which has been shut. Before the diamond is brought into the dark room, it must be exposed to the sun-shine, or at least to the open day-light, to imbibe a sufficient quantity of rays; and this is done in one minute, or even less; 8 or 10 seconds having been found to furnish as much light as a stone is capable of receiving; and when brought into the dark, its light continues about 12 or 13 minutes, weakening all the while by insensible degrees. It is very remarkable, that in bodies so extremely similar to each other as diamonds are, some should have this property of imbibing the sun's rays, and shining in the dark, and that others should not; yet so it is found by experiment, and the most nearly resembling stones shall be found one to have this property, and another to be destitute of it; while many of the most dissimilar have the property in common. There seems to be no rule, nor even the least traces of

any imperfect rule of judging, which diamonds have, and which have not this property; their natural brightness, their purity, their size, or their shape, contribute nothing to it; and all that has been yet discovered of the least regularity among them, is, that all the yellow diamonds have this property. This may probably arise from their having more sulphur in their composition, and therefore illuminating more readily, or emitting a more visible flame. M. du Fay tried whether it was possible to make the diamond retain, for any longer time, the light it naturally parts with so soon; and found, that if the diamond, after being exposed to the light, be covered with black wax, it will shine in the dark, as well six hours afterwards as at the time it was first impregnated with the light. The imbibing light, in this manner, being a property not found in all diamonds, it was not to be supposed that it would be found in any other stones. On trial, the ruby, the sapphire, and the topaz, were found wholly destitute of it; but among a large number of rough emeralds, one was found to possess it. Such is the strange uncertainty of these accidents. All the other less precious stones were tried, and found not to possess this property of imbibing light from the daylight or sun-shine, but they all became luminous by the different means of heating or friction; with this difference, that some acquired it by one of these methods, and others by the other; each being unaffected by that which gave the property to the other. The diamond becomes luminous by all these methods. Beccarius also discovered, that diamonds have the property of the Bolognian phosphorus, about the same time that it occurred to M. du Fay. *Com. Boipn.* vol. ii. p. 276. M. du Fay observed, that the common topaz, when calcined, had all the properties of this phosphorus; and pursuing the discovery, he found the same property, in a great degree, in the belemnites, gypsum, lime-stone, and marble: though he was obliged to dissolve some very hard substances of this kind in acids, before calcination could produce this change in them; and with some substances he could not succeed even thus; especially with flint-stones, river sand, jaspers, agates, and rock-crystal.

(16.) LIGHT, SOURCES OF, Dr Thomson, in his *Syst. of Chem.* Vol. I. p. 253. enumerates 4 "different sources from which light is emitted in a visible form:" viz. "1. The SUN and STARS." (See ASTRONOMY, *Index*.) "2. COMBUSTION; 3. HEAT; and, 4. PERCUSSION. See these articles; and ELECTRICITY, *Ind.* FLINT, STEEL, &c.

(17.) LIGHT TRANSMITTED FROM PLANTS. In Sweden a very curious phenomenon has been observed on certain flowers by M. Haggern, lecturer in natural history. One evening he perceived a faint flash of light repeatedly dart from a marigold. Surprised at such an uncommon appearance, he resolved to examine it with attention; and, to be assured it was no deception, he placed a man near him, with orders to make a signal at the moment when he observed the light. They both saw it constantly at the same moment. The light was most brilliant on marigolds of an orange or flame colour; but scarcely visible on pale ones. The flash was frequently seen on the same flower two or three times in quick succession; but more com-

monly at intervals of several minutes: at several flowers in the same place emitted together, it could be observed at a considerable distance. This phenomenon was remarkably and August at sun-set, and for half an hour; when the atmosphere was clear; but after day, or when the air was loaded with vapour, it was seen. The following flow-  
 ted flashes, more or less vivid, in this or  
 The marigold, *galendula officinalis.* 2.  
 hood, *tropaolum majus.* 3. The orange li  
*bulbiferum.* 4. The Indian pink, *tagetes*  
*erecfa.* To discover whether some little i  
 phosphoric worms might not be the cau  
 the flowers were carefully examined, eve  
 microscope, without any such being foun  
 the rapidity of the flash, and other circ  
 there seems to be something of electricit  
 phenomenon. It is well known, that v  
 pistil of a flower is impregnated, the poll  
 away by its elasticity, with which electri  
 be combined. M. Haggern, after having  
 the flash from the orange lily, the an  
 which are a considerable space distant fro  
 tals, found that the light proceeded from t  
 only; whence he concludes, that this elec  
 is caused by the pollen, which, in flyi  
 scattered on the petals. Whatever be th  
 the effect is highly curious.

(18.) LIGHT, VELOCITY OF. See § 5

(IV.) LIGHTS, in painting, are those piece which are illuminated, or that lie the luminary, by which the piece is sup be enlightened; and which, for this re painted in bright vivid colours. In this se is opposed to shadow. Different lights l different effects on a picture, and occasi ference in the management of every part. deal therefore depends on a painter's cl proper light for his piece to be illumina a great deal more, in the conducting of and shadows, when the luminary is pitch The strength and reliev of a figure, as v gracefulness, depend entirely on the ma of the lights, and the joining of those t dows. The light a figure receives is eit or reflected; to each of which special re be had. The doctrine of lights and shado that part of painting called *chiaro obscuro*.

(1.) \* To LIGHT. *v. a.* [from *light*, To kindle; to inflame; to set on fire; flame.—Swinging coals about in the v roughly *lighted* them. *Boyle*.—This truti clear, that to go about to prove it, wen a candle to seek the sun. *Glauv.*—

The maids, who waited her comm  
 Ran in with *lighted* tapers in their han  
 Be witness, gods, and strike Jocasta  
 If an immodest thought, or low desir  
 Inflam'd my breast since our first loves we

Absence might cure it, or a second  
*Light* up another flame, and put out th  
 2. To give light to; to guide by light—  
 A beam that falls,  
 Fresh from the pure glance of thine e  
*Lighting* to eternity.

Ah hope! is, lasting flames! like those

L I G ( 221 ) L I G  
e dead, and warm th' unfruitful urn. —Rebeckah lifted up her eyes, and when she saw  
*Pope.* Isaac, she *lighted* off the camel. *Gen.* xxiv. 64.—

ate; fill with light.—  
was set, and vesper to supply  
beams, had *lighted* up the sky. *Dryd.*  
hatically joined to *light*.—  
was *lighted* up the world to view.

*Dryden.*  
adjective.] To lighten; to ease of a

d some of our passengers,  
his weary vessel of her load. *Fairy Q.*  
LIGHT. *v. n.* [*licht*, chance, Dutch;  
l or light, or lit.] 1. To happen to  
upon by chance: it has on before the  
—No more fettled in valour than dis-  
ce, if either they had *lighted* on a bet-  
could have learned to make friend-  
and not the father of virtue. *Sidney.*  
icé, by chance, did on a lady *light*,  
right fair, and fresh as morning rose.

*Spenser.*  
your eye shall *light* upon some toy  
lesire to purchase. *Shak.*

le did *light* upon two ringleaders. *Ba-*  
yal oak did *light* upon Count Rhodophil.  
way of producing such a change on  
be easily enough *lighted* on, by those  
the solutions of mercury. *Boyle.*—  
t by arguments to sooth her pain;  
avail'd; at length he *lights* on one.

*Dryden.*  
*bt* upon this way, is of no more avail  
ror; for what is fo taken up by us,  
as well as true. *Locke.*—Whosoever  
parcel of that substance we call gold,  
ionally take the bulk and figure to  
s real essence. *Locke.*—

reynard walk'd the streets at night,  
dian's mask he chanc'd to *light*,  
o'er, he mutter'd with disdain,  
t head is here without a brain! *Addis-*  
man may sometimes *light* on notions  
scaped a wiler. *Watts on the Mind.*  
any particular direction: with on.—  
unded steed curvets: and rais'd up-

his feet. *Dryden.*  
o strike on: with on.—  
ke upon his shield so heavy *lights*,  
e ground it doubleth him full low.

*Spenser.*  
ertain lot none can find themselves  
homsoever it *lighteth*. *Hooker.*—They  
no more; neither shall the sun *light*  
any heat. *Rev.* vii. 16.—

me only, as the source and spring  
option, all the blame *lights* due. *Milt.*  
*bts* upon him presently after: his great  
ly ruined, he himself slain in it, and  
right hand cut off, and hung up be-  
n. *Sonb.* 4. [*Alightan*, Saxon.] To  
a horse or carriage.—When Naaman  
ning after him, he *lighted* down from  
o meet him. 2 *Kings*, v. 21.—  
saw 'em salute on horseback,  
m when they *lighted*, how they clung  
bracement. *Shak.*

—Plant trees and shrubs near home, for bees to  
pitch on at their swarming, that they may not be  
in danger of being loft for want of a *lighting* place.

*Mortimer.*  
(1.) \* To LIGHTEN. *v. a.* [from *light*.] 1. To  
illuminate; to enlighten.—  
Upon his bloody finger he doth wear  
A precious ring, that *lightens* all the hole. *Shak.*  
O light, which mak'st the light, which mak'st  
the day,  
Which sett'st the eye without, and mind within;  
*Lighten* my spirit with one clear heav'nly ray,  
Which now to view itself doth first begin. *Davies.*  
A key of fire ran all along the shore,  
And *lighten'd* all the river with a blaze. *Dryd.*  
Nature from the storm  
Shines out afresh; and through the *lighten'd* air  
A higher lustre, and a clearer calm,  
Diffusive tremble. *Thomson's Summer.*

2. To exonerate; to unload. [from *light*, *adj.*]  
—The mariners were afraid, and cast forth the  
wares that were in the ship into the sea, to *light-*  
*ten* it. *Jon.* i. 7. 3. To make less heavy.—  
Now I feel by proof,  
That fellowship in pain divides not smart,  
Nor *lightens* aught each man's peculiar load.

*Milton.*  
Strive  
In offices of love how we may *lighten*  
Each other's burden. *Milton.*

4. To exhilarate; to cheer.—  
A trusty villain, very oft,  
When I am dull with care and melancholy,  
*Lightens* my humour with his merry jest. *Shak.*  
—Few tragedies shall succeed in this age, if they  
are not *lightened* with a course of mirth. *Dryden.*

(2.) \* To LIGHTEN. *v. n.* [*bit light*, Saxon.] 1.  
To flash, with thunder.—  
This dreadful night,  
That thunders, *lightens*, opens graves, and roars  
As doth the lion. *Shak.*  
I have no joy of this contract to-night;  
It is too rash, too unadvis'd, too sudden,  
Too like the light'ning, which doth cease to be  
Ere one can say it *lightens*. *Shak.*  
—The lightning that *lighteneth* out of the one part  
under heaven, sheweth unto the other part.

2. To shine like lightning.—  
Yet looks he like a king: behold his eye,  
As bright as is the eagle's, *lightens* forth  
Controlling Majesty. *Shak.*  
3. To fall to light.—O Lord, let thy mercy *light-*  
*ten* upon us, as we do put our trust in thee. *Com-*  
*mon Prayer.*

(1.) \* LIGHTER. *n. f.* [from *light*, to make light].

A heavy boat into which ships are lightened or unloaded.—They have cock boats for passengers, and lighters for burthen. *Carew.*—

He climb'd a stranded lighter's height,  
Shot to the black abyss, and plung'd down-right. *Pope.*

(2.) LIGHTER, a large, open, flat-bottomed vessel, generally managed with oars, and employed to carry goods to or from a ship when she is to be laden or delivered.—There are also some lighters furnished with a deck throughout their whole length, to carry goods which would be damaged by rainy weather. These are usually called *close lighters*.

\* LIGHTERMAN. *n. s.* [*lighter* and *man*.] One who manages a lighter.—Where much shipping is employed, whatever becomes of the merchant, multitudes of people will be gainers; as shipwrights, butchers, carmen, and *lightermen*. *Child.*

\* LIGHTFINGERED. *adj.* [*light* and *finger*.] Nimble at conveyance; thievish.

(1.) LIGHTFOOT, John, D. D. a very learned English divine, was the son of a divine, and born in March 1602, at Stoke upon Trent in Staffordshire. Having finished his studies at Morton-green near Congleton, Cheshire, he went in 1617 to Cambridge, where he was thought the best orator of the under-graduates in the university. He also made an extraordinary proficiency in the Latin and Greek; but neglected the Hebrew. His taste for the oriental languages was not yet excited; and as for logic, the study of it, as then conducted among the academics, was too quarrelsome for his meek disposition. As soon as he had taken the degree of B. A. he left the university, and became assitant to a school at Repton in Derbyshire. About a years after he entered into orders, and became curate of Norton under Hales in Shropshire; near Bellaport, the seat of Sir Rowland Cotton; who, being his constant hearer, made him his chaplain, and took him into his house. This gentleman being a perfect master of the Hebrew language, engaged Lightfoot in that study; who soon became sensible that without that knowledge it was impossible to attain an accurate understanding of the scriptures. He therefore applied himself to it with extraordinary vigour, and quickly made great progress in it: and his patron removing with his family to London, at the request of Sir Allan Cotton his uncle, then lord-mayor, he followed him thither. But, wishing to improve himself by travelling, he went down into Staffordshire to take leave of his parents. Passing through Stone in that county, he found the place destitute of a minister: and the pressing solicitations of the parishioners prevailed upon him to undertake that cure. Laying aside his design therefore of travelling, he resolved to settle at home. During his residence at Bellaport, he had fallen acquainted with a daughter of William Crompton of Stonepark, Esq; and now, being in possession of that living, he married her in 1628. But his unquenchable thirst after rabbinical learning would not suffer him to continue there. Simon college library at London, he knew, was well stocked with books of that kind. He therefore quitted his charge at Stone, and removed with

his family to Hornsey, near London, where he gave the public a notable specimen of his advancement in those studies, by his *Erubini, or Mysteries Christian and Judaical*, in 1629. He was then only 27 years of age; and appears to have been well acquainted with the Latin and the Greek fathers, as well as with the classics. These fruits of his studies were dedicated to Sir Rowland Cotton; who, in 1632, presented him to the rectory of Ashley in Staffordshire. As he seemed now to be fixed for life, he built a study in the garden, to be out of the noise of the house; and applied himself with indefatigable diligence to searching the scriptures. Thus employed, many days passed very agreeably, till the great change which happened in the public affairs brought him into a share of the administration relating to the church; for he was nominated a member of the memorable assembly of divines at Westminster for settling a new form of ecclesiastical polity. This appointment was merely the effect of his distinguished merit; and he accepted it solely with a view to serve his country, as far as lay in his power. This induced him to resign his rectory, and having obtained the presentation for a younger brother, he set out for London in 1642. He has now satisfied himself in clearing up many of the abstrusest passages in the Bible, and therein provided the chief materials, as well as formed the plan, of his *Harmony*; which he embraced the opportunity of putting to the press, at London, where he had not been long before he was chosen minister of St Bartholomew's. The assembly of divines meeting in 1643, he attended regularly, and made a distinguished figure in their debates; where he used great freedom, and gave signal proofs of his courage as well as learning, opposing many of those tenets which some of the divines endeavoured to establish. His learning commended him to the parliament, whose votes having ejected Dr William Spurstow from the mastership of Catharine-hall in Cambridge, he presented Lightfoot in his place, in 1653; and he was presented to the living of Much-Munden in Bedfordshire, upon the death of Dr Samuel Walsley. Meanwhile he had his turn in preaching before the house of commons, most of which sermons were printed; and in them we see him warmly pressing the speedy settlement of the church in the Presbyterian form, which he cordially believed to be most agreeable to scripture. He was all the while employed in publishing the several branches of his *Harmony*, which afforded so many decisive proofs of the usefulness of learning to true religion: but he met with great discouragements in that work, chiefly from that anti-credulous spirit which prevailed, and even threatened the destruction of the universities. In 1655, he entered upon the office of vice-chancellor of Cambridge to which he was chosen that year, having taken the degree of D. D. in 1652, with great applause. He executed the office of vice-chancellor with exemplary diligence, and, at the commencement, he disposed of. At the same time he was employed with others in perfecting the Polyglott Bible in the press. At the Restoration he offered to resign the mastership of Catharine-hall; but, as

n no spirit of opposition to the king-  
 nt, a confirmation was granted him  
 vn, both of the place and of his li-  
 vter this he was appointed one of  
 at the conference upon the liturgy,  
 but attended only once or twice;  
 ufted at the heat with which that  
 was managed. However, he stuck  
 sign of perfecting his Harmony: and  
 uthy constitution, and exact tempe-  
 secuted his studies with vigour to  
 continued to publish, notwithstanding  
 difficulties he met with from the ex-  
 lided Dec. 6, 1675. He was twice  
 first wife brought him 4 sons and 2  
 his second wife was relict of Mr Auf-  
 uncle of Sir Thomas Brograve, Bart.  
 ire, a gentleman well versed in rab-  
 ag, and a particular acquaintance of  
 She also died before him, without  
 s buried in Munden church; where  
 was himself likewise interred. Dr  
 orks were collected and published  
 4, in two volumes folio. The  
 was printed at Amsterdam, 1686,  
 folio, containing all his Latin writ-  
 . Latin translation of those which  
 English. At the end of both  
 there is a list of such pieces as he  
 l. It is the chief of these, in Latin,  
 ip the 3d volume, added to the 2  
 3d edition of his works, by John  
 Jtretch, in 1699, fol. They were  
 d by Mr Strype, who, in 1700, pub-  
 : collection of these papers, under  
 Some genuine remains of the late pi-  
 ed Dr John Lightfoot."

IGHTFOOT. *adj.* [*light* and *foot.*] Nim-  
 3 or dancing; active.—  
 ar had born his *lightfoot* steed,  
 th wrath and fiery fierce disdain,  
 to follow was but fruitless pain.

*Fairy Queen.*  
 he troops of *lightfoot* Naiades  
 out to see her lovely face. *Spenser.*  
 HTFOOT. *n. f.* Venison. A cant

EADED. *adj.* [*light* and *head.*] 1. Un-  
 ; thoughtless; weak.—The English  
 pioussly and wisely soever framed,  
 eat opposition; the ceremonies had  
 upon *lightbeaded*, weak men, yet learn-  
 ed against some particulars. *Clarend.*  
 disordered in the mind by disease  
 EADEDNESS. *n. f.* Delirious; disor-  
 nd.

EARTED. *adj.* [*light* and *heart.*] Gay;  
 cheerful.

RSE. See HORSE, N° IV, § 3.

HTHOUSE. *n. f.* [*light* and *house.*] *Light*  
 ling, at the top of which lights are  
 ships at sea.—He charged himself  
 ie of such vessels as carried corn in  
 built a pharos or *lighthouse.* *Arbut.*  
 poles to the meridian, with immense  
 the top of them. *Arbutnot.*

HT-HOUSE is generally erected up-

on a cape or promontory on the sea-coast, or up-  
 on some rock in the sea, and has on its top in the  
 night-time a great fire, or light formed by can-  
 dles, which is constantly attended by some care-  
 ful person, so as to be seen at a great distance from  
 the land. It is used to direct the shipping on the  
 coast, that might otherwise run ashore, or steer  
 an improper course when the darkness of the night  
 and the uncertainty of currents, &c. might render  
 their situation with regard to the shore extremely  
 doubtful. Lamp lights are, on many accounts,  
 preferable to coal fires or candles; and the effect  
 of these may be increased by placing them either  
 behind glass hemispheres, or before properly dis-  
 posed glass or metal reflectors; which last method  
 is now very generally adopted. See BEACON,  
 § 3.

\* LIGHTLEGGED. *adj.* [*light* and *leg.*] Nim-  
 ble; swift.—*Lightlegged* Pas has got the middle  
 space. *Sidney.*

\* LIGHTLESS. *adj.* [from *light.*] Wanting  
 light; dark.

\* LIGHTLY. *adv.* [from *light.*] 1. Without  
 weight.—

This grave partakes the fleshly birth,

Which cover *lightly* gentle earth. *Ben. Jonson.*

2. Without deep impression.—

The soft ideas of the cheerful note.

*Lightly* receiv'd, were easily forgot. *Prior.*

3. Easily; readily; without difficulty; of course.

—If they write or speak publickly but five words,  
 one of them is *lightly* about the dangerous estate  
 of the church of England in respect of abused ce-  
 remonies. *Hooker.*—

Believe't not *lightly* that your son

Will not exceed the common. *Shak.*

Short summer *lightly* has a forward spring.

4. Without reason.—Flatter not the rich; neither

do thou willingly or *lightly* appear before great

personages. *Taylor's Guide.*—Let every man that

hath a calling be diligent in pursuance of its em-  
 ployment, so as not *lightly*, or without reasonable

occasion, to neglect it. *Taylor.* 5. Without de-  
 jection; cheerfully.—

Mid that welcome

Which comes to punish us, and we punish it,

Seeming to bear it *lightly.* *Shak.*

6. Not chastely.—If I were *lightly* disposed, I

could still perhaps have offers, that some, who

hold their heads higher, would be glad to accept.

*Swift.* 7. Nimble; with agility; not heavily or

tardily.—

Methought I stood on a wide river's bank;

When on a sudden, Torismond appear'd,

Gave me his hand, and led me *lightly* o'er.

*Dryden.*

8. Gaily; airily; without levity; without heed

or care.

\* LIGHTMINDED. *adj.* [*light* and *mind.*] Unset-  
 tled; unsteady.—He that is hasty to give credit is

*lightminded.* *Ecl.* xix. 4.

\* LIGHTNESS. *n. f.* [from *light.*] 1. Want

of weight; absence of weight; the contrary to

*heaviness.* Some are for masts of ships, as fir and

pine, because of their length, straightness and

*lightness.* *Bacon.*—Suppose many degrees of lit-  
 tleness

teness and *lightness* in particles, so as many might float in the air a good while before they fell. *Burnet*.

2. Inconstancy; unsteadiness.—

For, unto knight there is no greater shame,  
Than *lightness* and inconstancy in love. *F. Q.*  
—Of two things they must chuse one; namely,  
whether they would, to their endless disgrace,  
with ridiculous *lightness*, dismiss him, whose re-  
stitution they had in so importunate manner de-  
sired, or else condescend unto that demand. *Hook-*  
*er*.—

Commanded always by the greatest gust;  
Such is the *lightness* of you common men. *Shak.*

3. Unchastity; want of conduct in women.—Is  
it the disdain of my estate, or the opinion of my  
*lightness*, that emboldened such base fancies to-  
wards me? *Sidney*.—

Can it be,  
That modesty may more betray our sense,  
Than woman's *lightness*? *Shak.*

4. Agility; nimbleness.

(1.) \* LIGHTNING. *n. f.* [from *lighten*, *light-*  
*ening*, *lightning*.] 1. The flash that attends thun-  
der.—*Lightning* is a great flame, very bright, ex-  
tending every way to a great distance, suddenly  
darting upwards, and there ending, so that it is  
only momentaneous. *Muschenbroek*.—

Sense thinks the *lightning* born before the  
thunder;

What tells us then they both together are? *Davies*.

Salmoneus, suff'ring cruel pains I found  
For emulating *Jove*; the rattling sound  
Of mimic thunder, and the glitt'ring blaze  
Of pointed *lightnings*, and their forky rays. *Dryden*.

Like travellers by *lightning* kill'd,  
I burnt the moment I beheld. *Grave*.

2. Mitigation; abatement I beheld. [from *light-*  
*en*, to make less heavy.]—

How oft when men are at the point of death,  
Have they been merry? which their keepers  
call

A *lightning* before death. *Shak.*

—We were once in hopes of his recovery, but  
this only proved a *lightning* before death. *Addison*.

(2.) LIGHTNING (§1. *def.* 1.) is a bright and vivid  
flash of fire, suddenly appearing in the atmosphere,  
and commonly disappearing in an instant, some-  
times attended with clouds and thunder, and  
sometimes not.

(3.) LIGHTNING, ANCIENT SUPERSTITIONS  
RESPECTING. Lightning was looked upon as fa-  
cred both by the Greeks and Romans, and was sup-  
posed to be sent to execute vengeance on the  
earth. Hence persons killed with lightning, be-  
ing thought hateful to the gods, were buried by  
themselves, lest the ashes of other men should be  
polluted by them. Some say they were suf-  
fered to rot where they fell, because it was un-  
lawful for any man to approach the place. For  
this reason the ground was hedged in, lest any  
person should be polluted by it. All places struck  
with lightning were fenced round, from an opi-  
nion that Jupiter had either taken offence at them,  
and fixed upon them the marks of his displeasure,  
or that he had thus pitched upon them as sacred  
to himself. The ground thus fenced about was

called by the Romans *bidental*. Lightning  
much observed in augury, and was a good  
bad omen, according to the circumstances at-  
tending it.

(4.) LIGHTNING, DIFFERENT APPEARANCES  
OF. The phenomena of lightning are always  
prising, and sometimes very terrible; neither  
there any kind of natural appearance in wa-  
ter there is more diversity, not two flashes being  
observed exactly similar. In a serene sky, the li-  
gning, in this country at least, almost always has  
kind of indistinct appearance without any de-  
minate form, like the sudden illumination of  
atmosphere occasioned by firing a quantity  
loose gunpowder; but when accompanied  
thunder, it is well defined, and hath very  
a zig-zag form. Sometimes it makes one an-  
like the letter V, sometimes it hath several  
ches, and sometimes it appears like the arch  
circle. But the most formidable and destruc-  
form which lightning is ever known to assume  
that of balls of fire. (See BALL, § 27.) The  
motion of these is very often easily perceptible  
the eye; but wherever they fall, much mischief  
occasioned by their bursting, which they al-  
do with a sudden explosion like that of fire-  
Sometimes they will quietly run along, or roll  
a little upon any thing, and then break into  
ral pieces, each of which will explode; or  
whole ball will burst at once, and produce  
mischiefous effects only in one place. The  
to this in its destructive effects is the zig-zag  
for that which appears like indistinct flashes, of  
form cannot be readily observed, is seldom or  
ver known to do hurt. The colour of the li-  
gning also indicates in some measure its pow-  
do mischief; the palest and brightest flashes be-  
most destructive; such as are red, or of a dark  
colour, commonly doing less damage. Between  
these kinds of lightning, it is not uncommon  
to see flashes unattended by any report. These  
are always of the sheet kind; they happen  
frequently in windy weather; when the sky is  
clear; and likewise when the sky is cloudy  
mediately before a fall of rain or snow. The  
neral reason of these appears to be, that the  
tric fluid is the medium by which the vapour  
suspended in the atmosphere; and of consequence  
every separation of vapour, whether as rain, snow,  
or hail, must be attended with what is called  
*discharge* of electrical matter. The reason  
this kind of lightning is never attended with  
report is, that there is no particular object upon  
which the force of the flash is directed; it  
dissipates itself among the innumerable con-  
ing bodies with which the atmosphere always  
bounds. It is, however, in a manner impos-  
sible to explain the various ways in which this  
fluid acts. We know not, for instance, in what  
state it is, when acting as a medium of contact  
between the air and vapour, nor in what man-  
ner it *discharges* into other parts of the atmosphere  
ly consists. At any rate, we see that a  
lightning, however limited its extent may be,  
appear, diffuses its effects over a great space of  
atmosphere; for after one of these silent flashes  
is no uncommon thing to observe the sky become  
obscure though it had been quite serene before



f it had been cloudy, to see rain or snow begin to fall in a very few minutes. It is probable indeed, that no change whatever takes place in the atmosphere but by electricity; and that the silent discharges of this fluid from one part of the atmosphere to another, many of which are totally visible, ultimately occasion the whole phenomena of METEOROLOGY. See that article.

(5.) LIGHTNING, EXTRAORDINARY PROPERTIES AND EFFECTS OF. A very surprising property of lightning, the zig-zag kind especially when near, is its seeming omnipresence. If two persons are standing in a room looking different ways, and a loud clap of thunder accompanied with zig-zag lightning happens, they will both distinctly see the flash, not only by that indistinct illumination of the atmosphere which is occasioned by fire of any kind; but the very form of the lightning itself, and every angle it makes in its course, will be as distinctly perceptible, as if both had looked directly at the cloud from whence it proceeded. If a person happened at that time to be looking at a book, or other object which he held in his hand, he would distinctly see the form of the lightning between him and the object at which he looked. This property seems peculiar to lightning, and to belong to no other kind of fire whatever. The effects of lightning are seldom similar to those which accompany explosions of gun-powder, or inflammable air. Instances of this kind, however, have occurred; one of the most remarkable is related under ELECTRICITY, § 129. Upon that occasion, "a tent in a gentleman's garden was carried to the distance of 4000 paces; and a branch torn from a large tree, struck a girl in the forehead as she was coming into town, at the distance of 40 paces from the trunk of the tree, and killed her on the spot." These terrible effects seem to have been owing to the prodigious agitation in the air, occasioned by the emission of such a vast quantity of lightning at once; or perhaps to the agitation of the electric fluid itself, which is still more dangerous than any concussion of the atmosphere; for thunder storms do sometimes produce most violent whirlwinds, see ELECTRICITY, § 130—132. In August 1763, a most violent storm of thunder, rain, and hail happened at London, which did damage in the adjacent country, to the amount of 50,000*l*. Hailstones fell of an immense size, from two to ten inches circumference; but the most surprising circumstance was the sudden flux and reflux of the tide in Plymouth pool, exactly corresponding with the like agitation in the same place, at the time of the great earthquake at Lisbon. Instances are also occurred where lightning, by its own proper force, without any assistance from those common agitations of the atmosphere or electric fluid, hath thrown stones of immense weight at considerable distances; torn up trees by the roots, and broke them in pieces; shattered rocks; set down houses, and set them on fire, &c. The following singular effect of lightning is recorded in the 66th vol. of the *Philos. Transf.* upon a pyed bullock. "In the evening of Sunday, the 28th August, 1774, there was an appearance of a thunder storm, but we heard no report. A gentleman was riding near the marshes not far from this

town (Lewes) saw two strong flashes of lightning, running along the ground of the marsh, at about 9 o'clock P.M. On Monday morning, when the servants of Mr Roger, a farmer at Swanborough, went into the marsh to fetch the oxen to their work, they found one of them, a four-year-old steer, standing up, no appearance much burnt, and so weak as to be scarce able to walk. The animal seemed to have been struck by lightning in a very extraordinary manner. He is of a white and red colour; the white in large marks, beginning at the rump bone, and running in various directions along both sides; the belly is all white, and the whole head and horns white like wife. The lightning, with which he must have been undoubtedly struck, fell upon the rump bone, which is white, and distributed itself along the sides in such a manner as to take off all the hair from the white marks as low as the bottom of the ribs, but so as to leave a list of white hair, about half an inch broad, all round where it joined to the red, and not a single hair of the red appears to be touched. The whole belly is unburnt, but the end of the sheath of the penis has the hair taken off; it is also taken off from the dewlap; the horns and the curled hair on the forehead are uninjured; but the hair is taken off from the sides of the face, from the flat part of the jaw-bones, and from the front of the face in stripes. There are a few white marks on the side and neck, which are surrounded with red; and the hair is taken off from them, leaving half an inch of white adjoining to the red. The farmer anointed the ox with oil for a fortnight; the animal purged very much at first, and was greatly reduced in flesh, but is now recovering." In another account of this accident, the author supposes that the bullock had been lying down at the time he was struck; which shows the reason that the under parts were not touched. "The lightning, conducted by the white hair, from the top of the back down the sides, came to the ground at the place where the white hair was left entire." The author of this account says, that he inquired of Mr Tooth a farrier, whether he ever knew of a similar accident; and that he told him "the circumstance was not new to him; that he had seen many pyed bullocks struck by lightning in the same manner; that the texture of the skin under the white hair was always destroyed, though looking fair at first; but after a while it became sore, throwing out a putrid matter in pustules, like the small-pox with us, which in time falls off, when the hair grows again, and the bullocks receive no farther injury;" which was the case with the bullock in question. In a subsequent letter, however, the very same author informs us, that he had inquired of Mr Tooth "whether he ever saw a stroke of lightning actually fall upon a pyed bullock, so as to destroy the white hair, and show evident marks of burning, leaving the red hair uninjured? He said he never did; nor did he recollect any one that had. He gave an account, however, of a pyed horse, belonging to himself, which had been struck dead by lightning in the night time." The explosion was so violent, that Mr Tooth imagined his house had been struck, and therefore immediately got up. On going into the stable he found the horse al-

cause it hath an electricity opposite to that of the lightning itself. Those objects, therefore, which form the most perfect conductors between the electrified clouds and that zone of earth, will be struck by the lightning, whether they are high or low; and because we know not the conducting quality of the different terrestrial substances, the superstitious are apt to ascribe strokes of lightning to the divine vengeance against particular persons, whereas it is certain that this fluid, as well as others, acts according to invariable rules from which it is never known to depart.

(9.) LIGHTNING, NATURAL INSUFFICIENCY OF CONDUCTORS TO PREVENT DANGER FROM. Lightning, in severe thunder storms, is supposed to proceed from the earth, as well as from the clouds: but this hath never been well ascertained, and indeed from the nature of the thing it seems very difficult to be ascertained; for the motion of the electric fluid is so very quick, that it is altogether impossible to determine, by means of our senses, whether it goes from the earth or comes to it. In fact, there are in this country many thunder storms, in which it doth not appear that the lightning touches any part of the earth, and consequently can neither go to it nor come out from it. In these cases, it flashes either from an electrified cloud to one endowed with an opposite electricity, or merely into those parts of the atmosphere which are ready to receive it. But if not only the clouds, but the atmosphere all the way betwixt them and the earth, and likewise for a considerable space above the clouds, are electrified one way, the earth must then be struck. The reason of this will appear from a consideration of the principles laid down under the article ELECTRICITY, PART II. *Sec.* I, and VIII. It there appears, that the electric fluid is altogether incapable either of *accumulation* or *diminution* in quantity in any particular part of space. What we call *electricity* is only the motion of this fluid made perceptible to our senses. Positive electricity is when the current of electric matter is directed from the electrified body. Negative electricity is when the current is directed towards it. Let us now suppose, that a positively electrified cloud is formed over a certain part of the earth's surface. The electric matter flows out from it first into the atmosphere all round; and while it is doing so, the atmosphere is negatively electrified. In proportion, however, as the electric current pervades greater and greater portions of the atmospherical space, the greater is the resistance to its motion, till at last the air becomes positively electrified as well as the cloud, and then both act together as one body. The surface of the earth then begins to be affected, and it silently receives the electric matter by means of the trees, grass, &c. till at last it becomes positively electrified also, and begins to send off a current of electricity from the surface downwards. The causes which at first produced the electricity of the clouds, (See THUNDER,) still continuing to act, the power of the electric current becomes inconceivably great. The danger of the thunder storm now begins; for as the force of the lightning is directed to some place below the surface of the earth, it will certainly dart towards that place,

and shatter every thing to pieces which resists its passage. The benefit of conducting rods, will now also be evident: for the electric matter will in all cases take the way where it meets with the least resistance; and this is through the substance or rather *over* the surface, of metals. In such a case, therefore, if there happen to be a house furnished with a conductor directly below the cloud and at the same time a zone of negatively electrified earth not very far below the foundation of the house, the conductor will almost certainly be struck, but the building will be unhurt. If the house wants a conductor, the lightning will nevertheless strike in the same place, in order to get at the negatively electrified zone above mentioned; but the building will now be damaged, because the materials of it cannot readily conduct the electric fluid. This leads us to consider the dispute, Whether the preference is due to knobbed or pointed conductors for preserving buildings from strokes of lightning? Ever since the discovery of the identity of electricity and lightning, it hath been allowed by all parties, that conductors of some kind are essentially necessary for the safety of buildings in those countries where thunder storms are frequent. The principle on which they act hath been already explained; namely, that the electric fluid, when impelled by any power, always goes to that place where it meets with the least resistance, as all other fluids do. As metals, therefore, are found to give the least resistance to its passage, it will always choose to run along a metal rod, in preference to a passage of any other kind. We must, however, carefully consider a circumstance which seems to have been too much overlooked by electricians in their reasonings concerning the effects of thunder rods; namely, That lightning, or electricity, never strikes a body, merely for the sake of the body itself, but only because by means of that body it can readily arrive at the place of its destination. When a quantity of electricity is collected from the earth, by an electrical machine, a body communicating with the earth will receive a strong spark from the prime conductor. The body receives this spark, not because it is itself capable of containing all the electricity of the conductor and cylinder, but because the natural situation of the fluid being disturbed by the motion of the machine, a stream of it is sent off from the earth. The natural powers, therefore, make an effort to supply what is thus drained off from the earth; and as the individual quantity which comes out is most proper for supplying the deficiency, as not being employed in any natural purpose, there is always an effort made for returning it to the earth. No sooner, then, is a conducting body, communicating with the earth, presented to the electrical machine, than the whole effort of the electricity is directed against that body not merely because it is a conductor, but because it leads to the place where the fluid is directed by the natural powers by which it is governed at which it would find other means to; though that body were not to be presented. In this case, we may very easily satisfy ourselves, by presenting the very same conducting substance in an insulated state to the prime conductor of the machine; for then we shall

er, when lightning strikes a tree, a house, or under rod, it is not because these objects are in the neighbourhood of the cloud; but because they communicate with some place on the surface of the ground, against which the lightning is directed; and at that place lightning would certainly arrive, though the above-mentioned objects had been in the way.

The fallacy of that kind of reasoning is now employed concerning the use of thunder rods, and will now be apparent. Because a point produces an electrified body in our experiments, and draws off the electricity in a silent manner, therefore Dr Franklin and his followers conclude that a pointed conductor will do the same in a thunder cloud, and thus effectually remove any kind of danger from a stroke of lightning. Their reasoning on this subject, they think, is proved by the following fact among many others.

“ Dr Franklin’s house at Philadelphia was furnished with a rod extending 9 feet above the top of the chimney. To this rod was connected a wire of the thickness of a goose-quill, descended through the wall of the staircase, where an interruption was made, so that the ends of the wire, to each of which a little bell was attached, were distant from each other about six inches, an insulated brass ball hanging between the bells. The author was one night waked by a series of cracks, proceeding from his apparatus in the same manner as usual. He perceived, that the brass ball, vibrating as usual between the bells, was kept at a distance from both; while sometimes passed in very large quick cracks from bell to bell; and sometimes in a continuous white stream, seemingly as large as a river; by means of which the whole staircase was lightened, as with sun-shine, so that he could see to pick up a pin. From the apparent want of electric matter of which the cloud is evidently robbed, by means of the point, and of which a blunt conductor would deprive it, the author conceives, that the want of such conductors must considerably diminish the quantity of electric fluid contained in a roaching cloud, before it comes so near as to discharge its contents in a general stroke.” For this reason, Mr B. Wilson and his followers, who are of the opposite party, have determined to make use of pointed conductors is utterly unnecessary. They say, that in violent thunder storms the atmosphere is full of electricity; and attempts to exhaust the vast quantity there contained, are like attempting to clear away an inundation with a shovel, or to exhaust the atmosphere with a pair of bellows. They maintain, that though pointed bodies will effectually prevent the accumulation of electricity in any subject, yet if a non-electrified body is interposed between a point and the conductor of an electrical machine, the point will be struck at the same moment as the non-electrified body, and at a much greater distance than that at which a knob would be struck. They affirm also, that, by means of the solicitation of the lightning, inflammable substances such as gun-powder, tinder, and Kunkersphorus, may be set on fire; and for

these last facts they bring decisive experiments. From all this, say they, it is evident, that the use of pointed conductors is unsafe. They solicit a discharge to the place where they are; and as they are unable to conduct the whole electricity in the atmosphere, it is impossible for us to know whether the discharge they solicit may not be too great for our conductor to bear; and consequently all the mischiefs arising from thunder storms may be expected, with this additional and mortifying circumstance, that this very conductor hath probably solicited the fatal stroke, when without it the cloud might have passed harmless over our heads without striking at all. Here the reasoning of both parties seems equally wrong. They both proceed on this erroneous principle, That in thunder storms the conductor will always solicit a discharge, or that at such times all the elevated objects on the surface of the earth are drawing off the electricity of the atmosphere. But this cannot be the case, unless the electricity of the earth and of the atmosphere is of a different kind. Now, it is demonstrable, that until this difference between the electricity of the atmosphere and of the surface of the earth ceases, there cannot be a thunder storm. When the atmosphere begins to be electrified either positively or negatively, the earth, by means of the inequalities and moisture of its surface, but especially by the vegetables which grow upon it, absorbs that electricity, and quickly becomes electrified in the same manner with the atmosphere. This absorption, however, ceases in a very short time, because it cannot be continued without setting in motion the whole of the electric matter contained in the earth itself. Alternate zones of positive and negative electricity will then begin to take place below the surface of the earth, for the reasons mentioned under ELECTRICITY, § 269, 270. Between the atmosphere and one of these zones, the stroke of the lightning always will be. Thus supposing the atmosphere is positively electrified, the surface of the earth will, by means of trees, &c. quickly become positively electrified also; we shall suppose to the depth of 10 feet. The electricity cannot penetrate farther on account of the resistance of the electric matter in the bowels of the earth. At the depth of 10 feet from the surface, therefore, a zone of negatively electrified earth begins, and to this zone the electricity of the atmosphere is attracted; but to this it cannot get, without breaking through the positively electrified zone which lies uppermost, and shattering to pieces every bad conductor which comes in its way. We are sure, therefore, that in whatever places the outer zone of positively electrified earth is thinnest, there the lightning will strike, whether a conductor be present or not. If there is a conductor, either knobbed or sharp-pointed, the lightning will indeed infallibly strike it; but it would also have struck a house situated on that spot, without any conductor; and if the house had not been there, it would have struck the surface of the ground. Again, if we suppose the house with its conductor to stand on a part of the ground where the positively electrified zone is very thick, the conductor will neither silently draw off the electricity, nor will the lightning strike it, though

perhaps it may strike a much lower object, the surface of the ground itself, at no distance; the reason of which undoubtedly is, that there the zone of positively electrified air is thinner than where the conductor was. Franklinians therefore make their pointed conductors to be of too great consequence. To those on which they are fixed, no doubt, importance is very great: but in exhausting a cloud of its electricity, their use must be trifling; and to insist on it, ridiculous. In such objects, as trees, grass, &c. are all to draw off the electricity, as well as pointed conductors, if it could be drawn off; but of this there is an impossibility, because they have the same kind of electricity with themselves. The conductor hath not the power of *attracting* the lightning; a few feet of the direction which it would choose of. Of this we have a most decisive instance happened to the magazine at Purfleet in May 15, 1777. That house was furnished with a pointed conductor, raised above the highest part of the building; nevertheless, at 4 P. M. a flash of lightning struck an iron nail in the corner of the wall considerably lower than the top of the conductor, and only 64 feet a sloping line distant from the point.—This occasioned a long dispute with Mr Wilson concerning the propriety of using pointed conductors, and, by the favour of his majesty, he was allowed to construct a more magnificent edifice than any private person could be allowed to erect at his own expence, and of which some account is given under ELECTRICITY, § 204. The only new experiments, however, which this apparatus produced, were the firing of gunpowder by the electric *aura* as it is called; and a particularly violent shock which a person received when he held a small pointed wire in his hand, upon which the conductor was discharged. The electrified surface of the conductor was 620 feet; and we can have but little idea of the strength of sparks from a conductor of this magnitude, supposing it properly electrified. Six turns of the wheel made the discharge felt through the whole body like the strong shock of a Leyden vial; and nobody chose to make the experiment when the conductor had received a higher charge. A very strong shock was felt, when this conductor was discharged upon a pointed wire held in a person's hand, even though the wire communicated with the earth; which was not felt, or but very little, when a knobbed wire was made use of. To account for this difference may, perhaps, puzzle electricians; but with regard to the use of blunt or pointed thunder rods, both experiments seem quite inconclusive. Though a very great quantity of electric matter silently drawn off will fire gunpowder, this only proves that a pointed conductor ought not to pass through a barrel of gunpowder; and if a person holding a pointed wire in his hand received a strong shock from Mr Wilson's great conductor, it can thence only be inferred, that in the time of thunder nobody ought to hold the conductor in their hands; both which precautions common sense would dictate without any experiment. From the accident at Purfleet,

however, the disputants on both sides ought to have seen, that, with regard to lightning, neither points nor knobs can *attract*. Mr Wilson surely had no reason to condemn the pointed conductor for *soliciting* the flash of lightning, seeing it did not strike the point of the conductor, but a blunt cramp of iron; neither have the Franklinians any reason to boast of its effect in *silently drawing off* the electric matter, since all its powers were neither able to prevent the flash, nor to turn it 46 feet out of its way. The fact is, the lightning was determined to enter the earth at the place where the board-house stands, or near it. The conductor fixed on the house offered the easiest communication; but 46 feet of air intervening between the point of the conductor and the place of explosion, the resistance was less through the blunt cramp of iron, and a few bricks moistened with rain-water, to the side of the metalline conductor, than through the 46 feet of air to its point; for the former was the way in which the lightning actually passed. Mr Wilson and his followers seem also mistaken, in supposing that a pointed conductor can solicit a greater discharge, than what would otherwise happen. Allowing the quantity of electricity in the atmosphere during the time of a thunder storm to be as great as they please to suppose; nevertheless, it is impossible that the air can part with all its electricity at once, on account of the difficulty with which the fluid moves in it. A pointed conductor, therefore, if it does any thing at all, can only solicit the partial discharge which is to be made at any rate; and if none were to be made though the conductor was absent, its presence will not be able to effect any. An objection to the use of conductors, whether blunt or pointed, may be drawn from the accident which happened to the poor's house at Heckingham, which was struck by lightning though furnished with pointed conductors; but from an accurate consideration of the manner in which the conductors were situated, it appears, that there was not the possibility of their preventing any stroke. See *Philos. Transf.* Vol. LXXII. p. 361.

(10.) LIGHTNING, NEW SPECIES AND THEORIES. In a late publication on the subject of electricity by the E. of Stanhope (then Lord Mahon) we find a new kind of lightning mentioned, which he is of opinion may give a fatal stroke, even though the main explosion be at a considerable distance; a mile, for instance, or more. This he calls the *electrical returning stroke*; and exemplifies in the following manner, from some experiments made with a very powerful electrical machine the prime conductor of which (six feet long, and one foot diameter) would generally, when the weather was favourable, strike into a brass ball connected with the earth, to the distance of 100 inches or more. In the following account, the brass ball, which we shall call *A*, is supposed to be constantly placed at the *striking distance*; so that the prime conductor, the instant that becomes fully charged, explodes into it. Another large conductor, which we shall call the *cond. conductor*, is suspended, in a perfectly insulated state, farther from the prime conductor than the *striking distance*, but within its *electrical atmosphere*; at the distance of *six feet*, for instance.

standing on an insulating stool touches this conductor very lightly with a finger of his right hand; while with a finger of his left hand, he communicates with the earth, by touching very gently a second brass ball fixed at the top of a stand, on the floor, and which we shall call *B*. While the prime conductor is receiving electricity, sparks pass (at least if the distance between the two conductors is not too great) from the prime conductor to the insulated person's right hand, while similar and simultaneous sparks pass from the finger of his left hand into the stand, communicating with the earth. These sparks are part of the natural quantity of electric matter belonging to the second conductor, driven from them to the earth, through the ball *B*, and its stand, by the elastic pressure or action of the electrical fire of the prime conductor. The second conductor and the insulated person are hereby reduced to a negative state. At length, however, the prime conductor, having acquired its full charge, suddenly strikes into the ball *A*, of the stand, placed for that purpose at the distance of 17 or 18 inches. The explosion is made, and the prime conductor suddenly deprived of its electric atmosphere, its presence upon the second conductor, and on the insulated person, as suddenly ceases; and the latter instantly feels a smart returning stroke, though not direct or visible communication (except through the floor) either with the striking or struck body, which is placed at the distance of five or six feet from them. This returning stroke is evinced by the sudden re-entrance of the fire naturally belonging to his body and to the second conductor, which had before been expelled from them by the action of the charged prime conductor upon them; and which returns to their former place the instant that action of elastic pressure ceases. The author shows, that there is no reason to suppose that the electrical fire from the prime conductor should in this case divide itself at the instant of the explosion into two different ways, so as to strike the second conductor and insulated person in this manner at such a distance from it. When the second conductor and the insulated person are placed in the same part of the electrical atmosphere of the prime conductor, or just beyond the striking point, the effects are still more considerable; the returning stroke being extremely severe and sharp, and appearing considerably sharper than the main stroke itself, received directly from the prime conductor. This circumstance the author argues as an unanswerable proof that the effect which he calls the returning stroke, was not produced by the main stroke being any wise divided at the instant of the explosion, since no effect can ever be produced other than the cause by which it is immediately produced.—Living taken the morning, he felt a considerable pain across his chest during the evening, and a disagreeable sensation in his wrists all the next day. We come now to the application of this experiment, and of the results deduced from it, to what passes in natural

electricity, or during a thunder storm; in which there is reason to expect similar effects, but on a larger scale:—a scale so large indeed, according to the author's representation, that persons and animals may be destroyed, and particular parts of buildings may be considerably damaged, by an electrical returning stroke, occasioned even by some very distant explosion from a thunder cloud:—possibly at the distance of a mile or more. It is certainly easy to conceive, that a charged extensive thunder cloud must be productive of effects similar to those produced by the author's prime conductor. Like it, while it continues charged, it will, by the superinduced elastic electrical pressure of its atmosphere, to use the author's own expression, drive into the earth a part of the electric fluid naturally belonging to the bodies which are within the reach of its widely extended atmosphere; and which will therefore become negatively electrical. This portion too of their electric fire, as in the artificial experiments will, on the explosion of the cloud, at a distance, and the cessation of its action upon them, suddenly return to them; so as to produce an equilibrium and restore them to their natural state.

(II.) LIGHTNING, OBJECTIONS TO LORD STANHOPE'S THEORY OF. To this theory, the authors of the *Monthly Review* have made several objections: "We cannot, however, agree (say they) with the ingenious author, with respect to the greatness of the effects, or of the danger to be apprehended from the returning stroke in this case; as we think his estimate is grounded on an erroneous foundation.—' Since (says he) the density of the electrical atmosphere of a thunder cloud is so immense, when compared to the electrical density of the electrical atmosphere of any prime conductor, charged by means of any electrical apparatus whatsoever; and since a returning stroke, when produced by the sudden removal of even the weakest elastic electrical pressure of the electrical atmosphere of a charged prime conductor, may be extremely strong, as we have seen above; it is mathematically evident, that, when a returning stroke comes to be produced by the sudden removal of the very strong elastic electrical pressure of the electrical atmosphere of a thunder cloud powerfully charged; the strength of such a returning stroke must be enormous.'—' If indeed the quantity of electric fluid naturally contained in the body of a man, for instance, were immense, or indefinite, the author's estimate between the effects producible by a cloud, and those caused by a prime conductor, might be admitted. But surely an electrified cloud,—how great soever may be its extent, and the height of its charge when compared with the extent and charge of a prime conductor—cannot expel from a man's body (or any other body) more than the natural quantity of electricity which it contains. On the sudden removal, therefore, of the pressure by which this natural quantity had been expelled, in consequence of the explosion of the cloud into the earth; no more (at the utmost) than his whole natural stock of electricity can re-enter his body. But we have no reason to suppose that this quantity is so great, as that its sudden re-entrance into his body should

destroy or even injure him." The Reviewers urge several other arguments against the Earl's theory, for which we must refer to their work.

(12.) LIGHTNING, REPRESENTATIONS OF, OR ARTIFICIAL LIGHTNING. Before Dr Franklin discovered the identity of electricity and lightning, many contrivances were invented to represent this terrifying phenomenon in miniature. The corrugations of phosphorus in warm weather, the ascension of the vapour of spirit of wine evaporated in a close place, &c. were used in order to support the hypothesis which at that time prevailed; namely, that lightning was formed of some sulphureous, nitrous, or other combustible vapours, floating in long trains in the atmosphere, which, by some unaccountable means took fire, and produced all the destructive effects of that phenomenon. These representations, however, are now no more exhibited; and the only true artificial lightning is universally acknowledged to be the discharge of electric matter from bodies in which it is artificially set in motion by electrical machines. See ELECTRICITY, *Ind. x.*

(13.) LIGHTNING, SINGULAR ACCIDENT DURING A STORM OF. A late melancholy accident which happened in Scotland afforded Lord Stanhope several additional arguments in favour of his system. An account of this accident is given by Patrick Brydone, Esq; F. R. S. in the 77th vol. of the Phil. Transf. It happened on the 19th of July 1785, near Coldstream on the Tweed. The morning was fine, with the thermometer at 68°; but about 11 A. M. the sky became obscured with clouds in the SE.: and betwixt 12 and 1 a storm of thunder and lightning came on. This storm was at a considerable distance from Mr Brydone's house, the intervals between the flash and crack being from 25 to 30 seconds, so that the place of explosion must have been betwixt 5 and 6 miles off: but while our author was observing the progress of the storm, he was suddenly surprised with a loud report, neither preceded nor accompanied by any flash of lightning, which resembled the explosion of a great number of muskets, in such quick succession, that the air could scarcely discriminate the sounds. On this the thunder and lightning instantly ceased, the clouds began to separate, and the sky soon recovered its serenity. In a little time Mr Brydone was informed, that a man with two horses had been killed by the thunder; and, on running out to the place, our author found the two horses lying on the spot where they had been first struck, and still yoked to the cart. As the body of the man who was killed had been carried off, Mr Brydone had not an opportunity of examining it, but was informed by Mr Bell, minister of Coldstream, who saw it, that the skin of the right thigh was much burnt and shrivelled: that there were many marks of the same kind all over the body, but none on the legs: his clothes, particularly his shirt, had a strong smell of burning; and there was a zig-zag line of about an inch and a quarter broad, extending from the chin to the right thigh, and which seemed to have followed the direction of the buttons of his waistcoat. The body was buried in two days without any appearance of putrefaction. Mr Brydone was informed by another person who accompanied him

that was killed, of the particular circumstance. They were both driving carts loaded with wood, and James Lauder, the person who had the charge of the foremost cart, was sitting on the fore part of it. They had crossed the Tweed a few minutes before at a deep ford, and had almost gained the highest part of a bank about 65 or 70 feet above the bed of the river when he was stunned with the report of lightning, and saw his companion with the cart fall down. On running up to the spot he found him quite dead, with his face pale, his clothes torn in pieces, and a great swelling about him. At the time of the explosion he was about 24 yards distant from Lauder, and had him full in view when he fell, and was not shocked, neither did he perceive any flash of fire. At the time of the explosion the horses turned round, and broke their harness, and the horses had fallen on their left side, and had made a deep impression on the dirt when on lifting them up, showed the exact fracture of the leg, so that every principle of life seemed to have been extinguished at once, without the appearance of any convulsive motion. The hair was never the greatest part of their bodies, but was perceptible on their belly and legs. The eyes were dull and opaque, as if they had been struck, though Mr Brydone saw them in half an hour after the accident happened. The joints were stiff, and he could not observe that any of the bones were broken or dissolved, as is said to be the case with those who are killed by lightning. The left shaft of the cart was broken, and had been thrown off in many places; and the timber of the cart was connected by iron bolts or cramps of iron. Many pieces of the cart were thrown to a considerable distance; and some of them had the appearance of being scorched by fire. Lauder's hat was torn into many small pieces; some part of his hair was united to those which had composed the top of his head. About 4½ feet behind each wheel he observed a circular hole of about 20 inches diameter, the centre of which was exactly in the track of each wheel. The earth was raised up by violent blows of a pick-axe; and stones and dust were scattered on each side of the road. The tracks of the wheels were filled in the dust, both before and behind the cart, but did not in the smallest degree appear to have scorched themselves for upwards of a foot. There were evident marks of fusion on the rims of the wheels; the surface of the whole breadth of the wheel, and for the most part about three inches, was become bluish, and its polish and smoothness, and was full of small drops which projected sensibly, and in a conical form; but the wood did not appear to be injured by the heat which the iron received. To determine whether these marks were produced by the explosion which had torn up the cart, the cart was pushed back on the same track it had described on the road; and the marks of fusion were found exactly to correspond to the centres of the holes. They had made a revolution after the explosion; which is ascribed to the cart being pulled a little

l of the horses. Nothing remarkable was ed on the opposite part of the wheel. The ground had a smell something like that of the soil itself was very dry and gravelly. The catastrophe was likewise observed by a shepherd at the distance of about 200 or 300 yards from the spot. He said, that he was looking at two carts going up the bank when he heard the noise, and saw the foremost man and horses fall; but observed no lightning, nor the least appearance of fire, only he saw the dust rise about the

There had been several flashes of lightning that from the SE.; whereas the accident happened to the NW. of the place where he stood. It is not sensible of any shock. Our author gives an account of several phenomena which happened the same day, and which were evidently connected with the explosion. A shepherd driving his flock in the neighbourhood, observed a dog drop down; and said, that he felt at the time as if fire had passed over his face, though lightning and claps of thunder were at a considerable distance. He ran up to the creature immediately, but found it quite dead; on which he struck it with his knife, and the blood flowed freely from the earth was not torn up; nor did he observe any dust rise, though he was only a few yards from the spot. This happened about a quarter of an hour before Lauder was killed, and the place was about 300 yards distant. About an hour before the explosion, two men standing in the middle of the Tweed, fishing for salmon, were caught in a violent whirlwind, which felt sultry and hot, and most prevented them from breathing. They could not reach the bank without much difficulty; but the whirlwind lasted only a very short time, and was succeeded by a perfect calm. A man making hay, near the banks of the river, suddenly to the ground, and called out that he had received a violent blow on the foot, could not imagine from whence it came; and the minister above mentioned, when walking in his garden, a little before the accident happened to Lauder, felt several times a tremor in the earth. The conclusion drawn from these facts is, that at the time of the explosion an equilibrium between the earth and the atmosphere seems to have been completely restored, as no thunder was heard nor lightning observed; the clouds were dispelled, and the atmosphere resumed the most perfect tranquillity: "But this vast quantity of electric matter (says he) being discharged from the one element to the other without any appearance of fire, I shall not attempt to examine. From the whole it would seem, that the earth had acquired a great superabundance of electrical matter, which was every where endeavouring to fly off into the atmosphere, and it might be accounted for from the excess of dryness of the ground, and for many months past total want of rain, which is probably the cause that nature employs in preserving the equilibrium between the two elements."

LIGHTNING, STANHOPE'S EXPLANATION OF THE ABOVE ACCIDENT, BY A RETURNING OF THE ELECTRICITY. Earl Stanhope, whose observations on this accident are published in the same volume, gives to establish the following positions as  
XIII. PART I.

facts. 1. That the man and horses were not killed by any direct main stroke of explosion from a thunder cloud either positively or negatively electrified. 2. They were not killed by any transmitted main stroke either positive or negative. 3. The mischief was not done by any lateral explosion. All these are evidently true, at least with respect to lightning at that time falling from the clouds; for all the lightning which had taken place before was at a great distance. 4. They were not suffocated by a sulphureous vapour or smell which frequently accompanies electricity. This could not account for the pieces of coal being thrown to a considerable distance all round the cart, and for the splinters of wood which were thrown off from the cart. 5. It might be imagined by some that they were killed by the violent commotion of the atmosphere, occasioned by the vicinity of the electrical explosion, in a manner similar to that, whereby fatal wounds sometimes have been known to have been given, by the air having been suddenly displaced by a cannon ball, in its passage through the atmospherical fluid, though the cannon ball itself had evidently neither struck the person wounded nor grazed his clothes. The dust that rose at the time of the explosion might be brought as an argument in favour of the opinion, that a sudden and violent commotion of the air did occasion the effects produced. But such an explanation would not account for the marks of fusion on the iron of the wheels, nor for the hair of the horses being singed, nor for the skin of Lauder's body having been burnt in several places. 6. From these different circumstances his Lordship is of opinion, that the effects proceeded from electricity; and that no electrical fire did pass immediately, either from the clouds into the cart, or from the cart into the clouds. From the circular holes in the ground, of about 20 inches diameter, the respective centres of which were exactly in the tract of each wheel, and the corresponding marks of fusion in the iron of the wheels, it is evident that the electrical fire did pass from the earth to the cart, or from the cart to the earth, through that part of the iron of the wheels which was in contact with the ground. From the splinters which had been thrown off in many places, particularly where the timber was connected by nails or cramps of iron, and from various other effects mentioned in Mr Brydone's account, it is evident, that there must have been a great commotion in the electrical fluid in all, or at least in different parts of the cart, and in the bodies of the man and horses, although there were no lightning. 7. All these phenomena, his lordship argues, may be explained in a satisfactory manner from the doctrine already laid down concerning the returning stroke. Before entering upon the subject of the main explosion, however, he takes notice of the other phenomena mentioned in Mr Brydone's account. With regard to the case of the lamb, his lordship is of opinion, that it belongs to the most simple class of returning strokes, viz. that which happens at a place where there is neither thunder nor lightning near; and that it may be produced by the sudden removal of the elastic electrical pressure of the electrical atmosphere of a single main cloud, as well as of an assemblage of clouds. It appears (says he) by Mr

Brydone's account, that the shepherd, who saw the lamb fall, was near enough to it to feel, in a small degree, the electrical returning stroke at the same time that the lamb dropped down.—The blow which the woman received on the foot was unquestionably the returning stroke. When a person walking, or standing, out of doors, is knocked down or killed by the returning stroke, the electrical fire must rush in, or rush out, as the case may be, through that person's feet, and through them only; which would not be the case were the person to be killed by any main stroke of explosion either positive or negative. 8. To account for the manner in which the man and horses were killed, his lordship premises, that, according to Mr Brydone's account, the cloud must have been many miles in length; inasmuch as just before the report, the lightning was at a considerable distance, viz. between 5 and 6 miles. The loud report resembled the firing of several muskets so close together, that the ear could scarcely separate the sounds, and was followed by no rumbling noise like the other claps. This indicates, that the explosion was not far distant, and likewise that it was not extremely near: for, if the explosion had been very near, the ear could not at all have separated the sounds. 9. Let us now suppose a cloud, 9, 10, or 12 miles in length to be extended over the earth, and let another cloud be situated betwixt that and the earth; let them also be supposed charged with the same kind of electricity, and both positive. Let us farther suppose the lower cloud to be near the earth, only a little beyond the striking distance; and the man, cart, and horses, to be situated under that part of the cloud which is next the earth, and to be exactly as described by Mr Brydone, viz. near the summit of a hill, and followed by another a little farther down; and let us suppose the two clouds to be near each other just over the place where the man and horses are: Let the remote end of the cloud approach the earth, and discharge its electricity into it. In this case the following effects will take place: 10. When the upper cloud discharges its electricity into the earth from the remote end, the lower cloud will discharge its electricity into the nearer end of the upper cloud, which is supposed to be directly over the place of the cart and horses, or nearly so. This accounts for the loud report of thunder that was unaccompanied by lightning. The report must be loud from its being near; but no lightning could be perceived, by reason of the thick cloud situated immediately between the spectator and the space betwixt the two clouds where the lightning appears. 11. As the lower cloud gradually approached towards the earth, that part of the latter where the man and horses were, must of course become superinduced by the elastic electrical pressure of the electrical atmosphere of the thunder cloud; which superinduced elastic electrical pressure must gradually have increased as the cloud came closer to the earth, and approached nearest to the limit of the striking distance. 12. Hence, if any conducting-body (not having prominent or conducting points) were to be placed upon the surface of the earth, and there electrically insulated; then such conducting body, by the laws of electricity, must, at its upper extre-

mity (namely the part nearest to the positive cloud) become *negative*; at its lower extremity it must become *positive*; and, at a certain intermediate point, it will be neither *plus* nor *minus*. This insulated conducting body, thus situated, will be in three opposite states at the same time, that is to say, it will be, at the same time positively electrified, negatively electrified, and not electrified at all.—For a demonstration of this proposition, his lordship refers to his *Principles of Electricity*; but it is an established fact in electricity. 13. If this conducting body on the surface of the earth be not insulated, or be but imperfectly insulated, then the whole of such body, from its being immersed in the electrical atmosphere of the positive cloud, will become negative; because part of the electricity of the conducting body will in this case pass into the earth; and the conducting body will become the more negative, as it becomes the more deeply immersed into the denser part of the elastic electrical atmosphere of the approaching thunder cloud. 14. When the lower cloud comes suddenly to discharge with an explosion its superabundant electricity into the upper one, then the elastic electrical atmosphere of the former will cease to exist; consequently the electrical fluid, which had been gradually expelled into the common stock from the conducting body on the surface of the earth, must, by the sudden removal of the superinduced elastic electrical pressure of the electrical atmosphere of the thunder cloud, suddenly return from the earth into the said conducting body, producing a violent commotion similar to the pungent shock of a Leyden jar in its sensation and effects. 15. This, which his lordship calls *the electrical returning stroke*, he supposes to have been what killed the man and horses in the present case, they having become strongly negative before the explosion. The man, according to Mr Brydone's account, was sitting when he received the stroke, and his legs were hanging over the fore part of the cart at the time of the explosion. The returning stroke, therefore, could not enter his body through the legs; and this accounts for the skin of his legs not having been at all burnt or shrivelled, as the skin was on many other parts of his body; and it likewise shows the reason why the zig-zag line, which was terminated by the chin, did not extend lower than the thigh. 16. Mr Brydone likewise informs us that the hair of the horses was much singed over the greatest part of their bodies, but was most perceptible on the belly and legs. This is easily accounted for by the returning stroke; for the lower part of the bodies of these animals must of course have been more affected than any other part, as the electrical fire must have rushed suddenly into their bodies through their legs, which had made a deep impression on the dust. 17. The various effects produced on the cart may be explained also from the returning stroke with equal facility. The splinters were thrown off by the interruption of good conductors; the wood being a much less perfect conductor than the iron. It is also evident that it was the electrical returning fire that produced the marks of fusion on that part of the iron of the wheels which was in contact with the ground; inasmuch as the whole electricity, at th



of the explosion, did enter at these places. A person in the least versed in the principles of electricity can hesitate to assent to the proposition that the electrical returning stroke must exist in circumstances similar to those explained above; but it may be objected, as the reviewers have done, that the quantity of electricity contained in the body of a man, &c. is too small to produce such violent effects. For answer to this objection, his lordship refers to the following remarks: 19. No person can possibly conclude, that the force of a returning stroke must always be weak when produced by the disturbed electrical fluid of a man's body; by reason that a man's body contains but a small quantity of electricity; for it has never been proved that a man's body contains only a small quantity of electrical fluid; neither is there the slightest reason to believe such an hypothesis, appears, on many accounts, to be erroneous; and if that hypothesis be erroneous, the objection to the strength of an electrical returning stroke remains altogether unsupported by argument. "When a body is said to be positive (says his lordship), it simply means, that the body contains more than its natural share of electricity, but does not say that it is completely saturated with it. In like manner, when a body is said to be minus or negative, it only signifies, that the body contains less than its natural share of electricity; but does not imply that such a body is entirely exhausted of the electricity which it contains in its natural state. Now (says he), the quantity of natural electricity is so immense, when compared with the very weak effects of our largest artificial contrived electrical machines, that I conceive cannot, by means of artificial electricity, produce from a man's body, the thousandth, or the ten-thousandth part of the electrical fluid that it contains when in its natural state." 20. The hypothesis, which easily accounts for any natural phenomenon, has a much better claim to our attention than an opposite one, which prevents it from being intelligibly explained. There is no reason to conclude that any electrical machine, of any size, is capable of rendering a conductor either completely plus or completely minus; or otherwise. And it would have been as long ago as any person some years ago (when electrical machines were not brought to their present perfection) have maintained, that those very imperfect machines were capable of rendering a body either completely positive or completely negative, as for us to attempt to do it at this day. We evidently do not, with our machines, even approach the limit of electrical strength, particularly in relation to the returning stroke: for it is remarkable, by the laws of electricity, the strength of the returning stroke, near the limit of the striking distance, does increase in a greater ratio than the strength of the main stroke from the distance; and the body producing the elastic electrical atmosphere superinduced. Thus, let us attempt to produce the returning stroke by means of a metallic conductor of about 20 or 21 inches in length and about 2 inches in diameter; and by means of a metallic body of equal dimensions pla-

ced parallel to the prime conductor, just out of the limit of the striking distance; and let the prime conductor be charged by one of the common glass globes of less than 9 inches in diameter; the returning stroke in this case will be so weak, that it can hardly be said to exist: but if the experiment be made by a large cylinder, and a metallic prime conductor of about 3 feet 4 inches long, by nearly 4½ inches diameter, and also by another metallic body of equal dimensions with this prime conductor, then there will be no comparison betwixt the strength of the returning stroke obtained out of the striking distance, and the strength of the main stroke received immediately from the prime conductor; the sharpness and pungency of the returning stroke being so much superior. The returning stroke in this case is like the sudden discharge of a weakly electrified Leyden jar, provided due attention be paid to the rules for obtaining a strong returning stroke. 21. In the case of a returning stroke, the strength depends, according to his lordship's hypothesis, not so much on the quantity of the electric fluid, as on its velocity; whence also it depends less on the quantity of surface used than on the strength of the electrical pressure of the elastic electrical atmosphere superinduced upon the body struck previous to the explosion. But the electrical pressure of the elastic electrical atmosphere of the great thunder cloud which produced the mischief on the present occasion, must have been immensely greater than that of a metallic prime conductor; and it is not surprising that the effects should be proportioned to the causes. 22. His lordship next accounts for the returning stroke not being felt by the man who followed Lauder's cart. This, he thinks, may in some degree be accounted for by the latter having been higher up the bank; though it may better be done by supposing the cloud to have been pending nearer the earth over the spot where Lauder was killed, than over the place where his companion was; for, in order to receive a dangerous returning stroke, it is necessary that he should be immersed, not merely in the cloud's atmosphere, but in the dense part of the cloud's electrical atmosphere. It may also be accounted for by supposing that the cart were either better connected with the common stock, or better insulated; for either of these circumstances will weaken a returning stroke prodigiously. Now Mr Brydone mentions, that there had been an almost total want of rain for many months. He also says, that the ground, at the place where Lauder was killed, was remarkably dry, and of a gravelly soil. This state of the ground was particularly adapted to the production of the electrical returning stroke, when produced upon the large scale of nature, where the elastic electrical pressure is so powerful.

(15.) LIGHTNING, STANHOPE'S THEORY OF, OBJECTED TO. To the above theory of his lordship, some objections have been made; and founded on experiments published in the *Genl. Mag.* for 1785. These were made with an insulated rod of iron of considerable length, rising some feet higher than a common conductor placed at the other end of the house. A set of bells were affixed to the former, which in a thunder storm, even when the thunder was 4 or 5 miles distant, were

ring by the electricity of the atmosphere; but whenever a flash of lightning burst from the cloud, even though at the distance just mentioned, the *faucibus* passed through the conductor also, and the balls ceased to ring sometimes for several seconds; then they began again, and continued to ring till they were stopped by another flash. This flash was undoubtedly what earl Stanhope calls *the returning stroke*; of which we shall give some explanation. In considering the whole doctrine of that stroke, with the explanation laid down by his lordship, the following observations occur.

1. In the experiments made by his lordship to demonstrate the existence of the returning stroke, there is a deception, of which the reviewers take notice, viz. that the man touches a large prime conductor, which, by the operation of the machine, becomes negatively electrified as well as himself. Hence when the discharge is made, all the fire returning to that conductor must pass through his body as well as that of which his body itself is supposed to be deprived; and this, though no other cause intervened, must nearly double the strength of the shock. To make the experiment more fairly, it would be necessary to take away this second conductor, and let the man only touch the brass ball communicating with the earth.

2. In this experiment there is another deception, not taken notice of by the reviewers, viz. that any body immersed in a positive electrical atmosphere becomes negative. Hence the 2d conductor, by being applied to the air positively electrified by the machine, becomes almost as strongly negative as if another machine had been applied to it on purpose; and this negative electricity will be the stronger in proportion to the strength of electricity in the air surrounding it. Again, a plate of air may be charged by two smooth pieces of metal held at a small distance from each other, one of them connected with an electrical machine, and the other with the earth. Now supposing, instead of the usual communication, that a man standing upon an insulating stool, held the lower metallic plate in one hand, and with the other hand touched the earth, or a conductor communicating with it, it is plain, that by touching the upper plate, the electricity acquired by the air between them would be discharged, and that the man would feel what earl Stanhope calls *the returning stroke*; but which in truth is the shock of a charged electric substance, and would therefore be proportionably pungent. Now, in his lordship's experiments, the two conductors answer exactly to the two metallic plates above mentioned; the air between them receives a charge, and is discharged by the explosion from the prime conductor, because this conductor forms one of the charging plates. It is true, that the round shape of the conductors renders them unfavourable for trying the experiment; and this is one reason why it requires a great power of electricity to make the returning stroke sensible. The thickness of the plate of air interposed betwixt the two conductors is another reason: but this makes no difference as to the principles; for his lordship's experiment is undoubtedly no other than that of the Leyden phial. Were his lordship to use two flat plates instead of round con-

ductors, the deception would then be removed, and we may venture to determine *a priori*, that the returning stroke would then be not only very severe, but even *dangerous*, with a very powerful machine and large plates.

3. Though the 2d conductor were entirely removed, yet there would still be a deception in this experiment, for then the surface of the man's body would act in some measure as one of the metallic plates; so that still the experiment would be on the principles of the Leyden phial, though much weaker than before.

4. To make this experiment absolutely without deception, the man should stand upon the ground without touching any thing; and in that case we may venture to affirm, that he would feel no returning shock. His being insulated varies the nature of the experiment entirely, as will easily be understood from the following considerations. Under the article ELECTRICITY, it is shown, that *positive* electricity does not consist in an *accumulation*, nor *negative* electricity in a *deficiency*, of the fluid; but that all electric phenomena are to be accounted for from the mere *motion* of the fluid; and that this motion is always a circulation. It is proved, that in the working of a common machine, the electric fluid comes from the earth; that it is accumulated around the prime conductor; evaporates in the air; and is then silently absorbed by the earth, and reconducted to the machine. Hence, in the charging of a machine which works positively, the earth, and all bodies on its surface, for some way round, are in a negative state; because they are absorbing the electrical fluid from the atmosphere. That part of the earth indeed directly under the feet of the machine, and perhaps some little way farther, is *positive*; because it is *giving out* electricity: but the negative portion will be much more extensive. When the conductor is discharged by a spark, then the circulation ceases in a great measure by the collision of the two opposite streams of electric matter. All bodies on the surface of the earth then, as far as it was negatively electrified, must receive what his lordship calls *the returning stroke*; but the electricity being diffused among such a number, and over such a wide extent, it is no wonder that it should be insensible. If, however, we insulate a large conducting body, and then make another part of it communicate with the earth by means of a good conductor, we instantly put it in a situation fit for transmitting more than its share of the electricity of the atmosphere, and reducing it to the state of the insulated rubber of an electrical machine, through which the whole quantity of electricity must pass to the phial held towards it, in order to be charged negatively. In proportion to this quantity transmitted the shock must be, not because the conductor has lost a large share of its *natural* electricity, but because a large quantity is *artificially* made to pass through it. We may therefore safely venture to assert that, in thunder storms, unless a body transmits *more than its natural proportion* of electric matter no shock will be felt; much less can the person be killed.

5. In his explanation of the accident which happened to Lauder, his lordship is reduced to the great difficulty, and makes one of the most metaphysical mistakes in the world; no less

of arranging the clouds of heaven, not to fact, but according to his own imagination. He supposes the existence of two clouds, the other, and ascribes to them various situations; but who knows whether clouds ever existed? His Lordship does not say that any body ever saw them; and he does not say into what is termed by logicians a *de*: he first assumes data, purposely accord with his hypothesis, and then he deduces his hypothesis from the data. 6. Granting the arrangement of the clouds, and every thing his lordship desires, the main requisite thing, viz. a flash of lightning at a distance from the returning stroke. According to the account of the distant flash and returning stroke must be the same; but Mr Brydone mentions no such thing; on the contrary, there had been no such thing some little time before: and the immense quantity of the electric fluid will not allow us to suppose that it would take up the usual time between claps in travelling 5 or 6 miles. 7. Mr Brydone accounts for no lightning being seen at the explosion in a very arbitrary manner, by supposing it to have come from a discharge of the one imaginary cloud to the other; and that it was not seen on account of the thickness of the lower cloud. A more natural supposition must be, that it was below the cart-wheels, but was not accounted of its being day-light, and the dust which it raised. The succession of explosions, indicated a succession of explosions, some of which would be less easily observed than the single large one. 8. It seems altogether inconsistent, that the return of any quantity of electricity into a body should shatter that body into pieces. In the present case, the fire entered a small part of the iron of the wheels, and that part was melted. His lordship does not say, that the fusion was a proof, that the fire belonging to the cart, man, and horse, at least to the cart and man, had entered that part of the wheels, and consequently that the iron naturally belonged to that small part. The same evidence, however, will hold good in regard to every other part. We grant that the fire entered the man's body by his right hand; his might have therefore been burnt by the fire belonging to the whole body; but he ought then to have quietly diffused itself through the other parts of his body, or at least if it had been done, it ought to have been diffused to the internal parts. Instead of this, the zig-zag line upon his body indicated a quantity of electric matter running along the length of the body without entering the body at all. In like manner his hat being torn in pieces, indicated an explosion of electric matter at his head, and he ought to have been little or no external wound could be wanted there except that his hat had parted with; and it is ridiculous to suppose that hats part with such quantities of electricity as would tear them in pieces by themselves. The shivering of the cart, the burning about of the coals, and all the circumstances of the case, also point out in the most manifest manner, not a quantity of electric

matter returning to supply any natural deficiency, but an enormous explosion of that matter from the earth overwhelming and destroying whatever stood in its way. That two explosions were made from the earth is very evident, because there were two holes in it; and the very size of these holes indicates a much greater discharge of electricity than we can reasonably suppose to have been lost by the man, horses, and cart. We shall now consider the experiment quoted from the correspondent in the *Genl. Mag.* These, as well as the accident under consideration, undoubtedly show, that, during the time of a thunder storm, both atmosphere and earth are affected for a very considerable way. With regard to the quantity of this electrical affection, however, though it must undoubtedly be excessive when taken all together, we can by no means agree that it is so taken partially. From an experiment related in the Magazine above quoted, it appears, that the electricity of a violent thunder storm extends sometimes over a circle of 100 miles diameter. "Electricity (says the author) seldom appeared without a shower; but I was surpris'd, on the 5th of June 1784, that the bells rang with thin and very high clouds, and without the least appearance of rain, till the next post brought me an account of a violent thunder storm, and very destructive hail, at a village 50 miles distant." We cannot suppose, that all this space was electrified like a charged phial; otherwise, great as the explosions of lightning are, they would still be much greater. This is evident even in our electrical machines. A single phial may be charged much higher than a battery, as appears by the electrometer; but the battery, though less charged, will have incomparably more power than a single phial. His lordship appears to have deceived himself in this matter, by mistaking the extent of the electrified surface for the quantity of charge in every part of it. The surface of the earth in a thunder storm is exactly similar to that of a charged conductor. According to the extent of electrified surface, the spark will be great or small; and just so it is with lightning, for some kinds of it are much more destructive than others. In all cases, however, the quantity of electricity in a particular spot is very inconsiderable. Lightning strikes bodies, not because they are highly electrified, but because they afford a communication betwixt the atmosphere and some place below the surface of the earth. This stroke is the aggregate of the whole electricity contained in a circle of probably many miles in diameter; but the returning stroke, if bodies are in their natural state, can only be in proportion to the quantity of electricity in each substance contained within that space. It is in fact the lightning itself diffused through the earth which makes the returning stroke; and it is impossible that every substance within two or three miles of the explosion can receive the whole flash, or another equal to it. It is only in cases where the quantity of electricity, diffused through a great space, happens to discharge itself through a human body or other conducting substance of no great bulk, that the effects upon the latter can be any way considerable. This was undoubtedly the case with the thunder

rod mentioned by the correspondent in the Magazine; for it received either from the atmosphere or from the earth, at the time of every flash, the whole quantity of electricity which had been diffused for a considerable way round. Pointed bodies, we know, draw off electricity very powerfully; inasmuch that an highly charged jar may be deprived of almost all its power by merely presenting a needle to it. We can be at no loss therefore to understand why a pointed conductor should draw off the electricity from a large portion of the surface of the earth, or from a considerable portion of atmosphere. We must now, however, inquire into the reason of these appearances of sparks in places at such distance from the explosion of the lightning. To understand this, we must always keep in our eye that principle so fully explained under ELECTRICITY, viz. that there never is, nor can be, a real deficiency of the electric fluid in any substance or in any place. It is to be considered as an absolute *plenum*, and of consequence it can have no other motion than a circulatory one. At every discharge of lightning therefore from the clouds into the earth, or from one cloud into another, there must be a return of the same quantity to those clouds which have made the discharge. In the vast extent of electrified surface, some part of these returns must undoubtedly be made at great distances from the place where the explosion of lightning happens. As long as matters remain in their natural state, the electric matter will return by innumerable passages in such small streams, that no perceptible effect upon any single substance can take place. But if a body be so situated, that a large portion of the electric matter must return through it from the earth, then such body will undoubtedly be more affected by every flash than the rest of the substances around it; and if the communication with the earth, be interrupted, a flash of fire will be perceived betwixt the conducting substance and the earth at the time that a flash bursts out from the cloud. The strength of such a flash, however, must by no means be supposed equivalent to that of the main stroke of lightning, unless we could suppose the whole electrical power of the vast circle already mentioned to be discharged through the conductor. But though this may explain the reason of the sparks or flashes observed in the case of the thunder rod just mentioned, we cannot from this principle account for the accident which befel the man and horses. There was indeed at that time a very violent emission of electricity from the earth, but no distant flash of lightning happened at the same moment with it, to expel the electricity from the earth. It appears therefore, that the electricity had in this case been accumulating in the earth itself, in a manner similar to that which produces earthquakes; and which is fully explained under that article. (See EARTHQUAKE, § 22.) The thunder storm was the natural means employed to supply that part of the earth with electricity, which was in the state of charging; and the moment that the quantity thus supplied was thrown back, all signs of electricity must cease, as much as when that thrown in upon one side of a Leyden phial is again thrown off. Hence, when the flash burst out of the earth, and

killed the man and horses, that portion which absorbed the electricity till then it no longer; and of consequence the storm occasioned by this absorption nullified. That this disposition to an earth really prevail in the earth at that time, from the tremor which Mr Bell felt on when walking in his garden. The first the woman received on the foot, the d lamb, and many similar circumstances, to show that there was an attempt to equilibrium from the earth, as has been related. The same disposition to an however, was afterwards renewed; on 11th of August that same year, a smart earthquake did actually take place, done informs us.

(16.) LIGHTNING, ULTIMATE CAUSE RAIN and THUNDER.

LIGHT-ROOM, a small apartment, in glass windows, near the magazine of a ship. It is used to contain the lights by which the crew and his assistants are enabled to fire the powder to be ready for action.

\* LIGHTS. *n. s.* [Supposed to be called their lightness in proportion to their breathings; the organs of breathing: we find in other animals, and *lungs* of men.—The word was chiefly from the *lights*, a part as of sense, so no seat for any sharp disease.

\* LIGHTSOME. *adj.* [from *light*.] Not dark; not obscure; not of other the sun, nor any thing sensible is itself, which is the cause that things as though it make itself, and all things else. *Raleigh*.—White walls make rooms more than black. *Bacon*.—Equal posture, spirits, are required to make colour. *Bacon*.—

The sun

His course exalted through the ram  
Through Taurus, and the *lightsome*  
love.

2. Gay; airy; having the power to cheer. It suiteth so fitly with that *lightsome* joy, wherein God delighteth when his him. *Hooker*.—The *lightsome* passion not that which now often usurps the trivial, vanishing, superficial thing that the apprehension, and plays upon the soul. *South*.

\* LIGHTSOMENESS. *n. s.* [from 1. Luminousness; not opacity; not obscurity.—It is to our atmosphere variety of colours, which are painted on the *lightsomeness* of our air, and the t owing. *Cheyne*. 2. Cheerfulness; merriness.

LIGNAC, a town of Germany, in Silesia.  
(1.) LIGNAC, a town of France, in the department of Indre, 13½ miles SW. of Argentan.  
(2.) LIGNAC, Joseph Adrian DE, a French mathematician, born at Poitiers, who published works, particularly Letters to an American concerning Buffon's Natural History. Rome in 1762.

\* LIGNALOE. *n. s.* [*lignum aloes*.] The aloes wood.—The valleys spread forth

er's side, as the trees of *lignales* which hath planted, and as cedar trees beside : *Numb.* xxiv. 6.

ANA, a town of the French republic, in the province of Piedmont, and late lordcell; 6 miles WSW. of Vercelli.

ANE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Loire, 9 miles NW. of Ancenis.

ANE, a town of the French republic, in the department of Gemappes, and late province of Hainault, on the Dender, 12 miles Mons, and 20 N. of Valenciennes. Lon. Lat. 50. 35. N.

ANE SUR USSEAU, a town of France, in the department of Vienne, 7 miles N. of Châtelleraud 17½ ESE. of Loudun.

NEOUS. *adj.* [*lignous*, Lat. *ligneus*, Fr.] wood; wooden; resembling wood.—It is tried with shoots of vines, and roots of ; for it may be they, being of a more *lignure*, will incorporate with the tree itself. Ten thousand seeds of the plant hartsardly make the bulk of a pepper-corn: covers, and the true body of each seed, chymous and *lignous* part of both, and of those parts, multiplied one by another a hundred thousand millions of forms, but how many more we cannot determine.

EROLLES, a town of France, in the department of the Allier, 4 miles S. of Montluçon.

ET, *n. f.* among goldsmiths, a longitudinal iron mould, made for receiving melted gold or silver. It has a large hollow for the iron, and a small one for the latter. See

2. This word is by some derived from wood; ingots of gold and silver having usually at first thrown into lignets made of hard wood; till their rapid consumption melted metal had shown the necessity of them of more durable stuff. They are made of iron, and are also called *ingots*.

EVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Vosges, 6 miles NW. of Darney, and Marche.

CENSIS TERRA, in the materia medica, now bole dug in many parts of Germany, particularly about Emeric in Westphalia, and used in medicinal and astringent complaints.

NIERE, or } a town of France, in the }  
NIERES, } department of Cher, and }  
nce of Berry, with a castle, 24 miles S. }  
N, and 13½ SE. of Issoudun. Lon. 2. 24. }  
N. 47. N.

NIERES CHATELAIN, a town of France, in the department of Somme, 18 miles W. of Amiens.

NIERES LA DOUCELLE, a town of France, in the department of Maine, 12 miles N. of Alençon, and 1½ NW. of Alençon.

NON, a river of France, which runs near Tours.

NON, a town of France, in the department of Sarthe, 9 miles S. of Vitry.

IM, [*Lat. wood.*] forms part of the name of plants, and vegetable substances; as, *LIQUOR ALOES*. See *EXCORIARIA*.

(2.) LIGNUM CAMPECHENSE. See *HÆMATOPYLUM*.

(3.) LIGNUM COLUBRINUM. See *OPHIORRHIZA*.

(4.) LIGNUM NEPHRITICUM. See *GUILANDINA*.

(5.) LIGNUM RHODIUM, or ROSEWOOD, in the materia medica; a wood, or root, chiefly brought to us from the Canary islands. The writers on botany and the materia medica are much divided about the lignum rhodium, not only with regard to the plant which affords it, but likewise in their accounts of the drug itself; and have described, under this name, simples manifestly different. This confusion seems to have arisen from an opinion, that the RHODIUM, and the ASPALATHUS, an article of considerable esteem among the ancients, but with regard to which the moderns are very much at a loss, are the same; whence different woods brought into Europe for the unknown aspalathus, were sold again by the name of *rhodium*. In those modern pharmacopœias which admit the lignum rhodium, different Linnean names are given to it: thus the authors of the *Dispensatorium Brunsvicensis* suppose it to be the *Rhodiola rosea* of Linnæus; and those of the *Pharmacopœia Rossica*, the *Genista Canariensis*. As to *Aspalathus*, the ancients themselves disagree; Dioscorides meaning by this appellation the wood of a certain shrub freed from the bark, and Galen the bark of a root. At present we have nothing under this name in the shops. What was heretofore sold among us as aspalathus, were pieces of a pale coloured wood brought from the East Indies, and more commonly called *calambour*. The aspalathus, calambour, and lignum aquilæ, are supposed to be woods of the nature of agallochum, or lignum aloes, but weaker in quality. The lignum rhodium of the shops is usually in long crooked pieces, full of knots, which when cut appear of a yellow colour like box, with a reddish cast: the largest, smoothest, most compact, and deepest coloured pieces, should be chosen; and the small, thin, or pale ones, rejected. The taste of this wood is lightly bitterish, and somewhat pungent; its smell is very fragrant, resembling that of roses: long kept, it seems to lose its smell: but on cutting, or rubbing one piece against the other, it smells as well as at first. Distilled with water, it yields an odoriferous essential oil, in very small quantity. Rhodium is at present in esteem only upon account of its oil, which is employed as a high and agreeable perfume in scenting pomatums and the like. But if we may reason from analogy, this odoriferous simple might be advantageously applied to more useful purposes; a tincture of it in rectified spirit of wine, which contains in small volume the virtue of a considerable deal of the wood, bids fair to prove a serviceable cordial, equal perhaps to any thing of this kind.

(6.) \* LIGNUM VITÆ. [*n. f. Latin.*] Guaiacum; a very hard wood.

(7.) LIGNUM VITÆ. See *GUIACUM*.

(1.) LIGNY, a town of France, in the department of the Meuse, and late duchy of Bar, with a castle on the Orney, 9 miles SE. of Bar Le Duc, and 125 SE. of Paris. Lon. 5. 26. E. Lat. 48. 39. N.

(2.) LIGNY

(2.) LIGNY LE CHATEAU, a town of France, in the dep. of Yonne, 9 miles NE. of Auxerre.

LIGON, a sea port of Siam, in Malacca, capital of a territory so named, with a magazine belonging to the Dutch E. India Company, on the E. coast. Lon. 100. 5. E. Lat. 7. 40. N.

(1.) LIGONIER, John, Earl Ligonier, a brave English general, and field marshal, in the British army, born in 1678. He served in all Q. Anne's wars, under the great D. of Marlborough, with high reputation, and was employed in several succeeding wars. He died in 1770, aged 92.

(2.) LIGONIER, a fort of Pennsylvania, 36 miles E. of Pittsburg. Lon. 79. 15. W. Lat. 40. 16. N.

LIGOR, a kingdom of Asia, with its capital of the same name, subject to Siam.

LIGUEIL, a town of France, in the department of Indre and Loire, 9 miles SW. of Loches, and 21 SE. of Tours. Lon. 0. 52. E. Lat. 47. 3. N.

LIGUEUX, a town of France, in the department of Dordogne, 9 miles NNE. of Périgueux.

LIGULATED, *adj.* among botanists, an appellation, given to such siliques as have a straight end turned downwards, with three indentures, but not separated into segments.

LIGUNY, a town of Poland, in Samogitia.

(1.) \* LIGURE. *n. f.* A precious stone.—The third row a *ligure*, an agate, and an amethyst. *Exod.*

(2.) The LIGURE, in Hebrew antiquity, was the first stone in the 3d row of the high priest's breastplate, and had the name of *Gad* inscribed on it. *Exod.* xxviii. 19. It is said to have been spotted like the ounce. Some suppose it to be the jacinth.

(1.) LIGURIA, in ancient geography, a country of Italy, bounded on the S. by the Mediterranean sea, on the N. by the Appennine mountains, on the W. by part of Transalpine Gaul, and on the E. by Etruria.

(2.) LIGURIA, or the *l* in modern geography, LIGURIAN REPUBLIC, the modern as well as the ancient name of the ci-levant republic of Genoa, since its constitution was new-modelled in 1797, upon the French plan, then existing, by Gen. Bonaparte. See FRANCE, § 61; and GENOA, § 1, 3, and 5. Of its present constitution we can say nothing, as, like most of the other modern republics, it appears to be still in a revolutionary state; and, if we may credit the public papers, is reverting fast back to the old system; in so much that the aristocratic title of *Doge* is lately restored to the first magistrate; as a prelude, perhaps, to the restoration of the royal title of *King*, to the executive power in France. For a recapitulation of the chief events that occurred in this state during the late war, See REVOLUTION, and WAR.

LIGURIANS, the ancient inhabitants of LIGURIA. There is a great disagreement among authors concerning their origin, though most probably they were descended from the Gauls. Some carry up their origin as far as the fabulous heroes of antiquity; while others trace them from the *LIGYES*, a people mentioned by Herodotus as attending Xerxes in his expedition against Greece. They are by some ancient geographers placed in Calchis; by others, in Albania. According to Diodorus Siculus, the Ligurians led a very wretched

life; their country being entirely overgrown with woods, which they were obliged to pull by the roots, in order to cultivate their land, and was also encumbered with great stones, and being naturally barren, made but very poor ret for all their labour. They were much add to hunting; and, by a life of continual exertion and labour, became so strong, that the whole of Liguria was generally an overmatch for the strongest and most robust among the Gauls. Women are said to have been almost as strong as the men, and to have born an equal share in all their laborious enterprises. With all their bravery however, they were subdued by the Romans about A. A. C. 211.

LIGUSTICÆ ALPES, that part of the Alps which borders on the Ligurian republic; called the MARITIME ALPS.

1. LIGUSTICUM, in botany, *LOVAGE*, genus of the digynia order, in the pentandria of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 45th order, *Umbellatæ*. The fruit is long, and quinquefalcated on each side; the rays are equal; the petals involuted or rolled wards and entire. There are 7 species: the remarkable are these:

1. LIGUSTICUM LEVISTICUM, the common *lovage*, is a native of the Apennine mountains of Italy. It has a thick fleshy, deeply perennal root, crowned by very large, many-corded, radical leaves, with broad lobes, having serrations at top, upright, strong channelled branches 6 or 7 feet high, and all the branches terminated by yellow flowers in large umbels. The root agrees nearly in quality with the *ANGELICA*: the principal difference is, that the *lovage* root has a stronger smell, and a what less pungent taste, accompanied with a durable sweetness, the seeds being rather more than the root; but although certainly capable of being applied to useful purposes, is not used in the present practice.

2. LIGUSTICUM SCOTICUM is a native of Scotland, and grows near the sea. It has a thick, fleshy, penetrating, perennal root, crowned with large doubly trifoliated leaves, with broad, indented lobes, upright round stalks, half a foot high, terminated by small yellow umbels. The leaves are sometimes eaten raw as a salad, or used as greens, by the inhabitants of the Hebrides. The root is reckoned a good carminative. It gives an infusion of the leaves in whey to calves to purge them. Both these species are easily propagated by seeds sown in spring and autumn.

(II.) LIGUSTICUM MARÆ, the N. part of the Tyrrhene Sea; now called the Gulf of Genoa. See GENOA, § 4.

LIGUSTRUM, PRIVET, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 44th order, *Scpiarie*. The corolla is quadrid; the berry tetraspermous. There is but one species; of which there are two varieties, viz.

1. LIGUSTRUM DECIDUUM, the deciduous

2. LIGUSTRUM SEMPERVIRENS, the evergreen *privet*. They are hardy plants, rising from 1

et high, adorned with oblong entire leaves, spikes of infundibuliform oblong white flowers, succeeded by black berries. They are easily propagated by seed, layers, suckers, or cuttings. They are used for making hedges. The purple is upon cards is prepared from the berries. In the addition of alum, these berries are said to be wool and silk of a good durable green; for which purpose they must be gathered as soon as they are ripe. The leaves are bitter and slightly astringent. Oxen, goats, and sheep, eat the plant; and refuse it.

**LYCIES**, an ancient nation of Asia, who inhabited the country between the Phasis and Caucasus, though some place them elsewhere. *Herodot.*  
2. See **LESCUIS**, and **LIGURIANS**.

**LYRGUM**, a mountain of Arcadia.

**LONS**, a town of France, in the dep. of the north; 9 miles SSW. of Peronne, and 18 E. of Arras. Lon. 20. 25. E. Ferro. Lat. 50. 15. N.

**KAVA**, a town and fort of Hungary.

**L I K E**. *adj.* [*lic*, Saxon; *liik*, Dutch.] Resembling; having resemblance.—Whom art thou like in thy greatness? *Ezek.* xxxi. 2.—His son, or one of his illustrious names, shall be like the former, and almost the same! *Dryd.* The earth was designed for the being of men, might not all other planets be created for the same, each for their own inhabitants? *Bentley.* His plan, as laid down by him, looks liker an artificial art than a distinct logic. *Baker on Lurn.*  
2. Equal; of the same quantity.—More clerical were impoverished by the late war, than in the like space before. *Spratt.* 3. [For *like*—probable; credible.—The trials were made, that is like that the experiment would have been successful. *Bacon.* 4. Likely; in a state that gives rise to probable expectations. This is, I think, an improper, though frequent use.—If the duke continues these favours towards you, you are like to be much advanced. *Shak.*—He is like to die for want of bread. *Fer.* xxxviii. The yearly value thereof is already increased more than of that it was within these few years, and it is daily to rise higher. *Darvies.*—Hopton refused to visit Waller's quarter, that he might know whether he were like to pursue his purpose. *Madon.*—Many were not easy to be governed, but like to conform themselves to strict rules. *Clarend.*—If his rules of reason be not better suited to his mind than his rules for health are fitted to his body, he is not like to be much followed.

**L I K E**. *adv.* 1. In the same manner; in the same manner as: it is not always easy to determine whether it be adverb or adjective.—The joyous nymphs, and lightfoot fairies, which thither came to hear their musick sweet, when they were hearing them so heavily lament, were so heavily lamenting from them went. *Spens.*—As a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him. *Psal.* ciii. 13.—Are we not malicious, malicious and revengeful?—We are to be like-minded with Christ, who was lowly? *Tillotson.*

What will be my confusion, when he sees me rejected, and forsaken like himself. *Phillips.*

They roar'd like lions caught in toils, and rag'd like *Waller.*

2. In such a manner as befits.—Be strong, and quit yourselves like men. 1 *Sam.* iv. 9. 3. Likely; probably. A popular use, not analogical.—

I like the work well, ere it be demanded,

As like enough it will, I'd have it copied. *Shak.*

(3.) \* **L I K E**. *n. s.* [This substantive is seldom more than the adjective used elliptically; *the like* for *the like thing, or like person.*] 1. Some person or thing resembling another.—

He was a man, take him for all and all,  
I shall not look upon his like again. *Hamlet.*

Every like is not the same, O Cæsar! *Shak.*

—Though there have been greater fleets for number, yet for the bulk of the ships never the like. *Bacon.*—Aibeit an eagle did bear away a lamb in her talons, yet a raven endeavouring to do the like was held entangled. *Hayward.*

One offers, and in offering makes a stay;  
Another forward sets, and doth no more;

A third the like. *Daniel.*

His desire  
By conversation with his like to help,  
Or solace his defects. *Milton.*

—Two likes may be mistaken. *L'Estrange.*

This might their mutual fancy strike,  
Since ev'ry being loves its like. *Swift.*

2. Used with *bad*; near approach; a state like to another state. A sense common but not just; perhaps *bad* is a corruption for *near*.—Report being carried secretly from one to another in my ship, *bad* like to have been my utter overthrow. *Raleigh.*

(1.) \* **T O L I K E**. *v. a.* [*lican*, Saxon; *liikēn*, Dutch.] 1. To chuse with some degree of preference.—As nothing can be so reasonably spoken as to content all men, so this speech was not of them all liked. *Knollet.*—He gave such an account as made it appear that he liked the design. *Clarend.*—We like our present circumstances well, and dream of no change. *Atterbury.*—2. To approve; to view with approbation, not fondness.—Though they did not like the evil he did, yet they liked him that did the evil. *Sidney.*—He grew content to mark their speeches, then to marvel at such wit in shepherds, after to like their company. *Sidney.*—He proceeded from looking to liking, and from liking to loving. *Sidney.*

For several virtues  
I have lik'd several women; never any  
With so full soul. *Shak.*

I look'd upon her with a soldier's eye;  
That lik'd, but had a rougher task in hand  
Than to drive liking to the name of love. *Shak.*  
—Scarce any man passes to a liking of sin in others; but by first practising it himself. *Soub.*

Beasts can like, but not distinguish too;  
Nor their own liking by reflection know. *Dryd.*

3. To please; to be agreeable to. Now disused.—

Well hoped he, ere long that hardy guest,  
If ever covetous hand, or lustful eye,  
Or lips he laid on thing that lik'd him best,  
Should be his prey. *Fairy Q.*

Say, my fair brother now, if this device  
Do like you, or may you to like entice. *Hubb.*  
—This desire being recommended to her majesty

is liked her to increase the fame within one entire leaf. *Bacon*.—He li dwell where it liketh him best. *Deut*.—

There let them learn, as likes them, to despise God and Messiah. *Milton*.

(2.) \* TO LIKE. *v. n.* 1. To be pleased with: with of before the thing approved. Obsolete.—Of any thing more than of God they could not by any means like. *Hooker*.—The young soldiers did with such cheerfulness like of this resolution, that they thought two days a long delay. *Knotles*. 2. To chuse; to list; to be pleased.—The man likes not to take his brother's wife. *Deut*.—He that has the prison doors set open is perfectly at liberty because he may either go or stay, as he best likes. *Locke*.

\* LIKELIHOOD. } *n. s.* [from *like*.] 1 Ap-

\* LIKELINESS. } pearance; shew. Obsolete.

What of his heart perceive you in his face,

By any likelihood he shew'd to-day? *Shak*.

2. Resemblance; likeness. Obsolete.—

As by a low, but loving likelihood,

Were now the general of our gracious empress,

As in a good time he may, from Ireland coming,

How many would the peaceful city quit

To welcome him? *Shak. Hen. V.*

—There is no likelihood between pure light and black darkness, or between righteousness and reprobation. *Raleigh*. 3. Probability; verisimilitude; appearance of truth.—As it noteth one such to have been in that age, so had there been more, it would by likelihood as well have noted many. *Hobbs*.—Many of likelihood informed me of this before. *Shak*.—

It never yet did hurt,

To lay down likelihood, and forms of hope. *Shak*.

—As there is no likelihood that the place could be so altered, so there is no probability that these rivers were turned out of their courses. *Raleigh*.

—Where things are least to be put to the venture, as the eternal interests of the other world ought to be; there every, even the least, probability, or likelihood of danger, should be provided against. *South*.

—There are predictions of our Saviour recorded by the evangelists, which were not completed till after their deaths, and had no likelihood of being so when they were pronounced by our blessed Saviour. *Addison*.—Thus, in all likelihood, would it be with a libertine, who should have a visit from the other world: the first horror it raised would go off, as new diversions come on. *Aterbury*.

(1.) \* LIKELY. *adj.* [from *like*.] 1. Such as may be liked; such as may please. Obsolete.—

These young companions make themselves believe they love at the first looking of a likely beauty. *Sidney*.—Sir John, they are your likeliest men; I would have you served with the best. *Shak*.

2. Probable; such as may in reason be thought or believed; such as may be thought more reasonably than the contrary: as, a likely story, that is a credible story.

(2.) \* LIKELY. *adv.* Probably; as may reasonably be thought.—While man was innocent, he was likely ignorant of nothing that imported him to know. *Glavin*.

\* TO LIKEN. *v. a.* [from *like*.] To represent as having resemblance; to compare.—The prince

broke your head for likening him to a finger of Windfor. *Shak*.—

For who, though with the tongue Of angels, can relate? or to what things Liken on earth conspicuous, that may lift Human imagination to such height Of God-like power?

\* LIKENESS. *n. s.* [from *like*.] 1. Resemblance.—

They all do live, and moved are To multiply the likeness of their kind. —Translation is a kind of drawing after where there is a double sort of likeness, one and a bad one. *Dryden*.—There will be a better likeness, and a worse; and the best constantly to be chosen. *Dryden*. 2. For appearance.—Never came trouble to my heart the likeness of your grace; for trouble being comfort should remain. *Shak*.—It is safer upon our guard against an enemy in the likeness of a friend, than to embrace any man for a friend the likeness of an enemy. *L'Esrange*. who resembles another; a copy; a counterfeit. Poor Cupid, sobbing, scarce could find Indeed mamma, I do not know yet: Alas! how easy my mistake? I took you for your likeness Cloe.

\* LIKEWISE. *adv.* [like and *wise*.] In the same manner; also; moreover; too.—Jesus said to them, I also will ask you one thing, which tell me, I likewise will tell you by what I do these things. *Matt. xxi. 24*.—So was the decay of the Roman empire, and likewise the empire of Almaine, after Charles the Great the bird taking a feather. *Bacon*.—Spirit of sea-salt poured to pure unmixed serum, coagulate it had been boiled. Spirit of sea-salt makes perfect coagulation of the serum likewise, but some different phenomena. *Arbutnot*.

LI-KIANG-TOU, a city of China of the first rank, in the prov. of Yan-nan, near the mouth of the Yang-Cong-Kiang; surrounded by mountains abounding with pine apples, amber, gold, &c. It is 1150 miles SW. of Peking. Lat. 50. E. Ferro. Lat. 26. 52. N.

(1.) \* LIKING. *adj.* [Perhaps because likeness is agreeable to the sight.] Plump; inflated; of plumpness. I fear my lord the king, who appointed your meat and your drink; I should he see your faces worse liking, than children which are of your sort. *Dan. i.*

(2.) \* LIKING. *n. s.* [from *like*.] 1. Growth of body; plumpness.—I'll repent and that I shall, while I'm in some liking; I shall be heart shortly, and then I shall have no further repent. *Shak*.—Their young ones are in liking; they grow up with corn. *Job, xx.* Cappadocian slaves were famous for their plumpness; and, being in good liking, were sold, when exposed to sale, to shew the plumpness of their body. *Dryden*. 2. State of tranquillity.—The royal soul, that, like the lab'rinth By charms of art was hurried down; Fore'd with regret to leave her native land Came but a while on liking here.

3. Inclination.—

Why do you longer feed on loathed food Or liking find to gaze on earthly mold? (3.)



**L I K I N G.** *n. f.* [from the *verbr.*] Delight  
ure in: *to.*—He who has no *liking* to the  
ught in reason to be excluded from cen-  
the parts. *Dryden.*

**L I L A C H.** *n. f.* [*ilac, li'as, Fr.*] A tree.—  
te thorn is in leaf, and the *lilach* tree.

**L I L A C H,** or **L I L A C.** See **S Y R I N G A.**

**L A,** a town of Achaia, on the Cephissus.  
**J R N E,** John, an enthusiastic English re-  
born in 1618, and descended of an an-  
ily in Durham. He was bred a clothier,  
ing Puritan, he gave up business in 1636,  
me assistant to Dr **B A S T W I C K,** in whose  
s he shared. For going to Holland to get  
s *Merry Liturgy* printed, he was on his  
n 1637, tyrannically punished by the star-  
court; being put in the pillory, whipped,  
ed imprisoned, loaded with heavy irons,  
sing pamphlets, reflecting on the church  
nd and its bishops, particularly *Prynne's*  
*on Ipswich.* In 1641, he was released by  
parliament; and from that period, made  
ormidable to all parties, by his bold, at-  
minus. He signalized himself in the par-  
s army, in which he was made a major in  
d a colonel in 1644. He was at one time  
t friend and confident of Cromwell, and  
er his avowed enemy and accuser; so that,  
Cromwell found it his interest to silence  
a grant of 3000*l.* out of some forfeited e-  
Yct after this, he grew outrageous a-  
e protector's government; became chief  
vellers; and was twice tried for high trea-  
acquitted by the juries. The last was  
ning from exile, having been banished by  
ament. After this he settled at Eltham,  
e joined the Quakers; and died Aug. 29,  
ed 59. His funeral was attended by 4000

His brother Robert was a Major-Gener-  
omwell's army. He wrote his *Christian*  
*trial,* in 1637, 4to, and many similar pieces  
prison.

**L I C E O U S,** *adj.* in botany, an appellation  
such flowers as resemble those of the lily.  
**L I E D.** *adj.* [from *lily.*] Embellished with

mphs and shepherds dance no more  
idy Ladon's *lilied* banks. *Milton.*

**L I N S T E I N,** a town of Upper Saxony.

**L I E N T H A I,** Michael, a learned Prof-  
o was professor at Konigsberg and wrote  
dissertations, on various subjects, inserted  
emoirs of the Academy at Berlin; with o-  
rks. He died in 1750.

**L I E N T H A L,** a town of Saxony, in Meissen.  
**L I N,** a town of China, in Hou-Quang.

**L I M,** the **L I L Y,** in botany, a genus of the  
nia order, belonging to the hexandria class  
5; and in the natural method ranking un-  
oth order *Coronariae.* The corolla is hex-  
s, and campanulated, with a longitudinal  
rous line or furrow; the capsules connect-  
nall cancellated hairs. There are many  
all bulbous-rooted, herbaceous, flowery  
is, rising with erect annual stalks 3 or 4  
1, garnished with long narrow leaves, and

terminated by clusters of large, bell-shaped, hex-  
apetalous flowers of exceeding great beauty, of  
white, red, scarlet, orange, purple, and yellow  
colours. All the species are propagated by sow-  
ing the seeds; and if care is taken to preserve these  
seeds from good flowers, very beautiful varieties  
are often produced. The manner of sowing them  
is as follows: Some square boxes should be pro-  
cured, about 6 inches deep, with holes bored in  
the bottoms to let out the wet; these must be fil-  
led with fresh, light, sandy earth; and the seeds  
sown upon them pretty thick in the beginning of  
August, and covered over about half an inch  
deep with light sifted earth of the same kind.  
They should then be placed where they may have  
the morning sun; and if the weather proves dry,  
they must be watered at times, and the weeds  
carefully picked out. In October the boxes are  
to be removed to a place where they may have as  
much sun as possible, and be secured from the N.  
and NE. winds. In spring the young plants will  
appear, and the boxes are then removed into their  
former situation. In August the smallest roots are  
to be emptied out of these boxes, strewed over a  
bed of light earth, and covered with about half an  
inch depth of the same earth sifted over them. Here  
they must be watered, shaded at times, and defend-  
ed from the severity of winter by a slight covering  
of straw in the hardest weather. In Feb. the sur-  
face of the bed should be cleared, and a little light  
earth sifted over it. When the leaves are decayed  
the earth should be a little stirred over the roots;  
and in the month of Sept. following some more  
earth sifted on. In the September of the follow-  
ing year, the roots must be transplanted to the  
places where they are to remain, and set at the  
distance of eight inches; the roots being placed 4  
inches below the surface: this should be done in  
moist weather. They will now require the same  
care as in the preceding winters; and, the second  
year after they are transplanted, the strongest roots  
will begin to flower. The fine ones should then  
be removed at the proper season into flower beds,  
and planted at great distances from one another  
that they may flower strong. The roots of the  
white lily are emollient, maturating, and greatly  
suppurative. They are used externally in cata-  
plasmis for these purposes. The common form of  
applying them is boiled and bruised; but some  
prefer roasting them till tender, and then beating  
them to a paste with oil, in which form they are  
said to be excellent against burns. Gerard recom-  
mends them internally against dropsies.

**L I L I U M K A M T S C H A T E N S E,** or *Kamtschatka*  
*lily,* called there **S A R A N N E,** makes a principal part  
of the food of the Kamtschatkans. Its roots are  
gathered by the women in August, dried in the  
sun, and laid up for use: they are the best bread  
of the country; and after being baked are reduced  
to powder, and serve instead of flour in soups and  
several dishes. They are sometimes washed, and  
eaten as potatoes; are extremely nourishing, and  
have a pleasant bitterish taste. Our navigators  
boiled and eat them with their meat. The natives  
often parboil and beat them up with several sorts  
of berries, so as to form a very agreeable confec-  
tion. Providentially it is an universal plant there,

and all the grounds bloom with its flower during the season. Another remarkable circumstance is, that while fish are scarce the saranne is plentiful; and when it is scarce the rivers abound with fish. A species of mouse saves the Kamtschatkan women a great deal of trouble. The saranne forms part of their winter provisions; they not only gather them in the proper season, and lay them up in their magazines, but bring them out in sunny weather to dry them, lest they should spoil. The natives search for their hoards, but leave part for the owners, being unwilling to suffer such useful caterers to perish.

LILLE. See LISTE.

LILLEBONNE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Seine; 16½ miles E. of Havre.

LILLERS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais, and ci-devant province of Artois; ceded to France by Spain at the peace of the Pyrenees, when its fortifications were demolished. It is seated on the Navez, 6 miles NW. of Bethune, and 17 of Arras. Lon. 2. 35. E. Lat. 50. 30. N.

LILLIARD'S EDGE, a ridge of a hill in Roxburghshire, in the parish of Ancrum, and bordering on that of Maxton, famous for a great victory gained by a small body of the Scots, under the earls of Angus and Arrian, about 1545, over an army of 5000 Englishmen, under Sir Ralph Rivers and Sir Bryan Laiton. Much of the glory of this victory is ascribed to the intrepidity of a Scottish Amazon of the name of *Lilliard*, who fought with masculine courage, and fell in the action, covered with many wounds. The memory of this young lady's patriotism is better preserved in the name of the ridge than on her tomb-stone, which however is still to be seen. *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* III. 278; and X. 294.

LILLIENFELD, a town of Austria, on the Trafen, 14 miles S. of St Polcen.

(1.) LILLIES-LEAF, a parish of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, 5½ miles long, and from half a mile to 1½ broad; containing about 7500 acres. The river *Ale* runs through the head of it, and bounds it on the N. and E. It abounds with fine trouts. The soil is partly clay, rich loam, and partly light gravel. The crops are oats, pease, barley, grass, hay, turnips, and potatoes. The population, in 1793, was 630, and had increased 109 since 1755; the number of horses was 175; black cattle, 580; sheep, 1394; and swine, 29. Relics of a Roman invasion have been found.

(2.) LILLIES-LEAF, a village in the above parish, 7½ miles WNW. of Jedburgh. Spinning and weaving are the chief manufactures.

LILLIPUT, a town of N. Carolina, on the river Fear, 2 miles N. of Brunswick.

(1.) LILLO, George, an excellent dramatic writer, born at London in 1693. He was a jeweller by profession, and followed his business for many years in that neighbourhood with reputation. He was at the same time strongly attached to the Muses, but laid it down as a maxim, that they ought always to tend to the promotion of virtue, morality, and religion. In pursuance of this aim, Lillo was happy in the choice of his subjects, and showed great power of affecting the heart, by working up the passions to such a height, as to render the

distresses of common and domestic life equally interesting as those of kings and heroes; and the ruin brought on private families by an indulgence of avarice, lust, &c. as the havoc made in states and empires by ambition, cruelty, and tyranny: His *George Barnwell*, *Fatal Curiosity*, and *Arden of Feversham*, are all planned on common and well-known stories; yet they have perhaps oftener drawn tears from an audience, than the more pompous tragedies of *Alexander the Great*, *All for Love*, &c. In the prologue to *Elmeric*, which was not acted till after his death, it is said, that when he wrote that play, he "was depressed by want," and afflicted by disease; but in the former particular there is a mistake, as he left an estate of 60 l. a-year, besides moveables to a considerable value. He died in 1737, in the 47th year of his age. His works were published, with his life, in 2 vols 12mo, by Mr T. Davis.

(2.) LILLO, a fort of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Meuse, and late prov. of Dutch Brabant, on the E. side of the Scheldt. It was built in 1584; and attacked in 1588, by the Spaniards under M. de Rieisbourg, who were repulsed with the loss of 2000 men. It was taken by the French in 1793; evacuated soon after; but finally retaken by them in 1794. It lies 9 miles NW. of Antwerp, and 12 S. of Bergen op Zoom. Lon. 4. 18. E. Lat. 51. 18. N.

(3.) LILLO, a town of Spain, in New Castile.

(1.) LILLY, or LYLLEY, John, a dramatic poet, born in the wilds of Kent, about 1553, and educated in Magdalen college, Oxford, where he took the degree of A. B. in 1573, and that of M. A. in 1575. From Oxford he removed to Cambridge, and thence to London, where he became acquainted with some of Queen Elizabeth's courtiers, by whom he was caressed as a poet and a wit; and, on particular festivals, the queen honoured his dramatic pieces with her presence. He wrote 9 plays, but his first publication, printed in 1580, was a romance called *Euphues and his England*, which was universally read and admired. This romance, which Blount, the editor of six of his plays says, introduced a new language, particularly among the ladies, is, according to Berkenhout, a most contemptible piece of *affectation* and *nonsense*; though in that respect he could not exceed many writers of the present age; and it is certain, that it was in high esteem among the women of fashion, who, we are told by Whalley, the editor of Ben Jonson's works, had all the phrases by heart, so that those who did not speak *Euphuesism* were as little regarded at court as if they could not speak French. In fact, he is considered by some, as the *first reformer* of the English language, by purging it of obsolete and uncouth expressions. "He was (says Oldys) a man of great reading, good memory, ready faculty of application, and uncommon eloquence; but he ran into a vast excess of allusion." When or where he died is not known. Wood says he was living in 1597, when his last comedy was published. After attending the court of Queen Elizabeth 13 years, notwithstanding his reputation as an author, he was under a necessity of petitioning the queen for support in his old age. His two letters to her majesty on that subject are preserved in MS.

(2.) LILLY,

LY, William, a noted English astrologer in Leicestershire in 1603; where his being able to give him more learning than arithmetic, he resolved to seek his fortune. He arrived in 1620, and lived a servant to a mantua-maker; after which he went into the service of Mr Wright, master of a company, who not being able to read, he kept his books. In 1627, his master died, he married the widow, with a fortune of 1000*l.* being now his own master, he followed several nautical preachers; and, turning his mind to astrology, became pupil to one Evans, an Irishman, in that pretended art. Getting the *Ars notitia* of Corn. Agrippa, he applied to the doctrine of the magic circle, and the doctrine of spirits, with great eagerness. He was the author of the *Book of Fortune*; *Merlinus junior*; *The Supernatural Sight*; and *The Prophecy*. In him we have an instance of a general superstition that prevailed during the interval between Char. I. and his parliament: he consulted this astrologer, to know in what manner he should conceal himself, if he could not escape from Hampton court; and Gen. Fairfax, after his flight, sent for him to ask, whether with their aid they should march to London, or whether they should march to the north, and their cause? Lilly, assuring them that God would be with him and

In 1648, he published his *Treatise of Astrology* seen the preceding winter; and also a judgement upon a conjunction of Mars and Venus. This year the council of state granted him a pension of 100*l.* per annum, and a pension of 200*l.* per annum, and then resigned the office. In June 1660, he was taken by a fever, and died the next day, by whom he was succeeded in the person who cut off the head of king Charles I. The same year he obtained his pardon under the great seal of England, and in 1666, he removed to his estate at Hertham; and in 1666 was examined before a committee of commons concerning the fire of London, which happened in September that year. He studied physic, and, by means of a recommendation, obtained from Abp. Sheldon a licence to practise it. He adopted for his son, by his first wife, one Henry Coley, a physician, who gave him the property of his almanac, which had been printed for 36 years. He died of a dead palsy. Mr Ashmole erected a monument over his grave in the church of Walpole. His *Observations on the Life of Charles, late King of England*, if we believe the astrological nonsense, may be read with much satisfaction as more celebrated history being not only well informed, but impartial. This work, with the *Lives of Ashmole*, written by themselves, were printed in 2 vol. 8vo, in 1774, by Mr Burman. **LILY**. *n. f.* [*Lilium*, Latin.] A flower.—32 species of this plant, including white lilies, red lilies, and martagons of various sorts. —

*In this quotation from Shakespeare, is an adjective, used figuratively for white, and, like many other adjectives brought by Dr JOHNSON, affords no proper illustration of his subject. LILY, adj. ought to have had a distinct article, which this quotation would have fully authorized.*

Oh! had the monster seen those *lily* hands †  
Tremble, like aspen leaves, upon a lute,  
And make the silken strings delight to kiss them;  
He would not then have touch'd them for his  
life! Shak.

Like the *lily*,  
That once was mistress of the field, and flourish'd,

I'll hang my head, and perish. Shak.  
—Arno, a river of Italy, is drawn like an old man, by his right side a lion, holding forth in his paw a red *lily*, or flower-de-luce. *P. ucbam*—

Take but the humblest *lily* of the field;  
And if our pride will to our reason yield;  
It must by sure comparison be shown,  
That on the regal seat great David's son,  
Array'd in all his robes, and types of power,  
Shines with less glory than that simple flower.

Prior.  
For her the *lilies* hang their heads, and die.

(2.) LILY, in botany. See LILIUM.  
(3.) LILY, AFRICAN SCARLET. See AMARYLLIS.

(4.) LILY, ASPHODEL. See AMARYLLIS, CRISTUM, and HEMEROCALLIS.

(5.) LILY, BELLADONNA. See AMARYLLIS, N<sup>o</sup> 5.

(6.) \* LILY DAFFODIL. *n. f.* [*lilo-narcissus*.] A foreign flower.

(7.) LILY DAFFODIL. See AMARYLLIS, N<sup>o</sup> 4.  
(8.) LILY, DAY. See HEMEROCALLIS.

(9.) \* LILY HYACINTH. *n. f.* [*lilio-hyacinthus*.] It hath a *lily* flower, composed of six leaves, shaped like the flower of hyacinth: the roots are scaly, and shaped like those of the *lily*. There are three species of this plant; one with a blue flower, another white, and a third red. *Miller*.

(10.) LILY HYACINTH. See SCILLA.  
(11.) \* LILY OF THE VALLEY, or MAY LILY,

*n. f.* [*lilium convallium*.] The flower consists of one leaf, is shaped like a bell, and divided at the top into six segments; the ovary becomes a soft globular fruit, containing several round seeds. It is very common in shady woods. *Miller*.—*Lily* of the valley has a strong root that runs into the ground. *Mortimer*.

(12.) LILY OF THE VALLEY. See CONVALLARIA.

(13.) LILY, PERSIAN. See FRITILLARIA.  
(14.) LILY, SUPERB. See GLORIOSA.

(15.) LILY, THORN. See CATESBÆA.  
(16.) LILY, WATER. See NYMPHÆA, N<sup>o</sup> II.

(17.) LILY, YELLOW WATER. See MENYANTHES.

(18.) LILY, ZEYLON. See AMARYLLIS, N<sup>o</sup> 6.

LILYBÆUM, in ancient geography, a city of Sicily, seated on the most westerly cape of Sicily, and said to have been founded by the Carthaginians, on their expulsion from Motya by Dionysius tyrant of Syracuse. It sustained 3 sieges; one by Dionysius, another by Pyrrhus king of Epirus, and the 3d by the Romans. The two first failed in their attempts, but the Romans made themselves

der of it, though with no small difficulties remains of this once stately city are now, except some aqueducts and temples; it was standing in Strabo's time.

LILYE, William, the grammarian, was born at Oldham in Hampshire; and in 1566 admitted a semi-commoner of Magdalen in Oxford. Having taken the degree at the university, and travelled to Jerusalem thence, he continued 5 years there he studied the Greek, several times having retired thither after taking of the plague. From Rhodes he travelled to Constantinople, where he improved himself in the Greek languages, under Sulpitius and P. Sannas. He returned to London, where for some years he taught a private grammar-school, the first person who taught Greek in that city. Dr Colet founded St Paul's school, where he pointed the first master; at which school he was married and had many children. In 1570 he had laboured 12 years seized by the plague, which he died in Feb. 1573, and was buried in St Paul's. He had the character of an excellent grammarian, and a successful teacher in several learned languages. His principal work is *una institutio, seu ratio grammaticæ cognoscendæ*. Lond. 1573, very often reprinted, and translated into English under the title of *Lilye's grammar*. The English written by Dr Colet, dean of St Paul's, in the preface to the first edition, by Thomas Digges. The Latin syntax was chiefly written by Erasmus. The rest was written by the author. See Ward's preface to his edition of Lilye's grammar, 1732.

(2.) LILYE, George, eldest son of the preceding, was born at London, and educated at Magdalen College, Oxford. He afterwards went to Rome, where he was patronized by Cardinal Pole, and became eminent for his learning. On his return he was made canon of St Paul's, and prebendary of Canterbury. He wrote several books on English history, and published the first exact map of Britain. He died in 1559.

(3, 4.) LILYE; Peter, the 2d son of William, was also a dignitary in the church of Canterbury, and father of Peter Lilye D. D. prebendary of St Paul's, and arch deacon of Taunton. He died in 1614, and his Sermons were published by his widow.

\* LILYLIVERED. *adj.* [*lily* and *liver*.] White-livered; cowardly.—A base *lilylivered*, action-taking knave. *Shak.*

(1.) LIMA, a province, or as some geographers affect to style it, an *audience*, of S. America in Peru, bounded on the N. by Quito, E. by the Andes, S. by the prov. of Charcos, and W. by the S. Pacific Ocean. It was erected in 1542, and contains one archbishopric, viz. *Lima*, which has 15 jurisdictions; and 4 bishoprics, viz. Arequipa with 6 jurisdictions, Truxillo with 7, Guamanga with 9, and Cusco with 14. Near the mountains it abounds with very large tawny tigers, panthers, and other wild beasts, as fierce as those of Africa.

(2.) LIMA, a city of Peru, of which it is capital, in the above province, with an university. It gives name to the principal audience of Peru; and is surrounded with brick walls, fortified with

several ramparts and bastions 8 yards high. The streets are handsome, and as straight as a line; but the houses are generally only one story high, on account of the earthquakes. However, they are well adorned, having long galleries on the front. One part of the roofs are covered with coarse beaver cloth, and the others only with reeds, which is not inconvenient as it never rains; but the richest inhabitants cover theirs with fine mats, or beautiful cotton cloths. There are trees planted all round their houses, to keep off the heat of the sun. What the houses want in height they have in length and depth; for some of them are 200 feet long, and proportionally broad, so that they have 10 or 12 large apartments on the ground floor. The royal square is very handsome, and in the middle is a fountain of bronze, with an image of Fame spouting up water. On the E. and W. sides are the public structures, which are well built. From the river which crosses Lima, there are canals which run to the most of the houses, to serve to water their gardens, &c. All the churches and convents are extremely rich; and many images of the saints are of massy gold, adorned with jewels. This city is 14 miles long, and a broad and is divided into 8 parishes; yet it contains only 28,000 inhabitants, whereof 9000 are Spaniards. They use mules to draw their coaches, and in these there are about 5000. It is the seat of a viceroy, and contains the courts of the viceroy; the archbishop, the inquisition, the *alcaldes*, and the wills. Earthquakes are here very frequent; some of which have done this city great deal of damage; particularly in 1582, 1586, 1609, 1620, 1655, 1678, 1687, 1697, 1699, 1732, 1734, 1745, and 1746. Of these the most dreadful happened in 1586, 1620, 1687, and 1746; by all of which it was almost destroyed.

It abounds with corn, wine, oil, sugar, indigo, flax, &c. The inhabitants are so rich, that when the viceroy, who was duke of Palata, and came out from Spain to Peru in 1672, made his public entrance into this city, they paved the way for him as he was to pass through with ingots of silver. They are very debauched, extremely superstitious, and have great faith in the power of charms. About a 4th part of the people are monks and nuns, who are not a jot more chaste than the rest; and if any one rivals a monk, he is in danger of his life. The nuns are such libertines, that it is hard to find one of them free from the venereal disease of which they sometimes die for want of good physicians. The greatest sinners think they are free for all their faults by hearing a mass, and kissing the robe of St Francis or St Dominic. Lima is seated in a large, pleasant, fertile plain, on a river near the sea. Lon. 68. 45. W. Lat. 12. 10.

(3.) LIMA, or RIMAC, an extensive valley of Peru, in the above province, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

(4.) LIMA, a river in the above province.

(5.) LIMA, a river of Spain, which rises in the Portuguese prov. of Entre Duero-e-Minho, and runs into the Atlantic, 1 1/4 miles below *Via* was anciently called *Bello*. See BELLIO.

LIMALE, a town of the French republic in the dep. of the Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Brabant, seated on the Dyle; 12 m. S. of Louvain, 15 SE. of Brussels. Lon. 4. 42. E. Lat. 50.

LIMA

**LIMASSOL**, or **LIMISSO**, a town of Cyprus, the island. Of the ancient city no remains remain; though it was a celebrated city under the government of the dukes. It was the conqueror of the last of these vast empire, razed it in 1191, and it was rebuilt. It was anciently called **AMATHUS**, *Amathus*; famous, as Pausanias tells us, for the worship of Venus and Adonis. It was the residence of the first kings of Cyprus: among these was subjected by Artabanus, the Persian. It was erected into an archbishopric of the Christians, and has produced a number of personages celebrated for their learning.

Near it are several copper mines, which the Turks have been forced to abandon. See the notice of its metals in his *Metamorphosis*, X. ver. 220, and 531: where he styles it, *gravidamque Amathunta metallis*; he relates the metamorphosis of its inhabitants into wild bulls, on account of their ferocity in sacrificing all strangers to Juno. (vi.) The place where Limassol now formerly had the name of *Nemofia*, from woods which surrounded it. Richard I. of England, having destroyed Amathonte, the bishop of Luffignan in the 12th century laid the foundations of that new city, which the Greeks call **OPOLEOS**. The family of Luffignan, who were used to embellish and fortify it, built several Greek and Latin churches; and erected a seat of a bishop. When Cyprus was seized by the Turks in July 1570, they plundered this city. At present it is a wretched place; scarcely any remains of its ancient edifices to be seen. It is governed by a commander in chief; the latter judges causes previously before they are carried to the superior court at Nicosia. The harbour is very commodious, being sheltered from impetuous winds; it affords a safe asylum to vessels overtaken by storms. The carob tree is very abundant; quantities of its fruit are exported. The port wine is also salt, procured from a lake near the city. Cotton, garden stuffs, wheat, barberry trees, are plentiful in this part of the island. The best Cyprus wine is made from the hills of Limassol. All the wines of the island are collected in this city to be sent to Larica, where there are the largest

**LIMATURE**, *n. f.* [*limatura*, Lat.] Filings of the particles rubbed off by a file.

**LIMAVADY**, or **NEWTON LIMAVADY**, a town in Derry, 106 miles from Dublin.

**LIMB**, or **NAKED SNAIL**; a genus of worms belonging to the order of vermes mollusca; the body is oblong, fitted for crawling, covered with a muscular coat on the upper part; the feet are plain. They have 4 tentacula, or feelers, extended above the mouth, which they exert at pleasure.—This reptile is always in its shell; but, besides that its skin is more of a greater consistency than that of the black naked slug, has a furrowed back as thick and as hard as leather, and withdraws its head as within a shell. It is distinguished from the breast by a

black line. In its head and back the snail stone is found; which is a small pearly and sandy stone, of the nature of lime stones: according to a popular opinion, it cures the tertian ague, if fastened to the patient's arm. These slugs move on slowly, leaving every where clammy and shining marks of their passage. They come together about the end of spring. The organs of generation are placed, as in the snail, on the right side of the neck. The male implement unfolds with the same mechanism as the finger of a glove when turned inside out. They are sometimes met with hanging in the air with their heads downwards; and their tails, united by a kind of viscous and thick tie, grappled to the branch of a tree. In this situation they remain for 3 hours, which is the time of impregnation. They deposit their eggs in the earth. There are 3 species, distinguished entirely by their colour; as the *black*, the *white*, the *red*, the *ash*, the *ash-coloured slug*, &c. The black slug is hermaphrodite, both sexes being in each individual, and in the coitus both impregnate and are impregnated at the same time. A black slug powdered over with snuff, salt, or fugar, falls into convulsions, casts forth all its foam, and dies. See **REPRODUCTION**.

**LIMAY**, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Oise; on the Seine, opposite Mantes.

(1.) \* **LIMB**, *n. f.* [*lim*, Saxon and Scottish; *lem*, Danish.] 1. A member; a jointed or articulated part of animals.—

A second Hector, for his grim aspect,  
And large proportion of his strong knit limbs.

*Shak.*

O! that I had her here, to tear her limb meal!

*Shak.*

Now am I come each limb to survey,  
If thy appearance answer loud report. *Milton.*  
2. [*Limbe*, Fr. *limbus*, Lat.] An edge; a border. A philosophical word.—By moving the prisms about, the colours again emerged out of the whiteness, the violet and the blue at its inward limb, and at its outward limb the red and yellow. *Newton.*

(2.) **LIMB**, in anatomy, (*§ 1. def. 1.*) is used solely of the extremities of the arms and legs.

(3.) **LIMB**, (*§ 1. def. 2.*) in astronomy, botany, mathematics, &c. is used of the edge of the sun, the moon, of a quadrant, of a leaf, &c.

(4.) **LIMB**, in theology. See **LIMBUS**.

\* **To LIMB**, *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To supply with limbs.—

As they please,

They limb themselves, and colour, shape, and size  
Assume, as likes them best, condense, or rare.

*Milton.*

2. To tear asunder; to dismember.

**LIMBACH**, a town of Saxony, in Erzgebürg.

**LIMBAT**, a periodical wind common in Cyprus, and of great service in moderating the excessive heat of the climate. According to Abbé Mariti, it begins to blow at 8 A. M. the first day; increases as the sun advances till noon; then gradually weakens, and at 3 falls entirely. On the 2d day it arises at the same hour; but it does not attain its greatest strength till 1 P. M. and ceases at 4. On the 3d day it begins as before; but falls at 5. On the five succeeding days, it follows the same progression as on the 3d; but a little before

it ceases, becomes extremely violent. At the end of 5 days it commences a new period like the former. These winds arise in the beginning of summer, last during the period when the heat is most insupportable, and end about the 15th of Sept.

LIMBE, a village of Hispaniola, 21 miles W. by S. of St Domingo.

(1.) \* LIMBECK. *n. f.* [corrupted by popular pronunciation from *alembeck*.] A still.—

Her cheeks, on which this streaming nectar fell,  
Still'd through the *limbeck* of her diamond eyes.

*Fairfax.*

Fires of Spain, and the line,  
Whose countries *limbecks* to our bodies be,  
Canst thou for gain bear?

*Donne.*

Call up, unbound,  
In various shapes, old Proteus from the sea,  
Drain'd thro' a *limbeck* to his naked form. *Milt.*  
—The earth, by secret conveyances, lets in the  
fea, and sends it back fresh, her bowels serving  
for a *limbeck*. *Hosuel.*—

He first survey'd the charge with careful eyes,  
Yet judg'd, like vapours that from *limbecks* rise,  
It would in richer showers descend again. *Dryd.*

The warm *limbeck* draws  
Salubrious waters from the nocent brood.

*Philips.*

(2.) LIMBECK. See ALSEMBICK, and CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

\* LIMBED. *adj.* [from *limb*.] Formed with regard to limbs.—

A steer of five years age, large *limb'd*, and fed,  
To Jove's high altars Agamemnon led. *Pope.*

\* LIMBER. *adj.* Flexible; easily bent; pliant; lithe.—

You put me off with *limber* vows. *Shak.*

—I wonder how, among the jealousies of court and state, Edgar Atheling could subsist, being the indubitate heir of the Saxon line: but he had tried, and found him a prince of *limber* virtues; so as though he might have some place in his caution, yet he reckoned him beneath his fear. *Watton.*—

At once came forth whatever creeps the ground,

Insect, or worm: those wav'd their *limber* fans  
For wings. *Milton.*

—She durst never stand at the bay, having nothing but her long soft *limber* ears to defend her. *Morgan Atbeism.*—The muscles were strong on both sides of the aspera arteria, but on the under side, opposite to that of the œsophagus, very *limber*. *Lay on Creation.*

LIMBERG, a town of Germany, in Stiria, 12 miles S. of Voitsberg.

\* LIMBERNESS. *n. f.* [from *limber*.] Flexibility; pliancy.

LIMBEY, a town of Nottinghamshire, near the Lime, W. of Sherwood Forest.

\* LIMBO. *n. f.* [*Eo quod sit limbus inferorum. Du Cange.*] 1. A region bordering upon hell, in which there is neither pleasure nor pain. Popularly hell.—

No, he is in tartar *limbo*, worse than hell,  
A devil in an everlasting garment hath him,  
One whose hard heart is button'd up with steel.

*Shakefp.*

Oh what a sympathy of woe is this!  
As far from help as *limbo* is from bliss. *Shak.*

All these up-whirl'd ale  
Fly o'er the back side of the world  
Into a *limbo* large, and broad, since  
The paradise of fools. *Milton.*

2. Any place of misery and restraint.—  
Trulla straight brought on the cl  
And in the self-same *limbo* put  
The knight and squire, where he v

—Fris, thou art come off thyself, but  
left in *limbo*. *Dryden's Spanish Fryar.*

LIMBORCH, Philip, a learned w  
the Remonstrants, born at Amsterd  
After having made great proficiency in  
he was, in 1655, licensed to preach, w  
first at Haerlem. He was chosen minist  
ja, whence he was called to Amsterd  
pointed professor of divinity, in whic  
acquired great reputation. He had a  
genius, and a tenacious memory; and  
ed with the most eminent men of h  
letters to Mr Locke are printed with t  
celebrated author. He was a sincere  
an example of every virtue, and prest  
gour of body and mind till he died, in  
79. He wrote many works, the princip  
are, 1. *Amica collatio de veritate relig  
ane cum erudito Judæo*, in 12mo. 2.  
body of Divinity, according to the o  
doctrines of the Remonstrants. 3. t  
the Inquisition; since translated into  
Dr Samuel Chandler. He also publishe  
of EPISCOPUS, who was his great-  
mother's side. In 1694, he recover  
lady to Christianity, who had been p  
Judaism by a rabbi, while he was int  
in Hebrew.

(1.) LIMBURG, a ci-devant prov  
Austrian Netherlands, annexed to the  
public, in 1796, and included in the  
Oulte. It was bounded by the ci-de  
of Juliers on the N. and E. by Luxem  
S. and by the late bishopric of Liege  
being about 50 miles long, and 25 bro  
sists of good arable and pasture lan  
plenty of wood, and some iron mines

(2.) LIMBURG, a town of the Fren  
in the dep. of Oulte, and late capita  
devant duchy (N° 1.), is seated on a  
near the Vesse, among shady woods;  
chiefly of one broad street. It is str  
most inaccessible; but was taken by  
in 1675, and by the confederates und  
of Marlborough in 1702. It is famo  
cheese; and lies 15 miles SE. of Liege  
of Aix la Chapelle, and 46 N. of I  
Lon. 6. 8. E. Lat. 50. 40. N.

(3.) LIMBURG, a town of the Fren  
in the dep. of the Roer, and ci-deva  
Juliers; 2 miles NW. of Sittart.

(4.) LIMBURG, a town of Germany  
cle of the Lower Rhine, and archt  
Treves, on the Lahn, 26 miles N. of  
75 ENE. of Treves.

(5.) LIMBURG, or HOFEN LIMBUR  
and county of Germany, in Westph  
town is 4 miles NNW. of Altena.

LIMBUS, in the church of Rome

rent senses: 1. The *Limbus Patrum*, or *be patriarchs*, is said to be the place where archs waited the redemption of mankind: *ace* they suppose our Saviour's soul conom the time of his death to his resurrec-  
The *limbus of infants* dying without bap-  
place supposed to be distinct both from  
und hell; since, say the Catholics, chil-  
ng innocent of any actual sin; do not del-  
; and; by reason of their original sin,  
e admitted into heaven; although our  
himself expressly says, "Of such is the  
of heaven."

HEOU, a town of China, in Pe-tchei.  
LIME. *n. f.* [*lim, gelyman*, Saxon, to glue.]  
ous substance drawn over twigs, which  
nd entangles the wings of birds that light

bird! thou'dst never fear the net of lime,  
foul, nor the gin. *Shak. Macbeth.*  
must lay lime, to tangle her desires,  
ill sonnets. *Shak.*

Jollier of this state  
ire new-benefic'd ministers, he throws,  
ets or lime twigs, wheresoe'er he goes,  
lo of barrister on every wench. *Donne.*  
sh was taken with a bush of lime twigs.

re—  
a toils for beasts, and lime for birds were  
und,  
cep-mouth'd dogs did forest walks sur-  
und. *Dryden.*

quirt a wife, spread out his wily parts,  
ts, or lime twigs, for rich widows hearts.

*Pope.*  
of which mortar is made: so called be-  
d in cement.—There are so many species  
one, that we are to understand by it in  
ny stone that, upon a proper degree of  
omes a white calx, which will make a  
lition and noise on being thrown into  
ling into a loose white powder at the

The lime we have in London is usually  
chalk, which is weaker than that made  
*Hill's Mat. Med.*—They were now, like  
out lime, ill bound together, especially  
as were English, who were at a gaze,  
range one upon another, not knowing  
faithful to their side. *Bacon's Henry VII.*

ben a lofty pile is rais'd,  
er hear the workmen prais'd,  
ing the lime, or place the stones,  
admire Inigo Jones. *Swift.*

commonly made of chalk, or of any sort  
at is not sandy, or very cold. *Mortimer.*

IE, § 1, def. 2. See QUICKLIME.  
IE, in geography. See LYME.

IE, a town of Connecticut, 7 miles W.  
ondon.

IE, BROOK. See VERONICA, N° 1.

ME TREE, or LINDEN. *n. f.* [*Lind, Sax.*  
1. The linden tree.—The flower con-  
eral leaves, placed orbicularly, in the  
ose, having a long narrow leaf growing  
stalk of each cluster of flowers, from  
rises the pointal, which becomes testi-  
one capsule, containing an oblong seed.

III. PART 1.

The timber is used by carvers and turners. The  
trees continue found many years, and grow to a  
considerable bulk. Sir Thomas Brown mentions  
one, in Norfolk, 16 yards in circuit. *Miller.*—

For her the limes their pleasing shades deny,  
For her the lilies hang their heads, and die. *Pope.*  
2. A species of lemon. [*lime, French.*]

Bear me, Pomona! to thy citron groves!  
To where the lemon and the piercing lime,  
With the deep orange glowing thro' the green,  
Their lighter glories blend. *Townson's Summers*

(7.) LIME TREE, § 4, def. 1. See TILIA.  
(8.) LIME TREE, § 4, def. 2. See CITRUS.

\* To LIME. *v. a.* [from *lime*.] 1. To entangle;  
to ensnare.—

Oh bosom, black as death!  
Oh limed soul, that, struggling to be free,  
Art more engaged. *Shakesp.*

—Example, that so terribly shows in the wreck of  
maidenhood, cannot, for all that, dissuade succe-  
sion, but that they are limed with the twigs that  
threaten them. *Shak-sp.*—

The bird that hath been limed in a bush,  
With trembling wings misdoubteth ev'ry bush;  
And I, the hapless male to one sweet bird,  
Have now the fatal object in my eye,  
Where my poor young was lim'd, was caught,  
and kill'd. *Shakesp.*

2. To smear with lime.—

I myself have lim'd a bush for her,  
And plac'd a quire of such enticing birds,  
That she will light to listen to their lays. *Shak.*

—Those twigs in time will come to be limed, and  
then you are all lost if you do but touch them.  
*L'Estr.* 3. To cement. This sense is out of use.

I will not ruinate my father's house,  
Who gave his blood to lime the stones together,  
And set up Lancafter. *Shak.*

4. To manure ground with lime.—Encouragement  
that abatement of interest gave to landlords and  
tenants, to improve by draining, marling, and  
liming. *Child.*—All sorts of peate love limed or  
marled land. *Mortimer.*

\* LIMEKILN. *n. f.* [*lime and kiln*.] Kiln where  
stones are burnt to lime.—The counter gate is as  
hateful to me, as the reek of a lime-kiln. *Shakesp.*  
—They were found in a lime-kiln, and having pas-  
sed the fire, each is a little vitrified. *Woodward.*

(1.) LIMERICK, a county of Ireland, in the  
province of Munster, bounded on the E. by Tip-  
perary, W. by Kerry, N. by the Shannon, and S.  
by Cork. It is fruitful and populous; the soil re-  
quiring little or no manure in most places: besides  
excellent pasture for cattle it produces rich crops  
of all kinds of corn, with rape and some hemp.  
It contains 375,320 Irish plantation acres, about  
56 churches, a great number of parishes, 6 ba-  
ronies, and 3 boroughs. It has some clay, furze,  
fern, and mountain lands, and is famous for good  
cyder! It was much benefited by the palatines,  
who settled there and cultivated husbandry. It  
is well watered; the Shannon runs on the N. side  
of the county, and fertilizes its banks. The fuel  
is chiefly turf. At Loughill, there is a mine of coal  
or culm, chiefly used in kilns. The chief lake is  
Lough Gur; and the principal hills are, Knock-  
greny, Knockany, Knockring, and Tory, but

patrick. This county is about 42 broad. Before the Union it was a county palatine, and sent members to parliament.

**LOUGH-MEATH**, a market town in the county of Wick, the name of which is common to the county as well as of the town. It is seated on the Shannon, and was once the stronghold of the Danes. Its ancient name was *Lough Meath*. In the first ages it was much frequented by merchants, and after the conquest it was a place of considerable trade.

In the 13th century it was plundered by the Danes, and in the 14th century by the brother of Brian Borom, after the battle of Clontarf, in 970; and Brian afterwards exacted from the Danes of this city 365 tons of wine as a tribute, which shows the extensive traffic carried on by those people in that article. About A. D. 550, St Munchin founded a bishopric and built a church, which, however, was destroyed by the Danes on their taking this port in 853, and remained in ruins until their conversion in the 10th century; when the church of St Munchin was rebuilt, and the bishopric re-established. Donald O'Brien, about the time of the arrival of the English, founded and endowed the cathedral; and Donat O'Brien, Bp. of Limerick, in the 13th century, contributed much to the opulence of the see. About the close of the 12th century, the bishopric of Innis-Cathay was united to that of Limerick. It was besieged by king William III. in 1690, but without being taken. On the 21st Sept. 1691, it was besieged by the English and Dutch, and surrendered on the 14th October, after losing many men; but the garrison had very honourable terms. At that period, it was reckoned the 2d city in Ireland, but has since lost its rank, not because it thrives less, but because Cork thrives more.

It is composed of the *Irish* and *English* towns; the latter stands on the King's island, formed by the Shannon. It is 3 miles in circumference; has markets on Wed. and Sat. and fairs on Easter Tuesday, 1st July, 4th Aug. and 12th Dec. During 15 days, that the fair lasts in August, no person can be arrested in the city or liberties, on any process issuing out of the Tholsel court of Limerick. It is governed by a mayor, sheriffs, recorder, aldermen, and burgeses; there is also a barrack, a military governor and town-major. It had once the privilege of coinage: and different parliaments have been held in it. It was formerly walled, and in 1760, there were 17 of the gates standing; but to the great improvement of the place they are now all demolished, except the water-gate of king John's castle. Linen, woollen, and paper manufactures, are carried on here to great extent, and the export of provisions is considerable. It has many hospitals and public buildings, besides the cathedral and churches. A charter was granted to it by king John, and confirmed in succeeding reigns. About six miles from this is the famous *Castleconnellspa*. Limerick obtained the privilege of having mayors 10 years before that right was allowed to the citizens of London. Its first provost was John Stafford, in 1195 and 1197; and during the provostship of Henry Troy, a charter was granted, by Richard I. whereby the citizens were allowed to choose

mayors and bailiffs, Adam Servant, in 1197, being the first mayor. It continued to be governed, until the office of bailiff was changed that of sheriff, in 1609. Limerick is 50 miles S. of Cork, 50 S.E. of Galway, 73 W.N.W. of London, and 94 S.W. of Dublin. Lon. Lat. 52. 35. N.

(3.) **LIMERICK**, a town of Ireland, in the county of Leinster. It has 4 fairs.

(4.) **LIMERICK**, a township of the United States, in the district of Maine, and county of York, 10 miles N. of Boston.

(5.) **LIMERICK**, a township of Pennsylvania, in Montgomery county.

(1.) \* **LIMESTONE**. *n. f.* [*lime* and *stone*] A kind of stone of which lime is made.—Fire stone, if broken small, and laid on cold laid, is of advantage. *Mortimer*.

(2.) **LIMESTONE**, a post town of Kentucky, on a creek of the Ohio, the general landing place for emigrants, who sail down that river.

**LIMEUIL**, a town of France, in the department of Dordogne, 20 miles S. of Périgueux.

(1.) \* **LIME-WATER**. *n. f.* [*lime* and *water*] A medicine prepared by pouring water upon quick lime, with other ingredients to take off its ill savour, and great service internally in all cutaneous and diseases of the lungs. *Hill's Mat.* tried an experiment on wheat infused in water alone, and some in brandy and lime-water, and had from each grain a great increase of produce. *Husbandry*.

(2.) **LIME WATER**. See **PHARMACY**, **LIMIGANTES**. See **CONSTANTINOPLE**, **LIMINGTON**. See **LYMINGTON**, **LIMISSO**. See **LIMASSOL**.

(1.) \* **LIMIT**. *n. f.* [*limite*, Fr. *limite*] Bound; border; utmost reach.—The width of the mountain round about shall be 12 cubits. *Exod. xliii. 12.*

We went, great emperor, by thy city, to view the utmost limits of the land.

(2.) **LIMIT**, in a restrained sense, is used by mathematicians for a determined quantity, and a variable one continually approaches; in this sense, the circle may be said to be the limit of inscribed and circumscribed polygons.

(3.) **LIMIT**, in algebra, is applied to quantities, one of which is greater and the other less than another quantity; and in this sense, in speaking of the limits of equations, their solution is much facilitated.

\* **To LIMIT**. *v. a.* [*limiter*, French, *limiter*, Latin.] 1. To confine within certain bounds; to refrain; to circumscribe; not to leave loose. —They tempted God, and limited the land of Israel. *Psal. lxxviii. 41.*

There is boundless theft in limited professions.

—If a king come in by conquest, he is a limited monarch. *Swift*. 2. To restrain or moderate in general signification: as, *toe unweakened limited to this earth*.

\* **LIMITANEOUS**. *adj.* [from *limite*, Latin.] Pertaining to the bounds. *Dictionary*.

\* **LIMITARY**. *adj.* [from *limite*, Latin.] Pertaining to boundaries as a guard or superintendent



n, when I am thy captive, talk of chains,  
*limitary* cherub! *Milton.*

**LIMITATION.** *n. f.* *limitation.* French; *limitin.*] 1. Restriction; circumscription.—*tion* of each creature, is both the perfect-preservation thereof. *Hooker.*—

Am I yourself,  
is it were, in sort of *limitation*? *Shak.*  
sir, how this *limitation* of Adam's em-  
is line and posterity, will help us to one  
his *limitation*, indeed, of our author, will  
e the labour, who would look for him  
ie race of brutes; but will very little con-  
o the discovery amongst men. *Locke.*—  
come in by conquest, he is no longer a  
ionarch; if he afterwards consent to li-  
he becomes immediately king de jure.  
1. Confinement from a lax or undetermi-  
ort.—The cause of error is ignorance,  
raints and *limitations* all principles have  
to the matter whereunto they are ap-  
*Hooker.*

**LIMAT,** a river of the Helvetic republic,  
les in the Alps, 11 miles S. of Glarus,  
is called **LINTH**; and, after passing Gla-  
the Mat, near lake Wellenstadt, where it  
*Limmat*; after which it runs through the  
urich, and joins the Aar 3 miles N. of

**E,** a town of Kent, near Hithe, 4 miles  
nney, formerly a port, till choked up  
sds. It has still the horn, mace, and o-  
ns of its ancient grandeur; having been  
where the lord warden of the cinque  
-sworn at his entrance upon his office.  
an road from Canterbury, called **STANE-**  
ended here; and from the brow of the  
be seen the ruinous Roman walls almost  
tom of the marshes. Its ancient castle  
nverted into a farm house. It has great  
ntiquity, as well as the adjoining church.  
**MEER.** *n. f.* A mongrel.

[**LMN.** *v. a.* [*enluminer*, French, to adorn  
h pictures.] To draw; to paint any

eye doth his effigies witness,  
ily *limn'd*, and living in your face. *Shak.*  
is *limned* in lively colours. *Peacbam.*—  
he glories of the field spun, and by what  
they *limned* in their unaffected bravery?

**E,** in ancient geography; 1. a fortified  
ac borders of Laconia and Messina: 2.  
the Thracian Chersonesus.

**TIDIA,** a festival held in honour of  
*imnæ.*

**ER.** *n. f.* [corrupted from *enulmineur*,  
r of books with initial pictures.] A  
picture-maker.—That divers *limners*  
e, without either copy or design, should  
me picture to an undistinguishable ex-  
more conceivable than that matter,  
diversified, should frame itself so un-  
ccordingly to the idea of its kind.

are *limners* of another kind,  
out ideas in the mind;

Words are the paint by which their thoughts  
are shown,

And nature is their object to be drawn. *Granv.*  
**LIMNING,** the art of painting in water-co-  
lours, in contradistinction to painting which is  
done in oil colours. Limning is the most ancient  
kind of painting. Till John Van Eick found out  
the art of painting in oil, the painters all painted  
in water and in fresco. (See **ETICK.**) When they  
used boards, they usually glued a fine linen cloth  
over them, to prevent their opening; then laid on  
a ground of white; and lastly mixed up their  
colours with water and size, or with water and  
yolks of eggs, well beaten with the branches of a  
fig-tree, the juice whereof thus mixed with the  
eggs; and with this mixture they painted their  
pieces. In limning, all colours are proper, ex-  
cept the white made of lime, which is only used  
in fresco. The azure and ultramarine must al-  
ways be mixed with size or gum; but there are  
always applied two layers of hot size before the  
size-colours are laid on: the colours are all ground  
in water each by itself; and, as they are required  
in working, are diluted with size-water. When  
the piece is finished, go over it with the white of  
an egg well beaten; and with varnish, if requir-  
ed. To limn, or draw a face in colours: having  
all the materials in readiness, lay the prepared co-  
lour on the card even and thin, free from hairs  
and spots over the place where the picture is to  
be. The ground being laid, and the party placed  
in a due position, begin the work which is to be  
done at three sittings. At the first you are only  
to dead-colour the face, which will require about  
two hours. At the 2d sitting, go over the work  
more cursoriously, adding its particular graces or  
deformities. At the 3d sitting, finish the whole;  
carefully remarking whatever may conduce to  
render the piece perfect, as the cast of the eyes,  
moles, scars, gestures, and the like. See **DRAW-**  
**ING,** *Sec.* V.—VII.

**LIMNUS,** in ancient geography, an island be-  
tween Pembrokeshire and Ireland, now called  
**RAMSEY.**

**LIMOGES,** an ancient trading town of France,  
capital of the dep. of Upper Vienne; lately in the  
prov. of Guienne, and ci-devant capital of Limo-  
sin. Its horses are in great esteem. It is seated  
on the Vienne, 50 miles NE. of Perigueux, and  
110 E. of Bourdeaux: containing about 13,000  
citizens. Lon. 1. 20 E. Lat. 45. 50. N.

**LIMONADE,** a town of Hispaniola, 12 miles  
SW. of Port Liberty.

(1.) **LIMONE,** a town of the French republic,  
in the military dep. of Piedmont, and late county  
of Tenda; 6 miles NE. of Tenda, and 10 S. of  
Coni.

(2.) **LIMONE,** a town in Negropont isle.

(1.) **LIMONES,** a river in the isle of Cuba.

(2.) **LIMONES,** a town of Cuba, 50 miles S. of  
Havanna.

**LIMONIA,** an island 6 m. W. of Rhodes.

**LIMONUM,** a town of ancient Gaul, after-  
wards called **PICTAVI**, now **POICTIERS.**

**LIMOSIN,** a province of France, bounded on  
the N. by La Marche, E. by Auvergne, S. by  
Quercy, and W. by Perigord and Angoumois.

It was divided into the Upper and Lower; the former of which is very cold, but the latter temperate. It is covered with forests of chefnut trees; and contains mines of lead, coppier, tin, and iron; but its principal trade is in cattle and horses. It now forms the dep. of Upper Vienne.

LIMOUGNE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot, 9 m. N. of Caylus, and 13½ E. of Cahors.

LIMOURES, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Oise, 9 miles S. of Versailles, and 17 SSW. of Paris.

\* LIMOUS. *adj.* [*limofis*, Latin.] Muddy; slimy.—That country became a gained ground by the muddy and *limous* matter brought down by the Nilus, which settled by degrees unto a firm land. *Brown*.—They esteemed this natural melancholick acidity to be the *limous* or slimy feculent part of the blood. *Floyer*.

LIMOÛX, a town of France, in the dep. of Aude, and ci-devant prov. of Languedoc. It is famed for its wine, called *la Blanquette de Limoux*, or the *Perry of Limoux*, and has a cloth manufactory. It is seated on the Aude, 37 miles W. by S. of Narbonne, and 50 SE. of Toulouse. Lon. 2. 16. E. Lat. 50. 24. N.

LIMOZINIÈRE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Loire; 9 miles E. of Machecoul.

\* LIMP. *adj.* [*limpio*, Italian.] 1. Vapid; weak. Not in use.—The chub eats waterish, and the flesh of him is not firm, *limp* and tasteless. *Walton's Angler*. 2. It is used in some provinces, and in Scotland, for *limber*, flexible.

\* To LIMP. *v. n.* [*limpen*, Saxon.] To halt; to walk lamely.—

An old poor man,  
Who after me hath many a weary step  
*Limp'd* in pure love. *Shak.*

Son of sixteen,  
Pluck the lin'd crutch from thy old *limping* fire. *Shak.*

How far  
The substance of my praise doth wrong this shadow  
In underprising it; so far this shadow  
Doth *limp* behind the substance. *Shak.*

—When Plutus, with his riches, is sent from Jupiter, he *limps* and goes slowly; but when he is sent by Pluto, he runs, and is swift of foot. *Bacon*.

*Limping* death, lash'd on by fate,  
Comes up to shorten half our date. *Dryd.*

The *limping* smith observ'd the fadden'd feast,  
And hopping here and there put in his word. *Dryd.*

Can syllogism set things right?  
No: majors toon with minors fight:  
Or both in friendly consort join'd,  
The consequence *limps* false behind. *Prior.*

LIMPACH, a town of Germany in Austria, 4 miles NNE. of Altenmark.

(1.) \* LIMPET. *n. f.* A kind of shell fish. *Ainsw.*

(2.) LIMPET. See PATELLA, N° II.

\* LIMPID. *adj.* [*limpide*, Fr. *limpidus*, Lat.] Clear; pure; transparent.—The springs which were clear, fresh, and *limpid*, become thick and turbid, and impregnated with sulphur as long as the earthquake lasts. *Woodward*.—

The brook that purls along  
The vocal grove, now fretting o'er a rock,  
Gently diffus'd into a *limpid* plain. *Thomson.*

\* LIMPIDNESS. *n. f.* [from *limpidus*] purity.

\* LIMPINGLY. *adv.* [from *limp*.] halting manner.

(1.) LIMPURG, a barony of Ger Franconia, inclosed almost entirely with and seated on the S. of Hall. It is about long, and 8 broad. Gaildorf and Shon which is the castle of Limpurg, are towns.

(2.) LIMPURG, a town of Germany, in the electorate of Treves, but now a the French republic, by the treaties of and Amiens. It appears to be includ dep. of the Rhine and Moselle. It is the Lhon. Lon. 8. 13. E. Lat. 50. 18.

\* LIMY. *adj.* [from *lime*.] 1. Vifco nous.—

Striving more, the more in laces ft  
Himself he tied, and wrapt his wings

In *limy* snares the subtil loops amon  
2. Containing lime.—A human skull co  
the skin, having been buried in some  
was tanned, or turned into a kind o  
*Grew*.

LIMYRA, an ancient town of Lycia  
LIMYRUS, a river in Lycia.

(1.) LIN; or LINN, *n. f.* [Gael. *leu*  
leap or fall.] a cataract, cascade, or  
This word is nearly obsolete, but is  
as part of the names of several catara  
country. See N° 2; BONNITON, N°  
N° 4; &c.

(2.) LIN OF CAMPSEY, a cataract of  
in the W. end of the parish of Cargi  
mile from Kinclaven, where the river  
a rugged basaltic dike. It is very deep  
tains great quantities of fine salmon, w  
about 30l. a-year to Lord Dunmor  
prietor.

\* To LIN. *v. a.* [*ablinnan*, Saxon.]  
to give over.—

Unto his foe he came,  
Resolv'd in mind all suddenly to wir

Or soon to lose before he once woul  
LINACRE, Thomas, M. D. was be

terbury about 1460, and there educated  
learned William Selling: thence he re  
Oxford, and in 1484 was chosen fello  
Souls college. Selling, being appointe  
dor from K. Henry VII. to the Pope, I

compained him to Rome, where he at  
highest perfection in Greek and Latin,  
ed Aristotle and Galen, in the original  
return to Oxford, he was graduated, a  
professor of medicine. He was soon a  
to court by Henry VII. to attend Prin

as his tutor and physician. He was  
appointed physician to the king, and on  
to Henry VII. He founded two medic  
at Oxford, and one at Cambridge; and  
lized his name by being the first foun  
college of physicians in London. Obs

wretched state of physic, he applied to  
Wolsey, and obtained a patent in 15  
porating the physicians of London, i  
prevent illiterate and ignorant medica  
practising the art. Dr Linacre was the

and held the office as long as he lived. Meetings were held in his own house in rider street, which house he bequeathed to college. When he was about the age of 16, he took it into his head to study divinity; and entered into orders; and was collated, in 1509, to the rectory of Mertham; installed prebendary of the same in 1518; prebendary of York, and in 1519 appointed precentor of that cathedral, which he held for other preferments. He died of the plague, Oct. 1524, aged 64; and was buried in St. Dunstons Church. Dr Caius, or Kay, 33 years after his death, caused a monument to be erected to his memory, with a Latin inscription, containing the particulars of his life and character. He was a man of liberal parts, a skilful physician, a programmer, and one of the best Greek and Latin scholars of his time. Erasmus in his epistles highly of his translations from Galen, preferring them even to the original Greek. His works, 1. *De emendata structura Latini sermone*; Lond. printed by Pynson, 1524, 2. *id* by Stephens, 1527, 1532. 2. The rules of grammar, for the use of the princess by Pynson. Buchanan translated it into French, Paris, 1536. He likewise translated into elegant Latin, several of Galen's works, chiefly abroad at different times. Also *Diadocbi sphaera*, from the Greek; Venet. 1500.

AN, a river of Wales, in Carnarvonshire.

ANGE. See LEININGEN.

ANT, Michael, a French poet of the 18th century, who published many pieces of considerable merit. He was an intimate friend of M. de Voltaire, and obtained the Royal Academy's prize in 1749. He died in 1749.

ARES, a town of Spain, in Arragon.

ANARIA. See ANTIRRHINUM, N° 4.

ANARIA in zoology. See FRINGILLA, N° 7.

ARYD, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

ATO, a town of the Italian Republic, in the prov. of Olona, and district (ci-devant duchy) of Milan.

BARES, a town of Portugal, in the prov. of Alentejo, 20 miles S. of Mirandola.

CASII, an ancient people of Gallia Narbonensis.

CELLES. See LINSSELLES.

CHAN, a town of China, in Honan.

CHANCHI, a town of Mexico, in Yucatan, 10 m. from Selem. Lon. 87. 50. W. Lat. 21. 0. N.

CHE, or LINKE, a strong town of France, in the prov. of the North, and ci-devant prov. of Flanders, 10 m. SW. of Dunkirk. Lon. 2. 51. 0. N.

CHIPPIN. *n. f.* An iron pin that keeps the wheel on the axle-tree. *Dist.*

COLN, or LINCOLN-SHIRE, a maritime county of England, 77 miles long and 48 broad from E. to W. by the German ocean, W. by the Humber, N. by Yorksh. and S. by Rutland, Northampton, and Cambridge shires. It contains 590 houses, 24,340 inhabitants, 631 parishes, and 31 market towns, whereof 5 send 2 members each to parliament, which, with two members from the county, make 12 in all. The principal ri-

vers are the Humber, Trent, Witham, Nene, Great Ouse, and Dun. It is divided into three parts, Lindsey, Kestoven, and Holland; the air of which last is unwholesome, on account of the fens and marshes. The soil of the N. and W. parts is very fertile, and abounds in corn and pastures. The E. and S. parts are not proper for corn; but abound with fish and fowls particularly ducks and geese. By its inland navigation, this county has communication with the rivers Mersey, Dee, Ribble, Aulsebrook, Severn, Thames, Avon, &c. which navigation, including its windings, extends above 500 miles through diverse counties.

(2.) LINCOLN, the capital of the above county, is seated on the side of a hill; at the bottom of which runs the Witham in 3 small channels, over which are several bridges. The name is derived by some from *Lindi Colonia*, the colony of Lindum, contracted first to LINDOCOLNIA, and afterwards to Lincoln, which seems a very probable etymology. The ancient LINDUM, of the Britons, which stood on the top of the hill, as appears from the vestiges of a rampart, and deep ditches still remaining, was taken and demolished by the Saxons; who built a town upon the S. side of the hill down to the river side, which was several times taken by the Danes, and as often retaken by the Saxons. In Edward the Confessor's time, it appears, from the Doomsday book, to have been a very considerable place; and in the time of the Normans, Malmesbury says, it was one of the most populous cities in England. William I. built a castle upon the summit of the hill above the town. Though the other churches are mean, the cathedral is a most magnificent piece of Gothic architecture. It has a prodigious large bell, called *Tom of Lincoln*, near 5 tons in weight, and 23 feet in compass. The hill on which the church stands is so high, and the church so lofty, that it may be seen 50 m. to the N. and 30 to the S. Besides other tombs, it contains one of brass, in which are the entrails of Queen Eleanor, wife of Edward I. There were anciently 52 churches, now reduced to 14. Such is the magnificence and elevation of the cathedral, that the monks thought the sight of it must be very mortifying to the devil; whence it came to be said of one who was displeas'd, *that he looked like the devil over Lincoln*. The declivity, on which the city is built, being steep, the communication betwixt the upper and lower town is very troublesome, and coaches, and horses are obliged to make a circuit. Edward III. made this city a staple for wool, leather, lead, &c. It was once burnt; once besieged by King Stephen, who was here defeated and taken prisoner; and once taken by Henry III. from his rebellious barons. There is a great pool here, formed by the river on the W. side of it, called *Swan-pool*, because of the multitude of swans on it. The Roman N. gate remains entire under the modern name of *Newport Gate*. It is one of the noblest of this fort in Britain. It is a vast semicircle of stone of very large dimensions laid without mortar, connected only by their uniform shape. This magnificent arch is 16 feet in diameter, the stones are 4 feet thick at the bottom; and on both sides are laid horizontal stones of great dimensions, 10 or 12 feet long. There are also fragments of the old Roman Wall. Over against

against the castle entrenchment cast up by king Stephen; and the arms are carved the arms of John of Gaunt D. of Lancaster, who lived here like a king, and had a mint. The city communicates with the Trent, by a canal called the *Foss-dyke*. In the centre of the old castle there is a handsome modern structure for holding the assizes. Its walls are very substantial; the principal tower is situated on a high and very steep mount, which continues in its original state, but the remains of the tower on it are only 3 or 6 yards high. The outer walls of the castle are of very considerable height; which, appears still higher from their lofty situation and the moat below. The great gateway is still entire. This city is a county of itself, and has a vicountial jurisdiction for 20 miles round; and a privilege that no other city in England can equal. It consists principally of one street above two miles long, well paved, besides several populous cross and parallel streets. It has some handsome modern buildings, but more antique ones; upon the whole, it has an air of venerable grandeur arising from the ruins of ancient monasteries; most of which are now converted into stables, out-houses, &c. Upon the hill, in the castle are the ruins of bishop's palace. The city is supplied with water by several conduits, among which is a modern one in the pyramidal style, enriched with sculpture. It is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen, two sheriffs, a recorder, four chamberlains, 4 coroners, and about 40 common council men. It has 4 charity schools, where 120 poor children are taught by the widows of clergymen. The neighbouring course is noted for its horse-races. On the down of Lincoln, that rare fowl the bustard is seen sometimes. The markets are on Tuesday and Friday; and there are 4 fairs. David king of Scots met king John here, on the 22d Nov. and performed homage to him, for his English territories, in presence of the Abps. of Canterbury, and Ragusa, 13 bishops, and a vast number of temporal lords and knights. Henry VII. kept his court here at Easter in 1586. The Jews were once its chief inhabitants, till they were forced to remove, after having impiously crucified the child of Grantham, and thrown it into a well, to this day called *Grantham's Well*. Lincoln is 32 m. NE. of Nottingham, and 144 N. of London. Lon. o. 17. W. Lat. 53. 16. N.

(3.) LINCOLN, a county of Kentucky, bounded on the N. by Mercer, NE. by Maddison, S. by Logan, and NW. by Washington counties. By the census taken in 1790, it contained 5454 citizens and 1094 slaves. Stanford is the capital.

(4.) LINCOLN, a town of Kentucky, in Mercer county, E. of Dicks River.

(5.) LINCOLN, a large maritime county in the district of Maine: bounded N. by Canada, E. by Hancock county, S. by the Atlantic, and W. by Cumberland county. It is 250 miles long and 70 broad; and comprehended 34 townships, and 29,962 citizens, in 1795.

(6.) LINCOLN, a county of N. Carolina, in Morpau district; bounded NE. by Iredell, E. by Cabarras, W. by Rutherford, and NW. by Burke counties. It contained 8,289 citizens, and 955 slaves, in 1795. It abounds with iron mines and *mineral waters*,

(7.) LINCOLN, a town of New Hampshire Grafton county.

(8.) LINCOLN, a town of Massachusetts, in Middlesex county; 16 miles NW. of Boston, containing 740 citizens in 1795.

(9.) LINCOLN, a township of Vermont, in Addison county.

(10.) LINCOLN, DIOCESE OF, an extensive shiopic of England. Though the bishopric was taken out of it by Henry II. and transferred to Peterborough and Oxford by Henry VII. it still vastly large, containing the counties of Northampton, Bedford, and part of Huntingdon, making 1255 parishes.

(11.) LINCOLN HEATH, an extensive heath in Lincolnshire, above 50 miles long, viz. from Lincoln to Ancaster S. to the Humber N. though it is but 3 or 4 miles over where broadest, it is 100 miles from Boston on this heath, the late King John Despenfer built a tower for the direction of the heath. It is a lofty square building with a square roof, which terminates in a flat roof, and the base is a square court-yard. Great part of this heath is now inclosed.

(12.) LINCOLNSHIRE. See N<sup>o</sup> 1.

LINCOLNTOWN, a town of N. Carolina, the capital of Lincoln county; 718 m. S. by W. of Philadelphia.

\* LINCTUS. *n. f.* [from *lingo*, Lat.] Muddled up by the tongue.

LIND, James, M. D. a late eminent physician; author of several valuable Treatises on Medicine; particularly one on the *Diseases of the Tongue*: Lond. 8vo. He died in 1794.

(1.) LINDAU, an imperial city of Germany, in Suabia, on an island in the lake of Constance, connected with the continent by a bridge. An arm of the lake runs through it, and forms of it into another island, consisting chiefly of gardens and vineyards; whence it has been called the *Venice of Suabia*. The natives are most of them Catholics. It has a celebrated abbey of Carthusians, whose abbess is a princess of the empire. It has also an ancient castle erected by Tiberius, and a wall erected by Constantine Chlorus. It was 4 times burnt, viz. in the 11th, 13th, 14th centuries; and in 1647, was a siege of 9 weeks by the Swedes. Its jurisdiction extends over 14 villages. It lies 19 miles S. of Constance, and 46 ENE. of Zurich. Lon. E. Lat. 47. 33. N.

(2.) LINDAU, a town of Germany, in Electoral Palatinate.

(3.) LINDAU, a town and fort of Hungary, in the county of Sáros.

(4.) LINDAU, a town of Saxony, in Anhalt.

(1.) LINDE, a town of France, in the department of Dordogne, 10½ miles E. of Bergerac.

(2.) LINDE, a town of Germany, in Upper Palatinate.

(3.) LINDE, a town of Sweden, in West Gothland.

LINDEBEUF, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine; 12 m. SE. of Caudebec, NW. of Rouen.

LINDECK, a town of Stiria, 8 m. N. of Graz.

(1.) \* LINDEN. *n. f.* [Lind, Sax.] Linden tree. See LIME.—

Hard box, and *linden* of a softer grain.

Two neighbouring trees, with walls past'd round,

One a hard oak, a softer *linden* one.

NDEN TREE. See TILIA.

INDENAU, a town of Prussia, in the Natangen; 32 miles SSW. of Koningf-

NDENAU, a town of Silesia, in Neisse.

ENBRONN, a town of Franconia.

ENBRUCH, Frederic, a learned critic, 17th century, who published editions of Terence, and other classics.

ENFELD, or } a town of Germany, in  
ENFELS, } the palatinate of the  
4 miles NNE. of Mannheim.

ER, a town of Maritime Austria, in Istria, 15 miles NE. of Pedena.

ESNESS. See NAZE.

IL. See GELA.

ISFARN, the ancient name of Holy Island, called from the rivulet *Lindi*, or *Landis*, which runs into the sea, and from the Celtic *Island*, i. e. recess. See HOLY ISLAND.

KOPING. See LINKIOPING, N° 1.

LEY, a town of New York, 2 miles N. of Pennsylvania line, and 64 SE. of Hartford.

LO, in modern geography, a city of anciently called LINDUS, stands at the foot of the hill. A bay, of considerable wideness, serves as a harbour. Ships find good anchorage there in 20 fathoms water, being safely sheltered from the SW. winds, which constantly blow through the severest season of the year. In the beginning of winter, they cast anchor off a large named Mallary. Before the build-up of the 17th century, Lindus was the harbour which received the fleets of Egypt and Tyre. It was once a place of great commerce. Mr Savary says, a judicious government, by taking advantage of its happy situation, might yet restore it to its former state.

OCOLNIA, a name of LINCOLN.

NDOW, a town of Pomerania.

LINDOW, two towns of Brandenburg.

LENDSAI, Sir David, a celebrated Scots noble descended of an ancient family, and who reigned of James IV. at his father's seat of *Mount*, near Cupar in Fifeshire. He was educated at St Andrews; and, after making a tour of Europe, returned to Scotland in 1514. On his arrival, he was appointed gentleman of the bed-chamber to the king, and tutor to the prince, afterwards James V. He enjoyed several honourable employments at court; but in 1533, was deprived of them all, except the office of *king at arms*, which he held till his death. His disgrace was probably owing to his writings against the clergy, which are frequent. After the decease of James V. he became a favourite of the regent earl of Arran; but the abbot of Paisley did not suffer him to be long in favour with the earl. He then returned to his paternal estate, and spent the remainder of his days in rural tranquillity. He died in 1558. His poetical talents, considering the age in which he lived, were not contemptible; he treats of the clergy with great severity, and writes in a plain style: but he takes such liberties with stretching, or shortening them for measure, that we still have a proverb, for an expression, *There is nae sic a word in a'*

*David Lindsay*. Mackenzie tells us, he knew nothing of dramatic rules, but that his comedies afforded abundance of mirth. Some fragments of these are still preserved in MS. He also wrote several tragedies, and first introduced dramatic poetry into Scotland. One of his comedies was played in 1515. He was cotemporary with John Heywood, the first English dramatic poet. His poems are printed in one volume; and fragments of his plays, in MS. are in Mr William Carmichael's collection.

(2.) LINDSAY, David, a relation of the poet (N° 1.) born in 1527. He was a zealous promoter of the reformation; and wrote a History of Scotland, from 1437 to 1542. He died in 1593.

(3.) LINDSAY, John, a learned English clergyman, born in 1686, and educated at Oxford. He preached many years to a nonjurant congregation in Aldergate Street, London. He published, 1. The Short History of the Regal Succession: 2. Remarks on Whiston's Scripture Politics; 8vo. Lond. 1720: 3. A translation of Mason's Vindication of the Church of England; 1726: and some sermons. He died 21st June, 1768, aged 82.

(4.) LINDSAY, the Hon. Colin, 3d brother to the Earl of Balcarras, and a major general in the British army. His first commission was that of Ensign in the 4th Reg. of foot, in 1771; in 1773, he was made lieutenant of the 55th; in 1778, captain; in 1780, major of the 2d battalion in the 73d, with which he served during the memorable siege of GIBRALTAR: and in 1783, lieutenant colonel of the 46th. On the 12th March 1795, he commanded the troops in Grenada, then in a critical situation, by the revolt of the negroes and mulattoes, aided by the French. On the morning of the 15th he attacked and defeated them, but from the fatigue of the march, and the approach of night, was not able to follow out the victory; and next morning the incessant rain rendered every movement impracticable. His anxiety and impatience at the delay occasioning a temporary insanity, he put an end to his life on the 22d, at 5 A. M. at the post before Balvidere. As he paid uncommon attention to the minutest wants of the soldiers he was much beloved, and regretted sincerely by them. He was a man of letters, and published The Military Miscellany, in 2 vols 8vo, 1793.

LINDSEY, the third and largest division of Lincolnshire. On the E. and N. it is washed by the sea, into which it projects with a large front; on the W. it is bounded by York and Nottinghamshires, from which it is parted by the Trent and Dun; on the S. by Kesteven, from which it is separated by the Witham and the Foss-dyke, which is 7 miles long, and was cut, by Henry I. between the Witham and the Trent, for the convenience of carriage. It had its name from LINCOLN, which stands in it, and was by the Romans called LINDUM, by the Britons *Lindcoit*, by the Saxons *Lindo-collune*, probably from its situation on a hill, and the lakes or woods that were anciently thereabouts; but the Normans called it *Nicol*.

LINDUM, an ancient town of Britain, on or near the site of Lincoln, possessed by the Horesti; mentioned by Richard of Cirencester, along with

ALAUHA and VICTORIA, as the 3 principal cities of that people. If the conjectures of the moderns are just, that *Alauna* was ALNWICK, *Lindum*, LINCOLN, and *Victoria*, PERTH, the dominions of the Horcſi muſt have been very extenſive. See ALAUNA, HOREſTI, LINCOLN, N<sup>o</sup> 2; and VICTORIA. But ſome geographers make LINDUM the ancient name of LINLITHGOW.

LINDUS, in ancient geography, a town of Rhodes, ſituated on a hill on the W. ſide of the iſland. It was built by Tlepolemus the ſon of Hercules, according to Diodorus Siculus; by *Lindus*, one of the Heliades, grandſons of Apollo, according to Strabo. It was the native place of Cleobulus, one of the 7 wiſe men. It had a famous temple of Lindian Minerva, built by the daughters of Danaus. Cadmus enriched it with many ſplendid offerings. The citizens dedicated and hung up here the 7th of Pindar's Olympic odes, written in letters of gold. The ruins of that ſuperb edifice are ſtill to be ſeen on the top of a high hill which overlooks the ſea. Relics of the walls conſiſting of ſtones of an enormous ſize, ſtill ſhow it to have been built in the Egyptian ſtyle. The pillars and other ornaments have been carried off. On the moſt elevated peak of the rock are the ruins of a caſtle, which may have ſerved as a fortrefs to the city. Its circumference is very extenſive, and is filled with rubbiſh.

(1.) \* LINE, *n. ſ.* [*linea*, Latin.] 1. Longitudinal extension.—Even the planets upon this principle, muſt gravitate no more towards the ſun; ſo that they would not revolve in curve *lines*, but fly away in direct tangents, till they ſtruck againſt other planets. *Bentley*. 2. A ſlender ſtring.—

Well ſung the Roman bard; all human things,  
Of deareſt value, hang on ſlender ſtrings;  
O ſee then the ſole hope, and in deſign  
Of heav'n our joy ſupported by a *line*. *Waller*.  
—A *line* ſeldom holds to ſtrain, or draws ſtreight  
in length, above 50 or 60 feet. *Maxon*. 3. A thread  
extended to direct any operations.—

We as by *line* upon the ocean go,  
Whoſe paths ſhall be familiar as the land. *Dryd*.  
4. The ſtring that ſuſtains the angler's hook.—  
Victorious with their *lines* and eyes,  
They make the fiſhes and the men their prize. *Waller*.

5. Lineaments, or marks in the hand or face.—  
Long is it ſince I ſaw him.

But time hath nothing blurrd thoſe *lines* of favour  
Which then he wore. *Shak*.  
—I ſhall have good fortune; go to, here's a ſimple  
*line* of life; here's a ſmall triſt of wives. *Shak*.—

Here, while his carting drone-pipe ſcand  
The myſtic figures of her hand,  
He tipples palmeftry, and dines  
On all her fortune telling *lines*. *Cleveland*.  
6. Delineation; ſketch.—This is not enough to-  
wards the raiſing ſuch buildings as I have drawn  
you here the *lines* of. *Temple*.—The inventors  
meant to turn ſuch qualifications into perſons as  
were agreeable to his character, for whom the *line*  
was drawn. *Pope*. 7. Contour; outline.—

Oh laſting as thoſe colours may they ſhine,  
Free as thy ſtroke, yet faultleſs as thy *line*! *Pope*.

8. As much as is written from one margin  
to other: a verſe.—In the preceding *line*,  
ſpeaks of Nauticaa, yet immediately chan-  
ges words into the maſculine gender. *Broomer*.

In moving *lines* theſe few epigrams tell  
What fate attends the nymph who lo-  
well.

9. Rank of ſoldiers.—  
They pierce the broken foe's remotel

10. Work thrown up; trench.—  
Now ſnatch an hour that favours thy  
Unite thy forces, and attack their *lines*.

11. Method; diſpoſition.  
The heavens themſelves, the planets, &  
center,  
Obſerve degree, priority, and place,  
Inſiſture, courſe, proportion, ſeaſon, for  
Office and cuſtom, in all *line* of order.

12. Extension; limit.—  
Eden ſtretch'd her *line*  
From Au an eaſtward to the royal tow  
Of great Seleucia.

13. Equator; equinoctial circle.—  
When the ſun below the *line* deſcend  
The one long night continued darkneſs

14. Progeny; family, aſcending or deſcend  
Propbet-like,

They hail'd him father to a *line* of king  
He ſends you this moſt memorable *line*  
In ev'ry branch truly demonſtrative,  
Willing you overlook this pedigree.  
—Some *lines* were noted for a ſtern, rigid  
ſavage, haughty, pariſimonious and unpopu-  
lars were ſweet and affable. *Dryden*.—

His empire, courage, and his boaſted  
Were all prov'd mortal. *Rofc*

A golden bowl  
The queen commanded to be crown  
wine,  
The bowl that Belus us'd and all the  
*line*.

The years  
Ran ſmoothly on, productive of a *line*  
Of wiſe heroic kings.

15. A *line* is one tenth of an inch. *Locke*.  
the plural.] A letter: as, I read your *lim*  
Lint or flax.

(2.) LINE, in geometry, (§ 1. def. 1.) a q  
extended in length only, without any bre-  
thickness. It is formed by the flux, or  
of a point. See FLUXIONS, and GEOMET

(3.) LINE alſo denotes a French meaſure  
taining the 12th part of an inch, or the 14.  
of a foot. Geometricians conceive the l  
divided into ſix points. The French *line*  
to the Engliſh barley-corn.

(4.) LINE, in genealogy, (§ 1. def. 14.) S  
SANGUINITY, § II. 2; DESCENT, § IV,  
INHERITANCE, § 3.

(5.) LINE, in modern metaphorical lang-  
used in a ſenſe quite different from all th  
17 definitions, given by Dr Johnson, in §  
in this modern ſenſe it is now ſo general  
both in ſpeaking and writing, that many  
will be ſurpriſed to find it ridiculed by t  
dicious critic, the late prof. J. H. BEAT

ue between Swift and Mercury; whom  
ices as advising the Dean, if he wishes to  
*honorable English*, to "avoid concienefs,  
s many words as possible. When you  
man's conduct, you must always call it  
*conduct*. Every thing is now a *line*. You  
say, He is in the army, but, He is in the  
*re*, or in the *army line*; nor, He is bred  
*is*, but, he is bred in a *professional line*.  
of, He is a hair-dresser, clergyman, prin-  
ner, merchant, fisherman, &c. you will  
at, if you do not say, He is in the *hair-*  
*ce*, in the *clerical line*, in the *printing line*,  
*amery line*, in the *mercantile line*, in the  
&c." See BRATTIE, § 2; To FEEL,  
O, § 2; &c.

E, in the art of war, (§ 1. def. 9.) is the  
of an army ranged in order of battle,  
but extended as far as may be, that it  
e flanked.

E EQUINOCTIAL. (§ 1. def. 13.) See  
MY, INDEX; EQUATOR, § 1; EQUINOC-  
5; and GEOGRAPHY, Sect. IV.

L, FISHING. See FISHING-LINE.

E, GUNTER'S, a logarithmic line, usu-  
ated upon scales, sectors, &c. It is also  
*line of lines* and *line of numbers*; being only  
ms graduated upon a ruler which there-  
to solve problems instrumentally in the  
as logarithms do arithmetically. It is  
ded into 100 parts, every tenth where-  
red; beginning with 1 and ending with  
if the first great division, marked 1,  
re tenth of any integer, the next divi-  
1 2, will stand for two tenths, 3, three  
so on; and the intermediate divisions  
ke manner represent 100th-parts of  
teger. If each of the great divisions  
o integers, then will the lesser divisions  
tegers; and if the greater divisions be  
ch 100, the subdivisions will be each  
*find the product of two numbers*. From  
e compasses to the multiplier; and the  
, applied the same way from the mul-  
ill reach to the product. Thus if the  
4 and 8 be required, extend the com-  
1 to 4, and that extent laid from 8 the  
will reach to 32, their product. 2. *To*  
*number by another*. The extent from  
to unity will reach from the dividend  
ient: thus to divide 38 by 4, extend  
ies from 4 to 1, and the same extent  
rom 36 to 9, the quotient sought. 3.  
*en numbers to find a fourth proportional*.  
: numbers 6, 8, 9: extend the com-  
6 to 8; and this extent, laid from 9  
17, will reach to 12, the fourth pro-  
quired. 4. *To find a mean proportional*  
*two given numbers*. Suppose 8 and  
the compasses from 8, in the left; and  
line; to 32 in the right; then bisection-  
tance, its half will reach from 8 for-  
om 32 backward, to 16, the mean  
l sought. 5. *To extract the square*  
*number*. Suppose 25: bisection the dis-  
e 1 on the scale and the point repre-  
then the half of this distance, set off  
l give the point representing the root

L, PART L

5. In the same manner the cube root, or that  
of any higher power, may be found by dividing the  
distance on the line between 1 and the given num-  
ber into as many equal parts as the index of the  
power expresses; then one of those parts, set  
from 1, will find the point representing the root  
required.

(10.) LINE, HORIZONTAL; in geography and af-  
tronomy, a line drawn parallel to the horizon of  
any part of the earth.

(11.) LINE, MERIDIAN. See GEOGRAPHY,  
SECT. IV.

(12.) LINE OF BATTLE is the disposition of  
the fleet in the day of engagement, on which oc-  
casion the vessels are usually drawn up as much  
as possible in a straight line, to gain and keep the  
advantage of the wind and to run the same board:  
See NAVAL TACTICS.

(13.) LINES, in Heraldry. See HERALDRY;  
*Chap. II. Sect. III.*

(14.) LINE, SHIP OF THE, a vessel large enough  
to be drawn up in the line, and to have a place in  
a sea-fight.

\* To LINE. *v. a.* [supposed by *Juvius* from *li-*  
*num*, linings being often made of linen.] 1. To  
cover on the inside.—A box *lin'd* with paper to  
receive the mercury that might be spilt. *Boyle*.

2. To put any thing in the inside: a sense rather  
ludicrous.—The charge amounteth very high for  
any one man's purse, except *lined* beyond ordina-  
ry, to reach unto. *Correw.*—Her women are about  
her: what if I do *line* one of their hands? *Shak.*—  
He, by a gentle bow, divin'd

How well a cully's purse was *lin'd*. *Swift*

3. To guard within.—Notwithstanding they had  
*lined* some hedges with musquetters, they were  
totally dispersed. *Clarendon*. 4. To strengthen by  
inner works.—

*Line* and new repair our towns of war

With men of courage, and with means defen-  
dant. *Shak.*

5. To cover with something soft.—

Son of sixteen,

Pluck the *lin'd* crutch from thy old limping fire.  
*Shak.*

6. To double; to strengthen with help.—

Who *lin'd* himself with hope,

Eating the air, on promise of supply. *Shak*

My brother Mortimer doth stir

About his title, and hath sent for you

To *line* his enterprise. *Shak*

—The two armies were assigned to the leading of  
two generals, both of them rather courtiers, and  
affured to the state, than martial men; yet *lined*  
and assisted with subordinate commanders of great  
experience and valour. *Bacon*. 7. To impregnate:  
applied to animals generating.—

Thus from the Tyrian pastures *lin'd* with Jove

He bore Europa, and still keeps his love. *Creech*.

LINEA ALBA, in anatomy, the concurrence  
of the tendons of the oblique and transverse muscles  
of the abdomen; dividing the abdomen in two,  
in the middle. It is called *linea*, line, as being  
straight; and *alba*, from its colour, which is white.  
The *linea alba* receives a twig of a nerve from the  
intercostals in each of its digitations or indentings,  
which are visible to the eye, in lean persons espe-  
cially.

\* **LINEAGE**. *n. f.* [*linage*, Fr.] Race; progeny; family, ascending or descending.—

Both the *lineage* and the certain fire  
From which I sprung, from me are hidden yet.

*Spenser.*

—Joseph was of the house and *lineage* of David.  
*Luke ii. 4.*—The Tirsan cometh forth with all his generation or *lineage*, the males before him, and the females following him; and if there be a mother from whose body the whole *lineage* is descended, there is a traverse where she fitteth. *Bacon.*—

Men of mighty fame,

And from th' immortal gods their *lineage* came.

*Dryden.*

No longer shall the widow'd land bemoan

A broken *lineage*, and a doubtful throne. *Addis.*  
—This care was infused by God himself, in order to ascertain the descent of the Messiah, and to prove that he was, as the prophets had foretold, of the tribe of Judah, and of the *lineage* of David. *Atterbury.*

\* **LINEAL**. *adj.* [*linealis*, from *linea*, Latin.]  
1. Composed of lines; delineated.—When any thing is mathematically demonstrated weak, it is much more mechanically weak; errors ever occurring more easily in the management of gross materials than *lineal* designs. *Wotton.* 2. Descending in a direct genealogy.—To re-establish, de facto, the right of *lineal* succession to paternal government, is to put a man in possession of that government which his fathers did enjoy, and he by *lineal* succession had a right to. *Locke.* 3. Hereditary; derived from ancestors.—

Peace be to France, if France in peace permit  
Our just and *lineal* entrance to our own. *Shak.*

4. Allied by direct descent.—

Queen Isabel, his grandmother,

Was *lineal* of the lady Ermengere. *Shak.*

O that your brows my laurel had sustain'd!

Well had I been depos'd if you had reign'd!

The father had descended for the son;

For only you are *lineal* to the throne. *Dryden.*

\* **LINEALLY**. *adv.* [from *lineal*.] In a direct line.—If he had been the person upon whom the crown had *lineally* and rightfully descended, it was good law. *Clarendon.*

(1.) \* **LINEAMENT**. *n. f.* [*lineament*, French; *lineamentum*, Lat.] Feature; discriminating mark in the form.—

Noble York

Found that the issue was not his begot;

Which well appeared in his *lineaments*,

Being nothing like the noble duke, my father.

*Shaksp.*

Six wings he wore, to shade

His *lineaments* divine.

*Milton.*

Man he seems

In all his *lineaments*, though in his face

The glimpses of his father's glory shine. *Mil.*

—There are not more differences in men's faces, and the outward *lineaments* of their bodies, than there are in the makes and tempers of their minds; only there is this difference, that the distinguishing characters of the face, and the *lineaments* of the body, grow more plain with time, but the peculiar physiognomy of the mind is most discernible in children. *Locke.*—I may advance religion and morals, by tracing some few *lineaments* in the cha-

rafter of a lady, who hath spent all her li practice of both. *Swift.*—The utmost boiling water is not able to destroy the str the tenderest plant: the *lineaments* of a v will remain after the strongest decoction.

(2.) **LINEAMENT**, among painters, is the outlines of a face.

(1.) \* **LINEAR**. *adj.* [*linearis*, Lat.] C of lines; having the form of lines.—When is freed from the sand stone, it is covered w stræ, tending towards several centres. *Wj*

(2.) **LINEAR NUMBERS**, in mathematics relate to length only; such is a number v presents one side of a plain figure. If the gure be a square, the linear figure is calle

(3.) **LINEAR PROBLEM**, that which ma ved geometrically by the intersection of t lines. This is called a *simple problem*, an able but of one solution.

\* **LINEATION**. *n. f.* [*lineatio*, from *lin* Draught of a line or lines.—There ar horney ground two white *lineations*, wit a pale red. *Woodward.*

(1.) \* **LINEN**. *adj.* [*lineus*, Lat.] 1. Mi nen.—A *linen* stock on one leg, and a kee hose on the other. *Shaksp.* 2. Resembli

Death of thy soul! those *linen* cheek  
Are counsellors to fear.

(2.) \* **LINEN**. *n. f.* [*linum*, Lat.] Cloth hemp or flax.—Here is a basket, he may throw foul *linen* upon him, as if going to *Shaksp.*—

Unseen, unfelt, the fiery serpent ski

Between her *linen* and her naked limb

(3.) **LINEN**, in commerce, is chiefly FLAX.—Linen was not worn by the Jews or Romans, as any part of their ordin Under tunicks of a finer texture supplied of shirts: Hence the occasion for frequent Alexander Severus was the first emperor v a shirt; but the use of so necessary a gar not become common till long after him.

(4.) **LINEN, BLEACHING OF**. See BLE M. Chaptal, in a memoir presented to tional Institute at Paris, in June 18c1, a new method of bleaching linen in 2 day half the usual expence, by putting it in closed stone vat, with a small quantity alkaline ley.

(5.) **LINEN FLOWERED WITH GOLD** I Lewis informs us of a manufacture estal London, for embellishing linen with fl ornaments of gold leaf. The linen, he f whiter than most of the printed linens; is extremely beautiful, and bears wash He had seen a piece which had been wa 4 times, with only the same precautio are used for the finer printed linens; and the gold continued entire, and of great

(6.) **LINEN, FOSSILE**, is a kind of ar which consists of flexible, parallel, stiff f which has been celebrated for the uses it has been applied, of being woven, and an INCOMBUSTIBLE CLOTH. Paper a wicks for lamps, have been made of it. ANTHUS, ASBESTOS, § 3, 4; and INCO BLE, § 2, 3.

(7.) **The LINEN MANUFACTURE** was

int



ced into Britain with the first settlements  
Romans. The flax was certainly first plant-  
ed nation in the British soil. The plant  
seed appears to have been originally a na-  
tive east. The woollen drapery would na-  
be prior in its origin to the linen; and the  
plants from which the threads of the latter  
duced, seems to have been first noticed  
rked by the inhabitants of Egypt. In E-  
deed, the linen manufacture appears to  
en very early: for even in Joseph's time it  
n to a considerable height. From the E-  
s the knowledge of it proceeded probably  
Greeks, and from them to the Romans.  
this day the flax is still imported from  
rn nations; the western kind being a de-  
species. To succeed in the linen manu-  
one set of people should be confined to  
and preparing the soil, sowing and co-  
he seed, weeding, pulling, rippling, and  
are of the flax till it is lodged at home:  
x, § 3, 8—13.) others should be employ-  
ying, breaking, scutching, and heckling  
to fit it for the spinners; (see FLAX-  
G.) and others in spinning and reeling it,  
or the weaver: others should be concern-  
ing due care of the weaving, bleaching,  
and finishing the cloth for the market. It  
ible to think, that if these several branches  
nufacture were carried on by distinct deal-  
tland and Ireland, where our home made  
manufactured, the several parts would  
executed, and the whole would be af-  
reaper, and with greater profit.

**WASHING, STAINING OF.** Linen receives a  
dye with much more difficulty than  
or cotton. The black struck on linen  
mon vitriol and galls, or logwood, is ve-  
table, and soon washes out.—Instead of  
l, a solution of iron in four strong beer  
made use of. This is well known to all  
ers; and by the use of this, which they  
iron liquor, and madder-root, are the  
d purples made which we see on printed  
The method of making this iron-liquor is  
as: A quantity of iron is put into the four  
er; and, to promote the dissolution of  
l, the whole is occasionally well stirred,  
r drawn off, and the rust beat from the  
r which the liquor is poured on again.  
of time is required to make the impreg-  
nfect; the solution being reckoned unfit  
ll it has stood at least a year. This solu-  
s the linen of a yellow, and different  
buff-colour; and is the only known sub-  
which these colours can be fixed on lin-  
e cloth stained deep with the iron liquor,  
wards boiled with madder, without any  
lition, becomes of the dark colour which  
on printed linens and cottons; which,  
nfect black, has a very near resemblance  
thers are stained paler with the same li-  
sted with water, and come out purple.  
ay also be stained of a durable purple by  
of gold in aqua regia. The solution for  
ose should be as fully saturated as possi-  
ould be diluted with three times its  
of water; and if the colour is required

deep, the piece, when dry, must be repeatedly  
moistened with it. The colour does not take  
place till a considerable time, sometimes several  
days, after the liquor has been applied: to hasten  
its appearance, the subject should be exposed to  
the sun and free air, and occasionally removed to  
a moist place, or moistened with water. When  
solution of gold in aqua regia is soaked up in li-  
nen cloths, the gold may be recovered by drying  
and burning them. The ANACARDIUM nut,  
which comes from the East Indies, is remarkable  
for its property of staining linen of a deep black  
colour, which cannot be washed out either with  
soap or alkaline ley. The stain is at first of a red-  
dish brown, but afterwards turns to a deep black  
on exposure to the air. The cashew nut, called  
the *anacardium of the West Indies*, differs from the  
oriental anacardium in its colouring quality. The  
juice of this nut is much paler than the other, and  
stains linen or cotton only of a brownish colour;  
which indeed is very durable, but does not at all  
change to black.—There are, however, trees, na-  
tives of our own colonies, which appear to con-  
tain juices of the same nature with those of India.  
Of this kind are several, and perhaps the greater  
number, of the species of the toxicodendron or poi-  
son tree. (See RHUS, N<sup>o</sup> 7.) Mr Catesby, in his *His-  
tory of Carolina* describes one called there the *poison-  
-ash*, from whose trunk flowed a liquid as black as  
ink, and supposed to be poisonous; which reputed  
poisonous quality has hitherto prevented the inhabi-  
tants from collecting or attempting to make any use  
of it. In the *Philos. Transf.* for 1755, the abbé Ma-  
zeas gives an account of 3 sorts of the toxicoden-  
dron raised in a botanic garden in France, con-  
taining in their leaves a milky juice, which in dry-  
ing became quite black, and communicated the  
same colour to the linen on which it was dropped.  
The linen thus stained was boiled with soap, and  
came out without the least dis-  
inution of colour; nor did a strong ley of wood-ashes make any  
change in it. Several of these trees have been  
planted in the open ground in England, and some  
still remain in the Bp. of London's garden at Ful-  
ham. That species called by Mr Miller the *true  
lac tree*, was found by Dr Lewis to have proper-  
ties of a similar kind. It contains in its bark, and  
the pedicles and ribs of the leaves, juice somewhat  
milky, which soon changed in the air to a reddish-  
brown, and in 2 or 3 hours to a deep blackish col-  
our: wherever the bark was cut or wounded, the  
incision became blackish; and on several parts of  
the leaves the juice had spontaneously exuded,  
and stained them of the same colour. This juice  
dropped on linen gave at first little or no colour,  
looking only like a spot of oil; but by degrees,  
the part moistened with it darkened in the same  
manner as the juice itself. On washing and boil-  
ing the linen with soap, the stain not only was not  
discharged, but seemed to have its blackness ra-  
ther improved; as if a brown matter, with which  
the black was manifestly debased, had been in  
part washed out, and left the black more pure.  
As the milky juice of some of our common plants  
turn dark-coloured or blackish in drying, the Doctor  
was induced to try the effects of several of them  
on linen. The juice of wild poppies, garden pop-  
pies, dandelion, hawk-weed, and sow-thistle, gave

ly lately called BAS-  
in the dep. of the  
town on the site of  
See LANGRES. They  
Cesar, and made tri-  
afterwards emigrated  
the Adriatic, near the

See ANDONADUNUM.  
China of the first rank,  
a fertile territory, a-  
on, fruits, cattle, tigers,  
WSW. of Peking. Lon.  
35. 22. N.

[*Linguax*, Latin.] Full  
talkative.

adj. [*lingua* and *dens*,  
ant action of the tongue  
*dentals*, *f*, *v*, as also the  
we will soon learn. *Holder*.  
pe of Epirus.

[from *lingua*.] A man skil-  
ough a *linguist* should pride  
tongues that Babel cleft the  
had not studied the solid  
well as the words and lexi-  
ing so much to be esteemed  
yeoman or tradesman com-  
mother dialect only. *Milton*.  
ved extraordinary rudiments  
education. *Addison*.

*n. f.* An herb.

See LEGNAGO.

town of France, in the dep. of  
es SW. of Angoulesme.

MENT. *n. f.* [*liniment*, Fr. *liniment*-  
ment: balsam; unguent.—The  
ngular arteries, ought to be a-  
orning with this *liniment* or bal-  
The wife author of nature hath  
e rump two glandules, which the  
ld upon with her bill, and squeezes  
p or *liniment*, fit for the inunction  
s. *Ray*.

MENT, in pharmacy, is somewhat  
an unguent, and thicker than an oil,  
uting different parts of the body;  
is proper for composing liniments are,  
ams, and whatever enters the com-  
gents and plasters.

*n. f.* [from *line*.] 1. The inner co-  
y thing; the inner double of a gar-

deceived, or did a fable cloud  
th her silver *lining* on the night. *Milt*.  
is in the grille of the nose is covered  
g, which differs from the facing of the  
row.—

gown with stiff embroid'ry shining,  
sharming with a slighter *lining*. *Prior*.

ining of his coffers shall make coats  
our soldiers for these Irish wars. *Shak*.

*n. f.* [*gelencke*, German.] 1. A single  
chain.—

Roman state whose course will yet go on  
ay it takes, cracking ten thousand curbs  
se strong *links* asunder, than can ever  
if in your impediment. *Shak*.

—The moral of that poetical fiction, that the up-  
permost *link* of all the series of subordinate causes  
is fastened to Jupiter's chair, signifies an useful  
truth. *Hale*.—Truths hang together in a chain of  
mutual dependance; you cannot draw one *link*  
without attracting others. *Glanvill*.—

While she does her upward flight sustain,  
Touching each *link* of the continued chain,  
At length she is oblig'd, and forc'd to see  
A first, a source, a life, a deity. *Prior*.

2. Any thing doubled and closed together.—  
Make a *link* of horse hair very strong, and fasten  
it to the end of the stick that springs. *Mortimer*.—  
3. A chain; any thing connecting.—

Nor airless dungeon, nor strong *links* of iron,  
Can be retentive to the strength of spirit. *Shak*.

I feel  
The *link* of nature draw me; flesh of flesh,  
Bone of my bone thou art. *Milt*.

Fire, flood and earth, and air, by this were  
bound,  
And love, the common *link*, the new creation  
crown'd. *Dryden*.

4. Any single part of a series or chain of conse-  
quences; a gradation in ratiocination; a propo-  
sition joined to a foregoing and following a  
proposition.—The thread and train of consequences  
in intellectual ratiocination is often long, and  
chained together by divers *links*, which cannot be  
done in the imaginative ratiocination by some at-  
tributed to brutes. *Hale*. 5. A series: this sense  
is improper. *Addison* has used *link* for chain.—

Though I have here only chosen this single *link*  
of martyrs, I might find out others among those  
names which are still extant, that delivered down  
this account of our Saviour in a successive tradi-  
tion. *Addison*. 6. [From *λινος*.] A torch made  
of pitch and hards.—O, 'thou art an everlasting  
bonfire light; thou hast saved me a thousand  
marks in *links* and torches, walking with thee  
in the night betwixt tavern and tavern. *Shak*.—  
Whereas history should be the torch of truth,  
he makes her in divers places a fuliginous *link* of  
lies. *Howel*.—

Round as a globe, and liquor'd every chink,  
Goodly and great he sails behind his *link*. *Dryd*.

One that bore a *link*  
On sudden clapp'd his flaming cudgel,  
Like linstock, to the horse's touch-hole. *Hudib*.  
7. Perhaps in the following passage it may mean  
lamp-black.—

There was no *link* to colour Peter's hat. *Shak*.  
\* To LINK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To com-  
plicate; as, the links of a chain.—

With *linked* thunderbolts  
Transfix us to the bottom of this gulph. *Milt*.

Notes, with many a winding bought  
Of *linked* sweetness long drawn out. *Milton*.

2. To unite; to conjoin in concord.—  
They're so *link'd* in friendship,

That young prince Edward marries Warwick's  
daughter. *Shak*.

3. To join; to connect.—  
*Link* towns to towns with avenues of oak,  
Inclose whole downs in walls, 'tis a  
So from the first eternal order  
And creature *link'd* to creature

4. To join by confederacy or contract.—They make an offer of themselves into the service of that enemy, with whose servants they *link* themselves in so near a bond. *Hooker*.—

Be advised for the best,  
Ere thou thy daughter *link* in holy band  
Of wedlock, to that new unknown guest.

*F. Queen.*

Blood in princes *link'd* not in such fort,  
As that it is of any pow'r to tye.

*Daniel.*

5. To connect, as concomitant.—

New hope to spring  
Out of despair; joy, but with fear yet *link'd*.

*Milton.*

—God has *linkt* our hopes and our duty together. *Decay of Piety*.—So gracious hath God been to us, as to *link* together our duty and our interest. *Tillotson*. 6. To concatenate in a regular series of consequences.—These things are *linked*, and, as it were, chained one to another: we labour to eat, and we eat to live, and we live to do good; and the good which we do is as seed sown, with reference unto a future harvest. *Hooker*.—

There I'll *link* th' effect;

A chain, which fools to catch themselves project!

*Dryden.*

—By which chain of ideas thus visibly *linked* together in train, *i. e.* each intermediate idea agreeing on each side with those two, it is immediately placed between, the ideas of men and self-determination appear to be connected. *Locke*.

\* LINKBOY. LINKMAN. *n. f.* [*Link* and *boy*.]

A boy that carries a torch to accommodate passengers with light.—What a ridiculous thing it was, that the continued shadow of the earth should be broken by sudden miraculous disclusions of light, to prevent the officiousness of the *linkboy*! *More*.—

Though thou art tempted by the *linkman's* call,

Ye trust him not along the lonely wall. *Gay*.

In the black form of cinder-wench the came,

O may no *linkboy* interrupt their love! *Gay*.

LINKE. See LINCHE.

LIN-KIANG, a city of China, of the first rank, in the prov. of Kiang-Si, on the Yu-ho; 737 miles S. of Peking.

(1.) LINKIOPING, or LINKOPING, a town of Sweden, capital of *West* Gothland, with a bishop's see; seated on the lake Wenner; 12 miles NW. of Skar, and 178 SW. of Stockholm. *Brookes*. Lon. 13. 5. E. Lat. 58. 85. N.

(2.) LINKIOPING, a town of Sweden, in *East* Gothland, on the Stœng, near lake Roxen; with a bishop's see, 3 churches, and a castle; 96 miles SW. of Stockholm. *Crutwell*. Lon. 15. 28. E. Lat. 58. 24. N.—If there are not two towns of this name, as above stated, in E. and W. Gothland, either Dr Brookes or Mr Crutwell is in a mistake.

\* LINKMAN. See LINKBOY.

LINKNESS, a cape of Scotland, on the NW. coast of the isle of Stronfay.

(1.) LINLITHGOW, a parish of Scotland, in W. Lothian, or Linlithgow-shire, 5 miles long from E. to W. and 3 broad; containing 7,600 Scots acres; bounded on the W. by the Avon, which separates the county from Stirlingshire. The surface rises in a gradual ascent to 500 feet

above the sea level. The soil is various, but ground, in general, is well cultivated, and entirely inclosed with plantations. All the crops are raised, but very little flax. There are 4 lint and 4 corn mills. The population, in 1792, was 3221; and had decreased 75, since 1755. There is a silver mine in the S. extremity of the parish, formerly very productive. There are a bleachfield, printfield, and several distillers.

(2.) LINLITHGOW, [from *Lin*, Gael. *i. e.* *linn*, a twig, and *gow*, a dog;] a royal borough in the above parish, capital of the county. The name is said to allude to a black bitch, which according to tradition was found tied to a tree in an island, on the E. side of the lake, near which the town stands. This etymology seems confirmed from the figure of the black bitch making part of the town's armorial bearing, on its public seal. Others, however, derive the name from *linn*, a lake, *linn*, a flag or clove, and *gow*, a vale, which seems confirmed from its situation. Linlithgow is supposed to be the ancient LINDUM of Ptolemy. It was a royal borough in the time of David I. On the accession of the house of Stuart it became a royal residence. James IV. was attached to it, and built the E. part of the palace, which has been peculiarly magnificent. Six queens of Scotland had it as their jointure. It is all of polished stone, and covers an extensive ground. It was originally built, as Sibbald supposes, on the site of a Roman station. It is a square with towers at the corners, and stands on a gentle eminence, with the lake behind it. It was greatly ornamented by James V. and VI. Within it is a handsome square, the side of which was built by James VI. and I. in good repair till 1746, when it was accidentally damaged by the king's troops making fires at the hearths, by which the joists were burnt. In the middle of the square is an ornamented fountain in the middle of the 17th century. The other three sides of the square are more ancient. In one is a well 95 feet long, 30 feet 6 inches wide, and 3 feet deep. At one end is a gallery with 3 arches. The other three galleries run quite round the old part, to prevent communications with the rooms; in one of the rooms the unfortunate Q. Mary was born. The palace consists of one open street of stone houses, 1/2 mile long, with lanes on each side, and 3 streets on the N. and on the S. On the N. side is a high street, on an eminence E. of the palace. St Michael's church. In the market place is another fountain of two stories with 8 spouts surmounted like the former with an iron crown. The gallery, whence the regent I. was shot, is still to be seen. The house of the Melites, founded in 1290, was destroyed by the reformers in 1559. This borough is governed by a provost, 4 bailies, dean of guild, treasurer, 12 aldermen, 8 chant councillors, and 8 deacons of inceptions. The population, in 1793, was 2282. A market is on Friday, and there are 6 fairs annually. Considerable trade is carried on, in leather, wool, stockings, linen, porter, ale, &c. Tanning and dressing of leather employs 48 people; the shoe-making 100, who make about 24,000 annually; the printfield, in 1792, employed 100 people. Linlithgow is 2 miles S. of Borrow

its port, and 16 W. of Edinburgh. Lon. W. Lat. 56. 0. N.

LINLITHGOW, or } See LOTHIAN, WEST.  
LITHGOWSHIRE. }

LN, a town of Pennsylvania, in Northamp-

LNÆUS, Sir Charles, the justly celebrated  
ner of botany and natural history, was born  
ay 24, 1707, in a village called *Rosbult* in  
nd, where his father, Nicolas Linnæus, was  
ricar. We are told, that on the farm where  
eus was born, there yet stands a large lime-  
from the botanical names of which, *TILIA*  
NDEN, his ancestors took the surnames of  
der, *Lindelius*, and *Linneus*; and that this  
of surnames, from natural objects, is fre-  
t in Sweden. But the fact is, that, the name  
ed by this great man, even in his *Latin*  
s, is neither *Tiliander*, *Lindelius*, nor even  
us, but *LINNE*, which seems to be the real  
lth name of the family. In his Latin works,  
ed in Sweden, he styles himself *Carolus a Lin-*  
*How* he came to be styled *Linneus* by for-  
ers, is therefore not easily accounted for.  
eminent man, whose talents enabled him to  
n the whole science of natural history, ac-  
lated, very early in life, some of the highest  
ns in medical science. He was made pro-  
of physic and botany, in the university of  
, at the age of 34; and at 40, physician to  
Adolphus-Frederick. Linnæus's taste for  
y seems to have been imbibed from his fa-  
who cultivated a garden plentifully stored  
plants, by way of amusement. Young  
us soon became acquainted with these, as  
s with the indigenous ones in his neighbour-

Yet from the narrowness of his father's  
e, Charles was on the point of being des-  
to a mechanical employment, though for-  
ly the design was over-ruled. In 1717, he  
nt to school at Wexio; where, as his op-  
nities were enlarged, his progress in all his  
ite pursuits was proportionably extended;  
ven at this early period he began to study  
ural history of insects. Professor Stobæus,  
whom he received the first part of his ac-  
al education at Lund, in Scania, favoured  
ffection to natural history. He removed in  
to Upsal, where he contracted a close friend-  
with Arctedi, a native of Angermania, who  
een 4 years a student in that university, and  
strong bent to natural history, particularly  
ology. Soon after his residence at Upsal,  
ained the favour of several gentlemen of  
ished character in literature. He was par-  
rily encouraged in the pursuit of his studies  
r Olaus Celsius, then professor of divinity,  
he restorer of natural history in Sweden;  
being struck with the accuracy of Linnæus  
scribing the plants of the garden at Upsal,  
only patronized him, but admitted him to  
use, his table, and his library. Under his  
agement, Linnæus made such a rapid pro-  
g that in two years, he was thought quali-  
to give lectures occasionally from the botanic  
h, in the room of professor Rudbeck. In  
s, the Royal Academy of Sciences at Upsal,  
a view to improve the natural history of Swe-

den, at the instance of professors Celsius and Rud-  
beck, deputed Linnæus to make the tour of Lap-  
land, and explore the natural history of that ar-  
ctic region. He left Upsal the 13th of May, and  
took his route to Gevalia, the capital of Gestrucia,  
45 miles from Upsal; travelled through Helsing-  
land into Medalpadiä, where he ascended a re-  
markable mountain, before he reached Hudwick-  
swald, the capital of Helsingland. Thence he  
went through Angermanland to Hernosand, a sea-  
port on the Bothnic gulf, 70 miles from Hudwick-  
swald; where he visited the remarkable caverns  
on the summit of mount Skula, at the hazard of  
his life. Arriving at Uma, in W. Bothnia, he  
quitted the public road, and took his course  
through the woods westward, to traverse the most  
southern parts of Lapland. Though a stranger  
to the language and manners of the people, and  
without any associate, he trusted to the hospitality  
of the inhabitants, and experienced it fully. He  
mentions, with peculiar satisfaction, the innocence  
and simplicity of their lives. He reached the  
mountains towards Norway, and, after encoun-  
tering great hardships, returned to W. Bothnia;  
visited Pitha and Lula, on the gulf of Bothnia;  
from which last place he took a western route,  
proceeding up the river Lula, and visited the  
ruins of the temple of Jockmock in Lappmark:  
thence he traversed the *Lapland Desert*, destitute  
of all villages, cultivation, roads, or any conve-  
niences; inhabited only by a few straggling peo-  
ple, originally descended from the Finlanders,  
and who settled in this country in remote ages,  
being entirely a distinct people from the Lapland-  
ers. In this district he ascended a mountain  
called *Wallevari*, where he found a singular and  
beautiful new plant (*ANDROMEDA tetragona*) when  
travelling within the arctic circle, with the sun in  
his view at midnight, in search of a Lapland hut.  
Thence he crossed the Lapland Alps into Finmark,  
and traversed the shores of the north sea as far as  
Sallero. These journeys were made on foot, at-  
tended by two Laplanders, as his interpreter and  
guide. In descending a river, he narrowly escap-  
ed perishing by the oversetting of the boat, and  
lost many of the natural productions he had col-  
lected. Linnæus spent the greater part of the  
summer in examining this arctic region, and those  
mountains on which, four years afterwards, the  
French philosophers secured immortal fame to  
Sir Isaac Newton. At length, after having suffer-  
ed incredible fatigues and hardships, in climbing  
precipices, passing rivers in miserable boats, under  
the vicissitudes of extreme heat and cold, and of-  
ten of hunger and thirst, he returned to Tornoa  
in September. Having resolved to visit and ex-  
amine the country on the E. side of the gulf: his  
first stage was to Ula in E. Bothnia; thence to  
Old and New Carleby, 84 miles S. of Ula. He  
continued his route through Wasa, Christianstadt,  
and Biornburgh, to Abo, a small university in  
Finland. As winter was now setting in apace;  
he crossed the gulf by the island of Aland, and  
arrived at Upsal in November, after having per-  
formed, mostly on foot, a journey of ten degrees  
of latitude in extent, exclusively of numberless  
deviations. In 1733, he visited and examined the  
mines in Sweden; and made himself so well ac-

quainted

quainted with mineralogy and the docimastic art, that he was qualified to give lectures on those subjects upon his return to the university. The outlines of his system on mineralogy appeared in the early editions of the *Systema Naturæ*; but he did not exemplify the whole until 1768. In 1734, he was sent by baron Reuterholm governor of Dalecarlia, with several other naturalists in that province, to investigate the productions of that part of the Swedish dominions; and in this journey he first laid the plan of an excellent institution, which he afterwards executed, with the assistance of many of his pupils, and published the result under the title of *Pan Suecicus*, in the 2d volume of the *Amnitates Academicæ*. After this expedition, Linnæus resided some time at Fahlun, the chief town in Dalecarlia; where he taught mineralogy, and practised physic; and was hospitably treated by Dr More, the physician of the place. He contracted at this time an intimacy with a daughter of that gentleman, whom he married about 5 years afterwards. In this journey he extended his travels quite across the Dalecarlian Alps into Norway. In 1735, he travelled over many parts of Sweden, Denmark and Germany, and fixed in Holland, where he chiefly resided until his return to Stockholm, about 1739. In 1735, he also took his degree of M. D. and published the first sketch of his *Systema Naturæ*, in a compendious way, in the form of tables, in 12 pages, folio. By this it appears, that he had, before he was 24 years old, laid the basis of that grand structure which he afterwards erected to the increase of his own fame, as well as of natural science. In 1736, he came to England, and visited Dr Dillenius, at Oxford, whom he justly considered as one of the first botanists in Europe. He mentions his civilities, and the privilege he gave him of inspecting his own and the Sherardian collections of plants. He also visited Dr Martyn, Mr Rand, Mr Miller, and Dr Isaac Lawton; and contracted an intimate friendship with Mr Peter Collinson, which was reciprocally increased by a multitude of good offices, and continued to the last without diminution. Dr Boerhaave had given him letters to Sir Hans Sloane; but, they did not procure him the reception he and the Dr merited. One of the most agreeable circumstances that happened to Linnæus in Holland, arose from the patronage of Mr Clifford, in whose house he lived a considerable part of his time, and with whom he enjoyed pleasures and privileges scarcely at that time to be met with elsewhere in the world; that of a garden excellently stored with the finest exotics, and a library furnished with almost every botanic author of note. He was also recommended by Boerhaave to fill the place, then vacant, of physician to the Dutch settlement at Surinam; but he declined it on account of his having been born in so opposite a climate. He was also befriended by Dr John Burman, professor of botany at Amsterdam, to whom he dedicated his *Bibliotheca Botanica*, having been greatly assisted in compiling that work by the free access he had to that gentleman's excellent library; also by John Frederick Gronovius of Leyden, editor of Clayton's *Flora Virginitica*, who very early adopted Linnæus's system; by Baron Van Swieten, late physician to the Empress Queen;

by Dr Isaac Lawton, afterwards physician to the British army, who died at Oosterhout in 1747; by Kramer, since well known for an excellent treatise on the docimastic art; by Van Royen botanic professor at Leyden; and by Lieberkuhn of Berlin, famous for his skill in microscopical instruments and experiments: as well as by the celebrated Albinus and Gaubius. Early in 1738 Linnæus had a long and dangerous fit of sickness, and upon his recovery went to Paris, where he was entertained by the Jussieus, then the first botanists in France. The opportunity this gave him of inspecting their Herbaria, as well as those of Saurian and Tournesort, afforded him great satisfaction. He did not fail to avail himself of every advantage that access to the several museums of this country afforded him, in every branch of natural history; and the number and importance of his publications, during his absence from Sweden, demonstrate that fund of knowledge which he had accumulated before, as well as his extraordinary application. These were, *Systema Naturæ*, *Fundamenta Botanica*, *Bibliotheca Botanica*, and *Genera Plantarum*; the last of which is justly considered as the most valuable of all his works. What immense application had been bestowed upon it, the reader may easily conceive, on being informed, that before the publication of the first edition the author had examined the characters of 8000 flowers. The last book he published, during his stay in Holland, was the *Classes Plantarum*, which is a copious illustration of the 2d part of the *Fundamenta*. About the end of 1738, or beginning of 1739, he settled as a physician at Stockholm; where he seems to have met with considerable opposition, and was oppressed with many difficulties; but all of these at length he overcame, and got into extensive practice; and soon after his settlement, married Miss More. By the interest of Count Tessin, who was afterwards his great patron, and even procured medals to be struck in honour of him, he obtained the rank of physician to the fleet, and a salary for giving lectures on botany. And what was highly favourable to the advancement of his character and fame, was the establishment of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm; of which he was constituted the first president, and to which establishment the king granted several privileges, particularly that of free postage to all papers directed to the secretary. By the rules of the academy, the president held his place but three months. At the expiration of that term, Linnæus made his *Oratio de memorabilibus in Insectis*, Oct. 3, 1739; in which he endeavours to excite an attention to entomology, by displaying the many singular phenomena of insects, and by pointing out, in various instances, their usefulness to mankind, and to the economy of nature in general. In 1743, upon the resignation of Roberg, he was constituted joint professor of physic and physician to the king with Rosen, who had been appointed in 1740 on the death of Rudbeck. These two colleagues divided the medical departments between them; Rosen took anatomy, physiology, pathology, and the therapeutic part; Linnæus, natural history, botany, materia medica, the dietetic part, and the diagnosis morborum. During the interval of his

removal.

ed the frica-  
ld. *Brown*.  
i castle, feat-  
It was taken  
pecialists in  
91; who a-  
nolished the  
grade. Lon.

in Westpha-  
derborn. It  
f towns are  
chief rivers

tal of the a-  
iver (N° 3.)  
f branch of  
to the king  
le in timber  
on. 8. 30. E.

nty, which  
hine, below

Elvas.  
; lips.  
any in the  
pstadt.

inter of his-  
and learn-  
threw Rosel-  
c and poet-  
e latter, his  
his compo-  
n for those  
e manner of  
h in design  
ore of sim-  
ns than any  
Lippi paint-  
ls and con-  
ation; and  
great num-  
which were  
ated simple  
s works are  
eful airs of  
utline, and  
s. He died

r. *lippitudo*,  
that are in-  
and not so  
pass easily  
fences and

y in Pader-  
miles N. of

the prov.  
nfredonia.

orn at Fisch,  
ter having  
became se-  
me, where

the best libraries were open to him; and he col-  
lated the MSS. of ancient authors. He lived 23  
years at Leyden; during which he composed and  
published what he esteemed his best works; but  
settled at Louvain, where he taught polite litera-  
ture with great reputation. He was remarkable  
for unsteadiness in religion, fluctuating often be-  
tween the Protestants and Papists; but he became  
finally a bigoted catholic. He died at Louvain  
in 1606; and his works are collected in 6 vols.  
folio.

LIPSO, an island in the Grecian Archipelago,  
6 miles SSE. of Patmos.

LIPSTADT. See LIPPE, N° 2.

LIPUDA, a river of Naples, in Calabria.

\* LIPWISDOM. *n. f.* [*lip* and *wisdom*.] Wis-  
dom in talk without practice.—I find that all is  
but *lipwisdom*, which wants experience. *Sidney*.

\* LIQUABLE. *adj.* [from *liquo*, Latin.] Such  
as may be melted.

\* To LIQUATE. *v. n.* [*liquo*, Latin.] To melt;  
to liquefy.—If the salts be not drawn forth before  
the clay is baked, they are apt to *liquate*. *Wood-  
ward*.

\* LIQUATION. *n. f.* [from *liquo*, Latin.] 1.  
The act of melting. 2. Capacity to be melted.—  
The common opinion hath been, that chrysal is  
nothing but ice and snow concentered, and, by du-  
ration of time, congealed beyond *liquation*. *Brown*.

LIQUE, a town of France, in the dep. of the  
Straits of Calais and ci-devant prov. of Artois, 12  
m. W. of St Omer, Lon. 2. o. E. Lat. 50. 45. N.

(1.) \* LIQUEFACTION. *n. f.* [*liquefactio*, Lat.  
*liquefaction*, Fr.] The act of melting; the state  
of being melted.—Heat dissolveth and melteth bo-  
dies that keep in their spirits, as in divers *lique-  
factions*; and so doth time in honey, which by  
age waxeth more liquid. *Bacon*.—The burning of  
the earth will be a true *liquefaction* or dissolution  
of it, as to the exterior region. *Bornet*.

(2.) LIQUEFACTION is an operation by  
which a solid body is reduced into a liquid; or  
the action of fire or heat on fat and other fusible  
bodies, which puts their parts into a mutual in-  
terstine motion.—The liquefaction of wax, &c. is  
performed by a moderate heat; that of salt tartar,  
by the mere moisture of the air. All salts liquefy  
and, mixed with alkalis, becomes liquefied by  
a reverberatory fire, in the making of glass. In  
speaking of metals, instead of liquefaction, we or-  
dinarily use the word *fusion*.

\* LIQUEFIABLE. *adj.* [from *liquify*.] Such  
as may be melted.—There are three causes of  
fixation, the ever spreading of the spirits and  
tangible parts, the closeness of the tangible parts,  
and the jejuneness or extreme comminution of spi-  
rits; the two first may be joined with a nature  
*liquefiable*, the last not. *Bacon*.

(1.) \* To LIQUEFY. *v. a.* [*liquefier*, French;  
*liquefacio*, Latin.] To melt; to dissolve.—That  
degree of heat which is in lime and ashes, being  
a smothering heat, is the most proper, for it doth  
neither *liquefy* nor rarefy; and that is true matu-  
ration. *Bacon*.

(2.) \* To LIQUEFY. *v. n.* To grow liquid.  
—The blood of St Januarius *liquefied* at the ap-  
proach of the saint's head. *Addison*.

completed and published by his son. On his death a general mourning took place at Upsal, and his funeral was attended by the whole university, and the pall supported by 16 doctors of physic, all of whom had been his pupils. The king lamented his death in his speech to the States; and ordered a medal to be struck, of which one side exhibits Linnæus's bust and name, and the other Cybele, in a dejected attitude, holding in her left hand a key, and surrounded with animals and plants; with this legend, *Deam luctus angit amissi; and beneath, Post obitum Upsalæ, die x. Jan. M.DCC.LXXVIII. Rege jubente.* Nor was Linnæus honoured only in his own country. The late worthy professor of botany at Edinburgh, Dr Hope, not only pronounced an eulogium in honour of him before his students, at the opening of his lectures in spring 1778, but also erected a monument to his memory, in the botanic garden there. As to the personal character of this illustrious naturalist, his stature was diminutive and puny; his head large, and its hinder part very high; his look was ardent, piercing, and apt to daunt the beholder; his ear insensible to music; his temper quick, but easily appeased. But his personal defects were amply compensated by the endowments of his mind. He possessed a lively imagination, a strong judgment, the most retentive memory, an unremitting industry, and the greatest perseverance in all his pursuits; as is evident from that continued vigour, with which he prosecuted the design he formed early in life, of totally reforming and renovating the whole science of natural history. This fabric he raised, and gave to it a degree of perfection unknown before; and had the pleasure of seeing it rise above all others, notwithstanding every discouragement and opposition. Neither has any writer more cautiously avoided that common error of building his own fame on the ruin of another man's. He every where acknowledged the merits of each author's system, and was sensible of the partial defects of his own. Those anomalies which had principally been the objects of criticism, he well knew every artificial arrangement must abound with: and having laid it down as a firm maxim, that every system must finally rest on its intrinsic merit, he willingly committed his own to the judgment of posterity. Perhaps there is no circumstance of Linnæus's life which shows him in a more dignified light than his conduct towards his opponents. Disavowing controversy, he replied to none, numerous as they were at one period. He had a happy command of the Latin tongue, which is the most useful language of science; and no man ever applied it more successfully, or gave to description such copiousness, united with such precision and conciseness. His ardour for the study of natural history led him to regret, that this study was not established, as a public institution, in universities; and he often displayed, in a lively and convincing manner, the relation it hath to the public good; to incite the great to countenance it; to encourage and allure youth into its pursuits, by opening its manifold sources of pleasure to their view, and showing them how greatly this agreeable employment would add, in a variety of instances, both to their comfort and emolument. He also laboured to inspire

the great and opulent with a taste for this study; and wished particularly that such as were devoted to an ecclesiastic life should share a portion of natural science; not only as a means of sweetening their rural situation, but as leading to discoveries, which only such situations could give rise to, and which the learned in great cities have no opportunities to make. Linnæus lived to enjoy the fruit of his labour. Natural history arose in Sweden, under his culture, to a state of perfection unknown elsewhere; and was thence disseminated through all Europe. His pupils dispersed themselves all over the globe; the sovereigns of Europe established public institutions in favour of this study; and professorships were erected in various universities for cultivating it.

(1.) LINNE, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, 2 miles S. of Ordingen, and 32 NNW. of Cologne.

(2.) LINNE. See LINNÆUS.

(1.) \* LINNET. *n. f.* [*linnet*, French *linnette*, Latin.] A small singing bird.—The swallows make use oelandine, the *linnet* of euphrasia, for the repairing of their sight. *More.*—

Is it for thee the *linnet* pours his throat? *More.*  
(2.) LINNET, in ornithology. See PARUS, N° 2. These birds build in hedges, as well as in furze bushes on heaths, but with very different materials. In hedges, they use the slender twigs of the roots of trees, and the down of heather and thistles; but on heaths, they use moss principally for the outer part, finishing it with such things as the place affords. They lay young ones 3 or 4 times a year, especially if they are taken away before they are able to leave the nests. When linnets are to be taught to whistle, or to imitate the notes of any other bird, they must be taken from the old one when they are not above 4 days old; for at this time they have no idea of the note of the old ones, and may be readily taught to modulate their voice like any thing that is most familiar to their ears, and within the compass of their throats. *More.* Care is required in feeding them when taken thus young, than when they are left in the nest to be nearly fledged; but they will be reared very well upon a food half bread and half rape seed boiled and bruised: this must be given them several times a-day. It must be made fresh every day, and given sufficiently moist, but not in the extreme. If it be in the least sour, it gripes and kills them; and if too stiff it is as mischievous by binding them up. They must be hung up as soon as taken from the nest, under the bird whose note they are intended to learn; or, if they are taught to whistle, it must be done by giving them lessons at the time of feeding; for they will profit more, while young, in a few days, than in a long time afterward, and will take in the whole method of their notes before they are able to crack hard seeds. Some have attempted to learn them to speak, and they often arrive at some perfection in it.

LIN-NGAN, a town of China, in Tche-kiang.  
LINNICH, a town of Germany, in the duchy of Juliers, now annexed to the French public, and included in the dep. of the Roer: 12 miles NNW. Juliers. Lon. 23. 49. E. Ferro. Lat. 51. 2. N.

ist of Scotland, in Peebles- an extent of 25 square miles. moist, is healthy, but sub- imn, which often ruin the is partly hilly and heathy, clay, moss, and sandy loam. turnips, and potatoes are the 6,000 sheep, 130 horses, 460 e; are reared annually. The was 928; increase 97 since neral spring a mile N. of the d *Heaven-Aqua Well*, resem-

lage in the above parish (N<sup>o</sup> habitants in 1791, seated on ins through the parish, and near its conflux with the r Findlater recommends this ed for an woollen manufac- is NW. of Peebles,

LYNE, a name to our ed. The re- well a rse cle is SW. of

TON, or LINTON, a parish of Scot- xburghshire, 9 miles long and 3 broad, n the W. by the Kail. The climate is ; the soil various; the surface mostly level, e being only one hill; but there are two lakes - an extensive moss in the parish. Agriculture uch improved.

) LINTON, a village in the above parish.

(6-12.) LINTON, the name of 7 English villages; in Derby, Devon, Gloucester, Hereford, Kent, Northumberland, and York shires.

LIN-TONG, a town of China, in Chep-si.

(1.) LINTRATHEN, or GLENTATHEN, a parish of Scotland, in Angus-shire, 8 miles long from N. to S. and 4 broad; elevated on the skirts of the Grampians, from 500 to 100 feet above the level of Strathmore. Hence the surface has a bleak and barren aspect, consisting of mountains, hills and valleys; though some parts are well cultivated and fertile, producing good crops of oats and barley. The old system of husbandry prevails, and improvements are prevented by *short*, or rather *no leases*, and heavy servitudes. The *schoolmaster* has a "miserable salary of 6 or 7 bolls of oats," and "the hut in which he resides is hardly fit to accommodate the meanest beggar." (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* xiii. 566.) The population, in 1793, was about 900: decrease 265, since 1755.

(2.) LINTRATHEN, or GLENTATHEN, a vil- lage in the above parish, seated on a small cata- ract of the MELGAM, near a circular lake a mile in diameter. Vestiges of the hangman's habita- tion and other relics of feudal barbarism, are still visible.

LINTREY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meurthe; 4½ miles NW. of Blamont, and 9 E. of Lunéville.

LINTSEED. See LINSEED.

LINTSTOCK. See LINSTOCK.

(1.) LINTZ, the capital of Upper Austria, with two fortified castles. It has a hall in which the states meet, a bridge over the Danube; and several manufactories. It was burnt in 1342. It was taken by the French in 1741, but retaken by the Austrians in 1742. It is seated at the conflux of the Danube and Traen; 42 miles SE. of Passau,

and 100 W. of Vienna. Lon. 14. 3. E. 15. N.

(2.) LINTZ, a town of Germany, in of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of seated on the E. side of the Rhine: 10 n of Bonn, and 23 SSE. of Cologne. Lon. Lat. 50. 31. N.

LINTZENEGG, a town of Austria.

LINUM, FLAX; a genus of the pent- der, belonging to the pentandria class and in the natural method ranking unde order, *Grinales*. The calyx is penta the petals are five, the capsule is quin and decemlocular; and the seeds are There are 21 species.

1. LINUM CATHARTICUM, the purg- hath leaves opposite and lanceolate; th furcated, and the corolla acute. This p above 4 or 5 inches high, and is found chalky hills and in dry pleasure ground- tue is expressed in its title; an infusion or whey of a handful of the fresh leaves, of them in substance when dried, purge inconvenience.

2. LINUM PERENNE, the perennial Sib- hath a fibrous perennial root, sending upright, strong, annual stalks, branchi feet high; garnished with small narro shaped, alternate leaves of a dark green and terminated by umbellate clusters of flowers in June, succeeded by seeds in This species is raised from seed in a bed of common garden earth, in shallow drill afunder; when the plants are 2 or 3 in thin them to the same distance; and plant them out where they are wanted.

3. LINUM USITATISSIMUM, the co- nual FLAX; hath a taper fibrous root slender, unbranched stalks, 2½ feet high; ed with narrow, spear-shaped, alternat loured leaves; and the stalks divided into at top, terminated by small blue crenat in June and July; succeeded by large r fules of ten cells, containing each one species may justly be looked upon as most valuable of the whole vegetable kin from the bark of its stalks is manufactur or flax for making all sorts of linen cloth rags of the linen is made paper; and seeds is expressed the lintseed oil, so painting and other trades. The seeds. cellent emollient and anodyne; they ar ternally in cataplasms, to assuage the p flamed tumors; internally, a slight i them by way of tea, in coughs, is an exc toral, and of great service in pleurifies, complaints, and suppressions of urine. cultivation, dressing, &c. of his species, § 1, 11, 3, 7-13; and ELAX-DRESSING

LINUS, in classical history, a native c cotemporary with Orpheus, and one o ancient poets and musicians of Greece. ing to Abp. Usher, he flourished about and he is mentioned by Eusebius among who wrote before the time of Moses. Siculus tells us, from Dionysius of Mit historian, who was cotemporary with C Linus was the first among the Greeks w



and music, as Cadmus first taught them. He likewise attributes to him an account exploits of the first Bacchus, and a treatise reek mythology, written in Pelasgian character which were also those used by Orpheus, Pronapides the preceptor of Homer. Diodorus says that he added the string *lichanos* to the lyre; and ascribes to him the invention of and melody; which Suidas, who regards the most ancient of lyric poets, confirms. He says that Linus invented cat-gut for the use of the lyre, which, before his time, was strung with thongs of leather, or with threads of flax strung together. He had disciples of great renown; among whom Hercules, Thamyris, and, some add, Orpheus. Hercules, says Diodorus, in learning from him to play upon the lyre, being extremely dull, provoked his master to strike him; he enraged the young hero, that instantly he beat out his lyre of the musician, he beat out his with his own instrument.

YEOU, a town of China, in Chen-si.

YAK, a lake of Thibet, 30 miles round.

YER, a town of France, in the dep. of Somme, 18 miles W. of Amiens.

LION. *n. f.* [*lion*, Fr. *leo*, Latin.] 1. The

and most magnanimous of fourfooted animals. King Richard's surname was *Cœur-de-lion* for his lion-like courage. *Camden*—

*lion* mettled; proud, and take no care to chafe, who frets, or where conspirers are;

Woe shall never vanquish'd be. *Shak.*

A sphinx, a famous monster in Egypt, had the head of a virgin, and the body of a lion.

*n.*—

They rejoice  
with their kind, *lion* with lioness;  
Lay them in pairs thou hast combin'd. *Milton.*

See *lion* hearted Richard,  
Lion valiant, like a torent swell'd  
in wintry tempests. *Philips.*

See *lion* in the zodiac.—

The *lion* for the honours of his skin,  
Squeezing crab, and stinging scorpion shine  
adorning heaven, when giants dar'd to brave  
threat'ned stars. *Creech.*

LION, in zoology. See FELIS, N° VIII. The roaring of the lion, says Mr Sparman, is in a hoarse inarticulate sound, which at the same time seems to have hollowness in it, as if proceeding from a speaking trumpet. The sound is between that of a *u* and an *o*, being drawn to a great length and appearing as if it came from out of the distance; at the same time that, after listening with the greatest attention, I could not exactly determine what quarter it came. The sound of the voice does not bear the least resemblance to that of a lion, as M. de Buffon, tom. ix. p. 22. from the observations of Boullage le Gouz, affirms it does. In the appearance it made to me to be neither peculiarly loud nor tremendous; yet, from its slow pronote, joined with nocturnal darkness, and the idea one is apt to form to one's self of the animal, it made one shudder, even in such

places as I had an opportunity of hearing it in with more satisfaction, and without having the least occasion for fear."

LIONCELLES, in heraldry, a term used for several lions born in the same coat of arms.

LION D' ANGERS, a town of France in the dep. of Maine and Loire, 10 miles NNW. of Angers.

\* LIONESSE. *n. f.* [feminine of *lion*.] A she lion.

Under which bush's shade, a lioness  
Lay couching head on ground, with catlike  
watch

When that the sleeping man should stir. *Shak.*  
The furious lioness,

Forgetting young ones, through the fields doth  
roar. *Mary.*

The greedy lioness the wolf pursues,  
The wolf the kid, the wanton kid the browse.

*Dryden.*

—If we may believe Pliny, lions do, in a very severe manner, punish the adulteries of the lioness.

*Aylffe.*  
(1.) \* LIONLEAF. *n. f.* [*Leontopetalon*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) LIONLEAF. See LEONTICE.

LION MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Africa, near the Cape of Good Hope, said to resemble the Lion.

(1.) LIONS, a town of France, in the dep. of the Eure, 9 miles N. of Andelys, and 15 E. of Rouen. Lon. 19. 8. E. of Ferro. Lat. 49. 19. N.

(2.) LIONS. See LYONS.

(3.) LIONS, GULF OF, a bay of the Mediterranean, extending from Spain to Italy, and which has given its name to the town, (N° 1.) being often disturbed with tempests roaring like lions.

LION'S-FOOT. See CATANANCHE.

\* LION'S-MOUTH. } LION'S-TOOTH. *n. f.* [from  
\* LION'S-PAW. } *lion*.] The name of an

(1.) \* LION'S-TAIL. } herb.

(2.) LION'S-TAIL, in botany. See LEONURUS.

LIORAC, a town of France, in the department of Dordogne, 7 miles ENE. of Bergerac.

LIOSK, a town of Lithuania, in Troki.

LIOTARD, an eminent painter, born at Geneva, in 1722, and by his father designed for a merchant; but his genius inclined him to painting. He went to Paris in 1726, and in 1738 accompanied the marquis de Puifieux to Rome, where he was taken notice of by lords Sandwich and Duncannon, who engaged him to go with them to Constantinople. There he became acquainted with lord Edgumbe, and Sir Everard Fawkener, who brought him to England, where he staid two years. In his journey to the Levant he adopted the eastern habit, and wore it in Britain with a very long beard, whence he was called *the Turk*. After his return to the continent, he married a young wife, and sacrificed his beard to Hymen. He came again to England in 1772, and brought a collection of pictures of different masters, which he sold by auction, and some pieces of glass painted by himself, with surprising effect of light and shade, but mere curiosities, as it was necessary to darken the room before they could be seen to advantage. He engraved some Turkish portraits, one of the empress queen and the eldest arch-duchess in Turkish habits, and the heads of the emperor and empress. He painted

admira-

bly

ature; and finely in ena-  
practised it. But he is  
ks in crayons. His like-  
possible, and too like to  
him; thus he had great  
and very little the second.  
and one would think of  
der nothing but what he  
ckles, marks of the small-  
its place; not so much  
le he could not conceive  
g that appeared to him.  
us works, grace in few or

tolo, and Tila Navi. Pare, Ratto and Uffico, ar  
considerable. Volcano, a desert but habitable  
lies S. of Lipari: Salini lies WNW. of it: L  
di nearly in the same direction, but 20 mile  
ther distant; and Alicudi, 20 miles SW. of  
cudi, are inhabited. Panari is E. of Lipari  
famous Stromboli NE. and both are inhab  
Basiluzzo was formerly inhabited; and  
might be inhabited; and Exambianca has  
remains of ancient dwellings; but Eganera  
many others are nothing but bare rocks.  
Fermicoli, (a word signifying ants,) are a ch  
small black cliffs which run to the NE. of  
ri, within a little of Exambianca and Eic  
rising more or less above the water, according  
sea is more or less agitated. Ancient autho  
not agreed with respect to the number of t  
pari islands. Few of those by whom the  
mentioned appear to have seen them: a  
places such as these, where subterraneous fire  
u the earth and raise the ocean from it  
... ble changes must sometimes take place,  
canello and Volcano were once separated, b  
lava and ashes having filled up the interv  
strait, they are now united into one island  
have thus become much more habitable. Th  
volcanic eruption in the Lipari islands, recon  
hi ory, is that which Callias mentions in h  
te. y of the wars in Sicily. Callias was co  
po ary with Agathocles. That eruption conti  
without interval for several days and nights  
threw out great stones, which fell above  
distant. The sea boiled all around the i  
1 ring the consulship of Æmilius Lepidus:  
2 relius Orestes, A. A. C. 126, these islands  
affected with a dreadful earthquake. The  
ing of Ætna was the first cause of it. A  
Lipari and the adjacent islands, the air was  
fire. Vegetables were burnt up; animals  
and fusible bodies, such as wax and resin, b  
liquid. If the inhabitants of Lipari, from  
Callias received those facts, and the writer  
have handed them down to us, have not  
gerated matters, the sea boiled around the i  
the earth became so hot as to burn the cab  
which vessels were fixed to the shore, and  
sumed the planks, the oars, and even the  
boats. Pliny (lib. ii. cap. 106.) speaks of  
milar event, which happened 30 or 40 ye  
terwards, in the time of the war of the  
states of Italy against Romo. One of the 2  
islands, says he, was on fire as well as th  
and that prodigy continued to appear, till  
nate appeased, by a deputation, the wrath  
gods. From the time of that war, which h  
ed A. A. C. 86. till A. D. 144, we have  
count of an eruption of these volcanoes  
from that period again, till 1444, we hear  
explosion from them for 1300 years. But,  
time, both Sicily and these isles were agita  
dreadful shocks of earthquakes; the Volca  
poured forth streams of flame and smoke  
rose to an amazing height. After that it di  
ed enormous stones which fell above 6 mil  
tant. In 1550, the ashes and stones discl  
from its crater filled up the strait betwe  
cano and Volcanello. In 1739, there was a  
ruption. The byrings of the volcanic fir

a town of China, in Chen-Si.

g, Saxon.] 1. The outer  
muscles that shoot beyond  
f so much use in speaking,  
ll the organs of speech—  
left smiles

Th  
What  
No  
Or what  
Her lips  
2. The edge  
ridge of mounta  
a plain from the  
was formerly ce  
against those hills  
Edges or lips of its vessel. *Burnet*.—In wounds,  
the lips sink and are flaccid; a gleet followeth,  
and the flesh with in withers. *Wyseman*. 3. To make  
a lip. To hang the lip in fullness and contempt.  
A letter for me! It gives me an estate of seven  
years health; in which time I will make a lip at the  
physician. *Shak*.

(2.) LIP. See ANATOMY, *Index*.  
(3.) LIP, HARE. See HARE-LIP, and SUR-  
GERY.

\* To LIP. v. a. {from the noun.} To kiss. Ob-  
solete.—

A hand, that kings  
Have lipst, and trembled kissing; *Ant. and Cle*.  
Oh! 'tis the fiends arch mock,  
To lip a wanton, and suppose her chaste. *Shak*.  
(1.) LIPA, a town of Croatia, on Dobra.  
(2.) LIPA, a town of Lithuania.

LIPARA, in ancient geography, the principal of  
the islands called ÆOLIAE, situated between Sic-  
ily and Italy, with a cognominal town, so power-  
ful as to have a fleet, and the other islands in sub-  
jection to it. Diodorus Siculus says, it was fa-  
mous for excellent harbours and medicinal wa-  
ters; and that it suddenly emerged from the sea  
about the time of Hannibal's death. The name is  
Punic, according to Bochart: and given it, be-  
cause being a volcano, it shone in the night. It  
is now called LIPARI, and gives name to 9 o-  
thers in its neighbourhood. See LIPARI, N° 1.  
and 2.

LIPARESE, the natives of LIPARI.

(1.) LIPARI, the general name of a cluster of  
islands, in the Mediterranean, of which 11 are either  
inhabited, or habitable; and rank in the following  
order, according to their sizes, viz. LIPARI, (N° 2.)  
STROMBOLI, VOLCANO, SALINI, Felicudi, or Feni-  
cidi, Alicudi or Alicor, Panari, Vacheleusi, Liffa, Dut-

uer eyes.  
Beside m  
sh. iit.  
sta.  
... many places is a  
... nce from the sea, and  
... to the shore; which plain  
... by the sea, which bounded  
... is first ramparts, or as the  
... vessel. *Burnet*.—In wounds,  
the lips sink and are flaccid; a gleet followeth,  
and the flesh with in withers. *Wyseman*. 3. To make  
a lip. To hang the lip in fullness and contempt.  
A letter for me! It gives me an estate of seven  
years health; in which time I will make a lip at the  
physician. *Shak*.

... ble changes must sometimes take place,  
canello and Volcano were once separated, b  
lava and ashes having filled up the interv  
strait, they are now united into one island  
have thus become much more habitable. Th  
volcanic eruption in the Lipari islands, recon  
hi ory, is that which Callias mentions in h  
te. y of the wars in Sicily. Callias was co  
po ary with Agathocles. That eruption conti  
without interval for several days and nights  
threw out great stones, which fell above  
distant. The sea boiled all around the i  
1 ring the consulship of Æmilius Lepidus:  
2 relius Orestes, A. A. C. 126, these islands  
affected with a dreadful earthquake. The  
ing of Ætna was the first cause of it. A  
Lipari and the adjacent islands, the air was  
fire. Vegetables were burnt up; animals  
and fusible bodies, such as wax and resin, b  
liquid. If the inhabitants of Lipari, from  
Callias received those facts, and the writer  
have handed them down to us, have not  
gerated matters, the sea boiled around the i  
the earth became so hot as to burn the cab  
which vessels were fixed to the shore, and  
sumed the planks, the oars, and even the  
boats. Pliny (lib. ii. cap. 106.) speaks of  
milar event, which happened 30 or 40 ye  
terwards, in the time of the war of the  
states of Italy against Romo. One of the 2  
islands, says he, was on fire as well as th  
and that prodigy continued to appear, till  
nate appeased, by a deputation, the wrath  
gods. From the time of that war, which h  
ed A. A. C. 86. till A. D. 144, we have  
count of an eruption of these volcanoes  
from that period again, till 1444, we hear  
explosion from them for 1300 years. But,  
time, both Sicily and these isles were agita  
dreadful shocks of earthquakes; the Volca  
poured forth streams of flame and smoke  
rose to an amazing height. After that it di  
ed enormous stones which fell above 6 mil  
tant. In 1550, the ashes and stones discl  
from its crater filled up the strait betwe  
cano and Volcanello. In 1739, there was a  
ruption. The byrings of the volcanic fir

ended with a noise so dreadful, that it was  
 as far as Melazzo in Sicily. In 1779, the  
 island was shaken; subterraneous thunder  
 heard, and considerable streams of flame with  
 ice, stones, and vitreous lava, issued from the  
 cr. Lipari was covered over with ashes, and  
 t of these was conveyed by the winds all  
 way into Sicily. In April 1780, there issued  
 an explosion from Volcano; the smoke was  
 the flocks constant, and the subterraneous  
 is very frequent. In 1783, the isles of Lipari  
 is agitated anew by that fatal earthquake which  
 aged Calabria, and part of Sicily, on the 5th  
 February. (See EARTHQUAKE, § 16.) These  
 isles lie N. of Sicily, between Lon. 14. 1. and 15.  
 E. and between Lat. 38. 20. and 38. 40. N.

LIPARI, the largest, and most populous of  
 the above islands, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) and which gives name  
 to the whole cluster. It is about 15 miles in cir-  
 cumference, and abounds in corn, figs, and grapes;  
 as well as in bitumen, sulphur, alum, and mineral  
 salts. In this island oxen of a remarkably beau-  
 tiful species are employed in plowing the ground.  
 The ancient plough is still used. The mode of a-  
 griculture is very expeditious. One man traces a  
 furrow, and another follows to sow in it grain and  
 &c. The ploughman, in cutting the next fur-  
 row, covers up that in which the seed has been  
 sown; and thus the field is both plowed and sown  
 in one day. Vegetation is here more luxuriant, and  
 the soil more gay and healthful, than almost any  
 other. Near the city of Lipari, the travel-  
 lers deep narrow roads, of a very singular  
 appearance. The whole island is an assemblage  
 of mountains, consisting of ashes or lava discharg-  
 ed from the depths of the volcano by which it  
 was first produced. The particles of this puz-  
 zled, or ashes, are not very hard; the action of  
 rain water has accordingly cut out trenches  
 along the mountains; and these trenches, being  
 the surface less uneven than the rest of the surface,  
 of consequence been used as roads by the  
 inhabitants, and have been rendered much deeper  
 by being worn so many ages. These roads are  
 more than 5 or 6 fathoms deep, and not more than  
 3 feet wide. They are crooked, and have fe-  
 deral arches. They appear like narrow streets with-  
 out doors or windows. Their depth and windings  
 protect the traveller from the sun, while passing  
 through them; and he finds them deliciously cool.  
 The baths of St Calogero, in this island, are  
 situated where sulphureous exhalations, known to  
 be of a salutary nature, ascend out of the earth by  
 several spiracles. A range of apartments are  
 built around the place where the exhalations arise.  
 The heat is communicated through those apart-  
 ments in such a way, that when entering at one  
 end you advance towards the other, the heat  
 increases till you gain the middle apartment,  
 and then diminishes in the same manner as you  
 proceed from the middle to the other end of the  
 several chambers. In consequence of this dis-  
 position of these apartments, the sick person can  
 choose of that temperature which best suits  
 him. There are a few huts and a small  
 inn for the accommodation of the patients.  
 Physicians are ready to attend them. Physi-  
 cians attend when the disease is such as to render

their attendance requisite, and the patient rich  
 enough to afford handsome fees; as there is no  
 physician settled in the place. Besides these, dry  
 baths, there are baths of hot water, called St Calo-  
 gero's baths. There are around them buildings  
 sufficient to lodge a considerable number of sick  
 people with their attendants. The baths consist  
 of two halls; one square, the other round. The  
 former has been built by the Romans; it is arch-  
 ed with a cupola, and 12 feet in diameter; it has  
 been repaired: The other is likewise arched with  
 a cupola within and without. The water comes  
 very hot into the first. It gushes up from among  
 pieces of lava, which compose a part of the moun-  
 tain at the foot of which these baths are built.  
 The sick persons either sit down on the lava or  
 immerse themselves in the intervening cavities  
 which are filled with water. They approach  
 nearer to, or remain at a farther distance from,  
 the spring, according as their physician directs.  
 The place serves also as a stove. The hot vapours  
 arising from the water communicate to the sur-  
 rounding atmosphere a considerable degree of  
 heat. It is not inferior to that of the hot baths  
 of TERMINI. In these baths, therefore, a person  
 can have the benefit of either bathing in the hot  
 water, or exposing himself to the vapour, the heat  
 of which is more moderate. The *Dry bath*, be-  
 fore mentioned, is also a stove; but the hot vapour  
 with which it is filled issues directly from the vol-  
 cano. The place of the bath is, however, at such  
 a distance from the volcanic focus, that the heat  
 is tolerable. The mountain at the foot of which  
 these baths are situated is round, and terminates  
 at the summit in a rock of petrified ashes, which  
 are very hard and of a very fine grain. This pe-  
 trification consists of pretty regular strata, and ap-  
 pears to have been greatly prior in its origin to  
 the adjacent rocks; which consist likewise of ash-  
 es, but which have been deposited at a much later  
 period. From this rock proceeds likewise a stream  
 of hot water, by which some mills in the neigh-  
 bourhood are driven. It appears surprising, that  
 springs affording so great a quantity of water  
 should be placed nearly on the summit of a volca-  
 nic mountain. To account for this phenomenon  
 would be worthy of some ingenious naturalist.  
 On the same hill, about a mile distant, there is a  
 spring of cold water, which rises from the summit  
 of the same rock; that on the NW. produces 3  
 hot springs. The cold water is very pleasant, and  
 much used both by men and cattle. Among  
 these mountains there are many enormous loose  
 masses of lava. M. Houel informs us, that the lava  
 of the volcano of Lipari is of a much greater  
 diversity of colours, richer and more lively, than  
 that of Vesuvius and Etna. It is in some places,  
 for several miles, of a beautiful red colour, and  
 contains in great abundance small black crys-  
 tallized scoriæ, as well as the small white grains com-  
 monly found in lava. Among the eminences  
 which overlook the city of Lipari, there are some  
 rocks of a species which is very rare in Europe.  
 These are large masses of vitrified matter, which  
 rise 6 or 8 feet above the surface of the ground,  
 and extend to a great depth under it. They ex-  
 ist, through that range of mountains, in enormous  
 masses, mixed with lavas of every different colour,  
 and

attached and insulated. The confit might be employed in manufactures. It is readily be easily purified. It is transparent. Agriculture is of the inhabitants. A few are of great importance. More land are planted with vines: they are dried, and sent mostly to the island of PASSOLA. There are three sorts of raisins: one kind called the *black* is from a particular kind of grapes; berries are uncommonly and exported to Marseilles, Holland, and Trieste. The vines are in small arbours, which rise only to 2½ feet above the ground. Under those arbours grow beans, gourds, and other leguminous plants. In so hot a climate, the shade of the vines does not injure but protect the vegetables growing under it; otherwise they would be withered. The method of drying *passola* and *passolina* is curious: they first make a lixivium of common ashes; after boiling this, they pass it through a cloth or a sieve; they then put it again on the fire; and when it is observed to boil hard, suddenly immerse the grapes, but instantly bring them out again, and expose them to the sun to dry on broad frames of cane. When sufficiently dry, the raisins are put into casks and barrels to be sold and exported. The number of casks of different sorts of raisins annually exported from Lipari are estimated at 10,000. Some white malmsey and red wine are also exported. About 80 or 100 years ago, sulphur was a great article of commerce: but that trade has been given up; from an idea which the Liparise entertain, that sulphur infects the air so as to injure the fertility of the vines. The same prejudice prevails in Sicily; but seems to be ill-founded. There are courts of justice in Lipari, of the same powers and character with those in Sicily. Causes of more than ordinary importance are carried to Palermo. This island is free from every kind of imposition. The king receives nothing from it; because Count Roger anciently bestowed on its bishop all his rights of royalty over Lipari. The bishop there received annually from the inhabitants a 10th part of the product of their lands. They afterwards, to prevent fraud, estimated the value of that tithe for one year; and on condition of their paying annually a sum of money equal to what that year's tithe was valued at, he not only gave up his right to the tithe, but ceded to them a considerable extent of land.

(3.) LIPARI, an ancient and very strong city, capital of the above island, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) with a bishop's see. It was ruined by Barbarossa in 1544, who carried away all the inhabitants into slavery, and demolished the place; but it was rebuilt by Charles V. The castle stands on a rock on the E. quarter of the island. The way to it from the city leads up a gentle declivity. There are several roads to it. It makes a part of the city; and on the summit of the rock is the citadel, in which the governor and the garrison reside. The cathedral stands in the same situation. Here the ancients had built the temple of a tutelary god. Their citadel commands the whole city; and it is accessible only at

one place. Were an hostile force to be sent on the island, the inhabitants would treat sithier, and be secure against all but the ancient inhabitants had also for place. Considerable portions of the ancient are still standing in different places, particularly towards the S. Their structure is Grecian; the stones are exceedingly large, and very heavy. The layers are 3 feet high, which show they have been raised in some very remote times. These recesses are surrounded with modern walls. The remains of walls are still to be seen here, which have belonged to temples and to all the sorts of buildings which the ancients used. The vaults, which are in a better state of preservation than any of the other parts of the island, are now converted into a prison. In this city there are convents of monks of two orders; but there are no convents or cloisters, which women are confined. Those who wish to live in a state of piety are at liberty to engage in a monastic life, without the concurrence of their confessors; they put on the sacred habit, and vow perpetual virginity, but continue to live with their mothers, and mix in society like other people. The vow and the habit even enlarge the sphere of their activity. This, says M. Houel, was the way in which the virgins of the primitive church lived. The practice of shutting them up together did not begin till the 5th century. The life of these religious is less gloomy, than that which those who take the same vows lead in other countries. Their clothes of particular colours, according to the order they belong to this or that order. They do not have them a right to frequent the church more than an hour; and the voice of slander affirms, that young ladies assume the habit with no other view, but that they may enjoy greater freedom. The archiepiscopal palace, and in that of the Count de Monizzio, there are some noble paintings by Sicilian painters.—A St Paul disputing with the adulterous woman, the incredulity of the Jews, &c. Lon. 15. 30. E. Lat. 38. 35.

LIPARINA, a town of Croatia.

LIPEZAN, a town of Turkey, in Asia.

\* LIPLABOUR, *n. s.* [*lip* and *labour*]. A mode of fasting of the lips without concurrence of the words without sentiments.—Fasting, when the words are not directed to its own purposes, is called *lip labour*. *Taylor*.

LIPNO, a town of Poland, in Dobruza.

LIPPO, a town China, in Quang-si.

LIPORANO, a town of Naples in Calabria.

LIPOTHYMYA, FAINTING, may arise from several causes; as too violent exercise, flux of the menses, or other accustomed evacuations, &c. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

\* LIPOTHYMOUS, *adj.* [*λίπω* at *lip* and *θυμός* at *thymos*]. Swooning; fainting.—If the patient be affected with a *lipothymous* languor, and great oppression about the stomach and hypochonders, relief from cordials. *Hartweg*.

\* LIPOTHYMY, *n. s.* [*λίποθυμία*]. Fainting fit.—The senators falling into a swoon, or deep swooning, made up this page with a representing of it unto life.

*thyms*, or swoonings, he used the friction of his finger with saffron and gold. *Brown*.  
 a town of Hungary, with a castle, seat-nountain, near the Maros. It was taken by the Turks in 1552; by the Imperialists in 1691; and by the Turks again in 1691; who pulled it in 1693, after having demolished the town. It is 75 m. NE. of Belgrade. Lon. 45. 51. N.

**LIPPE**, a county of Germany in Westphalia, W. of the bishopric of Paderborn. It is fertile but not very. The chief towns are Lemgo, and Lemgow; the chief rivers are the Lippe, Emmer, and Werra.

**LIPPE**, or **LIPSTADT**, the capital of the county, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) seated on the river (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) is the residence of the chief branch of the family of Lippe. It now belongs to the king of Prussia, and carries on a good trade in timber and shipping vessels on the Rhine. Lon. 8. 30. E. 53. N.

**LIPPE**, a river in the above county, which flows into the Rhine, below Paderborn, and into the Wesel.

**LIPPE**, a fort of Portugal, near Elvas.

**LIPPE**, *adj.* [from *lip*.] Having lips.

**RODE**, a town of Germany in the county of Lippe, 2 miles ENE. of Lipstadt.

Lorenzo, or Laurence, a painter of historical portraits, was born in 1606, and learned the principles of painting from Matthew Roselli, an exquisite genius for music and poetry, as for painting; and in the latter, his genius was so great, that some of his compositions of the historical style were taken for those of Titian.

He afterwards adopted the manner of Raphael, who was excellent both in design and truth in his compositions than any other of that time. At Florence Lippi painted grand designs for the chapels and churches, which he enlarged his reputation; and at Vienna, he painted a great number of portraits of the first nobility, which were much admired. Although he imitated simple and without any embellishments, his works are held in the highest esteem for the graceful airs of the figures, for the correctness of his outline, and the elegant disposition of the figures. He died in 1655.

**LIPTITUDE**, *n. f.* [*lippitude*, Fr. *lippitudo*.] Redness of eyes.—Diseases that are attended with this, such as are in the spirits and not so much in the humours, and therefore pass easily from one to the other; such are pestilences and fevers. *Bacon*.

**LIPRING**, a town of Germany in Paderborn, the source of the Lippe, 4 miles N. of Lipstadt.

**LIPSTADT**. See **LIPPE**, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

**LIZZO**, a town of Naples, in the province of Terra di Lavoro; 17 miles WSW. of Manfredonia.

**L. JUSTUS**, a learned critic, born at Nish, near Brussels, in 1547. After having distinguished himself in literature, he became cardinal de Granvella at Rome, where he died in 1600.

III. PART I.

the best libraries were open to him; and he translated the MSS. of ancient authors. He lived 28 years at Leyden; during which he composed and published what he esteemed his best works; but settled at Louvain, where he taught polite literature with great reputation. He was remarkable for unsteadiness in religion, fluctuating often between the Protestants and Papists; but he became finally a bigoted catholic. He died at Louvain in 1606; and his works are collected in 6 vols. folio.

**LIPSO**, an island in the Grecian Archipelago, 6 miles SSE. of Patmos.

**LIPSTADT**. See **LIPPE**, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

**LIPUDA**, a river of Naples, in Calabria.

\* **LIPWISDOM**, *n. f.* [*lip* and *wisdom*.] Wisdom in talk without practice.—I find that all is but *lipwisdom*, which wants experience. *Sidney*.

\* **LIQUABLE**, *adj.* [from *liquo*, Latin.] Such as may be melted.

\* **To LIQUATE**, *v. n.* [*liquo*, Latin.] To melt; to liquefy.—If the salts be not drawn forth before the clay is baked, they are apt to *liquate*. *Woodward*.

\* **LIQUATION**, *n. f.* [from *liquo*, Latin.] 1. The act of melting. 2. Capacity to be melted.—The common opinion hath been, that chrysolite is nothing but ice and snow congealed, and, by duration of time, congealed beyond *liquation*. *Brown*.

**LIQUE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais and ci-devant prov. of Artois, 12 m. W. of St Omer. Lon. 2. 0. E. Lat. 50. 45. N.

(1.) \* **LIQUEFACTION**, *n. f.* [*liquefactio*, Lat. *liquefaction*, Fr.] The act of melting; the state of being melted.—Heat dissolveth and melteth bodies that keep in their spirits, as in divers *liquefactions*; and so doth time in honey, which by age waxeth more liquid. *Bacon*.—The burning of the earth will be a true *liquefaction* or dissolution of it, as to the exterior region. *Burnet*.

(2.) **LIQUEFACTION** is an operation by which a solid body is reduced into a liquid; or the action of fire or heat on fat and other fusible bodies, which puts their parts into a mutual intestine motion.—The liquefaction of wax, &c. is performed by a moderate heat; that of sal tartari, by the mere moisture of the air. All salts liquify; sand, mixed with alkalis, becomes liquified by a reverberatory fire, in the making of glass. In speaking of metals, instead of liquefaction, we ordinarily use the word *fusion*.

\* **LIQUEFIABLE**, *adj.* [from *liquefy*.] Such as may be melted.—There are three causes of fixation, the ever spreading of the spirits and tangible parts, the closeness of the tangible parts, and the jejuneness or extreme comminution of spirits; the two first may be joined with a nature *liquefiable*; the last not. *Bacon*.

(1.) \* **To LIQUEFY**, *v. a.* [*liquefacio*, French; *liquefacio*, Latin.] To melt; to dissolve.—That degree of heat which is in lime and ashes, being a smothering heat, is the most proper, for it doth neither *liquefy* nor rarely; and that is true maturation. *Bacon*.

(2.) \* **To LIQUEFY**, *v. n.* To grow liquid.—The blood of St Januarius *liquefyed* at the approach of the saint's head. *Addison*.

LIQUENTIA, in ancient geography, a river of Gallia Cisalpina, running into the Adriatic; now called LIVENZA. *Plin. lib. iii. c. 17.*

\* LIQUESCENCY. *n. f.* [*liquefcentia*, Latin.] Aptness to melt.

\* LIQUESCENT. *adj.* [*liquefcentis*, Latin.] Melting.

(1.) \* LIQUID. *adj.* [*liquide*, Fr. *liquidus*, Lat.]  
1. Not solid; not forming one continuous substance; fluid.—

Gently rolls the liquid glass. *Dr Daniel.*  
2. Soft; clear.—

Her breast, the sug'rd nest  
Of her delicious soul, that there does lie,  
Bathing in streams of liquid melody. *Crawshaw.*

3. Pronounced without any jar or harshness.—  
The many liquid consonants give a pleasing sound to the words, though they are all of one syllable. *Dryden.*

Let Carolina smooth the tuneful lay,  
Lull with Amelia's liquid name the nine,  
And sweetly flow through all the royal line. *Pope.*

4. Dissolved, so as not to be obtainable by law.—If a creditor should appeal to hinder the burial of his debtor's corpse, his appeal ought not to be received, since the business of burial requires a quick dispatch, though the debt be entirely liquid. *Ayliffe.*

(2.) \* LIQUID. *n. f.* Liquid substance; liquor.—  
Be it thy choice, when summer heats annoy,  
To sit beneath her leafy canopy,  
Quaffing rich liquors. *Phillips.*

(3.) A LIQUID (§ 2.) is a body which has the property of fluidity, besides a peculiar quality of wetting other bodies immersed in it, arising from some configuration of its particles, which disposes them to adhere to the surfaces of bodies contiguous to them. See FLUID.

(4.) LIQUIDS, among grammarians, (§ 1. def. 3.) are the 5 consonants, *l, m, n, r, and f*; called also, *semi-vowels*, while all the other consonants are MUTES. They are called *liquids* from their sounding soft and as it were melting in the mouth. Some grammarians enumerate no fewer than 13 liquids. See ALPHABETS, § 3.

LIQUIDAMBAR, SWEET GUM TREE, in botany; a genus of the polyandria order, belonging to the monœcia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking with those of which the order is doubtful. The male calyx is common, and triphyllous; there is no corolla, but numerous filaments; the female calyxes are collected into a spherical form, and tetraphyllous; there is no corolla, but 7 styles; and many bivalved and monospermous capsules collected into a sphere. There are only two species, both deciduous, viz.

1. LIQUIDAMBAR PEREGRINUM, *Canada liquidambar*, or *spicewood-leaved gale*, is a native of Canada and Pennsylvania. The young branches are slender, tough, and hardy. The leaves are oblong, of a deep green colour, hairy underneath, and have indentures on their edges alternately very deep. The flowers come out from the sides of the branches, and they are succeeded by small roundish fruit, which seldom ripens in England.

2. LIQUIDAMBAR STYRACIFLUA, the *Virginia* or *maple-leaved liquidambar*; a native of the rich

moist parts of Virginia and Mexico. It shoots in a regular manner to 30 or 40 feet high, having its young twigs covered with a smooth, light-brown bark, while those of the older are of a darker colour. The leaves are of a lucid green, and grow irregularly on the young branches, on long foot-stalks: They resemble those of the common maple in figure; the lobes are all serrated; and from the base of the leaf a strong mid-rib runs to the extremity of each lobe that belongs to it. The flowers are of a kind of saffron colour: They are produced at the ends of the branches in the beginning of April, sometimes sooner; and are succeeded by large round brown fruit, which looks singular. Both species may be propagated either by seeds or layers; but the first method is the best. 1. The seeds arrive from America in spring. A fine bed, in a warm well sheltered place, should be prepared. If the soil be sandy, it should be wholly taken out near a foot deep, and the vacancy filled up with earth taken up a year before from a fresh pasture with the sward, as well rotted and mixed by being often turned, and afterwards mixed with a sixth part of drift or sea-sand. In a dry day early in March, let the seeds be sown, and the finest of this compost riddled over them a quarter of an inch deep. When the hot weather in spring comes on, the beds should be shaded, and watered often, but in very small quantities, only a very small sprinkling, at a time. Millar says, the seeds of these plants never come up under two years. But, Hanbury says with this easy management, he hardly ever knew longer than the end of May before the young plants made their appearance. The plants being come up, shading should still be afforded them a summer, and a watering every other night; which will promote their growth, and render them stronger by the autumn. In autumn, the bed should be hooped to be covered with mats in the severe frosts. These mats, however, should always be taken off in open weather. This is the management they require during the first winter. The succeeding summer they only require weeding; though, if it should prove a dry one they will need a little water now and then. In autumn they will be strong enough to resist the cold of the following winter, without the trouble of matting, if the situation is well sheltered; not, it will be proper to have the hoops prepared and the mats ready, against the northern frost which would endanger at least their losing the tops. After this, weeding only will be wanted; and in the spring following, that is, three years from their first appearance, they should be taken up and planted in the nursery a foot asunder, at two feet distant in the rows. Hoeing the weeds in the rows in summer, and digging them in the winter, is all the trouble they will afterwards require until they are finally planted out. 2. The are easily increased by layers. The operation must be performed in autumn, on the young summer's shoots; and the best way is by sitting them at a joint, as is practised for carnations. In a strong dry soil, they will be often two years more before they take root; though, in a soft light soil, they will be found to take freely enough.—The leaves emit their odoriferous particles

as to perfume the circumambient air; sole tree exudes such a fragrant transpiration, as to have given occasion to its being for the sweet storax. (See STYRAX.) They, therefore, are very proper to be planted in large opens, that they may amply their fine pyramidal growth, or to be planted near seats, pavilions, &c. They are particularly of great use as a perfume.

QUIDATE. *v. a.* [from *liquid.*] To loosen; to lessen debts.

DILITY. *n. f.* [from *liquid.*] Subtlety; the spirits, for their *liquidity*, are more than the fluid medium, which is the vehicle of sounds, to persevere in the continued vibration of vocal airs. *Glanv.*

DNESNESS. *n. f.* [from *liquid.*] Quality of being fluent; fluency.—Oil of anniseeds, in a cooled state, is condensed into the consistence of white butter, with the least heat, resumed its former *liquor*.

LIQUOR. *n. f.* [*liquor*, Lat. *liqueur*, Fr.] A liquid: it is commonly used of fluids or impregnated with something, or in solution.—

Nor envied them the grape  
Which that turbulent liquor fills with  
its

into the soul, is like a liquor pour'd  
; so much of it as it fills, it also seasons.  
Strong drink; in familiar language.

LIQUOR. The principal beverage amongst  
the Greeks and Romans, in  
antiquity, was water, milk, and the juices  
of plants infused therein. For a long time,  
the commonwealth of Rome, wine was so  
valued in their sacrifices to the gods the  
libation made with milk only. Wine did not  
become common there till A. U. C. 600, when  
it was first to be planted.

LIQUOR OF FLINTS. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.*  
LIQUOR OF HOFFMAN, MINERAL ANO-  
LIS is a composition of highly rectified  
alcohol, vitriolic ether, and a little of the  
oil of vitriol. It is made by mixing an  
equal spirit of wine, which rises first in the  
distillation of ether, with as much of the liquor  
as will be distilled, and afterwards by dissolving  
the mixture which rises next, and which  
contains ether, 12 drops of the oil which rises  
last is passed. This has the same virtue  
as ether, and is now generally disused,  
ether being substituted in its place.

LIQUOR OF LIBAVIUS, SMOKING. See  
INDEX.

LIQUOR. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To drench  
—Cart wheels squeak not when they are  
well oiled.

LICE. See GLYCYRRHIZA.  
LE-VECH. See ASTRAGALUS, and

river of the Helvetic and Italian republics  
rises in the former, and runs into the  
Ligurian sea, in the latter.

LIQUOR. town of the French republic, in the  
department of Two Nethes, and late prov. of Austra-  
li-Nethes; 9 miles N. of Mechlin, and 12 SE.  
of London. Lon. 4. 16. E. Lat. 31. 9. N.

(1.) \* LIRICONFANCY. *n. f.* A flower.

(2.) LIRICONFANCY is a name given the *Lily of the Valley*. See CONVALLARIA.

LIRINUS. See LERINA.

LIRIODENDRON, the TULIP-TREE, in botany; a genus of the polygynia order, belonging to the polyandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 52d order, *Condu-nate*. The calyx is triphyllous; there are nine petals; and the seeds imbricated in such a manner as to form a cone.—There is but one species, viz.

LIRIODENDRON TULIPIFERA, a deciduous tree, native of most part of America. It rises with a large upright trunk, branching 40 or 50 feet high. The trunk, which often attains to a circumference of 30 feet, is covered with a grey bark. The branches, which are not very numerous, of the two-years-old wood, are smooth and brown; while the bark of the summer's shoots is smoother and shining, and of a bluish colour. They are very pithy. Their young wood is green, and when broken emits a strong scent. The leaves grow irregularly on the branches, on long footstalks. They are of a particular structure, being composed of 3 lobes, the middlemost of which is shortened in such a manner that it appears as if it had been cut off and hollowed at the middle: The other two are rounded off. They are about 4 or 5 inches long, and as many broad. They are of two colours; their upper surface is smooth, and of a stronger green than the lower. They fall off pretty early in autumn; and the buds for the next year's shoots soon after begin to swell and become dilated, inasmuch that, by the end of December, those at the ends of the branches will become near an inch long and half an inch broad. The outward laminae of these leaf-buds are of an oval figure have several longitudinal veins, and are of a bluish colour. The flowers are produced with us in July, at the ends of the branches: They somewhat resemble the tulip, which occasions its being called the TULIP TREE. The number of petals of which each is composed, like those of the tulip, is six; and these are spotted with green, red, white and yellow, thereby making a beautiful mixture. The flowers are succeeded by large cones, which never ripen in England. The propagation is very easy, if the seeds are good; for by these, which we receive from abroad, they are to be propagated. No particular compost need be sought for; neither is the trouble of pots, boxes, hot-beds, &c. required. They grow exceedingly well in beds of common garden mould, and the plants will be hardier and better than those raised with more care. Therefore, as soon as the seeds arrive, which is generally in February, and a few dry days have happened, so that the mould will work freely, sow the seeds, covering them three quarters of an inch deep; and observe to lay them lengthwise, otherwise, by being very long, one part, perhaps that of the embryo plant, may be out of the ground soon, and the seed be lost. This being done, let the beds be hooped; and as soon as the hot weather and drying winds come on in spring, let them be covered from 10 A. M. till sun-set. If little rain happens, they must be duly watered every other day; and by the end of May the plants will come up. Shade and watering in

the hottest summer must be afforded them, and they will afterwards give very little trouble. The next winter they will want no other care than, at the approach of it, sticking some furze-bushes round the bed, to break the keen edge of the black frosts, for it is found that the seedlings of this sort are very hardy, and seldom suffer by any weather. After they have been two years in the seed-bed, they should be taken up and planted in the nursery, a foot asunder, and two feet distant in the rows. After this, the usual nursery care of hoeing the weeds, and digging between the rows in the winter, will suffice till they are taken up for planting out. The tulip tree, in those parts of America where it grows common, affords excellent timber for many uses; particularly, the trunk is frequently hollowed, and made into a canoe sufficient to carry many people; and for this purpose no tree is thought more proper by the inhabitants of those parts. It may be stationed among trees of 40 feet growth.

LIRIS, in ancient geography, a river of Italy in Campania, which it separated from Latium, and falling into the Mediterranean; now called GARIGLIANO.

(1.) LIRON, John, a learned Benedictine, who published two curious works: 1. *Bibliothèque des Auteurs Chartrains*; 2. *Les Aménités de la Critique*. He died in 1749.

(2.) LIRON, a river of France, which runs into Orb, at Beziers.

LIRY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Ardennes; 6 miles S. of Vouziers.

(1.) LIS, or LYS, JOHN VANDER, painter of history, landscapes, and conversations, born at Oldenburgh in 1570. He went to Haerlem to study under Hen. Goltzius, and as he was endowed with great natural talents, he soon distinguished himself in that school, and imitated the manner of his master with great success. He adhered to the same style till he went to Italy; where, having visited Venice and Rome, he studied the works of Titian, Tintoretto, Paul Veronese, and Dominic Fetti, so effectually, that he improved his taste, and altered his manner entirely. He soon received marks of public approbation; and his compositions became universally admired. His subjects usually were sacred histories, or rural sports, marriages, balls, and villagers dancing, dressed in Venetian habits; all which he painted in a small as well as a large size, with a number of figures, well designed, and touched with a great deal of delicacy. A capital picture of his is, Adam and Eve lamenting the death of Abel; which is extremely admired, both for the expression, and the beauty of the landscape. His paintings are very rare. He died in 1629.

(2.) LIS, JOHN VANDER, of Breda, a historical painter, born at Breda about 1601. He became a disciple of Cornelius Polenburg, whose manner he imitated with extraordinary exactness, in the tints of his colouring, his neatness of pencilling, and the choice of his subjects. His most capital performance in England, is said to be in the possession of Viscount Middleton. His portrait, painted by himself, in the possession of Horace Walpole, Esq; is described as being worked up equal to the smoothness of enamel.

(3.) LIS, a river of France. See LYON.

(4, 5.) LIS, a river and lake of Russia.

LISANE, a town of Ireland, in Down.

LISARA, a town of Turkey, in All.

LISBELLAW, a town of Ireland, in

ty of Fermanagh and province of Ulster.

LISBERG, a town of Hesse, 3 m. S.

(1.) LISBON, the capital of Portugal

ted in the province of Estremadura, on

of the Tagus. It was anciently called

*Lisippo*, and *Ulyssipo*, from ULYSSES, who

to have founded it; (*Plin.* and *Solinus*)

derive these names from the Phœnicia

or *Oliisippo*, signifying in that tongue

bay, such as that on which this city

first became considerable in the reign of

manuel; since whose reign it hath been

tal of the kingdom, the residence of its

the seat of the chief tribunals, and of

metropolitan, the university, and the

of the richest merchandize of the East

Indies. Its air is excellent; being re-

delightful breezes, from the sea and

The city extends two miles along the

its breadth is inconsiderable. Like any

it stands on seven hills; but the streets

are narrow and dirty, and some of

steep; and they are not lighted at

churches, in general, are very fine; but

nificance of the chapel royal is amazing

has one of the finest harbours in the

there were a great number not only

churches and convents here, but also of

lic buildings, and particularly of royal

and others belonging to the grandest

greatest part of them, and of the

destroyed by a most dreadful earth

Nov. 1, 1755, from which it will

long time to recover. See EARTH

7. The number of inhabitants before

quake, was about 150,000. The gov-

lodge in a president, six counsellors,

inferior officers. The harbour has de-

largest ships, and room for 10,000 sail-

ing crowded. There is a fort at the

the river, on each side, and a bar that

it, which is very dangerous to pass with

Higher up, at a place where the river

ably contracted, there is a fort called

of Belem, under whose guns all ships

their way to the city; and on the other

several other forts. Before the earthquake

of the private houses were old and un-

lattice windows; and the number of

and colleges amounted to 50, namely

monks and 18 for nuns. The king's

pal palace stands on the river, airy

and commodious. The *Great Hospital*

ed on principles uncommonly libera-

ceives all persons, of what degree, na-

tion soever, without exception. At

of Belem, near Lisbon, is a noble hos-

pital, where the aged gentlemen who have served the

have not wherewithal to maintain

The *house of mercy* is also a noble

the centre of the city, upon one of the

is the castle, which commands the w-

large and ancient, and having always



ments of foot. The cathedral is a vast Gothic kind; it contains great riches finely adorned within. The square is large, and surrounded with magnificent buildings. The whole city is under the equal jurisdiction of the patriarch, who was elected in 1717. Here is also an archbishop, who at least had, before the erection of the papacy, a revenue of 40,000 crusadoes, or scudi. The university, which was removed for some time to Coimbra, but afterwards restored to its original seat, makes a considerable figure, inferior to that of Coimbra. Lisbon is 10 miles from the mouth of the Tago, 178 W. by N. E. and 255 S. by W. of Madrid. Lon. 9. 42. N. Lat. 38. 42. N.

**LISBON**, a town of Pennsylvania, in York county, on a creek of the Susquehanna, 18 miles from Philadelphia.

**LISLE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Eure, at the source of the Lys, 10 miles W. of Aire.

**LISLURN**, a town of Ireland, in Antrim, 73 miles from Dublin. It was burnt down about 1700, but is now rebuilt in a handsome manner, and has a large linen manufactory. It has fairs on the 1st of Oct. 5; and is seated on the Laggan. Lon. 10. 15. W. Lat. 54. 41. N.

**LISYAN**, and **LISYANIAN**, } two of the small LIPARIAN ISLANDS.

**LISANO**, a town of Naples, in Otranto.

**LISAK**, a river of Carinthia.

**LISLE**, ST., a town of France, in the dep. of the Eure, and late prov. of Coufrevans, seated on the Eure, 10 miles SE. of Auch, and 390 S. by W. of Paris. Lon. 1. 15. E. Lat. 42. 56. N.

**LISLEUX**, a considerable town of France, in the dep. of Calvados, and late prov. of Upper Normandy.

The churches and public buildings are handsome. It is a trading place; and is seated at the confluence of the Arbeck and Gaffi. Lon. 10. 20. W. Lat. 49. 11. N.

**LISNANA**, a town of Ulster.

**LISKARD**. See **LESKARD**.

**LILLE**, or **LILLE**, a large, rich, handsome, and ancient town of France, in the dep. of the Nord, and ci-devant prov. of French Flanders, in which it was the capital. It is called *L'Isle*, i. e. the Island, because it was formerly insulated in a lake, which has been since drained. It has a citadel, and a citadel built by Vauban, said to be the finest in Europe, as well as the best fortified square in France. The large square, and the public buildings, are very handsome. The citizens manufacture silks, cambrics, camblots, and other stuffs, with great perfection. Lille has 170 streets, and 20,000 houses. The population, before the late war, was estimated at 56,000. Its castle was destroyed in 640. In 1007, the town was enlarged by Baldwin IV; and was walled by his son Baldwin V. In 1577, the castle was demolished by the citizens during the war with Philip II. of France.

In 1645, the French besieged it in vain; but in 1667, it was taken by Lewis XIV. In 1713, it was taken by the duke of Marlborough, after a three months siege and the loss of many thousand men; but restored in 1713, by the treaty of Utrecht, in consideration of the demolition of

the fortifications of Dunkirk. It was besieged, in 1792, by the Austrians under the D. of Saxe-Teschen, and bombarded. The siege commenced Sept. 19, but so brave a defence was made, that it was raised on the 8th Oct. during which time above 6,000 bombs and 30,000 red hot balls were thrown into the city, which was greatly damaged, and about 500 people were killed, chiefly women and children. Lille is seated on the river Deule, 14 miles W. of Tournay, 32 SW. of Ghent, 37 NW. of Mons, and 130 N. of Paris. Lon. 3. 9. W. Lat. 50. 38. N.

(2.) **LISLE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Dordogne, 9 miles NW. of Perigueux.

(3.) **LISLE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Yonne, 7½ m. NNE. of Avallon, and 24 SE. of Auxerre.

(4.) **LISLE**, Claudius DE, a learned historiographer, born at Vancouleurs, in 1644. He studied among the Jesuits at Pontamousson; took his degrees in law, and afterwards studied history and geography; and to perfect himself in those sciences went to Paris, where the D. of Orleans, afterwards regent, and the principal lords of the court became his scholars. He wrote, 1. An historical account of the kingdom of Siam. 2. A genealogical and historical Atlas. 3. An abridgement of universal history. He died at Paris in 1720.

(5.) **LISLE**, William DE, son of the above, and the most learned geographer France has produced, was born at Paris in 1675. He became first geographer to the king, royal censor, and member of the academy of sciences. He died in 1726. He published a great number of excellent maps, and wrote many pieces in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences.

(6.) **LISLE**, Sir John, a brave loyalist in the time of the civil wars, was the son of a bookseller in London, and was educated in the Netherlands. He signalized himself upon many occasions, particularly in the last battle of Newbury; where, in the dusk of the evening, he led his men to the charge in his shirt, that his person might be more conspicuous. The king, who was an eye-witness of his bravery, knighted him in the field of battle. In 1648, he was one of the royalists who so obstinately defended Colchester, and who suffered for the defence of it. He was executed Aug. 28, 1648.

(7.) **LISLE**, Joseph Nicholas DE, a celebrated French astronomer, born at Paris in 1688. He was the intimate friend of Newton and Halley, and was a member of most of the learned academies in Europe. In 1726, he was invited to Russia, and remained there till 1747. His principal work is his *Memoirs of the History of Astronomy*. Unlike many modern French philosophers, he joined unaffected piety to the love of science. He died in 1768.

**LISLENA**, a town of Sweden, in Upland.

(1.) **LISMORE**, a borough and market town of Ireland, in Waterford, anciently called *Liffmore* or *Lias-mor*, Gael. i. e. the great inclosure, or large gardens. It formerly had an university. St Carthagh or Mochuda, in the beginning of the 7th century founded an abbey and school in it, which were much resorted to by the Britons and Saxons, as well as by the natives, during the middle ages. The site of Lismore was in early ages denominated

minated *Magbiskia*, or *the chafen field*, being the situation of a dun or fort, of the ancient chieftains of the Decies, one of whom granted it to St Carthagh on his expulsion from the abbey of Ratheny in W. Meath. Afterwards it obtained the name of *Dunsginne*, or *the fort of the Saxons*, from the number of Saxons which resorted to its university. The bishopric was united to that of Waterford in 1363, 730 years after its foundation. St Carthagh, who retired to this place with some of his religious in 636, to avoid the fury of the then Irish monarch, tied his disciples to a most strict rule of life; they never were allowed the use of flesh, fish, or fowl, but only vegetables. The castle was built by K. John, in 1195, on the ruins of the abbey of St Carthagh; it belonged to the D. of Devonshire, and gave birth to the great philosopher Robert Boyle. (See *BOYLE*, N<sup>o</sup> 5.) In 1189, it was demolished by the Irish, who took it by surprise. Being afterwards rebuilt, it was for many years an episcopal residence, till Myler Magrath, Abp. of Cathel, and Bp. of this see, granted the manor of Lismore to Sir Walter Raleigh, in the reign of Q. Elizabeth, at the yearly rent of 13l. 6s. 8d. After his murder, in the reign of James I. it fell into the hands of Sir Richard Boyle, who purchased all Sir Walter's lands; he added many buildings to it, most of which were burned down in the Irish rebellion; when it was besieged by 5000 Irish under Sir R. Beling, and defended by Lord Broghill, who obliged them to raise the siege. The castle is seated on the verge of a rocky hill, rising almost perpendicularly to a considerable height over the Black-water. The entrance is by an avenue of trees. Over the gate are the arms of the E. of Cork. Opposite to it is a modern portico of the Doric order, by Inigo Jones. Most of the buildings have remained in ruins since the rebellion in the 17th century; but the cathedral and offices that make up two sides of the square are kept in repair. At each angle is a tower, the chief relic of its former magnificence. In Oct. 1785, the late duke of Rutland, then lord lieutenant, issued proclamations from this castle. Here is a fine bridge over the BLACKWATER, erected by the D. of Devonshire, remarkable for its principal arch, which is 102 feet wide. Below the town is a rich fishery for salmon, which is the greatest branch of trade here. It has fairs on the 25th May and Sept. and 12 Nov. Lismore lies 6 miles NE. of Cork, 31 WSW. of Waterford, and 100 from Dublin. Lon. 7. 50. W. Lat. 52. 5. N.

(2.) LISMORE, one of the Hebrides, or Western Islands of Scotland, seated at the mouth of Loch-Linnhe, or a capacious lake in Argyleshire, navigable for the largest ships to Fort William. This island is 10 miles long, and from one to two miles broad. It abounds in limestone; from which, however, it derived little advantage, owing to the want of fuel, before the repeal of the duty on coals carried coastwise. Its population 1791, was 1121. It was anciently the residence of the bishops of Argyle, and gives name to the extensive parish in which it lies. (See N<sup>o</sup> 3.) It formerly abounded with deer, and elks horns of a large size have been discovered in it. It was frequented by FINGAL and his heroes, of whom relics are still pointed out.

(3.) LISMORE, a parish of Scotland, in Argyleshire, to which that of Appin is united. See APPIN. These united parishes comprehend the districts of LISMORE, *Airds*, APPIN, DURROZ, *Glencreren*, GLENCO, and *Kingerloch*; are watered by the rivers *Creren*, *CONA*, *Coinich*, *Durroz*, *BALICHELISH*, *Laroch*, and *LEYEN*; and intersected by considerable arms of the Atlantic. The chief crops are oats, barley, and potatoes. The lakes abound with marl from 10 to 16 feet deep; and the rocks with lime-stone. The population of both parishes, in 1791, was 3526; increase 714 since 1755. There are 4 churches, viz. at Lismore, Appin, Glenco, and Kingerloch.

LISNACON, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

LISNASKEA, a town of Ireland, in Fermanagh, 70 miles from Dublin. Lon. 7. 40. W. Lat. 54. 14. N.

\* LISNE. *n. f.* A cavity; a hollow.—In the *lisne* of a rock at Kingscote in Gloucestershire, I found a bushel of petrified cockles, each near as big as my fist. *Hale*.

LISNEGAR, a town of Ireland, in Cork.

LISNOVER, a town of Ireland, in Cavan.

LISOLA, Francis DE, a French writer born at Bezançon in 1639. He resided 4 years in London, as ambassador from the emperor Ferdinand III. and was afterwards envoy at Madrid. He wrote *Bouclier d'Etat et de Justice*; and died about 1670.

LISONZA, or } a river of Maritime Austria,  
LISONZO, } which rises in Carniola, near Gortz; passes by it, and Lucinissa, Gradisca, &c. and after joining the Natifone, falls into the Adriatic near Trieste.

\* LISP. *n. f.* [from the verb.] The act of lisping.—I overheard her answer, with a pretty *lisp*. O! Strepthon, you are a dangerous creature. *Tail*.

\* To LISP. *v. a.* [*tlisp*, Saxon.] To speak with too frequent appulses of the tongue to the teeth or palate, like children.—Come, I cannot cog, and say thou art this and that, like many of these *lisp*-ing hawthorn buds, that come like women in men's apparel, and smell like Bucklersbury in simpling time. *Shak.*—

Scarce had she learnt to *lisp* the name

Of martyr. *Crafsaw.*

They ramble not to learn the mode,

How to be drest, or how to *lisp* abroad.

*Cleaveland.*

—Appulse partial, giving some passage to breath, is made to the upper teeth, and causes a *lisp*ing sound, the breath being strained through the teeth. *Holder.*—

As yet a child, nor yet a fool to fame,

I *lisp*'d in numbers, for the numbers came. *Pope.*

\* LISPER. *n. f.* [from *lisp*.] One who lisps.

LISPOLE, a town of Ireland, in Kerry.

LISPOND, or } a weight used in Orkney and  
LISPUND, } Shetland, consisting of 12 lb. Dutch, but by various arts gradually raised to 30 lb. Butter is sold, and paid in rent, by the *lisp*-pund.

LISS, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of Delft and late prov. of S. Holland; 8 miles N. of Leyden.

(1.) LISSA, an island of Maritime Austria, on the coast of Dalmatia, 30 miles in circumference, containing

owns and several villages. It abounds  
l, fish, fruits, and excellent wine;  
les W. of Ragusa. Lon. 17. o. E.  
4.

a town of Poland, in the palatinate  
which it is the capital. Lon. 16. o.  
5. N.

a village of Silesia, 16 miles from  
rskable for a battle fought between  
and the Austrians, on the 15th Dec.  
he latter were entirely defeated.

a town of Persia, in Ghilan.

ORFF, a town of Austria.

a river of Sicily.

IS, in ancient geography, the last  
icum, towards Macedonia, situated

. It had a capacious port, the work  
the tyrant, who led the colony thid  
and walled it round. (*Diod. Sic.*)

lled ALESSIO, in Albania. Lon. 20.  
o. N.

s, a river of Thrace, running into  
sea, between Thasos and Samothra-  
as dried up by the army of Xerxes,  
aded Greece. *Strabo. lib. 7.*

G. n. f. [*liste*, French.] 1. A roll; a

he ablest emperor of all the *list*. *Bacon.*  
he loadstone is poison, and therefore  
of poisons we find in many authors.

xt the royal *list* of Stuarts forth,  
l minds, that rul'd the rugged north.

*Prior.*  
nch.] Inclosed ground in which tilts  
combats fought.—

, at gaze, without the *lists* did stand.

*Dryden.*  
y son, and Sparta's king advance,  
d *lists* to tofs the weighty lance. *Pope.*  
mit.—

an, overpeering of his *list*,  
he flats with more impetuous haste  
ng Laertes in a riotous head  
your officers. *Shak.*

in *lists* my ranging mind hath brought,  
beyond myself I will not go. *Darwin.*  
ixon.] Desire; willingness; choice.—

Alas, she has no speech!

ich;  
ill when I have *list* to sleep. *Shak.*  
f passion or peevishness, or *list* to con-  
have any bias on my judgment. *King*

false reynard where he lay full low;  
swear he had no *list* to crow. *Dryden.*

Lat. *lisse*, Fr.] A strip of cloth.—A  
g on one leg; and a kersey boot hose  
r, gartered with a red and blue *list*.  
ad of a *list* of cotton, or the-like fil-  
e use of a siphon of glass. *Boyle.*—  
e cobbler's temples ties,

he hair out of his eyes. *Swift.*

—They thought it better to let them  
l, or marginal border, unto the Old  
*Hooker.*

in architecture, a little square mould-

ing, otherwise called a FILLET, LISTEL, &c. See  
*Plate, XX. fig. 1.*

(3.) LIST, in commerce, (§ 1. *def.* 6.) the bor-  
der of cloth or stuff; serving not only to show  
their quality, but to preserve them from being  
torn in fulling, dying, &c.

(4.) LIST, in gardening, a border used by gar-  
deners, for securing their wall-trees.

(5.) LIST, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) was so called, as being  
hemmed round with pales, barriers, or stakes, as  
with a list. Some of these were double, one for  
each cavalier; which kept them apart, so that  
they could not come nearer each other than a  
spear's length. See DUEL, JUST, TOURNA-  
MENT, &c.

(6.) LIST, CIVIL, in the British polity. The  
expences defrayed by the civil list are those that  
in any shape relate to civil government; as, the  
expences of the household; all salaries to officers  
of state, to the judges, and the king's servants;  
the appointments to foreign ambassadors; the  
maintenance of the queen and royal family; the  
king's private expences, or privy purse; secret  
service money, pensions, and other bounties:  
which sometimes have so far exceeded the reve-  
nues appointed for that purpose, that application  
has been made to parliament to discharge the  
debts contracted on the civil list; as particularly  
in 1724, when one million was granted for that  
purpose by stat. 11 Geo. I. c. 17. and in 1769,  
when half a million was granted by stat. 9. Geo.  
III. c. 34. The civil list is indeed properly the  
whole of the king's revenue in his own distinct  
capacity; the rest being rather the revenue of the  
public, or its creditors, though collected and dis-  
tributed in the name and by the officers of the  
crown: it now standing in the same place, as the  
hereditary income did formerly; and as that has  
gradually diminished, the parliamentary appoint-  
ments have increased. The whole revenue of Q.  
Elizabeth did not exceed 600,000l. a-year; that  
of K. Charles I. was 800,000l. that voted for K.  
Charles II. was 1,200,000l. though it was said,  
in the first years at least, that it did not amount to  
so much. But under these sums were included all  
kinds of public expences; among which Lord Cla-  
rendon, in his speech to the parliament, computed,  
that the charge of the navy and land forces a-  
mounted annually to 800,000l. which was ten  
times more than before the former troubles. The  
same revenue, subject to the same charges, was set-  
tled on king James II.: but by the increase of trade,  
and more frugal management, it amounted on an  
average to 1,500,000l. per annum; besides other  
additional customs granted by parliament, which  
produced an annual revenue of 400,000l. out of  
which his fleet and army were maintained at the  
yearly expence of 1,100,000l. After the revolu-  
tion, when the parliament took into its own hands  
the annual support of the forces, both maritime  
and military, a civil list revenue was settled on K.  
William and Q. Mary, amounting, with the heredi-  
tary duties, to 700,000l. per annum; and the  
same was continued to Q. Anne and K. George I.  
That of K. George II. was nominally augmented  
to 800,000l. and in fact was considerably more;  
but that of his present majesty is expressly limited  
to

to that sum; though 100,000l. hath been since added. Upon the whole, it is doubtless much better for the crown, and also for the people, to have the revenue settled upon the modern footing rather than the ancient: for the crown, because it is more certain, and collected with greater ease; for the people, because they are thus delivered from the feudal hardships, and other odious branches of the prerogative. See REVENUE.

(1.) \* To LIST. *v. a.* [from *list*, a roll.] 1. To enlist; to enrol or register.—For a man to give his name to Christianity in those days, was to *list* himself a martyr, and to bid farewell not only to the pleasures, but also to the hopes of this life. *South.*

They *list* with women each degenerate name  
Who dares not hazard life for future fame.

*Dryden.*

2. To retain and enrol soldiers; to enlist.—The lords would, by *listing* their own servants, persuade the gentlemen in the town to do the like. *Clarend.*—The king who raised this wall appointed a million of soldiers, who were *listed* and paid for the defence of it against the Tartars. *Temple.*

Two hundred horse he shall command;

These in my name are *listed*.

*Dryden.*

3. [From *list*; enclosed ground.] To enclose for combats.—

How dares your pride presume against my laws,

As in a *listed* field to fight your cause?

Unaid'd the royal grant.

*Dryden.*

4. [From *list*, a shred or border.] To sew together, in such a sort as to make a particoloured shew.—Some may wonder at such an accumulation of benefits, like a kind of embroidering or *listing* of one favour upon another. *Wotton.* 5. [Contracted from *listen*.] To hearken to; to listen; to attend.—

Then weigh, what loss your honour may sustain,

If with too credent ear you *list* his songs. *Shak.*

I, this found I better know:

*List!* I would I could hear mo. *B. n. Jonson.*

(2.) \* To LIST. *v. n.* [*Lyftan*, Sax.] To chuse; to desire; to be disposed; to incline.—

To fight in field, or to defend this wall,

Point what you *list*, I nought refuse at all. *F. Q.*

—Them that add to the word of God what them *listeth*. *Hooker.*—They imagine, that laws which permit them not to do as they would, will endure them to speak as they *list*. *Hooker.*—Let other men think of your devices as they *list*, in my judgment they be mere fancies. *Whitgift.*—

Now by my mother's son, and that's myself,

It shall be moon, or star, or what I *list*. *Shak.*

Kings, lords of times, and of occasions, may

Take their advantage when, and how, they *list*.

*Daniel.*

When they *list*, into the womb

That bred them they return; and now, and

gnaw

My bowels, their repast. *Milt. Par. Lost.*

(3.) To LIST, or ENLIST, SOLDIERS. See § 1, *def.* 2.) Persons listed either as volunteers, or by any kind of compulsion, must be carried within 4 days, but not sooner than 24 hours after, before the next justice of peace of any county, riding, city, or place, or chief magistrate of any city or

town corporate (not being an officer in and if before such justice or magistrate from such enlisting, and return the money, and also 20 shillings in lieu of all depended on them; they are to be discharged persons refusing or neglecting to return such money within 24 hours, shall be duly listed, as if they had assented thereto the proper magistrate; and they shall, it be obliged to take the oath, or, upon refusal shall be confined by the officer who list till they do take it.

LISTA, an ancient town of the Sabini.  
\* LISTED. *adj.* Striped; particoloured streaks.—

A dewy cloud, and in the cloud a  
Conspicuous, with three *listed* colours  
Betok'ning peace from God.

As the show'ry arch

With *listed* colours gay, or, azure, green,  
Delights and puzzles the beholder's

LISTEL, *n. f.* See LIST, § 2.

(1.) \* To LISTEN. *v. a.* To hear; obsolete.—

Lady, vouchsafe to *listen* what I say  
One cried, God bleis us! and, another,

As they had seen me with these hangings  
*Listening* their fear, I could not say.

He, that no more must say, is *listen*  
Than they whom youth and ease has  
to close.

The wonted roar was up amidst them  
And fill'd the air with barbarous din  
At which I ceas'd and *listen'd* them a

(2.) \* To LISTEN. *v. n.* To hearken; attention.—

*Listen* to me, and if you speak me  
I'll tell you news.

—Antigonus used often to go disguised, at the tents of his soldiers; and at a time some that spoke very ill of him: when said, If you speak ill of me, you should farther off. *Bacon's Apoph.*—*Listen*, O me, and hearken, ye people. *Isa. xlii.* we have occasion to *listen*, and give a particular attention to some sound, the tyndrawn to a more than ordinary tension.

On the green bank I sat, and *listen'd* to

He shall be receiv'd with more regard

And *listen'd* to, than modest truth is he.

—To this humour most of our late courtiers succeed: the audience *listens* after else. *Addison.*

\* LISTENER. *n. f.* [from *listen*.] One who listens: a hearer.—They are light of belief *listeners* after news. *Hazel.*—*Listeners* as well of themselves. *Leffrange.*—If he attends the tea, and be a good *listener* make a tolerable figure, which will serve in the young chaplain. *Swift.*—The king when spoke by any brother in a lodge, warning to the rest to have a care of *listening*.

(1.) LISTER, Sir Matthew, M. D. physician to Anne of Denmark, James VI's queen,

l. was president of the College of Physicians one of the greatest practitioners of his age; died about 1637.

STEEN, Martin, M. D. and F. R. S. nephew preceding, was born in Bucks, in 1638, and bred at Cambridge. He afterwards travelled abroad, and at his return practised physic at Oxford afterwards at London. In 1683, he succeeded M. D. and became fellow of the colledge of Physicians in London. In 1698, he attended the Earl of Portland, in his embassy from King William III. to France; of which journey he published an account at his return, and was afterwards physician to Q. Anne. He also published, *De animalium Angliæ*, 4to. 2. *Conchyliologia*, fol. 3. *Coclearum & limacum exercitativa*, 4 vols 8vo. 4. Many pieces in *Philosophical Transactions* and other works.

TLESLY. *adv.* [from *listless*.] Without attention; without attention.—To know this pertrach him at play, and see whether he be active, or whether he lazily and listlessly away his time. *Locke on Education.*

TLESNESS. *n. f.* [from *listless*.] Inattention of desire.—It may be the palate of the disposed by *listlessness* or sorrow. *Taylor.*

TLESS. *adj.* [from *list*.] 1. Without inclination without any determination to one thing in another.—Intemperance and sensuality of the spirits, make them gross, *listless*, and *Tillotson*.—

our care to wheat alone extend,  
Tessa with her sisters first descend,  
: you trust in earth your future hope,  
: expect a *listless*, lazy crop. *Dryd. Virg.*

Lazy lolling sort  
: *listless* loit'ers, that attend  
use, no trust. *Pope.*

*listless*, and desponding. *Gulliver*. 2. Careless: with *of*.—

: sick for air before the portal gasp,  
: e in their empty hives remain,  
abd' with cold, and *listless* of their gain. *Dryden.*

TOWEL, a parish and post town of Ire-Kerry, 131 miles from Dublin, anciently *is-Tuathal*, i. e. the fort of Tuathal, from the 1st century, whose life forms a bill in the ancient Irish history. Not far from the town are the ruins of a castle, pleated on the Feale, which was taken in 1600, by Sir Charles Wilmot, being then for Lord Kerry against Q. Elizabeth. It is *to*.

TUEN, a town of China, in Chen-Si.  
TUSY SUR OURCO, a town of France, on the Seine and Marne, seated on the miles NE. of Meaux.

T, the preterite of *light*; whether *to light* *to happen*, or *to set on fire*, or *guide with*

love thyself, thy eyes,  
first insun'd, and *lit* me to thy love.  
: stars, that still must guide me. *Soutberne.*  
: y pipe with the paper. *Addison's Spect.*

TBRUM, a town of Hispania Tarraconensis called *Buitrago*. *Liv. l. 32. c. 14.*

TDA, a town in Negrepoint island.

L. XIII. PART I.

LITANA, or LITANA SILVA, in ancient geography, a wood of the Boii, in Gallia Togata, or Cispadana, where the Romans, under L. Posthumus Albinus, had a great defeat, scarce ten escaping of 25,000, and their general's head being cut off by the Boii, and carried in triumph into their temple. (*Livy*.) Holstenius supposes, this happened above the springs of Scuitenna, in a part of the Apennine, between Cersinianum and Mutina: Now called *Selva di Luca*.

(1.) \*LITANY. *n. f.* [*λειτουργία*; *litaniæ*.] A form of supplicatory prayer.—Supplications, with solemnity for the appeasing of God's wrath, were, of the Greek church, termed *litaniæ* and rogations of the Latin. *Hooker*.—Recite humbly and devoutly some penitential *litaniæ*. *Taylor.*

(2.) LITANY is derived from *λειτουργία*, I beseech, the expression repeated by the people, in the service. At first litaniæ were not fixed to any stated time, but were only employed as exigencies required. They were observed with ardent supplications and fastings, to avert the threatening judgments of fire, earthquakes, inundations, or hostile invasions. About A. D. 400, litaniæ began to be used in processions, the people walking barefoot, and repeating them with great devotion. The days on which these were used were called *rogation days*: these were appointed by the canons of different councils, till it was decreed by the council of Toledo, that they should be used every month throughout the year; and thus by degrees they came to be used weekly on Wednesdays and Fridays, the ancient stationary days for fasting. To these the rubric of the church of England has added Sundays. Before the last review of the common prayer, the litany was a distinct service by itself, and used some time after the morning prayer was over; at present it is made one office with the morning service, being ordered to be read after the third collect for grace, instead of the intercessional prayers in the daily service.

(1.) LITCHFIELD, a city of Staffordshire, in a low situation about 3 miles from the Trent. Its ancient name was *Licidfeld*, i. e. a field of carcases, from a great number of Christians having suffered martyrdom here in the persecution under Dioclesian. In the Saxons time, it was a bishoprick, and is now united with Coventry. It is divided into two parts by a rivulet and a shallow lake, over which are two causeways with sluices. It is a long straggling place, but has some very handsome houses, and well paved streets. The part on the S. side of the rivulet is called the *city*, and the other the *close*. The *city* is much the largest, and contains several public structures. It was incorporated by Edward VI. and is both a town and county, governed by a bailiff chosen yearly out of 24 burgesses, a recorder, sheriff, a steward, and other officers. The city has power of life and death within its jurisdiction; a court of record; a pie-powder court; a gaol, a free school, and a well endowed hospital for a master and 12 brethren. The county of the city is 10 or 12 m. in compass, which the sheriff rides yearly on the 8th of Sept. and then visits the corporation and neighbouring parishes. The *close* is so called from its being inclosed with a wall and a deep dry ditch

on all sides, except towards the city, where it is defended by a great lake or marsh formed by its brook. The cathedral, which stands in the clove, was originally built by Offius king of Northumberland about 300. It was rebuilt and enlarged by Offa king of Mercia in 766. In 1148 it was rebuilt, and greatly enlarged in 1296. At the reformation, Coventry was divided from it. In the civil wars its spire was destroyed, and it converted into a stable. In 1776 a beautiful painted window, by the benefaction of Dr Adenbrook, was set up at the W. end of the cathedral. In the civil wars it was several times taken and retaken, and thereby suffered much; but was so repaired after the restoration, at the expence of 20,000 l. that it was one of the noblest structures of the kind in England. It is walled in like a castle, and stands so high as to be seen 10 miles round. It is 450 feet long, of which the choir is 100, and the breadth in the broadest place 80. Its portico is hardly to be paralleled in England. On the top, at each corner of it, is a stately spire, besides a fine high steeple on the middle of the church. The choir is paved in great part with alabaster and cannel-coal. In 1789, it underwent a general repair. It merits attention on account of the elegant sculpture about the windows, and the embattled gallery that runs beneath them. There are 3 other churches; one of which, St Michael's, has a church-yard of 6 or 7 acres. In the neighbourhood are frequent horse-races. There are 6 fairs, and the markets are on Tuesday and Friday. This city communicates with the Mersey, by which it has an inland navigation, of above 300 miles. (See MERSEY.) Litchfield sends two members to parliament. It is 14 miles SE. of Stafford, and 119 NW. of London. Lon. 1. 44. W. Lat. 52. 54. N.

(2.) LITCHFIELD, a hilly county of Connecticut, bounded on the N. by Massachusetts, E. by Hartford county, S. by Newhaven and Fairfield, and W. by New York. It is 39 miles long from S. to N. 25 broad, and is divided into 22 townships; containing 38,522 citizens, and 233 slaves in 1795; which was 207 fewer slaves than it had in 1774, and above 12,000 more freemen.

(3.) LITCHFIELD, the capital of the above county (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) is a handsome town with a large area in the middle, a court house, a church, 3 iron manufactories, an oil mill, and several others for grain, &c. It lies 34 miles W. of Hartford, 42 NNW. of New-haven, and 201 NE. by N. of Philadelphia.

(4.) LITCHFIELD, a township of Maine district, in Lincoln county, 220 miles NE. of Boston.

(5.) LITCHFIELD, a township of New Hampshire, E. of the Merrimack and 54 miles W. of Portsmouth.

LITCHIN, a town of China, in Chau-Si.

(1.) \* LITERAL. *adj.* [*literal*, French; *litera*, Latin.] 1. According to the primitive meaning; not figurative.—Through all the writings of the antient fathers, we see that the words, which were, do continue; the only difference is, that whereas before they had a *literal*, they now have a metaphorical use, and are as so many notes of remembrance unto us, that what they did signify

in the letter, is accomplished in the truth. *H*—A foundation, being primarily of use in a lecture, hath no other *literal* notation but belongs to it in relation to an house, or building; nor figurative, but what is found that, and deduced from thence. *Harmonia* Following the letter, or exact words.—The for publick audience\* are such as, follow middle course between the rigour of *literal* lations and the liberty of paraphrases, do greater shortness and plainness deliver the ring. *Hooker*. 3. Consisting of letters; as, *literal* notation of numbers was known to peans before the cyphers.

(2.) \* LITERAL. *n. f.* Primitive or literal ing.—How dangerous it is in sensible things metaphorical expressions unto the people, what absurd conceits they will swallow in *literals*, an example we have in our professe *Brown*.

\* LITERALITY. *n. f.* [from *literal*.] Original meaning.—Not attaining the true deuterion and second intention of the words, they are to omit their superconsequences, coherence gures, or tropologies, and are not sometimes suaded beyond their *literalities*. *Brown*.

\* LITERALLY. *adv.* [from *literal*.] According to the primitive import of words; figuratively.—That a man and his wife are flesh, I can comprehend; yet *literally* taken, a thing impossible. *Swift*. 2. With close rence to words; word by word.—Endeavor to turn his Nifus and Euryalus as close as able, I have performed that episode too *Dryden*.—So wild and ungovernable a poet not be translated *literally*; his genius is too f to bear a chain. *Dryden*.

(1.) \* LITERARY. *adj.* [*Litarius*, Lat.]pecting letters; regarding learning. *Literary* tory, is an account of the state of learning of the lives of learned men. *Literary* con tion, is talk about questions of learning. *Lit* is not properly used of missive letters. It m said, this *epistolary* correspondence was pol oftener than *literary*.

(2.) LITERARY FUND FOR RELIEF OF THORS AND THEIR FAMILIES. Among the ny charitable, philanthropic, and beneficent tutions, for which the present age is so emi ly conspicuous, none surely merits the atter and patronage of *Literary Gentlemen*, and *A Letters*, more than that which is the subject of present article. We shall here, however, give a very brief account of this excellent in tion, referring the reader, for farther partic to the article SOCIETY. The Literary I though but lately instituted, amounted at anniversary meeting held on the 7th May: at the Free Mason's Tavern, London, to upv of 1000 l. a-year; and has been hitherto most fully administered. Sir James Bland Burges was in the chair on that occasion; and the Lord of Somerset presided at the last anniversary ring, on the 7th May 1802. From this fund, relief is given to men of genius, depressed by indisposition, or pety, with the most del regard to their feelings; and the institution is e

managed without expence, as the council and committees tranfact the whole of the business gratuitously."

(3.) LITERARY PROPERTY, or COPY-RIGHT, is that right or property, which an author has in his own original literary compositions; so that no other person, without his permission, may publish copies thereof. When a man, by the exertion of his rational powers, has produced an original work, he has clearly a right to dispose of that work as he pleases; and any attempt to take it from him, or vary the disposition he has made of it, is an invasion of his right of property. Now the identity of a literary composition consists entirely in the sentiment and the language; the same conceptions, clothed in the same words, must necessarily be the same composition; and whatever method be taken of conveying that composition to the ear, or the eye of another, by writing, or by printing, in any number of copies, it is always the identical work of the author which is so conveyed; and no other man (it hath been thought) can have a right to convey or transfer it without his consent, either tacitly or expressly given. His consent may perhaps be tacitly given when an author permits his work to be published without any reserve of right, and without stamping on it any marks of ownership; it is then a present to the public, like the building of a church, or the opening out a new highway: but in case of a bargain for a single impression, or a total sale or gift of the copy-right; in the one case the reversion hath been thought to continue in the original proprietor; in the other the whole property, with its exclusive rights, to be perpetually transferred to the grantee. On the other hand, it is urged, that though the exclusive right of the M. S. and all which it contains, belongs undoubtedly to the owner before it is printed or published; yet from the instant of publication, the exclusive right of an author or his assigns, to the sole communication of his ideas, immediately vanishes and evaporates; being a right of too subtle and unsubstantial a nature to become the subject of property at the common law, and only capable of being guarded by positive statute and special provisions of the legislature. The Roman law adjudged, that if a man wrote any thing, though ever so elegant, on the paper or parchment of another, the writing should belong to the original owner of the materials on which it was written: meaning certainly nothing more thereby than the mere mechanical operation of writing, for which it directed the scribe to receive a satisfaction; especially in works of genius and invention, such as a picture painted on another man's canvas, the same we gave the canvas to the painter. We find no other mention in the law of any property in the works of the understanding, though the sale of literary copies, for the purposes of recital or multiplication, is certainly as ancient as the times of Terence, Martial, and Statius. Neither with us in Britain hath there been (till lately) any final determination upon the right of authors at the common law. It was determined in the case of *Millar v. Taylor B. R. Pasch. 9. Geo. III. 1769*, that an exclusive copy-right in authors subsisted by common law. But afterward, in the case of *Donaldson*

*v. Becket*, before the house of Lords, which was finally determined Feb. 22, 1774, it was decided that no copy-right subsists in authors, after the expiration of the several terms fixed by the *Stat. 8 Ann. c. 19*. This statute declares, that the author and his assigns shall have the whole liberty of printing and reprinting his works, for the term of 14 years, and no longer, and also protects that property by additional penalties and forfeitures; directing farther, that if, at the end of that term, the author himself be living, the right shall then return to him for another term of the same duration.

(4.) LITERARY THEFT. See PLAGIARISM.

(5.) LITERARY THEIF. See PLAGIARY.

(1.) \* LITERATI. *n. f.* [Italian.] The learned. — I shall consult some *literati* on the project sent me for the discovery of the longitude. *Spectator*.

(2.) LITERATI, (*tetrads*, lettered,) an epithet given to such persons among the CHINESE, as are able to read and write their language. The literati alone are capable of being made mandarins, See CHINA, § 17.

(2.) LITERATI is also the name of a particular sect, in religion or philosophy, consisting principally of the learned men of China, among whom it is called *jukiao*, i. e. *learned*. It had its rise A. D. 1400, when the emperor, to awaken the attention of the people to knowledge, which had been quite neglected during the civil wars, and to stir up emulation among the mandarins, chose 42 of their ablest doctors, and ordered them to compose a body of doctrine agreeable to that of the ancients, which was then the standard of the learned. This they accordingly did, though some allege, that they rather drew up a system of *modern* than of *ancient* doctrines. For instance, although they say, The Deity is a pure, perfect principle, without beginning or end; the source of all things and the cause of every being, who determines it to be what it is; yet they make God the *Joul* of the world; and say, he is *disfused through all matter*, and produces all the changes that happen there. In short, it is not easy to determine, whether they resolve GOD into NATURE, or lift up NATURE into God. This doctrine introduced a refined kind of atheism, similar to that which, (in spite of the restoration of Popery by Bonaparte) prevails at present among the literati of France. The work however, being composed by so many learned persons, and approved by the emperor, was received with great applause. Many were pleased with it, because it seemed to subvert all religion; others approved it, because the little religion that it left them could not give them much trouble. The court, the mandarins, persons of fortune and quality, &c. are generally literati; but a great part of the people still hold to their worship of idols. The literati freely tolerate the Mahometans, because they adore, with them, the king of heaven, and author of nature; but they bear a perfect aversion to all sorts of idolaters, and it was once resolved to extirpate them. But the disorder this would have occasioned prevented it, and they content themselves with condemning them, in general, as heretics; which they do solemnly every year at Peking.

\* LITERATURE. *n. f.* [*literatura*, Lat.] Learn-

dom hath been famous  
pre eminent attend deser-  
Bacon.—When men of  
knowledge of the world,  
literature, and convince  
usefulness. *Addison.*

See LINTERNUM.

**PIT COAL**, or **PIT COAL**, is a black  
mineral, bituminous substance; not  
flammable, but, when once inflamed,  
and more intensely than any other  
See **COAL**, N<sup>o</sup> III, § 5. Of this sub-  
stance are distinguished by authors. The  
first after combustion is black; the  
second is spongy, and like pumice  
the residuum of the third is whitish ashes.  
coal, by long exposure to air, falls in  
powder, from which alum may be

coal by distillation yields, 1. a

acid liquor; 2. a thin

oil, resembling pe-

the bottom of the former,

a violent fire; 5. an acid con-

inflammable earth remains in the

constituent parts of fossil coal are

those of amber and other bitu-

min some sorts of it a varnish may be

oil. Fixed alkali has never been

species of it; nor sulphur, unless

with pyrites. None of the species

For exciting intense heats, as

or smelting iron ore, and for opera-

acid and oily vapours would be

as in drying of malt, fossil coals are

coloured, or reduced to coaks. See

**COAK.** Pit coal affords **TAR**, and, on that and  
other accounts, is ranked by modern chemists among  
vegetable substances. See **CHEMISTRY**,  
*Index.*

(1.) **LITHARGE**, *n. f.* [*litarge*, Fr. *litargyron*,  
Lat.]—*Litharge* is properly lead vitrified, either  
alone or with a mixture of copper. This recre-  
ment is of two kinds, *litarge* of gold, and *litarge*  
of silver. It is collected from the furnaces where  
silver is separated from lead, or from those where  
gold and silver are purified by means of that met-  
al. The *litarge* sold in the shops is produced in  
the copper works, where lead has been used to pu-  
rify that metal, or to separate silver from it. *Hill.*  
—I have seen some parcels of glass adhering to  
the test or cupel, as well as the gold or *litarge*.

*Boyle.*—If the lead be blown off from the silver  
by the bellows, it will, in great part, be collected  
in the form of a darkish powder; which, because  
it is blown off from the silver, they call *litarge*  
of silver. *Boyle.*

(2.) **LITHARGE** is a preparation of lead, usually  
in form of soft flakes, of a yellowish reddish col-  
our. If calcined lead be urged with a hasty fire,  
it melts into the appearance of oil, and on cool-  
ing concretes into litharge. According to the de-  
gree of fire and other circumstances, it proves of  
a pale or deep colour; the former called *litarge*  
of silver, the latter *litarge* of gold. In the new  
chemical nomenclature, it is called *Semi-vitreous*  
*oxide of Lead*. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*, & *Vol. I.*

**LITHAY**, a town of Camiola, on Savc.

\* **LITHE**, *adj.* [*lithe*, Saxon.] Limber; pliant;  
easily bent.—

Th' unwieldy elephant,

To make them mirth, us'd all his might and  
wreath'd

His *lithe* proboscis. *Milton.*

\* **LITHENESS**, *n. f.* [from *lithe*.] Limberness;  
flexibility.—

\* **LITHER**, *adj.* [from *lithe*.] Soft; pliant.—

Thou antick death,

Two Talbots winged through the *lithe* sky,

In thy despite shall 'scape mortality. *Shak.*

2. [*Lytber*, Saxon.] Bad; sorry; corrupt. It is  
in the work of Robert of Gloucester written *lytber*.

**LITHGOW**, William, a Scotsman, whose suf-  
ferings by imprisonment and torture at Malaga,  
and whose travels, on foot, over Europe, Asia,  
and Africa, seem to raise him almost to the rank  
of a martyr and a hero, published an account of  
his peregrinations and adventures. Though he  
deals much in the marvellous, the horrid account  
of the strange cruelties of which, he tells us, he  
was the subject, have an air of truth. Soon after  
his arrival in England from Malaga, he was car-  
ried to Theobald's on a feather-bed, that king  
James might be an eye-witness of his martyr'd  
anatomy, as he styles his wretched body, mangled  
and reduced to a skeleton. The whole court crowd-  
ed to see him; and the king ordered him to be  
taken care of, and sent him twice to Bath at his  
expense. By the king's command, he applied to  
Gondamor, the Spanish ambassador, for the re-  
covery of the money and other things of value,  
which the governor of Malaga had taken from  
him, and for 1000*l.* for his support. He was pro-  
mised full reparation, but the perfidious minister  
never performed his promise. When he was upon  
the point of leaving England, Lithgow upbraided  
him with the breach of his word in the presence-  
chamber. This occasioned their fighting upon  
the spot. Lithgow, for his spirited behaviour,  
was sent to the Marshalsea, where he continued a  
prisoner 9 months. At the conclusion of the 2<sup>nd</sup>  
edition of his *Travels* he informs us, that, "his  
painful feet have traced over (besides passages of  
seas and rivers), 36,000 and odd miles, which  
draweth near to twice the circumference of the  
whole earth." His description of Ireland is cu-  
rious. This, together with the narrative of his  
sufferings, is reprinted in Morgan's *Phoenix Bri-  
tannicus*.

**LITHIASIS**, or the **STONE**. See **MEDICINE**,  
*Index.*

**LITHIATE**, *n. f.* [from *λίθος*, Gr. a stone.] a  
neutral salt, formed by the combinations of the  
lithic acid with various bases. See **CHEMISTRY**,  
*Index*, and *Vocab. II.*

**LITHIC ACID**, an acid extracted from the ur-  
inary calculus. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index.*

(1.) \* **LITHOGRAPHY**, *n. f.* [*λίθος* and *γραφω*]  
The art or practice of engraving upon stones.

(2.) **LITHOGRAPHY**. See **ENGRAVING**, § II, III.  
**LITHOLOGIC**, or } *adj.* [from *Lithology*.] Of  
**LITHOLOGICAL**, } or belonging to Litho-  
logy; partaking of the nature of stones or earth.

**LITHIOLOGY**, *n. f.* [from *λίθος*, Gr. a stone,  
and



lifecourse.] The science which treats of earths; or that branch of mineralogy, of which consists in the study of stones.

The celebrated M. Chaptal allots the his Elements of Chemistry to Lithology, divides the whole objects of it into 3 z. 1. Earths combined with acids: 2. Earths combined with each other: and, 3. Mixtures. See CHEMISTRY, Part IV. LITHOLOGY. The word *Lithology* is not ioned in Dr Thomson's Elements of

**THOMANCY.** *n. f.* [ $\lambda\theta\alpha\varsigma$  and  $\mu\alpha\theta\eta\iota\alpha$ .] by stones.—As strange must be *litho-* lination, from this stone, whereby He- rophet foretold the destruction of Troy.

**HOMANCY,** } in antiquity, a species of  
**MANTIA,** } divination performed with  
sometimes the stone called **SIDERITES**  
this they washed in spring water in the  
indle-light; the person that consulted  
e purified from all manner of polluti-  
o have his face covered: this done, he  
ertain prayers, and placed certain cha-  
n appointed order; and then the stone  
tself, and in a soft gentle murmur, or  
like that of a child, returned an an-

**LITHONTRIPTICK.** *adj.* [ $\lambda\theta\alpha\varsigma$  and  
*triptique*, Fr.] Any medicine proper  
the stone in the kidneys or bladder.

**LITHONTRIPTICS,** is derived from  $\lambda\theta\alpha\varsigma$   
*lithon* to break. Soap ley, taken at first  
ses, in broth free from fat, succeeds in  
which require an alkaline solvent. The  
y begin with 20 drops, and gradually  
e dose. By repeating it three times a  
8, or 12 months, the wished for effects  
w.

**PHYTA,** the name of Linnæus's third  
ermes. See ZOOLOGY.

**SPERMUM, GROMWELL,** a genus of  
ynia order, in the pentandria class of  
d in the natural method ranking un-  
ft order, *Asperifolæ*. The corolla is fun-  
y, with the throat perforated and na-  
alyx quinquepartite. There are several  
ut the only remarkable ones are these:

**OSPERMUM ARVENSE,** the *Baylard* Al-  
vs in corn fields.

**OSPERMUM OFFICINALE,** the *common*  
rows in a dry gravelly soil. The seeds  
1 to be of service in calculous cases.  
says, that they have so much earth in  
osition, that they effervece with acids;  
is the case, it must be attributed rather  
line than an earthy quality. Both are  
Britain.

**STROTION,** in natural history, a spe-  
l coral, composed of a great number of  
nder columns, sometimes round, some-  
lar, joined nicely to one another, and  
adiated surface at their tops. These are  
onsiderable quantities in the N. and W.  
is kingdom, sometimes in single, some-  
mplex specimens. See Plate CC.

**STROTON,** among the Romans, was

a pavement of Mosaic work, consisting of small  
pieces of cut marble of different kinds and co-  
lours. The *lithostrota* began to be used in the  
time of Sylla, who made one at Præneste in the  
temple of Fortune. At last they were used in pri-  
vate houses; and were brought to such perfection,  
that they exhibited most lively representations of  
nature, with all the exactness of the finest paint-  
ing.

**LITHOTOME.** See AMMONIUS.

\* **LITHOTOMIST.** *n. f.* [ $\lambda\theta\alpha\varsigma$  and  $\tau\epsilon\mu\alpha\omega$ .] A  
chirurgian who extracts the stone by opening the  
bladder.

(1.) \* **LITHOTOMY.** *n. f.* [ $\lambda\theta\alpha\varsigma$  and  $\tau\epsilon\mu\alpha\omega$ .]  
The art or practice of cutting for the stone.

(2.) **LITHOTOMY.** See SURGERY.

**LITHRUS,** a town of Armenia Minor.

(1.) **LITHUANIA,** or **LITWA,** a large country  
of Europe, anciently governed by its grand dukes,  
of whom Ringold, in the 13th century was the  
first. In the end of the 14th, the grand duke Ja-  
gello, united it to **POLAND,** by his marriage with  
Hedwige, the widow of Lewis K. of Poland and  
Hungary: and in 1569, the countries were still  
more closely united under one elective king. It is  
bounded on the S. by Volhinia, on the W. by Lit-  
tle Poland, Polachia, Prussia, and Samogitia; on  
the N. by Livonia and Russia, which last bounds  
it on the E. It is 300 miles long and 250 broad.  
Its principal rivers are, the Dnieper, Dwina, Ne-  
man, Pripecz, and Bog. It is a flat country, is  
fertile in corn, abounds with honey, wood, pitch,  
&c. and feeds vast numbers of sheep. It has also  
excellent little horses, which are never shod, their  
hoofs being very hard. There are vast forests, in  
which are bears, wolves, elks, wild oxen, lynxes,  
beavers, &c. and eagles and vultures are very com-  
mon. In the forests, large pieces of yellow am-  
ber are frequently dug up. The country swarms  
with Jews, who, though numerous in every  
other part of Poland, seem to have fixed their  
head quarters in this duchy; and this, perhaps,  
is the only country in Europe where the Jews cul-  
tivate the ground. The peasants are in a state of  
the most abject vassalage. In 1772, the empress  
Catharine II. compelled the Poles to cede to her  
all that part of Lithuania bordering upon Russia,  
and including at least one 3d of the country. This  
she erected into the two governments of **POLOTSK**  
and **MOHILFF.** In 1793, in conjunction with the  
king of Prussia, she effected another partition of  
Poland, in consequence of which she extended her  
dominion over the greater part of Lithuania. The  
language is a dialect of the Slavonic. Lithuania  
was formerly divided into 9 palatinates, and com-  
prehended also **SAMOGITIA** and **COURLAND.** Of  
the palatinates 6 are now annexed to Russia; viz.  
**Polocz,** **Novogrodek,** **Witeplik,** **Brzeik,** **Miczi-**  
**slaw,** and **Minsk.** The other 3 were **Wilna,** **Tro-**  
**ki,** and **Livonia.** The chief towns are **Memel** and  
**Insterburg.**

(2.) **LITHUANIA, PROPER,** called by the Poles  
*Litwa Sana,* comprehends the palatinates of **Wil-**  
**na** and **Troki.** Mr Cruttwell does not mention  
distinctly whether it is a different district or the  
same with

(3.) **LITHUANIA, PRUSSIAN, OR LITTLE LI-**  
**THUANIA,** a territory about 100 miles long, and

50 broad. It was anciently over-run with woods, and in 1710, it was almost depopulated by a pestilence; but in 1720, K. Frederick-William I. at the expence of 5 millions of rixdollars induced 20,000 Swifs, French Protestants, Palatines and Franconians to settle in it; by whose industry it has been well cultivated, and various manufactures established in it.

(1.) \* LITIGANT. *adj.* [*litigans*, Lat. *litigant*, French.] Engaged in a juridical contest.—Judicial acts are those writings and matters which relate to judicial proceedings, and are sped in open court at the instance of one or both of the parties *litigant*. *Ayliffe*.

(2.) \* LITIGANT. *n. f.* One engaged in a suit of law.—The cast *litigant* sits not down with one cross verdict, but recommences his suit. *Decay of Piety*.—The *litigants* tear one another to pieces for the benefit of some third interest. *L'Esfrange*.

(1.) \* To LITIGATE. *v. a.* [*litigo*, Latin.] To contest in law; to debate by judicial process.

(2.) \* To LITIGATE. *v. n.* To manage a suit; to carry on a cause.—The appellant, after the interposition of an appeal, still *litigates* in the same cause. *Ayliffe*.

\* LITIGATION. *n. f.* [*litigatio*, Latin; from *litigatus*.] Judicial contest; suit of law.—Never one clergyman had experience of both *litigations*, that hath not confessed, he had rather have three suits in Westminster-hall, than one in the arches. *Clarendon*.

\* LITIGIOUS. *adj.* [*litigieux*, Fr.] 1. Inclined to law-suits; quarrelsome; wrangling.—

Soldiers find wars, and lawyers find out still *litigious* men, who quarrels move. *Donne*.

—His great application to the law, had not infected his temper with any thing positive or *litigious*.

*Adijon*. 2. Disputable; controvertible.—In *litigious* and controverted causes, the will of God is to have them to do whatsoever the sentence of judicial and final decision shall determine. *Hooker*.—

No fences, parted fields, nor marks, nor bounds,

Distinguish'd acres of *litigious* grounds. *Dryd*

\* LITIGIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *litigious*.] Wranglingly.

\* LITIGIOUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *litigious*.] A wrangling disposition; inclination to vexatious suits.

LITISCONTESTATION, *n. f.* [from *lis*, Lat. a dispute or action at law, and *contestor*, to call to witness;] a process admitted to proof. *Litem contestari* literally signifies, to put in the plaintiff's claim and the defendant's answer. *Cic*. See LAW, PART III, Chap. III. *Sec. I.* § 28.

LITIZ, a flourishing town of Pennsylvania, chiefly inhabited by Moravians; 8 miles from Lancaster, and 66 W. by N. of Philadelphia.

LITMUS, or LACMUS, in the arts, is a blue pigment, formed from ARCHIL. It is brought from Holland at a cheap rate; but may be prepared by adding quick lime and putrified urine, or spirit of urine distilled from lime, to the archil previously bruised by grinding. The mixture having cooled, and the fluid evaporated, becomes a mass of the consistence of a paste, which is laid on boards to dry in square lumps. It is only used in miniature paintings, and cannot be well depended on, because the least approach of acid changes

it instantly from blue to red. The is very apt to change and fly. See AW

LITOWISCH, a town of Poland, situate of Volhynia, 56 miles SW. of

LITSCHAU, a town of Austria, 70

of Vienna. Lon. 32. 41. E. Ferro. La

LITTAU, a town of Moravia, in

(1.) \* LITTER. *n. f.* [*litiera*, Fr.]

vehicular bed; a carriage capable of a bed hung between two hitches.—

To my *litter* strait;  
Weakness possesseth me. *Sh*

—He was carried in a rich chariot *lit*  
two horses at each end. *Bacon*.—

The drowsy frighted  
That draw the *litter* of close curta

Here modest matrons in soft *litt*  
In solemn pomp appear.

*Litters* thick besiege the donor's  
And begging lords and teeming la  
The promis'd dole.

2. The straw laid under animals, or  
To crouch in *litter* of your stabl

Take off the *litter* from your kernel b  
Their *litter* is not tosd' by sows

3. A brood of young.—I do here wall  
like a sow that hath overwhelmed all

one. *Shak*.—Reflect upon that nume  
strange, senseless opinions, that crav

world. *South*.—A wolf came to a fo  
kindly offered to take care of her *litt*

The last of all the *litter* 'scap'd l

4. A birth of animals.—

Fruitful as the sow that car  
The thirty pigs at one large *litter* far

5. Any number of things thrown flut  
Strephon, who found the room

Stole in, and took a strict survey  
Of all the *litter* as it lay.

(2.) The LITTER, [*litica*], (§ 1. *d. f*

ried upon shafts, and was anciently c  
most easy and genteel way of carriage

derives the word from the barbarou  
*ria*, straw or bedding for beasts: Oth

*tus*, a bed; there being ordinarily a  
pillow to a litter in the same manner

Pliny calls the litter the *traveller's*  
was much in use among the Romans, a

it was carried by slaves kept for that  
it still continues to be in the east, wh

ed a PALANQUIN.—The Roman lecti  
was carried by four men, was called *t*

that by six, *hexaphorum*; and that by  
*phorum*. The invention of litters, a

Cicero, was owing to the kings of l  
the time of Tiberius they were beco

quent at Rome, as appears from Senec  
slaves were carried in them, though ne

than two persons.

\* To LITTER. *v. a.* [from the no  
bring forth: used of beasts, or of hu

in abhorrence or contempt.—  
The son that she did *litter* h  
A freckled whelp, beg-born. *Sh*

her named me Autolycus, being *litter'd* rcury, who, as I am, was likewise a snap-unconsidered trifles. *Shak.*—The whelps ire, at first *littering*, without all form or *Hake-will.*—We might conceive that dogs ited blind, because we observe they were with us. *Brown.* 2. To cover with glibly, or sluttishly scattered about.— They found

om with volumes *litter'd* round. *Swift.*  
ver with straw.—

ound a stall where oxen stood,  
his case well *litter'd* was the floor. *Dryd.*  
pply cattle with bedding.

ERMORE, an island near the W. coast  
d, and county of Galway; 4 miles long  
ard. Lon. 9. 30. W. Lat. 53. 17. N.

TTLE, William, an ancient English his-  
illed also *Gulielmus Neuburgensis*, born at  
on in Yorkshire, in 1136; and educated  
bey of Newborough, where he became

In his advanced years, he wrote a *Histo-*  
*land*, in 5 books, from the Norman con-  
A. D. 1197; which, for veracity, regula-  
sposition, and purity of language, is one  
st valuable productions of that period.

LITTLE. *adj.* [comp. *less*, superlat. *least*;  
othick; *lytel*, Sax.] 1. Small in extent.  
ast of Dan went out too *little* for them.

2. Not great; small; diminutive; of  
k.—He fought to see Jesus, but could  
e press, because he was *little* of stature.

3.—His son, being then very *little*, I  
d only as wax, to be moulded as one  
*Locke.*—

wou'd have all things *little.* *King.*  
nall dignity, power, or importance.—  
ou wast *little* in thine own sight, wast  
made head of the tribes? 1 *Sam.* xv. 17.

s a very *little* gentleman. *Clarendon.*—All  
st ought to seem *little* to thee. *Taylor's*  
; Not much; not many.—He must be  
*little* season. *Rev.*—A *little* sleep, a *little*

a *little* folding of the hands to sleep.

now in *little* space

onfines met.

By sad experiment I know

*little* weight my words with thee find.

*Milton.*

*Milton.*

*tle* learning is a dang'rous thing,

leep, or taste not the Pierian spring. *Pope.*

; not none: in this sense it always stands  
the article and the noun.—I leave him to  
these contradictions, which may plenti-  
ound in him, by any one who will but  
a *litt'* attention. *Locke.*

LITTLE. *adv.* 1. In a small degree.—The  
definition of names should be changed as  
ossible. *Watts.* 2. In a small quantity.—

poor sleep *little.* *Otway.*

ie degree, but not great.—Where there  
at a thinness in the fluids, subacid sub-  
re proper, though they are a *little* af-

*Arbutinot.* 4. Not much.—The tongue  
t is as choice silver; the heart of the wic-  
le worth. *Prov.* x. 20.—Finding him *lit-*

ts, she chose rather to endure him with

conversative qualities of youth; as, dancing and  
fencing. *Wotton.*—That poem was infamously bad;  
this parallel is *little* better. *Dryden.*—Several cler-  
gymen, otherwise *little* fond of obscure terms, yet  
in their sermons were very liberal of those which  
they find in ecclesiastical writers. *Swift.*

(4.) \* LITTLE. *n. f.* 1. A small space.—

Much was in *little* writ; and all convey'd

With cautious care, for fear to be betray'd.

*Dryden.*

2. A small part; a small proportion.—He that de-  
spiseth *little* things, shall perish by *little* and *little.*

*Ecclus.*—The poor remnant of human seed which  
remained in their mountains, peopled their coun-  
try again slowly, by *little* and *little.* *Bacon.*—By

freeing the precipitated matter from the rest by  
filtration, and grinding the white precipitate with  
water, the mercury will *little* by *little* be gathered

into drops. *Boyle.*—I gave thee thy master's house,  
and the house of Israel and Judah; and if that had  
been too *little*, I would have given thee such and  
such things. 2 *Sam.* xii. 8.—They have much of  
the poetry of Mæcenas, but *little* of his liberality.

*Dryden.*—

Nor grudge I' thee the much that Grecians  
give,

Nor mur'm'ring take the *little* I receive. *Dryd.*

—There are many expressions, which, carrying  
with them no clear ideas, are like to remove but

*little* of my ignorance. *Locke.* 3. A slight affair.

As if 'twere *little* from their town to chafe,

I thro' the seas pursued their exil'd race. *Dryd.*

I view with anger and disdain,

How *little* gives thee joy or pain. *Prior.*

4. Not much.—These they are fitted for, and *lit-*  
*tle* else. *Cheyne.*

LITTLEBOROUGH, 3 small towns of Eng-  
land, in Lancast. Lincoln and Nottingham shires.

LITTLE ISLAND, two isles of Ireland: 1. in the  
Lee, 6 miles E. of Cork; 2. in the Suire, 2 miles  
below Waterford.

\* LITTLENESS. *n. f.* [from *little.*] 1. Small-  
ness of bulk.—

All trying, by a love of *littleness*,

To make abridgements, and to draw to less.

*Donne.*

—We may suppose a great many degrees of *little-*  
*ness* and lightness in these earthy particles, so as  
many of them might float in the air. *Burnet.* 2.

Meanness; want of grandeur.—The English and  
French, in verse, are forced to raise their language  
with metaphors, by the pompousness of the whole

phrase, to wear off any *littleness* that appears in  
the particular parts. *Addison.* 3. Want of digni-  
ty.—The angelick grandeur, by being concealed,  
does not awaken our poverty, nor mortify our

*littleness* so much, as if it was always displayed.  
*Coller.*

LITTLEPORT, a town in the isle of Ely.

(1.) LITTLE RIVER, a river of Connecticut,  
which joins the Shetucket, and forms the Thames.

(2.) LITTLE RIVER, a river of N. Carolina,  
which rises at the foot of Caraway Mountain, and  
runs into the Yadkin, 12 miles N. of the S. Caro-  
lina line.

(1.) LITTLETON, Adam, an eminent lexico-  
grapher, descended from an ancient family in  
Shropshire. He was born in 1527, educated at

Westminster,

Westminster school, and went to Oxford a student of Christ-church, whence he was ejected by the parliament's visitors in 1648. Soon after, he became usher of Westminster school, and in 1648 was made 2d master. After the restoration he taught a school at Chelsea, of which church he was admitted rector in 1664. In 1670 he took his degrees in divinity, being then chaplain to Charles II. In 1674, he became prebendary of Westminster, of which he was afterwards sub-dean. Besides the well known *Latin and English Dictionary*, he published several other works. He died in 1694. He was an universal scholar; and extremely charitable, humane, and affable.

(2.) LITTLETON, Edward, LL. D. a learned English divine, educated at Cambridge in 1716. In 1729, he was elected fellow of Eton College, and presented to the living of Maple Derham, Oxford. In 1730, he took his degree, and was appointed chaplain to K. George I. He died in 1734, and his *Discourses* were printed for the benefit of his family, under the patronage of Q. Caroline. His celebrated Poem *on a Spider*, and other fugitive pieces, are preserved in Doddley's Collection.

(3.) LITTLETON, or LYTTLETON, Sir Thomas, judge of the common pleas, was the eldest son of Thomas Westcote, Esq; of Devonshire, by Elizabeth, sole heiress of Thomas Littleton of Frankley in Worcestershire, at whose request he took the name and arms of that family. He was educated at Oxford or Cambridge; and was afterwards, by Henry VI. made steward of the court of the palace. In 1455, he was appointed king's serjeant; and in 1466, a judge of the common pleas, under Edward IV. In 1474 he was created knight of the Bath. He died in 1481; and was buried in the cathedral of Worcester, where a marble tomb, with his statue, was erected to his memory. He was author of the *Treatise upon Tenures*, on which Sir Edward Coke wrote a comment, well known by the title of *Coke upon Littleton*.

(4—6.) LITTLETON. See LYTTLETON.

(7—19.) LITTLETON, the name of 13 English towns and villages; viz. of one each in Cambridge, Hants, Middlesex, Somerset, Surry, and Suffex; of two each in Gloucester and Wilts; and of 3 in Worcestershire.

LITTLEWORTH, a village in Berks.

\* LITTORAL. *adj.* [*littoralis*, Latin.] Belonging to the shore.

LITUBIUM, an ancient town of Liguria.

(1.) \* LITURGY. *n. f.* [*λύσις*; *liturgie*, F.] Form of prayers; formulary of public devotion.

—We dare not admit any such form of *liturgy* either appointeth no scripture at all, or to be read in the church. *Hooker*.—The use of mortal wights began to be imported into a great part of divine *liturgy* was attributed to her. *Howel*.—It is the greatest and most powerful *liturgy* for impetration in this world.

(2.) LITURGY is derived

from *λύσις*, *work*; and includes all that is said in public worship.

In a more strict signification, *liturgy* is used

to signify the *mass*; as

the *Book of common prayer*. All who have been on *liturgies* agree, that in the primitive church the service was exceedingly simple, consisting of very few ceremonies, and consisting of but a few number of prayers; but, by degrees, the number of external ceremonies, and the number of new prayers, to make the office look more and venerable to the people. At length the service were carried to such a pitch, that it was proper to put the service, and the manner of performing it, into writing. *Liturgies* have been different at different times, and in different countries. There are *liturgies* of St Chrysostom, St Peter, St James, St Basil, of the Maronites, the Coptæ; the Armenian, Roman, Ambrosian, Spanish, African, and English, &c. In the early ages of the church the bishop had a power to form a *liturgy* for his diocese; and if he kept to the analogy and doctrine, all circumstances were left to his own discretion. Afterwards the whole church followed the metropolitan church, which was the general rule of the church; and the

wood acknowledges to be the common *liturgy* of the church; intimating, that the use of *liturgies* in the same province, which was the custom in England, was not to be warranted but by custom. The *liturgy* of the church of England was composed in 1547, and established in the year of Edward VI. In his 5th year, it was viewed; because some things were contained in it, which showed a compliance with the doctrine of those times, and which were objected by Calvin, and some learned men at home; alterations were made in it; the general confession and absolution were added, and the communion was made to begin with the ten commandments. The use of oil in confirmation, extreme unction were kept out; also prayers for souls departed, and what tended to a denial of Christ's real presence in the eucharist.

The *liturgy*, so reformed, was established by act 6 Ed. VI. cap. 1; abolished by Q. Mary II. cap. 2. Some farther alterations were introduced by order of K. James I. in the 16th year of his reign; particularly in the order of baptism, in several rubrics, &c. In the 17th year of 3 or 6 new prayers and thanksgivings were added; that part of the catechism which relates to the doctrine of the sacraments. The *liturgy* of the common prayer, thus altered, was established in the 11th year of K. James I. cap. 5.

The last revision of the *liturgy* was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11. The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11. The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11.

The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11. The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11.

The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11. The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11.

The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11. The last set of alterations was made in the 13th year of K. James I. cap. 11.



that of those who *live* by labour. *Temple*.—He had been most of his time in good service, and had something to *live* on now he was old. *Temple*.

11. To be in a state of motion or vegetation.—

In a spacious cave of *living* stone,  
The tyrant Æolus, from his airy throne,  
With pow'r imperial curbs the struggling winds.

*Dryden.*

Cool groves and *living* lakes

Give after toilsome days a soft repose at night.

*Dryden.*

12. To be unextinguished.—

These gifts the greedy flames to dust devour.  
Then on the *living* coals red wine they pour.

*Dryden.*

LIVE-EVER, in botany. See SEDUM, N° 9.

\* LIVELESS. *adj.* [from *live*.] Wanting life; rather, *lifeless*.—

Description cannot suit itself in words,

To demonstrate the life of such a battle,

In life so *liveless* at it shews itself. *Shak.*

\* LIVELIHOOD. *n. f.* [It appears to be corrupted from *livelode*.] Support of life; maintenance; means of living.—

Ah! luckless babe! born under cruel star,

Full little weenest thou what forrows are,

Left thee for portion of thy *livelihood*. *Fairy Q.*

—That rebellion drove the lady from thence, to find a *livelihood* out of her own estate. *Clarendon.*

—He brings disgrace upon his character, to submit to the picking up of a *livelihood* in that strolling way of canting and begging. *L'Esrange.*—It is their possession and *livelihood* to get their living by practices, for which they deserve to forfeit their lives. *Soub.*—They have been as often banished out of most other places; which must very much disperse a people, and oblige them to seek a *livelihood* where they can find it. *Addison.*—Trade employs multitudes of hands, and furnishes the poorest of our fellow-subjects with the opportunities of gaining an honest *livelihood*. *Addison.*

LIVELY. See LIVELY, § 2.

\* LIVELINESS. *n. f.* [from *lively*.] 1. Appearance of life.—That *liveliness* which the freedom of the pencil makes appear, may seem the living hand of nature. *Dryden.* 2. Vivacity; sprightfulness.—Extravagant young fellows, that have *liveliness* and spirit, come sometimes to be set right, and so make able and great men. *Locke.*

\* LIVELODE. *n. f.* [*live* and *lode*, from *lead*]; the means of leading life.] Maintenance; support; livelihood.—

She gave like blessing to each creature,

As well of worldly *live-lode* as of life,

That there might be no difference nor strife.

*Hubbard.*

\* (1.) LIVELONG. *adj.* [*live* and *long*.] 1. Tedious; long in passing.—

There have fate

The *livelong* day, with patient expectation

To see great Pompey pass. *Shak.*

The obscure'd bird clamour'd the *livelong*

night. *Shak.*

Young and old come forth to play,

Till the *livelong* day-light fail. *Milton.*

Seek for pleasure to destroy

The forrows of this *livelong* night. *Prior.*

How could she fit the *livelong* day,  
Yet never ask us once to play?

2. Lasting; durable. Not used.—

Thou, in our wonder and astonish

Hast built thyself a *livelong* monumet

(2.) LIVE-LONG, in botany. See SEDUM

(1.) \* LIVELY. *adj.* [*live* and *like*.]

vigorous; vivacious.—

But wherefore comes old Manse in

With youthful steps? much *livelier*

while

He seems; supposing here to find his

Or of him bringing to us some glad n

2. Gay; airy.—

Dulness delighted, ey'd the *lively*

Rememb'ring she herself was pertais c

Form'd by thy converse, happily t

From grave to gay, from *lively* to sev

3. Representing life.—Since a true kno

nature gives us pleasure, a *lively* imitati

poetry or painting must produce a muc

*Dryden.* 4. Strong; energetic.—His

be not only living, but *lively* too. *Soub.*

hours of the prison are manifestly more fi

and *lively*, than those of natural bodies.

—Imprint upon their minds, by proper

and reflections, a *lively* persuasion of the

of a future state. *Atterbury.*

(2.) \* LIVELY. LIVELY. *adv.* 1. B

goriously.—They brought their men to t

who discharging *lively* almost close to :

the enemy, did much amaze them. *Ha*

With strong resemblance of life.—Th

poetry must needs be best, which desc

*lively* our actions and passions, our virtu

vices. *Dryden.*

LIVENEN, a valley of the Helvetic

in the canton of Uri, at the foot of N

thard, 20 miles long, but narrow, con

tains about 12,000 souls.

LIVENZA, a river of Maritime Aus

rises near Polcenigo, runs on the coast

vifano and Friuli, joins the Monticano

to, and falls into the Adriatic 17 miles

vizio.

(1.) \* LIVER. *n. f.* [from *live*.] 1.

lives.—

Be thy afflictions undisturb'd and c

Guided to what may great or good :

And try if life be worth the *liver's* c

2. One who lives in any particular ma

respect to virtue or vice, happiness or

The end of his descent was to gather a

holy christian *livers* over the whole w

mond.—If any loose *liver* have any ge

own, the sheriff is to seize thereupon.

Here are the wants of children, of dist

rious, of sturdy wandering beggars and

orderly *livers*, at one view represented.

3. [From *lifer*, Saxon.] One of the cut

With mirth and laughter let ob

come :

And let my *liver* rather heat with w

Than my heart cool with mortifying

Reason and respect

Make *livers* pale, and lustilood deje

(2.) LIVER, in anatomy. See ANATOMY, *Index*. Plato, and others of the ancients, fix the principle of love in the liver; whence the Latin proverb, *Cogit amare jecur*: and in this sense Horace frequently uses the word, as when he says, *Si torrere jecur queris Idoneum*. The Greeks, from its concave figure, called it *νεφρὸν*, vaulted or suspended; the Latins, *jecur*, q. d. *juxta cor*, as being near the heart. The French call it *foye*, from *foyer*, *focus*, a fire place; agreeable to the doctrine of the ancients, who believed the blood to be boiled and prepared in it.—Erasistratus, at first, called it *παρεγχυμα*, i. e. *effusion* or *mass of blood*; and Hippocrates, by way of eminence, frequently calls it the *hypochondrium*.

(3.) LIVER OF ANTIMONY. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and *Vocabulary I*.

(4.) LIVER OF ARSENIC, a combination of white arsenic with liquid fixed vegetable alkali, or by the humid way. Arsenic has in general a strong disposition to unite with alkalis. Mr Macquer, in his *Memoirs upon Arsenic*, mentions a singular kind of neutral salt, which results from the union of arsenic with the alkaline basis of nitre, when nitre is decomposed, and its acid is disengaged in close vessels, by means of arsenic. This salt he named *neutral arsenical salt*. The liver of arsenic, although composed, like the neutral arsenical salt, of arsenic and fixed alkali, is very different from that salt. The operation for making liver of arsenic is easy and simple. To strong concentrated liquid fixed alkali, previously heated, the powder of white arsenic must be added. This arsenic easily disappears and dissolves, and as much of it is to be added till the alkali is saturated, or has lost its alkaline properties, although it is still capable of dissolving more arsenic superabundantly. While the alkali dissolves the arsenic in its operation, it acquires a brownish colour, and a singular and disagreeable smell; which, however, is not the smell of pure arsenic heated and volatilized. This mixture becomes more and more thick, and at length of a gluey consistence. This matter is not crystallizable as the neutral arsenical salt is. It is easily decomposed by the action of fire, which separates the arsenic. This does not happen to the arsenical salt. Any pure acid is capable of separating arsenic from the liver of arsenic, in the same manner as they separate sulphur from liver of sulphur: whereas the neutral arsenical salt cannot be decomposed but by the united affinities of acids and metallic substances. Thus arsenic may be combined with fixed alkali in two very different manners. In the new nomenclature, the liver of arsenic is called *Arsenical Acid of Potash*; and the neutral arsenical salt, *Acidulous Arseniate of Potash*. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and *Vocabulary I* and *II*.

(5.) LIVER OF SULPHUR. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*, and *Vocabulary I*.

\* LIVERCOLOUR. *adj.* [*liver* and *colour*.] Dark red.—The uppermost stratum is of gravel; then clay of various colours, purple, blue, red, *livercolour*. Woodward.

LIVERDUN, a town of France, in the dep. of Meurthe, and late prov. of Lorraine; on a mountain near the Moselle, 8 miles N.E. of Toul. Lon. 6. 5. E. Lat. 48. 45. N.

\* LIVERGROWN. *adj.* [*liver* and *grown*.] Having a great liver.—I enquired what other casualties was most like the rickets, and found that *livergrown* was nearest. Graunt.

LIVERNON, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot, 21 miles ENE. of Cahors.

(1.) LIVERPOOL, a large, flourishing, and populous town of England, in Lancashire, situated at the mouth of the Mersey. This town has so much increased in trade since the commencement of the last century, that it is now the greatest seaport in England, except London. The merchants trade to all parts of the world except Turkey and the East Indies; but their chief trade is to Guinea and the West Indies for slaves, by which many of them have acquired very large fortunes. On this subject Mr Walker says, "The merchants of Liverpool have disgraced themselves more than any other people in Europe, by their iniquitous exertions in the *Man-trade*." (*Univ. Gazet.*) Liverpool carries on more foreign trade than any town in England. About 3,000 vessels are annually cleared from that port to different parts of the world. There are several manufactories of China-ware; besides salt works, glass houses, and upwards of 50 breweries, from some of which large quantities of malt liquor are exported. Many of the buildings are formed in the most elegant manner, but the old streets are narrow. This defect, however, will soon be removed, the principal streets being lately rebuilt. Liverpool contains 10 churches, besides meeting houses for presbyterians, independents, anabaptists, quakers, methodists, &c. The exchange is a noble structure, built of white stone in the form of a square, with piazzas where the merchants assemble to transact business. Above it are the mayor's offices, the sessions-hall, the council-chamber, and two elegant ball-rooms. The expence of erecting this building amounted to 30,000*l.* The custom-house is situated at the head of the old dock, and is a handsome and convenient structure. There are many charitable foundations, among which is an excellent grammar-school well endowed. The infirmary is a large edifice of brick and stone, situated on a hill in a pleasant airy situation, at one end of the town. In the town is a charity school, wherein 50 boys and 12 girls are clothed, educated, maintained, and lodged: several alms houses for the widows of seamen; and an excellent poor house, where upwards of 800 men, women, and children, are supported, and many of them employed in spinning cotton and wool. There are five large wet docks, three dry docks, and graving docks for repairing vessels. The quays which bound these docks are covered with warehouses; which enable the merchants to discharge their ships at a small expence. The new prison is a noble edifice, built on Mr Howard's plan for solitary confinement; and is esteemed the most convenient, airy, magnificent building of the kind in Europe. Liverpool received its charter from king John; and is governed by a mayor, recorder, an unlimited number of aldermen, two bailiffs, and a common-council of 40 of the principal inhabitants. It has a market on Saturday, and is distant from London 204 miles. The MERSEY, by which it has a very extensive inland navigation, supplies it with salmon,

salmon, cod, flounders, turbot, plaife, and smelts; and at full sea it is above two miles over. In the neighbourhood are frequent horse races on a five mile course, the finest for the length in England. The soil near the town is dry and sandy, and particularly favourable to potatoes, on which the farmers often depend more than on wheat or corn. Fresh water is brought into the town by pipes, from some springs 4 miles off. Liverpool sends two members to parliament. Lon. 2. 54. W. Lat. 53. 23. N.

(2.) LIVERPOOL, a town of Nova Scotia, on the S. coast, 20 miles NE. of Shelburn, and 45 SE. of Halifax.

LIVER-STONE, *lapis hepaticus*; a genus of inflammable substances, containing argillaceous, ponderous, and siliceous earth, united with vitriolic acid. See EARTH'S, § VI. N<sup>o</sup> 4. Mr Kirwan quotes an analysis of Sir T. Bergman, where it is said that 100 parts of it contain 33 of baroselenite, 38 of siliceous earth, 22 of alum, 7 of gypsum, and 5 of mineral oil.

(1.) \*LIVERWORT. *n. f.* [*liver* and *wort*; *lich-en.*] A plant.—That sort of *liverwort* which is used to cure the bite of mad dogs, grows on commons, and open heaths, where the grass is short, on declivities, and on the sides of pits. This spreads on the surface of the ground, and, when in perfection, is of an ash colour; but, as it grows old, it alters, and becomes of a dark colour. *Miller.*

(2.) LIVER-WORT, in botany. See LICHEN, and MARCHANTIA.

(3.) LIVER-WORT, MARSH. See RICCIA.

(4.) LIVER-WORT, NOBLE. See ANEMONE.

(1.) \*LIVERY. *n. f.* [*liverer*, French.] 1. The act of giving or taking possession.—

You do wrongfully seize H. Ford's right,

Call in his letters patents that he hath

By his attorneys general to sue

His *livery*, and deny his offered homage. *Shak.*  
2. Release from wardship.—Had the two houses first sued out their *livery*, and once effectually redeemed themselves from the wardship of the tumults, I should then suspect my own judgment. *K. Charles.* 3. The writ by which possession is obtained. 4. The state of being kept at a certain rate.—What *livery* is, we by common use in England know well enough, namely, that it is an allowance of horse meat; as they commonly use the word stabling, as to keep horses at *livery*; the which word, I guess, is derived of *livering* or *delivering* forth their nightly food so as in great houses, the *livery* is said to be served up for all night, that is, their evening allowance for drink: and *livery* is also called the upper weed which a serving man wears; so called, I suppose, for that it was delivered and taken from him at pleasure: so it is apparent, that, by the word *livery*, is there meant horse meat, like as by the coigny is understood, man's meat. Some say it is derived of coin, for that they used in their coignies not only to take meat but money; but I rather think it is derived of the Irish, the which is a common use amongst landlords of the Irish to have a common spending upon their tenants, who being commonly but tenants at will, they used to take of them what victuals they list; for of victuals they were

went to make a small reckoning. *Spenser land.* 5. The cloaths given to servants.—M for weeds your virtue's *livery* wears. *Sidney* haps they are by so much the more loth take this argument, for that it hath, tho' thing else, yet the name of scripture, to some kind of countenance more than the of *livery* coats affordeth. *Hooker.*—

I think, it is our way,

If we will keep in favour with the king  
To be her men, and wear her *livery*.

Yet do our hearts wear Timon's *liver*  
That see I by our faces.

Ev'ry lady cloath'd in white,  
And crown'd with oak and laurel ev'ry  
Are servants to the leaf, by *liveries* kno  
Of innocence.

On others int'rest her gay *liv'ry* fling  
Int'rest that waves on party-colour'd w

—If your dinner miscarries, you were te  
the footmen coming into the kitchen;  
prove it true, throw a ladleful of broth or  
two of their *liveries*. *Swift.* 6. A p  
dress; a garb worn as a token or consequ  
any thing.—

Of fair Urania, fairer than a green,

Proudly bedeck'd in April's *livery*.

Mistake me not for any complexion,  
The shadow'd *livery* of the burning sun  
To whom I am a neighbour, and near bre

At once came forth whatever creeps the  
Insect, or worm; whose way'd their lim  
For wings, and smallest lineaments exa  
In all the *liveries* deck'd of summer's pi  
With spots of gold and purple.

Now came still evening on, and twili  
Had in her sober *livery* all things clad.

(2.) LIVERY, (§ 1, *def.* 5.) in dress and e  
a certain colour and form of dress, by w  
blemen and gentlemen distinguish their  
*Liveries* are usually taken from fancy, an  
in families by succession. The ancie  
liers, at their tournaments, distinguish  
selves by wearing the *liveries* of their m  
thus people of quality make their de  
their *livery*. The Romish church has all  
veral colours and *liveries*; white, for c  
and virgins, and in times of rejoicing; bl  
the dead; red, for the apostles and marty  
or violet, for penitents; and green, in  
hope. *Liveries* were abolished in France  
Constituent National Assembly, as badge  
vitude, inconsistent with their system of

(3.) LIVERY OF SEISIN, in law, (§ 1, *de*  
nifies delivering the possession of lands, &c  
who has a right to them. See LAW, P  
*Chap.* II. *Señ.* III.

(1.) \*LIVERYMAN. *n. f.* [*livery* and *man*]  
One who wears a *livery*; a servant of an  
kind.—The witnesses made oath, that t  
heard some of the *liverymen* frequently r  
their mistress. *Arbutnot.* 2. [In London.  
man of some standing in a company.

(2.) The LIVERYMEN OF LONDON, (§ 1  
are a number of men chosen from among  
men of each company. Out of this b  
common council, sheriff, and other supe



re government of the city, are elected; none have the privilege of giving their members of parliament, from which the citizens are excluded.

*S. n. f.* [the plural of *life*.]

ort is life, that every peasant strives, in house or field, to have three *lives*.

*Donne.*

A, a town of France, in the dep. of the Yvelines;  $4\frac{1}{2}$  miles NE. of Puycerda.

the 2d wife of the emp. Augustus and Tiberius, a woman of great beauty and of monstrous depravity. She was the wife of L. Drusus Calpurnianus, and the wife of Claudius Nero, one of Antony's adherents; she was pregnant, when Augustus saw her fled from danger, and married her; for whose sake he divorced his wife Scribonia. On the succession to her son, she secretly procured the death of Augustus's grand-children, and her relations, and at last ungratefully made the dotting emperor himself; for which she obtained a return of equal ingratitude from her son. (See *ROME*.) She died A. D. 86.

*D. adj.* [*lividus*, Lat. *livide*, Fr.] Discoloured with a blow; black and blue.—It was a fever, not seated in the veins or humors that there followed no carbuncles, no livid spots, the mass of the blood not altered. *Bacon*.—

my livid lips bestow a kiss. *Dryden*.  
They beat their breasts with many a bruising blow,

they turn'd livid, and corrupt the snow.

*Dryden.*

*LIVIDITY. n. f.* [*lividité*, Fr. from *livid*.] A discoloration, as by a blow.—The signs of a tenacious state, are darkness or lividity of the countenance. *Arbutnot*.

*LIVAC, a town of France, in the dep. of 4 $\frac{1}{2}$  miles N. of Albin, and 9 E. of Figeac.*  
*LIVIANUS, John, a learned writer of the 16th born at Dendermond. He was deeply versed in the Greek language, and translated several Greek fathers into Latin. He died at Paris in 1599.*

*LIVING. part. adj.* 1. Vigorous; active; being in faith. 2. Being in motion; having vital energy, or principle of action; as, green, the living springs.

*LIVING. n. f.* [from *live*.] 1. Support; maintenance; fortune on which one lives.—The slaves were fought as in an unknown place, having their arms but in their hands; the Helots, as in the same place, fighting for their livings, wives, and children. *Sidney*.—All they did cast in of their lives; but she of her want did cast in all she had, even all her living. *Mark*. 2. Power of being alive.—There is no living without a body or other, in some cases. *L'Esprit*.

ourselves we may a living make. *Hubberd*.  
May I set the world on wheels, when she  
is for her living. *Shak*.—

and his wife, now dig for your life,  
thly you'll dig for your living. *Denham*.  
must represent such things as they are

capable to perform, and by which both they and the scribbler may get their living. *Dryden*.

4. Benefice of a clergyman.—Some of our ministers having the livings of the country offered unto them, without pains, will, neither for any love of God, nor for all the good they may do, by winning souls to God, be drawn forth from their warm nests. *Spenser*.—The parson of the parish preaching against adultery, Mrs Bull told her husband, that they would join to have him turned out of his living for using personal reflections. *Arbutnot*.

\* *LIVINGLY. adv.* [from *living*.] In the living state.—In vain do they scruple to approach the dead, who livingly are cadaverous. *Brown's V. E.*

(1.) *LIVINGSTONE, John, a Scottish presbyterian divine, born in 1603, and educated at Glasgow, where he took the degree of M. A. He was banished in 1663, for his adherence to Presbyterian principles; and went to Holland, where he died in 1672. He wrote several works on theology, which were popular when published.*

(2.) *LIVINGSTONE, a parish of Scotland, in Linlithgowshire,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  miles long, and from  $\frac{1}{2}$  to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  broad, containing near 4000 acres, all arable ground, and mostly inclosed. The climate, though moist, is salubrious, and "extreme longevity" is frequent. The soil is various, and husbandry is much improved, by draining, &c. introduced by Sir W. Cunynghame. The population, in 1798, was 420; the decrease 178, since 1755.*

(3.) *LIVINGSTONE, or Kirktoom of Livingstone, a village in the above parish, containing about 40 inhabitants, in 1798.*

*LIVINIÈRE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Herault, 24 miles W. of Beziers.*

(1.) *LIVIVS, Titus, the best of the Roman historians, was born at Patavium. Few particulars of his life have been handed down to us. Coming to Rome, he acquired the notice and favour of Augustus, and long resided there. He had previously written Dialogues, historical and philosophical, and some books on philosophy. It is probable, that he began his History as soon as he was settled at Rome; and he seems to have devoted himself entirely to that great work, as to be perfectly regardless of his advancement. The distractions of Rome frequently obliged him to retire to Naples. He used to read parts of his history, while he was composing it, to Mæcenas and Augustus; and the latter conceived so high an opinion of him, that he appointed him to superintend the education of his grandson Claudius, afterwards emperor. After the death of Augustus, Livy returned to the place of his birth, where he was received with all imaginable honour and respect; and where he died, in the 4th year of Tiberius's reign, aged above 70. Some say, he died on the same day with Ovid; it is certain he died the same year. Scarce any man was ever more honoured, in life or after his death, than this historian. Pliny relates, that a gentleman travelled from Gades, in Spain, merely to see Livy. A monument was erected to Livy in the temple of Juno, where was afterwards founded the monastery of St Justina; and where, in 1413, was discovered the following epitaph: *Offa Titi Livii Patavini, &c. i. e.* "The bones of Titus Livius of Patavium, a man worthy to be approved.*

proved by all mankind, by whose almost invincible pen the acts and exploits of the invincible Romans were written." Their bones are still preserved with high veneration, by the Paduans. In 1451, Alphonfus, king of Arragon, sent his ambassador, Anthony Panormita, to desire of the citizens of Padua the bone of that arm with which this their famous countryman had written his history: and, obtaining it, caused it to be conveyed to Naples with the greatest ceremony as a most invaluable relic. He is said to have recovered from an ill state of health by the pleasure he found in reading this history: and therefore, out of gratitude, took this method of doing extraordinary honours to the memory of the writer. Panormita also, who was a native of Palermo in Sicily, and one of the ablest men of the 15th century, sold an estate to purchase this work. The history of Livy is transmitted down to us exceedingly mutilated and imperfect. Its books were originally 142, of which only 35 are extant. The epitomes of it, from which we learn their number, all remain, except those of the 136th and 137th books. Livy's books have been divided into decades, which some will have to have been done by Livy himself, because there is a preface to every decade; while others suppose it to be a modern contrivance, as nothing about it is mentioned by the ancients. The first decade is extant, and treats of the affairs of 460 years. The 2d is lost; the years of which are 75. The 3d is extant, and contains the 2d Punic war, including 18 years. It is reckoned the most excellent part of the history. The 4th contains the Macedonian and Asiatic wars, which take up the space of about 23 years. The first 5 books of the 5th decade were found at Worms, by Simon Grynaeus, in 1431, but are very defective; and the remainder, which reaches to the death of Drusus in Germany in 746, together with the 2d decade, are supplied by Freinthemius. The encomiums bestowed upon Livy, by both ancients and moderns, are great and numerous. But his probity, candour, and impartiality, have distinguished him above all historians; for neither complaisance to the times, nor his particular connection with the emperor, could restrain him from speaking so well of Pompey, that Augustus called him a *Pompeian*. This we learn from Cremutius Cordus, in Tacitus; who relates also, much to the emperor's honour, that this gave no interruption to their friendship. But whatever eulogies Livy received as an historian, he has not escaped censure as a writer. His cotemporary, Ainius Pollio charged him with *Pataxinity*; which word has been variously explained, but is generally supposed to relate to his style. The most common opinion is, that Pollio, accustomed to the delicate language spoken in the court of Augustus, could not bear certain Paduan idioms, which Livy used in divers places of his history. Pignorius says that this Pativity regarded the orthography of certain words, wherein Livy used one letter for another, such as *sibe* and *quise* for *sibi* and *quasi*; which he attempts to prove by several ancient inscriptions. Neither the expressions, however, nor the orthography, are loaded with obscurity, and the classic scholar is as familiarly acquainted with these supposed provincialisms as with the purest Latinity.—Livy has been

censured too, and perhaps with justice, for being too credulous, and loading his history with superstitious tales. But though he mentions that milk and blood were rained from heaven, or that an ox spoke, or a woman changed her sex; yet he candidly confesses, that he recorded only what made an indelible impression upon the minds of a credulous age. Quintilian says, that he had a son to whom he addressed some excellent precepts of rhetoric. An ancient inscription speaks also of one of his daughters, named *Livia Quarta*: the same, perhaps, who espoused the orator Lucius Magius, whom Seneca mentions; and observes that the applauses he usually received from the public in his harangues, were not so much on his own account, as for the sake of his father-in-law. Livy's history has been often published with and without the supplement. The best editions are that of Gronovius, *cum notis variorum* & *juv.* Lugd. Bat. 1679, 3 vols 8vo; that of Le Clerc, Amsterdam, 1709, 10 vols 12mo; and that of Courcier, at Paris, 1735, 6 vols 4to. A fragment of Livy's history, lately discovered, was published in 1773 by Dr Bruns.

(2.) LIVIUS ANDRONICUS, a comic poet was flourished at Rome about A.A.C. 240. He was first who turned the personal satires and satirical verses, into the form of a proper dialogue and regular play. Though the character of a play was reckoned despicable among the Romans, Andronicus acted a part in his dramatical compositions, and engaged the attention of his audience by repeating what he had laboured after the manner of the Greeks. He was the freed man of Livius Salinator, whose children he educated. His poetry was grown obsolete in the age of Cicero, who would not even recommend the reading of it.

LIVONG, 2 towns of Sweden: 1. in E. Gothland, 8 miles NNW. of Linköping: 2. in Gothland, 8 miles S. of Uddevalla.

LIVOGNE, a town of the French republic in Piedmont, and late duchy of Aosta, 7 miles of Aosta.

LIVONIA, a large province or duchy of the Russian empire; bounded on the N. by the gulf of Finland, W. by that of Riga, S. by Courland and E. partly by Plescow, and partly by Novgorod. It is about 250 miles long from N. to S. and 150 broad. It is so fertile in corn, that it is called the *granary of the north*; and would produce a great deal more, if it were not so full of lakes, abounding in salmon, carp, pikes, flat fish, &c. In the forests there are wolves, bears, reindeer, stags, and hares. The domestic animals are very numerous; but the sheep bear coarse wool. Forests are numerous, and consist of birch trees, pines, and oaks. All the houses are built with wood. The merchandizes which they send abroad are flax, hemp, honey, wax, leather, skins, and potashes. The Swedes were formerly possessed of this province, but were obliged to abandon it to the Russians after the treaty of Pultowa; and it was ceded to them by peace of 1722, which was confirmed by a treaty in 1742. It is divided into two provinces, viz. Latonia and Esthonia; and two islands, *Oxel* and *Dagbo*, which are subdivided into several districts.

**LICA TERRA**, a kind of fine bole used in Germany and Italy; found in Livorno and other parts. It is generally brought in the shape of cakes, sealed with the impression of an escutcheon, with two cross keys.

**LIORNO**, a town of the French republic, in the prov. of Piedmont; 4 miles N. of Turin, and 11 N.E. of Chivasso.

**LIORNO**. See **LEGHORN**, & **LIBURNUS**, § 1.

**LIVRE**, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothland.

**LIVRE**. *n. f.* [French.] The sum by which they reckon their money, equal nearly to 5 s.

**LIVRE** contains 20 sols. See **MONEY**.

**LIVONIE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Nord; 10 m. W. of Crest, and 10½ S. of Valence.

**LIVONIE**, a town of France in the dep. of the Oise, 9 miles NE. of Paris.

**LIVONIE**, an island of Sweden.

**LIVONIE**, a town of Poland, in Masovia.

**LIXUS**, in ancient geography, a town in the Atlantic, near the Lixus; a Roman colony by Claudius; famous in the time of the palace of Anteus and his death Hercules, (*Pliny*.) It is now called Lixus, 65 leagues S. of Gibraltar.

**LIXUS**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Moselle, 4 miles NE. of Metz, and 9 W. of Savern.

**LIXIVIAL**. *adj.* [from *lixivium*, Latin.] 1. Impregnated with salts like a lixivium.—The symptoms of an excretion of the bile vitiated, were a yellow colour of the skin, and a *lixivial* urine.

2. Obtained by lixivium.—Helmont con- sidered *lixivial* salts do not pre-exist in their natural form. *Boyle*.

**LIXIVIAL**. *adj.* [*lixivieux*, French; from *lixivium*.] Making a lixivium.—In these the salt is vitiated, with some portion of cho- lesterin, between the guts and the bladder.

*Lixivial* salts, to which pot-ashes be- long, are used in the preparation of the bodies of vegetables, dispose art readily with their tincture. *Boyle*.

**LIXIVIAL**. *n. f.* See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

**LIXIVIAL**. *adj.* an appellation given to salts obtained from burnt vegetables by pouring water upon them.

**LIXIVIAL**. *n. f.* [Latin.] Lye; water im- pregnated with alkaline salt, produced from the calcination of vegetables; a liquor which has the power of dissolving.—I made a *lixivium* of fair water and wormwood, and having frozen it with salt, I could not discern any thing more of wormwood than to several other plants.

**LIXIVIAL**. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

**LIXIVIAL**, or } a barony and village of Ireland, in the county of Kerry. The village is the ancient seat of the earls of Kerry, and is pleasantly seated on the river Lixy, which is cut into several canals, that adorn the gardens. The improvements made in the garden, most of the vistas and avenues terminated by different buildings, seats, and farm-houses, the tide flows up to the gardens, where- of considerable burden may bring up the bridge near to the house. There are several bridges over the Lixy, the oldest of

which was built by Nicholas the 3d baron, who first made causeways to this place, the land being marshy. Lon. 9. 15. W. Lat. 52. 13. N.

**LIXURI**, a town in the isle of Cefalonia.

**LIXUS**. See **LIXA**.

**LI-YANG**, a town of China, in Kiang-Nan.

(1.) \* **LIZARD**. *n. f.* [*lizard*, French; *lacertus*, Latin.] An animal resembling a serpent, with legs added to it.—There are several sorts of lizards; some in Arabia of a cubit long. In America they eat lizards; it is very probable likewise that they were eaten in Arabia and Judæa, since Moses ranks them among the unclean creatures. *Calmet*.—

Thou'rt like a foul mis-shapen stigmatic,  
Mark'd by the destinies to be avoided,  
As venomous toads, or lizards dreadful stings.

*Shak.*

Adder's fork, and blind worm's sting,  
Lizard's leg, and owl's wing.

(2.) **LIZARD**. See **LACERTA**, § II, 1, 4-7; 15, 18, 22.

(3.) **LIZARD**, in geography, or the **LIZARD POINT**, a cape of Cornwall, reckoned the most southern point of land in England, seated at the N. entrance of the British Channel. Lon. 5. 15. W. Lat. 49. 58. N.

(4.) **LIZARD ISLAND**, one of the **DIRECTION ISLANDS**, in the South Sea, so named by Captain Cook from its abounding with these reptiles. It is 24 miles in circumference.

\* **LIZARDSTONE**. *n. f.* [*lizard and stone*.] A kind of stone.

(1.) \* **LIZARDTAIL**. *n. f.* A plant.

(2.) **LIZARD-TAIL**. See **PIPER**, and **SAURURUS**.

**LIZIER**, St. a town of France, in the dept. of Arriege, 2 miles N. of St Giron.

**LIZOU-TCHEOU**, a city of China, of the first rank, in the prov. of Quang-Si, on the river Long; 1037 miles SSW. of Peking. Lon. 126. 33. E. Ferro. Lat. 24. 12. N.

**LLAMELIN**, a town of S. America, in Lima.

**LLANARTH**. See **LANARTH**.

**LLANBEDER**, a town and river of S. Wales, in Cardigansh. 24 m. E. by N. of Cardigan, and 197 WNW. of London. Lon. 4. 13. W. Lat. 52. 15. N.

**LLANBERDARN VAWE**, a sea port of Cardiganshire, 2 miles E. of Aberystwith.

**LLANDAFF**. See **LANDAFF**.

**LLANDILOVAWR**, a town of Caermarthen- shire, on the Towey, 16 miles NE. of Carmarthen, and 196 WNW. of London. Lon. 4. 3. W. Lat. 51. 55. N.

**LLANELLY**, a town of Caermarthenshire, 13 miles S. by E. of Caermarthen, and 216 WNW. of London. Lon. 4. 13. W. Lat. 51. 43. N.

**LLANES**, a town of Spain, in Asturias.

**LLANGADOCK**, a town of Caermarthen- shire, between the Brane and the Sawthy, 18 miles NE. of Caermarthen, and 185 WNW. of London.

**LLANGOLLEN**, a town of N. Wales, in Denbighshire, with a beautiful bridge over the Dee, seated in the midst of very romantic scenery, 7 m. SW. of Wrexham, and 184 NW. of London.

**LLANIMDOVERY**, a town of Wales, in Caermarthen- shire, near the Towey; 26 miles NE. of Caermarthen, and 181 WNW. of London. Lon. 3. 53. W. Lat. 51. 56. N.

LLANOS, a town of Spain, in Grenada.

LLANRWST, a market town of N. Wales, in Denbighshire, 15 miles SW. of Denbigh, and 222 NW. of London. Lon. 3. 58. W. Lat. 53. 6. N.

LLANTRISSENT, an ancient town of Glamorgansh. among hills, 10 miles NW. of Elandaff, and 116 W. of London. Lon. 3. 26. W. Lat. 51. 37. N.

LLANVEDER, a river in Merionethshire.

LLANVILLING, a town of Montgomeryshire, among hills, near the Cane; 15 miles N. of Montgomery, and 179 NW. of London. Lon. 3. 8. W. Lat. 52. 40. N.

LLANYDLOS, a town of Montgomeryshire, with a great market for woollen yarn; 18 miles SW. of Montgomery, and 180 WNW. of London.

LLAUGHARN, a well built trading town of Caermarthenshire, on the mouth of the Towey; 7 miles SW. of Caermarthen, and 233 WNW. of London. Lon. 4. 33. W. Lat. 51. 57. N.

\* L L D. [*legum Doctor*.] A doctor of the canon and civil laws.

LLEDING, a river in Montgomeryshire.

LLERONY, a river in Caernarvonshire.

LLERENA, a town of Spain, in Eitremadura.

LLEYNGORYL, a river in Merionethshire.

LLIRIA, a town of Spain, in Valencia.

LLIGHOR, a river in Caermarthenshire.

LLORET, a town of Spain, in Catalonia.

(1.) LLOYD, Nicholas, a learned lexicographer, in the 17th century, born in Flintshire, and educated at Wadham college, Oxford. He was rector of Newington, near Lambeth in Surry, till his death, in 1680. His *Dictionary Historicum* is a valuable work, to which Hoffman and Moretti are greatly indebted.

(2.) LLOYD, Robert, an English poet, son of Dr Pierlon Lloyd, 2d master of Westminster school, where Robert was educated. He took his degree of M. A. at Cambridge. He published a poem, entitled *the Actor*, in 1760, the merit of which was so great, that when the *Rosciad* appeared he was supposed to be the author of it too. He was employed as usher at Westminster school, but lost it by his irregularities; and afterwards lived almost entirely by the generosity of his friend Churchill, the poet. He died in 1764. His poems were published by Dr Kenrick in two vols. 8vo. He also wrote *the Capricious Lover*, a comic opera; 1764, 8vo. and other dramatic pieces.

(3.) LLOYD, William, D. D. a learned English bishop, born in Berkshire, in 1627; and educated under his father, who was vicar of Tyle-hurft in Berkshire. He took orders at Oxford; in 1660, was made prebendary of Rippon; and in 1666 chaplain to the king. In 1667 he graduated; in 1672 he was installed dean of Bangor; and in 1680 was consecrated Bp. of St Asaph. He was one of the 7 bishops, who were imprisoned in the Tower, for subscribing a petition to the king against his declaration for liberty of conscience. Soon after the revolution he was made almoner to K. William and Q. Mary; in 1692, bishop of Litchfield and Coventry; and in 1699, of Worcester, where he sat till his death, in 1717, the 91st year of his age. Dr Burnet gives him a high character, and his works are much esteemed.

(4, 5.) LLOYD, or LHOYD. See LHOYD

(6.) LLOYD, in geography, a river of N. Wales, which runs into the Severn, near Llanyd

LLUE, a river of N. Wales, in Merio

LLULLA, a district of S. America, in

Its chief trade is in tobacco and almonds

LLYNAN, a river in Caernarvonshire

(1.) \* LO. *interject.* [*la*, Saxon.] Look behold. It is a word used to recall the

generally to some object of sight; some something heard, but not properly; often thing to be understood.—

Lo! within a ken our army lies.

Now must the world point at poor C  
And say, lo! there is mad Petruchio's wi

Lo! I have a weapon,

A better never did itself sustain  
Upon a soldier's thigh.

Why lo you now, I've spoke to the  
twice.

For lo! he fung the world's stup  
birth.

Lo! heav'n and earth combine  
To blast our bold design.

(2, 3.) LO, 2 rivers of China, in Cher

Hou-quang.

(4.) LO, ST, a town of France in the

the Channel, on the Vire. It has man

of ferges, shalloons, ribbons, gold lace,

lies 12 miles from Coutances and 125 fr

Lon. 0. 53. W. Lat. 49. 6. N.

(1.) \* LOACH. *n. s.* [*loche*, Fr.]—The

a most dainty fish; he breeds and feeds

and clear swift brooks or rills, and lives

pon the gravel, and in the sharpest stre

grows not to be above a finger long;

thicker than is suitable to that length:

the shape of an eel, and has a beard o

like a barbel: he has two fins at his fi

at his belly, and one at his tail, dar;

many black or brown spots: his mouth

like, under his nose. This fish is usual

eggs or spawn, and is by Gesner, and o

ficians, commended for great nourish

to be very grateful both to the palate and

of sick persons, and is to be fished f

small worm, at the bottom, for he sel

above the gravel. *Walton*.

(2.) LOACH, in ichthyology. See Co

(1.) \* LOAD. *n. s.* [*blade*, Saxon.] 1

then; a freight; ; lading.—

Fair plant with fruit furcharg'd,

Deigns none to ease thy load, and

sweet?

Then on his back he laid the precie

And fought his wonted shelter.

Let India boast her groves, nor env

The weeping amber, and the balmy t

While by our oaks the precious loads

And realms commanded which these tr

2. Weight; pressure; encumbrance.—

Love lighten'd of its load

Th' enormous mass, the labour of a G

3. Weight, or violence of blows.—

Like lions mov'd, they laid on load

And made a cruel fight. (C)

heavier load thyself expect to feel  
my prevailing arm. *Milton.*  
Mnestheus laid hard load upon his helm.

thing that depresses.—How a man can  
quiet and cheerful mind under a great bur-  
den load of guilt, I know not, unless he be  
nourant. *Ruy.* 5. As much drink as one  
r.—There are those that can never sleep  
t their load nor enjoy one easy thought,  
y have laid all their cares to rest with a  
*L'Esrange.*—

The thund'ring god,  
he withdrew to rest, and had his load. *Dryd.*  
LOAD. *n. f.* [more properly *lode*, as it was  
ly written; from *ladan*, Saxon, to lead.]  
iding vein in a mine.—The tin lay couch-  
first in certain strakes amongst the rocks,  
e veins in a man's body, from the depth  
t the main load spreadeth out his branches,  
ey approach the open air. *Carew.*—Their  
of working in the lead mines, is to follow  
t as it lieth. *Carew.*

LOAD, or LODE, (§ 2.) is used particularly  
tin mines, for any regular vein or course,  
r metallic or not; but most commonly for  
ilic vein. Mines in general are veins or  
within the earth, whose sides receding  
r approaching to each other, make them  
qual breadths in different places, some-  
orming large spaces, which are called *boks*;  
oies are filled like the rest with substances,  
whether metallic, or of any other nature,  
ed loads. When the substances forming  
ads are reducible to metal, the loads are  
English miners said to be *alive*, otherwise  
e termed *dead loads*. In Cornwall and De-  
e the loads all hold their course from E.  
though in other parts of England they fre-  
run from N. to S. The miners report,  
e sides of the load never bear in a perpen-  
but always overhang either to the N. or  
e. The mines seem to have been so many  
ls through which the waters pass within  
th; and like rivers they have their small  
es opening into them in all directions:  
e by the miners termed the *feeders* of the  
Most mines have streams of water running  
h them; and when they are found dry, it  
owing to the water having changed its  
; which it seems sometimes to have been  
led to do, by the load having fill'd up the  
and sometimes to have fallen into other  
any channels. The load is frequently inter-  
by the crossing of a vein of earth or stone,  
e other metalline substance; in which case it  
ly happens, that one part of the load is  
to a considerable distance on one side.  
ransient load is, by the miners, termed a  
; and the part of the load, which is moved,  
hem said to be *beaved*. This fracture or  
if a load, according to Mr Price, is prob-  
y a subsidence of the strata from their pri-  
ositions, which he supposes to have been  
ital or parallel to the surface of the earth,  
efore should more properly be called a  
ion than a heave. This heaving of the  
ould be an inexpressible loss to the miner,

.. XIII. PART I.

did not experience teach him, that as the loads  
always run on the sides of the hills, so the part  
beaved is always moved toward the descent of  
the hill; so that the miner, working toward the as-  
cent of the hill, and meeting a flogging, considers  
himself as working in the heaved part; wherefore,  
cutting through the flogging, he works upon its  
back up the ascent of the hill, till he recovers the  
load, and *vice versa*. See *MINE*.

(4.) LOAD is also used for nine dishes of ore,  
each dish being about half a hundred weight.

\* To LOAD. *v. a.* pret. *load'd*; part. *load:n* or  
*laden*. [*bladan*, Sax.] 1. To burden; to freight.—

At last, *laden* with honour's spoils,  
Returns the good Andronicus to Rome. *Shak.*  
—Your carriages were heavy *loaden*. *Isa.* xlvi. 1.  
2. To encumber; to embarrass.—He that makes  
no reflections on what he reads, only *loads* his  
mind with a rhapsody of tales, fit in winter nights  
for the entertainment of others. *Locke.* 3. To  
charge a gun.—A mariner having discharged his  
gun, and *loading* it suddenly again, the powder  
took fire. *Wifeman.* 4. To make heavy by some-  
thing appended or annexed.—

Thy dreadful vow, *loaden* with death, still  
sounds

In my stunn'd ears. *Addison.*

LOADED SHELL, an ingenious contrivance  
for saving the lives of people in imminent danger,  
on board a ship, when the vessel is either strand-  
ed, or in danger of being so, near the coast. It  
is a bomb shell filled with lead, wherin a staple or  
ring is fixed, to which a rope is fastened; and the  
shell, thus loaded, being thrown on shore, fixes  
itself in the ground, and the other end of the rope  
being fastened to the ship, the persons on board  
are thereby enabled to haul themselves a-shore. It  
was invented by John Bell, Serjeant of the R. Re-  
giment of Artillery, who obtained a premium for  
it, of 50 guineas, in 1792, from the *Society for the*  
*Encouragement of Arts*, &c. after exhibiting its u-  
tility and practicability before a committee of the  
Society. On this occasion a loaded shell weighing  
about 70 lb. was thrown on shore, from a small  
mortar fixed in a boat, moored in the Thames,  
about 200 yards from the coast. The shell falling  
about 100 yards within land, buried itself about  
18 inches in the gravel, when Bell and his assistant,  
on a raft, floated by casks, properly ballasted,  
hauled themselves a-shore in a few minutes, by the  
rope affixed to the shell.

\* LOADFR. *n. f.* [from *load*.] He who loads.

\* LOADSMAN. *n. f.* [*lode* and *man*.] He who  
leads the way; a pilot.

\* LOADSTAR. *n. f.* [more properly as it is in  
*Maunderville*, *lodestar*, from *ludan*, to lead.] The  
polestar; the cynosure; the leading or guiding  
star.—She was the *loadstar* of my life; the  
blessing of mine eyes; the overthrow of my  
desires, and yet the recompence of mine over-  
throw. *Sidney*.—My Helice, the *loadstar* of my  
life. *Spenser*.—

O happy fair!

Your eyes are *loadstars*, and your tongue sweet  
air! *Shak.*

That clear majesty

Which standeth fix'd, yet spreads her heavenly  
worth,

P p

Lodestone

and *loadstar* to all eyes.  
*Darvies.*  
*n. f.* [properly *loadstone* or *loadstone*.] The magnet; the compass needle is directed north and south.—  
 A peculiar and rich ore of iron, in masses, of a deep iron-grey where and often tinged with a brownish or red; it is very heavy, and considerably so; a great character is that of affecting the compass; iron is found in England, and in places where there are mines of that metal.—The use of the *loadstone* was kept secret, and was one of the other mysteries of the art.

**LOADSTONE.** See **MAGNET.**  
*n. f.* [from *blas* or *laf*, Sax.] 1. A loaf of bread as it is formed by the baker: a loaf of bread is as round as a cake.—

Easy it is to steal a shive we know. *Shak.*  
 In the town sufficed not for six months, when the soldiers entered into proportion; a good example, the lord Clinton lieth in a *leaf* a-day. *Hayward.*—With a *leaf* you may break a *leaf* of bread into parts, than a lump of lead of the same weight. *Digby.* 2. Any thick mass into which wine is wrought.—Your wine becomes that you may bottle it with a piece of wax. *Mortimer.*

**LOAM.** *n. f.* [*lim*, *luam*, Sax. *limus*, Lat. *limus*, a fen, *Junius*.] Fat unctuous tenacious marl.—

The purest treasure  
 Is spotless reputation; that away,  
 Men are but gilded *loam* or painted clay.

—Alexander returned to dust: the dust is earth; of earth we make *loam*; and why of that *loam* might they not stop a beer barrel? *Shak.*

(2.) **LOAM**, in natural history, is an earth composed of dissimilar particles, stiff, dense, hard, and rough to the touch; not easily broke while moist, readily diffusible in water, and composed of sand and a tough viscid clay. Of these loams some are whitish and others brown and yellow.

\* **To LOAM.** *v. a.* [from the noun.] To finish with loam, marl, or clay; to clay.—The joist ends, and girders which be in the walls, must be *loamed* all over, to preserve them from the corroding of the mortar. *Maxon.*

\* **LOAMY.** *adj.* [from *loam*.] Marly.—The mellow earth is the best, between the two extremes of clay and sand, if it be not *loamy* and binding. *Bacon.*—Auricula seedlings best like a *loamy* sand. *Evelyn.*

(1.) \* **LOAN.** *n. f.* [*blan*, Sax.] Any thing lent; any thing given to another, on condition of return or repayment.—The better such ancient revenues shall be paid, the less need her majesty ask subsidies, sittings, and *loans*. *Bacon.*—

Thy friend and old acquaintance dares disown  
 The gold you lent him, and forswear the *loan*.

(2.) **LOANS, PUBLIC.** See **FUND**, § 3; and **NATIONAL DEBT.**

(1.) **LOANDA**, a province of the kingdom of **ANGOLA**, in Africa. It is an island about 100 miles long, and 3 broad. It is supplied with fresh water from wells dug in it, which are not sunk more than a few feet, when they are filled with excellent water. It is remarkable, however, that the water of these wells continues good only during the time of high tide; for, as that sinks, the water becomes more and more brackish, till at last it is almost as salt as the sea itself. On the coast of this island are fish called the *zimbis*, or shells, used in several places in Africa instead of money; and with these shells, instead of coin, is carried on a great part of the traffic of this country. It is 18 miles long, but not 2 broad; contains one town and 7 villages; and abounds in cattle, corn, and fruits.

(2.) **LOANDA**, a town in the above island, capital of Angola, built by the Portuguese in 1575. It is large, populous, and pleasantly seated on the declivity of a hill near the sea-coast, facing the SW. It contains about 1000 white inhabitants and 4000 blacks and mulattoes. Lon. 12. 25. E. Lat. 8. 45. S.

(1.) **LOANGO**, a kingdom of Africa, about 180 geographical miles long from S. to N. from Cape St Catharine, in Lat. 2° S, to a small river called *Lovanda Louisa*, in Lat. 5° S. From W. to E. it extends from Cape Negro on the coast of Ethiopia towards the *Buchonalean* mountains, (so called on account of their vast quantity of ivory and great droves of elephants,) about 300 miles. It is divided into 4 principal provinces, viz. *Lovangin*, *Loango-mongo*, *Chilongo*, and *Piri*. The inhabitants are very black, well-shaped, and of a mild temper. The men wear long petticoats from the waist downwards, and have round the waist a piece of cloth half an ell or a quarter broad over which they wear the skin of some wild beast hanging before them like an apron. On their heads they wear a cap made of grass, and quilted with a feather a-top of it; and on their shoulder, or in their hand, they carry a buffalo's tail, to drive away the musketos. The women's petticoats are made only of straw, about an ell square, which leave the greatest part of their thighs and buttocks bare: the rest of their body is quite bare, except that on their legs they wear small strings of beads made of shells, and bracelets of ivory on the arms. They anoint themselves with palm-oil, mixed with a kind of red wood reduced to powder. Every man marries as many wives as he pleases, who are obliged to get their husbands a livelihood, as is the practice all along the African coast. The women, therefore, cultivate the land, sow and reap. The people are mild and tractable, and most of them are said to be converted to Christianity. This country abounds with poultry, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, elephants, tigers, leopards, civet-cats, and other animals; so that here are great quantities of elephant's teeth, and firkins, to be traded for.

(2.) **LOANGO**, the capital of the above kingdom, and the city where the king resides, is called also *Banza-Loangeri*, and, in the language of the negroes *Boavie*. It is situated 4½ miles from the sea-coast. It is a pretty large city, shaded and adorned with bananas, palm, and other trees. The king, who resides in a large palace in the middle

of it, has about 1500 concubines. If any is surpris'd in adultery she and her paramour instantly conveyed to the top of a very high mountain, whence they are hurled down headlong into the deepest place. The king's revenue consists of elephants teeth, copper, and a kind of stone made of palm-tree leaves, and called *gambu*; he has whole store-houses full of these; but his greatest riches consist in slaves.

40. E. Ferro. Lat. 4. 40. S.  
**OANO**, a ci-devant territory and lordship, formerly belonging to the King of Sicily, but united to the Ligurian republic, in 1797.

**OANO**, a town of the Ligurian republic, 6 W. of Finale.

**ORCA**, or **ORCA** a town of Spain, in Arragon, 13 miles S. of Jaca.

**LOATH**, *adj.* [*loath*, Saxon.] Unwilling; disinclined; not ready; not inclined.—These fresh and lively brooks, how slowly they slide away, as if they were the company of so many things united in one! *Sidney*.—

Her lofty eyes, half *loath* to look so low, she asked them in her disdainful wife, and other grace vouchsafed them to show.

*Fairy Queen*.  
 When he heard her answers *loath*, he knew secret sorrow did her heart detain.

*Fairy Queen*.  
 I speak to indirectly, I am *loath*; to speak the truth; but to accuse him so, is your part.

*Shak.*  
 I doth the stay, as *loath* to leave the land, whose soft side she first did issue make.

*Davies*.  
 Then wilt thou not be *loath* to leave this paradise, but shalt possess it more *loath* to be oblig'd by me. *Milton*.  
 I pardon willing, and to punish *loath*; I strike with one hand, but you heal with the other. *Waller*.  
 Æneas is forced to kill Lausus, the poet's name compassionate, and *loath* to destroy such a piece of nature. *Dryden*.—

The faint pilgrim standing on the shore, saw the torrent he would venture o'er; when his inn upon the farther ground, he waded through, and *loath* to go ground: *Dryden*.  
 How you shy to be oblig'd; I am more *loath* to be oblig'd by me. *Southern*.  
**LOATHE**, *v. a.* (from the noun.) 1. To look on with abhorrence.—Parthenia disdain'd both liking and misliking, loving and hating. *Sidney*.—

They with their filthiness disdain'd this same gentle soil long time, their own mother *loath*'d their beastliness. *Spenser*.  
 When I caught with an unwary oath, I reveal the secret which I *loath*! *Waller*.  
 Hee the lion *loaths* the taste of blood, and the lion hunts his female through the wood. *Dryden*.  
 His exalted spirit *loaths* the pleasures of food and cloaths. *Swift*.

2. To consider with the disgust of satiety.—  
*Loathing* the honey'd cakes, I long for bread. *Cowley*.

—Our appetite is extinguish'd with the satisfaction, and is succeeded by *loathing* and satiety. *Rogers*. 3. To see food with dislike.—*Loathing* is a symptom known to attend disorders of the stomach. *Quincy*.

(2.) \* **LOATHE**, *v. n.* 1. To create disgust; to cause abhorrence. Obsolete.—

Where I was wont to seek the honey bee,  
 The grisly toadstool grown there might I see,  
 And *loathing* paddocks lording on the same. *Spenser*.

2. To feel abhorrence or disgust.—The fish in the river shall die, and the river stink; and the Egyptians shall *loath* to drink of the water. *Exodus*.—

Why do I stay within this hated place,  
 Where every object shocks my *loathing* eyes? *Roue*.

\* **LOATHER**, *n. s.* [from *loath*.] One that *loaths*.

\* **LOATHFUL**, *adj.* [*loath* and *full*] 1. Abhorring; hating.—

Which he did with *loathful* eyes behold,  
 He would no more endure. *Hubbard*.

3. Abhorred; hated.—

Above the reach of *loathful* sinful lust. *Spenser*.  
 \* **LOATHINGLY**, *adv.* [from *loath*.] In a fastidious manner.

(1.) \* **LOATHLY**, *adj.* [from *loath*.] Hateful; abhorred; exciting hatred.—

An huge great dragon, horrible in sight,  
 Bred in the *loathly* lakes of Tartary,  
 With murder'ous ravin. *Fairy Queen*.

The people fear me; for they do observe  
 Unfather'd heirs, and *loathly* births of nature. *Shak.*

Sour-ey'd disdain, and discord shall bestow  
 The union of your bed with weeds so *loathly*,  
 That you shall hate it. *Shak.*

(2.) **LOATHLY**, *adv.* [from *loath*.] Unwillingly; without liking or inclination.—The upper streams make such haste to have their part of embracing, that the nether, though *loathly*, must needs give place unto them. *Sidney*.—

*Loathly* opposite I stood  
 To his unnatural purpose. *Shak.*

This shews that you from nature *loathly* stray,  
 That suffer not an artificial day. *Donne*.

\* **LOATHNESS**, *n. s.* [from *loath*.] Unwillingness.—

The fair soul herself  
 Weigh'd between *loathness* and obedience,  
 Which end the beam should bow. *Shak.*

Should we be taking leave,  
 As long a term as yet we have to give,  
 The *loathness* to depart would grow. *Shak.*

—After they had sat about the fire, there grew a general silence and *loathness* to speak amongst them. *Bacon*.

\* **LOATHSOME**, *adj.* [from *loath*.] 1. Abhorred; detestable.—

The fresh young fly  
 Did much disdain to subject his desire  
 To *loathsome* sloth, or hours in ease to waste. *Spenser*.

While

While they pervert pure nature's healthful rules

To loathsome sickness. *Milton.*

—If we consider man in such a loathsome and prostrating condition, was it not love enough that he was permitted to enjoy a being? *South.* 2. Causing satiety or fastidiousness.—

The sweetest honey

Is loathsome in its own deliciousness. *Shak.*

\* LOATHSOMENESS. *n. f.* [from *loathsome*.] Quality of raising hatred, disgust or abhorrence.—The catacombs must have been full of stench and loathsomeness, if the dead bodies that lay in them were left to rot in open niches. *Add. on.*

\* LOAVES, plural of loaf.—Democritus, when he lay a dying, caused loaves of new bread to be opened, poured a little wine into them; and so kept himself alive with the odour till a feast was past. *Bacon.*

\* LOB. *n. f.* 1. Any one heavy, clumsy, or sluggish.—

Farewell, thou lob of spirits, I'll be gone,  
Our queen and all her elves come here anon.

*Shak.*

2. Lob's pound; a prison. Probably a prison for idlers, or sturdy beggars.—

Crowd'ro, whom in irons bound,

Thou basely threw'st into lob's pound. *Hudib.*

3. A big worm.—For the trout, the dew worm, which also some call the lob worm, and the branding are chief. *Wolton.*

\* To LOB. *v. a.* To let fall in a slovenly or lazy manner.—

The horsemen sit like fixed candlesticks,

—And their poor jades

Lob down their heads, dropping the hide and hips. *Shak.*

LOBAU, or ) a town of Prussia, with a castle,  
(1.) LOBAW, } the residence of the bishop of Culm, 25 miles E. of Culm, according to Dr Brookes, but Mr Crutwell makes it 44.

(2.) LOBAW, a town of Germany, in Lusatia.

(1.) \* LOBBY. *n. f.* [*lube*, Ger.] An opening before a room.—

His lobbies fill with 'tendance,

Rain sacrificial whip'rings in his ear,

Make sacred even his stirrup. *Shak.*

—Before the duke's rising from the table, he stood expecting till he should pass through a kind of lobby between that room and the next, where were divers attending him. *Wotton.*—

Try your back stairs, and let the lobby wait,

A stratagem in war is no deceit. *King.*

(2.) A LOBBY, in architecture, is a small hall or waiting room; it is also an entrance into a principal apartment, where there is a considerable space between that and a portico or vestibule; and the length or dimensions will not allow it to be considered as a vestibule or an anteroom. See ANTICHAMBER.

(1.) \* LOBE. *n. f.* [*lobe*, French; *lobes*.] A division; a distinct part: used commonly for a part of the lungs.—

Nor could the lobes of his rank liver swell

To that prodigious mass, for their eternal meal.

*Dryd. n.*

—Air bladders form lobuli, which hang upon the

bronchia like bunches of grapes; these substitute the lobes, and the lobes the lungs. *not.*

From whence the quick reciprocating  
The lobe adhesive, and the sweat of dew

(2.) A LOBE, in anatomy, is any fleshy part, as the lobes of the lungs, of the LOBEDA, a town of Saxony, 3 miles Jena.

LOBEL, Matthias, M. D. physician a knight to king James I. was born at Lisse. He published several esteemed works, viz. *tarum seu Scirpium historia*, folio: 2. *Dilucidium medicamentorum explanationes, et synonymia*, 8cc. fol. *Icones Scirpium*, 4to. *explanatio*, 4to. *Scirpium illustrationes*, 4 died at London, in 1616, aged 78.

LOBELIA, CARDINAL FLOWER, a plant of the monogamia order, belonging to the 5th class of plants; and in the natural ranking under the 29th order, *Campylocalyx* is quinquefid; the corolla monopetalous; the capsule inferior, bilocular, circular. There are many species, but only a few cultivated in our gardens; of these, 2 are herbaceous plants for the open ground, shrubby plants for the stove. They are biennial or perennial, rising with erect stems from 2 to 3 or 6 feet high, ornamented with long, oval, spear-shaped, simple leaves; a beautiful, monopetalous, somewhat rimbed flowers, of scarlet, blue, and violet. They are easily propagated by seeds, or cuttings of their stalks. The tender kind require the common treatment of other exotic plants; the natives of America; from which they must be procured.

LOBELIA SIPHILITICA grows in moist places in Virginia, and stands our winter. There is an article of the materia medica. It is a small plant with an erect stalk 3 or 4 feet high, blue, milky juice, and a rank smell. The root is of white fibres about two inches long, and is apt to excite vomiting. It is used in North American Indains as a specific for the venereal disease. The form is by decoction, and is gradually increased till it brings considerable purging, then intermitted for a few days, and again used in a more moderate degree till cure be completed. The ulcers are all cured with the decoction, and the Indians spirit is used with the powder of the inner bark of the tree. The same strictness of regimen is as during a salivation by a mercurial course; benefit to be derived from this article has far as we know, been confirmed either in North America or Virginia; recourse being almost univocally to the use of mercury; and it is probably the reason that the London college have received it into their list. It seems, however, not to merit a trial.

LOBENSTEIN, a town of Upper Saxony

LOBERA, a town of Spain, in Arragon

LOBES, a town of Bohemia in Bolell

LOBETUM, an ancient town of Hispania



terior, said to have been built by the Libyan Hercules: (*P. inq.*) Now called ALBARAZIN; which see.

LOBINEAU, Guy Alexis, a Benedictine monk, born at Rennes, in 1666. He wrote several works of reputation: particularly, 1. *The history of Britanny*, 2 vols fol. 2. A continuation of *Felibi-n's History of Paris*, 9 vols folio. 3. *A history of Spain*. 4. *A translation of Polybius*. He died in 1727, aged 61.

LOBOLLO BAY, a bay on the W. coast of Antigua.

LOBMING, a town of Germany, in Stiria.

LOBNA. See LIBNA.

(1.) LOBO, Jerome, a famous Portuguese Jesuit, born at Lisbon. He travelled into Ethiopia, as a missionary, and continued there for a long time. At his return he was made rector of the college of Coimbra, where he died in 1678. He wrote *An historical account of Abyssinia*, which is reckoned, and was translated into French by Le Grand, and into English by Dr Johnson.

(2.) LOBO, Roderick Francis, a celebrated Portuguese poet, was born at Leiria, a small town of Estremadura. He wrote an heroic poem, sonnets, and a piece entitled *Euphrosyne*, which is the favourite comedy of the Portuguese. His works were collected and printed in Portuguese, in 1721, in folio. He flourished about 1610.

LOBOS, two clusters of islands on the coast of Fern, about 21 miles from each other, distinguished into *Windward* and *Leeward Lobos*, and called also *Sea Wolves* or *Seals Islands*. Lat. 6. 25. to 6. 45. S.

LOBRES, a town, of Spain in Grenada.

LOBSTADT, a town of Saxony, in Leipzig, 10 miles SSE. of Leipzig.

(1.) \* LOBSTER. *n. f.* [*lobster*, Saxon.] A crustaceous fish.—Those that cast their shell, are the lobster the crab, and craw fish. *Bacon*.—It happeneth often that a lobster hath the great claw of one side longer than the other. *Brown*.

(2.) LOBSTER, See CANCER, N<sup>o</sup> 2, 6, 10, 14, 18.

LOBURG, a town of Saxony, in Magdebourg.

LOCAGNANO, a town of the French republic, in the isle and dep. of Corsica, 12 miles N. of Bastia.

(1.) \* LOCAL. *adi.* [*locus* French; *locus*, Lat.]

1. Having the properties of place.—By ascending, after the sharpness of death was overcome, he took the very local possession of glory, and that to the use of all that are his, even as himself before had witnessed, I go to prepare a place for you. *Hooker*.—

A higher slight the vent'rous goddess tries.

Leaving material world, and local skies. *Prior*.

2. Relating to place.—The circumstance of local nearness in them unto us, might haply enforce in us a duty of greater separation from them than from those other. *Hooker*.—Where there is only a local circumstance of worship, the same thing would be worshipped, supposing that circumstance changed. *Stillingfleet*. 3. Being in a particular place.—

Dream not of their sight,

As of a cruel, or the local wounds

Of head, or heel.

*Milton*.

—How is the change of being sometimes there,

made by local motion in vacuum; without a change in the body moved? *Digby*.

(2.) LOCAL, in law, something fixed to the freehold, or to a certain place: thus, real actions are local, since they must be brought in the country where they lie; and local customs are those peculiar to certain countries and places.

(3.) LOCAL MEDICINES, those destined to act upon particular parts; as fomentations; epithems, vesicatories, &c.

\* LOCALITY. *n. f.* [from *local*.] Existence in place; relation of place, or distance.—That the soul and angels are devoid of quantity and dimension, and that they have nothing to do with greater locality is generally opinioned. *Glanv.*

\* LOCALLY. *adv.* [from *local*.] With respect to place.—Whether things, in their natures so divers as body and spirit, which almost in nothing communicate, are not essentially divided, though not locally distant I leave to the readers. *Glanv.*

LOCANA, a town of the French republic, in the prov. of Piedmont, on the Orco; 23 miles NNW. of Turin.

(1.) LOCARNO, LUCARNO, or LUGGARIS, one of the four ci-devant ITALIAN BAILEWICKS, annexed to the Cisalpine republic in 1797, and now included in the Italian republic; containing 74 square miles, and 30,000 souls, in 1797.

(2.) LOCARNO, LUCARNO, or LUGARIS, a town of the Italian republic, late capital of the above bailiwick, is seated at the N. end of lake Maggiore, near the river Magie; 23 miles SW. of Chiavenna; and carries on a great trade in wine, and fruits, &c. Lon. 8. 41 E. Lat. 46. 6. N.

(3.) LOCARNO, LAKE. See MAGGIORE.

\* LOCATION. *n. f.* [*locatio*, Lat.] Situation with respect to place; act of placing; state of being placed.—To say that the world is somewhere, means no more than that it does exist; this, though a phrase borrowed from place signifying only its existence, not *location*. *Locke*.

LOCCO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo Citra, on the Pescara; 10 miles N. of Solmona.

(1.) LOCH, David, Esq. of Over Carnbee, in Fifeshire, a gentleman who merits to be commemorated in a work of this kind, not only as an author, but as one whose public-spirited writings contributed very much to rouse the then dormant spirit of his countrymen, to attend to the improvement of their native soil by cultivating its produce, and encouraging its manufactures. But however willing to dedicate a few lines to the memory of Mr Loch, we have to regret an uncommon deficiency of materials; as we find no memoir of him in any periodical work, not even in Sir J. Sinclair's Statistical Account, where many persons of inferior consideration are taken notice of. We can therefore only mention the few following particulars. Mr Loch was born about 1718 or 1720; and having been bred to business, engaged in trade with an uncommon degree of spirit and activity. At one period, he had the greater part of the trading ships of Leith employed in conveying his merchandize to the principal ports of Europe and America; and was in the high road to realize a fortune, when, in consequence of several successive losses by shipwrecks, bankruptcies, &c. he was obliged to stop payment; and his affairs

being

being involved with various partnerships, it was long before he got them reduced to order. But this his private misfortune proved beneficial to the public; for his active disposition now led him to employ his leisure hours, (no longer embarrassed by business,) in writing a number of essays on the trade, productions, and agriculture of Scotland, and in pointing out the great loss the country suffered, by its natural productions and advantages being neglected. These Essays were communicated to the public, in Letters addressed to Mr Ruddiman publisher of the *Edinburgh Weekly Magazine*, a work which was then universally read, and of which about 3000 copies were printed weekly. The subjects, he chiefly wrote upon, were agriculture in general; the improvement of the breed of our sheep, in particular; the manufacture of our own wool; the improvement and consumption of our own porter; the malt distilleries; the wearing of cloths of Scots manufacture; and, above all, the improvements of which the numerous natural harbours of Scotland were capable, if proper attention and encouragement were paid to our fisheries. His Essays on these great national objects, he afterwards collected and published by subscription, at Edinburgh, in 3 vols 12mo. And though he did not live to see the vast spirit of industry and exertion, that has since taken place, in most of these branches, yet he had the satisfaction to see the commencement of it, and that his labour was not lost, from the impression made by his writings on the late lords Gardenstone, Monbodo, and other gentlemen of fortune who cultivated his acquaintance, and wore nothing but cloth of Scots manufacture for many years before they died. Mr Loch died at Edinburgh, about 1784.

(2.)\* *LOCH. n. f.* A lake. Scottish.—A lake or *loch*, that has no fresh water running into it, will turn into a stinking puddle. *Cheyne.*

(3.) *LOCH*, in pharmacy. See *LOHOCH*, § 2.

*LOCHABER*, a district of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, bounded by Moydart on the W. Glengary on the N. Badenoch on the E. and Lorn on the S. It derives its name from the lake or loch *Aber*; and extends about 20 miles from E. to W. and 30 from N. to S. The country is barren, bleak, mountainous, and rugged. In one of the most barren parts of this country, near the mouth of the river *Aber*, in the centre between the West and North Highlands, stands *Fort William*, with the town of *Maryburgh*, built upon a navigable arm of the sea, near the foot of *Benevis*. See these articles. It is inhabited mostly by the *Macdonalds*, *Camerons*, and *Mackintoshes*, whose chiefs are generally persons of education, honour, and hospitality. *Macdonald of Glengary*, descended in a straight line from *Donald of the Isles*, possessed a seat or castle in this district, which was burnt and destroyed in 1715, in consequence of his declaring for the Pretender. The elegant house and gardens belonging to *Cameron of Lochiel* underwent the same fate, for the same reason, in 1746. The people are celebrated for their bravery, fidelity, and attachment to their chiefs. They speak the *Erse* language, and conform to the customs described under the article *HIGH-*

*LANDERS*. They pay little attention to agriculture, but that which consists in the sale of black cattle; and hunt fowl and fish as the permit, and as their occasions require. They fight in arms, which they learn to handle from their infancy; submit patiently to discipline the character of soldiers; and never fail to distinguish themselves in the field by their sobriety as well as their valour.

*LOCH-ACHASTIAL*, a bay on the W. of Argyllshire, 24 miles SW. of Inverary.

*LOCH-ALARICH*, a lake of Perthshire.

*LOCH-ALFARRIG*, a lake of Inverness-shire, 12 miles NW. of Fort Augustus.

*LOCH-ALORT*, a bay of Inverness-shire, 12 miles W. of Fort William.

*LOCHALSH*, a peninsular parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, surrounded by the sea, on the N. by *Lochduich* and *Lochlong* on the S. a range of hills on the E.; about 10 miles long and 5 broad. The surface is hilly, though heathy nor rocky; the climate rainy, and rich, producing good oats, barley, pease, and excellent pasture. The population in 1792, was 1334; increase, 721: the number of sheep, 1789; lambs, 686; goats, 1011; and black cattle, 3115. The increase of population is ascribed to "the early marriage of the tenants, who are in easy circumstances, emancipated from feudal oppressions, under a liberal landlord," viz. *Mr M'Kenzie of Seaboard*.

*LOCHANNAN-CORP*, [*Gael. i. e. the lake bodies*] a lake of Perthshire, near *Benedi*, taken from a whole company attending a funeral, fallen through the ice and been drowned.

*LOCHAR*. See *LOCHER*.

*LOCH-ARCHAIG*, or *ARKEIG*, a lake of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, 16 miles long and one 12 miles N. of Fort-William. The river *Loch* runs from it, into *LOCH-LOCHY*.

*LOCH-ARD*, a lake of Perthshire, 3 miles N. of *Loch-Lochy*.

*LOCH-ASSINT*, a bay on the coast of Ross-shire, N. of *Loch-Aven*.

*LOCH-AVEN*. See *AVEN*, N<sup>o</sup> 4.

*LOCH-AVICH*. See *AVICH*, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

*LOCH-AW*, or *LOCHOW*. See *AW*, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

*LOCHAY*, a river of Perthshire. See *LOCH*.

*LOCHBOISDALE*, a bay of Scotland, on the coast of S. Uist. Lon. 4. 6. W. of Edinburgh 57. 11. N.

*LOCH-BORLEY*. See *BORLEY*.

*LOCH-BRACADALE*, a bay on the coast of Ross-shire, N. of *Loch-Lochy*.

*LOCH-BRANDY*, a lake of Forfarshire.

(1.) *LOCHBROOM*, [*Gael. Loch-Braon*] a bay of Scotland, in Ross-shire, so named from the river *Braon*, which runs through a great part of it. It is 36 miles long and 20 broad, and contains an agreeable variety of hills and dales, woods, waters, corn, and grass. The climate is though rainy; the soil light but fertile, produces rich crops, in the low grounds. The population in 1793, was 3500; the increase, since 1753, less than 1289; owing to the encouragement of the fisheries, the improvement of the navigation of bridges and villages. &c. Of the *LAPPOOL* is the most populous.

(2.) *LOCH-BROOM*, or *LOCH-BRAON*, a bay of Scotland, on the coast of Ross-shire, at the mouth of the *Braon*.

coast of Ross-shire; 8 miles long and 1, and 8 miles SE. of Udrigil Head; a- with herrings. See HERRING, N° II,

CH-BROOM, a town at the S. end of the c, 25 m. WNW. of Dingwall. (*Crutw.*) ably in the above parish, but is not men- the *Statistical Account* of it.

BRORA. See BRORA, N° I.

BROWN, a lake of Ayr-shire, which co- it 60 acres of ground, 3 miles NW. of

It is frequented by swans and wild geese. BRUIACH, a lake of Inverness-shire, 3 n Kiltarity, abounding with char, and 4 inds of trouts.

CALLADER, a lake of Aberdeenshire, in which produces a small species of sal- ut 8 lb. weight.

CHCARRON, a Highland parish of Scot- of-shire, so named from the lake, (N° 2.) miles long, and from 5 to 6 broad. The rty deep clay, partly light and sandy. ley, and potatoes, are the chief crops. ilation, in 1793, was 1068; increase 297, . The inhabitants, who, about 70 years : in such a barbarous state that the mi- obliged to go armed, are now quite ci- William, Alexander, and John Macken- celebrated Gaelic poets, whose works found in Macdonald's Collection, were iis parish.

CH-CARRON, a lake or arm of the sea, on of Ross-shire, into which the *Carron* falls, ver entirely in the above parish, which d salmon fishing.

CRINAN, a bay on the W. coast of Argyll.

DEE. See DEE, N° 4, 6; and LOCH-KEN.

DOCHART, a lake of Perthsh. 3 m. long. DOINE, a lake of Perthshire, 20 miles W.

UICH, a bay on the W. coast of Scot- ween Ross-shire and Inverness-shire.

EARN, or LOCH-ERNE. See ERNE, N° 3.

CK, a lake of Argyllshire, 6 miles long.

LE, or LOCHIEL, a lake and arm of the : SE. end of Inverness-shire, 8 miles long ad. The Lochy and Nevis run into it William.

EM, a town of the Batavian republic, in of the Rhine, on the Borkel, 10 miles E.

Lon. 6. 13. E. Lat. 52. 12. N.

CHER, or LOCHAR, a river of Scotland, es-shire, which, after dividing the parishes ies and Kirkmahoe, runs for 12 miles LOCHER MOSS, and falls into the Sol-

CHER, a river in Renfrewshire, which chwinnoch Muir, divides the parishes of och and Kilmalcom, and runs 9 miles hat of Kilbarchan, nearly parallel with and the Black Cart.

CHER MOSS, an extensive morafs of Scot- umfries-shire, 12 miles long and 3 broad. vast number of oak trees that have been 1 it, it is evident, that it has been an- great forest: and as canoes and anchors been found in it, it is supposed to have rily covered by the sea.

LOCH ERNE. See ERNE, N° 3.

LOCHES, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre and Loire, and late province of Touraine. It is defended by a strong castle, and was anciently famous, or rather infamous, for its horrid dun- geons, built by Lewis XI; in one of which Lewis Sforza, D. of Milan, after 10 years imprisonment, ended his days. It is seated on the Indre, 15 miles S. of Amboise and 20 SE. of Tours. Lon. o. 52. E. Lat. 47. 10. N.

LOCH-ETIVE, or } a navigable arm of the sea, in } Loch-ETIVE, } Argyllshire, 23 m. long, and } 1 broad; 15 miles N. of Inverary. At certain } periods the tide ebbs and flows at its mouth with } boisterous rapidity.

LOCHEUR, a town of France, in the dep. of Calvados, 9 miles SW. of Caen.

LOCH-EYNORT, the name of three bays of Scot- land; 1. on the NW. coast of Ross-shire: 2. on the E. coast, and 3. on the W. coast of the Isle of Sky.

LOCH-FAINISH, or } a lake and bay on the NW.

LOCH-FANNICH, } coast of Ross-shire, 9 miles } long.

LOCH-FRENCHY, a lake of Perthshire, 9 miles N. of Crieff.

LOCH-FYNE, or LOCHFINE. See FYNE.

LOCH-GARE, and } two bays on the W. coast

LOCH-GARRON, } of Ross-shire.

(1.) LOCH-GELLIE, a lake of Fife, 3 m. round.

(2.) LOCH-GELLIE, a village of Fife-shire, on the above lake, in Auchterderran parish, contain- ing 342 people, in 1791.

LOCH-GLASS, a navigable lake of Ross-shire, 5 miles long, 1 broad, and 6 from the sea.

LOCH-GOIL, an arm of the sea, in Argyllshire, which branches off to the NW. from Loch-Long, and intersects the S. division of LOCHGOIL-HEAD for 6 miles.

LOCHGOIL-HEAD, [from *Loch-goil*, Gael. *i. e.* an arm of the sea,] a parish of Argyllshire, seated on the head of LOCH-GOIL, and united with the parish of KILMORICH; about 30 miles long, and from 6 to 20 broad. These parishes abound in high mountains, and exhibit scenes tremendously wild and romantic, agreeably diversified with lakes, woods, rivers, rocks, hollow caverns, pas- tures, and frightful precipices. The climate is rainy and cloudy, and the transitions from heat to cold are sudden and excessive; yet the people are healthy, and some long-lived. Not above one 50th part is arable; oats, barley, hay, and pota- toes, are the only produce. Salmon, herrings, mackarel, &c. are taken in the lakes (Loch-fyne and Loch-long, &c.) and sent to Glasgow. L. 5000 were drawn for herrings alone, in 1791. Sun-fish 28 feet long have been caught, as well as sword- fish. Eagles of a prodigious size and strength fre- quent the hills. A lead mine was discovered some years ago, the ore of which contains more silver, than any in the W. of Scotland. The population, in 1791, was 1012; decrease 493, since 1755: owing to the increase of sheep-farming. The number of sheep, in 1791, was 26,500; of horses, 180; and black cattle, 2120.

LOCH-GRANARD, a bay on the N. coast of Ha.

LOCHIA, in midwifery, a flux from the uterus consequent to delivery. See MIDWIFERY.

LOCHEU

**LOCHIEL.** **LOCHINVAR,** a lake of Kirkcudbrightshire, 3 miles in circuit, which is an island, with the ruins of a castle and bridges, the ancient residence of the Gordons, knights of Lochinvar. It is 5 miles N. of Kirkcudbright.

**LOCH-KEN,** a lake of Kirkcudbrightshire, 5 miles long, connected with **LOCH-DEE**, whose waters lengthen the united stream to 10 miles. See **DEE**, N° 4, 6; and **KEN**, N° 5.

**LOCH-LAGGAN.** See **LAGGAN**, N° 2.  
 (1.) **LOCH-LEE**, a parish of Angus-shire, mostly surrounded and partly intersected by the Grampians, 12 miles long from E. to W. and 6 broad. The hills being steep and rocky, it contains little arable ground. Barley is the chief crop. The air, though cold, is salubrious. The population, in 1792, was 608; decrease 78, since 1755: the number of sheep was 9200; of goats, 130; horses, 192; and black cattle, 600.

(2.) **LOCH-LEE**, a lake in the above parish, to which it gives name, 11 miles NNW. of Brechin.  
**LOCH-LEGGAN**, a lake of Perthshire.

(1.) **LOCH-LEVEN**, a spacious and beautiful lake of Kinross-shire, about 15 miles in circumference and 4 in length, interspersed with islands of various appearance and extent. One of these, called **ST SERP'S ISLE**, contains 28 acres of good pasture. The ancient priory of Loch-Leven founded by Brudus, K. of the Picts, was seated in it: Two miles N. of it lies a small island almost covered with the ruins of a castle, anciently belonging to the Douglasses of Loch-Leven, and afterwards used as a state prison. In this castle, our unfortunate Q. Mary was kept a close prisoner, from June 16th, 1567, to May 2d, 1568. It is said to have been founded by Congal, the son of Dongart, K. of the Picts, and occasionally inhabited by K. Alexander III. Its whole circuit is 585 feet. Patrick Graham Abp. of St Andrews, and grandson of K. Robert III. died a prisoner here in 1468; and the E. of Northumberland was imprisoned in it from 1569 to the end of 1572. The island is ornamented with trees. The lake abounds with a great variety of different kinds of trouts, of a high flavour and bright red colour. Of these the silver-grey kind, with 4 or 5 spots on each side, is reckoned the original native species. The lake also abounds with eels, pikes, perches, &c. and the islands in it are frequented by herons, snipes, teals, swans, gulls, rails, kings-fishers, &c. The fishery rents at **L100**.

(2.) **LOCH-LEVEN**, a bay of Inverness-shire, 10 miles long and one broad, 9 miles S. of Fort William. It is an Eastern branch of **LOCH-LINNHE**.

**LOCH-LEYS**, a lake of Kincardineshire; 10½ miles NW. of Stonehaven.

**LOCH-LICHART**, a lake of Ross-sh. 4 miles long.

**LOCH-LINNHE**, a bay on the W. coast of Argyll-shire; 18 miles long and from 2 to 4 broad; 2½ miles NW. of Inveraray.

**LOCH-LOCHY**, a lake of Inverness-shire, between Fort Augustus and Fort William; 10 miles long and from one to 2 broad.

**LOCH-LOMOND.** See **LOMOND**, N° III.

**LOCH-LONG**, a bay on the W. coast of Argyllshire, 15 miles long and 1 broad between, Loch-Pyne and Loch-Lomond.

**LOCH-LOYAL**, a lake of Sutherlandsh.

**LOCH-LUBNAIG**, a lake of Perthshire, Gubieder parish, which often overflows.

**LOCH-LYDOCH**, and **LOCH-LYON**; } Two lakes in 1

**LOCHMABEN**, [*Geog. i. e. the lake of A*] parish of Dumfries-shire, in Annandale, long and about 3 broad. The soil is fertile, being watered by the Annan, Ae, E Kinnel, which often overflow their banks. The population, in 1792, was 3000: the increase since 1755. About 60,000 yds. of linen and swine reared to the value of **L1000**. There are 8 lakes in the parish. This was one of the scenes of the heroic actions celebrated Sir W. WALLACE.

(2.) **LOCHMABEN**, an ancient royal burgh in the above parish; governed by a provost, 12 aldermen, dean of Guild, treasurer, and 9 councillors. Its first charter granted by K. Robert I. destroyed with its records by the English, and granted by James VI. in 1612. This burgh consists of two suburbs, called *Borough roads*, containing 700 inhabitants. It has fairs in Jan. Apr. and Oct. and joins with Dumfries, Sanquhar, and Kirkcudbright, in sending a representative to the imperial parliament. It is a town surrounded with lakes, and is seated on the banks of the Annan, near its junction with the Kinnel; 8 miles NE. of Dumfries, and Annan. Lon. 3. 19. W. Lat. 55. 19. N.

(2.) **LOCHMABEN, CASTLES AND LOCH OF.** The site of a very ancient castle to the town, on a fine eminence, between *Castle* and *Kirk Lochs*, surrounded by a moat and fosse, is still visible. It was the seat of the Bruces, lords of Annandale, and place of K. Robert Bruce. The stones were used to build another castle, which stood on a peninsula in the *Castle Lochs*, and was the largest and strongest of any either on the English or Scottish borders, next to Carlisle, which it was a frontier garrison. It was destroyed by Robert I. It occupies about an acre, and contains 3 courts, strongly built of stone. The walls are 12 feet thick. It was filled with 3 deep fosses, filled with water, which met on each side. The whole enclosure contains about 13 acres. The river went through the castle, within which was a basin for the boats, to preserve them from the enemy and the weather. Before the Union, a garrison of 200 men was constantly kept in *Castle Loch*, on which it stands, is a bay on the S. side of the town, 1½ miles long and 1 broad. It has 15 or 16 different kinds of fish, among which one species, called *Carling*, is peculiar to this lake, is found elsewhere in Britain, and will not live in any other place as has been proved by repeated experiments.

**LOCH-MADDY**, a lake of Inverness-shire, 5 miles long and 1½ m. broad, and 17 NNW. of Fort Augustus.

**LOCH-MAHAFFE**, a lake of Perthshire, NNW. of Dumbane.

**LOCH-MARI**, a lake and bay of Ross-shire, 10 miles long, and 2 broad, containing several islands, ornamented with various trees. These, called *Island Mary*, or *Mary*, then

dent burying place, which is still used, a mineral well, much celebrated for its cures, and a Druidical temple.

LOCH-MERKLY, a lake of Inverness-shire.

LOCH-MERR, a lake of Perthsh. 7 miles N. of Blair in Athol.

LOCH-MIGDOL, a lake in Sutherlandshire.

LOCH-MILFORD, or MELFÖRT, a safe harbour on the coast of Argyllshire; 18 m. W. of Inverary.

LOCH MONAR, a lake of Ross-sh. 6 miles long.

(1.) LOCHMORE, a lake of Sutherland, 3 m. long and 1 mile broad. It never freezes, even in the worst season.

(2.) LOCHMORE, a large bay on the W. coast of Ross-shire; 9 miles E. of Udrigil Head.

LOCH MORROR, a lake of Inverness-sh. 10 m. long and not one broad; 16 m. NW. of Fort William.

LOCHNABER, a lake of Elginsh. 3 m. in circuit, an extensive forest, inhabited by red deer.

LOCHNELL, a lake of Argyllshire.

LOCHNELLAN, a lake of Inverness-sh. surrounded by hills, which form 3 very remarkable echoes. There is an islet in it, with a very ancient castle; the hills are entire.

LOCH-NESS, a large lake of Inverness-sh. 24 long and 2 broad, between Fort Augustus, and the Frith of Moray, into which its waters run. It never freezes, even in the most extreme cold. Sir, Pringle supposes this to be owing to its great depth, which, in some places, cannot be measured by the use of 500 fathoms; tho' in other places, he says, the common soundings are from 116 to 125, and in one place to 135". Another cause, he assigns is, that there is never any perfect calm upon the lake, and the wind, blowing always from one end to the other, makes such an undulation as must obstruct the setting of the water." This water is laxative.

Loch-NESS lies between 57° and 58° Lat. N.

LOCHNEWI, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

LOCH-OICH, a lake of Inverness-shire, 4 miles long, and a quarter broad. It communicates with Loch-NESS, 4 miles SW. of Fort Augustus. See INVERNESS, N° 1.

LOCH-ORE, a lake of Fifeshire, 6 miles NE. of Perthshire. It is partly drained.

LOCH-ORR, or LOCH-URR, a lake of Dumfriesshire about 3 miles round. The river Orr rises from it.

LOCHOW. See AW, N° 3.

LOCH-PARTIN, a bay on the E. of N. Uist.

LOCH-QUICH, a lake of Inverness-shire, 16 m. long, of Fort William.

LOCH-RANNOCH, a lake of Perthsh. 8 m. long.

LOCHRIDA, or OCRIDA, a large town of European Turkey, in Albania; seated on a hill overlooking the lake Lochrida; 62 miles NE. of Durazzo. Lon. 20. 40. E. Lat. 41. 40. N.

LOCHRUSSEG, a bay of the Atlantic, on the W. coast of Ireland, and county of Donegal. Lon. 8. 23. W. Lat. 54. 46. N.

LOCHRUSMORE, a bay N. of Lochrusbeg.

(1.) LOCHRUTTON, a parish of Kirkcudbrightshire, 4 miles from Dumfries; 4½ miles long from N. to S. and 3 broad; containing 7000 acres. These 5,550 are arable or pasture land. The soil is chiefly light loam; The climate is cold but healthy. Oats and barley are the chief crops; and are partly exported. About 1450 acres are

under wood, waters, marshes and mosses. The population, in 1791, was 528; and decrease 36, since 1755: the number of sheep was 300; of horses, 125; and black cattle, 1040. There is a mineral spring, and a Druidical temple.

(2.) LOCH-RUTTON, [*Gael.* i. e. *the lake on the straight road.*] a lake in the above parish, to which it gives name, on the side of the great road to Ireland. It has an islet in the middle of it.

LOCHRYAN, a large lake and commodious bay, between Ayrshire and Wigtonshire, N. of Stranraer; 10 miles long from N. by W. to S. by E. and 2 miles broad at the mouth. It has several excellent anchoring bays; particularly CAIRN Bay, in which K. William III's fleet anchored in their passage to Ireland; Dalmennock, Soleburn, and Portmore Bays, &c. It abounds with haddocks, whittings, cod, lobsters, and various other fish.

LOCHS, a parish of Ross-shire, so named from the numerous *lochs* or lakes, and harbours in it, which are also called *lochs* throughout that country. Of these the chief are *Loch-Seaforth*, *Loch-Sbell*, and *Loch-Briport*. The parish is about 13 m. broad, and 27 long; but reckoning the extent of coast in all its winding directions, it will measure 135 English miles. The coast is bold and rocky, the climate moist but healthful; the surface mostly covered with heath; but as "there is no soil, but what the indefatigable industry of the inhabitants has forced into some cultivation, near the sea, very little corn is raised." Fishing of cod and ling, and pasturing cattle, are therefore the chief employments. About 50 tons of kelp are also made annually. The population, in 1795, was 1768; increase in 40 years, 501: the number of sheep was 4,000; horses 348; and black cattle 2,488, besides calves. The spinning of flax has been introduced by Mrs M'Kenzie of Seaforth, and promoted by premiums.

LOCH-SEAFORTH, a bay on the SE. coast of Lewis; 10 miles long, and 18 SW. of Stornoway.

LOCH-SHIELL, a bay between Argyll and Inverness-shires, 16 miles long and one broad.

LOCH-SHIN, a lake of Sutherlandshire, 20 m. long, and 2 broad; 13 miles W. of Dornoch.

LOCH-SKEEN, a lake of Dumfriesshire.

LOCH-SKENE, a lake of Aberdeenshire.

LOCH-SKIACH, a lake of Perthshire, in Strathbran, which produces excellent trouts weighing 10 or 12 lb.; 6 miles NW. of Dunkeld.

LOCH-SPEY. See INVERNESS, N° 1.

LOCHSTETT, a town of Prussia, in Smaland.

LOCHTA, a town of Sweden, with a good harbour on the Gulf of Bothnia; 90 miles S. of Tornia. Lon. 24. 16. E. Lat. 64. 20. N.

LOCH TAY, a beautiful and extensive lake of Perthshire, in Breadalbane, 15 miles long and one broad; the source of the river Tay. See TAY.

It abounds with salmon, trouts, char, pikes, perch, &c.

LOCHTURRET, a lake of Perthshire, in Glenturret.

LOCHTY, a small river in Fifeshire.

LOCHVITZE, a town of Russia, in Tschernigov, on the Sufa.

LOCHVOIL, a lake of Perthshire, 17 miles W. of Crieff, connected by the river Balvag with Loch-

DOINE and LOCH-LUBNAIG, and forming one of the sources of the Teith. In time of floods, these 3 lakes overflow the intermediate grounds, and form one continued sheet of water 22 miles long.

LOCH-URR. See LOCH-ORR.

(1.) LOCHWINNOCH, a parish of Renfrewshire, about 6 miles square; comprehending 5,476 acres of arable land; of which 1494 are annually in tillage. It is all enclosed with stone walls, hedges, or fences. The climate is moist; the soil various but fertile; the chief crops are oats, potatoes and flax. The population, in 1695, was only 290: in 1791, 2613; increase since 1755, 1083. The number of horses was 410; sheep 2,886; swine 42; and black cattle, 2,145. Coal, lime, and freestone abound. There is a very singular MAGNETIC ROCK two miles from Castle-Semple, which affects the compass very sensibly at 150 yards distant; but when brought near, the needle invariably points to one small space in the rock. Margaret Watton, who lived to the age of 118, was born in this parish. Seven large cotton mills were erected in it; within these 22 years.

(2.) LOCH-WINNOCH, a large lake in the centre of the above parish, so named from *St Winnoch*.

(3.) LOCHWINNOCH, a village in the above parish, which contained 1114 inhabitants in 1795, viz. exactly 357 of each sex.

(1.) LOCHY, a river of Inverness-shire, which rises from LOCH-LOCHY, joins the SPIAN, and after running 10 miles through Lochaber and the parish of Kilmanivaig, and receiving the waters of several rapid rivers, falls into the Atlantic near Fort William, with such force and rapidity, that it preserves its stream entire for a long way without mixture or taste of salt water.

(2.) LOCHY, or LOCHAY, a river of Perthshire, which rises in Breadalbane, runs 10 miles through the valley of Glendochart, and after joining the Dochart falls into LOCH-TAY.

(1.) \* LOCK, *n. s.* [*loc*, Saxon, in both senses.]

1. An instrument composed of springs and bolts, used to fasten doors or chests.—

No gate so strong, no lock so firm and fast,  
But with that piercing noise flew open quite or  
braff. *F. Queen.*

We have locks, to safeguard necessaries,  
And pretty traps to catch the petty thieves.

*Shak.*

—As there are locks for several purposes, so are there several inventions in locks in contriving their wards or guards. *Moxon.* 2. The part of the gun by which fire is struck.—A gun carries powder and bullets for seven charges and discharges: under the breech of the barrel is one box for the powder; a little before the lock, another for the bullets; behind the cock a charger, which carries the powder to the further end of the lock. *Greav.* 3. A hug; a grapple.—They must be practised in all the locks and grips of wrestling. *Milton.* 4. Any inclosure.—

Sergeantus, eager with his beak to peck  
Betwixt the rival gally and the rock,

Sluts up th' unwieldy centour in the lock. *Dryd.*

5. A quantity of hair or wool hanging together.—Well might he perceive the hanging of her hair in locks some curled, and some forgotten. *Sidney.* — A goodly cypress, who bowing her fair head o-

ver the water, it seemeth the lock into dressed her green locks by that running *Sidney.*—

His grizly locks long grown and unbr  
Disordered hung about his shoulders to

—The bottom was set against a lock of w  
the found was quite deaded. *Bacon.*—Th  
rish only a lock of hair on the crown of thei  
*Sandys.*—A lock of hair will draw more  
cable rope. *Greav.*—

Behold the locks that are grown whit  
Beneath a helmet in your father's battles

Two locks that graceful hang be  
In equal curls.

6. A tuft.—I suppose this letter will find t  
ing of daisies, or smelling to a lock of hay.

(2.) THE LOCK (§ 1. *def.* 1.) is reckon  
master-piece in smithery; a great deal of  
ingenuity being required in contriving an  
ing the wards, springs, bolts, &c. and a  
them to the places where they are to b  
and to the various occasions of using them.  
the various structure of locks, accommod  
their different intentions, they acquire  
names. Those placed on outer doors ar  
*stock locks*; those on chamber doors, *spring*  
those on trunks, *trunk locks*, *pad locks*, &  
these the spring lock is the most considerab  
for its frequency and the curiosity of its st  
Its principal parts are, the main-plate, the  
plate, and the pin-hole: To the main-plate  
the key-hole, top-hook, cross-wards, bol  
bolt-knab, drawback-spring tumbler, pin  
tumbler, and the staples; to the cover-plat  
the pin, main-ward, cross-ward, step-ward  
ward; to the pin-hole belong the hoo  
main cross-ward, shank, the pot or brea  
ward, and bit. As on the proper constru  
locks the security of the most valuable p  
property almost entirely depends, and s  
berless devices are continually fallen upon  
the utmost efforts of mechanical inventio  
respect, it is an object of so small importan  
vent a lock which it should be *impossible*  
except by its proper key. A treatise up  
subject has been published by Mr Joseph L  
who is confident that he has brought the  
to the requisite perfection, and that ev  
may rest assured of the security of his p  
when under the protection of a lock of hi  
tion. He begins with observing, that th  
ciple on which all locks depend, is the c  
tion of a lever to an interior bolt, by me  
communication from without; so that,  
latter, the lever acts upon the bolt, and r  
in such a manner as to secure the lid or do  
being opened by any pull or push from v  
The security of locks in general therefore c  
on the number of impediments we can i  
betwixt the lever (the key) and the bolt w  
cures the door; and these impediments a  
known by the name of *cardis*, the num  
intiacacy of which alone are supposed to  
guish a good lock from a bad one. If thes  
however, do not in an effectual manner p  
the access of all other instruments besides  
per key, it is still possible for a mechan

with the lock-maker to open it without the aid thus to elude the art of the author. (says Mr Bramah) have been constructed, & at present much used and held in great repute, from which the picklock is excluded: but the omission of false keys is an imperfection for no lock-smith has ever found a corrective; and this imperfection be remedied whilst the motion of the bolt is wholly confined to *fixed* wards. This position is proved by a remark, the wards, let them be as intricate as we must all be expressed on what is called the *web* of the key: and therefore, when all varieties that can be expressed on this bit or have been run through, every succeeding will be the counterpart of some other; and eventually the same key which opens one will be other also. This is evident from the usually put upon drawers; and which, if they should be made to resist the picklock still liable to be opened by ten thousand keys, besides that appropriated to each of them. But though the variety of wards could be extended to infinity, still there could be no defence against false keys; for as every one of them must be expressed on the web of the key, every key with a web quite plain be made to key-hole exactly, we have only to cover it with some colouring substance upon which the wards may make an impression; after which, the key to cut out the web in a proper manner, by fitting them, when the lock will be as easy to open by the false as by the true key. The person, according to our author, who had any merit in lock-making, is Mr Baron; whose merit he acknowledges to be by far more perfect than any that ever appeared before; and he still considers it as unfit for giving that security which is to be wished for. His merit consisted in the proper application of the tumblers. "These (says Mr Baron) are a kind of grapple; by which the bolt is held, as well in its active as in its passive state, and rendered immovable till set at liberty by the key. One of these instruments is commonly introduced into all locks that are of any value; it is lodged behind the bolt, and is held by a spring which acts upon the tumbler. The tumbler acts upon the bolt: the application of any force to the tumbler, which is sufficient to overcome the force of the spring, will cause it to hold, and set the bolt at liberty." In the method of applying these machines, however, matters nothing how far the tumbler is above the point at which it ceases to control; but it is otherwise in those of Mr Baron's locks. The action of his tumblers is circumscribed by a certain space cut in the centre of the bolt, of dimensions sufficient only to answer the purpose intended. The space in which the tumbler moves is an oblong square; and is not furnished with niches on the under side into which the hooks of the tumblers are forced by the key as in other locks, but is provided with independent niches on the other side, into which the hooks are driven, if any greater force be applied to the tumblers than what is just sufficient to disengage them from the bolt. Hence

it becomes absolutely necessary, in the making of a false key, to construct it in such a manner, that it may with the greatest exactness give the requisite degree of pressure, and no more. Mr Bramah allows that this is a very great improvement, but objects that it is still possible to frame a key which will open it as well as its own; nor will the addition of any number of tumblers preclude the possibility of opening it. "By giving (says he) an uniform motion to the tumblers, and presenting them with a face which exactly tallies with the key, they still partake, in a very great degree, of the nature of *fixed wards*; and the security of his lock is thereby rendered in a proportionable degree defective. Thus, suppose the false key to have passed the wards, and to be in contact with the most prominent of the tumblers, the impression, which the slightest touch will leave on the key, will direct the application of the file till sufficient space is prepared to give it a free passage. The key will then bear upon a more remote tumbler; which difficulty being in like manner got over, the lock will be as easily opened by the false as by the true key." This seemingly insuperable objection to the perfection of lock-making, however, our author removes with the greatest ease, by causing the tumblers which project unequally to present a *plane* surface: whence they would require a separate and unequal motion to disengage them; of consequence no distinct impression could be made by them upon the plane surface of the web that would give any idea of their positions with regard to one another, and the construction of a false key would be altogether impossible. But though the principal difficulty with regard to Mr Baron's lock be thus overcome, others still occur, *v. z.* the difficulty of making locks which are constructed with tumblers sufficiently durable. The tumblers themselves, he observes, must be but slightly made; and being exposed to perpetual friction by the key and their own proper motion, they must soon decay; and the keys of Mr Baron's locks, he also observes, are much less durable than those of any other locks he ever saw. With regard to the lock which Mr Bramah reckons absolutely perfect, he informs us, that the idea of constructing it was first suggested by the alarming increase of house robberies, which may reasonably be supposed to be perpetrated in a great measure by perfidious servants, or accomplished by their connivance; the locks, which might exclude ordinary house-breakers, being no security against faithless servants, who having constant access to the locks, might easily get false keys fabricated. In considering the subject, he was convinced, that his hope of success depended entirely upon his using means as dissimilar as possible to those by which the old locks were constructed. "As nothing (says he) can be more opposite in principle to *fixed wards* than a lock which derives its properties from the *motion* of all its parts, I determined that the construction of such a lock should be the subject of my experiment." In the prosecution of this experiment he had the satisfaction to find, that the least perfect of all his models fully ascertained the truth and certainty of his principle. The exclusion of wards made it necessary to cut off all communication between the

key and the bolt; as the same passage, which (in a lock *simply* constructed) would admit the key, might give admission likewise to other instruments. The office, therefore, which in other locks is performed by the extreme point of the key, is here assigned to a lever, which cannot approach the bolt till every part of the lock has undergone a change of position. The necessity of this change for the purposes of the lock, and the absolute impossibility of effecting it otherwise than with the proper key, are the points to be ascertained: and this Mr Bramah does in the following manner: *Fig. 1. plate CCII.* shows his first attempt to construct a lock upon this principle: which, to his surprise, turned out complete and perfect. *A* represents a common axis on which the six levers, crossing the face of the lock, are united as on a joint. Each of these rests upon a separate spring sufficiently strong to bear its weight; or, if depressed by a superior force, to restore it to its proper position when that force is removed. *B* represents a frame through which the levers pass by separate grooves, exactly fitted to their width, but of sufficient depth to allow them a free motion in a perpendicular direction. The part which projects from the opposite side of the joint *A*, and is inserted in the bolt *C*, is a lever to which two offices are assigned: one to keep the bolt in a fixed position, in the absence of the key; the other, to give it its proper motion upon the application of the key. *D* is a circular platform turning upon a centre. On this the joint or carriage of the levers, and the springs on which they rest, are fixed; and the motion of this platform impels the bolt, in either direction, by means of the lever which is projected from the joint *A*. The inviolable restraint upon this lock, by which means it is subjected only to the action of the key, is lodged in the part *E*, which is a thin plate, bearing at each extremity on a block, and having of course a vacant space beneath, equal in height to the thickness of the blocks on which it rests. By this plate the motion of the machine is checked in the following manner: On the edge of the plate which faces the movement there are six notches, which receive the ends of the levers projecting beyond the frame *B*; and while they are confined in this manner, the motion of the machine is so totally suspended as to defy every power of art to overcome. To understand how the proper key of this lock overcomes these obstacles, it must be observed, that each lever has a notch on its extremity, and that those notches are disposed as irregularly as possible. To give the machine a capacity of motion, these notches must be brought parallel to each other, and by a distinct but unequal pressure upon the levers, be formed into a groove in a direct line with the edge of the plate *E*, which the notches are exactly fitted to receive. The least motion of the machine, while the levers are in this position, will introduce the edge of the plate into the groove; which, controuling the power of the springs, will give liberty to the levers to move in an horizontal direction as far as the space between the blocks which support the plate *E* will admit, and which is sufficient to give the machine a power of acting on the bolt. The impossibility of thus bringing

the notches on the points of the levers into a direct line, so as to tally with the edge of the plate *E* by any other means than the motion and impulse of the key, is that which constitutes the principal excellency of this lock. The key exhibits six different surfaces, against which the levers are progressively admitted in the order of opening the lock: the irregularity of the faces shows the unequal and distinct degrees of pressure which each lever requires to bring it to their proper bearings, in order to put the machine in motion. Hence it appears, that the various heights of the surfaces express the bit of the key are exactly proportioned to the several distances necessary to bring the notches into a straight line with each other, they must be immovable; and (says our author) as one stroke of a file is sufficient to cause such a displacement as will prove an unsurmountable impediment to their motion, I may safely assert, that it is not possible to produce a key or other instrument, by which a lock, constructed upon this principle, can be opened." On this principle it would be a matter of great difficulty for any workman, however skilful, to construct a key for the lock open to his inspection: "for the levers being held, by the subjacent springs, to an equal distance in the frame *E*, present a *plane* surface; and frequently convey no direction that can be used in forming a tally to the *irregular* surfaces they present when acting in subjection to the bolt. Unless therefore we can contrive a method of bringing the notches on the points of the levers into a direct line with each other, and to retain them in that position till an exact impression of the particular surface, which the levers will then exhibit, has been taken; the workman will be unable to open the lock or to move the bolt. This must be rendered extremely troublesome and difficult, if the springs; and if such difficulties occur when the lock is open to the inspection of the workman, much more must we suppose them to be, when the power of one who has not access to the internal parts to make a false key to a lock of this kind. These difficulties render it unnecessary to say, that making locks of this kind not to fit the key, as is usual in other locks, but to fit the key to the lock. In this kind of lock, the key must be made first: and the inequality of the surface of the bit worked as chance may direct, without any reference to the key. The key being thus completed, and the surface of the levers, will, by a gentle force, force them to unequal distances from the common station in the frame *B*, and sink them to unequal depths into the space beneath the plate *E*. While the levers are in this position, the edge of the plate *E* will mark the precise point of the notch on each lever must be expressed by the notches being cut by this direction, the inequality which appears when the levers resume their position in the frame *B*, and the unequal recesses on the bit of the key will appear, and its corresponding impression. This is a lock contrived upon the same principle, and is more curious; and, in our author's opinion, more extensively useful. *Fig. 3.* repre-



Fig. 1.

LOCK.

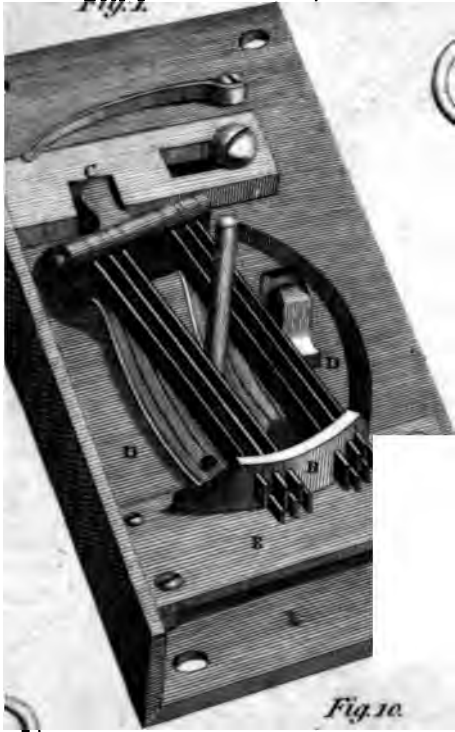


Fig. 2.



Plate CCL.  
Fig. 3.

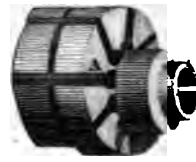


Fig. 6.



Fig. 8.

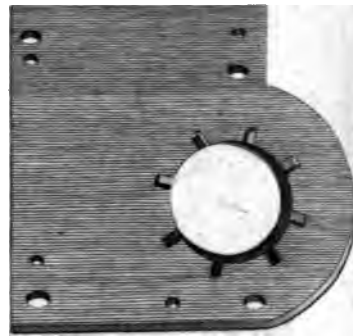
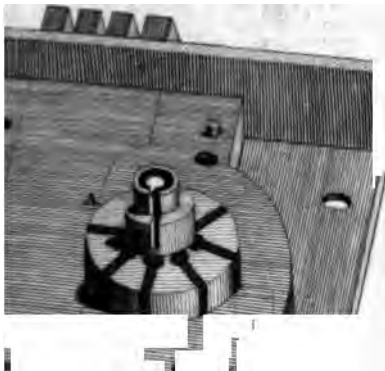


Fig. 10.



Fig. 9.



Loxia Cardinalis



Loxia Cærulea





block of metal divided from the centre into apartments, each containing a cell which a passage through the block, as is represented the small circles described on the flat surface. In each of these cells two grooves are cut oblique points, which open a communication to the centre at one point, and with the spherical face of the block or barrel at the other. The small circle, which marks the centre of the surface A, is the key-hole, which likewise a passage through the barrel in a parallel line to the cells which surround it. This figure represents the frame in which the active parts of the lock are deposited. *Fig. 4.* shows a spiral spring in the bottom of each cell, and occupying half of the space, the other being filled with a slider resting upon the spring, and represented in *Fig. 5.* the office of these sliders exactly corresponding with that of the levers in the lock already described. Thus, when lodged in their respective cells, they are sustained, like the levers, by the elasticity of the springs upon which they rest, and superior power be applied; and they are restored to their stations by the reaction of the springs when the weight is removed. The slider of each slider is projected beyond the circular surface, as represented *Fig. 6.* in a manner similar to the projection of the levers in the former lock. Point C is projected through the interior of the barrel into the space which forms the centre of the barrel, expressed on the flat surface A. *Fig. 7.* shows the key. When this is applied, it must necessarily encounter these interior projections; and pressed forward, the indented spaces on its surface, being unequal, will force the sliders to unobscure the spaces from their bearers; bringing the sliders expressed on their exterior projections in a straight line with each other, in a manner similar to that by which the effect is produced upon the sliders in the former lock. When the key is withdrawn, and the sliders resume their stations by the elasticity of the springs, the disposition of the notches will be irregular in the same proportion that the indentations on the point of the key are unequal, and they must necessarily fall again into a straight line when acted upon by the key. *Fig. 6.* shows the barrel completely fitted for action. Its end is capped with a plate, which unites the apartments, and confines the springs and sliders within the cells to which they belong. The cap plate proceeds the point A, which represents the lever by which the bolt is projected and drawn, according to the direction in which the key performs its revolution. *Fig. 8.* shows the surface of a thin plate, corresponding in its position with the part C of the former lock. The plate in its centre is exactly fitted to the spherical surface of the barrel; the circle describing its circumference, and the notches cut on its edge, corresponding with the projections of the sliders. The barrel when encircled with this plate at the middle of its spherical surface, has its motion totally arrested till the notches on the projections of the sliders are forced, by the pressure of the key, to coincide with each other: a groove being thus formed on the spherical surface of the barrel pa-

ralled to, and coinciding with, the edge of the cap plate, the machine is at liberty to perform a revolution in any direction, but returns to its confined state when the key is withdrawn. The parts of the movement being thus united, the interior end of the barrel is deposited in a bed represented *Fig. 9.* To this it is fastened at the angles of the plate represented at *Fig. 8.* by which the barrel is encircled. The station of the bolt is at A; the lever which acts upon it being projected on the other side. *Fig. 10.* is a cap or mask, which covers the face of the movement, and completes the lock.—On this lock our author observes, that it is excellent for street doors: “for no method of robbery (says he) is more practised, than gaining admittance into houses by those keys, which, as is well known, may be procured at the old iron shops to fit almost any lock in use. Such robberies are generally committed where the servants are allowed to take the key with them when sent on errands, it being impracticable while the key is fixed in the lock. The variations by which the production of correspondent keys is avoided, have two sources: the one arising from the changes that may be made in the disposition of the levers; the other from the number of points contained on the projected surface of each lever; by which the position of its notch may, in the smallest degree be varied. “The variations, produceable in the dispositions of six figures only, are 720: these, being progressively multiplied by additional figures, will increase by astonishing degrees; and eventually show, that a lock containing 12 levers will admit of 479,001,500 changes; which, with the addition of another lever, will increase to 6,229,019,500. These being again multiplied by the number of changes which the projected surface of the levers will admit in the disposition of the notches, their amount will exceed numeration, and may therefore be properly said to be infinite. (See CHANGES, § 2.) The slightest inspection will at once show, that their construction precludes all possibility of obtaining an impression of their internal parts, which is necessary for the fabrication of a false key; for it will be easily seen, that the positions into which the levers are forced by the pressure of the key in opening the lock, can no more be ascertained when the key is withdrawn, than the seal can be copied from its impression on a fluid or the course of a ship be discovered by tracing it on the surface of the waves. But inviolable security is not the only excellence they possess: the simplicity of their principle gives them likewise a great advantage over locks that are more complicated, in point of duration; for their essential parts being subject to no friction, nor exposed to any possible accident from without, they will be less affected by use, and less liable to stand in need of repair.”

(3.) **LOCK, or WEIR,** in inland navigation, the general name for all those works of wood or stone, made to confine and raise the water of a river: the banks also which are made to divert the course of a river, are called by these names in some places. But the term *lock* is more particularly appropriated to express a kind of canal inclosed between two gates; the upper called by workmen the *fluce*

fluid-gate, and the lower called the flood-gate. These serve in artificial navigations to confine the water, and render the passage of boats easy in passing up and down the stream. See CANAL.

(1.) \* To LOCK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] 1. To shut or fasten with locks.—

The garden, seated on the level floor,  
She left behind, and *locking* ev'ry door,  
Thought all secure. *Dryden.*

2. To shut up or confine, as with locks.—  
I am *lockt* in one of them;  
If you do love, you will find me out. *Shak.*

We do *lock*  
Our former sample in our strong barr'd gates. *Shak.*

Then seek to know those things which make us best,  
And having found them, *lock* them in thy breast. *Denham.*

The frighted dame  
The log in secret *lock'd*. *Dryden.*

—If the door to a council be kept by armed men, and all such whose opinions are not liked kept out, the freedom of those within is infringed, and all their acts are as void as if they were *locked in*. *Dryden.*—One conduces to the poet's completing of his work; the other slackens his pace, and *locks* him up like a knight-errant in an enchanted castle. *Dryden.*—

The father of the gods  
Confin'd their fury to those dark abodes,  
And *lock'd* 'em safe within. *Dryden.*

—If one third of the money in trade were *locked up*, must not the landholders receive one third less? *Locke.*—Always *lock* up a cat in a closet where you keep your china plates, fear the mice may steal in and break them. *Swift.*—

Your wine *lock'd* up,  
Plain milk will do the feat. *Pope.*

3. To close fast.—  
Death blasts his bloom, and *locks* his frozen eyes. *Gay.*

(2.) \* To LOCK. *v. n.* 1. To become fast by a lock.—

For not of wood, nor of enduring brass,  
Doubly parted it did *lock* and close,  
That when it *locked*, none might through it pass. *Fairy Queen.*

2. To unite by mutual insertion.—Either they *lock* into each other, or slip one upon another's surface; as much of their surfaces touches as makes them cohere. *Boyle.*

(1.) LOCKE, John, F.R.S. a most eminent English philosopher and writer, in the end of the 17th century, was son of Mr John Locke of Wrington near Bristol, in Somersetshire, and born at Wrington near Bristol, in 1632. He was sent to Christ-church in Oxford; but was dissatisfied with the course of studies then pursued in the university, where nothing was taught but the Aristotelian philosophy; and he had a great aversion to the disputes of the schools then in use. The works of Des Cartes first gave him a relish for philosophy, though he did not always approve of his notions. He applied himself with vigour to his studies, particularly to physics, in which he gained a considerable knowledge, though he never practised it. In 1664, he went to Germany as secretary to Sir Wil-

liam Swab, envoy from the English court elector of Brandenburg, and some other man princes. In 1695, he returned to England where he applied himself to natural philosophy as appears from a register of the changes of air, which he kept at Oxford, from June 24, to March 28, 1667. There he became acquainted with lord Ashley, who introduced him to the most eminent persons of that age. In 1670 he began to form the plan of his *Essay on the Understanding*. About this time he became acquainted with lord Ashley, now earl of Shaftesbury, and lord chancellor of England pointed him secretary of the presentation trade, worth 500*l.* a year; but that company was dissolved in 1674. The earl of Shaftesbury being sent prisoner to the tower, after his charge retired to Holland in 1682. Mr. Locke followed his patron thither. He had not been absent from England a year, when he was again at court of having written certain tracts for the government, which were afterward said to have been written by another; and in 1684, he was deprived of his place of steward of Christ-church. In 1685, the English envoy at Hague demanded him and 83 other persons delivered up by the States General; upon which he lay concealed till 1686; and during this time he formed a weekly assembly with Messrs. Lim Le Clerc, and other learned men at Amst. In 1689 he returned to England in the fleet brought over the princess of Orange. He esteemed a sufferer for revolution principles obtained the post of commissioner of a public character, as envoy at the court of emperor, the elector of Brandenburg, or any where he thought the air most suitable to him; but he waved all these, on account of the state of his health; which led him to purchase an apartment in their country seat at Oates, 25 miles from London. This place was perfectly agreeable to him in every respect; air restored him almost to a miracle, in a few hours after his return at any time from the country quite spent and unable to support himself; he found in lady Masham a friend and company exactly to his heart's wish; a lady of a conversative and studious turn, inured, from her inclination to deep speculations in theology, metaphysics and morality. In this family Mr Locke lived as much ease as if the whole house had been his own; and he had the additional satisfaction of seeing this lady breed up her only son upon the plan which he had laid down the best method of education; the success of which was such as seemed to give a sanction to his sentiment in the choice of that method. It was from the advantage of this situation, that he derived so much strength as to be able to execute his great talents to the last, writing the *Essay on the Understanding*, and on the ill state of the silver coin, and proposing remedies for it. In 1695 he was made a commissioner of trade and customs in 1695, which engaged him in the public business of the state. With regard

published a treatise the same year, to scheme which K. William had much a comprehension with the dissenters. ver, drew him into a controversy; scarcely ended, when he entered into defence of his essay, which held till after which, the asthma increasing years, he became so infirm, that, in signed his seat at the board of trade, l no longer bear the air of London or a regular attendance upon it. After inued constantly at Oates, where he e remaining years of his life entirely of the holy scriptures. He died in 73. Whoever is acquainted with the late of the philosophy of the human Mr Locke paved the way to a clear knowledge, and the proper methods of advancing it, will be surpris'd at this abilities; and discover how much we l to him for the improvements that ade since. His *Discourses on Govern-* *ment on Toleration* and his *Commentaries Paul's Epistles*, are justly held in the m.

E, a military township of New York, o county, 13 m. NE. of Cayuga lake.

JAW. See MEDICINE, *Index*.

ITZ, a town of Upper Saxony, in g; 16 miles NE. of Prenzlau.

CER, John, Esq. F. S. A. a learned Eng- remarkable for his skill in the modern was born in 1693; studied at Oxford, t Gray's Inn, and was called to the arried a daughter of Dr Stillingfleet e translated Voltaire's life of Charles ote the preface. He also made great e respecting Lord Bacon, which he con- o Dr Birch and Mr Mallet. He died 60.

GER. *n. f.* [from *lock*.] Any thing that h a lock; a drawer.—I made *lockers* at the end of the boat. *Robinson Crusoe*.

BIE, a thriving post town of Dum- originally seated between two lakes, l. It consists of a long street, joining and contained about 700 inhabitants in is 2 fairs, and 10 markets annually. o lambs, and 50 yds. of linen and old annually, chiefly to England.

ET. *n. f.* [*loquet*, French.] A small lock; r spring to fasten a necklace, or other

knights are kept in narrow lists, oden *lockets* 'bout their wrists. *Hudibr.* ART, a town of N. Carolina, 38 miles ifax.

ARTSBURG, a town of Pennsylvania.

KMAN, *n. f.* an officer in the Isle of executes the orders of government, ur sheriff depute.

MAN. See LOKMAN.

TZ, a river of Saxony, running into miles above Meissen.

AM. *n. f.* A sort of coarse linen. *Hamm.*

The kitchen malkin pins t *lockram* about her recky neck, ; the walls to eye him. *Shak.*

\* LOCKRON. *n. f.* A kind of ranunculus.

LOCLE, a small town of the Helvetic republic, in a district of the same name, adjacent to Neuchatel and Valengin, and united with another named *La Glauce de Fond*. Both these districts occupy some valleys formed by the mountains of Jura; the greatest part of which was some years ago one continued forest, but is now converted into fine pasture ground filled with flourishing villages. The population before the late war, was greatly increased, owing to the early marriages of the inhabitants; to the liberty allowed to every stranger, who brings a certificate of his good behaviour, to settle in the district: to follow any trade without restriction, and without an apprenticeship; to the want of taxes, and an unbounded freedom of commerce. The inhabitants were remarkable for industry and genius, and carried on an extensive commerce in lace, stockings, cutlery, and other merchandise of their own manufacture; particularly excelling in watch and clock making. They made all the utensils necessary in these arts, and invented several new ones; by which means that business was carried on to so great an extent, that 40,000 watches were computed to be annually made. They also invented several astronomical and mathematical instruments. One of the most eminent in this way was Jaquet Droz, whose son exhibited several surprising automatical figures in England. One of these played upon a harpsichord; another drew landscapes; and a third copied any word presented to it, or wrote down whatever was dictated. The inhabitants of these districts are very courteous to strangers; are in general well informed, and have circulating libraries in many of their villages. Their houses are plastered, white washed, well built, and furnished with a degree of elegance peculiarly striking in these sequestered mountains. "Such perfect ease and plenty (says Mr Coxe) reigns throughout these mountains, that I scarcely saw one object of poverty: the natural effects of industry under a mild and equitable government." We fear these districts now exhibit a melancholy reverse of this pleasing picture, in consequence of the devastations committed during the late war.

LOCMARIAQUER, a town of France, in the dep. of Morbihan, 6 miles S. of Auray.

LOCMINE, a town of France in the dep. of Morbihan, 11 miles S. of Pontivy.

\* LOCOMOTION. *n. f.* [*locus* and *motus*, Lat.] Power of changing place.—All progression, or animal *locomotion*, is performed by drawing on, or impelling forward, some part which was before at quiet. *Brown's V. Errors.*

\* LOCOMOTIVE. *adj.* [*locus* and *moveo*, Lat.] Changing place; having the power of removing or changing place.—I shall consider the motion, or *locomotive* faculty of animals. *Derham's Physico-Theology.*—

In the night too oft he kicks,

Or shows his *locomotive* tricks. *Prior.*

—An animal cannot well be defined from any particular, organical part, nor from its *locomotive* faculty, for some adhere to rocks. *Arbutnot.*

LOCRENAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Finisterre, 8 miles NW. of Quimper.

(1.) LOCRI, or LOCRI EPIZEPHYRII, in ancient

cient geography, a town of the Bruttii, on the Ionian sea: a colony of the Locri Ozolæ; (*Strabo.*) rather of the Epicnemidii, according to Virgil, who calls it *Naryxii Locri*, from Naryx a town of the Locri Epicnemidii. The epithet *Epizephyrii* is from its situation near the promontory Zephyrium. (*Strabo.*) See LOCRI, N° 1.

(2.) LOCRI, or LOCRENSES, the people of LOCRI. They are said to have been the first who used a code of written laws, compiled by ZALEUCUS from the laws of the Cretans, Lacedæmonians, and the Areopagitæ, adding an express penalty to each law, which was before discretionary, at the option of the judge. (*Strabo.*) Adultery was punished with the loss of both eyes. Zaleucus's own son being convicted of this crime, in order to maintain the authority of the law, and at the same time to pay some regard to the intercession of the people in favour of his son, Zaleucus suffered the loss of one eye, his son losing another. (*Ælian, Val. Maximus.*) See LOCRI, N° 2.

LOCRIDA. See LOCHRIDA.

(I.) LOCRI, the district or territory of the Locri, in Bruttii in Italy. See LOCRI, N° 1.

(II.) LOCRI; a country of Achaia, in Greece; twofold, and divided by mount Parnassus: into

1. LOCRI CITERIOR, occupied by the *Locri Ozolæ*, or *Zephyrii*, i. e. Western Locri, contained between Ætolia and Phocis, beginning at Naupaetum, and running in a narrow slip of land, scarce 200 stadia, along the sea to the borders of the Phocænes.

2. LOCRI ULTERIOR lay beyond Parnassus, running out towards Thermopylæ, and reaching to the Euripus of Eubœa; occupied by the *Locri Opuntii*, who dwelt on the Eubœan sea; and the *Locri Epicnemidii*, who occupied mount Cnemis; (*Strabo.*) and these two were the Eastern Locri.

LOCULAMENTA, and LOCULI, in botany; cells or pockets: The internal divisions of a capsule, or other dry seed-vessel. These cells contain the seeds; and differ in number in different plants.

LOCULUS is also sometimes used to express the minute divisions in some species of *anthers*, which contain the fine impalpable powder, supposed by the sexualists to be the principal agent in the generation of plants.

LOCUS GEOMETRICUS, a line by which a local or indeterminate problem is solved. Thus if a right line suffice for the construction of the equation, it is called *locus ad rectum*; if a circle, *locus ad circulum*; if a parabola, *locus ad parabolam*; if an ellipsis, *locus ad ellipsin*: and so of the rest of the conic sections.

(1.) \* LOCUST. *n. f.* [*locusta*, Lat.] A devouring insect.—The Hebrews had several sorts of *locusts*, which are not known among us: the old historians and modern travellers remark, that *locusts* are very numerous in Africa, and many places of Asia; that sometimes they fall like a cloud upon the country, and eat up every thing they meet with. Moses describes four sorts of *locusts*. Since there was a prohibition against using *locusts*, it is not to be questioned but that these creatures were commonly eaten in Palestine, and the neighbouring countries. *Galm-t.*—To-morrow will I bring the *locusts* into thy coast. *Exod.*—Air replete with the steams of animals rotting, has produced

pestilential fevers; such have likewise been produced by great quantities of dead *locusts*. *Art.*

(2.) LOCUST, in zoology. See GRYL.

(3.) LOCUST, in botany. See CERA.

(4.) LOCUST, AMERICAN, or FROG LOCUST. See CICADA.

(5.) LOCUST, BASTARD. See HYM.

LOCUST-EATERS. See ACRIDOPHA.

(1.) \* LOCUST-TREE. *n. f.* The *locust* a papilionaceous flower, from whose calyx the pointal, which afterwards becomes a singular hard pod, including roundish seeds, which are surrounded with a fungous substance. *Miller.*

(2-4.) LOCUST TREE. See GLEDITSIA, and ROBINIA.

LOCUTIUS. See AIUS.

LOCUTORIUM. The monks and laymen in monasteries, after they had dined in a common hall, had a withdrawing-room, where they met and talked together among themselves, which room, from that sociable use and conversation, they called *locutorium*, from *loquere*; as we call such a place in our houses the French *parler*; and they had another room, which was called *locutorium*, where they might talk with laymen.

LODAN, a river of Herefordshire, which runs into the Frome, 5 miles N. of Hereford.

(1.) LODDON, a town of Norfolk, 113 N. of Ipswich, and 113 NNE. of London. 18. E. Lat. 52. 36. N.

(2.) LODDON, a river in Berkshire, which runs into the Thames, 5 miles below Reading.

(1.) LODÉ, a town of Sardinia, 54 miles S. of Sassari, and 80 N. of Cagliari.

(2.) LODÉ, in mining. See LOAD.

LODER, a town of Germany, in Saxony.

LODESAN, a ci-devant territory of France, bounded on the W. and N. by the Milan, E. by Crema and the Cremona, S. by Placentia and Pavia; famous for its wine, which about 70,000 l. worth is exported annually. The capital is LODI. It is now included in the Italian republic and dep. of Olona.

\* LODESTAR. See LOADSTAR.

\* LODESTONE. See LOADSTONE.

LODEVE, a town of France, in the department of Hérault, containing about 4,200 citizens, 10 N. of Beziers, and 8 W. of Montpellier. 30. E. Lat. 42. 47. N.

LODEWITZ, a river of Upper Saxony.

(1.) LODGE, Thomas, M. D. an English physician and poet of the 17th century.

He was educated at Oxford, but graduated at He settled in London, and obtained great favour among the Roman Catholics, as he was in communion. He wrote two plays; *the* *of Civil War*, a tragedy; and, *A Letter for London*, a tragic-comedy: and assisted in some others. He died in 1625.

(2.) \* LODGE. *n. f.* [*logis*, French.]

A house in a park or forest.—He broke up his house and retired himself, with his wife and children, to a certain forest, which he called *the lodge*, wherein he hath built two fine lodges. He found him as melancholy as a *lodge* in a *Swiss*.—

He and his lady both are at the lodge. *Shak.*  
Thus at their shady lodge arriv'd, both stood.

*Milton.*

—Whenever I am turned out, my lodge descends upon a low-spirited family. *Swift.* 2. Any small house appendant to a greater; as, the porter's lodge.

(1.) \* *To LODGE.* *v. a.* [*logian*, Saxon; *loger*, French.] 1. To place in a temporary habitation.—When he was come to the court of France, the king filled him by the name of the duke of York; lodged him, and accommodated him, in great state. *Bacon.* 2. To afford a temporary dwelling; to supply with harbour for a night.—

Ev'ry house was proud to lodge a knight.

*Dryden.*

To place; to plant.—

When on the brink the foaming boar I met,  
And in his side thought to have lodg'd my spear,  
The desp'rate savage rush'd within my force,  
And bore me headlong with him down the rock.

*Orway.*

He lodg'd an arrow in a tender breast,  
That had so often to his own been prest. *Addi.*  
In viewing again the ideas that are lodg'd in the memory, the mind is more than passive. *Locke.*  
To fix; to settle.—

By whose fell working I was first advanc'd,  
And by whose pow'r I well might lodge a fear  
To be again displac'd. *Shak.*

I can give no reason,

More than a lodg'd hate, and a certain loathing  
I bear Antonio *Shak.*

To place in the memory.—This cunning the  
I would not understand, though he lodg'd it,  
Noted it, in some particulars. *Bacon.* 6. To  
hour or cover.—

The deer is lodg'd, I've track'd her to her  
covert;  
I wish in at once. *Addison.*

To afford place to.—The memory can lodge a  
her store of images than all the senses can pre-  
sent one time. *Cheyne.* 8. To lay flat.—

Though bladed corn be lodg'd, and trees  
blown down,  
High castles topple on their warders heads.

*Shak.*

We'll make foul weather with desp'ed tears;  
Our sighs, and they, shall lodge the summer corn,  
And make a dearth in this revolting land. *Shak.*

(2.) \* *To LODGE.* *v. n.* 1. To reside; to keep  
abode.—

Care keeps his watch in ev'ry old man's eye,  
And where care lodgeth sleep will never lie.

*Shakespeare.*

Nothing holy lodges in that breast. *Milt.*  
And dwells such rage in softest bosoms then?  
And lodges such daring souls in little men?

*Pope.*

To take a temporary habitation.—

Why commands the king,  
That his chief followers lodge in towns about  
him,  
While he himself keepeth in the cold field?

*Shak.*

Know not where he lodges. *Shak.*—Thy father  
man of war, and will not lodge with the peo-  
ple. 3. To take up residence at night.—

L. XIII. PART. I.

My lords

And soldiers; stay and lodge by me this night.

*Shak.*

—Oh, that I had in the wilderness a lodging place,  
of wayfaring men, that I might leave my people.  
*Jeremiah.*—Here thou art but a stranger travelling  
to thy country; it is therefore a huge folly to be  
afflicted, because thou hast a less convenient inn  
to lodge in by the way. *Taylor.* 4. To lay flat.—  
Long coarse wheat they reckon in Oxfordshire best  
for rank clays; and its straw makes it not subject  
of lodge, or to be mildew'd. *Mortimer.*

(1.) \* *LODGEMENT.* *n. f.* [from *lodge*; *logement*, French.] 1. Disposition or collocation in a  
certain place.—The curious lodgement and inof-  
culation of the auditory nerves. *Derbum.* 2. Ac-  
cumulation; collection.—An oppressed diaphragm  
from a mere lodgement of extravasated matter.  
*Sharp's Surgery.* 3. Possession of the enemy's work.  
—The military pedant is making lodgements, and  
fighting battles, from one end of the year to the  
other. *Addison.*

(2.) *LODGEMENT*, in military affairs, a work  
made by the besiegers in some part of a fortifica-  
tion (after the besieged have been driven out,) to  
maintain it, and be covered from the enemy's  
fire.—When a lodgement is to be made on the  
glacis, covert-way, or in a breach, there must  
be a great provision made of fascines, sand-bags,  
gabions, wool-packs, &c. in the trenches; and  
during the action, the pioneers, under the direction  
of an engineer, with fascines, sand-bags, &c.  
should be making the lodgement, in order to form  
a covering, while the grenadiers are storming the  
covertway.

\* *LODGER.* *n. f.* [from *lodge*.] 1. One who  
lives in rooms hired in the house of another.—  
Bafe tyke, call'st thou me host? now, I scorn the  
term; nor shall my Nell keep lodgers. *Shak.*—  
There were in a family, the man and his wife,  
three children, and three servants or lodgers.  
*Graunt.*—Those houses are soonest infected that  
are crowded with multiplicity of lodgers, and nar-  
ty families. *Harvey.*—The gentlewoman begged  
me to stop; for that a lodger she had taken in was  
run mad. *Tatler.*—Sylla was reproached by his  
fellow lodger, that whilst the fellow lodger paid  
£ 3 : 1 : ½ for the uppermost story, he paid for  
the rest £ 24 : 4 : 4½. *Arbut.* 2. One that resides  
in any place.—

Look in that breast; most dirty dear;

Say, can you find but one such lodger there? *Pope.*

\* *LODGING.* *n. f.* [from *lodge*.] 1. Temporary  
habitation; rooms hired in the house of another.

I will in Cassio's lodging lose this napkin,  
And let him find it. *Shak.*

—Let him change his lodging from one end of the  
town to another. *Bacon.*—

At night he came

To his known lodgings, and his country dame.

*Dryden.*

—He desired his sifter to bring her away to the  
lodgings of his friend. *Addison.*—

Wits take lodgings, in the sound of Bow. *Pope*

2. Place of residence.—

Fair bosom fraught with virtue's richest trea-  
sure,

The nest of love, the lodging of delight. *Spenser.*

R. 1

8. Harbour;

3. Harbour; — The hounds were uncoupled; and the stag thought it better to trust to the nimbleness of his feet, than to the slender fortification of his *lodging*. *Sidney*. 4. Convenience to sleep on.—Their feathers serve to stuff our beds and pillows, yielding us soft and warm *lodging*. *Ray on Creation*.

(1.) LODI, a large and strong city of the Italian republic, in the dep. of Olona, and district (late duchy) of Milan, seated on the Adda, containing about 20,000 citizens. It was built in the 12th century, by the emp. Frederick I. and was capital of the LODESAN, as well as of the late department of the Adda. It has a bridge over the Adda, 600 feet long, rendered famous by a bloody battle fought upon it, May 11th, 1796, between the French, under Bonaparte, and the Austrians under gen. Beaulien; wherein the former, by a desperate manœuvre, and with the loss of 700 men, completely routed the latter, in consequence whereof they got possession of all Austrian Lombardy. The Austrians lost 3000 men in the battle. Lodi has a cathedral, 19 churches, and 26 convents. It is 18 miles SE. of Milan, and 15 NW. of Placentia. Lon. 9. 26. E. Lat. 45. 15. N.

(2.) LODI VECCHIO, or OLD LODI, an ancient town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of Olona, district and late duchy of Milan, seated on the Silaro, 3 miles WSW. of Lodi. It was built by Pompey the Great, and named LAUS, or *Laudes POMPEII*, (i. e. *Pompey's Praise*;) and was a very flourishing city, when its prosperity excited the Milanese to destroy it, and expel most of the inhabitants. See LAUS, N° 4.

LODOMERIA, a large territory in the S. of Poland, forcibly seized by the emperor Joseph II. in 1772; and erected into a kingdom, along with another territory, named *Galicia*. (See GALICIA, N° 3.) The population of Galicia and Lodomeria, according to the enumeration made in 1776, was 2,580,796.

LODOSA, a town of Spain, in Navarre.

LODRONE, a town of Italy, in the bishopric of Trent, near which a bloody battle was fought, on the 12th Aug. 1796, between the French and Austrians; wherein the latter were defeated. It is seated at the influx of the Chiese into lake Idro, 25 miles NNE. of Brescia, and 25 SW. of Trent. Lon. 10. 46. E. Lat. 46. 0. N.

LODZICZE, a town of Lithuania, in Troki.

LOE, a river of England, in Cornwall.

LOEFLINGIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the triandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 22d order, *Caryophyllææ*.

LOEMEL, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Deux Nattes, and ci-devant province of Austrian Brabant: 30 miles S. of Bois-le-duc, and 35 E. of Antwerp. Lon. 5. 22. E. Lat. 51. 18. N.

LOENEN, and } two towns of the Batavian  
LOESDRECHT, } republic, in the dep. of Am-  
stel, and late province of Holland, 9 miles S. of Naerden.

LOESELIA, in botany, a genus of the didynamia order, belonging to the angiospermia class of plants.

LOET, a river of France, which runs Juine, at Estampes.

LOEWENSTEIN, a town, fort, and of Germany, in Franconia.

LOFANGER, a town of Sweden, in

LOFFINGEN, a town of Suabia.

LOPSTA, a town of Sweden, in Upl  
mous for its iron works; 32 miles N. of

\* LOFT. *n. f.* [*loft*, Welsh; or from *lij*

floor.—Eutychus fell down from the th  
ABs.—There is a traverse placed in a *lo*

*Baron*. 2. The highest floor.—  
A trickling stream from high rock 1  
down,

And ever drizzling rain upon the *lof*

Mixt with a murmuring wind. *Fai*

3. Rooms on high.—

Hills of snow, and *lofts* of piled thunc

A weasel once made shift to sink

In at a corn *loft*, through a chink.

\* LOFTILY. *adv.* [from *lofty*.] 1. On

an elevated place. 2. Proudly; haughtily

speak *loftily*. *Pf.* lxxiii. 8. 3. With ele

language or sentiment; sublimely.—

My lowly verse may *loftily* arise,

And lift itself unto the highest skies.

\* LOFTINESS. *n. f.* [from *lofty*.] 1.

local elevation. 2. Sublimity; elevation

ment.—

Three poets in three distant ages be

The first in *loftiness* of thought surpass

The next in majesty; in both the last.

3. Pride; haughtiness.—Augustus and

had *loftiness* enough in their temper. *Col*

\* LOFTY. *adj.* [from *loft*, or *loft*.]

hovering; elevated in place.—

Cities of men with *lofty* gates and tow

See *lofty* Lebanon his head advance.

2. Elevated in condition or character.—

The high and *lofty* One. *Ishiah*. 3. Subl-

ated in sentiment.—

He knew

Himself to sing and build the *lofty* rhin

4. Proud; haughty.—The eyes of the

be humbled. *Ishiah*.—

*Lofty* and four to them that lov'd h

*St*

Man, the tyrant of our sex, I hate,

A lowly servant, but a *lofty* mate.

LOFVISTA, a town of Sweden, in t

(1.) LOG. *n. f.* [The original of thi

not known. *Slimmer* derives it from *log*

to lie; *Junius* from *logges*, Dutch, signifi-

the Latin *ligura*, is the true original.] 1.

le's bulky piece of wood.—

Would the lightning had

Burnt up these *logs* that thou'rt burn

*S*

—The worms with many feet are bred t

of timber, and many times in gardens,

*logs* are. *Bacon*.—

Some *logs*, perhaps, upon the water

2. An Hebrew measure, which held a

a cab, and consequently five 6ths of a

cording to Dr Arbuthnot it was a hebre

the 72d part of the bath or ephah, and



1948

LOG, Fig.



Fig. 1.



Fig. 3.



Fig. 45.

Loxia Nigra.



Fig. 2.

Log-Line.

M

9.0	8.0	7.0	6.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0
9.0	8.0	7.0	6.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0
8.0	7.0	6.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
7.0	6.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
6.0	5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
5.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
4.0	3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
3.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

G

Fig. 5.

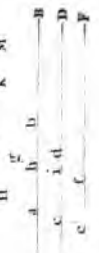


Fig. 7.



Fig. 11.



Fig. 10.



Fig. 12.



Fig. 8.



Fig. 14.



Fig. 14.

Lumbricus Marinus.

hin. *Calmet*.—A meat-offering mingled with oil one *log* of oil. *Lev.*

**LOG**, in the Jews with antiquities, is mentioned Kings vi. 25.) as the fourth part of a cubit. In Leviticus the word *log* is often met with, signifies that measure of oil, which lepers were to use at the temple after they were cured of leprosy.

**LOG**, a sea term, signifying a small piece of wood, *Plate CCIII. fig. 1.* of a triangular, sector or quadrantal, figure, on board a ship, generally about a quarter of an inch thick, and 5 or 6 inches from the angular point to the circumference.

It is balanced by a thin plate of lead, nailed on the arch, or circular side, so as to swim perpendicularly in the water, with about two thirds of an inch under the surface.

**LOG AND LINE**, or the **LOG-LINE**, a little or line, about 150 fathoms long, fastened to the ship by means of two legs *ab* (*fig. 2.*), one of which is fixed to the opposite side, while the other leg is fixed to the arch by a pin fixed into another part of the ship, so as to draw out occasionally. By these the log is hung in equilibrio; and the line unrolled to it is wound round a reel fixed at the corner of the gallery of the ship. This reel is from the distance of about 10, 12, or 15 fathoms off the log, has certain knots or divisions, and is thought to be at least 50 feet from each other, though it was the common practice at sea to have them above 42 feet asunder. The length of each knot ought to be the same part of a mile as half a minute is of an hour; and the measurement of Mr Norwood, who found a degree on a great circle of the earth to be 367,200 English feet, or about 69½ English miles, and, therefore, 1/8th part of it, nautical mile, will be 6120 feet; 1/8th of that or 51 feet, should be the length of each knot.

But because it is safer to have the reckoning before the ship than after it, therefore the length may be taken as the proper length of each knot.

The knots are sometimes made to consist of 42 feet each, even in the present practice; his method of dividing the log-line was founded on the supposition that 60 miles, each of 6000 English feet, made a degree; for 1/15th of 6000 is 400, or, in round numbers, 42 feet. Mariners rather than quit the old way, though known to be erroneous, use glasses for half minute ones, which run but 24 or 25 seconds. They have also a line of 45 feet to 30 seconds, or a glass of 30 seconds to 42 feet. When this is the case, the error between the knots should be corrected by following proportion: as 30 is to 50; so is the number of seconds of the glass to the distance between the knots upon the line. The heat or dryness of the weather has often a considerable effect upon the glass, so as to make it run slower; it should, therefore, be frequently tried by pendulum in the following manner. On a nail hang a string that has a musket-ball at one end, carefully measuring between the middle of the ball and the string's loop over the nail: of the ball and the string's loop over the nail, being the length of a second pendulum; then swing it, and count one for every time it passes under the peg, beginning at the se-

cond time it passes; and the number of swings made during the time the glass is running out shows the seconds it contains. The line also is liable to relax and shrink, and should therefore be occasionally measured. The use of the *log and line* is to keep account and make an estimate of the ship's way or distance run; which is done by observing the length of line unwound in half a minute's time, told by a half-minute glass; for so many knots as run out in that time, so many miles the ship falls in an hour. Thus, if there be 4 knots veered out in half a minute, the ship is computed to run 4 miles an hour. No mention of this device for measuring the ship's way, occurs till 1607, in an East-India voyage published by Purchas; but from that time its name occurs in other voyages among his collections; and henceforward it became famous, being taken notice of both by our own authors and by foreigners; as by Gunter in 1623; Snellius in 1624; Metius in 1631; Oughtred in 1633; Herigone in 1644; Saltonstall in 1636; Norwood in 1637; Pournier in 1643; and almost by all the succeeding writers on navigation of every country.

(5.) **LOG, HEAVING THE**, is throwing it into the water on the lee side, letting it run till it comes without the eddy of the ship's wake; then one, holding a half-minute glass, turns it up just as the first knot, or the mark from which the knots begin to be reckoned, turns off the reel (*fig. 3.*) or passes over the stern. As soon as the glass is out, the reel is stopped, and the knots run off are told, and their parts estimated. It is usual to heave the log once every hour in ships of war and East-Indiamen, and in all other vessels once in two hours; and if at any time of the watch the wind has increased or abated in the intervals, so as to affect the ship's velocity, the officer generally makes a suitable allowance for it at the close of the watch. The log is a very precarious way of computing, and must always be corrected by experience and good sense; there being a great deal of uncertainty in the yawing of the ship going with the wind ast, or upon the quarter, in the heaving of it, by its coming home, or being drawn after the ship; on account of the friction of the reel and lightness of the log in the course of the current, and in the strength of the wind, which seldom keeps the same tenor for two hours together; which is the interval between the times of using the log in short voyages; though in longer ones they heave it every hour. Yet this is a much more exact way of computing than any other in use; much preferable certainly to that of the Spaniards and Portuguese, who guessed at the ship's way by the running of the froth or water by the ship's side; or to that of the Dutch, who used to heave a chip over-board, and to number the paces they walk on the deck while the chip swims between any two marks, or bulk-heads on the side.

(6.) **LOG, THE COMPOUND**. The above mentioned errors, and particularly the log's being subject to drive with the motion which the water may have at its surface, whereas the experiment requires it to be fixed in the place where it is used when the mark commencing the knots goes off the reel, have been considered by writers, and

many methods have been proposed to remove, or at least to lessen them. The late M. Bouguer proposed a method, which has been thought deserving of particular attention, in the Mem. Acad. Sc. 1747; afterwards in his Treatise on Navigation, published at Paris in 1753, and since reprinted in 1760, by the abbé De La Gaille. For this purpose, take for the log a conical piece of wood, which fix to the log-line passed through or along its axis, at about 40, 50, or 60, or more feet, from one end; and to this end fix the diver, which is a body formed of two equal square pieces of tin, or of thin iron plate, fixed at right angles to one another along their diagonals; and its size so fitted to that of the cone, that the whole may float. A cone of three inches diameter in the base, and of six inches in the slant height, is proposed by M. Bouguer to suit a diver made of plates about  $9\frac{1}{2}$  inches square; the intersection of the diagonals is joined to the log-line, and the loop and peg fixed as in the common log. However, it has been found, that no kind of wood used in British dock-yards, when formed into a cone of the above dimensions, will float a diver made of stout tin plates, one side of the square being  $9\frac{1}{2}$  inches. Such a diver weighing  $1\frac{1}{2}$  lb. avoirdupoise, required to float it a cone of five inches diameter and twelve inches on the slant side, so as the point of the cone, which was made of light fir, should just appear above the water. Now supposing one side of such a square tin diver to be about ten inches, and made of plates only two thirds of the thickness of the former, such a diver would weigh, with its solder, about 20 ounces, and can be floated by a light fir cone of four inches diameter in the base, and ten inches in the slant height or length; and such a compound log might perhaps be found on trial to be affected by about as much again as that proposed by M. Bouguer; and consequently the difference between the numbers given by the common log and compound log, must be augmented by two thirds of itself for the necessary correction, as below. When the compound log of Bouguer, above described, is hoisted overboard, the diver will sink too deep to be much affected by the current or motion of water at the surface, and the log will thereby keep more steadily in the place where it first fell; and consequently the knots run off the reel will show more accurately the ship's rate of sailing. As the common log is affected by the whole motion of the current, so this compound log will feel only a part thereof, viz. such a part nearly as the resistance of the cone is to the resistance of the diver; then the resistances of the above cone and diver are about as 1 to 5; and consequently this log will drive but one fifth part of what the common log would do; and so the ship's true run will be affected by one fifth only of the motion of the waters. To obtain the true rate of sailing, it will be proper to heave alternately, hour and hour, the common log and this compound log; then the difference of their knots run off, augmented by its 4th part, is the correction; which, applied to the knots of the common log, will give the ship's true rate of sailing at the middle time between the hours when these logs were hoist. The correction is additive when

the compound log's run is the greatest, other wise it is subtractive. To find the course made good: increase the observed angle between the log-lines by one fourth part; and this gives the correction to be applied to the apparent course, or the opposite of that shown by the common log; the correction is to be applied to the *right* of the apparent course, when the bearing of the common log is to the *left* of the compound log; and *vice versa*, to the *left*, when the bearing is to the *right* of it. Or thus: the lengths run off both logs, together with their bearings, being known; in a card or compass apply the knots run off, taken from a scale of equal parts along their respective bearings, from the centre; join the ends; and in this line produced, on the side next the compound log's length, take one fourth of the interval; then a line drawn from the end, thus produced, to the centre of the card, will show the true course and distance made good. When a current, such as a tide, runs to any depth, the velocity of that current may be much better ascertained by the compound log than by the common one, provided the diver does not descend lower than the run of the current; for as those ships which are deepest immersed, drive fastest with the tide; so the diver, by being acted on below, as well as the log on the surface, their joint motion will give the total effect of the current's motion better than could be had from the motion at the surface only. Also, by such a compound log, the depth to which any current runs may be easily tried.

(7.) LOGS, OTHER KINDS OF. We have an account in the voyage to the North Pole, p. 97. of two other logs, which were tried by capt. Phipps: one invented by Mr Russel, the other by Foxon; both constructed upon this principle, that a spiral in proceeding its own length in the direction of its axis through a resisting medium, makes one revolution round the axis; if therefore, the revolutions of that spiral are registered, the number of times it has gone its own length through the water will be known. In both these the motion of the spiral in the water is communicated to the clock-work within-board, by means of a small line fastened at one end to the spiral, which tows it after the ship, and at the other to a spindle, which sets the clock work in motion. That invented by Mr Russel, has a half spiral of two threads, made of copper, and a small dial with clock-work, to register the number of turns of the spiral. The other log has a whole spiral of wood with one thread, and a larger piece of clock-work with 3 dials, two of them to mark the distance, and the other divided into knots and fathoms, to show the rate by the half minute glass, for the convenience of comparing it with the log. This kind of log will have the advantage of every other in smooth water and moderate weather; and it will be useful in finding the trim of a ship when alone in surveying a coast in a single ship, or in measuring distances in a boat between head-lands and shoals; but it is subject to other inconveniences which will not render it a proper substitute for the common log.

(8.) LOG, THE PERPETUAL, a machine so called by its inventor, Mr Gottlieb of Houndsditch London. It is intended by it to keep a constant and regular account of the rate of a ship's velocity

through the water ; whereas the common log to used does not indicate the variation in locity in the interval of heaving the log, and frequently does not ascertain the true distance the ship has run in any given length of time. *p.* 203. represents the whole machine ; *p.* 204. a part of which, EFG, is fixed to the side of the keel ; H representing only the boundary of the ship's figure. EF are the section of an external case, left open at the ends KL, admit the passage of the water during the motion of the ship. At M is a copper grating, placed to obstruct the entrance of any dirt, &c. into the machine. I, is a section of a water wheel, made 5 to 12 inches in diameter, as may be necessary with float boards upon its circumference, common water wheel, that turn by the resistance of the water passing through the channel. It turns upon a shouldered axis, represented by the vertical section at K. When the ship is in motion, the resistance of the water through the wheel LK turns round the wheel I. This wheel, consisting of a pinion, is connected with and turns round contained in the long copper tube N. A rod by a pinion fixed at its upper extremity is connected with and turns upon the whole of wheels contained in the dial of the case D. This dial, by means of the copper tube may be fixed to any convenient place aboard the ship. In the front of the dial are several useful lines or graduations, as follow : the reference by the line A has an hand which is moved by the motion of the ship in fathoms of 6 feet each. The circle B has an hand showing the knots, at the rate of 6 for each knot ; and is to be observed with a minute glass at any time. The circle at C has a short and a long hand ; the former of which shows the miles in land measure, and the latter longer the number of knots contained in a mile, viz. 128, which is in the same proportion to a mile as 60 minutes to the hour in the sailing. At *e*, a small portion of a circle is shown through the front plate called the register ; it shows, in the course of 24 hours (if the ship upon one tack,) the distance in miles that she has run ; and in the 24 hours the mariner may take but one observation, as this register is an useful check upon the fathoms, knots, &c. which are shown upon the two other circles. *f*, a dial showing 100 degrees or 6000 miles, and is as another register or check ; and is useful to prevent any mistake being made in observing the distance run by the other circles. The sailing by these circles, without fear of mistake may therefore be continued to nearly 12,000 miles. A communication from this machine may be made to the captain's bed-side, where by touching a spring only, a bell in the head of the cabin will sound as many times in an half minute as the ship sails miles in an hour. Mr Gottschalk applied this machine to the Carteret and other moreland packets. He thinks the mariner by this contrivance, be better enabled than otherwise to keep the vessel and his reckoning together ; it being well known that the most experienced navigator is too frequently erroneous in his reckoning, the ship being sometimes a-head, or

sometimes astern, off the reckoning. He also observes, that the construction of the log is such, that if the vessel was to be aground, strike a rock, or strip off her false keel, the parts would not be deranged, and further, should she be laid up for repairs, &c. six months, in half an hour after coming again into the water, the lower immersed part of the log would clear itself, and be in proper action.

(1.) LOGAN, a chief among the Mingo tribe of the N. American Indians, whose pathetic address to Lord Dunmore, governor of Virginia, has been much and justly admired. The occasion was as follows ; and the authenticity of the facts and of the speech is unquestionable. In spring 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Colonel Cresap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on those much-injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanhaway in quest of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was seen coming from the opposite shore, unarmed, and unsuspecting any hostile attack from the whites. Cresap and his party concealed themselves on the bank of the river ; and the moment the canoe reached the shore, singled out their objects, and at one fire killed every person in it. This happened to be the family of LOGAN, who had long been distinguished as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance. He accordingly signalized himself in the war which ensued. In autumn 1774, a decisive battle was fought at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, between the collected forces of the Shawanees, Mingo, and Delawares, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and sued for peace. Logan disdained to be seen among the suppliants ; but, lest the sincerity of a treaty should be distrusted, from which so distinguished a chief absented himself, he sent by a messenger the following speech, to be delivered to Lord Dunmore : “ I appeal to any white man to say if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat ; if ever he came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they passed, and said, *Logan is the friend of white men.* I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Colonel Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not sparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it ; I have killed many ; I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace ; but do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan ? Not one.”

(2.) LOGAN, John, D.D. late a clergyman of the

the church of Scotland, author of several works of merit. He was born in Mid Lothian about 1748; studied divinity at the university of Edinburgh, and was ordained minister of S. Leith, in 1770. In 1781, he published his *Philosophy of History*, the substance of which had been delivered in his public lectures at Edinburgh, with great approbation. He also published his *Poems*, which underwent a 2d edition in 1782. In 1783, he wrote *Runnemedes, a Tragedy*, which he offered to the manager of Covent-garden theatre, but as the lord chamberlain did not relish the political sentiments displayed in it, a licence was refused, though it was afterwards acted at Edinburgh with much applause. His last work was *A Review of the Principal Charges against Mr Hastings*; which contained such bold strokes, that Stockdale, the publisher, was tried for it, but acquitted. Mr Logan died at London, in 1788. Two vols of his *Sermons* were published since his death.

(3.) LOGAN, a county of Kentucky.

(4.) LOGAN, a river of Lanarksh. which rises among the mountains between Lasmahagoe and Muirkirk, and after running 6 miles E. falls into the Nethan, after which the united streams fall into the Clyde.

(5.) LOGAN. See ROCKING STONE.

(1.) LOGARITHMIC, [from *λογος*, ratio, and *αριθμος*, number.] *adj.* belonging to LOGARITHMS.

(2.) LOGARITHMIC CURVE. See LOGARITHMS, Sect. IV.

(3.) LOGARITHMIC LINES. For many mechanical purposes it is convenient to have the logarithms of numbers laid down on scales, as well as the logarithmic lines and tangents; by which means, computations may be carried on by mere measurement with compasses. Lines of this kind are always put on the common Gunter's scale; but as these instruments must be extended to a very great length, in order to contain any considerable quantity of numbers, it becomes an object of importance to shorten them. Such an improvement has been made by Mr William Nicholson, and published in the 77th volume of the *Philos. Trans.* The principles on which the construction of his instruments depends are as follow: I. If two geometrical series of numbers, having the same common ratio, be placed in order with the terms opposite to each other, the ratio between any term in one series and its opposite in the other will be constant: Thus,

2 6 18 54 162, &c.

3 9 27 81 243, &c. Then,

2 3 6 9 18 27 54 81 162 243, &c.

where it is evident, that each of the terms in the upper series is exactly two thirds of the corresponding one in the lower. II. The ratio of any two terms in one series will be the same with that between those which have an equal distance in the other. III. In all such geometrical series as have the same ratio, the property above-mentioned takes place, tho' we compare the terms of any series with those of another: Thus,

{ 2 4 8 16 32 64, &c.

{ 3 6 12 24 48 96, &c.

{ 4 8 16 32 64 128, &c.

{ 5 10 20 40 80 160, &c.; where it is

plain that 2, 4, 3, 6; also 2, 4, 4, 8, and 2, 4, 5,

10, &c. have the same ratio with that of the series. IV. If the differences of the logarithms be laid in order upon equal parallel right lines, in such a manner, that they be drawn across the whole shall intersect it: denoting numbers in geometrical progression by the condition of the arrangement, then from the property of this logarithmic line, it follows: 1st, That every right line so drawn will intersect the series, and indicate a geometrical series; 2dly, That such series as are in these right lines will have the same common ratio; and 3dly, That the series thus indicated by parallel right lines, supposed to move without changing either their mutual distance or their parallelism to themselves, will have each the same ratio; and in all series indicated by such lines, the ratio between an antecedent and consequent, the former taken upon one line, and the latter upon another, will be also the same.

These propositions are proved in the following manner: Let the lines AB, CD, EF, &c. represent parts of the logarithmic line, ranged according to the proportion mentioned; and let GH be a right line passing through the points *e, c, a*, denoting numbers in arithmetical progression; then will any other line drawn across the arrangement, like that through three points *f, d, b*, in geometrical progression. From one of the points of intersection, in the last mentioned line IK, draw a line parallel to GH, and intersecting the logarithmic line in the points *i, b*; and the ratios of the intervals *ei, fb*, will be equal, as well as of the intervals *eb, fi*, because the differences of the logarithms of these numbers are equal. Again, the point *f*, the line *ef*, and the line *eb*, are in arithmetical progression; the differences between the logarithms of the numbers themselves; whence the quotients of the numbers are in geometrical progression. This proposition is proved in a similar manner; it was shown that the line *ef*, parallel to GH, passes through points denoting numbers in the same continued ratio as those denoted by the line GH; it may also be shown that a line LM parallel to any other line IK, passing through a series of points denoting numbers, will have the same continued ratio with the line IK, to which it is parallel. This proposition arises from the parallelism of the lines in their former situation; by which near equal numbers in a geometrical series, having the same common ratio as before: their differences, when the logarithmic line also remains the same, will be constant. V. To find any term in an antecedent and consequent to any geometrical series, it will always be possible to find them, provided the line be of sufficient length. Drawing two parallel lines, through each of the numbers, and supposing them to move without changing their direction or their situation, they will continually describe antecedents and consequents in the same continued ratio as before. VI. Though the line contain no greater range of numbers,

from 1 to 10, it will not be found necessary for the purposes of computation to repeat it. The only thing requisite is to have a slider or beam with two fixed points at the distance of the interval betwixt 1 and 10, and a moveable point be made to range betwixt them always to indicate the antecedent; then, if the consequent fixed point fall without the rule, the other fixed point will always denote the division on which it would have fallen had the rule been prolonged; and this contrivance may easily be adapted to any arrangement of parallel lines whatever. The arrangement of right lines, however, ought always to be disposed in such a manner as to occupy a right angled parallelogram, or the cross line already mentioned ought always to be at right angles to the length of the ruler. *Fig. 6.* is a ruler consisting of ten parallel lines. *Fig. 7.* a beam composed of measuring the intervals. B, A, C, are the parts which apply to the surface of the ruler; the middle one, A, being moveable sidewise in a groove in the piece DE, so as always to preserve parallelism to the external pieces DC, which are fixed at a distance equal to the length of the ruler, and have their edges placed in such a manner as to form with the parallel lines which they intersect a ratio, which by composition is  $\frac{1}{10}$ ; which in the present case requires them to be at right angles to the length. The piece DE is applied to the edge FG of the ruler. The edges or borders H, I, K, L, are more conveniently made of transparent glass, or tortoise-shell, than of any opaque matter. In using this ruler, apply the edge of either B or C to the consequent, and slide the piece A to the antecedent; observing the difference between the numbers on the pieces denoting the lines they are fixed on; then, applying the same edge of A to the other antecedent, the other piece B or C will intersect a consequent in the same ratio upon that line, having the same situation with regard to the antecedent that the line of the former consequent had to its antecedent. But if B be the consequent line, and fall without the ruler, the piece C will intersect the consequent one line lower; or if C, in the same manner, fall without the ruler, then B will intersect the consequent one line higher. "It might be convenient (says Mr Nicholson) for the purpose of computation, to make instruments of this kind with 100 or more lines: but in the present instrument, the numbers on the pieces will answer the purpose; for if a consequent fall upon a line beyond a given number of intervals without the ruler, it will be found on that line of the arrangement, which occupies the same number of intervals reckoned inwards from the opposite edge of the ruler." *Fig. 8.* is an instrument on the plan of a Gunter's scale of 18 inches long, invented by the late Mr Robertson. There is a moveable piece in the slider GH, across which is drawn a fine line: the slider having also lines CD, EF, drawn parallel to it at distances from each other equal to the length of the ruler AB. In using the instrument,

the line CD or EF is to be placed at the consequent, and the line in AB at the antecedent: then, if the piece AB be placed at any other antecedent, the same line CD or EF will indicate its consequent in the same ratio taken the same way: that is, if the antecedent and consequent lie on the same side of the slider, all other antecedents and consequents in that ratio will be in the same manner; and the contrary if they do not. But if the consequent line fall without the rule, the other fixed line on the slider will show the consequent, but on the contrary side of the slider to that where it would else have been seen by means of the first consequent line. *Fig. 9.* is a circular instrument, equivalent to the former; consisting of three concentric circles engraved and graduated upon a plate of an inch and an half diameter. Two legs A and B proceed from the centre, having right-lined edges in the direction of radii; and are moveable either singly or together. In using the instrument, place one of the edges at the antecedent and the other at the consequent, and fix them at the angle. Move the two legs then together; and having placed the antecedent leg at any other number, the other will give the consequent one in the like position on the lines. If the line CD happen to lie between the legs, and B be the consequent leg, the number sought will be found one line farther from the centre than it would otherwise have been: and on the contrary, it will be found one line nearer in the like case, if A be the consequent leg. "This instrument (says Mr Nicholson) differing from that represented *fig. 6.* only in its circular form, and the advantages resulting from that form, the lines must be taken to succeed each other in the same manner laterally; so that numbers which fall either within or without the arrangement of circles, will be found on such lines of the arrangement as would have occupied the vacant places, if the succession of lines had been indefinitely repeated sidewise. I approve of this construction, as superior to every other which has yet occurred to me, not only in point of convenience, but likewise in the probability of being better executed; because small arcs may be graduated with very great accuracy, by divisions transferred from a larger original. The instrument, *fig. 6.* may be contained conveniently in a circle of about four inches and an half diameter. The circular instrument is a combination of the Gunter's line and the sector, with the improvements here pointed out. The property of the sector may be useful in magnifying the differences of the logarithms in the upper parts of the line of fines, the middle of the tangents, and the beginning of the vertical lines. It is even possible, as mathematicians will easily conceive, to draw spirals, on which graduations of parts, every where equal to each other, will show the ratios of those lines by moveable radii, similar to those in this instrument."

# L O G A R I T H M S.

## GENERAL DEFINITION.

(1.) \* **L**OGARITHMS. *n. f.* [*Vogarithme*, Fr. *λογος* and *αριθμος*.]—*Logarithms*, which are the indexes of the ratios of numbers one to another, were first invented by Napier lord Merchiston, a Scottish baron, and afterwards completed by Mr Briggs, Savilian professor at Oxford. They are a series of artificial numbers, contrived for the expedition of calculation, and proceeding in an arithmetical proportion, as the numbers they answer to do in a geometrical one. The addition and subtraction of *logarithms* answers to the multiplication and division of the numbers they correspond with; and this saves an infinite deal of trouble. In like manner will the extraction of roots be performed, by bisecting the *logarithms* of any numbers for the square root, and trisecting them for the cube, and so on. *Harris.*

THE doctrine of logarithms being of great importance in the science of mathematics, we shall explain their nature and properties more fully, in the following section:

### SECT. I. Of the NATURE and PROPERTIES of LOGARITHMS.

(2.) LET there be two series of numbers, the one constituting an arithmetical progression, and the other a geometrical progression, as follows:

*Arith. prog.* 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c.  
*Geom. prog.* 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, &c.

where the terms stand over each other in such a manner, that 0 in the arithmetical series corresponds to unity in the geometrical series; then we shall readily perceive, from induction, that the two series, so arranged, possess the following properties:

(3.) I. Let the sum of any two terms of the arithmetical series be taken; and also the product of the corresponding terms of the geometrical series; then, below that term of the arithmetical series, which is equal to the sum, will be found a term of the geometrical series, equal to the product.

Thus, if the terms of the arithmetical series be 3, and 5, those of the geometrical series will be 8, and 32. Now  $3 + 5 = 8$ ; and  $8 \times 32 = 256$ ; and, by inspecting the two series, we find that the term 256 in the geometrical series stands below 8 of the arithmetical series.

(4.) II. Let the difference of any two terms of the arithmetical series be taken; and also the quotient of the corresponding terms of the geometrical series; then, below that term of the arithmetical series, which is equal to the difference, will be found a term of the geometrical series, equal to the quotient.

Thus, if the terms of the arithmetical series be 5, and 8, and therefore those of the geometrical series 32, and 256; we shall have  $8 - 5 = 3$ , and  $256 \div 32 = 8$ ; and we find, by inspecting the series, that 8 of the geometrical series stands below 3 of the arithmetical series. This last property is evidently nothing else than the converse of the former.

(5.) In the preceding geometrical series the common ratio is 2, but it may be any other number whatever, whole, or fractional. Thus the

same properties will be found to hold these series:

*Arith. prog.* 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,  
*Geom. prog.* 1, 3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729,  
 where the common ratio of the geometrical is 3. They also hold true in the follow-

*Arith. prog.* 0, 1, 2, 3, 4,  
*Geom. prog.* 1,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{8}$ ,  $\frac{1}{16}$ ,  $\frac{1}{32}$ , &c.  
 where the common ratio is  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

(6.) To demonstrate that the two foregoing properties must necessarily be true in every only necessary to write down a geometrical series, according to the algebraic method, thus,  $r^n$ , or 1,  $r^1$ ,  $r^2$ ,  $r^3$ ,  $r^4$ ,  $r^5$ , &c. where  $r$  denotes the ratio of the series, it presently appears, that the arithmetical series, when applied by the numeral exponents of the terms, Hence it follows, that the properties, which have been ascribed to any geometrical, and arithmetical series, are no other than two well known propositions in algebra; that the sum of the exponents of any term of an algebraic quantity is equal to the sum of their product; and that the difference of their exponents is equal to the exponent of their quotient.

(7.) When the terms of an arithmetical progression are adapted to those of a geometrical progression, as in the three examples given in § 5, the terms of the arithmetical series correspond to the *Logarithms* of the corresponding terms of the geometrical series.

Thus, in the first example, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c. are the logarithms of 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, &c. respectively.

In the second example, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c. are the logarithms of the numbers 1, 3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729, &c.

And in the third example, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c. are the logarithms of 1,  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{8}$ ,  $\frac{1}{16}$ ,  $\frac{1}{32}$ , &c.

By applying now the properties of the arithmetical series, which were demonstrated in § 6, to the logarithms, and their corresponding numbers, we find that the logarithms, to be a series of numbers in an arithmetical progression, so adapted to another series of numbers in a geometrical progression, that the differences of the former correspond to the products, and quotients of the latter.

(8.) From this definition of logarithms it appears, that there may be an infinity of systems according as one or another geometrical series is adapted to the arithmetical series, 2, 3, &c. It may however be readily perceived that some systems are better suited to calculation than others. Accordingly, it is found convenient in practice, to adopt that system in which the logarithm of 10 is unity; the numbers which may have their logarithms expressed by integers being as in the following

*Logarithms* 0, 1, 2, 3,  
*Numbers* 1, 10, 100, 1000, 10000, &c.

(9.) With respect to the numbers 10, 100, &c. and their corresponding logarithms, they may be understood to be interpolated, thus: Conceive a geometrical progression to be taken between the natural numbers 1 and 10, the extremes; and an equal number of



tical proportionals between their logarithms 0 and 1: Then, if the number of geometrical proportionals be sufficiently great, some one or other of them will be sufficiently near to each of the natural numbers, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. to 9, so as to admit of the one being taken for the other, without any sensible error. There will also be a corresponding logarithm to each, which, as it will be less than unity, may be most conveniently, expressed by a decimal fraction.

(10.) Let us suppose the number of geometrical proportionals between 1 and 10, and also the number of arithmetical proportionals between 0 and 1, to be 9999, and therefore the number of terms, including 1 and 10, 10001. Then, the 3011th term of the geometrical series will be 1.9999, or 2 nearly, and the corresponding term of the arithmetical series, .3010: Therefore the logarithm of 2 is .3010, nearly. Again, the 4772d term of the geometrical series will be 2.9999, or 3 nearly; and the corresponding term of the arithmetical series .4771; therefore, the logarithm of 3 is .4771, nearly; and so on with respect to other numbers.

(11.) If we suppose the series of natural numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. to be arranged in a table, so that each number may stand opposite to its corresponding logarithm; it is evident from the properties which we have shewn to belong to logarithms, that, by means of such a table, the arithmetical operations of multiplication, division, involution and evolution may be performed with great facility.

(12.) For, since the sum of the logarithms of any two numbers is equal to the logarithm of their product, § 3; the product of any two numbers may be found in the table, opposite to that logarithm, which is the sum of the logarithms of the numbers.

Again; because the difference of the logarithms of two numbers is equal to the logarithm of the quotient arising from the division of the one number by the other, § 4; that quotient will be found in the table, opposite to the logarithm which is the excess of the logarithm of the dividend, over that of the divisor.

(13.) Involution is performed by multiplying the number into itself a number of times, which is one more than the exponent of the power, therefore, if the logarithm of the root be multiplied by the exponent of that power, the product will be the logarithm of the power of the root. And evolution is the reverse of involution, the logarithm of the root of a number will be had if we divide the logarithm of that number by the index of the power; and thence the root itself may be found, by consulting the table of logarithms.

(14.) Upon the whole, therefore, it appears that means of a table containing the series of natural numbers, 1, 2, 3, &c. as far as may be convenient, and their corresponding logarithms, the operations of multiplication and division, may be reduced to the more simple operations of addition, subtraction; and the operations of involution, and evolution, to those of multiplication and division.

VOL. XIII. PART I.

SECT. II. HISTORY of LOGARITHMS.

(15.) THE properties of a geometrical series, which constitute the foundation of the doctrine of logarithms, appear to have been known as far back as the days of ARCHIMEDES; for that celebrated mathematician makes use of them in his work entitled *Arenarius, or Treatise on the number of sands*. The same properties are also mentioned in the writings of STIFELIUS, a German mathematician, who lived about the middle of the 16th century. It does not however appear, that any person perceived all the advantages which might be derived from these properties, till about the beginning of the 17th century; when their utility was rendered evident, by the happy invention of logarithms.

(16.) This discovery, certainly one of the most valuable that ever was made in mathematics, is due to JOHN NAPIER, baron of MERCHISTON, in Scotland, who published it to the world, in 1614, in a work which he called *Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonis Descriptio*, and which contained a large table of logarithms, together with their description and uses: but the author reserved his method of constructing them, till the sense of the learned concerning his invention should be known.

(17.) In the abovementioned work, Napier explains his notion of logarithms, by lines described, or generated, by the motion of points, in this manner. He first conceives a line to be generated by the motion of a point, which passes over equal portions of it, in equal small moments, or portions of time. He then considers another line to be generated by the unequal motion of a point, in such a manner, that, in the aforesaid equal portions, or moments of time, there may be described, or cut off from a given line, parts which shall be continually in the same proportion with the respective remainders of that line, which had before been left; then are the several lengths of the first line the logarithms of the corresponding parts of the latter. Which description of them is similar to that which we have already given, viz. that logarithms are a series of quantities, or numbers, in arithmetical progression, adapted to another series in geometrical progression.

(18.) NAPIER made the first, or whole length of the line, which is diminished in geometrical progression, the radius of a circle; and its logarithm 0, or nothing; representing the beginning of the first, or arithmetical line. Thus the several proportional remainders of the geometrical line are the natural sines of all arches of a quadrant, decreasing down to 0; while the successive increasing values of the arithmetical line are the corresponding logarithms of those decreasing sines: so that while the natural sines decrease from radius to nothing, their logarithms increase from 0 to infinity. Napier made the logarithm of radius to be 0, that he might save the trouble of adding, and subtracting it, in trigonometrical operations, in which it so frequently occurred; and he made the logarithms of the sines, from the entire quadrant down to 0, to increase, that they might be positive, and so, in his opinion, easier to manage; the sines being of more frequent use than the tangents,

gens, and secants, of which, the whole of the latter, and the half of the former, being greater than radius, would, according to his construction, have their logarithms negative.

(19.) The description and use of Napier's canon being in the Latin language, they were translated into English by Mr EDWARD WRIGHT, the ingenious inventor of what is commonly, though erroneously, called MERCATOR'S SAILING. The translation was sent to the author, who revised it, and returned it with his approbation. Mr Wright, however, dying soon after he received it back, the work, together with the tables, was published in 1616, after his death, by his son Samuel Wright, who dedicated it to the East India Company. It contained also a preface by HENRY BRIGGS, of whom we shall have occasion to speak again presently, on account of the great share he bore in perfecting the logarithms.

(20.) As Napier's canon contained only the natural sines for every minute of the quadrant; and their corresponding logarithms, it was attended with some degree of inconvenience, when used as a table of the logarithms of common numbers; because when a number was proposed, which was not exactly the same with some number denoting a natural sine, it was then necessary to find its logarithm by means of an arithmetical calculation, performed according to precepts, which the author delivered in his work. This inconvenience, which was in part obviated by certain contrivances of Wright and Briggs, was not the only one; for there was another, which arose from the logarithms being sometimes +, or additive, and sometimes —, or negative; and which therefore required the knowledge of algebraic addition and subtraction. This last defect was occasioned partly by making the logarithm of radius 0, and those of the sines to increase; and partly by the compendious manner, in which the author had formed the table; making the three columns of sines, cosines, and tangents, to serve also for the other three of cosecants, secants, and cotangents.

(21.) But this latter inconvenience was well remedied by JOHN SPEIDELL, in his *New Logarithms*, first published in 1617; which contained all the six columns, and these all of a positive form, by being taken the arithmetical complements of Napier's, that is, they were the remainders left by subtracting each of the latter from 10,000,000. And the former inconvenience was more completely removed by Speidell in a second table, given in the sixth impression of the former work, in the year 1624. This was a table of *Napier's Logarithms* for the integers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. to 1000, together with their differences, and arithmetical complements; as also the halves of the 50 numbers, with their differences and arithmetical complements; which halves were computed by the logarithms of the square root, or the said numbers. These logarithms are, however, a little varied in their form from Napier's, namely, so as to increase from 1, whose logarithm is 0, instead of decreasing to 1, or radius, whose logarithm Napier made 0 likewise; that is, Speidell's logarithm of  $n$ ; number  $n$  is equal to Napier's loga-

rithm of its reciprocal  $\frac{1}{n}$ . So that, in this last ta-

ble of Speidell's, the logarithm of 1 being logarithm of 10 is 2,302584; the logarithm is twice as much, or 4605168; and that thrice as much, or 6907753. The logarithms tained in this table are now commonly called *perbolic* logarithms; because they serve to the areas contained between the curve of perbola and its asymptote.

(22.) The celebrated inventor of the logarithm died in the year 1618; and in 1619, his son Robert Napier published a new edition of *Arithmetorum Canonis Descriptio*, to which he added the promised *Logarithmorum Canonis Fruitio*; and other miscellaneous pieces with his father and Mr Briggs. This work was printed in France, in 1620; also, nearly about the same time, by different mathematicians abroad, published of logarithms of the same kind as those of our country, as BENJAMIN URBINUS, mathematician Elector of Brandenburg, also the famous FRIEDRICH SCHICKARD, who was then mathematician to the emperor Sigismund II, and others.

(23.) Next to the discovery of logarithms, the most remarkable circumstance connected with their history, is that improvement which they received in their form from HENRY BRIGGS, who at the time of the publication of Napier's logarithms was Professor of geometry in Gresham College London, and afterwards Savilian Professor of astronomy at Oxford, where he died in the year 1630.

(24.) On the first publication of Napier's logarithms, Briggs immediately applied himself to study and improvement of them; and he soon saw that it would be of advantage to change the scale; so that the logarithm of 1 being Napier's form, the logarithm of 10 might be that of 100, 2; of 1000, 3, and so on; the logarithms of the same numbers, according to Napier's construction, were 2,302585, 4,605170, &c. This improvement Briggs communicated both to the public in his lectures, and to Napier himself, who afterwards said, he had also thought of the same thing; as from the following extract translated from the preface to Briggs's *Arithmetica Logarithmica*, I can not but see, that these logarithms were first proposed by him, when the excellent Baron Clifton published in his *Admiranda Curæ* when I explained the doctrine of the logarithms at Gresham College, in London, I said, that it would be much more convenient to have the logarithm of the sine totus being 0 (as in the *Arithmetica*), if the logarithm of the radius (or said radius, namely of 10, 44, 217, were 100, 200, &c. Concerning this, I presently wrote to the said Baron, and as the Baron of the year following would permit, I went to him, where, being kindly received by him, and of his own accord, that when we began to talk about the invention of them, he said, that formerly he had thought of it, and wished it; but he did not publish it, that was all; and I still more time of his life, and he did wait till he had made others more convenient, as to the name of the change, he thought it would be equivalent, not to be said by the logarithm and radius, &c. the logarithm of radius could not but acknowledge was made

rejecting those I had before prepared, and, at his exhortation, to calculate these, next summer I went to Edinburgh, to join the principal of them; and should be glad to do the same the third summer, if God would spare him so long."

It appears that Briggs was the inventor of the present scale of logarithms, in which the radix is 10, and a part of 100, &c. the same, which Napier had in them, advising Briggs to begin at the lowest, and make the logarithms, or artificial as Napier had also called them, to include the natural numbers, instead of those which made no alteration in the figures called Briggs's logarithms, but only in the signs, changing them from negative; for, according to Briggs's first logarithms of 1001, 101, 11, 1, 10, &c. would have been +3, +2, +1, -2, -3, &c. but, in conformity to the use of Napier, they were made -3, -2, -1, +2, +3, &c. which is a change of no importance, as the scale of the system is in either case. And the reason why he at first rejected what he had made, and began anew, was probably because he adapted his new logarithms to arcs, instead of the round numbers, and not from their being logarithmic, as were those of Napier. About the year 1618, Briggs published a thousand logarithms to eight places of figures, under the title of *Logarithmice Canon*. And, in 1624, he published his *Aritmetica Logarithmica*, a stupendous work for so short a time, containing the logarithms of 10,000 natural numbers, to 14 places besides the index; namely, from 1 to 100,000; together with the differences of the logarithms; and in this work the logarithms were calculated to the system which had been agreed upon between him and the first inventor: that is, the same as the system, which we employ at the present time.

After the publication of the *Aritmetica Logarithmica*, ADRIAN VLACQ, or FLACK, the intermediate 70 chiliads, and reprinted it at Gouda, in Holland; thus making the logarithms of all numbers, from 1 to 100,000; but only to ten places of figures. He added a table of artificial sines, tangents, &c. to every minute of the quadrant. VLACQ himself also lived to complete a table of logarithmic sines and tangents, for every degree of the quadrant, to 14 places, besides the index; together with the logarithmic sines, and tangents, to 15 places, besides the index; and the tangents and secants for the same to 15 places, besides the index. These tables were printed at Gouda, under the direction of ADRIAN VLACQ, and nearly finished off before his death.

But the death of the author, which happened in 1630, prevented him from completing the tables, and uses of them. However, the secretary of this office, he recommended, when he was dying, his friend HENRY GELLIBRAND, then

professor of astronomy in Gresham college; who added a preface, and the application of the logarithms to plane and spherical trigonometry, &c. The work was published in 1633, under the title of *Trigonometria Britannica*; and besides the arcs in degrees, and contents of degrees, it has another column, containing the minutes and seconds, answering to the several centims in the first column.

(29.) In the same year, VLACQ printed at Gouda his *Trigonometria Artificialis; sive Magnus Canon Triangulorum Logarithmicus, ad Decadas Secundarum Scrupulorum constructus*. This work contains the logarithmic sines and tangents to 10 places of figures, with their differences, for every 10 seconds in the quadrant. To them is also added Briggs's table of the first 20,000 logarithms; but carried only to 10 places of figures, besides the index, with their differences. The whole is preceded by a description of the tables, and the application of them to plane and spherical trigonometry, chiefly extracted from Briggs's *Trigonometria Britannica*, mentioned above.

(30.) GELLIBRAND published also, in 1635, *An Institution Trigonometrical*, containing the logarithms of the first 10,000 numbers, with the natural sines, tangents, and secants, and the logarithmic sines and tangents for degrees and minutes, all to 7 places of figures, besides the index; as also other tables proper for navigation, with the uses of the whole.

(31.) Having now given some account of such works on logarithms, as seem most celebrated with their first discovery, and subsequent improvement, we shall pass over many others, some of which, however, have been held in high repute, both for their accuracy, and the extent to which the tables have been carried. As, however, even the arrangement of the logarithms, in the tables, has received considerable improvements, since the days of Napier, it may be proper to mention, that they were first reduced to the most convenient form, by JOHN NEWTON, in his *Trigonometria Britannica*, published at London in 1688.

(32.) Among the tables of logarithms, which have been published of late years, in this country, there are two works most deservedly in repute, both for accuracy, and convenience of arrangement: These are, DR HUTTON's *Mathematical Tables, containing Common, Hyperbolic, and Logarithmic Logarithms, &c.* and, TAYLOR's *Tables of Logarithms of all numbers, from 1 to 101000; and of the Sines, and Tangents, to every second of the quadrant*. Several very accurate and well arranged collections of tables of logarithms have also been lately printed in France; one, which deserves to be particularly mentioned, is CALLET's *Portative edition of Tables Portatives de Logarithms*. These contain the logarithms of numbers, from 1 to 108000, and the logarithmic sines, and tangents, for every second, in the first 5 degrees, and for every 10 seconds of the remaining degrees of the quadrant; and also for every 1000th part of the arc, according to the new centesimal division of the quadrant: The logarithms are to 7 decimal places.

(33.) But a more extensive collection of logarithmic tables, than any we have yet mentioned, was begun in France, in 1794, under the direction of C. PRONY, who engaged, "not only to compute

tables, which should leave nothing farther to be desired, with regard to accuracy; but to make them the most extended, and most striking monument of calculation, which had ever been executed, or even imagined." In preparing this work, C. Prony availed himself of the advantage to be derived from the division of labour, by means of which, the greatest perfection of workmanship is obtained in the arts, with the least expence of money and time. By the united labour of C. Prony, and his assistants, who were divided into three classes, two M. S. copies of the tables were prepared; these composed 17 volumes, large folio, and contained

1. An introduction, consisting of an exposition of the analytical formulæ, the use of the trigonometrical table; and a number of auxiliary tables.
2. The natural sines for every 10000th part of the quadrant, calculated to 25 places of decimals, with 7 or 8 columns of differences; to be published with 22 decimals, and 5 columns of differences.
3. The logarithms of these sines, calculated to 24 decimals, with 5 columns of differences.
4. The logarithms of the ratios of the sines to the arcs, for the first five thousand 10000th parts of the quadrant, calculated to 14 decimals, with 3 columns of differences.
5. The logarithms of the tangents, corresponding with the logarithms of the sines.
6. The logarithms of the ratios of the tangents to the arcs, calculated like those in the 4th article.
7. Logarithms of numbers, from 1 to 100000, calculated to 19 places of decimals.
8. The logarithms from 100000 to 200000, calculated to 24 decimals, in order to be published to 12 decimals, and 3 columns of differences.

This immense work, which was begun to be printed at the expence of the French government, was suspended at the fall of the assignats, and was not resumed in 1801; since which period, we have not heard of its farther progress.

### SECT. III. The CONSTRUCTION of LOGARITHMS.

(34.) FROM the general explanation which has been given of the nature of logarithms, in Sect. 1, it is not difficult to see, how we may find the logarithms of as many numbers as we please. For the arithmetical series 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. being assumed to denote the logarithms of the geometrical series

1, 10, 100, 1000, 10000, &c.

if we find any number of arithmetical proportionals, between every two terms of the former; and an equal number of geometrical proportionals, between the corresponding terms of the latter; these arithmetical proportionals will be the logarithms of the corresponding geometrical proportionals.

(35.) The logarithms thus found will not indeed correspond, exactly, to any term in the series of whole numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. but proceeding upon the same principle, the logarithms of these may be also found, as in the following example, where it is proposed to determine the logarithm of the number 9. And as the inserting of two, or more, geometrical proportionals, between any two given numbers, would require the extraction of the cube, or some higher root, we

shall carry on the operation, by inserting a mean, which may be done by the extraction of the square root.

(36.) Because the log. of 1 is 0, and 10 is 1, we are to find an arithmetical mean between 0 and 1; and a geometrical mean

between 1 and 10; the former will be  $\frac{0+1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$

and the latter  $\sqrt{1 \times 10} = \sqrt{10} = 3.1622777$ . Here the log. of 3.1622777 is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Again, let an arithmetical mean be found between  $\frac{1}{2}$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 3.1622777, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{\frac{1}{2}+1}{2} = \frac{1.5}{2} = .75$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 3.1622777} = 5.6234132$ . Thus the log. of 5.6234132 is  $\frac{1.5}{2} = .75$ . For a third operation, an arithmetical mean be found between  $.75$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 5.6234132, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.75+1}{2} = .875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 5.6234132} = 7.4989422$ . Thus the log. of 7.4989422 is  $.875$ .

4th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 7.4989422, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.875+1}{2} = .9375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 7.4989422} = 8.6596431$ . Thus the log. of 8.6596431 is  $.9375$ .

5th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.9375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 8.6596431, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.9375+1}{2} = .96875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 8.6596431} = 9.3325437$ . Thus the log. of 9.3325437 is  $.96875$ .

6th operation. As the geometrical mean exceeds 9, let there now be found an arithmetical mean between  $.96875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.3325437, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.96875+1}{2} = .984375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.3325437} = 9.6875$ .

7th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.984375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.6875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.984375+1}{2} = .9921875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.6875} = 9.84375$ .

8th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.9921875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.84375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.9921875+1}{2} = .99609375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.84375} = 9.921875$ .

9th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.99609375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.921875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.99609375+1}{2} = .998046875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.921875} = 9.9609375$ .

10th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.998046875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.9609375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.998046875+1}{2} = .9990234375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.9609375} = 9.98046875$ .

11th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.9990234375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.98046875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.9990234375+1}{2} = .99951171875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.98046875} = 9.990234375$ .

12th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.99951171875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.990234375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.99951171875+1}{2} = .999755859375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.990234375} = 9.9951171875$ .

13th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.999755859375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.9951171875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.999755859375+1}{2} = .9998779296875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.9951171875} = 9.99755859375$ .

14th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.9998779296875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.99755859375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.9998779296875+1}{2} = .99993896484375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.99755859375} = 9.998779296875$ .

15th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.99993896484375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.998779296875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.99993896484375+1}{2} = .999969482421875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.998779296875} = 9.9993896484375$ .

16th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.999969482421875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.9993896484375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.999969482421875+1}{2} = .9999847412109375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.9993896484375} = 9.99969482421875$ .

17th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.9999847412109375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.99969482421875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.9999847412109375+1}{2} = .99999237060546875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.99969482421875} = 9.999847412109375$ .

18th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.99999237060546875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.999847412109375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.99999237060546875+1}{2} = .999996185302734375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.999847412109375} = 9.9999237060546875$ .

19th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.999996185302734375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.9999237060546875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.999996185302734375+1}{2} = .9999980926513671875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.9999237060546875} = 9.99996185302734375$ .

20th operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.9999980926513671875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.99996185302734375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.9999980926513671875+1}{2} = .99999904632568359375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.99996185302734375} = 9.999980926513671875$ .

21st operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.99999904632568359375$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.999980926513671875, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.99999904632568359375+1}{2} = .999999523162841796875$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.999980926513671875} = 9.9999904632568359375$ .

22nd operation. Let an arithmetical mean be found between  $.999999523162841796875$  and 1, the log. of 10; and a geometrical mean between 9.9999904632568359375, and 10; the former will be  $\frac{.999999523162841796875+1}{2} = .9999997615814208984375$ ; and the latter  $\sqrt{10 \times 9.9999904632568359375} = 9.99999523162841796875$ .

now proceed to explain, by means of the principles of the common algebraic analysis, in the following manner.

(39.) Let  $r$  denote any positive number whatever, different from unity. Then, by assuming proper exponents, the powers of  $r$  may become equal to all positive numbers whatever, whether these numbers be whole or fractional. Thus if  $r=2$ , we have  $2^0=1, 2^1=2, 2^2=4, 2^3=8, 2^4=16, &c.$  as to the intermediate numbers 3, 5, 6, 7, &c. they may be expressed, at least nearly, by fractional powers of 2. Thus,

$2^{1.5850} \approx 3, 2^{2.3219} \approx 5, 2^{2.5850} \approx 6, 2^{2.8073} \approx 7, &c.$   
So also the powers of 10 may become, either exactly, or nearly, equal to all positive numbers whatever. Thus,

$10^0 = 1$	$10^{.7781} = 6$
$10^{.3010} = 2$	$10^{.8451} = 7$
$10^{.4771} = 3$	$10^{.9031} = 8$
$10^{.6021} = 4$	$10^{.9542} = 9$
$10^{.6990} = 5$	$10^1 = 10$

(40.) In general, if  $a$  denote any positive number; it is sufficiently evident, that it is possible to conceive a corresponding number  $A$ , such, that  $r^A = a$ ; and  $A$ , that is the exponent of  $r$ , which gives a power equal to  $a$ , is called the logarithm of  $a$ .

(41.) From this manner of defining logarithms, we readily derive all their properties. For  $a$ , and  $b$  denoting any two numbers; also  $A$  and  $B$  their logarithms; we have  $r^A = a$ , and  $r^B = b$ , therefore

$$r^A \times r^B = ab; \text{ but } r^A \times r^B = r^{A+B};$$

therefore  $A+B$  is the logarithm of  $ab$ ; that is, the sum of the logarithms of any two numbers is equal to the logarithm of the product. Again,

$$\frac{r^A}{r^B} = \frac{a}{b}, \text{ but } \frac{r^A}{r^B} = r^{A-B}; \text{ therefore, } A-B$$

is the logarithm of  $\frac{a}{b}$ ; that is, the difference of the logarithms of two numbers is equal to the logarithm of their quotient.

If we resume the equation  $r^A = a$  we have

$$r^{nA} = a^n, \text{ therefore } nA \text{ is the logarithm of } a^n;$$

and since  $n$  may be either a whole number, or a fraction, it follows, that the logarithm of any power of a number is equal to the logarithm of that number, multiplied by the exponent of the power. Also, that the logarithm of any root of a number is equal to the logarithm of the number divided by the exponent of the root.

(42.) There may be various systems of logarithms, according to the different values which may be given to the number  $r$ , which is called the radical number of the system. In the common system of the logarithms,  $r$  is 10; but in the system of Napier it is 2.7182818. It is evident from the definition given in § 40, that the logarithm of the radical number in every system must be unity. In different systems, the logarithms of the same number are always to one another in a

constant ratio. Suppose that  $A$  is the logarithm of the number  $a$ , the radical number of the system being  $r$ ; and  $A'$  the logarithm of the same number, according to another system, the radical number of which is  $r'$ . Then  $r^A = a$ , and

$$r'^{A'} = a; \text{ therefore } r^A = r'^{A'}, \text{ and } \frac{r^A}{r'^{A'}} = 1;$$

thus it appears, that the fraction  $\frac{r^A}{r'^{A'}}$  depends only on  $r$ , and  $r'$ ; and therefore must be the same, whatever be the value of the number  $a$ .

(43.) Hence it follows, that if the logarithms of numbers according to any one system be given, the logarithms of the same numbers, according to any other proposed system may be readily found. Thus, if the given system be the common logarithms, the radical number of which is 10; and it be required to find the logarithm of any number  $a$ , according to Napier's system; of which the radical number is 2.7182818; let  $A$  denote the logarithm of  $a$ , according to the former system; and  $x$  the logarithm of  $a$ , according to the latter. Then, by substituting 10, and 2.7182818, for  $r$ , and  $r'$ ; also  $x$  for  $A'$ , in the last equation of

§ 42, we have  $10^x = 2.7182818^A$ , and, from the nature of logarithms,

$$\frac{A}{x} \times \log. 10 = \log. 2.7182818,$$

§ 41: Hence

$$x = \frac{\log. 10}{\log. 2.7182818} \times A = \frac{1}{.4342945} \times A = 2.3025851 \times A. \text{ Thus it appears, that Napier's logarithm of any number is equal to the common logarithm of the same number, multiplied by } 2.3025851; \text{ or divided by } .4342945.$$

(44.) Let us now denote any number whatever by  $y$ , and its logarithm by  $x$ ; then,  $r$  representing as before the radical number of the system, the relation between a number and its logarithm is represented by the algebraic equation  $r^x = y$ .

This equation suggests two subjects of enquiry, both capable of being resolved by means of the algebraic method of analysis. These are: First, To determine  $y$  when  $x$  is given; or to determine the number which corresponds to a given logarithm. Secondly, To determine  $x$  when  $y$  is given; that is, to determine the logarithm corresponding to a given number.

(45.) We proceed to the first subject of enquiry, namely, to find an algebraic expression for  $y$ , in terms of  $x$ , and  $r$ ; or to express, generally, any number, by means of its logarithm, and the base, or radical numbers of the system: for this purpose, let us assume

$$r^x = A + Bx + Cx^2 + Dx^3 + Ex^4 + \&c.$$

here  $A, B, C, D, \&c.$  are supposed to be coefficients independent of  $x$ . Let  $z$  denote any other quantity; then in like manner, we have

$$r^z = A + Bz + Cz^2 + Dz^3 + Ez^4 + \&c.$$

Taking now the difference between the assumed equations, and dividing both sides of the result by  $z-x$ , we have

$$\frac{r^x - r^z}{x - z} = \frac{B(x-z) + C(x^2-z^2) + D(x^3-z^3) + \&c.}{x-z}$$

Now it is well known that each of the quantities  $x-z, x^2-z^2, x^3-z^3, \&c.$  which compose the latter part of this equation, is divisible by  $x-z$ ; therefore, the several divisions being actually effected, the last equation may otherwise be expressed thus  $\frac{r^x - r^z}{x - z} = B + C(x+z) + D(x^2+xz+z^2) + E(x^3+x^2z+xz^2+z^3) + \&c.$

(46.) That we may expand the first part of this equation into the form of a series, let us express the numerator  $r^x - r^z$  thus,  $r^z(r^{x-z} - 1)$ ; then, putting  $1+a$  for  $r$ , we have

$$\frac{r^x - r^z}{x - z} = \frac{r^z}{x - z} \left\{ (1+a)^{x-z} - 1 \right\}$$

Now, by the binomial theorem, the quantity  $(1+a)^{x-z}$ , when expanded into a series, is  $1 + \frac{(x-z)a}{1} + \frac{(x-z)(x-z-1)a^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{(x-z)(x-z-1)(x-z-2)a^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \&c.$

Therefore, subtracting unity from this series, and dividing each of the remaining terms by  $x-z$ , as indicated by the latter part of the last equation,

$$\text{we have } \frac{r^x - r^z}{x - z} = r^z \left( a + \frac{x-z-1}{2} a^2 + \frac{(x-z-1)(x-z-2)}{3} a^3 + \&c. \right)$$

Hence it appears that

$$r^z \left( a + \frac{x-z-1}{2} a^2 + \frac{(x-z-1)(x-z-2)}{3} a^3 + \frac{(x-z-1)(x-z-2)(x-z-3)}{4} a^4 + \&c. \right) = B + C(x+z) + D(x^2+xz+z^2) + E(x^3+x^2z+xz^2+z^3) + \&c.$$

This last equation, by supposing  $z = x$ , becomes

$$r^x \left( a - \frac{a^2}{2} + \frac{a^3}{3} - \frac{a^4}{4} + \frac{a^5}{5} - \&c. \right) = B + 2Cx + 3Dx^2 + 4Ex^3 + 5Fx^4 + \&c.$$

and substituting for  $r^x$  the series  $A + Bx + Cx^2 + Dx^3 + Ex^4 + \&c.$  also, putting, for the sake of brevity,

$$a - \frac{a^2}{2} + \frac{a^3}{3} - \frac{a^4}{4} + \frac{a^5}{5} - \&c. = m$$

we find  $\Delta m + Bmx + Cmx^2 + Dmx^3 + Emx^4 + \&c. = B + 2Cx + 3Dx^2 + 4Ex^3 + 5Fx^4 + \&c.$

Hence, by putting the coefficients of the like powers of  $x$  in each series equal to one another,

$$\text{we find } B = Am, C = \frac{Bm}{2}, D = \frac{Cm}{3}, E = \frac{Dm}{4},$$

$$F = \frac{Em}{5}, \&c.$$

Thus we have obtained a series of equations, by which all the coefficients, except  $A$ , the first, are determined. It is however readily obtained from the assumed equation  $r^x = A + Bx + Cx^2 + \&c.$

by taking  $x = 0$ ; for then the first part of the equation, or  $r^x$ , becomes unity, and all the terms of the second part vanish, except  $A$ ; thus  $A = 1$ ,

$$B = \frac{m}{1}, C = \frac{m^2}{1 \cdot 2}, D = \frac{m^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}, E = \frac{m^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4},$$

$$F = \frac{m^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5}, \&c. \text{ and by substituting these values in the assumed series, we find } y = r^x = 1 + \frac{mx}{1} + \frac{m^2x^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{m^3x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{m^4x^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \&c.$$

(47.) Thus we have obtained a series, for  $y$  which will always converge, whatever be the values of the quantities  $m$  and  $x$ . Before, however, the series can be applied to practice, it will be necessary to compute the value of  $m$ , which, by putting  $r = 1$  for its value  $a$ , is equal to this other series

$$\frac{r-1}{1} + \frac{(r-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(r-1)^3}{3} + \frac{(r-1)^4}{4} + \frac{(r-1)^5}{5} - \&c.$$

But as this last series will not converge, unless  $r = 1$  be less than unity, it will be necessary to have recourse to another method of obtaining its sum, than by the mere addition of its terms.

(48.) Resuming, therefore, the equation

$$r^x = 1 + \frac{mx}{1} + \frac{m^2x^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{m^3x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{m^4x^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \&c.$$

let us suppose  $x = 1$ ; and we have

$$r = 1 + \frac{m}{1} + \frac{m^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{m^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{m^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \&c.$$

This series gives the value of  $r$ , when  $m$  is known. Therefore, if we suppose a system of logarithms to be such, that  $m = 1$ , and put  $e$  for the radical number of that system, we have

$$e = 1 + \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \&c.$$

and by reducing a sufficient number of the terms of this series to decimal fractions, and taking their sum, we readily find  $e = 2.7182818$ , nearly. Now, as  $e$  is the radical number of a system, in which  $m = 1$ , for the same reason that

$$r^x = 1 + \frac{mx}{1} + \frac{m^2x^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{m^3x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \&c.$$

we have

$$e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1} + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{x^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \&c.$$

and as this must be true, whatever be the value of  $x$ , we may suppose  $x = m$ ; hence we have

$$e^m = 1 + \frac{m}{1} + \frac{m^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{m^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{m^4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \&c.$$

which last series we have already found to be  $= r$ , therefore  $e^m = r$ ; and, taking the logarithms of both sides of the equation,  $m \times \log. e$

$$= \log. r, \text{ hence at last we find } m = \frac{\log. r}{\log. e}; \text{ or,}$$

since the logarithm of the radical number of any system is unity,  $m = \frac{1}{\log. e}$ . Let this value of

### III. LOGARITHMS. 327

substituted in the series of § 46. and we  
 $r^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1 \cdot \log. e} + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot (\log. e)^2} +$

$\frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot (\log. e)^3} + \&c.$  where it is to be obser-

$x$ , and  $\log. e$  are logarithms belonging to the system, and by this series a number may be found corresponding to any given logarithm whatever.

We are next to investigate a series, which expresses the logarithm, by means of the number, which may be readily obtained, if we recollect in § 47. we found

$$\frac{r-1}{2} - \frac{(r-1)^2}{3} + \frac{(r-1)^3}{4} - \frac{(r-1)^4}{5} + \&c.$$

in § 48. we also found  $\log. r = m \times$   
 hence we have

$$= \log. e \left\{ \frac{r-1}{2} - \frac{(r-1)^2}{3} + \frac{(r-1)^3}{4} - \frac{(r-1)^4}{5} + \&c. \right\}$$

Now, this equation must hold

whatever be the value of  $r$ ; we may therefore substitute  $1 + y$  for  $r$ , and consequently  $y$  for  $r-1$ ; where  $y$  denotes any number whatever; we find

$$-y) = \log. e \left( y - \frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{y^3}{3} - \frac{y^4}{4} + \&c. \right)$$

We have found a series, which expresses the logarithm of any number whatever, by means of the number itself, and the logarithm of another number  $e$ .

The series which we have just now found is of little or no use in the actual construction of logarithms, unless  $y$  be a small fraction; we may however derive from it another series, much adapted to that purpose, in the following

Let us put  $M$  for  $\log. e = \frac{1}{m}$ . Then, because

$$(1+y) = M \left( y - \frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{y^3}{3} - \frac{y^4}{4} + \&c. \right)$$

substitute  $-y$  for  $+y$ , we shall have

$$(1-y) = M \left( -y - \frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{y^3}{3} - \frac{y^4}{4} - \&c. \right)$$

Subtracting this last equation from the former,

$$(1+y) - \log. (1-y) = 2M \left( y + \frac{y^3}{3} + \frac{y^5}{5} + \&c. \right)$$

But, from the nature of logarithms,

$$(1+y) - \log. (1-y) = \log. \frac{1+y}{1-y}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{1+y}{1-y} = 2M \left( y + \frac{y^3}{3} + \frac{y^5}{5} + \frac{y^7}{7} + \&c. \right)$$

Let us put  $z$  for  $\frac{1+y}{1-y}$  and therefore  $\frac{z-1}{z+1}$

$$\text{for } y, \log. z = 2M \left\{ \frac{z-1}{z+1} + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{z-1}{z+1} \right)^3 + \frac{1}{5} \left( \frac{z-1}{z+1} \right)^5 + \&c. \right\}$$

and by a proper application of this series, which always converges, the logarithms of numbers may be found with great facility.

(51.) For example, let us suppose that it is required to compute the logarithm of 2; then because  $z = 2$ , we have  $\frac{z-1}{z+1} = \frac{1}{3}$ , therefore

$$\log. 2 = 2M \left( \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3^3 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 3^5} + \frac{1}{7 \cdot 3^7} + \&c. \right)$$

This series converges very fast, for the 8th term does not exceed  $\frac{1}{100000000}$ ; by redu-

cing, therefore, the first 7 terms to decimals, and taking their sum, we find

$\log. 2 = .3465736 \times 2M = .6931472 \times \log. e$ ; but we cannot find the absolute value of the logarithm of 2, without previously assigning the particular system, to which the logarithm required is to belong. The most simple hypothesis we can assume is, that  $\log. e = 1$ ; hence we have  $\log. 2 = .6931472$ . This system, which corresponds

to the equation  $y = e^x$ , (where  $y$  denotes a number,  $x$  its logarithm, and  $e$ , the base of the system, = 2.7182818) is the same as that first adopted by NAPIER; the logarithms of which are also called *Hyperbolic*, for the reason already assigned in § 21.

(52.) It appears therefore, from § 49 and § 50, that NAPIER'S, or the *Hyperbolic* logarithm of any number  $z$ , is equal to either of these two series

$$\frac{z-1}{1} - \frac{(z-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(z-1)^3}{3} - \frac{(z-1)^4}{4} + \&c.$$

$$2 \left\{ \frac{z-1}{z+1} + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{z-1}{z+1} \right)^3 + \frac{1}{5} \left( \frac{z-1}{z+1} \right)^5 + \&c. \right\}$$

and that the logarithm of  $z$ , according to any other system, is equal to the hyperbolic logarithm of the same number, multiplied by a certain constant quantity  $M = \log. e$ ; which, being peculiar to that system, has been called by writers on logarithms the *Modulus* of the system.

Now it appears, by recurring to § 47. that  $\frac{1}{\log. e}$ , or  $m$ , is equal to this series

$$r-1 - \frac{(r-1)^2}{2} + \frac{(r-1)^3}{3} - \&c.$$

which is evidently the hyperbolic logarithm of  $r$ , the radical number of the system, hence it follows, that the modulus of any system of logarithms, is the reciprocal of the hyperbolic logarithm of the radical number of that system.

(53.) In the common system of logarithms, the radical

# L O G A R I T H M S.

number being 10, the *modulus* of the system may be found by computing the hyperbolic logarithm of 10. Now by the latter series of § 52, we have

$$\text{hyp. log. } 10 = 2 \left\{ \frac{9}{11} + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{9}{11} \right)^3 + \frac{1}{5} \left( \frac{9}{11} \right)^5 + \&c. \right\}$$

But, as this series converges too slowly to be of any use, we may find another that converges faster, by considering, that since  $10 = 2 \times 5$ , therefore,  $\log. 10 = \log. 2 + \log. 5$ : Now we have already found hyp. log. 2, it is only necessary, therefore, to compute hyp. log. 5.

(54.) But, in seeking hyp. log. 10, it will be convenient to begin with even a less number than 5; and for this purpose, we shall investigate a rule, by which, the logarithm of any number being supposed given, the logarithm of another number, a little greater, than the given one, may be found with great facility.

Let  $n$  be a number, whose logarithm is given, and  $n + v$  another number, whose logarithm is required; then, since  $n + v = n \left( 1 + \frac{v}{n} \right)$ , it follows, that  $\log. (n + v) = \log. n + \log. \left( 1 + \frac{v}{n} \right)$ . If we now put  $x = 1 + \frac{v}{n}$ , we

have  $x - 1 = \frac{v}{n}$ , and  $x + 1 = 2 + \frac{v}{n}$ , and

therefore,  $\frac{x - 1}{x + 1} = \frac{v}{2n + v}$ . Hence, by substituting  $1 + \frac{v}{n}$  for  $x$  and  $\frac{v}{2n + v}$  for  $\frac{x - 1}{x + 1}$ ,

in the series for the logarithm of  $x$ , found in § 50, we have

$$\log. (n + v) = \log. n + 2 M \left\{ \frac{v}{2n + v} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{v^3}{(2n + v)^3} + \frac{1}{5} \frac{v^5}{(2n + v)^5} + \&c. \right\}$$

which is the series we proposed to investigate.

(55.) To calculate the hyperbolic logarithm of 10, by this series, we may take  $n = 8$  and  $v = 2$ ,

then  $\frac{v}{2n + v} = \frac{2}{18} = \frac{1}{9}$ , and, remarking that

$\log. 8 = 3 \times \log. 2$ , we have

$$\text{hyp. log. } 10 = 3 \times \text{hyp. log. } 2 + 2 \left( \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{9^3} + \frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{9^5} + \&c. \right).$$

This series converges very fast, so that the three first terms are sufficient to give a result true to the 7th decimal; and accordingly their sum when multiplied by the coefficient 2 will be found = .693147. Now we formerly found hyp. log. 2 = .6931472, § 51, therefore, to the number just

now found, let hyp. log. 8 = 3 by 2.0794416 be added, and the result will be the hyp. log. of 10; the

which, or  $\frac{1}{2.3025851} = .4342945$ , is

of the common system of logarithms

(56.) We may now find the common of 2, for nothing more is necessary, multiply its hyp. log. already found, by 3 *dulus*, .4342945; or divide it by 2 reciprocal of the *modulus*, and, in either find the common logarithm of 2 to The common logarithm of 5 may

found; for since  $5 = \frac{10}{2}$ , we have 1

$10 - \log. 2 = 1 - .3010300 = .6$

(57.) We have investigated a series the logarithm of  $n + v$  may be found of  $n$ ; or the logarithm of  $n$ , from the We shall now investigate another series of which, and the logarithms of any three quantities,  $n - v$ ,  $n$ ,  $n + v$ , of the remaining quantity may be found

Because  $\frac{n^2}{(n - v)(n + v)} = \frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2}$

$2 \log. n - \log. (n - v) - \log. (n + v) = \log. \frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2}$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$

$x$ . Let us suppose  $\frac{n^2}{n^2 - v^2} =$



# III. IV. LOGARITHMS.

$$\log.(n + 1) = \log.n + \frac{NB^3}{3} + \frac{NB^5}{5}$$

$$\log.n = \log.(n - 1) + \log.(n + 1) + \frac{NC^3}{3} + \frac{NC^5}{5} + \&c.$$

EXAMPLE I. It is required to find the logarithm of 2, to 6 places of figures, by series.

$$n = 2, A = \frac{n - 1}{n + 1} = \frac{1}{3}, \text{ and the cal-}$$

will stand as below.

$$N = .8685890 \quad NA = .2895297$$

$$A^3 = .0321760 \quad \frac{NA^3}{3} = .0107233$$

$$A^5 = .0035944 \quad \frac{NA^5}{5} = .0007149$$

$$A^7 = .0003972 \quad \frac{NA^7}{7} = .0000567$$

$$A^9 = .0000441 \quad \frac{NA^9}{9} = .0000049$$

$$A^{11} = .0000049 \quad \frac{NA^{11}}{11} = .0000004$$

of 2 to six decimals is  $.301030$ .  
Required the common logarithm of 3 to six figures, having given the log. of 2, by series.

$$+ 1 = 3, n = 2, B = \frac{1}{2n + 1} = \frac{1}{5}$$

$$N = .8685890 \quad NB = .1737178$$

$$B^3 = .0069487 \quad \frac{NB^3}{3} = .0023162$$

$$B^5 = .0002779 \quad \frac{NB^5}{5} = .0000556$$

$$B^7 = .0000111 \quad \frac{NB^7}{7} = .0000016$$

$$\text{dd log. 2.} \quad = \frac{.1760912}{.3010299}$$

log. of 3 to six places is  $.4771211$   
withms of 2 and 3 being found, we hence

$$.4 = 2 \log. 2 = .6020600$$

$$.5 = \log. 10 - \log. 2 = .6989700$$

$$.6 = \log. 2 + \log. 3 = .7781511$$

$$.8 = 3 \log. 2 = .9030900$$

$$.9 = 2 \log. 3 = .9542422$$

Having given the logarithms of 6, and 8, derived from these to determine the loga-

7, to 6 places of figures, by the third

$$n = 7, C = \frac{1}{2n - 1} = \frac{1}{9}$$

III. PART. I.

$$N = .8685890, NC = .0089548$$

$$NC^3 = .0000010 \quad \frac{NC^3}{3} = .0000003$$

$$\log. 6 = .7781513$$

$$\log. 8 = .9030900$$


---


$$2)1.6901961$$

$$\log. \text{ of } 7 = \frac{.8450980}{.845098}$$

Instead of finding the logarithm of 7 from the logarithms of 6 and 8, we might have otherwise found it from those of 5 and 6, or those of 8 and 9; in the former case we should have had  $n - 1 = 5$ ,  $n = 6$ ,  $n + 1 = 7$ , and  $C = \frac{1}{7}$ ; and therefore

$$\log. 7 = 2 \log. 6 - \log. 5 - \left\{ \frac{N}{7} + \frac{N}{3 \cdot 7^3} + \frac{N}{5 \cdot 7^5} + \&c. \right\}$$

and in the latter case  $n - 1 = 7$ ,  $n = 8$ ,  $n + 1 = 9$ ,  $C = \frac{1}{127}$ ; and hence

$$\log. 7 = 2 \log. 8 - \log. 9 - \left\{ \frac{N}{127} + \frac{N}{3 \cdot 127^3} + \&c. \right\}$$

(60.) Proceeding in this manner, we may find the logarithms of as many numbers as we please, by deriving them one from another. Thus we have  
 $\log. 12 = \log. 2 + \log. 6$ .

$$2 \log. 11 = \log. 10 + \log. 12 + N \left\{ \frac{1}{241} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 241^3} + \&c. \right\}$$

$$\log. 14 = \log. 2 + \log. 7.$$

$$2 \log. 13 = \log. 12 + \log. 14 + N \left\{ \frac{1}{327} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 327^3} + \&c. \right\}$$

and in this way might a table of logarithms be calculated; it would however be necessary to compute the logarithms of the numbers at the beginning of the table, to many more figures than were intended to be retained; because, that at each operation, the last figure of the logarithm is set down only to the nearest figure. But in constructing a table there are many expedients by which the calculations may be abridged; these we cannot here find room to explain; and must therefore refer the curious reader to Dr HUTTON'S Mathematical Tables, where he will meet with ample information on the subject.

## SECT. IV. Of certain CURVES related to LOGARITHMS.

(61.) THE discovery of logarithms suggested to mathematicians the idea of curve lines, which might have similar properties to those numbers; Hence, the origin of the *Logarithmic*, or, as it has been also called, the *Logistic curve*, the nature and properties of which we now proceed to explain.

L O G A R I T H M S. SECT. IV.

PLATE CCIII, fig. 11. Let CD be the logarithmic curve, and AB its base or abscissa, in which be taken any number of points P, P', P'', that the lines AP, AP', AP'', &c. may constitute an arithmetical progression; then, if perpendiculars or ordinates, PM, P'M', P''M'', &c. be drawn, meeting the curve in the points M, M', M'', &c. its nature is such, that the ordinates PM, P'M', P''M'', constitute a geometrical progression. Hence, and from the properties of logarithms, it appears, that the abscissas AP, AP', AP'', &c. may be considered as the logarithms of their corresponding ordinates PM, P'M', P''M'', &c. respectively.

(63.) That we may express the relation between any abscissa, and its corresponding ordinate, by means of an equation, let us put the ordinate at the point A, or AC, = 1; take Ap, a given portion of the abscissa, and put pm, the corresponding ordinate, = a; take pp', p'p'', &c. in the abscissa, equal to one another and to Ap; and let AP = x × Ap; draw the ordinates p'm', p''m'', &c. also PM. Then, from the nature of continued proportionals p'm' = a<sup>x</sup>, p''m'' = a<sup>2x</sup>, &c. to PM, which will be expressed by a<sup>x</sup>; hence, if we put PM = y, we have a<sup>x</sup> = y for the equation of the curve.

(64.) From this equation, as well as by other methods, all the properties of the logarithmic curve may be derived. We shall briefly mention some of the most remarkable.

- I. The base AB is an asymptote to the curve.
- II. If PM be an ordinate to the curve at M, and MQ a tangent at the same point, the subtangent PQ is a constant quantity, and equal to the modulus of the particular logarithmic system, to which the curve belongs.
- III. The curvilinear space, comprehended between any two ordinates AC, PM, is equal to the rectangle contained by PQ the subtangent and PM - AC the difference of the ordinates.

(65.) There is yet another curve, the properties of which are analogous to those of logarithms; namely, the common hyperbola. PLATE CCIII, fig. 12. Let C be its center, and CD, CE, its asymptotes, in either of which, let the points A, A', A'', A''', &c. be taken, so that CA, CA', CA'', CA''', &c. may be continued geometrical proportionals; draw AB, A'B', A''B'', A'''B''', &c. parallel to the other asymptote, meeting the curve in B, B', B'', B''', &c. and join CB, CB', CB'', CB''', &c. Then, it is demonstrated by writers on conics, that the hyperbolic sectors CBB', CBB'', CBB''', &c. are equal to each other; and that the quadrilateral spaces ABB'A', A'B'B''A'', A''B''B'''A''', &c. are all equal to one another, and to each of the sectors. Hence the sectors CBB', CBB'', CBB''', &c. or the quadrilateral figures ABB'A', ABB''A'', ABB'''A''', &c. have equal differences, while their corresponding abscissas CA, CA', CA'', &c. have equal ratios to one another, viz. the ratio of CA to CA'; Thus the former are analogous to the logarithms of the latter.

(66.) Let H be the vertex of the hyperbola, draw HG and HK parallel to the asymptotes, so as to form the rhombus HGCK; then, putting CE = 1, if CP denote any number whatever, and PQ be drawn parallel to the other asymptote, the hyperbolic area KHQP will serve to express the logarithm of CP, according to a system, the modulus of which is denoted by the area of the rhombus CKHG. If the asymptotes contain a right angle, the area of the rhombus will be = 1, and thus the hyperbolic areas will express NAPIER'S or the hyperbolic logarithms. But any system of logarithms whatever may be represented by hyperbolic areas; thus if the asymptotes contain an angle of 25° 44' 25'' 5, the area of the rhombus will be .43429448, &c. viz. equal to the modulus of the common system of logarithms, and therefore the hyperbolic areas equal to the common logarithms.

L O G L O G

**LOG-BOARD**, a sort of table, divided into several columns, containing the hours of the day and night, the direction of the winds, the course of the ship, and all the material occurrences that happen during the 24 hours, or from noon to noon; together with the latitude by observation. From this table the different officers of the ship are furnished with materials to compile their journals, wherein they likewise insert whatever may have been omitted, or reject what may appear superfluous in the log-board.

**LOG-BOOK**, a book into which the contents of the log-board is daily copied at noon, together with every circumstance deserving notice that may happen to the ship, or within her cognizance, either at sea or in a harbour, &c. The intermediate divisions or watches of the log-book, containing four hours each, are usually signed by the commanding officer in ships of war or East-India-men. See NAVIGATION.

**LOGEFOUGEROUSE**, a town of France, in

the dep. of the Vendee; 3 miles S. of Chataigne raye.

**LOGENWASSER**, a river of Silesia, in Naib.  
**\* LOGGATS**, *n. f.* Loggats is the ancient name of a play or game, which is one of the unskilful games enumerated in the 33d statute of Hen VIII. It is the same which is now called kittle-pin in which boys often make use of bones instead of wooden pins, throwing at them with another bone instead of bowling. *Hanmer*.—Did these boys cost no more the breeding, but to play at loggats with them? *Shak*.

**\* LOGGERHEAD**, *n. f.* [*'ogge*, Dutch, *log* and *head*; or rather from *log*, a heavy motioned mafs, as *blockhead*.] A dolt; a blockhead; thickscul.—

Where hast been Hal?  
 —With three or four *loggerheads*, amongst th  
 or four score hogheads. *Shak*.—Says this *logg  
 head*, what have we to do to quench other p  
 ple's fires! *L'Esfrange*.

\* LOGGI

**LOGGERHEAD.** *adj.* [from *loggerhead*.] stupid; doltish.—You *loggerheaded* and un- groom, what! no attendance; *Slovak*.

**LOGGERHEADS, TO FALL TO.** } To scuffle;  
**LOGGERHEADS, TO GO TO.** } to fight with-

**LOGGERS.**—A couple of travellers that took in, *fall to loggerheads* which should be his *L'Esfrange*.

**LOGGIE.** See **LOGIE**.

**LOGGIE EASTER,** a parish of Scotland, in

the counties of Ross and Cromarty, about 7 m. long and 2 broad, 4 miles from the town of Tain. The soil is various, but fertile; yet a considerable part of it is not cultivated. The surface is hilly in the middle. Oats, barley, peas, and potatoes, are the chief crops. The population, in 1791 was 1125; increase 275, since 1755; the number of horses was 600; and of black cattle about 1500, besides some sheep.

**LOG-HILL,** a town of Ireland, in Limerick.

L O G I C.

**DEFINITIONS: and DIVISION, of LOGIC.**

**LOGIC** is defined by Dr Johnson in the following manner:

*SICK. n. f.* [*logique*, French; *logica*, Latin. *et.*] The art of reasoning. One of the sciences.—*Logick* is the art of using reason in our inquiries after truth, and the communication of it to others. *Watts.*—

Talk *logick* with acquaintance, practise rhetoric in your common talk.

*Stak.*

*logick* that left no man any thing which he all his own, they no more looked upon it as of one man, but the case of the king- arden.—

re foam'd rebellious *logick*, cagg'd and sound,

stript fair rhetorick languish'd on the proud.

*Pope.*

**LOGIC** is, by others, more accurately defined, of thinking and reasoning justly, or the or history of the human mind; as it traces the progress of our knowledge from our first and simple conceptions through all their different divisions, and all those numerous deductions that result from variously comparing them one to another.

The object of this science therefore is, To examine the nature of the human mind, and the proper manner of conducting its several powers, in order to attain truth and knowledge. It lays open the errors, which we are apt through inattention to run into; and teaches us how to distinguish between truth, and the appearance of it. It means we become acquainted with the true and power of the understanding; see what is within its reach; where we may attain truth by demonstration; and when we must content with probability.

**LOGIC** is generally divided into four parts, **PERCEPTION, JUDGMENT, REASONING, and METHOD;** which comprehend the whole sense and operations of the human mind.

PART I.

OF PERCEPTION.

is surrounded with a variety of objects, acting differently upon his senses, convey impressions into the mind, and thereby attract the attention and notice of the understanding reflecting too on what passes within us,

we become sensible of the operations of our own minds, and attend to them as a new set of impressions. But in all this there is only bare consciousness. The mind, without proceeding any farther, takes notice of the impressions that are made upon it, and views things in order, as they present themselves one after another. This attention of the understanding to the objects acting upon it, whereby it becomes sensible of the impressions they make, is called by logicians **PERCEPTION**; and the notices themselves, as they exist in the mind, and are there treasured up to be the materials of thinking and knowledge, are distinguished by the name of **IDEAS**. In the article **METAPHYSICS** it will be shown at large, how the mind, being furnished with ideas, contrives to diversify and enlarge its stock: we have here chiefly to consider the means of making known our thoughts to others; that we may not only understand how knowledge is acquired, but also in what manner it may be communicated with the greatest certainty and advantage.

SECT. I. Of WORDS, considered as the SIGNS of our IDEAS.

I. OUR ideas, though manifold and various, are nevertheless all within our own breasts, invisible to others, nor can of themselves be made to appear. But God, designing us for society, and to have fellowship with those of our kind, has provided us with organs fitted to frame articulate sounds, and given us also a capacity of using those sounds as signs of internal conceptions. Hence spring **WORDS** and **LANGUAGE**: for having once pitched upon any sound to stand as the mark of an idea in the mind, custom by degrees establishes such a connection between them, that the appearance of the idea in the understanding always brings to our remembrance the sound or name by which it is expressed; as in like manner the hearing of the sound never fails to excite the idea for which it is made to stand. And thus it is easy to conceive how a man may record his own thoughts, and bring them again into view in any succeeding period of life. For this connection being once settled, as the same sounds will always serve to excite the same ideas; if he can but register his words in the order and disposition in which the present train of his thoughts present themselves to his imagination, it is evident he will be able to recal his thoughts at pleasure, and that too in the very manner of their first appearance. Accordingly we find, that the inventions of writ-

ing and printing, by enabling us to fix and perpetuate such perishable things as sounds, have furnished us with the means of giving a kind of *permanency* to the transactions of the mind, inasmuch that they may be in the same manner subjected to our review as any other objects of nature.

II. But, besides the ability of recording our own thoughts, there is this farther advantage in the use of external signs, that they enable us to communicate our thoughts to *others*, and also to receive information of what passes in *their* breasts. For any number of men, having agreed to establish the same sounds as signs of the same ideas, it is apparent that the repetition of these sounds must excite the like perceptions in each, and create a perfect correspondence of thoughts. When, for instance, any train of ideas succeed one another in my mind, if the names by which I am wont to express them have been annexed by those with whom I converse to the very same set of ideas, nothing is more evident, than that, by repeating those names according to the tenor of my present conceptions, I shall raise in their minds the same course of thought that has taken possession of my own. For by barely attending to what passes within themselves upon hearing the sounds which I repeat, they will also become acquainted with the ideas in my understanding, and have them in a manner laid before their view. So that we here clearly perceive how a man may communicate his sentiments, knowledge, and discoveries to others, if the language in which he converses be extensive enough to mark all the ideas and transactions of his mind. But as this is not always the case, and men are often obliged to invent terms of their own to express new views and conceptions of things; it may be asked, how in these circumstances we can become acquainted with the thoughts of another, when he makes use of words, to which we have never annexed any ideas, and which of course can raise no perceptions in our minds? To unveil this mystery, and give some insight into the foundation, growth, and improvement of language, the following observations will be found of considerable moment.

III. First, that no word can be to any man the sign of an idea, till that idea comes to have a real existence in his mind. For names being only so far intelligible as they denote known internal conceptions; where they have none such to answer them, they are plainly sounds without signification, and of course convey no instruction or knowledge. But no sooner are the ideas to which they belong raised in the understanding, than, finding it easy to connect them with the established names, we can join in any agreement of this kind made by others, and thereby enjoy the benefit of their discoveries. The first thing therefore to be considered is, how these ideas may be conveyed into the mind; that being there, we may learn to connect them with their appropriated sounds, and to become capable of understanding others, when they make use of these sounds in laying open and communicating their thoughts. To comprehend this distinctly, it will be necessary to attend to the division of our ideas into the simple and complex: (see *METAPHYSICS*.) And first, as for our simple

ideas; they can find admission into the mind, but by the two original fountains of knowledge, sensation and reflection. If therefore any of these have as yet no being in the understanding, it is impossible by words or a description to excite them there. A man who had never felt the sensation of *HEAT*, could not be brought to comprehend that sensation by any thing we might say to explain it. If we would really produce the idea in him, it must be by applying the proper object to his senses, and bringing him within the influence of a hot body. When this is done, and experience has taught him the perception to which men have annexed the name *heat*, it then becomes to him the sign of that idea, and he therefore understands the meaning of the term, which, before, all the words in this world would not have been sufficient to convey into his mind. The case is the same in respect of light and colours. A man born blind, and thereby deprived of the only conveyance for ideas of this class can never be brought to understand the names by which they are expressed. The reason is plain: they find for ideas that have no existence in his mind; and as the organ appropriated to their reception is wanting, all other contrivances are vain, nor can they by any force or description be raised in his imagination. But it is quite otherwise in our complex notions. For these being no more than certain combinations of simple ideas, put together in various forms; if the original ideas out of which the collections are made have already had admission into the understanding, and the names serving to express them are known; it will be easy, by enumerating the several ideas concerned in the composition, and marking the order or manner in which they are united, to raise the complex conception in the mind. Thus the idea answering to the word *rainbow* may be readily excited in the imagination of another who has never seen the appearance itself, by barely describing the figure, largeness, position, and order of colours; if we suppose these several simple ideas, with their names, sufficiently known to him.

IV. This leads to a 2d observation upon this subject, namely, That words standing for complex ideas are all definable, but those by which we denote simple ideas are not; for simple ideas being secondary perceptions, which have no other entrance into the mind than by sensation or reflection, can only be got by experience, from the several objects of nature, proper to produce these perceptions in us. Words indeed may serve to remind us of them, if they have already found admission into the understanding, and their connection with the established names is known; but they can never give them their original being or existence there. Hence, when any one asks the meaning of a word denoting a simple idea, we pretend not to explain it to him by a definition, knowing that to be impossible; but, supposing him already acquainted with the idea, and ignorant of the name by which it is called, we mention it to him by some other name which we presume he knows its connection with, and appeal to the object where the idea itself is found. Thus, were any one to ask the meaning of

*white*, we should tell him it stood for the idea as *albus* in Latin, or *blanc* in French; or, thought him a stranger to these languages, might appeal to an object producing the idea, saying it denoted the colour we observe in milk. But this is by no means a definition of the word, exciting a new idea in his understanding; but merely a contrivance to remind of a known idea, and teach him its connection with the established name. For if the ideas which he inquires have never yet been raised in his mind; as suppose one who had seen no colours than black and white, should ask the meaning of the word *scarlet*; it is easy to perceive, that it would be no more possible to make him comprehend it by words, or a definition, than to produce the same perception into the imagination of a man born blind. The only method in such a case is, to present some object, by looking at which the perception itself may be excited; and he will learn both the name and the idea together.

But how comes it to pass, that men agree in names of their simple ideas, seeing they can never make known these perceptions by words to others? The effect is produced by experience and association. Thus finding, for instance, that the heat of *heat* is annexed to that sensation which we feel when they approach the fire, I make it the sign of the sensation excited in me by such an approach, nor have any doubt but it denotes the same perception in my mind as in theirs. For we are naturally led to imagine, that the same operations alike upon the organs of the human mind, and produce an uniformity of sensations. We see, for instance, that the idea raised in him by the smell of sugar, and which he calls *sweetness*, differs from that excited in another by the like means; or wormwood, to whose relish he has given the name *bitter*, produces in another the sensation which he denotes by the word *sweet*. Presuming therefore upon this conformity of perceptions, and that they arise from the same objects, we easily give names to the names of our simple ideas: and at any time, by a more narrow scrutiny into things, new ideas of this class come in our way, which we choose to express by terms of our own invention; these names are explained, not by a definition, but by referring to the objects whence ideas themselves may be obtained.

Being in this manner furnished with simple ideas, and the names by which they are expressed, the meaning of terms that stand for complex ideas is easily got, because the ideas themselves referring to these terms may be conveyed into the mind by definitions. For our complex notions are only certain combinations of simple ideas. When therefore these are enumerated, and the manner in which they are united into one conception explained, nothing more is wanting to that conception in the understanding; and the term denoting it comes of course to be understood. And here it is worth while to reflect upon the wisdom and goodness of the way, in thus furnishing us with the very aptest means of communicating our thoughts. For were it so ordered, that we could thus convey our

complex ideas to one another by definitions, it would in many cases be impossible to make them known at all. This is apparent in those ideas which are the proper work of the mind. For as they exist only in the understanding, and have no real objects in nature in conformity to which they are framed; if we could not make them known by description, they must lie for ever hid within our own breasts, and be confined to the narrow limits of a single mind. All the fine scenes that arise from time to time in the poet's fancy, and by his lively painting give such entertainment to his readers; were he destitute of this faculty of laying them open to the view of others by words and description, could not extend their influence beyond his own imagination, or give joy to any but himself.

VII. There is this additional advantage in the ability we enjoy of communicating our complex notions by definitions; that as these make by far the largest class of our ideas, and most frequently occur in the progress and improvement of knowledge, so they are by these means imparted with the greatest readiness, than which nothing would tend more to the increase and spreading of science: for a definition is soon perceived; and if the terms of it are well understood, the idea itself finds an easy admission into the mind. Whereas in simple perceptions, where we are referred to the objects producing them, if these cannot be come at, as is sometimes the case, the names by which they are expressed must remain empty sounds. But new ideas of this class occurring very rarely in the sciences, they seldom create any great obstruction. It is otherwise with our complex notions; for every step we take leading us into new combinations and views of things, it becomes necessary to explain these to others, before they can be made acquainted with our discoveries: and as the manner of defining is easy, requiring no apparatus but words, which are always ready; and at hand, we can with the less difficulty remove such obstacles as might arise from terms of our own invention, when they are made to stand for new complex ideas suggested to the mind by some present train of thinking. And thus at last we are let into the mystery hinted at in the being of this Section, viz. how we may become acquainted with the thoughts of another, when he makes use of words to which we have as yet joined no ideas. The answer is obvious from what has been already said. If the terms denote simple perceptions, he must refer us to these objects of nature whence the perceptions themselves are to be obtained; but, if they stand for complex ideas, their meaning may be explained by a definition.

## SECT. II. Of DEFINITIONS.

I. A Definition is the unfolding of some conception of the mind, answering to the word or term made use of as the sign of it. Now as, in exhibiting any idea to another, it is necessary that the description be such as may excite that precise idea in his mind; it is plain that definitions, properly speaking, are not arbitrary, but confined to the representing of certain determinate settled notions, such namely as are annexed by the speaker or writer to the words he uses. As nevertheless it is

universally

the signification of words is not the effect of any connection between them and sound; some may perhaps are not so too. To unravel distinctly what is and in speech, we must carefully attend to the connection of our words and the unfolding of the ideas them-

as to the connection of our words and is plain, is a purely arbitrary invention for instance, we have in our of any particular species of metals, by the name *gold* is an effect of the voice of men speaking the same language, not of any peculiar aptness in that metals that idea. Other nations we of different sounds, and with the thus *aurum* denotes that idea in Latin, and even the word *gold* itself served to express the idea we call *silver*, had custom in used it.

we are thus entirely at liberty any idea with any sound, yet it is in unfolding the ideas themselves. an idea having a precise appearance of which it is distinguished from every other manifest, that in laying it open to others, such a description as shall exhibit its appearance. When we have formed a figure bounded by 4 equal sides, joined at right angles, we may express that sound, and call it either a *square* or a

*triangle*. But whichever of these names we use, so long as the idea is the same, the description by which we would signify it to another must be so too. Let it be called *square* or *triangle*, it is still a figure having 4 equal sides, and all its angles right ones. Hence we clearly see what is and what is not arbitrary in the use of words. The establishing any sound as the mark of some determinate idea in the mind, is the effect of free choice, and a voluntary combination among men: and as different nations make use of different sounds to denote the same ideas, hence proceeds all that variety of languages which we meet with in the world. But when a connection between our ideas and words is once settled, the unfolding of the idea answering to any word, which properly constitutes a definition, is by no means an arbitrary thing: for here we are bound to exhibit that precise conception which either the use of language, or our own particular choice, hath annexed to the term we use.

IV. Thus it appears, that definitions, considered as descriptions of ideas in the mind, are steady and invariable, being bounded to the representation of these precise ideas. But then, in the application of definitions to particular names, we are altogether left to our own free choice; because as the connecting of any idea with any sound is a perfectly arbitrary institution, the applying the description of that idea to that sound must be so too. When therefore logicians tell us that the definition of the name is arbitrary, they mean no more than this; that as different ideas may be connect-

ted with any term, according to the good pleasure of him that uses it; in like manner may different descriptions be applied to the term, suitable to the ideas so connected. But this connection being settled, and the term considered as the sign of some fixed idea in the understanding, we are no longer left to arbitrary explanations, but must find such a description as corresponds with that precise idea. Now this alone, according to what has been before laid down, ought to be accounted a definition. What seems to have occasioned a small confusion in this matter, is, that many explanations of words, where no idea is unfolded, but merely the connection between some word and idea asserted, have yet been dignified with the name of definitions. Thus, when we say that *a clock is an instrument by which we measure time*; that is by some called a definition; and yet it is plain that we are previously supposed to have an idea of this instrument, and only taught that the word *clock* serves in common language to denote that idea. By this rule all explanations of words in our dictionaries will be definitions, nay, the names of even simple ideas may be thus defined. *White*, we may say, is the colour we observe in snow or milk; *heat* the sensation produced by approaching the fire; and so in innumerable other instances. But these, and all others of the like kind, are by no means definitions, exciting new ideas in the understanding, but merely contrivances to remind us of known ideas, and teach the connection with the established names.

V. But now in definitions properly so called, we first consider the term we use, as the sign of some inward conception, either annexed to it by custom, or our own free choice; and then the business of the definition is to unfold and explain the idea. As therefore the whole art lies in giving just and true copies of our ideas; a definition is then said to be perfect, when it serves distinctly to excite the idea described in the mind of another, even supposing him before wholly unacquainted with it. This point settled, let us now inquire what those ideas are which are capable of being thus unfolded? In the first place it is evident, that all our simple ideas are necessarily included. We have seen that experience alone is to be consulted here, inasmuch that if either the objects whence they are derived come not in any way, or the avenues appointed by nature for the reception, are wanting, no description is sufficient to convey them into the mind. But when the understanding is already supplied with the original and primitive conceptions, as they may be united together in an infinity of different forms, so may all their several combinations be distinctly laid open, by enumerating the simple ideas concerned in the various collections, and tracing the order and manner in which they are linked one to another. Now these combinations of simple notions constitute what we call our complex notions; whence it is evident, that complex ideas, and these alone, admit of that kind of description which goes by the name of a definition.

VI. Definitions, then, are pictures or representations of our ideas; and as these representations are then only possible when the ideas themselves are complex, it is obvious, that definitions cannot

place but where we make use of terms standing such complex ideas. But our complex idea being nothing more than different combinations of simple ideas, we then know and comprehend them perfectly, when we know the several ideas of which they consist, and can so put together in our minds, as may be necessary for the framing of that peculiar connection, which gives every idea its distinct and proper appearance.

I. Two things are therefore required in every definition: first, That all the original ideas, out of which the complex one is formed, be distinctly separated; and, 2dly, That the order and manner of combining them into one conception be fully explained. Where a definition has these respects, nothing is wanting to its perfection; because every one who reads it and understands the sense, seeing at once what ideas he is to join together, and also in what manner, can at pleasure in his own mind the complex conception answering to the term defined. Let us, for instance, describe the word *square* to stand for that idea by which we represent to ourselves a figure whose subtend quadrants of a circumscribed circle. The parts of this idea are the sides bounding the square. These must be 4 in number, and all equal among themselves, because they are each to subtend a 4th part of the same circle. But, besides these component parts, we must also take notice of the manner of putting them together, if we would exhibit the precise idea for which the word *square* here stands. For 4 equal right lines, any-where joined, will not subtend quadrants of a circumscribed circle. A figure with this property must have its sides standing also at right angles. We begin therefore in this last consideration respecting the manner of combining the parts, the idea of a square as described, and the definition thereby rendered complete. For a figure bounded by 4 equal lines, joined together at right angles, has the property required; and is moreover the only right-lined figure to which that property belongs.

III. It will now be obvious to every one, in what manner we ought to proceed, in order to arrive at just and adequate definitions. First, we must take an exact view of the idea to be defined, trace it to its original principles, and break the several simple perceptions that enter into the composition of it. 2dly, We are to consider the particular manner in which these elementary ideas are combined, in order to form that complex conception for which the term we make use of stands. When this is done, and the idea fully unravelled, we have only to transcribe the sense it makes to our own minds. Such a description, by distinctly exhibiting the order and manner of our primitive conceptions, cannot fail to be at the same time in the mind of every one that reads it, the complex idea resulting from the definition; and therefore attains the true and proper sense of a definition.

III. *Of the COMPOSITION and RESOLUTIONS of our IDEAS, and the RULES of DEFINITION thence arising.*

The rule laid down in the last section is general, extending to all possible cases; and is in-

deed that to which alone we can have recourse, where any doubt or difficulty arises. It is not, however, necessary that we should practise it in every case. Many of our ideas are extremely complicated, inasmuch that to enumerate all the simple perceptions out of which they are formed, would be a very troublesome and tedious work. For this reason logicians have established certain compendious rules of defining, of which we shall give some account. But for the better understanding of what follows, it is necessary to observe, that there is a certain gradation in the composition of our ideas. The mind of man is very limited in its views, and cannot take in a great number of objects at once. We must therefore proceed by steps, and make our first advances subservient to those which follow. Thus, in forming our complex notions, we begin at first with but a few simple ideas, such as we can manage with ease, and unite them together into one conception. When we are provided with a sufficient stock of these, and have by habit and use rendered them familiar to our minds, they become the component parts of other ideas still more complicated, and form what we may call a second order of compound notions. This process may be continued to any degree of composition we please, mounting from one stage to another, and enlarging the number of combinations.

II. But in a series of this kind, whoever would acquaint himself perfectly, with the last and highest order of ideas, finds it the most expedient method to proceed gradually through all the intermediate steps. For, were he to take any very compound idea to pieces, and, without regard to the several classes of simple perceptions that have already been formed into distinct combinations, break it at once into its original principles, the number would be so great as perfectly to confound the imagination, and overcome the utmost reach and capacity of the mind. When we see a prodigious multitude of men jumbled together in crowds, without order or any regular position, we find it impossible to arrive at an exact knowledge of their number. But if they are formed into separate battalions, and so stationed as to fall within the leisure survey of the eye; by viewing them successively and in order, we come to an easy and certain determination. It is the same in our complex ideas. When the original perceptions, out of which they are framed, are very numerous, it is not enough that we take a view of them in loose and scattered bodies; we must form them into distinct classes, and unite these classes in a just and orderly manner, before we can arrive at a true knowledge of the compound notions resulting from them.

III. This gradual progress of the mind to its compound notions, through a variety of intermediate steps, plainly points out the manner of conducting the definitions by which these notions are conveyed into the minds of others. For as the series begins with simple and easy combinations, and advances through a succession of different orders, rising one above another in the degree of composition, it is evident, that, in a train of definitions expressing these ideas, a like gradation is to be observed. Thus the complex ideas of the lowest

lowest order can no otherwise be described than by enumerating the simple ideas out of which they are made, and explaining the manner of their union. But then in the second, or any other succeeding order, as they are formed out of those gradual combinations, and constitute the inferior classes, it is not necessary, in describing them, to mention one by one all the simple ideas of which they consist. They may be more distinctly and briefly unfolded, by enumerating the compound ideas of a lower order, from whose union they result, and which are all supposed to be already known in consequence of previous definitions. Here then it is, that the logical method of defining takes place; which, that it may be the better understood, we shall explain somewhat more particularly the several steps and gradations of the mind in compounding its ideas, and thence deduce that peculiar form of a definition which logicians have thought fit to establish.

IV. All the ideas we receive, from the several objects of nature that surround us, represent distinct individuals. These individuals, when compared together, are found in certain particulars to resemble each other. Hence, by collecting the resembling particulars into one conception, we form the notion of a *species*. And here let it be observed, that this last idea is less complicated than that by which we represent any of the particular objects contained under it. For the idea of the species excludes the peculiarities of the several individuals, and retains only such properties as are common to them all. Again, by comparing several species together, and observing their resemblance, we form the idea of a *genus*; where, in the same manner as before, the composition is lessened, because we leave out what is peculiar to the several species compared, and retain only the particulars wherein they agree. It is easy to conceive the mind proceeding thus from one step to another, and advancing through its several classes of general notions, until at last it comes to the highest genus of all, denoted by the word *being*, where the bare idea of existence is only concerned.

V. In this procedure we see the mind unravelling a complex idea, and tracing it in the ascending scale, from greater or less degrees of composition, until it terminates in one simple perception. If now we take the series the contrary way, and, beginning with the last or highest genus, carry our view downwards, through all the inferior genera and species, quite to the individuals, we shall thereby arrive at a distinct apprehension of the conduct of the understanding in compounding its ideas. For, in the several classes of our perceptions, the highest in the scale is for the most part made up of but a few simple ideas, such as the mind can take in and survey with ease. This first general notion, when branched out into the different subdivisions contained under it, has in every one of them something peculiar, by which they are distinguished among themselves; inasmuch that, in descending from the genus to the species, we always superadd some new idea, and thereby increase the degree of composition. Thus the idea denoted by the word *figure* is of a very general nature, and composed of but few simple perceptions, as implying no more than space eve-

ry where bounded. But if we descend and consider the boundaries of this space they may be either lines or surface, with the several species of figure. For when it is bounded by one or more surfaces, it is called the name of a *solid* figure; but where the boundaries are lines, it is called a *plain* figure.

VI. In this view of things it is evident the species is formed by superadding a new idea to the genus. Here, for instance, the genus is a circumscribed space. If now to this we add the idea of a circumscription by lines, we have the notion of that species of figures which is called *plain*; but if we conceive the circumscription to be by surfaces, we have the species of *solids*. This superadded idea is called a *specific difference*, not only as it serves to divide the genus into the several subdivisions, we thereby also distinguish the species one from another. And as the general idea, completes the notion of a species; hence it is plain, that the genus and a specific difference are to be considered as the constituent parts of the species. If we proceed the progress of the mind still farther, and advancing through the inferior species, we find its manner of proceeding to be the same. For every lower species is formed by superadding some new idea to the species above it; inasmuch that in this descending order, our perceptions, the understanding passes through different orders of complex notions, which come more and more complicated at every step.

Let us resume here, for instance, the species of plain figures. They imply no more than space bounded by lines. But if we take a further consideration of the nature of this space, as whether they are *right* or *curves*, we have the subdivisions of plain figure, distinguishing the names of *rectilinear*, *curvilinear*, and *mixtilinear*. VII. And here we must observe, that the plain figures, when considered as one general branch that come under the notion of a species; yet, when divided with the classes, of curvilinear, rectilinear, mixtilinear, into which they themselves are divided, they really become a genus of the several before mentioned subdivisions constitute inferior species. These species, in the same manner as in the case of plain and solid figures, consist of a genus and specific difference as their constituent parts. For in the curvilinear kind, the idea of the lines bounding the figure makes up the *specific difference*; to which if we join the idea of a plain figure or space circumscribed by lines, we have all that is necessary to complete the notion of this species. We may also take notice, that this last subdivision into two genera above it, viz. plain figure, and curve-lined figures, the genus joined with the specific difference, in order to constitute the species of curve-lined figures, is that which lies nearest to the species. It is the notion of plain figure, and curve-lined figure, that joined with the specific difference, makes up the complex conception of curve-lined figures. For in this descend-



is, figure in general, plain figures, curves, &c. the two first are considered as general of the third; and the 2d in order, or that next to the 3d is called the *nearest genus*. It is this 2d idea, which, joined with of curvity, forms the *species*, of curves; it is plain, that the 3d or last idea is made up of the nearest genus and difference. This rule holds invariably, as the series is continued; because, in ideas thus succeeding one another, all the last; are considered as so many in respect of that last; and the last itself formed by superadding the specific difference genus next it.

Here then we have an universal description applicable to all our ideas of whatever kind, the nearest genus to the lowest species. For, in order downwards from the said 2d, they every where consist of the *genus*, and *differentia specifica*, as logicians call them. But when we come to the lowest of all, comprehending under it only indivisible superadded idea, by which these individuals distinguished one from another, no longer the name of the specific difference. It serves not to denote distinct species, but a variety of individuals, each of which, a particular existence of its own, is theoretically different from every other of the same. And hence it is, that in this last case, we call the superadded idea by the name of *individual difference*; inasmuch that, as the idea is made up of the nearest genus and difference, so the idea of an individual is the lowest species and numeric difference; the circle is a species of curve-lined and what we call the *lowest species*, as comprehending under it only individuals. Circles are distinguished from one another by length and position of their diameters. Hence therefore and position of the diameter from what logicians call the *numerical difference*, because, these being given, the circle is described, and an individual thereby formed.

Thus the mind, in compounding its ideas, proceeding with the most general notions, consisting of but a few simple notions, are combined and brought together into one. Thence it proceeds to the species added under this general idea, and these formed by joining together the genus and specific difference. And as it often happens, that ideas may be still farther subdivided, and a long series of continued gradations, various orders of compound perceptions. All these several orders are regularly and uniformly formed by annexing in every step the difference to the nearest genus. When the method of procedure we are come to the end of all, by joining the species and difference, we frame the ideas of individuals. The series necessarily terminates, because it is not possible any farther to bound or limit our ideas. This view of the composition of representing their constituent parts in the progress of the progression, naturally points out

II. PART. I.

the true and genuine form of a definition. For as definitions are no more than descriptions of the ideas for which the terms defined stand; and as ideas are then described, when we enumerate distinctly and in order the parts of which they consist; it is plain, that by making our definitions follow one another according to the natural train of our conceptions, they will be subject to the same rules, and keep pace with the ideas they describe.

X. As therefore the first order of our compound notions, or the ideas that constitute the highest genera in the different scales of perception, are formed by uniting together a certain number of simple notions; so the terms expressing these genera are defined by *enumerating the simple notions so combined*. And as the species comprehended under any genus, or the complex ideas of the 2d order, arise from superadding the specific difference to the said general idea; so the definition of the names of the species is absolved, in a detail of the ideas of the specific difference, connected with the term of the genus. For the genus having been before defined, the term by which it is expressed stands for a known idea, and may therefore be introduced into all subsequent definitions, in the same manner as the names of simple perceptions. It will now be sufficiently obvious, that the definitions of all the succeeding orders of compound notions will every where consist of the term of the nearest genus, joined with an enumeration of the ideas that constitute the specific difference; and that the definition of individuals unites the names of the lowest species with the terms by which we express the ideas of the numeric difference.

XI. Here then we have the true and proper form of a definition, in all the various orders of conception. This is that method of defining which is commonly called *logical*, and which we see is perfect in its kind, inasmuch as it presents a full and adequate description of the idea for which the term defined stands.

## PART II.

### OF JUDGMENT.

#### SECT. I. Of the GROUNDS of HUMAN JUDGMENT.

THE mind being furnished with ideas, its next step in the way to knowledge is, the comparing these ideas together, in order to judge of their agreement or disagreement. In this joint view of our ideas, if the relation is such as to be immediately discoverable by the bare inspection of the mind, the judgments thence obtained are called *intuitive*, from a word that denotes *to look at*; for in this case, a meer attention to the ideas compared suffices to let us see how far they are connected or disjointed. Thus, that *the WHOLE is greater than any of its PARTS*, is an intuitive judgment; nothing more being required to convince us of its truth, than an attention to the ideas of *whole* and *part*. And this too is the reason why we call the act of the mind forming these judgments *INTUITION*; as it is indeed no more than an immediate perception of the agreement or disagreement of any two ideas.

II. But here it is to be observed, that our know-

U u

ledge

of this kind respects only our ideas, and the  
 ons between them; and therefore can serve  
 as a foundation to such reasonings as are em-  
 ployed in investigating those relations. Now it fo  
 , that many of our judgments are conver-  
 ut facts, and the real existence of things,  
 cannot be traced by the bare contemplation  
 of ideas. It does not follow, because I have  
 of a circle in my mind, that therefore a  
 swering to that idea has a real existence  
 . I can form to myself the notion of a  
 or golden mountain, but never imagine  
 at account that either of them exists. What  
 are the grounds of our judgment in relation  
 ts? EXPERIENCE and TESTIMONY. By ex-  
 ce we are informed of the existence of the  
 objects which surround us, and operate u-  
 r senses. Testimony is of a wider extent,  
 ches not only to objects beyond the present  
 our observation, but also to facts and  
 us, which being now past, and having  
 any existence, could not without this  
 ance have fallen under our cognizance.

Here we have three foundations of human  
 ent, from which the whole system of our  
 ledge may with ease and advantage be deri-  
 First, intuition, which respects our ideas  
 themselves, and their relations; and is the founda-  
 tion of that species of reasoning which we call  
 DEMONSTRATION. For whatever is deduced from  
 our intuitive perceptions, by a clear and connec-  
 ted series of proofs, is said to be demonstrated,  
 and produces absolute certainty in the mind.  
 Hence the knowledge obtained in this manner is  
 what we properly term SCIENCE; because in every  
 step of the procedure it carries its own evidence  
 along with it, and leaves no room for doubt or he-  
 sitation. And it is highly worthy of notice, that  
 as the truths of this class express the relation be-  
 tween our ideas, and the same relations must ever  
 and invariably subsist between the same ideas, our  
 deductions in the way of science constitute what  
 we call ETERNAL, NECESSARY, and IMMUTABLE  
 TRUTHS. If it be true that the whole is equal to  
 all its parts, it must be so unchangeably; because  
 the relation of equality being attached to the ideas  
 themselves, must ever intervene where the same  
 ideas are compared. Of this nature are all the  
 truths of natural religion, morality and mathema-  
 tics, and in general whatever may be gathered  
 from the bare view and consideration of our ideas.

IV. The 2d ground of human judgment is EX-  
 PERIENCE; from which we infer the existence of  
 those objects which surround us, and fall under  
 the immediate notice of our senses. When we see  
 the sun, or cast our eyes towards a building, we  
 not only have perceptions of these objects within  
 ourselves, but ascribe to them a real existence out  
 of the mind. It is also by the information of the  
 senses that we judge of the qualities of bodies; as  
 when we say that SNOW is white, FIRE hot, STEEL  
 hard. For, as we are wholly unacquainted with  
 the internal structure and constitution of the bo-  
 dies, that produce these sensations in us, nay, are  
 unable to trace any connection between that  
 structure and the sensations themselves, it is evi-  
 dent, that we build our judgments altogether up-

on observation, ascribing to bodies such quali-  
 as are answerable to the perceptions they ex-  
 in us. Not that we ever suppose the qualities  
 bodies to be things of the same nature with  
 perceptions; for there is nothing in fire similar  
 our sensation of heat, or in a sword similar to  
 but that when different bodies excite in our m  
 similar perceptions, we necessarily ascribe to  
 bodies not only an existence independent of  
 but likewise similar qualities, of which it is  
 nature to produce similar perceptions in the  
 man mind. But this is not the only advan-  
 derived from experience; for to that too we  
 indebted for all our knowledge regarding the  
 existence of sensible qualities in objects, and  
 operations of bodies one upon another. In  
 for instance, is hard and elastic; this we know  
 experience, and indeed by that alone. For, b  
 altogether strangers to the true nature both o  
 lasticity and hardness, we cannot by the bare  
 templatation of our ideas determine how far  
 one necessarily implies the other, or whether  
 may not be a repugnance between them.  
 when we observe them to exist both in the  
 object, we are then assured from experience  
 they are not incompatible; and when we  
 find, that a stone is hard and not elastic, and  
 air though elastic is not hard, we also conclude  
 the same foundation, that the ideas are not ne-  
 cessarily conjoined, but may exist separately in  
 rent objects. In like manner with regard to  
 operations of bodies one upon another, it is e-  
 dent, that our knowledge this way is all deri-  
 from observation. AQUAREGIA dissolves  
 as has been found by frequent trial, nor is  
 any other way of arriving at the discovery. Na-  
 turalists may tell us, if they please, that the p  
 of aquaregia are of a texture apt to insinuate  
 tween the corpuscles of gold, and thereby lo-  
 and shake them asunder. If this is a true acco-  
 of the matter, it will notwithstanding be allow-  
 that our conjecture in regard to the conforma-  
 of these bodies is deduced from the experim-  
 and not the experiment from the conjecture.  
 was not from any previous knowledge of the  
 mate structure of aquaregia and gold, and the  
 ness of their parts to act or be acted upon,  
 we came by the conclusion abovementioned.  
 internal constitution of bodies is in a manner  
 ly unknown to us; and could we even surm-  
 this difficulty, yet as the separation of the p  
 of gold implies something like an active force  
 the menstruum, and we are unable to conceive  
 it comes to be possessed of this activity, the  
 must be owned to be altogether beyond our  
 prehension. But when repeated trials had  
 confirmed it, insomuch that it was admitted  
 an established truth in natural knowledge, it  
 then easy for men to spin out theories of their  
 invention, and contrive such a structure of p  
 both for gold and aquaregia, as would best ser-  
 explain the phenomenon upon the principle  
 that system of philosophy they had adopted.

V. From what has been said it is evident,  
 as intuition is the foundation of what we call  
 entifical knowledge, so is experience of nat-  
 For this last being wholly taken up with objec-

or these bodies that constitute the natural world; and their properties, as far as we can discover them, being to be traced only by a long and diligent series of observations; it is apparent, that, in order to improve this branch of knowledge, we must betake ourselves to the method of trial and experiment.

But though experience is what we may regard as the immediate foundation of natural knowledge, yet with respect to particular persons its utility is very narrow and confined. The objects that surround us are numerous, many of them at a great distance, and some quite beyond our power to reach.

Life is so short, and so crowded with cares, that but little time is left for any single person to employ himself in unfolding the mysteries of nature. Hence it is necessary to admit many things upon the testimony of others, which thus becomes the foundation of a great part of our knowledge of body. No man doubts of the power of aqua regia to dissolve gold, though perhaps he never himself made the experiment. In these and such like cases, we judge of the operations of nature upon the mere testimony of others. However, as we can always have recourse to experience where any doubt or difficulty arises, this is justly considered as the true foundation of natural philosophy; being indeed the ultimate support upon which our assent rests, whereto we appeal when the highest degree of evidence is required.

But there are many facts that will not admit of an appeal to the senses; and in this case history is the true and only foundation of our knowledge. All human actions of whatever kind, considered as already past, are of the nature of history; because having now no longer any reality, both the facts themselves, and the circumstances attending them, can be known only by the relations of such as had sufficient opportunity of arriving at the truth. TESTIMONY is justly accounted a 3d ground of human knowledge; and as from the other two we have derived *scientific* and *natural* knowledge, so we from this derive *historical*; by which we learn not merely a knowledge of the civil transactions of states and kingdoms, but of all facts of every kind, where testimony is the ultimate foundation of our belief.

II. Of AFFIRMATIVE and NEGATIVE PROPOSITIONS.

WHILE the comparing of our ideas is considered merely as an act of the mind, assembling them together, and joining or disjoining them according to the result of its perceptions, we call it JUDGMENT; but when our judgments are put into words, they then bear the name of PROPOSITIONS. A proposition therefore is a sentence expressing some judgment of the mind, whereby two or more ideas are affirmed to agree or disagree.

Now, as our judgments include at least two ideas, one of which is affirmed or denied of the other, so must a proposition have terms answering to these ideas. The idea of which we affirm or deny, and of course the term expressing the idea, is called the SUBJECT of the propo-

sition. The idea affirmed or denied, as also the term answering it, is called the PREDICATE. Thus in the proposition, *God is omnipotent*: *God* is the subject, it being of him that we affirm omnipotence; and *omnipotent* is the predicate, because we affirm the idea expressed by that word to belong to God.

II. But as, in propositions, ideas are either joined or disjoined; it is not enough to have terms expressing those ideas, unless we have also some words to denote their agreement or disagreement. That word, in a proposition, which connects two ideas together, is called the COPULA; and if a negative particle be annexed, we thereby understand that the ideas are disjoined. The substantive verb is commonly made use of for the copula: as in the above-mentioned proposition, *God is omnipotent*; where *is* represents the copula, and signifies the agreement of the ideas of *God* and *omnipotence*. But if we mean to separate two ideas; then, besides the substantive verb, we must also use some particle of negation, to express this repugnance. The proposition, *man is not perfect*, may serve as an example of this kind; where the notion of *perfection* being removed from the idea of *man*, the negative particle *not* is inserted after the copula, to signify the disagreement between the subject and predicate.

III. Every proposition necessarily consists of these three parts: but then it is not alike needful that they be all severally expressed in words; because the copula is often included in the term of the predicate, as when we say, *he sits*; which imports the same as *he is sitting*. In the Latin language, a single word has often the force of a whole sentence. Thus *ambulat* is the same as *ille est ambulans*; *amo*, as *ego sum amans*; and so in innumerable other instances: by which it appears, that we are not so much to regard the number of words in a sentence, as the ideas they represent, and the manner in which they are put together. For wherever two ideas are joined or disjoined in an expression, though of but a single word; it is evident that we have a subject, predicate, and copula, and of consequence a complete proposition.

IV. When the mind joins two ideas, we call it an *affirmative* judgment; when it separates them, a *negative*: and as any two ideas compared together must necessarily either agree or not agree, it is evident that all our judgments fall under these two divisions. Hence likewise the propositions expressing these judgments are all either affirmative or negative. An affirmative proposition connects the predicate with the subject, as *a stone is heavy*; a negative proposition separates them, as *God is not the author of evil*. AFFIRMATION therefore is the same as joining two ideas together, and this is done by means of the copula. NEGATION on the contrary marks a repugnance between the ideas compared; in which case a negative particle must be called in, to show that the connection included in the copula does not take place.

V. Hence we see the reason of the rule commonly laid down by logicians, That in all negative propositions the negation ought to affect the

# L O G I C.

the copula, when placed by it-  
 subject and the predicate, mani-  
 together: it is evident, that to  
 negative, the particles of ne-  
 in such a manner as to de-  
 a word, then only are two  
 in a proposition, when the nega-  
 be so referred to the copula, as  
 tion included in it, and undo  
 could otherwise establish. When  
 ce, *No man is perfect*; take a-  
 and the copula of itself plainly  
 the proposition. But as this  
 of what is intended, a negative  
 show that this union does not  
 here. The negation, therefore, by  
 of the copula, changes the in-  
 proposition, inasmuch that, in-  
 two ideas together, it denotes

judgment arises the division of prop-  
*universal* and *particular*. An *universal*  
 is that wherein the subject is some-  
 taken in its full latitude; inasmuch  
 predicate agrees to all the individuals  
 under it, if it denotes a proper spe-  
 all the several species, and their indi-  
 marks an idea of a higher order. *Th-*  
*every, no, none, &c.* are the proper  
 universality; and as they seldom fail  
 many general truths, so they are the  
 criterion whereby to distinguish the  
*man has a power of beginning man*  
 an *universal* proposition; as we know  
 word *all* prefixed to the subject *all*  
 denotes that it must be taken in it.  
 Hence the power of beginning may  
 affirmed of all the several species of:

III. A particular proposition has in  
 some general term for its subject; but  
 of limitation added, to denote, the  
 predicate agrees only to some of the indi-  
 prehended under a species, or to one  
 the species belonging to any genus,  
 the whole universal idea. Thus, *Some*  
*heavier than iron*; *Some men have*  
*share of prudence*. In the last of these  
 the subject *some men* implies only a  
 ber of individuals, comprehended in  
 species. In the former, where the  
 genus that extends to a great variety  
 classes, *some stones* may not only im-  
 ber of particular stones, but also a  
 species of stones, inasmuch as there  
 few with the property there describ-  
 we see, that a proposition does not  
 particular by the predicate's agreeing  
 species, unless that species, singly  
 considered, makes also the subject  
 affirm or deny.

IV. There is still one species of prop-  
 remains to be described, and which  
 serves our notice, as it is not yet a  
 logicians to which of the two classes  
 above they ought to be referred; *namely*  
 propositions, or those where the sub-  
 individual. Of this nature are the  
 ISAAC NEWTON *was the inventor of*  
*book contains many useful truths*. The  
 difficulty as to the proper rank of  
 tions, because the subject being tak-  
 to the whole of its extension, they do  
 the same effect in reasoning as *uni-*  
 it be considered that they are in truth  
 nited kind of particular proposition:  
 proposition can with any propriety  
 universal but where the subject is some  
 den; we shall not be long in determi-  
 nating they ought to be referred. *As*  
*Some books contain useful truths*; this  
 is particular, because the general  
 with a mark of restriction. If then  
*This book contains useful truths*: it  
 the proposition must be still more  
 the limitation implied in the word *this*  
 confined nature than in the former.

V. We see, therefore, that all prop-  
 either *affirmative* or *negative*; nor

## SECT. III. Of UNIVERSAL and PARTICULAR PROPOSITIONS.

I. THE next considerable division of propo-  
 sitions is into *universal* and *particular*. Our ideas,  
 according to what has been already observed in  
 the First Part, are all singular as they enter the  
 mind, and represent individual objects. But as  
 by abstraction we can render them universal, so  
 as to comprehend a whole class of things, and  
 sometimes several classes at once; hence the terms  
 expressing these ideas must be in like manner uni-  
 versal. If therefore we suppose any general term  
 to become the subject of a proposition, it is evi-  
 dent, that whatever is affirmed of the abstract  
 idea, belonging to that term, may be affirmed of  
 all the individuals to which that idea extends.  
 Thus, when we say, *Men are mortal*; we con-  
 sider mortality, not as confined to one or any  
 number of particular men, but as what may be  
 affirmed without restriction of the whole species.  
 Thus the proposition becomes as general as the  
 idea which makes the subject of it; and indeed  
 derives its universality entirely from that idea,  
 being more or less so according as this may be ex-  
 tended to more or fewer individuals. But it is  
 further to be observed of these general terms,  
 that they sometimes enter a proposition in their  
 full latitude, as in the example given above; and  
 sometimes appear with a mark of limitation. In  
 this last case we are given to understand, that the  
 predicate agrees not to the whole universal idea,  
 but only to a part of it; as in the proposition,  
*Some men are wise*: For here wisdom is not affirm-  
 ed of every particular man, but restrained to a  
 few of the human species.

II. From this different appearance of the ge-  
 neral idea, that constitutes the subject of any

dent, that in both cases they may be *universal* or *particular*. Hence arises that celebrated fourfold division of them into *universal affirmative* and *universal negative*, *particular affirmative* and *particular negative*, which comprehends indeed all their varieties. The use of this method of distinguishing them will appear more fully afterwards, when we come to treat of reasoning and syllogism.

SECT. IV. Of ABSOLUTE and CONDITIONAL PROPOSITIONS.

I. THE objects about which we are chiefly conversant in this world, are all of a nature liable to change. What may be affirmed of them at one time, cannot often at another; and it makes no small part of our knowledge to distinguish rightly these variations, and trace the reasons upon which they depend. For it is observable, that amidst all the vicissitude of nature, some things remain constant and invariable; nor even are the changes, to which we see others liable, effected but in consequence of uniform and steady laws, which, when known, are sufficient to direct us in our judgments about them. Hence philosophers, in distinguishing the objects of our perception into various classes, have been very careful to note, that some properties belong essentially to the general idea, so as not to be separable from it but by destroying its very nature; while others are only accidental, and may be affirmed or denied of it in different circumstances. Thus solidity, a yellow colour, and great weight, are considered as essential qualities of gold; but whether it shall exist as an uniform conjoined mass, is not alike necessary. We see that by proper menstruum it may be reduced to a fine powder, and that an intense heat will bring it into a state of fusion.

II. From this diversity in the several qualities of things arises a considerable difference as to the manner of our judging about them. For all such properties as are inseparable from objects when considered as belonging to any genus or species, are affirmed absolutely and without reserve of that general idea. Thus we say, *Gold is very weighty; A stone is hard; Animals have a power of self motion*. But in the case of mutual or accidental qualities, as they depend upon some other consideration distinct from the general idea; that also must be taken into the account, in order to form an accurate judgment. Should we affirm, for instance, of some stones, that they are very susceptible of a rolling motion; the proposition, while it remains in this general form, cannot with any advantage be introduced into our reasonings. An aptness to receive that mode of motion flows from the figure of the stone; which, as it may vary infinitely, our judgment then only becomes applicable and determinate, when the particular figure, of which volubility is a consequence, is also taken into the account. Let us, then, bring in this other consideration, and the proposition will run as follows: *Stones of a spherical form are easily put into a rolling motion*. Here we see the condition upon which the predicate is affirmed, and therefore know in what particular cases the proposition may be applied.

III. This consideration of propositions respect-

ing the manner in which the predicate is affirmed of the subject gives rise to the division of them into *absolute* and *conditional*. *Absolute* propositions are those wherein we affirm some property inseparable from the idea of the subject, and which therefore belongs to it in all possible cases: as, *GOD is infinitely wise; Virtue tends to the ultimate happiness of man*. But where the predicate is not necessarily connected with the idea of the subject, unless upon some consideration distinct from that idea, there the proposition is called *conditional*. The reason is from the supposition annexed, which is of the nature of a condition, and may be expressed as such, thus: *If a stone is exposed to the rays of the sun, it will contract some degree of heat; If a river runs in a very declining channel, its rapidity will constantly increase*.

IV. There is not any thing of greater importance in philosophy than a due attention to this division of propositions. If we are careful never to affirm things absolutely but where the ideas are inseparably conjoined; and if in our other judgments we distinctly mark the conditions which determine the predicate to belong to the subject; we shall be the less liable to mistake in applying general truths to the particular concerns of human life. It is owing to the exact observance of this rule that mathematicians have been so happy in their discoveries, and that what they demonstrate of magnitude in general may be applied with ease in all obvious occurrences.

V. The truth of it is, particular propositions are then known to be true, when we can trace their connection with universals; and it is accordingly the great business of science to find out general truths that may be applied with safety in all obvious instances. Now the great advantage arising from determining with care the conditions upon which one idea may be affirmed or denied of another is this: that thereby particular propositions really become universal, may be introduced with certainty into our reasonings, and serve as standards to conduct and regulate our judgments. To illustrate this by a familiar instance: if we say *Some water acts very forcibly*; the proposition is particular: and as the conditions on which this forcible action depends are not mentioned, it is as yet uncertain in what cases it may be applied. Let us then supply these conditions, and the proposition will run thus: *Water conveyed in sufficient quantity along a steep descent acts very forcibly*. Here we have an universal judgment, inasmuch as the predicate *forcible action* may be ascribed to all water under the circumstances mentioned. Nor is it less evident that the proposition in this new form is of easy application; and in fact we find that men do apply it in instances where the forcible action of water is required; as in corn mills and many other works of art.

SECT. V. Of SIMPLE and COMPOUND PROPOSITIONS.

I. HITHERTO we have treated of propositions, where only two ideas are compared together. These are in the general called *SIMPLE*; because, having but one subject and one predicate, they are the effect of a simple judgment that admits of

no subdivision. But if it so happens that several ideas offer themselves to our thoughts at once, whereby we are led to affirm the same thing of different objects, or different things of the same object; the propositions expressing these judgments are called **COMPOUND**; because they may be resolved into as many others, as there are subjects or predicates in the whole complex determination on the mind. Thus, *God is infinitely wise and infinitely powerful*. Here there are two predicates, *infinite wisdom and infinite power*, both affirmed of the same subject; and accordingly the proposition may be resolved into two others, affirming these predicates severally. In like manner in the proposition, *Neither kings nor people are exempt from death*; the predicate is denied of both subjects, and may therefore be separated from them in distinct propositions. Nor is it less evident, that if a complex judgment consists of several subjects and predicates, it may be resolved into as many simple propositions as are the number of different ideas compared together. *Riches and honours are apt to elate the mind, and increase the number of our desires*. In this judgment there are two subjects and two predicates, and it is at the same time apparent that it may be resolved into four distinct propositions. *Riches are apt to elate the mind. Riches are apt to increase the number of our desires. And so of honours.*

II. Logicians have divided these compound propositions into many different classes; but not with a due regard to their proper definition. Thus *conditionals, causals, relatives, &c.* are mentioned as so many distinct species of this kind, though in fact they are no more than simple propositions. To give an instance of a conditional; *If a stone is exposed to the rays of the sun, it will contract some degree of heat*. Here we have but one subject and one predicate; for the complex expression, *A stone exposed to the rays of the sun*, constitutes the proper subject of this proposition, and is no more than one determined idea. The same thing happens in causals. *Reboboam was unhappy because he followed evil counsel*. There is here an appearance of two propositions arising from the complexity of the expression; but when we come to consider the matter more nearly, it is evident that we have but a single subject and predicate. *The pursuit of evil counsel brought misery upon Reboboam*. It is not enough, therefore, to render a proposition compound, that the subject and predicate are complex notions, requiring sometimes a whole sentence to express them: for in this case the comparison is still confined to two ideas, and constitutes what we call a simple judgment. But where there are several subjects or predicates, or both, as the affirmation or negation may be alike extended to them all, the proposition expressing such a judgment is truly a collection of as many simple ones as there are different ideas compared. Confining ourselves therefore to this more strict and just notion of compound propositions, they are all reducible to two kinds, viz. *copulatives and disjunctives*.

III. A **COPULATIVE** proposition is, where the subjects and predicates are so linked together, that they may be all severally affirmed or denied one of another. Of this nature are the examples of

compound propositions given above. "*Riches and honours are apt to elate the mind, and increase the number of our desires.*"—"Neither kings nor people are exempt from death." In the first of these the two predicates may be affirmed severally of each subject, whence we have 4 distinct propositions. The other furnishes an example of the negative kind, where the same predicate, being disjoined from both subjects, may be also denied of them in separate propositions.

IV. The other species of compound propositions are those called **DISJUNCTIVES**; in which, comparing several predicates with the same subject; we affirm that one of them necessarily belongs to it, but leave the particular predicate undetermined. If any one, for example, says, "*This world either exists of itself, or is the work of some all-wise and powerful cause,*" it is evident that one of the two predicates must belong to the world; but as the proposition determines not which, it is therefore of the kind we call *disjunctive*. Such too are the following; "*The sun either moves round the earth, or is the centre about which the earth revolves.*"—"Friendship finds men equal, or makes them so." It is the nature of all propositions of this class, supposing them to be exact in point of form, that, upon determining the particular predicate, the rest are of course to be removed; or if all the predicates but one are removed, that one necessarily takes place. Thus, in the example given above; if we allow the world to be the work of some wise and powerful cause, we of course deny it to be self-existent; or if we deny it to be self-existent, we must necessarily admit that it was produced by some wise and powerful cause. Now this particular manner of linking the predicates together, so that the establishing one displaces all the rest; or the excluding all but one necessarily establishes that one; cannot otherwise be effected than by means of *disjunctive* particles. And hence propositions of this class take their names from these particles which make so necessary a part of them, and indeed constitute their very nature considered as a distinct species.

#### SECT. VI. Of the DIVISION of PROPOSITIONS into SELF-EVIDENT and DEMONSTRABLE.

I. WHEN any proposition is offered to the view of the mind, if the terms in which it is expressed be understood; upon comparing the ideas together, the agreement or disagreement asserted is either immediately perceived, or found to lie beyond the present reach of the understanding. In the first case the proposition is said to be **SELF-EVIDENT**, and admits not of any proof, because a bare attention to the ideas themselves produces full conviction and certainty; nor is it possible to call any thing more evident by way of confirmation. But where the connection or repugnance comes not so readily under the inspection of the mind, there we must have recourse to reasoning; and if by a clear series of proofs we can make out the truth proposed, inasmuch that self-evidence shall accompany every step of the procedure, we are then able to demonstrate what we assert, and the proposition itself is said to be **DEMONSTRABLE**. When we affirm, for instance, that "*it is impossible*"

ible for the same thing to be and not to be;" whoever understands the terms made use of perceives at first glance the truth of what is asserted, nor can he by any efforts bring himself to believe the contrary. The proposition therefore is *self-evident*, and such that it is impossible by reasoning to make it plainer; because there is no truth more obvious or better known, from which as a consequence it may be deduced. But if we say, *This world had a beginning*; the assertion is indeed equally true, but shines not forth with the same degree of evidence. We find great difficulty in conceiving how the world could be made out of nothing; and are not brought to a free and full assent, until by reasoning we arrive at a clear view of the absurdity involved in the contrary supposition. Hence this proposition is of the kind we call *demonstrable*, inasmuch as its truth is not immediately perceived by the mind, but yet may be made appear by means of others more plain and obvious, whence it follows as an undeniable consequence.

II. From what has been said, it appears, that demonstration is employed only about demonstrable propositions, and that our intuitive and self-evident perceptions are the ultimate foundation on which it rests.

III. Self-evident propositions furnish the first principles of reasoning; and it is certain, that in our researches we employ only such principles as possess this character of self-evidence, and apply them according to the rules to be afterwards explained. We shall be in no danger of error in advancing from one discovery to another. For this we may appeal to the writings of the mathematicians, each being conducted by the express model here mentioned, are an incontestable proof of the firmness and stability of human knowledge, when it is upon so sure a foundation. For not only are the propositions of this science stood the test of ages, but are found attended with that invincible evidence, as forces the assent of all who consider the proofs upon which they are established. Since the mathematicians are universally allowed to have hit upon the right method of arriving at unknown truths, since they have the happiest in the choice as well as the application of their principles, it may not be amiss to explain here their method of stating self-evident propositions, and applying them to the purpose of demonstration.

First then it is to be observed, that they have been very careful in ascertaining their ideas, fixing the signification of their terms. For this purpose they begin with DEFINITIONS, in which the meaning of their words is so distinctly explained, that they cannot fail to excite in the mind of an attentive reader the very same ideas as are annexed to them by the writer. And indeed the clearness and irresistible evidence of mathematical knowledge is owing to nothing so much as to their care in laying the foundation. Where the relation between any two ideas is accurately and precisely traced, it will not be difficult for another to apprehend that relation, if in setting himself to explain it he brings the very same ideas into comparison. But if, on the contrary, he affixes to the same words ideas different from those that were

in the mind of him who first advanced the demonstration; it is evident, that as the same ideas are not compared, the same relation cannot subsist, inasmuch that a proposition will be rejected as false, which, had the terms been rightly understood, must have appeared incontestably true. A square, for instance, is a figure bounded by four equal right lines, joined together at right angles. Here the nature of the angles makes no less a part of the idea than the equality of the sides; and many properties demonstrated of the square flow entirely from its being a rectangular figure. If therefore we suppose a man, who has formed a partial notion of a square, comprehending only the equality of its sides, without regard to the angles, reading some demonstration that implies also this latter consideration; it is plain he would reject it as not universally true, inasmuch as it could not be applied where the sides were joined together at equal angles. For this last figure, answering still to his idea of a square, would be yet found without the property assigned to it in the proposition. But if he comes afterwards to correct his notion, and render his idea complete, he will then readily own the truth and justness of the demonstration.

V. We see, therefore, that nothing contributes so much to the improvement and certainty of human knowledge, as the having determinate ideas, and keeping them steady and invariable in all our discourses and reasonings about them. On this account mathematicians always begin by defining their terms, and distinctly unfolding the notions they are intended to express. Hence such as apply themselves to these studies have exactly the same views of things; and, bringing always the very same ideas into comparison, readily discern the relation between them. It is likewise of importance, in every demonstration, to express the same idea invariably by the same word. From this practice mathematicians never deviate; and if it be necessary in their demonstrations, where the reader's comprehension is aided by a diagram, it is much more so in all reasonings about moral or intellectual truths where the ideas cannot be represented by a diagram. The observation of this rule may sometimes be productive of ill-founding periods; but when *truth* is the object, *soundness* ought to be disregarded.

VI. When the mathematicians have taken this first step, and made known the ideas whose relations they intend to investigate; their next care is, to lay down some self-evident truths, which may serve as a foundation for their future reasonings. And here indeed they proceed with remarkable circumspection, admitting no principles but what flow immediately from their definitions, and necessarily force themselves upon a mind in any degree attentive to its ideas. Thus a *circle* is a figure formed by a right line moving round some fixed point in the same plane. The fixed point round which the line is supposed to move, and where one of its extremities terminates, is called the *centre* of the circle. The other extremity, which is conceived to be carried round until it returns to the point whence it first set out, describes a curve running into itself, and termed the *circumference*. All right lines drawn from the centre

to the circumference are called *radii*. From these definitions compared, geometricians derive this self-evident truth; "that the radii of the same circle are all equal to one another."

VII. We now observe, that, in all propositions, we either affirm or deny some property of the idea, that constitutes the subject of our judgment, or we maintain that something may be done or effected. The first sort are called *speculative* propositions, as in the example mentioned above, "the radii of the same circle are all equal one to another." The others are called *practical*, for a reason quite obvious; thus, *that a right line may be drawn from one point to another* is a practical proposition, inasmuch as it expresses that something may be done.

VIII. From this twofold consideration of propositions arises the twofold division of mathematical principles into axioms and postulates. By an *axiom* they understand any self-evident speculative truth; as, "That the whole is greater than its parts;" "That things equal to one and the same thing are equal to one another." But a self-evident practical proposition is what they call a *postulate*. Such are those of Euclid; "That a finite right line may be continued directly forwards;" "That a circle may be described about any centre with any distance." And here we are to observe, that as in an axiom the agreement or disagreement between the subject and predicate must come under the immediate inspection of the mind; so in a postulate, not only the possibility of the thing asserted must be evident at first view, but also the manner in which it may be effected. For where this manner is not of itself apparent, the proposition comes under the notion of the demonstrable kind, and is treated as such by geometrical writers. Thus, "to draw a right line from one point to another," is assumed by Euclid as a postulate, because the manner of doing it is so obvious, as to require no previous teaching. But then it is not equally evident, how we are to construct an equilateral triangle. For this reason he advances it as a demonstrable proposition, lays down rules for the exact performance, and at the same time proves, that if these rules are followed, the figure will be justly described.

IX. This leads us to take notice, that as self-evident truths are distinguished into different kinds, according as they are speculative or practical; so is it also with demonstrable propositions. A demonstrable speculative proposition is by mathematicians called a *THEOREM*. Such is the famous 47th proposition of the first book of the elements, known by the name of the *Pythagoric theorem*, from its supposed inventor Pythagoras, viz. "that in every right-angled triangle, the square described upon the side subtending the right-angle is equal to both the squares described upon the sides containing the right-angle." On the other hand, a demonstrable practical proposition is called a *problem*; as where Euclid teaches us to describe a square upon a given right-line.

X. Besides the 4 kinds of propositions already mentioned, mathematicians have also a 5th known by the name of *corollaries*. These are usually subjoined to theorems or problems, and differ from them only in this; that they flow from what is

there demonstrated in so obvious a manner as to discover their dependence upon the proposition whence they are deduced, almost as soon as proposed. Thus Euclid having demonstrated, "that in every right-lined triangle all the three angles taken together are equal to two right-angles;" adds by way of corollary, "that all the three angles of any one triangle taken together are equal to all the three angles of any other triangle taken together;" which is evident at first sight; because in all cases they are equal to two right ones, and things equal to one and the same thing are equal to one another.

XI. The *SCHOLIA* of mathematicians are indifferently annexed to definitions, propositions, or corollaries; and answer the same purposes as annotations upon a classic author. For in them occasion is taken to explain whatever may appear intricate and obscure in a train of reasoning; to answer objections; to teach the application and uses of propositions; to lay open the original and history of the several discoveries made in the science; and, in a word, to acquaint us with all such particulars as deserve to be known, whether considered as points of curiosity or profit.

## PART III.

### OF REASONING.

#### SECT. I. Of REASONING in GENERAL, and PARTS of which it CONSISTS.

IT often happens in comparing ideas together that their agreement or disagreement cannot discerned at first view, especially if they are of a nature as not to admit of an exact application one to another. When, for instance, we compare two figures of a different make, in order to judge of their equality or inequality, it is plain, that barely considering the figures themselves, we do not arrive at an exact determination; because reason of their disagreeing forms, it is impossible so to put them together, as that their several parts shall mutually coincide. Here then it becomes necessary to look out for some third idea to which we will admit of such an application as the precise case requires; wherein if we succeed, all difficulties vanish, and the relation we are in quest may be traced with ease. Thus right-lined figures are all reduced to squares, by means of which we can measure their areas, and determine exactly their agreement or disagreement in point of magnitude.

II. But how can any third idea serve to discover a relation between two others? The answer is, By being compared severally with these others; for such a comparison enables us to see how the ideas with which this third is compared are connected or disjoined between themselves. In the example mentioned above of two right-lined figures, if we compare each of them with a square whose area is known, and find the one exactly equal to it, and the other less by a square inch, we immediately conclude that the area of the first figure is a square inch greater than that of the second. This manner of determining the relation between any two ideas, by the intervention of some third with which they may be compared,



angicauda.

LOXIA.

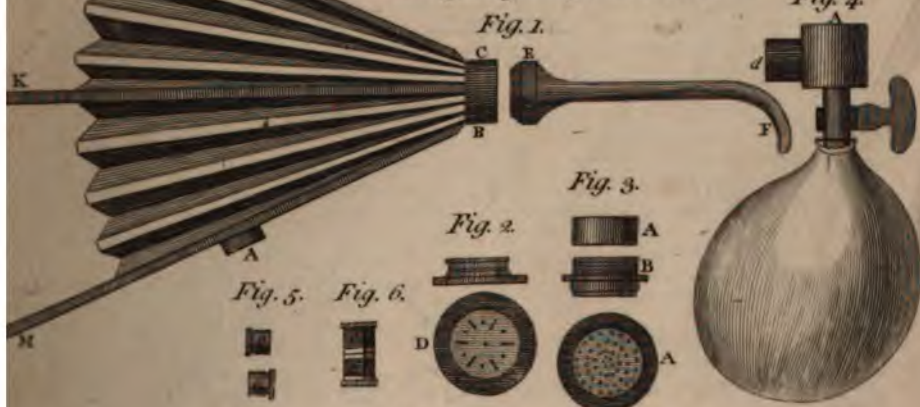
Plate CCIV.



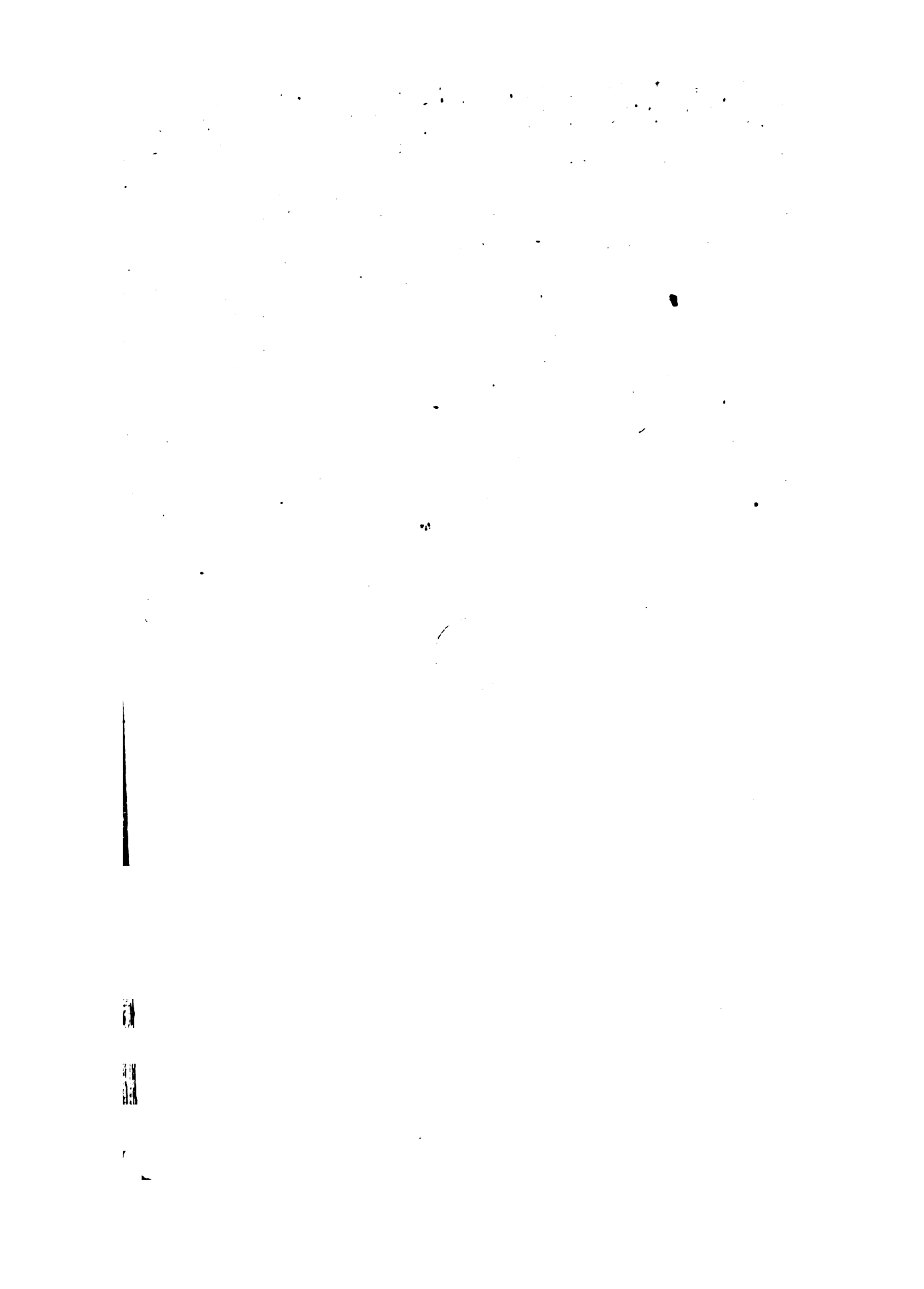
Ancient LYRES.



BELLOWS for inflating the LUNGS.



J. De la Haye



rd, is that which we call *reasoning*; and is in-  
l the chief instrument by which we push on  
discoveries, and enlarge our knowledge. The  
t art lies in finding out such intermediate ideas,  
when compared with the others in the ques-  
tion, will furnish evident and known truths; be-  
cause, as will afterwards appear, it is only by  
means of them that we arrive at the knowledge of  
what is hidden and remote.

I. Hence it appears, that every act of reason-  
ing necessarily includes three distinct judgments;  
wherein the ideas whose relation we want to  
discover are severally compared with the middle  
idea, and a third wherein they are themselves con-  
sidered or disjoined, according to the result of  
the comparison. Now, as in the second part of  
our judgments, when put into words were  
called *propositions*, so here in the third part the ex-  
pressions of our reasonings are termed *sylogisms*.  
Hence it follows, that as every act of reasoning im-  
plies three several judgments, so every syllogism  
must include three distinct propositions. When  
reasoning is thus put into words, and appears  
in form of a syllogism, the intermediate idea made  
use of, to discover the agreement or disagreement  
in search for, is called the *middle term*; and the  
ideas themselves, with which this third is  
compared, go by the name of the *extremes*.

V. But as these things are best illustrated by  
examples; let us, for instance, set ourselves to  
enquire *whether men are accountable for their actions*.  
The relation between the ideas of *men* and *ac-  
countableness* comes not within the immediate view  
of the mind, our first care must be to find out  
a third idea that will enable us the more easily  
to discover and trace it. A very small measure  
of reflection is sufficient to inform us, that no  
man can be accountable for his actions, unless  
we suppose him capable of distinguishing the good  
from the bad; that is, unless we suppose him  
possessed of reason. Nor is this alone sufficient.  
What would it avail him to know good from  
bad actions, if he had no freedom of choice, nor  
could avoid the one and pursue the other? Hence  
it becomes necessary to take in both considera-  
tions in the present case. It is at the same time  
obviously apparent, that wherever there is this abi-  
lity of distinguishing good from bad actions, and  
of pursuing the one and avoiding the other, there  
a creature is accountable. We have then got  
our third idea, with which *accountableness* is insepar-  
ably connected, *viz. reason and liberty*; which are  
to be considered as making up one complex  
middle term. Let us now take this middle idea,  
and compare it with the other term in the ques-  
tion, *viz. man*, and we all know by experience  
it may be affirmed of him. Having thus by  
means of the intermediate idea formed two several  
judgments, *viz. that man is possessed of reason and  
liberty; and that reason and liberty imply accountableness*;  
a third obviously and necessarily follows,  
*that man is accountable for his actions*. Here  
we have a complete act of reasoning, in-  
deed, according to what has been already observ-  
ed: there are three distinct judgments; two that  
may be styled previous, inasmuch as they lead to  
the third, and arise from comparing the middle  
term with the two ideas in the question; the third

is XIII. PART I.

is a consequence of these previous acts, and flows  
from combining the extreme ideas between them-  
selves. If now we put this reasoning into words;  
it exhibits what logicians term a syllogism; and,  
when proposed in due form runs thus:—"Every  
creature possessed of reason and liberty is account-  
able for his actions.—Man is a creature possessed  
of reason and liberty:—Therefore man is ac-  
countable for his actions."

V. In this syllogism we may observe, that there  
are three several propositions expressing the three  
judgments implied in the act of reasoning; and  
so disposed, as to represent distinctly what passes  
within the mind in tracing the more distant rela-  
tions of its ideas. The two first propositions an-  
swer the two previous judgments in reasoning, and  
are called the *premises*, because they are placed be-  
fore the other. The third is termed the *conclusion*,  
as being gained in consequence of what was assert-  
ed in the premises. We are also to remember;  
that the terms expressing the two ideas whose rela-  
tions we enquire after, as here *man* and *account-  
ableness*, are in general called the *extremes*; and  
that the intermediate idea, by means of which the  
relation is traced, *viz. a creature possessed of reason  
and liberty*, takes the name of the *middle term*.  
Hence it follows, that by the premises of a syllo-  
gism we are always to understand the two propo-  
sitions where the middle term is severally compared  
with the extremes; for these constitute the previ-  
ous judgments, whence the truth we are in quest  
of is by reasoning deduced. The *conclusion* is that  
other proposition, in which the extremes them-  
selves are joined or separated agreeably to what  
appears upon the above comparison.

VI. The conclusion is made up of the extreme  
terms of the syllogism; and the extreme, which  
serves as the predicate of the conclusion,  
goes by the name of the *major term*: the other  
extreme, which makes the subject in the same  
proposition, is called the *minor term*. From this  
distinction of the extremes arises also a distinc-  
tion between the premises, where these extremes  
severally compared with the middle term. That  
proposition which compares the greater extreme,  
or the predicate of the conclusion, with the mid-  
dle term, is called the *major proposition*: the oth-  
er, wherein the same middle term is compared  
with the subject of the conclusion or lesser extreme,  
is called the *minor proposition*. All this is obvi-  
ous from the syllogism already given, where the  
conclusion is, *Man is accountable for his actions*.  
For here the predicate *accountable for his actions*,  
being connected with the middle term in the first  
of the two premises, *every creature possessed of rea-  
son and liberty is accountable for his actions*, gives  
what we call the *major proposition*. In the se-  
cond of the premises, *man is a creature possessed of  
reason and liberty*, we find the lesser extreme, or sub-  
ject of the conclusion, *viz. man*, connected with  
the same middle term, whence it is known to be  
the *minor proposition*. When a syllogism is pro-  
posed in due form, the major proposition is al-  
ways placed first, the minor next, and the con-  
clusion last.

VII. These things premised, we may in the ge-  
neral define reasoning to be an act or operation of  
the mind, deducing some unknown proposition  
from

and other previous ones that are evident and known. These previous propositions, in a simple act of reasoning are only two in number; and it is always required that they be of themselves apparent to the understanding, inasmuch that we assent to and perceive the truth of them as soon as proposed. In the syllogism given above, the premises are supposed to be self-evident truths; otherwise the conclusion could not be inferred by a single act of reasoning. If, for instance, in the major, "every creature possessed of reason and liberty is accountable for his actions," the connection between the subject and predicate could not be perceived by a bare attention to the ideas themselves; it is evident that this proposition would no less require a proof than the conclusion deduced from it. In this case a new middle term must be sought for, to trace the connection here supposed; and this of course furnishes another syllogism, by which having established the proposition in question, we are then, and not before, at liberty to use it in any succeeding train of reasoning. And should it so happen, that in this ad essay there was still some previous proposition whose truth did not appear at first sight, we must then have recourse to a third syllogism, to lay open that truth to the mind: because so long as the premises remain uncertain, the conclusion built upon them must be so too. When, by conducting our thoughts in this manner, we at last arrive at some syllogism where the previous propositions are intuitive truths; the mind then rests in full security; as perceiving that the several conclusions it has passed through stand upon the immovable foundations of self-evidence, and when traced to their source terminate in it.

VIII. We see, therefore, that, to infer a conclusion by a single act of reasoning, the premises must be intuitive propositions. Where they are not, previous syllogisms are required; in which case reasoning becomes a complicated act, taking in a variety of successive steps. This frequently happens in tracing the more remote relation of our ideas; where, many middle terms being called in, the conclusion cannot be made out but in consequence of a series of syllogisms following one another in train. But although in this concatenation of propositions, those that form the premises of the last syllogism are often considerably removed from self-evidence; yet if we trace the reasoning backwards, we shall find them the conclusions of previous syllogisms, whose premises approach nearer and nearer to intuition in proportion as we advance, and are found at last to terminate in it. And if, after having thus unravelled a demonstration, we take it the contrary way; and observe how the mind, sitting out with intuitive perceptions, couples them together to form a conclusion; how by introducing this conclusion into another syllogism, it still advances one step farther; and so proceeds, making every new discovery subservient to its future progress; we shall then perceive clearly, that reasoning, in the highest sense of that faculty, is no more than an orderly combination of those simple acts which we have already so fully explained.

IX. Thus we see, that reasoning, beginning with *first principles*, rises gradually from one judgment

to another, and connects them in such that every stage of the progression brings certainty along with it. And now at may clearly understand the definition of this distinguishing faculty of the human Reason we have said, is the ability of unknown truths from principles or parts that are already known. This evidence by the foregoing account, where every proposition is admitted into a syllogism as one of the previous judgments on which the conclusion rests, unless it is itself a known established truth, whose connection with the principles has been already traced.

SECT. II. *Of the SEVERAL KINDS of REASONING; and FIRST of THAT by which we DISCOVER and DETERMINE the GENERA and SPECIES of THINGS.*

I. ALL the aims of human reasoning may be reduced to these two: 1. To ascertain under those universal ideas to which they belong; and, 2. To ascribe to them their proper attributes and properties in consequence of their distribution.

II. One great aim of human reasoning is to determine the genera and species of things. This is seen in the 1st Part of this treatise, how it proceeds in framing general ideas. We see in the 2d Part, how by means of particular ideas we come by universal propositions. Now as in these universal propositions we find some property of a genus or species, which that we cannot apply this property to particular objects till we have first determined what objects are comprehended under that general name, which the property is affirmed. These certain properties belonging to all *even* numbers, which nevertheless cannot be applied to any particular number, until we have first discerned the species expressed by that name. Hence reasoning begins with referring our ideas to their several divisions and classes in consequence of our ideas; and as these divisions are distinguished by particular names, we here apply the terms expressing general concepts to such particular objects as come under the scope of direct observation.

III. Now, to arrive at these concepts which the several objects of perception are distinguished under general names, two things are necessary. First, that we take a view of the object itself denoted by that general name, and attend to the distinguishing marks which characterize it. 2dly, that we compare the object with the object under consideration, or diligently wherein they agree or differ. If the object is found to correspond with the particular name, we then without hesitation apply to it that name; but if no such correspondence is found, the conclusion must necessarily take another turn. Let us, for instance, take the number *seven* and consider by what steps we are led to pronounce it an *even* number. First then the mind the idea signified by the expression *number*, viz. that it is a number divisible into equal parts. We then compare this idea with the number *eight*, and, finding them to agree, we once the necessity of admitting the

al judgments therefore transferred into and reduced into the form of a syllogism thus:—"Every number that may into two equal parts is an *even* number EIGHT may be divided into parts;—Therefore the number *eight* is *even* number."

It may be observed, that where the names, to which particular objects are referred, are familiar to the mind, and frequently used, this reference, and the application of the name, seem to be made without any effort of reasoning. When we see a horse in the street, or a dog in the street, we readily apply the name of the species; habit, and a familiar acquaintance with the general idea, suggesting it inly to the mind. We are not however to be misled on this account that the understanding is not the usual rules of just thinking. A repetition of acts begets a habit; and attended with a certain promptness of mind that prevents our observing the several gradations by which any course of reasoning is accomplished. But in other instances, we judge not by precontracted habits, as when the general idea is very complex, or less familiar to the mind, we always proceed according to the usual rules of reasoning established above. A man for instance, who is in doubt as to any particular action, whether it be of the species called murder, examines its properties, and then compares it with the general idea signified by that name, and finds a perfect correspondence, no longer states under what *class* of metals to

it be imagined that our researches are confined in appearance bounded to the images of general names upon particular objects, and are of little consequence. The most considerable debates among philosophers, and such too as nearly regard their interests, and happiness, turn wholly upon the question, Is it not the chief employment of the courts of judicature to determine in various instances, what is law, justice, and of what importance is it in many cases to determine whether an action shall be termed *manslaughter*? We see then that no less the interests and fortunes of men often depend on the decisions. The reason is plain. As soon as an action is referred to a general idea, draw all that may be affirmed of that idea; that the determining the species of action is one with determining what proportion of praise or dispraise, commendation or punishment ought to follow them. For as it is that an action of murder deserves death; by bringing that particular action under the head of murder, the course decide the punishment due

to the great importance of this branch of logic and the necessity of care and circumspection in particular objects to general ideas, is evident from the practice of the mathematicians. Every one who has read Euclid will find that he frequently requires us to draw out certain points, and according to these directions. The figures thence re-

sulting are often squares, parallelograms, or rectangles. Yet Euclid never supposes this from their bare appearance, but always demonstrates it upon the strictest principles of geometry. Nor is the method he takes in any thing different from that described above. Thus, for instance, having defined a square to be a figure bounded by four equal sides joined together at right angles; when such a figure arises in any construction previous to the demonstration of a proposition, yet he never calls it by that name until he has shown that its sides are equal, and all its angles right ones. Now this is apparently the same form of reasoning we have before exhibited in proving *eight* to be an even number.

VII. Having thus explained the rules by which we are to conduct ourselves in ranking particular objects under general ideas, and shown their conformity to the practice and manner of the mathematicians; it remains only to observe, that the true way of rendering this part of knowledge both easy and certain, is, by habituating ourselves to clear and determinate ideas, and keeping them steadily annexed to their respective names. For as all our aim is to apply general words aright, if these words stand for invariable ideas that are perfectly known to the mind, and can be readily distinguished upon occasion, there will be little danger of mistake or error in our reasonings. Let us suppose that, by examining any object, and carrying our attention successively from one part to another, we have acquainted ourselves with the several particulars observable in it. If among these we find such as constitute some general idea, framed and settled before-hand by the understanding, and distinguished by a particular name, the resemblance thus known and perceived necessarily determines the species of the object, and thereby gives it a right to the name by which that species is called. Thus four equal sides, joined together at right angles, make up the notion of a *square*. As this is a fixed and invariable idea, without which the general name cannot be applied; we never call any particular figure a *square* until it appears to have these several conditions; and contrarily, wherever a figure is found with these conditions, it necessarily takes the name of a *square*. The same will be found to hold in all our other reasonings of this kind, where nothing can create any difficulty but the want of settled ideas. If, for instance, we have not determined with ourselves the precise notion denoted by the word *manslaughter*, it will be impossible for us to decide whether any particular action ought to bear that name: because, however nicely we examine the action itself, yet, being strangers to the general idea with which it is to be compared, we are utterly unable to judge of their agreement or disagreement. But if we take care to remove this obstacle, and distinctly trace the two ideas under consideration, all difficulties vanish, and the resolution becomes both easy and certain.

VIII. Thus we see of what importance it is towards the improvement and certainty of human knowledge, that we accustom ourselves to clear and determinate ideas, and a steady application of words.

SECT. III. OF REASONING, as it regards the POWERS and PROPERTIES of THINGS, and the RELATIONS of our GENERAL IDEAS.

I. WE now come to the 2d great end which men have in view in their reasonings; namely, the discovering and ascribing to things their several attributes and properties. And here it will be necessary to distinguish between reasoning, as it regards the sciences, and as it concerns common life. In the sciences, our reason is employed chiefly about universal truths, it being by them alone that the bounds of human knowledge are enlarged. Hence the division of things into various classes, called otherwise *genera* and *species*. For these universal ideas being set up as the representatives of many particular things, whatever is affirmed of them may be also affirmed of all the individuals to which they belong. *Murder*, for instance, is a general idea, representing a certain species of human actions. Reason tells us that the punishment due to it is *death*. Hence every particular action, coming under the notion of murder, has the punishment of death allotted to it. Here then we apply the general truth to some obvious instance; and this is what properly constitutes the reasoning of common life. For men, in their ordinary transactions and intercourse one with another, have, for the most part, to do only with particular objects. Our friends and relations, their characters and behaviour, the constitution of the several bodies that surround us, and the uses to which they may be applied, are what chiefly engage our attention. In all these, we reason about particular things; and the whole result of our reasoning is, the applying the general truths of the sciences in the ordinary transactions of human life. When we see a viper, we avoid it. Wherever we have occasion for the forcible action of water to move a body that makes considerable resistance, we take care to convey it in such a manner that it shall fall upon the object with impetuosity. Now all this happens in consequence of our familiar and ready application of these two general truths. "The bite of a viper is mortal." "Water, falling upon a body with impetuosity, acts very forcibly towards setting it in motion." In like manner, if we set ourselves to consider any particular character, in order to determine the share of praise or dispraise that belongs to it, our great concern is to ascertain exactly the proportion of virtue and vice. The reason is obvious. A just determination, in all cases of this kind, depends entirely upon an application of these general maxims of morality: *Virtuous actions deserve praise; vicious actions deserve blame.*

II. Hence it appears that reasoning, as it regards common life, is no more than the ascribing the general properties of things to those several objects with which we are more immediately concerned, according as they are found to be of that particular division or class to which the properties belong. The steps then by which we proceed are manifestly these. First, we refer the object under consideration to some general idea or class of things. We then recollect the several attributes of that general idea. And, lastly, ascribe

all those attributes to the present object in considering the character of Sempronius find it to be of the kind called *virtuous* at the same time reflect that a *virtuous* is deserving of esteem, it naturally follows that Sempronius is so too. The put into a *sylogism*, in order to exhibit reasoning here required, run thus:—*virtuous man is worthy of esteem.— is a virtuous man:—Therefore Sempronius is worthy of esteem.*"

III. By this *sylogism* it appears, we affirm any thing of a particular object must be referred to some general notion is pronounced worthy of esteem consequence of his being a virtuous man ing under that general notion. Hence necessary connection of the various parts, and the dependence they have on another. The determining the general of things is one exercise of human reason; here we find that this exercise is the first and previous to the other, which consists in ascribing to them their powers, properties, and relations. But when we have taken this first step, and brought particular objects under general names; as the properties we ascribe to them other than those of the general ideas, that, in order to a successful progress of knowledge, we must thoroughly acquaint ourselves with the several relations and dependencies of these our general ideas. When this is done, the other part will be easy, and requires no more labour or thought, as being no more than a simple application of the general form of reasoning presented in the foregoing *sylogism*. We have already sufficiently shown how we proceed in determining the general attributes of things, which, as we have said, is the first step to this second branch of human knowledge. All that is farther wanting towards a full comprehension of it is, to offer some consideration of the manner of investigating the general properties of our ideas. This is the highest exercise of the powers of the understanding, and the end whereof we arrive at the discovery of the general truths; inasmuch that our deductions constitute that particular species of reasoning which regards principally the sciences.

IV. But that we may conduct our reasoning with some order and method, we shall observe, that the relations of our general ideas are of two kinds: either such as immediately concern themselves, upon comparing them with another; or such as, being more remote and distant, require art and contrivance to bring them into view. The relations of the first kind furnish us with intuitive and self-evident truths; those of the second are traced by the gradual application of intermediate ideas: this last kind that we are to speak of is the more difficult the other in the 2d Part. As in tracing the more distant relations of our ideas, we must always have recourse to intermediate ideas, and are more or less successful in our reasoning according to our acquaintance with the nature and ability of applying them; it is evident that to make a good reasoner, two things

required. 1st, An extensive knowledge of intermediate ideas, by means of which things are compared one with another. 2d, The talent of applying them happily in all particular instances that come under considera-

In order to our successful progress in reasoning, we must have an extensive knowledge of intermediate ideas by means of which things are compared one with another. For as it is every idea that will answer the purpose of our reasoning, but such only as are peculiarly related to the objects about which we reason, so as, by a union with them, to furnish evident and simple truths; nothing is more apparent than that the greater variety of conceptions we can bring to view, the more likely we are to find some that will help us to the truths here intended. And, indeed, it holds in experience, that the proportion as we enlarge our views of objects, and grow acquainted with a multitude of different objects, the reasoning faculty gathers strength: for by extending our sphere of knowledge, the mind acquires a certain force and precision, as being accustomed to examine the appearances of its ideas, and observe what they cast one upon another.

This is the reason why, in order to excel in any one branch of learning, it is necessary to have at least a general acquaintance with the whole circle of arts and sciences. All the various divisions of human knowledge are very near to each other, and, in innumerable instances, serve to illustrate and set off each other. And although it is not to be denied that, by obstinate application to one branch of study, a man may make considerable progress, and acquire some degree of eminence in it; yet his knowledge will be always narrow and contracted, and he will want that masterly discernment which not only enables us to pursue our discoveries with success, but also, in laying them open to others, to give them a certain brightness around them. But our reasoning regards a particular science, rather than a general one; and it is necessary that we more nearly acquaint ourselves with whatever relates to that science.

A general knowledge is a good preparation, and enables us to proceed with ease and expedition in whatever branch of learning we apply ourselves to; but, in the minute and intricate questions of any science, we are by no means qualified to reason with advantage until we have perfectly mastered the science to which they belong.

We come now to the second thing required in order to a successful progress in reasoning, namely, the skill and talent of applying intermediate ideas happily in all particular instances that come under consideration. And here, precepts are of little service. Use and practice are the best instructors. For, whatever philosophers may boast of being able to form perfect reasoners by book and rule, we find by experience, that the study of their precepts does not add any great degree of strength to the understanding. In short, it is the habit alone that makes a reasoner. And therefore the true way to acquire this talent is, by being conversant in those sciences where the

art of reasoning is allowed to reign in the greatest perfection. Hence it was that the ancients, who so well understood the manner of forming the mind, always began with MATHEMATICS, as the foundation of their philosophical studies. Here the understanding is by degrees habituated to truth, contracts insensibly a certain fondness for it, and learns never to yield its assent to any proposition, but where the evidence is sufficient to produce full conviction. For this reason PLATO has called mathematical demonstrations the *catartics* or purgatives of the soul, as being the proper means to cleanse it from error, and restore that natural exercise of its faculties in which just thinking consists.

VIII. If therefore we would form our minds to a habit of reasoning closely and in train, we cannot take any more certain method than the exercising ourselves in mathematical demonstrations, so as to contract a kind of familiarity with them. Not that we look upon it as necessary that all men should be deep mathematicians; but that, having got the way of reasoning which that study necessarily brings the mind to, they may be able to transfer it to other parts of knowledge, as they shall have occasion.

IX. But although the study of mathematics be of all others the most useful to form the mind and give it an early relish of truth, yet ought not other parts of philosophy to be neglected. For there also we meet with many opportunities of exercising the powers of the understanding; and the variety of subjects naturally leads us to observe all those different turns of thinking that are peculiarly adapted to the several ideas we examine, and the truth we search after. A mind thus trained acquires a certain mastery over its own thoughts, insomuch that it can range and model them at pleasure, and call such into view as best suit its present designs. Now in this the whole art of reasoning consists; from among a great variety of different ideas to single out those that are most proper for the business in hand, and to lay them together in such order, that from plain and easy beginnings, by gentle degrees, and a continued train of evident truths, we may be insensibly led on to such discoveries, as at our first setting out appeared beyond the reach of human understanding. For this purpose, besides the study of mathematics before recommended, we ought to apply ourselves diligently to the reading of such authors as have distinguished themselves for strength of reasoning, and a just and accurate manner of thinking. For it is observable, that a mind exercised and seasoned to truth, seldom rests satisfied in a bare contemplation of the arguments offered by others; but will be frequently assaying its own strength, and pursuing its discoveries upon the plan it is most accustomed to. Thus we insensibly contract a habit of tracing truth from one stage to another, and of investigating those general relations and properties which we afterwards ascribe to particular things, according as we find them comprehended under the abstract ideas to which the properties belong.

#### SECT. IV. Of the FORMS of SYLLOGISMS.

I. HAVING thus given a general notion of syllogisms,

and their parts, we shall now enter more fully into the subject; examine their various, and lay open the rules of argumentation proper to each. In the syllogisms above mentioned, the *middle term* is the subject of the *major* proposition, and the predicate of the *minor*. This disposition, though the most natural and obvious, is not however necessary; as it often happens, that the middle term is the subject in both the premises, or the predicate in both; and sometimes, directly contrary to its disposition in the preceding sections, the predicate in the major, and the subject in the minor. Hence the distinction of syllogisms into various kinds, called *figures* by logicians. For figure, according to their use of the word, is nothing else but the order and disposition of the middle term in any syllogism. And as this disposition is fourfold, so the figures of syllogisms thence arising are 4 in number. When the middle term is the subject of the major proposition, and the predicate of the minor, we have what is called the *first figure*: As, "No work of God is bad:—The natural passions and appetites of men are the work of God:—Therefore none of them is bad." If, on the other hand, it is the predicate of both the premises, the syllogism is said to be the *second figure*: As, "Whatever is bad is not the work of God:—All the natural passions and appetites of men are the work of God:—Therefore the natural passions and appetites of men are not bad." Again, in the *third figure*, the middle term is the subject of the two premises: As, "All Africans are black:—All Africans are men:—Therefore some men are black." And lastly, by making it the predicate of the major, and subject of the minor, we obtain syllogisms in the *fourth figure*: As, "The only being who ought to be worshipped is the Creator and Governor of the world:—The Creator and Governor of the world is God:—Therefore God is the only being who ought to be worshipped."

II. But, besides this fourfold distinction of syllogisms, there is a farther subdivision of them in every figure, arising from the *quantity* and *quality*, as they are called, of the propositions. By *quantity* we mean the consideration of *propositions*, as universal or particular; by *quality*, as affirmative or negative.

Now as, in all the several dispositions of the *middle term*, the propositions of which a syllogism consists may be either universal or particular affirmative or negative; the due determination of these, and so putting them together as the laws of argumentation require, constitute what logicians call the *moods* of syllogisms. Of these moods there is a determinate number to every figure, including all the possible ways in which propositions differing in quantity or quality can be combined, according to any disposition of the middle term, in order to arrive at a just conclusion.

The first figure has only four legitimate moods. The major proposition in this figure must be universal, and the minor affirmative; and it has this property, that it yields conclusions of all kinds, affirmative and negative, universal and particular.

The 2d figure has also 4 legitimate moods. Its major proposition must be universal, and one of

the premises must be negative. It yields conclusions both universal and particular, but not negative.

The 3d figure has six legitimate moods; the minor must always be affirmative; and its conclusions both affirmative and negative, universal and particular. These are all the figures which are admitted by the inventor of syllogisms; which, so far as we know, the number of legitimate moods has been ascertained, and is demonstrated. In every figure it will be upon trial, that there are *sixty-four* different conclusions of syllogism; and he who thinks it worth to construct so many in the *fourth figure*, remembering that the *middle term* in each be the *predicate* of the *major* and the *subject* of the *minor* proposition, will easily discern what number of these moods are *legitimate*, and give conclusions.

Besides the rules that are proper to each figure, ARISTOTLE has given some that are common to all, by which the legitimacy of syllogisms is tried. These may be reduced to five:—1. There must be only *three terms* in a syllogism: A fourth term occurs in two of the propositions, it is precisely the *same in both*; if it be *not*, the syllogism is said to have *four terms*, which makes it an *illicit* syllogism. 2. The *middle term* must be *universal* in one of the premises. 3. Both premises must *not* be *particular* propositions both *negative*. 4. The *conclusion* must be *particular*, if either of the *premises* be *particular*; *negative*, if either of the *premises* be *negative*. 5. A *term* can be taken *universally* in the *conclusion* if it be *not* taken *universally* in the *premises*.

For understanding the 2d and 5th of these rules it is necessary to observe, that a term is said to be taken *universally*, not only when it is the *subject* of a *universal* proposition, but also when it is the *predicate* of a *negative* proposition. On the other hand, a term is said to be taken *particularly*, if it is either the *subject* of a *particular* or the *predicate* of an *affirmative* proposition.

III. The division of syllogisms according to mood and figure respects those especially which are known by the name of plain simple syllogisms; that is, which are bound to three propositions all simple, and where the extremes and the middle term are connected, according to the above rules. But as the mind is not tied down to any one form of reasoning, but sometimes makes use of more, sometimes of fewer premises, and sometimes takes in compound and conditional propositions, it may not be amiss to take notice of the several forms derived from this source, and express rules by which the mind conducts itself in the use of them.

IV. When in any syllogism the major is a conditional proposition, the syllogism itself is called *conditional*. Thus: "If there is a God, he ought to be worshipped:—But there is a God:—Therefore he ought to be worshipped." In this example, the major, or first proposition, is conditional, and therefore the syllogism itself is of the kind. And here we must observe, that conditional propositions are made of two parts: one expressing the condition upon which the predicate agrees or disagrees with



3, as in this now before us, *if there is a God*; the other joining or disjoining the said predicate to the subject, as here, *be ought to be worshipped*. The first of these parts, or that which implies the condition, is called the *antecedent*; the second, here we join or disjoin the predicate and subject, has the name of the *consequent*.

V. In all propositions of this kind, supposing them to be exact in point of form, the relation between the antecedent and consequent must ever be true and real; that is, the antecedent must always contain some certain and genuine condition, which necessarily implies the consequent; for otherwise the proposition itself will be false, and therefore ought not to be admitted into our reasonings. Hence it follows, that when any conditional proposition is assumed, if we admit the antecedent of that proposition, we must at the same time necessarily admit the consequent; but if we reject the consequent, we are in like manner bound to reject the antecedent. For as the antecedent always expresses some condition which necessarily implies the truth of the consequent; by admitting the antecedent, we allow of that condition, and therefore ought also to admit the consequent. In like manner, if it appears that the consequent ought to be rejected, the antecedent evidently must be so too; because as was just now demonstrated, the admitting of the antecedent would necessarily imply the admission also of the consequent.

VI. There are two ways of arguing in *hypothetical* syllogisms, which lead to a certain and unavoidable conclusion. For as the major is always a conditional proposition, consisting of an antecedent and a consequent; if the minor admits the antecedent, it is plain that the conclusion must admit the consequent. This is called arguing on the admission of the antecedent to the admission of the consequent, and constitutes that sort or species of hypothetical syllogisms which is distinguished in the schools by the name of the *modus ponens*, inasmuch as by it the whole conditional proposition, both antecedent and consequent, is established. "Thus: If God is infinitely good, and acts with perfect freedom, he does nothing but what is best:—But God is infinitely good, and acts with perfect freedom:—Therefore he does nothing but what is best." Here we see the antecedent or first part of the conditional proposition is established in the minor, and the consequent or second part in the conclusion; whence the syllogism itself is an example of the *modus ponens*. If now we on the contrary suppose that the minor rejects the consequent, then it is apparent that the conclusion must also reject the antecedent. In this case we are said to argue from the removal of the consequent to the removal of the antecedent, and the particular mood or species of syllogisms thence arising is called by logicians the *modus tollens*; because in it both antecedent and consequent are rejected or taken away, as appears by the following example. "If God were not a Being of infinite goodness, neither would he consult the happiness of his creatures:—But he does consult the happiness of his creature:—Therefore he is a Being of infinite goodness."

VII. These two species take in the whole class

of conditional syllogisms, and include all the possible ways of arguing that lead to a legitimate conclusion; because we cannot here proceed by a contrary process of reasoning, that is, from the removal of the antecedent to the removal of the consequent, or from the establishing of the consequent to the establishing of the antecedent. For although the antecedent always expresses some real condition, which, once admitted, necessarily implies the consequent, yet it does not follow that there is therefore no other condition; and if so, then, after removing the antecedent, the consequent may still hold, because of some other determination that infers it. When we say, *If a stone is exposed some time to the rays of the sun, it will contract a certain degree of heat*; the proposition is certainly true; and, admitting the antecedent, we must also admit the consequent. But as there are other ways by which a stone may gather heat, it will not follow, from the ceasing of the before-mentioned condition, that therefore the consequent cannot take place. We cannot argue: *But the stone has not been exposed to the rays of the sun; therefore neither has it any degree of heat*: Inasmuch as there are many other ways by which heat might be communicated to it. And if we cannot argue from the removal of the antecedent to the removal of the consequent, no more can we from the admission of the consequent to the admission of the antecedent: because, as the consequent may flow from a great variety of different suppositions, the allowing of it does not determine the precise supposition, but only that some one of them must take place. Thus in the foregoing proposition, "If a stone is exposed some time to the rays of the sun, it will contract a certain degree of heat;" admitting the consequent, viz. that it has contracted a certain degree of heat, we are not therefore bound to admit the antecedent, that it has been some time exposed to the rays of the sun; because there are many other causes whence that heat may have proceeded. These two ways of arguing, therefore, hold not in conditional syllogisms.

VIII. As, from the major being a conditional proposition, we obtain the species of conditional syllogisms; so, where it is a disjunctive proposition, the syllogism to which it belongs is also called *disjunctive*, as in the following example:—"The world is either self-existent, or the work of some finite, or of some infinite Being:—But it is not self-existent, nor the work of a finite being:—Therefore it is the work of an infinite Being."

Now, a disjunctive proposition is that, in which, of several predicates, we affirm one necessarily to belong to the subject, to the exclusion of all the rest, but leave that particular one undetermined. Hence it follows, that as soon as we determine the particular predicate, all the rest are of course to be rejected; or if we reject all the predicates but one, that one necessarily takes place. When, therefore, in a disjunctive syllogism, the several predicates are enumerated in the major; if the minor establishes any one of these predicates, the conclusion ought to remove all the rest; or if, in the minor, all the predicates but one are removed, the conclusion must necessarily establish that one. Thus, in the disjunctive syllogism given above,

the major affirms one of the three predicates to belong to the earth, viz. *self-existence*, or that it is *the work of a finite*, or that it is *the work of an infinite Being*. Two of these predicates are removed in the minor, viz. *self-existence*, and *the work of a finite being*. Hence the conclusion necessarily ascribes to it the 3d predicate, and affirms that it is *the work of an infinite Being*. If now we give the syllogism another turn, inasmuch that the minor may establish one of the predicates, by affirming the earth to be *the production of an infinite Being*: then the conclusion must remove the other two, asserting it to be neither *self-existent*, nor *the work of a finite being*. These are the forms of reasoning in these species of syllogisms, the justness of which appears at first sight: and that there can be no other, is evident from the very nature of a disjunctive proposition.

IX. In the several kinds of syllogisms hitherto mentioned, we may observe, that the parts are complete; that is, the three propositions of which they consist are represented in form. But it often happens, that some one of the premises is not only an evident truth, but also familiar and in the minds of all men; in which case it is usually omitted, whereby we have an imperfect syllogism, that seems to be made up of only two propositions. Should we, for instance, argue in this manner:—"Every man is mortal:—Therefore every king is mortal:"—the syllogism appears to be imperfect, as consisting but of two propositions. Yet it is really complete; only the minor [*every king is a man*] is omitted: and left to the reader to supply, as being a proposition so familiar and evident that it cannot escape him.

X. These seemingly imperfect syllogisms are called *enthymemes*; and occur very frequently in reasoning, especially where it makes a part of common conversation. Nay, there is a particular elegance in them, because, not displaying the argument in all its parts, they leave somewhat to the exercise and invention of the mind. We are thus put upon exerting ourselves, and seem to share in the discovery of what is proposed to us. Now this is the great secret of fine writing, so to frame and put together our thoughts, as to give full play to the reader's imagination, and draw him insensibly into our views and course of reasoning. This gives a pleasure not unlike to that which the author himself feels in composing. It besides shortens discourse, and adds a certain force and liveliness to our arguments, when the words in which they are conveyed favour the natural quickness of the mind in its operations, and a single expression is left to exhibit a whole train of thoughts.

XI. But there is another species of reasoning with two propositions, which seems to be complete in itself, and where we admit the conclusion without supposing any tacit or suppressed judgement in the mind, from which it follows syllogistically. This happens between propositions, where the connection is such, that the admission of the one necessarily and at the first sight implies the admission also of the other. For if it so falls out, that the proposition on which the other depends is self-evident, we content ourselves with *barely affirming it*, and infer that other by a direct

conclusion. Thus, by admitting an universal proposition, we are forced also to admit of all the particular propositions comprehended under it, this being the very condition that constitutes a proposition universal. If then that universal proposition be self-evident, the particular ones follow of course, without any farther train of reasoning. Whoever allows, for instance, "that things equal to one and the same thing are equal to one another," must at the same time allow, "that two triangles, each equal to a square whose side is three inches, are also equal between themselves." This argument therefore,—*"Things equal to one and the same thing, are equal to one another:—Therefore these two triangles, each equal to the square of a line of three inches, are equal between themselves:—"*—is complete in its kind, and contains all that is necessary towards a just and legitimate conclusion. For the first or universal proposition is self-evident, and therefore requires no farther proof. And as the truth of the particular is inseparably connected with that of the universal, it follows from it by an obvious and unavoidable consequence.

XII. Now, in all cases of this kind, where propositions are deduced one from another, on account of a known and evident connection, we are said to reason by immediate consequence. Such a coherence of propositions manifest at first sight, and forcing itself upon the mind, frequently occurs in reasoning. Logicians have explained some length the several suppositions upon which takes place, and allow of all immediate consequences that follow in conformity to them. It is however observable, that these arguments, though seemingly complete, because the conclusion follows necessarily from the single proposition that goes before, may yet be considered as real enthymemes, whose major, which is a conditional proposition, is wanting. The syllogism just mentioned, when represented according to this view, will run as follows:—"If things equal to one and the same thing, are equal to one another; these two triangles, each equal to a square whose side is three inches, are also equal between themselves.—But things equal to one and the same thing, are equal to one another:—Therefore also these two triangles, &c. are equal between themselves." The observation will be found to hold in all immediate consequences whatsoever, inasmuch that they are in fact no more than enthymemes of hypothetical syllogisms. But then it is particular to them, that the ground on which the conclusion rests, namely its coherence with the minor, is of itself apparent and seen immediately to flow from the rules and reasons of logic.

XIII. The next species of reasoning we shall take notice of here is what is commonly known by the name of *SORITES*. This is a way of arguing, in which a great number of propositions are so linked together, that the predicate of one becomes continually the subject of the next following, until at last a conclusion is formed, bringing together the subject of the first proposition, and the predicate of the last. Of this is the following argument:—"God is omnipotent:—An omnipotent being can do every thing possible:—He that can do every thing possible

whatever involves not a contradiction: one God can do whatever involves not a lion."—This particular combination of ours may be continued to any length without in the least weakening the ground which the conclusion rests. The reason is, the sorites itself may be resolved into as many syllogisms as there are middle terms here this is found universally to hold, when such a resolution is made, and the terms are placed in train; the conclusion of the series is also the conclusion of the whole. This kind of argument, therefore, as it unites several syllogisms into one, must rest on the same foundation with the syllogism which it consists, and is indeed, properly, no other than a compendious way of syllogistically.

What is here said of plain simple propositions may be as well applied to those that are compound; that is, any number of them may be together in a series, that the consequent shall become continually the antecedent of following; in which case, by establishing the antecedent of the first proposition, we establish the consequent of the last, or by removing the consequent remove also the first antecedent.

This way of reasoning is exemplified in the following argument:—"If we love any man, our emotions of hatred towards him cease; if we love any man, our notions of hatred towards a person cease, and we rejoice in his misfortunes:—If we rejoice in his misfortunes, we certainly wish him no injury:—Therefore, if we love a person, we wish him no injury."—It is evident that this is no other than a series of syllogisms, with this only difference, that here the syllogisms are all conditional. The last species of syllogism we shall take notice of in this section is that commonly distinguished by the name of a DILEMMA. A dilemma is an argument by which we endeavour to prove the truth or falsehood of some assertion. In this, we assume a conditional proposition antecedent of which is the assertion to be proved, and the consequent a disjunctive proposition, enumerating all the possible suppositions which that assertion can take place. If it appears, that all these several suppositions to be rejected, it is plain, that the antecedent or assertion itself must be so too. Therefore such a proposition as that before mentioned is made the major of any syllogism; if it is rejected, all the suppositions contained in the consequent, it necessarily follows, that the antecedent ought to be rejected, which is the assertion to be disproved. This particular way of arguing is that which logicians call a dilemma; and from the account here given of it, we may in the general define it to be a hypothetical syllogism, where the consequent of the major is a disjunctive proposition, wholly taken away or removed in the minor. Of this kind is the following:—"If God create the world perfect in its kind, it will proceed from want of inclination, or from want of power:—But it could not proceed from want of inclination, or from want of

power:—Therefore, he created the world perfect in its kind." Or, which is the same thing: "It is absurd to say that he did not create the world perfect in its kind."

XVI. The nature then of a dilemma is universally this. The major is a conditional proposition, whose consequent contains all the several suppositions upon which the antecedent can take place. As therefore these suppositions are wholly removed in the minor, it is evident that the antecedent must be so too; inasmuch that we here always argue from the removal of the consequent to the removal of the antecedent. That is, a dilemma is an argument in the *modus tollens* of hypothetical syllogisms, as logicians speak. Hence it is plain, that if the antecedent of the major is an affirmative proposition, the conclusion of the dilemma will be negative; but if it is a negative proposition, the conclusion will be affirmative.

#### SECT. V. Of INDUCTION.

I. ALL reasoning proceeds ultimately from first truths, either self-evident or taken for granted; and the first truths of syllogistic reasonings are general propositions. But except in the mathematics, and such other sciences as, being conversant about mere ideas, have no immediate relation to things without the mind, we cannot assume as truths propositions which are general. The mathematician indeed may be considered as taking his ideas from the beginning in their general form. Every proposition composed of such ideas is therefore general; and those which are theoretic are reducible to two parts or terms, a *predicate* and a *subject*, with a *copula* generally affirmative. If the agreement or the relation between the two terms be not immediate and self-evident, he has recourse to an *axiom*, which is a proposition still more general, and which supplies him with a third or middle term. Thus he compares first with the *predicate*, and then with the *subject* or *vice versa*. These two comparisons, when drawn out in form, make two propositions, which are called the *premises*; and if they be immediate and self-evident, the *conclusion*, consisting of the terms of the question proposed, is said to be demonstrated. This method of reasoning is conducted exactly in the syllogistic form explained in the preceding section.

II. But in sciences which treat of things external to the mind, we cannot assume as first principles the most general propositions, and from them infer others less and less general till we descend to particulars. The reason is obvious. Every thing in the universe, whether of mind or body, presents itself to our observation in its individual state; so that perception and judgment employed in the investigation of truth, whether physical, metaphysical, moral, or historical, have in the first place to encounter with PARTICULARS. With these reasons begins, or should begin, its operations. It observes, tries, canvasses, examines, and compares them together, and judges of them by some of those native evidences and original lights which, as they are the first and indispensable inlets of knowledge to the mind, have been called the *primary principles of truth*. See METAPHYSICS.

III. "By such acts of observation and judgment,

this process REASON advances from *particulars to generals*, from *less general to more general*, till by a series of slow progression, and by regular degrees, it arrive at the *most general* notions, called FORMS or FORMAL CAUSES. And by *affirming* or *denying* a genus of a species, or an accident of a substance or class of substances, through all the stages of the gradation, we form *conclusions*, which, if logically drawn, are AXIOMS, or general propositions ranged one above another, till they terminate in those that are UNIVERSAL.

IV. "Thus, for instance, *the evidence of the external senses* is obviously the PRIMARY PRINCIPLE from which all physical knowledge is derived. But, whereas nature begins with *causes*, which, after a variety of changes, produce *effects*, the senses open upon the *effects*, and from them, through the slow and painful road of experiment and observation, ascend to *causes*. By *experiments* and *observations* skillfully chosen, artfully conducted, and judiciously applied, the philosopher advances from one stage of inquiry to another, in the rational investigation of the *general causes* of physical truth. From different experiments and observations made on the same individual subject, and from the same experiments and observations made on different subjects of the same kind, by comparing and judging, he discovers some *qualities*, *causes*, or *phenomena*, which, after carefully distinguishing and rejecting all contradictory instances that occur, he finds common to *many*. Thus, by many collateral comparisons and judgments made upon *particulars*, he ascends to *generals*; by a repetition of the same industrious process, and laborious investigation, he advances from *particular to more general*, till at last he is enabled to form a few of the *most general*, with their attributes and operations into AXIOMS or *secondary principles*, which are the well-founded bases enacted and endorsed by the God of nature.—This is the just and indubitable method of reasoning

in a single branch of science; he was brought to the temple of truth an offering more valuable than he has done by the aggregate of his logical and philosophical productions.

VII. "In all sciences, except the mathematics, it is only after the INDUCTIVE process industriously pursued and successfully completed, that DEFINITION may be logically and advantageously introduced, by beginning with the *general* through all the graduate and subordinate stages, and marking the *specific difference* as it till it arrive at the *individual*, which is the subject of the question. And by adding an *affirmation* or *negation* of the attribute of the *genus* or *individual*, or of a general *accident* of a particular *substance* so defined, making the whole a proposition, the truth of the question is logically solved without any farther process, that instead of being the *first*, as empiric logic in common use, *definition* may be the *last* of reason in the search of truth in general.

VIII. "These AXIOMS or general principles thus *inductively* established, become the primary PRINCIPLES, which may be proceeded SECONDARY, and which lay the foundation for the syllogistic method of reasoning. As they are formed, but not before, we may find the maxim with which logicians set out the exercise of their art, as the great hinge of their reasoning and disputation turns upon *truths* that are *already known*, to determine *truths* which are *not known*." Or, to state it more comprehensively, so as to apply to probability and to scientific reasoning—"From *truths* which are *better known*, to derive *others* which are *less known*." Philosophically speaking, syllogistic reasoning is under *general propositions* to reduce *others* which are *less general*, or which are *particulars* which are known to be true, and to trace their connection with the *generals* by speaking, it is, 'To predicate a *genus*

X. "Till general truths are ascertained by induction, the *third or middle terms* by which syllogisms are made are no where safely to be found. So that other position of the Stagyrice, that "*syllogism naturally prior in order to induction,*" is equally founded; for *induction* does not only naturally necessarily precede *syllogism*; and, except in mathematics, is in every respect indispensable to existence; since, till generals are established, we can be neither *definition, proposition, nor axiom*, and of course no *syllogism*. And as induction the first, so is it the more *essential* and *fundamental* instrument of reasoning: for as *syllogism* cannot produce its own *principles*, it must have them from induction; and if the general proposition or secondary principles be imperfectly or initially established, and much more if they be taken *axiomatically*, upon authority, or by arbitrary assumption like those of Aristotle, all the *syllogizing* in the world is a vain and useless *logomachy*, only instrumental to the multiplication of false learnings and to the invention and confirmation of errors.

The truth of syllogisms depends ultimately on the truth of axioms, and the truth of axioms on the soundness of inductions." (*Tatham's Chart Scale of Truth.*) But though induction is prior in order, as well as superior in utility, to syllogism, we have thought it expedient to treat of it; both because syllogism is an easier exercise of the reasoning faculty than induction, and because it is the method of mathematics, the first use of reason in which the student is communitiated.

#### SECT. VI. Of DEMONSTRATION.

HAVING dispatched what seemed necessary in regard to *induction* and *syllogism*; we now need to consider the laws of demonstration. Here it must be confessed, that in strict demonstration, which removes from the mind all possibility of doubt or error, the inductive method of reasoning can have no place. When the experiments or observations from which the general conclusions are drawn are numerous and extensive, the result of his mode of reasoning is moral certainty; and when the induction be made complete, it would be absolute certainty, equally convincing with mathematical demonstration. But however numerous and extensive, the observations and experiments are, upon which an inductive conclusion is established, they must of necessity come short of the number and extent of nature; which, in some cases, its immensity, defeat all possibility of their comprehension; and in others, by its distance, lie out of the reach of their immediate application. Though truth does not appear in all other departments of learning with that bold and resistless conviction with which it presides in mathematical science, it shines through them all, if not intercepted by prejudice or perverted by error, with a clear and useful, though inferior strength. And it is not necessary for the general safety or convenience of a traveller, that he should always enjoy the heat and splendor of a mid-day sun, whilst he may with more ease pursue his journey under the cooler influence of a morning or an evening ray; it is not requisite, for the various concerns and purposes of life, that men should be led by truth

of the more redundant brightness. Such truth is to be had only in those sciences which are conversant about ideas and their various relations; where every thing being certainly what it appears to be, definitions and axioms arise from mere intuition. Here *syllogism* takes up the process from the beginning; and by a sublime intellectual motion advances from the simplest axioms to the most complicated speculations, and exhibits truth springing out of its first and purest elements, and spreading on all sides into a system of science. As each step in the progress is syllogistic, we shall endeavour to explain the use and application of syllogisms in this species of reasoning.

We have seen, that in all the different appearances they put on, we still arrive at a just and legitimate conclusion; now it often happens, that the conclusion of one syllogism becomes a previous proposition in another; by which means great numbers of them are sometimes linked together in a series, and truths are made to follow one another in train. And as in such a concatenation of syllogisms all the various ways of reasoning that are truly conclusive may be with safety introduced; hence it is plain, that in deducing any truth from its first principles, especially where it lies at a considerable distance from them, we are at liberty to combine all the several kinds of syllogisms above explained, according as they are found best to suit the end and purpose of our inquiries. When a proposition is thus, by means of syllogisms, collected from others more evident and known, it is said to be *proved*; so that we may, in general, define the proof of a proposition to be a syllogism, or series of syllogisms, collecting that proposition from known and evident truths. But more particularly, if the syllogisms of which the proofs consist admit of no premises but definitions, self-evident truths, and propositions already established, then is the argument so constituted called a *demonstration*; whereby it appears that demonstrations are ultimately founded on definitions and self-evident propositions.

II. All syllogisms whatsoever, whether compound, multiform, or defective, are reducible to plain simple syllogisms in some one of the four figures. But this is not all. Syllogisms of the first figure, in particular, admit of all possible conclusions: that is, any propositions whatsoever, whether an universal affirmative or universal negative, a particular affirmative or particular negative, which fourfold division embraces all their varieties; any one of these may be inferred by virtue of some syllogism in the first figure. By these means it happens, that the syllogisms of all the other figures are reducible also to syllogisms of the first figure, and may be considered as standing on the same foundation with them. To demonstrate and explain the manner of this reduction, would too much swell this treatise. It is enough to notice that the thing is universally known and allowed among logicians, to whose writings we refer such as desire farther satisfaction in this matter. This then being laid down, it is plain that any demonstration whatsoever may be considered as composed of a series of syllogisms, all in the first figure—since all the syllogisms that enter the demonstration are reducible to syllogisms of the first figure.



to any idea; the same must needs agree or any number of individuals comprehend that idea." And thus at length, according to our first design, reduced into demonstration to one simple and principle; which carries its own evidence with it, and which is indeed the foundation of all syllogistic reasoning.

monstration therefore serving as an infallible to truth, and standing on so sure and stable a basis, we may now venture to affirm that the rules of logic furnish a sufficient criterion the distinguishing between truth and falsehood. For since every proposition that can be demonstrated is necessarily true, he is able to distinguish truth from falsehood, who can with confidence judge when a proposition is truly demonstrated. Now, a demonstration is nothing more than a concatenation of syllogisms, all whose premises are definitions, self-evident truths, or propositions previously established. To judge of the validity of a demonstration, we enquire whether the definitions that engage are genuine, and truly descriptive of the things they are meant to exhibit: whether the propositions assumed without proofs as intuitive truths are really that self-evidence to which they lay claim; whether the syllogisms are drawn up in a just and agreeable to the laws of argumentation, and whether they are combined together in a just and orderly manner, so that no single proposition serves any where as a premiss which is a conclusion of previous syllogisms.

Now, it is the business of logic, in executing the several operations of the mind, fully to direct us in all these points. It teaches the method and end of definitions, and lays down the rules which they ought to be framed. It distinguishes the several species of propositions, and describes the self-evident from the demonstrable. It states also the different forms of syllogisms, and assigns the laws of argumentation proper to each; and describes the manner of combining them, so as that they may form a train of reasoning, and lead to the successive discovery of truth. The precepts of logic, therefore, as they direct us to judge with certainty when a proposition is demonstrated, furnish a sure criterion the distinguishing between truth and falsehood.

Perhaps it may be objected, that demonstration is a thing very rare and uncommon, as the prerogative of but a few sciences, and that the criterion here given can be of no use. But wherever, by the bare contemplation of our ideas, truth is discoverable, there demonstration may be attained. Now that is an instantly sufficient criterion which enables us to judge with certainty in all cases where the degree of truth comes within our reach; for those sciences, that lie beyond the limits of the human mind, we have, properly, no business. A proposition is demonstrated, we are certain it is truth. When, on the contrary, our ideas are such as have no visible connection or resemblance, and therefore furnish not the proper materials for tracing their agreement or disagreement, we are sure that scientific knowledge is

not attainable. But where there is some foundation of reasoning, which yet amounts not to the full evidence of demonstration, there the precepts of logic, by teaching us to determine aright of the degree of proof, and of what is still wanting to render it full and complete, enable us to make a due estimate of the measures of probability, and to proportion our assent to the grounds on which the proposition stands. And this is all we can possibly arrive at, or even so much as hope for, in the exercise of faculties so imperfect and limited as ours.

VII. Before we conclude this section it is proper to take notice of the distinction of demonstration into DIRECT and INDIRECT. A *direct* demonstration is, when, beginning with definitions, self-evident propositions, or known and allowed truths, we form a train of syllogisms, and combine them in an orderly manner, continuing the series through a variety of successive steps, until at last we arrive at a syllogism whose conclusion is the proposition to be demonstrated. Proofs of this kind leave no doubt or uncertainty behind them; because, all the several premises being true, the conclusion must be so too, and of course the very last conclusion or proposition to be proved. The other species of demonstration is the *indirect*, or, as it is sometimes called, the *apagogical*. The manner of proceeding here is, by assuming a proposition which directly contradicts that we mean to demonstrate; and thence, by a continued train of reasoning, in the way of a direct demonstration, deducing some absurdity or manifest untruth. For hereupon we conclude, that the proposition assumed was false; and thence again, by an immediate consequence, that the proposition to be demonstrated is true. Thus Euclid, in his third book, being to demonstrate that circles which touch one another inwardly have not the same centre, assumes the direct contrary to this, viz. that they have the same centre; and thence, by an evident train of reasoning, proves that a part is equal to the whole. The supposition therefore leading to this absurdity he concludes to be false, and thence immediately infers, that they have not the same centre.

VIII. Now, because this manner of demonstration is accounted by some not altogether so clear and satisfactory; we shall therefore endeavour to show that it leads to truth and certainty equally with the other. Two propositions are said to be *contradictory* one of another, when that which is asserted to be in the one is asserted not to be in the other. Thus the propositions, "Circles that touch one another inwardly have the same centre," and "Circles that touch one another inwardly have not the same centre," are *contradictories*, because the second asserts the direct contrary of what is asserted in the first. Now, in all contradictory propositions, this holds universally, that one of them is necessarily true, and the other necessarily false. For if it be true, that circles which touch one another inwardly have not the same centre; it is unavoidably false, that they have the same centre. On the other hand, if it be false that they have the same centre, it is necessarily true that they have not the same centre. Since therefore it is impossible for them to be both true or both false at the same

same time; it unavoidably follows, that one is necessarily true, and the other necessarily false. This then being allowed, which is indeed self-evident, if any two contradictory propositions are assumed, and one of them can by a clear train of reasoning be demonstrated to be false, it necessarily follows, that the other is true. For as the one is necessarily true, and the other necessarily false; when we come to discover which is the false proposition, we thereby also know the other to be true.

IX. Now this is precisely the manner of an indirect demonstration, as is evident from the account given of it above. For there we assume a proposition which directly contradicts that we mean to demonstrate; and, having by a continued series of proofs shown it to be false, thence infer that its contradictory, or the proposition to be demonstrated is true. As, therefore, this last conclusion is certain and unavoidable; let us next inquire after what manner we come to be satisfied of the falsehood of the assumed proposition, that so no possible doubt may remain as to the force and validity of demonstrations of this kind. The manner then is plainly this: Beginning with the assumed proposition, we, by the help of definitions, self-evident truths, or propositions already established, continue a series of reasoning, in the way of a direct demonstration, until at length we arrive at some absurdity or known falsehood. Thus Euclid, in the example before-mentioned, from the supposition that circles touching one another inwardly have the same centre, deduces, that a part is equal to the whole. Since, therefore, by a due and orderly process of reasoning, we come at last to a false conclusion; it is manifest, that all the premises cannot be true: for, were all the premises true, the last conclusion must be so too, by what has been before demonstrated. Now, as to all the other premises made use of in the course of reasoning, they are manifest and known truths by supposition, as being either definitions, self-evident propositions, or truths previously established. The assumed proposition is that only as to which any doubt or uncertainty remains. That alone, therefore, can be false; and indeed, from what has been already shown, must unavoidably be so. And thus we see, that in indirect demonstrations, two contradictory propositions being laid down, one of which is demonstrated to be false, the other, which is always the proposition to be proved, must necessarily be true; so that here, as well as in the direct way of proof we arrive at a clear and satisfactory knowledge of truth.

X. This is universally the method of reasoning in all apogical or indirect demonstrations. But if any proposition is assumed, from which, in a direct train of reasoning, we can deduce its contradictory; the proposition so assumed is false and the contradictory one true. For if we suppose the assumed proposition to be true, then, since all the other premises that enter the demonstration are also true, we shall have a series of reasoning consisting wholly of true premises; whence the last conclusion or contradictory of the assumed proposition must be true likewise: so that we should thus have two contradictory propositions both true at

the same time, which is manifestly impossible. The assumed proposition, therefore, whence the absurdity flows, must necessarily be false; and consequently its contradictory, which is here the proposition deduced from it, must be true. If the any proposition is proposed to be demonstrated and we assume the contradictory of that proposition and thence directly infer the proposition to be demonstrated; by these very means we know, that the proposition so inferred, is true. For, since from an assumed proposition we have deduced it contradictory, we are thereby certain that the assumed proposition is false; and if so, then its contradictory, or that deduced from it, which in this case is the same with the proposition to be demonstrated, must be true.

XI. We have a curious instance of this in the 12th proposition of the 9th book of the Elements. Euclid there proposes to demonstrate, that "in any series of numbers, rising from unity in geometrical progression, all the prime numbers that measure the last term in the series will also measure the next after unity." In order to this, he assumes the contradictory of the proposition to be demonstrated; namely, that "some prime number measuring the last term in the series does not measure the next after unity," and thence, by a continued train of reasoning, proves that it actually does measure it. Hereupon he concludes the assumed proposition to be false; and that which is deduced from it, or its contradictory, which is the very proposition he proposed to demonstrate, to be true. Now that this is a just and conclusive way of reasoning, is abundantly manifest from what we have so clearly established above. Whence it appears, how necessary some knowledge of the rules of logic is, to enable us to judge of the force, justness, and validity, of demonstrations. For, though it is readily allowed, that by the mere strength of our natural faculties we can at once discern, that of two contradictory propositions, the one is necessarily true and the other necessarily false; yet when they are so linked together in a demonstration, as that the one serves as a previous proposition whence the other is deduced, it does not so immediately appear, without some knowledge of the principles of logic, why that alone, which is collected by reasoning, ought to be embraced as true, and the other, whence it is collected, to be rejected as false.

XII. Having thus sufficiently evinced the certainty of demonstration in all its branches, and shown the rules by which we ought to proceed, in order to arrive at a just conclusion, according to the various ways of arguing made use of; it is needless to enter upon a particular consideration of those several species of false reasoning which logicians distinguish by the name of *SOPHISMS*. He that thoroughly understands the form and structure of a good argument, will of himself readily discern every deviation from it. And although *sophisms* have been divided into many classes, which are all called by founding names, that therefore carry in them much appearance of learning; yet are the errors themselves so very palpable and obvious, that it would be lost labour to write for a man capable of being misled by



Here, therefore, we choose to con-  
 art of logic; and shall in the next give  
 nt of METHOD, which, though infer-  
 m reasoning, is nevertheless always  
 y logicians as a distinct operation of  
 because its influence is not confined  
 exercise of the reasoning faculty, but  
 some degree to all the transactions of  
 inding.

PART IV.  
 OF METHOD.

*f* the DIFFERENT SPECIES of METHOD.

ave now done with the three first ope-  
 the mind, whose office it is to search  
 , and enlarge the bounds of human  
 . There is yet a fourth, which regards  
 l and arrangement of our thoughts,  
 endeavour so to put them together as  
 mutual connection and dependence  
 arly seen. This is what logicians call  
 d place always the last in order in ex-  
 e powers of the understanding; be-  
 cessarily supposes a previous exercise  
 er faculties, and some progress made  
 ge before we can exert it in any exten-

s view, it is plain that we must be be-  
 vell acquainted with the truths we are  
 together; otherwise, how could we  
 ir several connections and relations, or  
 of them as their mutual dependence  
 e? But it often happens, that the un-  
 is employed, not in the arrangement  
 sition of known truths, but in the  
 discovery of such as are unknown.  
 he manner of proceeding is very diffic-  
 assemble at once our whole stock of  
 relating to any subject, and, after a  
 vey of things, begin with examining  
 ately and by parts. Hence it comes  
 at whereas, at our first setting out, we  
 ainted only with some of the grand  
 outlines of truth; by thus pursuing  
 h her several windings and recesses, we  
 discover those more inward and finer  
 ence she derives all her strength, sym-  
 l beauty. And here it is, that when,  
 w scrutiny into things, we have un-  
 y part of knowledge, and traced it  
 nd original principles, inasmuch that  
 frame and contexture of it lies open to  
 f the mind; here it is, that, taking it  
 y way, and beginning with these prin-  
 cau so adjust and put together the  
 e order and method of science requires.

as these things are best understood  
 rated by examples; let us suppose any  
 or instance a watch, presented to us,  
 clure and composition we are as yet  
 ed with, but want, if possible, to dis-  
 e manner of proceeding, in this case,  
 ng the whole to pieces, and examining  
 parately, one after another. When,  
 crutiny, we have thoroughly informed  
 f the frame and contexture of each, we

then compare them together, in order to judge  
 of their mutual action and influence. Thus we  
 gradually trace out the inward make and com-  
 position of the whole, and come at length to dis-  
 cern how parts of such a form, and so put to-  
 gether, as we found in unravelling and taking them  
 asunder, constitute that particular machine called  
 a watch, and contribute to all the several motions  
 and phenomena observable in it. This discovery  
 being made, we can take things the contrary way,  
 and, beginning with the parts, so dispose and  
 connect them as their several uses and structures  
 require, until at length we arrive at the whole  
 itself, from the unravelling of which those parts  
 resulted.

IV. And as it is in tracing and examining the  
 works of art; so is it, in a great measure, in un-  
 folding any part of human knowledge: for the  
 relations and mutual habitudes of things do not  
 always immediately appear upon comparing them  
 one with another. Hence we have recourse to  
 intermediate ideas; and by means of them, are  
 furnished with those previous propositions that  
 lead to the conclusion we are in quest of. And  
 if it so happen that the previous propositions  
 themselves are not sufficiently evident, we endeav-  
 our, by new middle terms, to ascertain their  
 truth; still tracing things backward, in a conti-  
 nual series, until we arrive at some syllogism where  
 the premises are first and self-evident principles.  
 This done, we become perfectly satisfied as to  
 the truth of all the conclusions we have passed  
 through, inasmuch as they are now seen to stand  
 upon the firm and immovable foundation of our  
 intuitive perceptions. And as we arrived at this  
 certainty by tracing things backward to the ori-  
 ginal principles whence they flow; so may we at  
 any time renew it by a direct contrary process, if,  
 beginning with these principles, we carry the train  
 of our thoughts forward until they lead us, by a  
 connected chain of proofs, to the very last conclu-  
 sion of the series.

V. Hence it appears, that, in disposing and  
 putting together our thoughts, either for our  
 own use, that the discoveries we have made may  
 at all times lie open to the review of the mind,  
 or where we mean to communicate and unfold  
 the discoveries to others, there are two ways of  
 proceeding equally within our choice: for we  
 may so propose the truth relating to any part of  
 knowledge, as they presented themselves to the  
 mind in the manner of investigation; carrying on  
 the series of proofs, in a reverse order, until they  
 at last terminate in first principles: or, beginning  
 with these principles, we may take the contrary  
 way, and from them deduce, by a direct train of  
 reasoning, all the several propositions we want to  
 establish. The diversity in the manner of arrang-  
 ing our thoughts gives rise to the twofold division  
 of method established among logicians: for meth-  
 od, according to their use of the word, is noth-  
 ing else but the order and disposition of our  
 thoughts relating to any subject. When truths  
 are so proposed and put together as they were or  
 might have been discovered, this is called the  
*analytic method*, or the *method of resolution*; inas-  
 much as it traces things backward to their source,  
 and resolves knowledge into its first and original  
 principles.

principles. When, on the other hand, they are deduced from these principles, and connected according to their mutual dependence, inasmuch that the truths first in order tend always to the demonstration of those that follow; this constitutes what we call the *synthetic method*, or *method of composition*. For here we proceed by gathering together the several scattered parts of knowledge, and combining them into one whole or system, in such a manner that the understanding is enabled distinctly to follow truth through all her different stages and gradations.

VI. The first of these two species of method has also obtained the name of the *method of invention*, because it observes the order in which our thoughts succeed one another in the invention or discovery of truth. The other again, is often denominated the *method of doctrine* or *instruction*; inasmuch as, in laying our thoughts before others, we generally choose to proceed in the synthetic manner, deducing them from their first principles. For although there is great pleasure in pursuing truth in the method of investigation, because it places us in the condition of the inventor, and shows the particular train and process of thinking by which he arrived at his discoveries; yet it is not so well accommodated to the purposes of evidence and conviction. For, at our first setting out, we are commonly unable to divine where the analysis will lead us; inasmuch that our researches are for some time little better than a mere groping in the dark. And even after light begins to break in upon us, we are still obliged to make many reviews, and a frequent comparison of the several steps of the investigation among themselves. Nay, when we have unravelled the whole, and reached the very foundation on which our discoveries stand, all our certainty, in regard to their truth, will be found in a great measure to arise from that connection we are now able to discern between them and first principles, taken in the order of composition. But in the synthetic manner of disposing our thoughts, the case is quite different: for as we here begin with the intuitive truths, and advance by regular deductions from them, every step of the procedure brings evidence and conviction along with it; so that, in our progress from one part of knowledge to another, we have always a clear perception of the ground on which our assent rests. In communicating therefore our discoveries to others, this method is apparently to be chosen, as it wonderfully improves and enlightens the understanding, and leads to an immediate perception of truth.

#### SECT. II. *Of the UTILITY of LOGIC.*

THE logic which for so many ages kept possession of the schools, and was deemed the most important of the sciences, has long been condemned as a mere art of wrangling, of very little use in the pursuit of truth. Attempts have been made to restore it to credit, but without success; and of late years little or no attention whatever has been paid to the *art of reasoning* in the course of what is called a liberal education. As both extremes are faulty, we cannot conclude this short treatise more properly than with the following reflections on the utility of this science.

IF ARISTOTLE was not the inventor of what was certainly the prince of logicians. The theory of syllogisms he claims as his own the fruit of much time and labour; and universally known, that the later writers have borrowed their materials almost entirely his *Organon* and Porphyry's Introduction after men had laboured near 2000 years of truth by the help of syllogisms, Logic proposed the method of induction, as a factual engine for that purpose; and since the art of logic has gradually fallen into

To this consequence many causes concur. The art of syllogism is admirably calculated for wrangling; and by the schoolmen it was used with too much success, to keep in countenance the absurdities of the Romish church. Its management it produced numberless dissenting sects, who fought against each other with much animosity without gaining any ground; but it did nothing considerable for the benefit of human life, whilst the method of induction has improved arts and increased knowledge. It is no wonder, therefore, that the estimation of Aristotle, which continued for many ages, should end in an undervaluation. The high esteem of logic, as the grand key of science, should at last make way for a more favourable an opinion, which seems now of its being unworthy of a place in a liberal education. Men rarely leave one extreme running into the contrary: Those who were formerly so fond of the fashion, will be as prone to the present extreme as their grandfathers were to the former; and even they who think for themselves, when they are sensible of the abuse of any thing, are too apt to be prejudiced against the *thing itself*. "I have said" (says the learned WARBURTON in his *Letter to Julian*, &c.), logic is more a *trick* than an art, formed rather to amuse than to instruct. In some sort we may apply to the art of logic what a man of wit says of rhetoric, that it tells us how to *name* those tools which are before put into our hands. In the service of the cane, indeed, it is a meer juggler's knot now loose; and the schools where the main was exercised in great perfection: the stories of its wonders." The authority of Warburton is great; but it may be counterbalanced by another which, on subjects of this kind, is confessedly greater.

"Laying aside prejudice, whether it be in vogue or unfashionable, let us consider (says I in his *Appendix to Lord Kames's Sketch on the People and Progress of Reason*) whether logic can be made subservient to any good purpose. The professed end is, to teach men to think and to reason, with precision and accuracy. A man will say that this is a matter of little consequence: the only thing therefore that can be doubted is, whether it can be taught?"

"To resolve this doubt, it may be said that our rational faculty is the gift of God to men in very different measures: Some have a large portion, some a less; and where there is a remarkable defect of the natural power, it may be supplied by any culture. But this na-

even where it is the strongest, may lie dead or want of the means of improvement. Many a sage may have been born with as good faculties as NEWTON, a BACON, or an ARISTOTLE; but their talents were buried by having never been put to use, whilst those of the philosophers were cultivated to the best advantage. It may likewise be served, that the chief mean of improving our rational power, is the vigorous exercise of it in various ways and on different subjects, by which the art is acquired of exercising it properly. Without such exercise, and good sense over and above, man who has studied logic all his life may be by a petulant wrangler, without true judgment or skill of reasoning in any science."

"This must have been LOCKE'S meaning, when, in his *Thoughts on Education*, he says, "If you would have your son to reason well, let him read MILLINGWORTH." The state of things is much altered since Locke wrote: Logic has been much improved chiefly by his writings; and yet much stress is laid upon it, and less time consumed in its study. His counsel, therefore, was judicious and reasonable; to wit, That the improvement of our reasoning power is to be expected much more from an intimate acquaintance with the authors who reason best, than from studying voluminous systems of school logic. But if he had meant, that the study of logic was of no use, nor deserved any attention, he surely would not have taken the pains to make so considerable an addition to it, by his *Essay on the Human Understanding*; and by his *Thoughts on the Conduct of the Understanding*; nor would he have remitted his notice to *Chillingworth*, the acutest logician as well as the best reasoner of his age."

There is no study better fitted to exercise and strengthen the reasoning powers than that of the mathematical sciences; because there is no other branch of science which gives such scope to long and intricate trains of reasoning, or in which there is so much room for authority or prejudice of any kind to cast a false bias to the judgment. When a youth of moderate parts begins to study Euclid, every thing is new to him: His apprehension is unsteady; his judgment is feeble; and rests partly upon the evidence of the thing, and partly upon the authority of the teacher. But every time he goes over the demonstrations, the axioms, the elementary propositions, more light breaks in upon him; and as he advances, the road of demonstration becomes more and more easy: he can walk in it firmly, and take wider steps, till at last he acquires the habit not only of understanding a demonstration, but of discovering and demonstrating mathematical truths.

It must indeed be confessed, that a man without the rules of logic may acquire a habit of reasoning in mathematics, and perhaps in any other science. Good sense, good examples, and assiduous exercise, may bring a man to reason justly and clearly in his own profession without rules. But never think, that from this conclusion he may infer the utility of logic, or that he may regret the want of that art; for he might as well infer, because a man may go from Edinburgh to London by the way of Paris, that therefore any road is useless.

OL. XIII. PART. II.

There is perhaps no art which may not be acquired, in a very considerable degree, by example and practice, without reducing it to rules. But practice joined with rules may carry a man forward in his art farther and more quickly than practice without rules.—Every ingenious artist knows the utility of having his art reduced to rules, and thereby made a science. By rules he is enlightened in his practice, and works with more assurance. They enable him sometimes to correct his own errors, and often to detect the errors of others; and he finds them of great use to confirm his judgment, to justify what is right, and to condemn what is wrong. Now mathematics are the noblest *praxis* of logic. Through them we may perceive how the stated forms of syllogism are exemplified in one subject, namely the predicament of quantity; and by marking the force of these forms, as they are there applied, we may be enabled to apply them of ourselves elsewhere. Whoever, therefore, will study mathematics with this view, will become not only by mathematics a more expert *logician*, and by logic a more rational *mathematician*, but a wiser philosopher, and an acuter reasoner, in all the possible subjects either of science or deliberation. But when mathematics, instead of being applied to this excellent purpose, are used not to exemplify logic, but to supply its place; no wonder if logic fall into contempt, and if mathematics, instead of furthering science, become in fact an obstacle. For when men, knowing nothing of that reasoning which is UNIVERSAL, come to attach themselves for years to a *single species*, a species wholly involved in *lines and numbers*, the mind becomes incapacitated for reasoning at large, and especially in the search of MORAL TRUTH. The object of mathematics is *demonstration*; and whatever in that science is not demonstration, is nothing, or at least below the sublime inquirer's regard. PROBABILITY, through its almost infinite degrees, from simple ignorance up to absolute certainty, is the *terra incognita* of the mathematician. And yet here it is that the great *business* of the human mind is carried on, in the search and discovery of all the important truths which concern us as reasonable beings. And here too it is, that all its *vigour* is exerted: for to proportion the assent to the probability accompanying every varying degree of moral evidence, requires the most enlarged and sovereign exercise of reason.

In reasonings of this kind, will any man pretend that it is of no use to be well acquainted with the various powers of the mind by which we reason? Is it of no use to resolve the various kinds of reasoning into their simple elements; and to discover, as far as we are able, the rules by which these elements are combined in judging and in reasoning? Is it of no use to mark the various fallacies in reasoning, by which even the most ingenious men have been led into error? It must surely betray great want of understanding, to think these things useless or unimportant. Now these are the things which logicians have attempted; and which they have executed—not indeed so completely as to leave no room for improvement, but in such a manner as to give very considerable aid to our reasoning powers. That the principles

they have laid down with regard to definition and division, with regard to the conversion and opposition of propositions, and the general rules of reasoning, are not without use, is sufficiently apparent from the blunders committed daily by those who disdain any acquaintance with them.

Although the art of categorical syllogism is confessedly little fitted for the discovery of unknown truth, it may yet be employed to excellent purposes, as it is perhaps the most compendious method of detecting a fallacy. A man in quest of unknown truths must generally proceed by the way of induction, from effects to causes; but he, who as a teacher is to inculcate any system upon others, begins with one or more self-evident truths, and proceeds in the way of demonstration, to the conclusion which he wishes to establish. Now every demonstration, may be resolved into a series of syllogisms, of which the conclusion of the preceding always enters into the premises of that which follows: and if the first principles be clear and evident, and every syllogism in some legitimate mode and figure, the conclusion of the whole must infallibly be admitted. But when the demonstration is thus broken into parts; if we find that the conclusion of one syllogism will not, without altering the meaning of the terms, enter legitimately into the premises of that which should

immediately follow; or, supposing it to be of the premises of a *new* syllogism, if we the conclusion resulting from the whole is obtained, is different from that of the deduction; we may, in either of these cases, rest that the author's reasoning is fallacious, or to error; and that if it carried an apparent conviction before it was thus resolved into elementary parts, it must have been owing to the inability of the mind to comprehend an *long* train of arguments. Whoever wishes to employ the syllogistic art for this purpose, he will be convinced of the truth of what we have respecting its utility, may consult the writer recommended by Locke, who, in his innumerable of his incomparable book, has set out pedantry, even in that pedantic age, the happiest application of the rules of logic, unravelling the sophistry of his Jesuitical

On the whole, then, though we acknowledge that much time was wasted by our forefathers in syllogistic wrangling, which may be termed *mechanical* part of logic, yet the art of reasoning and examining arguments is certainly a most valuable and worthy the ambition of the philosopher whose highest honour is, to be endued with wisdom.

## L O G

## L O G

\* LOGICAL. *adj.* [from *logick*.] 1. Pertaining to logic; taught in logic.—The heretick complained greatly of St Augustine, as being too full of logical subtleties. *Hooker*.—Those who in a logical dispute keep in general terms, would hide a fallacy. *Dryden*.—We ought not to value ourselves upon our ability, in giving subtle rules, and finding out logical arguments, since it would be more perfection not to want them. *Baker*. 2. Skilled in logic; furnished with logic.—A man who sets up for a judge in criticism, should have a clear and logical head. *Addison*.

\* LOGICALLY. *adv.* [from *logical*.] According to the laws of logic.—

How can her old good man  
With honour take her back again?  
From whence I logically gather

The woman cannot live with either. *Prior*.  
\* LOGICIAN. *n. s.* [*logicien*, French; *logicus*, Latin.] A teacher or professor of logic; a man versed in logic.—If a man can play the true logician, and have as well judgment as invention, he may do great matters. *Bacon*.—If we may believe our logicians, man is distinguished from all other creatures by the faculty of laughter. *Addison*.—

Each fierce logician still expelling Locke,  
Came whip and spur. *Pope's Dunciad*.  
—A logician might put a case that would serve for an exception. *Swift*.—The Arabian physicians were subtle men, and most of them logicians; accordingly they have given method, and shed subtilty upon their author. *Baker*.

(1.) LOGIE, (Gael. *Lagie*, i. e. a hollow or low place.) a parish of Fifeshire, 2½ miles long, and one broad, between Cupar and the Ferry. The climate is dry, and the soil fertile, producing

plentiful crops of all kinds. The population was 425; increase 12, since 1755. There are about 70 horses, and 2 flocks of sheep.

(2.) LOGIE, a village in the above parish in a hollow near a marsh, 3 miles from Cupar and 5 from Dundee.

(3.) LOGIE, a parish of Forfarshire, called LOGIE-MONTROSE, united with PERT, about A. D. 1610. The two are 4 miles long, from E. to W. and 3 broad; 1 on the N. and E. by the North Esk, and 1 on the S. by the South Esk. There are 14 miles from Montrose and Brechin. The soil is sharp, but salubrious; the soil various. 1850 acres were under oats, barley, pease, flax, potatoes, turnips, and hay, in 1720 in pasture, wood, and moorlands. The population, in 1791, was 999; increase, since 1703. The number of horses was 185, and black cattle 940. There are 2 bleas which employ about 50 hands; and few quarries, which produce above 16,000 shells, or 48,000 bolls of fine lime, annually are 12 mills for grain, flax, thread, and Thirlages are not wholly abolished.

(4.) LOGIE, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Perth, Stirling, and Clackmannan, 4 miles square. One half of it is a stony clay ground, producing excellent crops of wheat on the dry hilly ground, affording good pasture. The population, in 1761, was 1500; about 1750 in each county; decrease 485, since 1750. In the short period of 6 years, which is not accounted for in the *Statistical Account*, and seems very unaccountable. There are silver a

ance. The former was wrought during the  
1761—4.

) LOGIE. See LIPP, N° 1.

) LOGIE BUCHAN, a parish of Aberdeenshire,  
les long, and from 1 to 2 broad; intersect-  
y the Ythan. The soil is fertile in general,  
(what is singular) is most barren on the banks  
e river through its whole course. Oats and  
y are almost the only produce. The popu-  
4, in 1791, was 538; decrease 37 since 1755.  
97, there was a still farther decrease of 29;  
66.

) LOGIE COLDSTONE, a parish of Aberdeen-  
6 miles long from N. to S. 3½ broad, and  
om Aberdeen; surrounded by a large ridge  
ls. It consists of the united parishes of *Lo-  
nd Coldstone*. The climate is cold but salu-  
s; the soil various; oats, barley, and pota-  
are the chief produce. The population, in  
was 1182; the decrease 61, since 1755. The  
abounds with game, and there are several  
ical temples.

) LOGIE EASTER. See LOGGIE.

) LOGIE MONTROSE. See N° 3.

) LOGIERAIT, [*Gael.* from *Logan*, a hollow,  
*ait*, the ending of differences;] a parish of  
shire, lying mostly between the Tay and the  
mel, in the form of an irregular triangle, a-  
7 miles long. But one detached part of it  
ds a mile S. of the Tay; and another lies in  
och, 30 miles distant. The prospect it af-  
is grand beyond description. About 2700  
are arable, and produce oats, barley, pease,  
ses, and flax. The population, in 1791, was  
decrease 287 since 1755. A shock of an  
quake was felt about 1763.

) LOGIERAIT, a village in the above parish,  
ling 200 souls, in 1791; 7 miles N. of Dan-

GINOV, a town of Russia, in Tobolsk.

GISMUS, in rhetoric, an inconclusive kind  
ment. *Ash.*

GISTÆ, certain officers at Athens, in num-  
s, whose business consisted in receiving and  
g the accounts of magistrates when they  
out of office. The *logistæ* were elected by  
ad had ten *antibyni* or auditors of accounts  
them.

GISTIC, or } *adj.* Belonging to computa-  
GISTICAL, } tion; logarithmic; sexagesi-  
*Ash. Bailey.*

LOG. See LOG; § 4.

LOGMAN. *n. f.* [*log* and *man*.] One whose  
is to carry logs—

For your sake

I this patient *logman*? *Shak.*  
GOGRAPHER, *n. f.* [from *λογος*, Greek, a  
and *γράφω*, I write.] A lawyer's clerk; a  
of books of accounts. *Bailey.*

GOGRAPHIC, *adj.* Belonging to the writ-  
printing of words. See next article.

GOGRAPHY, *n. f.* a method of printing,  
hs the types, instead of answering only to  
atters, are made to correspond to *whole*  
This method, though seemingly a retro-  
gression in the art of printing, obtained  
sion of his Majesty's patent, and for some  
was actually put in execution in the way of

trade. In 1783, a treatise was published upon  
this subject, by Henry Johnson, in which the ori-  
gin and utility of the art are fully laid down. In  
this work Mr Johnson informs us, that in 1778,  
intending to publish a daily list of blanks and  
prizes in the lottery numerically arranged, he  
found it could not be accomplished in time by the  
ordinary way of printing. On this account he pro-  
cured types of 2, 3, or more figures as was neces-  
sary for his purpose; and thus any entire num-  
ber might as readily be taken up as if it had been  
a single type. His next attempt was to form some  
large mercantile tables of pounds, shillings, pence,  
and farthings. For these he procured types ex-  
pressive of any sum of money ready composed and  
united, "by which (says he) every species of fi-  
gure-printing could be performed for the 10th  
part of the cost, printers always charging it double  
the price of letter printing." Having thus suc-  
ceeded to his wish in his two first attempts, he  
next began to consider if the method could not  
be applied to words; and in this also the success  
was equal. "The properties of the logographic  
art (he says) are, 1. That the compositor shall  
have less charged upon his memory than in the  
common way. 2. It is much less liable to error.  
3. The type of each word is as easily laid hold of  
as that of a single letter. 4. The decomposition  
is much more readily performed, even by the  
merest novices than they now decompose letters.  
5. No extraordinary expence nor greater number  
of types is required in the logographic than in the  
common method of printing." But however plau-  
sible the logographic art may appear in theory,  
the practice seems not to have answered expecta-  
tion, else it would certainly have come into ge-  
neral use before this time: instead of which, after  
having excited much curiosity, it has been aban-  
doned even by its original inventors and patrons.  
An invention somewhat similar by Mr Ged, jeweler  
in Edinburgh, of 'printing by types cut on  
*quobale pages* met with a similar fate above 50 years  
ago. See GED.

\* LOGOMACHY. *n. f.* [*λογμαχία*.] A conten-  
tion in words; a contention about words.—For-  
ced terms of art did much puzzle sacred theology  
with distinctions, cavils, quiddities; and so trans-  
formed her to a meer kind of sophistry and *logo-  
machy*. *Howell.*

LOGOWOGOROD, a town of Poland, in  
Volhymia, on the W. bank of the Dnieper; 25  
miles NW. of Kiow. Lon. 35. 7. Lat. 50. 46. N.

LOGRONNO, or } a town of Spain, in Old  
LOGRONO, } Castile, on the Ebro, con-  
taining about 5000 people; 52 miles E. of Bur-  
gos, and 115 N. by E. of Madrid. Lon. 2. 20. W.  
Lat. 42. 29. N.

LOGSTOR, a town of N. Jutland.  
LOGSTOWN, a town of Pennsylvania, on  
the Allegany, 18 miles NW. of Pittsburg.

LOGUIRY, a town of France, in the dep. of  
the North Coasts; 12 miles S. of Lannion.

(1.) \* LOGWOOD. *n. f.* *Logwood* is of a ve-  
ry dense and firm texture; is the heart only of  
the tree which produces it. It is very heavy,  
and remarkably hard, and of a deep, strong, red  
colour. It grows both in the East and West In-  
dies, but no where so plentifully as on the coast

of the bay of Campeachy. *Hill*.—To make a light purple, mingle ceruse with *logwood* water. *Peachment*.

(2.) **LOGWOOD**. See *ΗΑΜΑΤΟΧΥΛΟΝ*. Logwood is used in great quantities for dyeing purple, but especially black colours. All the colours, however, which can be prepared from it are of a fading nature, and cannot by any art be made equally durable with those prepared from some other materials. Of all the colours prepared from logwood, the black is the most durable. Dr Lewis recommends it as an ingredient in making ink. "In dyeing cloth (says he), vitriol and galls, in whatever proportions they are used, produce only browns of different shades: I have often been surpris'd that with these capital materials of the black dye I could never obtain any true blackness in white cloth, and attributed the failure to some unheeded mismanagement in the process, till I found it to be a known fact among the dyers. Logwood is the material which adds blackness to the vitriol and gall-brown; and this black dye, though not of the most durable kind, is the most common. On blue cloth a good black may be dyed by vitriol and galls alone; but even here, an addition of logwood contributes not a little to improve the colour." See *COLOUR-MAKING, Index; DYEING, Part III. Sec. I. and VII.*; and *INK, § 5, 6*. Logwood is also found to have a considerable astringent virtue as a medicine, and an extract of it is sometimes given with great success in diarrhoeas.

**LOHE**, a town of Austria, 12 m. SW. of Crems.

**LOHEIA**, a town of Arabia, in Yemen, on the coast of the Red Sea, 375 miles SW. of Mecca. It has a great trade in Coffee. Lon. 42. 49. E. Lat. 15. 42. N.

**LOHHENSTEIN**, Daniel Gaspar DE, a learned German nobleman, born at Breslaw in 1635. He is esteemed the first regular dramatic poet of Germany. He died in 1683.

(1.) **LOHN**, or **LAHN**. See **LAHN**, N° 2.

(2.) **LOHN**. See **ISERLOHN**.

**LOHNSTEIN**, or **LAHNSTEIN**, a town of Germany, in the electorate of Mentz, at the conflux of the Rhine and the Lahn; 4 miles E. of Coblenz, and 10 W. of Nassau.

\* **LOHOCK**. *n. f.* *Lobock* is an Arabian name for those forms of medicines which are now commonly called Eclemmas, lambatives, or linctuses. *Quincy*.—*Lobocks* and pectorals were prescribed, and venesection repeated. *Wijeman*.

(2.) *А ЛОХОК*, or **LOCH**, in pharmacy, is a composition of a middle consistence between a soft electuary and a syrup, principally used in disorders of the lungs.

**LOHR**, a town of Franconia, in Rieneck.

**LOJANO**, a small post town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Reno, and district (late province) of Bologna.

**LOJBERSTORFF**, two towns of Germany, in Austria: 1. 14 miles S. of Vienna: 2. 10 miles SW. of St Polten.

**LOIBI**, a range of mountains in Germany; dividing Carinthia and Carniola, 12 miles S. of Clagenfurt.

**LOIGH**, a river of Scotland, in Ross-shire, which runs into Loch-Long.

**LOIGNON**, a river of France, which to the Loire; 24 miles below Puy.

(1.) **LOIN**, a river of France, which the Seine, a little below Moret.

(2.) \* **LOIN**. *n. f.* [*llwyn*, Welsh.] 1. of an animal carved out by the butcher. the reins.—

My face I'll grime with filth  
Blanket my *loins*.

Thou slander of thy heavy mother  
Thou loathed issue of thy father's *loi*  
Virgin mother, hail!

High in the love of Heav'n! yet from  
Thou shalt proceed, and from thy wot  
Of God most high. *Milton's*

A multitude! like which the popu  
Pour'd never from her frozen *loins*.

(3.) **LOINS**, in anatomy, (§ 1, *def. 2.*) lateral parts of the umbilical region of the **LOIPERSTORFF**, a town of Aust

Rufbach, 6 miles ENE. of Entzerstorff  
(1.) **LOIR**, a river of France, which 6 miles NNW. of Illiers, passes by Bon

teaudun, Freteval, Vendosme, Chartre &c. and falls into the Sarthe above Ang

(2.) **LOIR AND CHER**, a department of republic, (so named from these two riv across it,) containing the ci-devant p Blaisois. It is about 66 miles long, as to 30 broad; being bounded on the dep. of Eure and Loire; on the NE. the Loiret; on the E. and SE. by that o on the S. by that of Indre; and on thofe of the Indre and Loire, and the S is the capital.

(1.) **LOIRE**, the largest river in France rises in Mount Gerbier, one of the C about 18 miles NNW. of Abenas, in t Ardeche; passes by Puy, St Rambert Marcigny, Nevers, Orleans, Blois, Bochefort, Chalonne, Nantes, &c. an the Bay of Biscay, 50 miles W. of N running a course of 500 miles.

(2.) **LOIRE, LOWER**, a department comprehending part of the ci-devant **BRETAGNE**, 55 m. long, and from 30 t It is bounded on the NW. by the o Morbihan; N. by that of Ille and Vil that of Maine and Loire; S. by that of t and W. by the Atlantic. Nantes is th

(3.) **LOIRE, UPPER**, a department containing the ci-devant prov. of **VELL long from E. to W. and 35 broad. It on the N. by the dep. of Puy de Don that of Rhone and Loire; SE. by that o SW. by that of Lozeze, and W. by the Puy is the capital.**

(1.) **LOIRET**, a river of France, into the Loire, 3 miles below Orleans

(2.) **LOIRET**, a department of France, containing the ci-devant province of Orleans long from E. to W. and 45 broad. It on the E. by the dep. of the Yonne; o thofe of the Nièvre, the Cher, and t Cher; W. by that of the Loir and Ch by thofe of the Eure and Loire, Sen and Seine and Marne. Orleans is the

LN, a town of France, in the dept. of miles W. of Laval, and 12 N. of Craon.

LOSEY, a town of France, in the dep. of e, 5 miles E. of Bar le Duc.

LOISEY, or } a town of France, in the dep. of }  
 } the Marne, 3 m. NW. of Vity.

LOITER. *v. n.* [*loiteren*, Dutch.] To linger; to loiter carelessly; to idle.—Sir John, here too long. *Shak.*—

Whence this long delay?  
*iter*, while the spoils are thrown away.

*Dryden.*  
 how he spends his time, whether he unloiters it away. *Locke.*—If we have gone et us redeem the mistake; if we have let us quicken our pace, and make the he present opportunity. *Rogers.*

LOITERER. *n. f.* [from *loiter*.] A lingerer; a lazy wretch; one who lives without one who is sluggish and dilatory.—

gloves to thy reapers a largess to cry, ally to loiterers have a good eye. *Tusser.* oor, by idleness or unthriftiness, are rioters, vagabonds, and loiterers. *Hayward.* ere hast thou been, thou loiterer? *Otway.* ence would only enter mankind into the owledge of her treasures, leaving the rest y our industry, that we live not like idle and truants. *More.*—

r listless loit'ners, that attend  
 ise, no trust, no duty, and no friend. *Rope.*

Z, a town of Saxony, in Pomerania.

ZENDORF, a town of Austria.

LCZ, a town of Poland, in Volhynia.

LO, in mythology, a deity of the northern answering to the ARIMANES among the whom they represent as at enmity both ls and men, and the author of all the evils solate the universe. Loke is described in as producing the great serpent which the world; which seems to have been ins an emblem of corruption or sin: he also h to Hela or death, the queen of the inferns; and to the wolf Fenris, that monster encounter the gods and destroy the world.

LOMAN, surnamed the Wise, an eminent her among the Easterns. The Arabians as the son of Baura, the son or grand- sifter of Job. He was an Ethiopian, ve for some time. It is said that he was the time of David, and lived till the age ophet Jonas, a period of about 240 years. ppose him to have been the same with e mythologist: and indeed his *Parables gues* in Arabic, as well as many particu- is life, resemble the fables and fortune of He is said, like Æsop, to have been de- n his person. Some of his pieces are ex- d he was looked upon as so excellent a that Mahomet entitled a chapter of the ter his name, in which he introduces God s, "We heretofore bestowed wisdom on ." He got his liberty on account of his e in eating the whole of a bitter melon, after's command. His master, surprised, ow it was possible for him to eat such a s fruit? He answered, "I have received favours from you, that it is no wonder I

should once in my life eat a bitter melon from your hand." M. Callaud translated all the fables of Lokman, and Bidpai or Pilpay, a braimin philosopher, which were published at Paris in 1724.

LOLIUM, DARNELL GRASS, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, belonging to the triandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 4th order, *Gramina*. The calyx is monophyllous, fixed, and uniflorous.

1. *LOLIUM PERENNE*, red darnel, or rye-grass, is very common in roads and dry pastures, and makes excellent hay upon dry, chalky, or sandy soils. It is advantageously cultivated along with clover, and springs earlier than other grasses; thereby supplying food for cattle at a time when it is most difficult to be obtained. Cows, horses, and sheep eat it; goats are not fond of it.

2. *LOLIUM TEMULENTUM*, or white darnel, grows spontaneously in plowed fields. If the seeds of this species are malted with barley, the ale soon occasions drunkenness; mixed with bread corn, they produce but little effect unless the bread is eaten hot.

(1.) \* *To LOLL. v. n.* [Of this word the etymology is not known. Perhaps it might be contemptuously derived from *lollard*, a name of great reproach before the reformation; of whom one tenet was, that all trades not necessary to life are unlawful.] 1. To lean idly; to rest lazily against any thing.—So hangs, and lolls, and weeps upon me. *Shak. Otello.*—

He is not lolling on a lewd love bed,

But on his knees at meditation. *Shak. Rich. III.*

Clofe by a softly murmur'ing stream,

Where lovers us'd to loll and dream. *Hudibras.*

To loll on couches, rich with cytron steds,

And lay your guilty limbs in Tyrian beds. *Dryd.*

Void of care he lolls supine in state. *Dryd.*

But wanton now, and lolling at our ease,

We suffer all th' invet'rate ills of peace. *Dryd.*

A lazy, lolling sort

Of ever listless loit'ners. *Dunciad.*

2. To hang out. Used of the tongue hanging out in weariness or play.—

The triple porter of the Stygian seat,

With lolling tongue lay fawning at thy feet. *Dryd.*

With harmless play amidst the bowls he pass'd,

And with his lolling tongue assay'd the taste. *Dryd.*

(2.) \* *To LOLL. v. a.* To put out: used of the tongue exerted.—

Hadst thou but, Janus-like, a face behind,

To see the people, when splay mouths they make,

To mark their fingers pointed at thy back,

Their tongues loll'd out a foot. *Dryd. Persus.*

Trees bent their heads to hear him sing his wrongs,

Fierce tygers couch'd around, and loll'd their fawning tongues. *Dryden.*

LOLLARD, Walter, founder of the sect of the LOLLARDS, is said to have been an Englishman. He first broached his doctrines, (which, in many points, have been since adopted by most protestants,) in Germany, about A. D. 1315. After preaching with great zeal, and gaining many profelytes on the continent, he returned to England, where his disciples were first called *Lollards*. He and his followers rejected the sacrifice of the mass, extreme unction, and penances for sin; insisting that

that Christ's sufferings were sufficient. He is likewise said to have set aside baptism as a thing of no effect; and repentance, as not absolutely necessary. But in that age, none who had the courage to oppose the errors of the church of Rome, escaped slander or persecution. Lollard sealed his testimony with his blood, being burnt alive at Cologne in 1322.

**LOLLARDS**, in ecclesiastical history, a religious sect, which arose in Germany about the beginning of the 14th century; so called from **W. LOLLARD**, their founder. See the last article. Some derive the name from *LOLIUM* a tare, as if the Lollards were *tares* in God's vineyard: Others derive *lollard*, *lullbard*, *lolbert*, or *lullert*, from the old German word *lullen*, *lullen*, or *lallen*, "to sing with a low voice;" and say Lollard means a singer, or one who is continually praising God with a song. The *Alexians* or *CELLITES* were called *Lollards*, because they were public singers who interred those who died of the plague, and sang a dirge in a mournful tone as they carried them to the grave. The name was afterwards assumed by persons who dishonoured it; for we find, among those Lollards who made extraordinary pretences to piety, and spent their time in meditation and prayer, there were many abominable hypocrites, who entertained the most ridiculous opinions, and concealed the most enormous vices under this specious disguise. And many injurious aspersions were propagated against those who assumed this name by the priests and monks; so that, by degrees, any person who covered heresies or crimes under the appearance of piety, was called a *Lollard*. Thus the name was formerly common to all persons and sects, who were supposed to be guilty of impiety against God or the church, under profession of extraordinary piety. However, many societies of *Lollards*, of both sexes, were formed in most parts of Germany and Flanders, and were supported partly by their manual labours, and partly by charitable donations. The magistrates and inhabitants of the towns, where they resided, favoured and protected them on account of their usefulness to the sick. They were thus supported against their malignant rivals, and obtained many papal constitutions by which their institute was confirmed, their persons exempted from the cognifance of the inquisitors, and subjected entirely to the jurisdiction of the bishops; but as these measures were insufficient to secure them from molestation, Charles D. of Burgundy, in 1472, obtained a solemn bull from Pope Sixtus IV. ordering that the Cellites or Lollards should be ranked among the religious orders, and delivered from the jurisdiction of the bishops; and Pope Julius II. granted them yet greater privileges in 1506. Mosheim says there are still many societies of this kind at Cologne, and the cities of Flanders, though they have departed from their ancient rules. In England, the followers of Wickliffe were called, by way of reproach, *Lollards*, from some affinity between their tenets. They were solemnly condemned by the Abp. of Canterbury, and the council of Oxford.

**LOLLARDY**, *n. f.* the doctrine of the Lollards. See the two last articles.

**LOLLONADO**, a town in the isle of

(1.) **LOM**, Josiu, or Joshua VAN, a physician, born at Bueren in 1500. He published several works on medicine, in elegant which were collected and printed at Am in 3 vols 12mo. He died in 1562.

(2.) **LOM**, a river of Turkey in Europe, into the Danube, near Lomgrad.

**LOMAZY**, a town of Lithuania, in E

**LOMAZZO**, John Paul, an ingenious born at Milan, in 1558. He excelled in landscapes and portraits. He also wrote Treatise on painting, in Italian; 1585, *Idea del Tempio della Pittura*; 1590, and died in 1598.

(1.) **LOMBARD**, Lambert, an eminent, born at Liege in 1500; who after a study of the antique at Rome, introduced style of painting among his countrymen in the Gothic. He painted history, arch and perspective; and though he could together free himself from his national ranked among the best painters of his time died in 1560.

(2.) **LOMBARD**, Peter, well known by of *Master of the Sentences*, was born at Lombardy; but being bred at Paris, he distinguished himself so much at that university, that he was first appointed canon of Chartres; afterwards tutor to Philip, son of Lewis VI. and last of Paris. He died in 1062. His works on Sentences is looked on as the source of the lastic theology of the Latin church. He also Commentaries on the Psalms, and Paul's Epistles.

(3.) **LOMBARD**, or **LOMBART**, Peter, graver of considerable eminence, who flourished about 1660. He was a native of Paris, and learned the art. He came into England during the revolution. He executed a vast number of plates, chiefly for books; but his best works are his portraits, mostly after Vandyck.—He also engraved historical subjects, from Poussin, Annibal Caracci, Guido, &c.

**LOMBARDA**, a town of the Italian Republic, in the dep. of the Lower Po, and district of the duchy of Ferrara.

(1.) **LOMBARDS**, a nation of Scandinavia, who formerly settled in Italy, and for some time made a considerable figure. The name *Lombards*, or *Longobards*, is derived from Paulinus, who was himself a Lombard, from the *length* of their *beards*. A nation of *Lombards*, is mentioned by Tacitus, Strabo, and Ptolemy; but these are different from the Lombards who afterwards settled in Italy, and are reckoned to be the same with the *GERPIDI*, the Italian Lombards almost exterminated. The Lombards who settled in Italy are first mentioned by Prosper Aquitanus, Bp. of Rhegium, who tells us, that about this time the Lombards, abandoning the most distant coasts of the sea, and their native country Scandinavia, and for new settlements, as they were overpowered with people at home, first attacked and overcame the Vandals in Germany. They were then divided by two chiefs, Iboreus and Aion; who, about A. D. 389, were succeeded by Agilulf.

(2.) **LOM**



(2.) **LOMBARDS, CHARACTER, GOVERNMENT AND MANNERS OF THE.** The Lombards were at first a cruel and barbarous nation; but their native fierceness gradually wore off, especially after they had embraced the Christian religion; and they governed with such equity and moderation, that almost all other nations envied the happiness of one who lived under them. Under the government of the Lombards (says Paulus Diaconus) no violence was committed, no one unjustly disposed of his property, none oppressed with taxes; theft, robberies, murder, and adultery, were seldom heard of: every one went, without apprehension, wherever he pleased. Their laws were just and equitable, that they were retained in Italy, and observed there some ages after their kingdom was at an end. Their dress was loose, and for the most part of linen, such as the Anglo-Saxons wore, being interwoven with various colours; their shoes were open to the end of their feet, and they used to button or lace them. From some ancient paintings, it appears, that they shaved the back part of their heads, but that their hair was long before; their locks being parted and laid on each side their foreheads.

(3.) **LOMBARDS, HISTORY OF THE.** Agilmond is commonly reckoned the first king of the Lombards. Before the time of ODOACER, the history of the Lombards affords nothing remarkable; in time, however, they settled on the Danube, in the country of the Rugians, whom Odoacer had exterminated or carried into captivity. During their stay in this country, they rendered themselves formidable to the neighbouring nations, and succeeded in successful wars with the Heruli and Gepidæ. In 526, they were allowed by the emperor Justinian to settle in Pannonia; and here they made war a second time with the Gepidæ. Alboinus, the Lombard king, killed the king of the Gepidæ with his own hand, put his army to rout, and cut such numbers of them in pieces, that they ceased from that time to be a nation. Alboinus caused the deceased king's head to be cut off, he made a cup of his skull, which he used in all his public entertainments. However, having taken among many other captives of great distinction, Rosamunda, the late king's daughter, he married her after the death of his former wife Clodivinta, the daughter of Clotaire king of France. By this marriage Alboinus gained such reputation, that his friendship was courted by Justinian; and, in consequence of the emperor's application, 6000 Lombards were sent to the assistance of Narfes against the Goths. The success of the Romans in this expedition, the invasion of Italy by the Lombards, and their successes, have been related under ITALY, § 13, 14. At last Alboinus having made himself master of Venetia, Liguria, Æmilia, Hetruria, and Umbria, was murdered in the year 575, the 4th year of his reign, by the treachery of his wife; whom he had irritated to the most implacable vengeance, by ordering her, one day at a feast at Verona, to sit at a table with her father, presenting her with a cup above mentioned. This she accomplished by the assistance of Helmichild the king's old bearer; who at first peremptorily refused to engage in the treason; but Rosamund having,

by placing herself in his mistress's bed, drawn him into an adulterous connection with herself, told him he must now either kill Alboinus, or be himself put to death; promising at the same time to marry him, if he accomplished it, and bestow on him the kingdom. This last part of her promise, however, she did not get fulfilled, as they were obliged to save themselves by flight. They fled to LONGINUS the exarch of Ravenna, taking with them all the jewels and treasure of the late king. Longinus received her with the greatest kindness, assured her of his protection; and judging this a favourable opportunity of making himself king of Italy, proposed to marry her, provided she dispatched Helmichild. Rosamund, pleased with the proposal, resolved to satisfy her ambition by getting rid of the man she had married to gratify her revenge. Accordingly, having prepared a strong poison, she mixed it with wine, and gave it to her husband as he came out of the bath; but he had not half emptied the cup, when, from its sudden effects, he concluded what it was, and compelled her to drink the rest. They both died in a few hours. Longinus, on her death, laid aside thoughts of making himself king of Italy, and sent the king's treasure to Constantinople, together with Alboinda, the daughter of Alboinus by Rosamund, whom she had brought along with her. After the death of Alboinus, the Lombards chose Clephis, one of the nobility for their king. He was murdered after a short reign of 18 months; upon which ensued an interregnum of 10 years. (See ITALY, § 14.) During this time, they extended their conquests in that country; but at last the Romans, jealous of their progress, resolved to put a stop to their victories, and, if possible, to drive them quite out. For this purpose, they entered into alliance with the Franks; which so alarmed the Lombards, that they re-established the monarchical form of government among themselves, and chose Autharis the son of Clephis for their king. This monarch, considering that the power of the dukes, who had governed Lombardy for 10 years, was very much established, allowed them to continue in their government; but obliged them to contribute a moiety of their revenues towards the support of his royal dignity; and took an oath, that, in the time of war, they would assist him to the utmost of their power. Having thus settled matters with the dukes, he enacted several wholesome laws against theft, rapine, murder, adultery, &c. and was the first Lombard king who embraced Christianity. Most of his subjects followed his example, but being instructed by Arian bishops, disputes continued long between them and the orthodox bishops of the cities subject to them. From the re-establishment of the monarchy under Autharis, to the reign of Rotharis in 636, the history of the Lombards affords nothing memorable. This period is remarkable for the introduction of written laws among these people. Before this time they had been governed only by tradition; but Rotharis, in imitation of the Romans and Goths, undertook the publishing of written laws; and to those which he enacted, many were added by succeeding princes. These laws were enacted in public assemblies,

convened.

propose, after they had been ex-  
 A of by all the lords of the  
 power being lodged in  
 ic. Rotharis also carried  
 the exarch of Ravenna,  
 med in several engagements,  
 ber of part of his territories,  
 the affairs of the Lombards  
 ly, till the ambition of Luit-  
 foundation of the total ruin of his  
 ascended the throne in 711, and  
 opportunities of enlarging his domi-  
 exence of the emperors. In 725, the  
 III. having forbidden the worship of  
 d orde hem to be pulled down, the  
 (ICONOCLASTÆ.) And ha-  
 his officers in the west, espe-  
 of Ravenna, to see his edict punc-  
 yed, Scholasticus, then exarch, began  
 the images in Ravenna; which in-  
 stitutions multitude to such a de-  
 ing arms, they openly declared  
 renounce their allegiance to the  
 the worship of images. Luitprand  
 opportunity of making himself master  
 of the exarch; having drawn together  
 forces, he unexpectedly appeared be-  
 a, and closely besieged it. But the exarch  
 d the place with such courage, that Luit-  
 woke up the siege and led his army against  
 which he took, plundered, and levelled  
 ground. The severe treatment the inha-  
 bet with threw the citizens of Ravenna  
 utmost consternation; which Luitprand  
 to take advantage of, and, returning be-  
 fore Ravenna with his whole army, by frequent  
 attacks tired the inhabitants and garrison to such  
 a degree, that the exarch, despairing of relief,  
 privately withdrew. Luitprand, having carried  
 the town by storm, gave it up to be plundered by  
 his soldiers, who found in it an immense booty,  
 as it had been long the seat of the emperors, the  
 Gothic kings, and the exarchs. The reduction of  
 Ravenna was followed by the surrender of several  
 cities of the exarchate, which Luitprand reduced  
 to a dukedom; appointing Hildebrand his grand-  
 son to govern it with the title of duke; and as he  
 was yet an infant, appointing Peredeus D. of Vicen-  
 za for his guardian. The conquest of the greater  
 part of the exarchate alarmed Gregory II. tho' he  
 was then at variance with the emperor, whose edict  
 against the worshipping of images he had opposed.  
 But, jealous of the power of the Lombards, he  
 exerted his influence with Ursus, doge of Venice,  
 who resolved to assist the exarch with the whole  
 force of the republic. The exarch accordingly  
 laid siege to Ravenna by land, while they invested  
 it almost at the same instant by sea. Peredeus de-  
 fended the town for some time with great courage  
 and resolution; but the Venetians having forced  
 open one of the gates, the city was taken, and  
 Peredeus slain, while attempting to drive the  
 enemy from the posts they had seized. Hilde-  
 brand fell into the hands of the Venetians; who,  
 having thus recovered Ravenna to the emperor,  
 returned home, leaving the exarch in possession  
 of the city. Luitprand was then at Pavia; but  
 the town was taken before he was able to assem-

ble his troops for its relief. Gregory persuading  
 himself, that the emperor would now, out of  
 gratitude for the recovery of Ravenna, give ear  
 to his admonitions, began to solicit him with the  
 most pressing letters to revoke his edict against  
 the worship of images: but Leo, instead of com-  
 plying, sent 3 officers to Rome, with private or-  
 ders either to assassinate the Pope, or send him  
 prisoner to Constantinople: and in 725, he recalled  
 Scholasticus, and sent Paul a patrician into Italy,  
 to govern in his room, with private instructions  
 to encourage the above-mentioned officers. But  
 in the mean time, the plot was discovered, and  
 two of the conspirators were apprehended by the  
 citizens of Rome, and put to death; the third  
 having escaped. Hereupon the exarch drew to-  
 gether a considerable body of troops, and set out  
 on his march to Rome, with a design to seize the  
 pope, and send him in chains to Constantinople.  
 But, the politic Luitprand now leagued with Gre-  
 gory against the exarch; in order to preserve the  
 balance of power between them, and by assisting  
 sometimes the one and sometimes the other, weak-  
 en both. The consequence of this coalition was,  
 that the superstition of the people being awak-  
 ed almost the whole of Italy revolted from the  
 emperor. Mean time, the exarch Paul, having  
 gained a considerable party in Ravenna, began to  
 remove the images out of the churches. Here-  
 upon the adverse party, encouraged by the pope,  
 flew to arms; and falling upon the ICONOCLASTÆ,  
 gave rise to a civil war within the walls of Ra-  
 venna. Great numbers were killed on both sides,  
 but the worshippers of images prevailing, a dread-  
 ful slaughter was made of the opposite party, and  
 the exarch himself was murdered. However, Ra-  
 venna continued faithful to the emperor; but  
 most of the cities of Romagna belonging to the  
 exarchate, and all those of Pentapolis, abhorring  
 the emperor as a heretic, submitted to Luitprand.  
 In Naples, Exhilaratus, the duke, having received  
 orders from Leo, to execute his edict, endeavoured  
 to persuade the people to receive it; but failing  
 in all his endeavours thwarted by the pope, to  
 whom the Neapolitans had a great veneration,  
 hired assassins to murder him. But the plot be-  
 ing discovered, the Neapolitans murdered both  
 the duke and his son, with one of his chief of-  
 ficers. They still, however, continued steadfast  
 their allegiance to Leo, who sent one Peter to  
 govern them in the room of Exhilaratus. In the  
 mean time, Leo, not doubting but the pope was  
 the chief author of so much mischief, sent the  
 much Eutychius into Italy, with the title and au-  
 thority of *exarch*, strictly enjoining him to get the  
 pope dispatched, as his death was absolutely ne-  
 cessary for the tranquillity of Italy. But a mes-  
 senger, whom the exarch had sent to Rome, be-  
 ing apprehended, and the emperor's order being  
 found upon him, the pope's friends thenceforth  
 guarded him with such care, that the exarch's as-  
 sassins could never afterwards find an opportunity.  
 The Romans were for putting the messenger to  
 death; but the pope interposed, contenting him-  
 self with excommunicating the exarch. And as  
 the Romans, provoked more than ever against  
 Leo, resolved to revolt and appoint their own ju-  
 gistrates, keeping themselves united under the  
 pope

not yet as their prince, but only as their Luitprand, having brought with him from the rebellion in Ravenna, and severely punished the authors. But he found he could never be so long as they were supported by the bards; and therefore he employed all his policy to take off Luitprand from the Romans, and bring him over to his side; but Thrasimund duke of Spoleto refused this juncture, the exarch offered to assist against the rebellious duke, provided he would assist him against the pope and the Romans. His proposal Luitprand readily closed; and the armies joined, and began their march towards Spoleto. At their approach, the duke, desirous of being able to resist two such powers, offered pardon; which Luitprand not only granted, but confirmed him in the dukedom, after he had made him take a new oath of allegiance, and hostages for his future fidelity. From the two armies marched to Rome; and encamped in the meadows of Nero, between the city and the Vatican. Gregory had caused the city to be fortified, but being sensible that the Romans could not long hold out against two such armies, he went to the king in his camp; and with a pathetic speech, softened Luitprand to such a degree, that, throwing himself at the feet of the king in the presence of the army, he begged pardon, and entering into an alliance against him; he made him to the church of St Peter; and his girdle, sword, gantlet, royal mantle, and gold, and crosses of silver, on the apostle's tomb. After this, he reconciled the pope and the exarch, who was thereupon received into the city, where he continued for some time, in correspondence with the pope. At this time an impostor, taking the name of *Tiberius*, pretending to be descended from the emperor, persuaded many people in Tuscany, and was proclaimed emperor. Gregory, wishing to see Leo, persuaded the Romans to attend him in his expedition against this usurper, and they soon took in a castle, sent his head to Rome, and suppressed the rebellion. But insisting upon his edict against the images received in Rome, the Romans, at the instigation of the pope, publicly renounced their obedience to him, paid him no more tribute, and withdrew their obedience to the Eastern emperor. On this Leo caused all the patrimoniae church in Sicily, Calabria, and his dominions, to be confiscated; and raised an army to recover the towns that had rebelled against Gregory, alarmed at these warlike preparations, resolved to recur to the protection of the Romans, the only nation then capable of coping with him; and on whom, on account of his piety for religion, he thought he might depend. They were at this time governed by the king Charles Martel, who was reckoned the hero of his age. To him, therefore, Gregory sent a solemn embassy, with a great number of bishops earnestly intreating him to take the Roman church, under his protection, and to assist against the attempts of Leo. The king complied. The

ambassadors were received with extraordinary marks of honour; and a treaty was soon concluded between them and Charles. But Gregory did not long enjoy the fruit of this negotiation; for he died the same year, 731, and was succeeded by Gregory III. The French nation, by the bravery and conduct of Charles Martel, had now become the most powerful kingdom in the west. His successor Pepin was no less wise and powerful than his father; and as the ambition of the Lombard princes would be satisfied with nothing less than the entire conquest of Italy, the French monarch, Charlemagne, under colour of assisting the pope, at last put an end to the empire of Lombardy, as related under the article FRANCE, § 13.

**LOMBARDY**, a country of Europe, in the N. of Italy, which comprehends almost the whole of the ancient *GALLIA CISALPINA*, and in the 6th century, formed the kingdom of the **LOMBARDS**. After the overthrow of that kingdom, it was divided into **UPPER** and **LOWER LOMBARDY**, and was subdivided among different states and princes; as the house of Austria, the republic of Venice, the K. of Sardinia, &c. and is now divided between the French and Italian republics, and Maritime Austria.

1. **LOMBARDY, LOWER**, the eastern part, comprehended the late duchies of Parma, Modena, Mantua, Bologna, Ferrara, Padua, Vicenza, Verona, Brescia, Como, Crema, and Bergamo. It is now mostly included in the Italian republic, except Padua and Vicenza, which belong to Maritime Austria.

2. **LOMBARDY, UPPER**, the western part, comprehended the late duchies of Milan, Montferrat, Piedmont, Nice, and some lesser principalities. It is now included in the French and Italian republics.

**LOMBART.** See **LOMBARD, N° 3.**

**LOMBERS**, a town of France, in the dep. of Tarn; 9 miles S. of Alby.

**LOMBES**, or } a town of France, in the dep. of  
**LOMBEZ**, } Gers, and ci-devant province of Gascony; seated on the Save; 17 miles SE. of Auch, and 27 SW. of Toulouse. Lon. 1. o. E. Lat. 43. 29. N.

**LOMBOC**, an island in the East Indian Sea.

**LOMENIE**, Henry Lewis, Count de Brienne, a French nobleman, who was secretary of state to Lewis XIV. The loss of his wife drove him melancholy; yet in this state, and under confinement, he wrote *Memoirs of his own Life*; an *Account of his Travels*; *Poems*, and other works of merit. He died in 1698.

**LOMENTACEÆ.** See **BOTANY, Index.**

**LOMGRAD**, a town of Turkey, in Bulgaria.

**LOMNITZ**, a river of Silesia.

(I.) **LOMOND, BEN.** See **BEN-LOMOND.**

(II.) **LOMOND HILLS**, several verdant hills of Scotland, in the W. part of Fifeshire, distinguished by different names; such as the *Black Hill*, *the Green Hill*, *Stony Field*, &c. The two highest are called the **EASTERN** and **WESTERN LOMONDS**. From their relative situation, more than from their magnitude, they command a very extensive and variegated prospect into many distant as well as adjacent counties, and are seen at a very great distance, by travellers in various directions.

1. LOMOND, EASTERN, the most regular and beautiful of the above hills, is said to be about 350 yards in height above the level of the plain; and where it is most accessible, seems to have been fortified near the top, with a deep trench. It lies a little W. of Falkland, and is skirted with furze, above which it exhibits a beautiful verdure at all seasons and rises into a conical summit. It slopes gradually on the E. but on the W. the descent is steep, down to the gap or valley below; which separates it from the Western Lomond, and extends above a mile nearly on a level. Very near the top, there is a small cavity about 1½ feet in diameter, which, by travellers, has been esteemed a volcanic crater. It abounds with lime-stone and has also some strata of good coal, and a lead mine, formerly wrought, and lately opened again.

2. LOMOND, WESTERN, is considerably higher than the EASTERN, and has a large cairn of loose stones on its top. From its summit, the southern aspect has little variety, but a gradual and uniform descent, till it joins the parishes of Leslie and Portmoak.

(III.) LOMOND, LOCH, a large lake of Scotland, in Lennox-shire, which Mr Pennant styles "the most beautiful of the Caledonian lakes." The view of it from Tarbat presents an extensive serpentine lake winding amidst lofty hills, on the N. barren, bleak, and rocky, which darken with their shade that contracted part of the water. About 28 islands are dispersed over the lake, well wooded; of these some just peep above the surface, and are tufted with trees; others are so disposed as to form magnificent vistas. Opposite Luss, at a small distance from shore, is a mountainous isle almost covered with wood, near half a mile long. The largest island is 2 miles long, and stocked with deer. The lake is 36 miles long; its greatest breadth is 8; its greatest depth, 125 fathoms. Its surface has for many years past been observed gradually to increase, and invade the adjacent shore; whence Mr Pennant "supposes that churches, houses, and other buildings, have been lost in the water." And from a passage in Camden's *Atlas Britannica*, it appears, that an island, existing in his time, called *Camstraddan*, in which was a house and orchard, is now lost. Large trees are also often found in the mud near the shore, overwhelmed in former times by the increase of water, occasioned by vast quantities of stone and gravel brought down by the rivers, and by the falls of their banks.

LOMONOZOF, a celebrated Russian poet, the great reformer of his native tongue, was the son of a fish-monger at Kolmogori. He was born in 1711, and was fortunately taught to read; a rare instance in a person of so low a station in Russia. His genius for poetry was first kindled by the perusal of the *Song of Solomon*, done into verse by Polotski; which inspired him with such an irresistible passion for the Muses, that he fled from his father, and took refuge in the Kaikonof-patki monastery at Moscow; where he indulged his taste for letters, and studied the Greek and Latin languages. In this seminary he made such progress in literature, as to be employed by the

Imperial Academy of Sciences. The society sent him to the university of Hesse Cassel, where he studied universal rhetoric, and philosophy, under the Christian Wolf. He continued at years, during which time he applied chemistry, which he afterwards pursued with still greater success under the famous Freyberg in Saxony. In 1741 he returned to Russia; was chosen in 1742 adjunct of the Imperial Academy; and in 1743, member of the Academy and professor of chemistry. In 1744 he was appointed inspector of the seminary, and in 1745, he was admitted to the Academy, and in 1764, Catharine the Great appointed him a counsellor of state. Lomonosoff was eminent in various kinds of composition; but his merit is derived from his poetical compositions, the finest of which are his odes. They are highly admired for originality of invention, and energy of sentiment, and energy of language. His great model, and those who were his great rivals in the Russian tongue, say, he has succeeded in imitating the Theban bard, without incurring the charge of Horace. In this, and other compositions, he enriched his native language with various kinds of metre, and is hence styled the *Father of Russian Poetry*. The titles of his principal works, which were printed in 1763, show the versatility of his genius, and his extensive knowledge. Vol. I. besides a Preface, contains several advantages derived to the Russian tongue from ecclesiastical writings, contains 10 faceted panegyric odes. The II. comprises a Translation of a Greek Idyll; *Tamira and Selim*; and *De Tragediis*; Poem on the Utility of the Cantos of an epic poem, entitled, *Peter the Great*; Heads of Lectures on Natural Philosophy; Translations in verse and prose, from which he is quoted as examples in his Rhetoric; Description of the Comet of 1744; Vol. III. consists chiefly of Speeches read before the Academy; Panegyric on Empress Elizabeth; on Peter the Great; Advantages of Chemistry; on the Phenomena of the Air occasioned by the Electrical Machine; Latin translation; on the Origin of the new Theory of Colours; Methods of determining the Course of a Vessel; on the Origin of Earthquakes; Latin Dissertation on the Nature and Fluidity of Air; with a German translation. He also wrote several of the Russian Sovereigns; and the History of Russia, from its Origin to the present time; Yaroslav I. in 1054; a work of great merit, which illustrates the most obscure period of Russian History. He died 4th April 1764.

\* LOMPRE, *n. s.* A kind of roundish stone, found in the dep. of Forêts, and elevated department of the Moselle; 12 miles E. of Givet.

LOMZA, a town of Poland, in Masovia, 12 miles S. of Warsaw. It is situated on the river Lona, which rises in Westmoreland, and running N. W. falls into the Irish Sea below Londale. Its banks are beautiful and romantic.

(1.) LONADO, or LONATO, a town

republic, in the dep. of Mellã, and distric province) of Brelcia; containing 5000 in 1797.

LOWADO, or ) a town of the Italian republic, capital of the above territory, 12 miles ESE. of Brelcia, containing 4000 in 1797. It was taken by the French Bonaparte, in the end of June 1796; and 31st July following a bloody battle was near it, between Bonaparte and Wurmsler, after a most obstinate resistance, the French were defeated, with the loss of 2000 men. Wurmsler, however, seizing a new opportunity, with 25,000 men, between the Chief and the French, risked another engagement, but was obliged to retreat over the Mincio, after losing, in the battle, 70 field pieces, 6000 men killed, and 1000 prisoners.

LOCHAUMOIS, a town of France, in the Dept. of Jura, 5 miles NNE. of St Claude.

LODE, Francis de LA, a French poet, born in Paris, in 1685. He wrote several tracts in besides his poems, which are esteemed. He died in 1765, aged 80.

LODINIÈRES, a town of France, in the Dept. of the Lower Seine, 15 miles ENE. of Dieppe.

LONDON, a large city of England, the chief and one of the most fertile and populous places in the world, is situated in Middlesex, on the Thames, 400 miles S. of Edinburgh, 270 SE. of Dublin; 180 W. of the Channel, 210 NW. of Paris, 500 SW. of Copenhagen, 600 NW. of Vienna, 790 SW. of Stockholm, 800 NE. of Madrid, 820 NW. of Rome, 1200 S. of Lisbon, 1360 NW. of Constantinople, 1400 SW. of Moscow. Lat. 51. 31. N.

LONDON, ANCIENT AND MODERN NAMES. This city was by the Romans first called *Londinium*. See Tacit. *Prot. Antonin.* That name was afterwards changed into *Londra*; but, in honour of whom, or how long the name prevailed is not known. After the conquest of the Saxons, it was called *Cæster*, *Lunden*, *Lunden Byrig*, *Lunden Cæster*, *Lunden-undenne*, *Lunden-bergh*, or *Lundenburgh*. Since the conquest the records call it *Londinia*, *Lundandine*, *Londres*; and, for several ages past, been called *London*, a modern variation of *Londinium*. The most probable derivation of these names appears to be, either from the British *lond*, a ship, and *din*, a town, i. e. a town favourable for ships; or from *Llin*, a lake, *q. d.* the town upon the lake, the Surry side supposed, upon good grounds, to have been by a great expanse of water. *Londinium*, was not the primitive name of this city, existing before the invasion of the Romans; it is now, or the *New City*; being, at the time of the Roman arrival in the island, the capital of the *Trinovantes* or *Trinouantes*. The name of this nation appears from Baxter's British Glossary, to have been derived from the 3 British words, *lond*, *ban*, which signify the *inhabitants of the land*; a name probably given them by the Romans, after it was built. At the time of the first invasion, this *New City* was so inconsiderable that it is not mentioned by Cæsar, though it must have been within sight of it. His silence

about it, indeed, is brought as a proof that he did not cross the Thames; while Norden by the *firmissima civitas* of the Trinobantes understands this city, the Trinobantes themselves having been among the first of the British states who submitted to that conqueror. By Ptolemy, and some other ancient writers, indeed, Londinium is placed in *CANTUM*, or Kent, on the S. side of the Thames, and they suppose the Romans had a station in St George's fields, between Lambeth and Southwark, where many Roman antiquities have been found. Three Roman ways from Kent, Surry, and Middlesex, intersected each other in this place; and therefore it is supposed to be the original Londinium, which it is thought became neglected after the Romans reduced the Trinobantes, and settled on the other side of the Thames; and the name was transferred to this new city.

(3.) LONDON, ANCIENT COMMERCE AND PRIVILEGES OF, UNDER THE ROMANS. The Romans possessed themselves of London, on their 2d invasion in the reign of Claudius, about 20 years after their first under Cæsar. They had taken Camalodunum, now MALDON in Essex, and planted in it a colony of veterans of the 14th legion. London and Verulam were next taken possession of. Camalodunum was made a *colonia*; or place governed entirely by Roman laws and customs; Verulam (on the site of which St Alban's now stands), a *municipium*, in which the natives enjoyed the privileges of Roman citizens, along with their own laws and constitutions; but Londinium, according to Mr Pennant and others, was only a *præfectura*, the inhabitants, a mixture of Romans and Britons, being suffered to enjoy no more than the name of *citizens of Rome*, being governed by *Præfects*, without having either their own laws or magistrates. But others observe, that the Romans, to secure their conquest, and to gain the affections of those Britons who had submitted to their authority, made London equally a *municipium* or free city with Verulamium, as may be seen in Aulus Gellius, l. 16. c. 13. and Spanhem *orbis Roman.* p. 37, 38. tom. ii. The general exports of London, at this period, according to Strabo, were, "corn, cattle, gold, silver, iron, skins, slaves, and dogs, naturally excellent hunters." The imports were salt, earthen wares, brass works, polished bone resembling ivory, horse-collars, toys of amber, glasses, &c. In the reign of Nero, Tacitus tells us, London was become famous for their great conflux of merchants, her extensive commerce, and plenty of all things. No fewer than 7 of the 14 itinera of Antoninus begin or end at London; which tends to corroborate the many other proofs, that this city was the capital of Britain in the times of the Romans.

(4.) LONDON, ANCIENT EXTENT AND WALLS OF. At first London had no walls or fortifications to defend it, and was therefore exposed to the attacks of every enemy; and thus it suffered severely about the year 64, being burnt by the Britons under Boadicea, and all the inhabitants massacred. But it was soon restored by the Romans; and increased so much, that in the reign of Severus it is called by Herodian a *great and wealthy city*. It continued, however, in a defence-

less state for more than a century after this; when at last a wall of hewn stone and British bricks was erected round it. London at this time extended in length from Ludgate-hill to a spot a little beyond the Tower. The breadth was not half equal to the length. Maitland ascribes the building of the walls to Theodosius governor of Britain in 369. Dr Woodward supposes them to have been founded under Constantine the Great; and this seems to be confirmed by the numbers of coin of his mother Helena, which have been discovered under them. He made it a bishop's see. The bishops of London and York were at the council of Arles in 314. He also settled a mint in it, as appears from his coins. The ancient wall began with a fort near the present site of the Tower, was continued along the Minories, and the back of Houndditch, across Bishopsgate-street, in a straight line by London-wall to Cripplegate; then returned S. by Crowder's Well Alley, to Aldergate; thence along the back of Bull and Mouth street to Newgate, and again along the back of the houses in the Old Bailey to Ludgate; soon after which it probably finished with another fort, where the late king's printing house, in Black Friars, now stands: hence another wall ran near the river side, along Thames street, to the fort on the E. extremity. The walls were 3 miles and 165 feet in circumference, guarded at proper distances on the land side with 15 lofty towers; some of which were remaining within these few years. Maitland mentions one 26 feet high, near Gravel-lane, on the W. side of Houndditch; another, about 80 paces SE. towards Aldgate; and the bases of another, supporting a modern house, at the lower end of Vinegar-yard, S. of Aldgate. The walls, when perfect, are supposed to have been 22 feet high, the towers 40. These remnants were evidently of Roman structure, from the tiles and disposition of the masonry. London Wall near Moorfields, is now the most entire part left of that ancient precinct. The gates, which received the great military roads, were four. The Pratorian way, the Saxon Watling street, passed under one, on the site of the late Newgate; vestiges having been discovered of the road in digging above Fleet-bridge; it turned down to Dowgate, or more properly *Duer-gate* or *Wier-gate*. The other was a *trajectus* or ferry, to join it to Watling street, which was continued to Dover. The Hermin street passed under Cripplegate; and a veinal way went under Aldgate by Bethel-street towards Oldford, a pass over the Lee to Duroleiton, the modern Leiton in Essex.

(5.) LONDON, BOUNDARIES AND LIBERTIES OF. That part of this immense capital which is distinguished by the name of *The City*, stands on the N. shore of the river, from the Tower to the Temple; occupy a narrow tract of space formerly encompassed by the wall. (See § 4.) In this wall there were five principal gates, viz. Ludgate, Aldergate, Cripplegate, Bishopsgate, and Newgate; the county gaol, which was taken down in 1777, and a massive building, erected a little S. of it, which by the rioters in 1780 (see § 14.) received damage to the amount of L.80,000.

On the side of the water there were Dowg Billingsgate, long ago demolished, as well as a postern gate near the Tower. In 1670 there was a gate erected, called *Temple-Bar*, which marks the bounds of the city westward. Liberties, or those parts of this great city, which are not subject to its jurisdiction, and lie without the walls of London, are bounded on the E. in Whitechapel, the Minories, and Bishopsgate, by the River; on the N. by the Fleet, and the Fleet-bridge, which were formerly posts and chains, the latter often arbitrarily taken away, when it was not proper to seize the franchises of the city; on the W. they are bounded in the same manner by Fleet-street, at the end of Fan-alley, and in St. Dunstons street: on the S. by the River, and in the Strand, at the end of Middle Row, and at the W. end of Fleet-street, by *Temple-Bar*; on the S. may be included the Liberties of the Thames, and over the River of Southwark.

(6.) LONDON, DIVISION OF, INTO WARDS AND PRECINCTS. The city, including the Liberties, is at present divided into 26 wards, and 120 precincts. 1. *Alder-gate ward*, so named from an old gate which stood near it, is very large, and is divided into *Alder-gate within* and *Alder-gate without*; each consisting of 4 precincts, one alderman, 8 common-council men, above 30 inferior officers, called *constable-men*, *scavengers*, and *beadles*; officers of 5 the wards have a greater or smaller number. 2. *Ald-gate*, named also from a gate of great antiquity, mentioned in king Edgar's charter, and probably of a much more ancient foundation. In the time of the wars betwixt king John and the barons, the latter entered the city through this gate, and committed great devastation; the gate was rebuilt of stone brought from Caen, and was very strong, and had a drawbridge within it. In 1606 it was again rebuilt; many Roman coins were found in digging the foundations. This ward is divided into 7 precincts, and governed by an alderman, six common-council men, and above 34 inferior officers. 3. *Bishopsgate ward* is very small, and only of two precincts, containing 142 houses, is governed by an alderman, 4 common-council men, and 24 petty officers. 4. *Billingsgate ward* is said to have derived its name from a British king named *Belinus*, an assistant of Brennus, the Gauls, at the taking of Rome, and the fish-market the *Belin-Market* mentioned in the Welsh legends; and *Lud-gate* to have been named from king *Lud*. It is divided into 12 precincts, governed by an alderman, 10 common-council men, and 32 inferior officers. The situation of this ward on the river, gives it great advantage with respect to trade; so that it is well inhabited, and is in a continual hurry of business at all times. 5. *Bishopsgate within* and *without* ward is divided into 3 precincts; the 2d is governed by an alderman, 12 common-council men, and 31 petty officers. The gate which it is named, was built by Edward I. of London in 1271; and is said to have been repaired by William I. In the time of Henry II. the Hanse merchants had certain privileges

which they rebuilt this gate elegantly in 16. *Bread-street ward* is divided into 13 fts; governed by an alderman, 12 common councilmen, and 40 inferior officers; though it has only 331 houses. It is named from the ancient market, held in *Bread-street*. 7. *Bridge-within* is divided into 14 precincts, of which 3 in *London bridge*, (whence the name,) and is governed by an alderman, 15 common councilmen and 44 inferior officers. 8. *Broad-street ward* is divided into 10 precincts; and governed by an alderman, 10 common councilmen and 32 inferior officers. It is named from that part of it *Old Broad-street*, which, before the fire of 1666, was one of the broadest streets in London. 9. *St. Dunstons ward*, *Candlewick streets*, or *Candlewick ward*, is a small ward, consisting of about 100 houses; yet is divided into 7 precincts; governed by an alderman, 8 common-councilmen, and 12 petty officers. It is named from a street, formerly inhabited chiefly by *candle-wrights* or *makers*, now called *Canon-street*. 10. *Cannon-ward* is divided into 10 precincts, under an alderman, 10 common councilmen, and 12 inferior officers. It is named from a castle on the bank of the river, by one Baynard, a knight, who was raised to great honours by William I. 11. *Cheap ward* is divided into 9 precincts, governed by an alderman, 12 common councilmen, and 34 inferior officers. The name is derived from the Saxon word *chepe*, i. e. a market, kept in this division, now called *Cheapside*, or *Westcheap*. 12. *Coleman-street ward* is divided into 6 precincts, governed by an alderman, 10 common councilmen, and 26 petty officers. 13. *Cordwainers ward* is divided into 8 precincts, governed by an alderman, 8 common councilmen, and 12 petty officers. It is named from *Cordwainers*, now *Bow-lane*, formerly occupied chiefly by *shoemakers*, or *shoemakers*. 14. *Cornhill ward* is a small ward, and is divided into 4 precincts, governed by one alderman, 6 common councilmen, and 12 petty officers. It is named from its principal street, *Cornhill*, so named from the cornmarket, very early held in it. 15. *Cripplegate ward* is divided into 13 precincts, 9 within and 4 without the wall; and is governed by an alderman, 10 common councilmen, and 66 inferior officers. 16. *Dougate ward* is divided into 8 precincts, governed by an alderman, 8 common councilmen, and 12 petty officers. It is named from the ancient water-gate, called *Dougate*, which was in the original wall along the N. side of the city, for the security of the city against invasion by water. 17. *Farringdon ward within* is divided into 18 precincts, governed by one alderman, 17 common councilmen, and 57 inferior officers. It was named after William Farringdon, a goldsmith, who, in 1279, purchased all the aldermen's lands within the city and suburbs, between *St. Dunstons* and *Newgate*, and also *without* these. 18. *Farringdon ward without*, so named from the same goldsmith, is governed by one alderman, 16 common councilmen, and 99 inferior officers. 19. *Langbourn ward* is divided into 12 precincts, and was named from a *long bourn*, or stream, which anciently flowed from a spring near

*Magpye alley*. 20. *Limestreet ward* is very small, and consists of 4 precincts, governed by an alderman, 4 common councilmen, and 22 petty officers. 21. *Portoken ward* is divided into 5 precincts, governed by an alderman, 5 common councilmen, and 30 constables, &c. Its name signifies the *franchise of liberty gate*. It was for some time a guild, and had its beginning in the reign of K. Edgar, when 13 knights requested to have a portion of land on the E. part of the city, with the liberty of a guild for ever. The king granted their request on these conditions; that each of them should victoriously accomplish three combats, one above ground, one under ground, and the 3d in the water: and after this, at a certain day, in E. Smithfield, they should run with spears against all comers. All this being performed, the king named it *Knights Guild*, and extended it from *Aldgate* to the places where the bars now are on the E. to the Thames on the S. and as far into the water as a horseman could ride at low water and throw his spear. 22. *Queen-bithew ward* is divided into 9 precincts, governed by an alderman, 6 common councilmen, and 9 constables. It is named from the *bithew*, or harbour for large boats, barges, and lighters; for which it was the anchoring place, and the key for loading and unloading vessels of almost any burden used in ancient times. It is called *Queen bithew*, because the queens of England usually possessed the tolls of vessels that unloaded goods at this bithew. 23. *Tower ward* or *Tower-street ward*, is governed by one alderman, 12 common councilmen, and 38 inferior officers. It takes its name from *Tower-street*, which leads in a direct line to the principal entrance of the Tower. 24. *Vintners ward* is a small ward, containing only 418 houses; but is divided into 9 precincts, and governed by an alderman, 9 common councilmen; and 26 petty officers. It is named from the *vintners*, or wine-merchants of Bourdeaux, who formerly dwelt in it. 25. *Wallbrook ward* is small, containing only 306 houses; but is divided into 7 precincts, governed by an alderman, 8 common councilmen, and 27 petty officers. It is thus named from the rivulet *Wallbrook*, that ran down *Wallbrook street* into the Thames near *Dowgate*; but at last was hid by bridges and buildings, that its channel became a common sewer. 26. *Bridge-ward without* includes the borough of *Southwark*, and the parishes of *Rotherhithe*, *Newington*, and *Lambeth*. It has its name from *London bridge* with the addition of *without*, because the bridge must be passed in order to come at it. See *SOUTHWARK*. *Westminster* is generally reckoned a part of London, but as it is a distinct city and under a distinct government, it will be found described in its order. See *WESTMINSTER*.

(7.) LONDON EXTENT OF. The irregular form of London makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from E. to W. is generally allowed to be above 7 miles from *Hyde-park* corner to *Poplar*; and its breadth in some places three, in others two, and in others again not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost 18 miles; or, according to a later measurement, the extent of continued buildings is 35 miles two furlongs and 39 rods.

(8.) LONDON, GOVERNMENT OF. The city and liberties of London are under a civil, an ecclesiastical, and a military government.

I. LONDON, GOVERNMENT, CIVIL, OF. The civil government of London divides it into wards and precincts, (See § 6.) under a lord mayor, aldermen, and common council. The lord mayor, is the supreme magistrate, chosen annually by the citizens, pursuant to a charter of King John. The manner of electing a lord mayor is by the liverymen of the several companies, assembled in Guildhall annually, on Michaelmas-day, (according to an act of common council in A. D. 1476;) when, the liverymen nominate two aldermen below the chair, who have served the office of sheriff, to be returned to the court of aldermen, who may choose either of the two; but the senior, so returned, is generally declared lord mayor elect. The election being over, the lord mayor elect, accompanied by the recorder and divers aldermen, is soon after presented to the lord chancellor for his approbation; on the 9th Nov. following, is sworn into office at Guildhall; and on the 10th, before the barons of exchequer at Westminster; the procession on which occasion is exceedingly grand and magnificent. The lord mayor sits every morning at the mansion-house, where he keeps his mayoralty, to do the business incident to his office. Once in 6 weeks, or 8 times in the year, he sits as chief judge of Oyer and Terminer, or gaol-delivery of Newgate for London and Middlesex. His jurisdiction extends all over the city and suburbs, except some places that are exempted. It extends also from Colney-ditch, above Staines-bridge in the W. to Yeudale, or Yenflete, and the mouth of the Medway, and up that river to Upnor-castle, in the E. by which he has the power of punishing or correcting all persons that shall annoy the streams, banks or fish. For this purpose he holds several *courts of conservancy* in the counties adjacent to the said river, for its conservation, and for the punishment of offenders. See MAYOR. The office next in dignity, is that of Alderman. (See ALDERMAN.) Of these there are 26, who are properly the subordinate governors of their respective wards under the lord mayor's jurisdiction. They originally held their office either by inheritance or purchase; but the oppressions, to which the citizens were subject from such a government, put them upon means to abolish the perpetuity of that office; and they brought it to an annual election. But that mode of election becoming a continual bone of contention among the citizens, the parliament, 17 Rich. II. A. D. 1394, enacted, That the aldermen of London should continue in office during life or good behaviour. And so they still continue, though the manner of electing has several times varied. At present it is regulated by an act of parliament, passed in 1724-5: and the person so elected is returned to the court of lord mayor and aldermen, by whom he must be admitted and sworn into office before he can act. If the person chosen refuseth to serve the office of alderman, he is finable 50*l*. These high officers constitute a 2d part of the city legislature when assembled in a corporate capacity, and exercise an executive power in their respective wards. The al-

dermen, who have passed the chair, or office of lord mayor, are justices of the peace, and all the other aldermen are not only the peace, but by stat. 43 Eliz. entitled *for the relief of the poor*, "every alderman, within his ward, shall and may dute, in every respect, so much as is and allowed by the said act to be done by one or two justices of peace of within this realm." Every one keeps *mate*, or *court*, for choosing ward officers, settling the affairs of the ward, to redress, and to prevent all defaults found ward. The next branch of the legislature is the COMMON COUNCIL. The conveniences that attended the popularly called FOLK-MOTES, determined the court of London to choose representatives to name, with the lord mayor and aldermen, affairs relating to the city. At first representatives were chosen out of the companies, these not being found satisfactory, no the representatives of the whole body of inhabitants, it was agreed to choose a certain number of discreet men out of each ward; who has from time to time increased, according to the dimensions of each ward. At present, (§ 6.) being subdivided into 23 wards, each precinct sends a representative to the common council, who are elected after the manner as an alderman; and as the lord mayor presides in the wardmote, and is judge of the election of an alderman, so the alderman of each ward is judge of the poll at the election of a common council man. Thus the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council, are a city parliament, resembling the great national parliament. For it consists of two houses, the lord mayor and aldermen, or the upper house, and another for the commoners or representatives of the people, commonly called the *common council*. They have power to make and alter laws; and the citizens are bound to obey them. When they meet in their incapacity, they wear deep-blue silk gowns; these assemblies are called the *courts*, and the acts are called *acts of common council*. No act is formed in the name of the city, without the concurrence. But they cannot absent a summons from the lord mayor, who is obliged to call a common council if demanded, by 6 reputable citizens and a recorder. This corporation is assisted by SHERIFFS and a RECORDER. The recorder is a chartered officer, to perform certain services, in the king's name, within the county of Middlesex, chosen by the liverymen of the companies on Midsummer day. Their office is to sit at Cambden, is to collect the public money within their several jurisdictions; to receive the exchequer all fines belonging to the king; to save the king's writs of process; to judge, and execute their orders; to compel obstinate men by the *tailors* to submit to the decisions of the court; to take care that all condemned criminals be punished. They also execute the orders of the common council, when they have reso-



dress his majesty, or to petition parliament. In virtue of their office, they hold a court at Guildhall every Wed. and Frid. for actions entered at Wood-street Compter; and on Thurs. and Sat. for those entered at the Poultry Compter: of which the sheriffs being judges, each has his assistant or deputy. To each of these courts belong attorneys, who are sworn upon their being admitted by the court of aldermen; also a secondary, a clerk of the papers, a prothonotary, and 4 clerks sitters. The secondary's office is to allow and return all writs brought to remove clerks out of the said courts; the clerk of the papers writes and copies all declarations upon actions; the prothonotary draws and ingrosses all declarations; the clerks sitters enter actions and attachments, and take bail and verdicts. To each of the compters, or prisons belonging to these courts, appear 16 serjeants at mace, with a yeoman to each, besides inferior officers, and the prison-keeper. In the sheriff's court may be tried actions of debt, trespass, account, covenant, and all personal actions, attachments, and sequestrations. The testimony of an absent witness in writing is admitted as evidence. When an erroneous judgment is given in either of the sheriffs courts of the city, the writ of error to reverse this judgment must be brought in the court of hustings before the lord mayor. The sheriffs of London may take arrests and serve executions on the Thames. The RECORDER, by his office, seems to have been intended as an assistant to, or assessor with, the lord mayor, in matters of justice and law. He is chosen by the lord mayor and aldermen only; and sits in place in all courts, and in the common council before any who hath not been mayor. He is considered as the mouth of the city; and delivers addresses to the king, &c. from the corporation. (See RECORDER.) The next chartered officer is the CHAMBERLAIN; an office of great repute and trust. He is elected by the livery annually, on Midsummer day, but is never displaced during his life, unless some great crime be proved against him. He has the keeping of the money, lands, and goods, of the city orphans, or takes security for the payment thereof when the parties die before age. And to that end he is deemed in law a sole corporation, for orphans; and therefore a bond or recognizance made to him or his successors, is recoverable by his successors. He has a court peculiarly belonging to him. His office may be termed a public treasury, collecting customs, moneys, and yearly revenues, and other payments belonging to the corporation of the city. The other officers under the lord mayor are, 1. The *common serjeant*. He attends the lord mayor and court of aldermen on courts, and is in council with them on all occasions, with or without the liberties of the city. He has the care of orphans estates, and manages them, according to his judgment, to the best advantage. The TOWN-CLERK keeps the original charters of the city, the books, rolls, and other records, and in are registered the acts and proceedings of the city; so that he may not be improperly called the city register: he attends the lord mayor and men at their courts, and signs all public instruments. 3. The city REMEMBRANCER, attends

the lord mayor on certain days, his business being to put his lordship in mind of the select days he is to go abroad with the aldermen, &c. He attends daily at the parliament house, during the sessions, and reports to the lord mayor their transactions. 4. The SWORD-BEARER, attends the lord mayor at his going abroad, and carries the sword before him, the emblem of justice. This is an ancient and honourable office, representing the state and princely office of the king's majesty, in his representative the lord mayor; and, according to the rule of armory, "He must carry the sword upright, the hilts being holden under his bulk, and the blade directly up the middle of his breast, and so forth between the sword-bearer's brows." 5. The *common hunt*; whose business it is to take care of the hounds belonging to the lord mayor and citizens, and to attend them in hunting in those grounds to which they are authorized by charter. 6. The *common crier*, and the *serjeant at arms*, summon all executors and administrators of freemen to appear, and bring in inventories of the personal estates of freemen, within two months after their decease: and he must have notice of the appraisements. He also attends the lord mayor on set days and at the courts held weekly by the mayor and aldermen. 7. The *water bailiff* looks after the preservation of the Thames against all encroachments, and looks after the fishermen for the preservation of the young fry. For that purpose there are juries for each county, that hath any part of it lying on the shores of the said river; which juries, summoned by the water bailiff at certain times, make inquiry into all offences relating to the river and the fish, and make their presentments accordingly. He also attends the lord mayor on set days in the week. These 7 purchase their places; except the town clerk, who is chosen by the livery. There are also 3 serjeant carvers; 3 serjeants of the chamber, a serjeant of the channel; 4 yeomen of the water side; an under water-bailiff; two yeomen of the chamber; two meal weighers; two yeomen of the wood wharfs; with a number of clerks, city marshals, and many other inferior officers. There is also a coroner, a most useful and necessary office in a great city. See CORONER, § 1-3. There are likewise several courts for executing justice, viz. the court of hustings, lord mayors court, &c. There are also two subordinate kinds of government in the city; one executed by the alderman, deputy, and common council men, and their inferior officers, in each ward; under which form are comprehended all the inhabitants, free or not free, of the city. Every ward is therefore like a little free state, subject to the lord mayor as chief-magistrate. The housekeepers of each ward elect their representatives, the common council, who join in making bye-laws for the government of the city. The officers of each ward manage the affairs belonging to it, and each has a court called the WARDMOTE, for this purpose. The other subordinate government is by the master, wardens, and court of assistants, of the incorporate companies; whose power reaches no further than the members of their respective guilds; except that in them is vested the power to choose representatives in parliament for the city, and all those magistrates and officers elected by a common hall; which compa-

ties are invested with distinct powers, according to their respective charters.—A court is also held in the Old Bailey, 8 times a-year, in a hall named *Justice hall*, or the *Sessions house*, by the king's commission of oyer and terminer, for the trial of criminals; for offences committed within the city and county. Of this court the lord mayor, and such aldermen as have served that office, are judges; along with the recorder and sheriffs; attended by one or more of the national judges.

ii. LONDON, GOVERNMENT, ECCLESIASTICAL, OF. London is a bishop's see, the diocese of which comprehends not only Middlesex, Essex, and part of Hertfordshire, but the British plantations in *America*. The bishop of London takes precedence next to the archbishops of Canterbury and York; but the following parishes of this city are exempted from his jurisdiction, being peculiar under the immediate government of the archbishop of Canterbury; viz. All-hallows in Breadstreet, All-hallows Lombard-street; St Dionys Back-church, St Dunstan in the East, St John Baptist, St Leonard Eastcheap, St Mary Aldermay, St Mary Bothaw, St Mary le Bow, St Michael Crooked-lane, St Michael Royal, St Pancras Soper-lane, and St Vedast Foster-lane.

iii. LONDON, GOVERNMENT, MILITARY, OF. The military government is lodged in a lieutenancy, consisting of the lord mayor, aldermen, and other principal citizens, who receive their authority by a commission from the king. Those have under their command the city trained bands, consisting of 6 regiments of foot, distinguished by the names of the *white, orange, yellow, blue, green, and red*, each containing 8 companies of 150 men, amounting in all to 7200. There is also a corps called the *artillery company*, from its being taught the military exercise in the artillery ground. This company is independent of the rest, and consists of 700 or 800 volunteers. These, with two regiments of foot of 800 men each, commanded by the lieutenant of the Tower, make the whole militia of this city; which, exclusive of Westminster and Southwark, amounts to about 10,000 men.

(9.) LONDON HISTORY OF, AFTER THE DEPARTURE OF THE ROMANS, TILL ITS IMPROVEMENT BY ALFRED THE GREAT. After the Romans deserted Britain, a new and fierce race succeeded. The Saxons landed in 448; (See ENGLAND, § 13;) London fell into their hands, about 457; and became their chief city in Essex. It suffered much in the wars between the Britons and Saxons, but soon recovered; so that Bede calls it a *princely mart town*, under the government of a chief magistrate, whose title of *portgrace* or *portreve*, conveys a grand idea of the mercantile state of London in those early ages, that required a governor of the port. During the civil wars of the Saxons, the Londoners kept themselves neuter; and about 819, when the whole Heptarchy fell under the power of Egbert, London became the metropolis of England, which it has ever since continued. During the invasions of the Danes, London suffered greatly. In 849, these invaders entered the Thames with 250 ships, plundered and burnt the city, and massacred the inhabitants, and two years after they returned

with a fleet of 350 sail, determined to do every thing that had escaped their former fury. But they were disappointed, most troops being cut in pieces by K. Ethel his son Ethelbald. London suffered not these two incursions than ever it had done. In the reign of king ALFRED the Great, began to recover. He rebuilt its walls, and the Danish inhabitants who had settled there restored the city to its former liberties, and committed the care of it to his son-in-law, duke of Mercia. In 893, however, he mortification to see his capital totally reduced to ashes by an accidental fire, which could not be extinguished, as the houses at that time were built of wood. The walls, however, being constructed of incombustible materials, could afford the same protection as before; they were quickly rebuilt, and the city divided into wards and precincts. Alfred also instituted the office of sheriff, so that here we have the origin of the order of magistrates afterwards established in London; in the person of the portreve, or grave, as supreme magistrate; in the sheriff, in the subordinate magistrate, placed at the head of each ward or precinct, analogous to the modern office of *aldermen* and *common-council*. Alfred next began to ornament the city, and excite the English to an emulation in their houses of stronger and more durable materials than wood. Having begun to build palaces of stone and brick, the opulent and the nobility followed his example, the custom did not become general till some time after.

(10.) LONDON, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH TO THAT OF HENRY II. In 1013, king of Denmark invaded and plundered the counties of Dorset, Somerset, and Wilts, sailed up the Thames with 200 ships, and laid siege to London. The citizens made such a brave defence, that Canute withdrew his army, leaving a fleet to blockade the city by water. At length, however, being defeated in several battles by Ironside, he was obliged to call off his fleet to cover his own army. But in the course of the year afterwards made between Edmund and Canute, London was given to the latter. The history of London at this time appears from the charter upon it by Canute to pay his army; which was no less than 10,500 l. while the rest of the city was taxed only at 72,000 l. In 1046, the first instance occurs of the Londoners sending deputies to parliament. This happened on the succession after Canute's death. They were in general declared for Edward son of king Harold II. or, if that could not be carried, for Godwin, son of Canute by queen Emma at Denmark. London espoused the party of Harold Harefoot, son also of Canute, by the name of Northampton. Edward's party soon prevailed, and the Londoners agreed, that the two should divide the kingdom; but as Harold did not return in proper time to England, the *tenage-moot* was held at Oxford, where the Danes on the N. of the Thames, with the lords of London, chose Harold for their king; *patres* was meant the directors, magis-

ten of the city; which shows, that London of such consequence, that no imational affair was transacted without the consent of the inhabitants; for the Saxon annals that none were admitted into this election, but the nobility and the pindon. On the invasion of the Normans William I. London submitted as well as the kingdom; and received two charters from the prince, confirming all the privileges under the Saxon kings, and adding several more. But while the citizens were promoting themselves tranquillity under the new government, it was almost entirely reduced to ashes by a fatal fire in 1077. It had scarcely recovered from this calamity, when it was visited with another of the same kind in 1086, which bedegate, and burnt the most opulent part of the city; consuming, among other buildings, the church of St Paul's; which, however, was rebuilt more magnificently than before. Under King Henry II. London suffered considerably by pestilences, and inundations, as well as by the tyranny of that prince; but Henry I. granted several charters to it, which revived its trade; and encouraged the arts. The king, however, reserved to himself the privilege of appointing the portreeve; and several immunities granted to the Londoners for their services, and tended much to fix the crown on the throne. At the same time there was a great plenty of provisions, that as much corn was sold for as would suffice 100 people for a day; and as much hay and corn as would purchase 20 horses for a day; and a sheep bought for a groat. These pieces of good fortune were then of much more intrinsic value than at present; the shilling being the 20th part of a groat the 60th of a pound weight of silver; and still provisions of all kinds were amazing.

Henry also checked the licentiousness of the Londoners, who, by the favour showed them by King William, had been guilty of the most various practices, and had dreadfully harried and plundered the country. Many of them were so extravagant in their barbarity, that what they did not eat or drink in their quarters, they sold to the people to sell for their use, or they would throw it into the fire: and, at their own request, they often staved the casks containing the liquor. Henry to stop these disorders published a proclamation, that all who were convicted of such barbarities should have their eyes pulled out, or their hands or feet cut off. This effectually checked the insolence of the Londoners, and the city continued to flourish in the reigns of Henry I. and Stephen. The discontentment of the citizens to Stephen, however, was never forgiven by Henry II. who made it one of the objects of his displeasure, by making friends of money from them. About the year 1140, indeed, the Londoners were arrived at the pitch of licentiousness. The sons of the wealthy citizens entered into a confederacy to rob and murder all that came in their way at night. The king took the opportunity of these irregularities to enrich himself. He granted several loans and free gifts; till at last

III. PART. II.

the Londoners, to prevent further inquiries, paid into the exchequer 5000*l.* in 3 years. These disorders, however, were at last stopped by the execution of John Scnex; who, though very rich, had engaged in these villanies. He offered 500*lb.* weight of silver, a prodigious sum in those days, for his pardon, but was refused. The king, however, continued to drain the citizens of their money, and fined every guild, fraternity, and company, that had acted as bodies corporate without the royal letters patent. On the death of Henry II. the title of the first magistrate of London was changed from *portreeve* to that of *bailliff*; and in 1189, the bailliff claimed and acted in the office of the *chief butler* at the coronation of Richard I.

(II.) LONDON, HISTORY OF, FROM HENRY II'S DEATH TO THAT OF HENRY III. In 1191, King Richard I. permitted the bailliff *Henry Fitz-Alwine*, to assume the title of *MAYOR*. In 1192, we find certain orders of the mayor and aldermen to prevent fires, and "that 12 aldermen of the city should be chosen in full huffings, and sworn to assist the mayor, in appeasing contentions that might arise among neighbours in the city," &c. Such confidence also did Richard put in the wisdom and fidelity of the citizens of London, that when it was resolved to fix a standard for weights and measures for the whole realm, he committed the execution thereof to the sheriffs of London and Middlesex. This happened in 1198, when corn was advanced to the enormous price of 18*s.* 4*d.* per quarter. London was much favoured by King John, who granted it 3 charters soon after his accession. The first was a recital and confirmation of those granted by Henry I. and II. with the additional privilege of being free from all tolls, duties, and customs, in his foreign dominions; for which they paid the sum of 3000 marks. The second was a confirmation of one granted by King Richard, giving the citizens of London the jurisdiction and conservancy of the Thames; and extending that jurisdiction to the Medway; with a power to inflict a penalty of 10*l.* upon any person that should erect a weir in either of these rivers. The third charter granted them a *fee-farm* rent of the sheriffwicks of London and Middlesex at the ancient rent, of which they had been deprived by Queen Matilda; with the power of choosing their own sheriffs. This charter was given by way of conveyance from the crown to the citizens for a valuable consideration, by which the sheriffwick became their freehold; and this is the first conveyance on record with the legal terms of *to have and to hold*, which are now accounted an essential part in all conveyances of property. Under Henry III. London was greatly oppressed. In 1218, he exacted a fine of 40 marks for selling a sort of cloth not two yards within the lists; and a 15th part of the citizens personal estates for the enjoyment of their ancient rights and privileges. In 1221, he commanded all the foreign merchants to depart the city; which drew 30 marks from the Antient company of the *Steelyard*, to have seisin of their guild or a hall in Thames-street. In the same year, in consequence of a riot, wherein the citizens were most barbarously used, some of them being hanged, and others having their hands and

B b b

sect

feet cut off, without any form of trial, the mayor and all the magistrates were degraded; a *custos* placed over the city, and 30 persons bound as securities for the good behaviour of the city. Several thousand marks were also exacted by the king before he would consent to a reconciliation. This arbitrary behaviour alarmed the whole nation. The parliament, in 1224, addressed the king, to confirm the charter of liberties which he had sworn to observe; and the consequence of this application was a confirmation of the *MAGNA CHARTA*, in the full parliament at Westminster, in 1225. At this time also, the rights and privileges of the citizens were confirmed. They were exempted from prosecutions for *BURELS*, *i. e.* lifted cloth; and were granted the right of having a common seal. The necessitous circumstances of this monarch, however, made him often exact money arbitrarily as long as he lived.

(12.) LONDON, HISTORY OF, FROM HENRY III'S DEATH, TO THE DREADFUL PESTILENCE AND FIRE IN 1665 & 1666. Under the succeeding monarchs, as the liberty of the people in general was augmented, so the freedom, opulence, and power of the citizens of London increased, until they became a kind of balance to the power of the crown itself, which in some measure they still continue to be. Riots indeed, for which they generally suffered, were by no means unfrequent; they also often suffered by fires and plagues. Nothing, however, happened which materially affected the welfare of the city, till the reign of Charles II. in 1665, when London was ravaged by the most violent plague ever known in Britain. The whole summer had been remarkably still and warm, so that the weather was sometimes suffocating even to people in perfect health; and by this unusual heat and sultry atmosphere, people were undoubtedly prepared for receiving the infection, which appeared with violence in July, August, and September. A violent plague had raged in Holland in 1663; on which account the importation of merchandize from that country was prohibited by the British legislature in 1664. The infection, however, had actually been imported, for in the close of 1664, 2 or 3 persons died suddenly in Westminster, with marks of the plague on their bodies. Some of their neighbours, terrified at their danger, removed into the city, and communicated the infection to so many others, that it became impossible to extinguish it by separating those that were infected from such as were not. It was confined, however, through a hard frosty winter, till February, when it appeared in St Giles's parish, to which it had been originally brought; and, after another interval, showed its malignant force afresh in April. At first, it took off one here and there, without any certain proof of their having infected each other, and houses were shut up, to prevent its spreading. But it was now too late; the infection gained ground every day, and the shutting up of houses only made the disease spread wider. People, afraid of being shut up, concealed their illness; while numbers either escaped from their places of confinement, or expired in the greatest torments, destitute of every assistance; and many died both of the plague and other diseases, who would in all

probability have recovered, had they been secured their liberty, with proper exercise and diet. The house was shut up on account of a maid who had only spots, and not the gangrenous blotches upon her, so that her distemper was probably a petechial fever. She recovered; the people of the house obtained no liberty either for air or exercise, for 40 days. The air, fear, anger, and vexation, attending this rigorous treatment, cast the mistress of the house into a fever. The visitors, appointed to see the houses, said it was the plague, though the physicians were of a different opinion: the family ever, were obliged to begin their quarantine, though it had been almost expired. This ad confinement affected them so much, that most of them fell sick of one distemper or another. Every illness that appeared in the family produced a fresh prolongation of their confinement, till at last the plague was actually brought into the city, and almost every person in the house was infected. Many examples of a similar kind happened in other parts of the city. This was one of the worst consequences of the shutting up of houses. All means of stopping the infection proved ineffectual. Multitudes fled into the country; many merchants, owners of ships, shut themselves up, on board their vessels, supplied with provisions from Greenwich, Deptford, and farm-houses on the Kentish side, where they were safe; for the infection never reached below Deptford, though the people were obliged to go a-shore to buy fresh provisions. As the number of the plague increased, the ships which were laden with millics on board removed farther off; for they were quite out to sea, and put into such harbours as they could get at. In the mean time, the plague increased rapidly in the city. In the last week of July, the number of burials amounted to 3817; in the first week of August it rose to 3880; to 4237; the next week, to 4929; and at last to 7000 and 8000 weekly. In the first week of September, however, the fury of the plague began to abate; though vast numbers were still sick, yet the number of burials decreased to 7155 to 5538; next week to 4929; then to 2665; then to 1421, and the next week to 1031. All this while, the poor people were reduced to the greatest distresses, by the stoppage of trade, and the sicknesses occasioned by their manner of living. The rich, however, were not so much affected; they contributed to their subsistence in a most liberal manner. The sums collected, on this occasion, were indeed almost incredible; being said to amount to 100,000*l.* per week. The king contributed 1000*l.* weekly; and in the parish of St Dunstons, the plegate alone 17,000*l.* was distributed among the poor inhabitants. By the vigilance of the magistrates, provisions continued to be sold at a remarkably cheap price throughout the whole time of this dreadful calamity, so that all riots on that account were prevented; and at last, on the cessation of the disease in winter 1665, the inhabitants had fled returned, and London to appear as populous as ever, though it was computed that 100,000 persons had been carried off by the plague. The city was scarcely recovered from this desolation, when it was almost

laid in ashes by a most dreadful fire; which broke out in a baker's shop in Pudding-lane, on Saturday night, Sept. 2, 1666. In a few hours Billingsgate ward was entirely burnt down; and before morning the fire had crossed Thames-street, and destroyed the church of St Magnus. Thence it proceeded to the bridge, and consumed a great pile of buildings there; but was stopped by the want of any thing more to destroy. The flames, however, being scattered by a strong east wind, continued their devastations in other quarters. All efforts to stop it proved unsuccessful throughout Sunday, when it proceeded up as far as Garlic-bithe; and destroying Canon-street, invaded Corn-hill and the Exchange. On Monday, the flames having proceeded eastward against the wind thro' Thames-street, invaded Tower-street, Gracechurch-street, Fenchurch-street, Dowgate, Old Fish-street, Watling-street, Thread-needle-street, and several others, from all which it broke at once into Cheap-side; which, in a few hours, was all in flames, the fire having reached it from so many places at once. The fire then continuing its course down the river on one side, and from Cheap-side on the other, surrounded the cathedral of St Paul's. This building stood by itself at some distance from the houses; yet such was the violence of the flames, and the heat of the atmosphere, that the cathedral took fire at top. The great beams and heavy stones broke through into Faith-church underneath, which was quickly burnt; after which, the flames invaded Pater-noster-row, Newgate-street, the Old Bailey, Ludgate-hill, Fleet-street, Fishmonger-lane, Old Jury, Laurence-lane, Milk-lane, Wood-street, Gutter-lane, Foster-lane, Chiswell-lane, Cateaton-street; and, having destroyed St Martin's church, burnt furiously through St Martin's Grand toward Aldersgate. The fire had now attained its greatest extent, and was several miles compass. The vast clouds of smoke obscured the sun so, that he either could not be seen, or appeared as red as blood. The flames reached an immense way up in the air, and their reflection in the smoke, which in the night-time seemed like flame, made the appearance still more terrible. The atmosphere was illuminated to a great extent, and this illumination is said to have been visible as far as Jedburgh in Scotland. Some of the light ashes also are said to have been carried the distance of 16 miles. Guildhall exhibited a singular appearance. The oak with which it was built was so solid that it would not flame, but burnt like charcoal, so that the building appeared for several hours like an enchanted palace on fire. At last, on Wednesday morning, when every one expected that the suburbs were to have been burnt, the fire began to abate, the wind having ceased. It was checked by the great building in Leaden-hall-street, and in other streets by running up several houses with gun-powder; and on Thursday the flames were quite extinguished. In this extraordinary conflagration, there were destroyed, 13,200 houses, 87 churches, 6 chapels, 12 public halls, the royal exchange, the custom-house, 3 city gates, the jail of New-gate, 4 stone bridges, the Sessions house, Guildhall, with its offices, Blackwell hall, Bridewell, the Compter, Woodstreet Compter, and St

Paul's Church; which, with wares, household furniture, money, goods, books, wine, sugar, tobacco, &c. have been estimated to amount to no less than L. 10,689,000 sterling.—It was never certainly known whether this fire was accidental or designed. A suspicion fell upon the Papists; and this gained such credit, that it is asserted for a truth on the monument erected in memory of the conflagration. (See § 18.) Though there was no sufficient proof of this, it had the effect of making the Papists most violently suspected and abhorred by the Protestants.

(13.) LONDON, HISTORY OF, FROM THE GREAT FIRE IN 1666, TO THE REVOLUTION IN 1688. From this calamity, great as it was, London soon recovered, and became much more magnificent than before; the streets, formerly crooked and narrow, being now built wide and spacious; and the industry of its inhabitants soon repaired the losses they had sustained. In 1679, the city was again alarmed by the discovery of a design to destroy it by fire a second time. Elizabeth Oxley, servant to one Rind in Fetter-lane, having set her master's house on fire, was apprehended, and confessed, that she had been hired to do it by one Stubbs a Papist, for a reward of 5 l. Stubbs being taken into custody, acknowledged that he had persuaded her to it; and that he himself had been prevailed upon by one father Gifford his confessor, who had assured him, that by burning the houses of heretics he would do a great service to the church. He also owned that he had several conferences with Gifford and two Irishmen on the affair. The maid and Stubbs also declared, that the Papists intended to rise in London, expecting to be powerfully supported by a French army. In consequence of this discovery, the Papists were banished from the city and ten miles round, and 5 Jesuits were hanged. The Papists, in revenge, forged what was called the *meal-tub plot*, in which the Presbyterians were said to hatch treacherous designs against the king's life. Sir Edmondbury Godfrey also, who had been very active in the proceedings against the Papists, was found murdered; and this murder, together with their discovering the falsehood of the meal-tub plot, so exasperated the Londoners, that they resolved to show their detestation of Popery, by an extraordinary procession and exhibition on the 17th Nov. Q. Elizabeth's accession to the throne, on which day they annually burnt the pope in effigy. This procession and exhibition (of which it is unnecessary now to detail the particulars,) gave great offence to the court. The breach was farther widened by the election of sheriffs. The candidates set up by the court were rejected by a majority of almost two to one; and upon their demanding a poll, a tumult ensued. On this the king issued out a commission that same evening for trying the rioters; which, however, was so far from intimidating the rest, that they determined, not only to oppose the Popish party, but to exclude the duke of York from his succession to the crown. In the mean time, the king prorogued the parliament, to prevent them from proceeding in their inquiry concerning the Popish plot, and the exclusion bill. Upon this the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council, presented a petition to the king, requesting

such judges as would not approve of their proceedings; and, on the 12th June 1683, Justice Jones pronounced the following sentence: "That a city might forfeit its charter; that the malversations of the common council were acts of the whole city; and that the points set forth in the pleadings were just grounds for the forfeiting of a charter." But notwithstanding this sentence, the attorney-general was directed to move that the judgment might not be recorded; being afraid of the consequences. Yet it was judged that the king might seize the liberties of the city. A common council was immediately summoned. The country party moved to have the judgment entered; but the court party insisted upon an absolute submission to the king before judgment was entered; and though this was in effect a voluntary surrender of the city liberties, the act of submission was carried by a great majority: and in a petition from the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council, they "acknowledged *their own misgovernment*, and his majesty's *lenity*; begged his majesty's *parдон*; promised constant loyalty and obedience; and humbly begged his majesty's commands and directions." To this the king answered, that he would not reject their suit, if they would agree upon the following particulars: "1. That no lord mayor, sheriff, recorder, common serjeant, town-clerk, or coroner, of the city of London, or steward of the borough of Southwark, shall be capable of, or admitted to, the exercise of their respective offices, before his majesty shall have approved of them under his sign manual. 2. That if his majesty shall disapprove the choice of any person to be lord mayor, and signify the same under his sign manual to the lord mayor, &c. the citizens shall, within one week, proceed to a new choice; and if his majesty shall disapprove the said choice, he may nominate a person to be lord mayor for the year ensuing. 3. If his majesty shall disapprove the persons chosen to be the

when it was put to the vote, there appeared a majority of 18 for submission. Thus the government of the city into his own hands, though he and his brother entirely lost the affections of the Londoners. But, not content with their submission, he departed from his promise, and commanded the judgment upon the *quo warranto* to be entered; and commissioned Sir John Pritchard, the lord mayor, to hold the same during his pleasure. He also appointed and succeeded the other magistrates as he thought fit after which the ministry, having nothing to do but to proceed in the most arbitrary manner, subjected to the will of the court, the same continued till the Revolution.

(14.) LONDON, HISTORY OF, FROM THE RESTORATION TO THE PRESENT PERIOD. In the immediate restoration of the Londoners their franchises was ordered; and in such a manner, as to put it entirely out of the power of an arbitrary ministry, and a corrupt judge; to deprive them of their chartered liberties for a time to come. Accordingly a bill was introduced into parliament, and passed, for a reversal of the judgment of the *quo warranto* against the city of London, and for restoring the same to the city their ancient rights and privileges. From that time to the present (1802) London hath enjoyed its liberties, with little interruption, except in a few instances; such as, the riots that took place during Anne's reign, in 1709, by the disputes between the high and low church parties, respecting Sacheverel: (See SACHEVEREL;) those threatened in his present majesty's reign, respecting the Middlesex election; (See ENGLAND, § 10, and WILKES;) and, above all, those riots that happened in 1780, respecting the Bill, which at one period threatened the destruction of London. (See ENGLAND, § 10, and GORDON, N<sup>o</sup> 2.) We cannot come to a full history of this metropolis, without the

, circulated a vast number of political pamphlets throughout the kingdom, ministry became bold; and in 1794, 12 of the leading members apprehended and indicted for high treason. He, however, only three were brought to trial, viz. *Thomas Hardy*, *John Horne-Tooke*, Esq; and *John Thelwall*, who being acquitted, the others were dismissed without a trial; and these acquittals were attended with much exultation, no riots whatever occurred.

**LONDON, HOSPITALS IN.** There are in this city about 20 hospitals and infirmaries, or alms houses. Of these we shall here only mention three. Adjoining to Christ-church in Te-street is *Christ's Hospital*, which, before dissolution of monasteries, was a house of monks. The hospital was founded by Edward I. for the fatherless children of poor free-born city; of whom 1000 of both sexes are daily maintained in the house or out at nurse, likewise clothed and educated. In 1673, a grammatical school was founded here by Charles II. with L. 320 a-year; and a writing school was added in 1694 by Sir John Moor, an alderman of the city. After the boys have been 7 years on the foundation, some are sent to the sea and others to sea; while the rest, at a certain age, are put apprentices to trades at the disposal of the hospital. At first their habit was a blue coat, but was soon after changed for blue, and has ever since continued to be their colour; this account the foundation is frequently called the *blue-coat hospital*. The affairs of this hospital are managed by a president and about 300 governors, besides the lord mayor and aldermen. The building, which is partly Gothic and partly modern, was much damaged by the fire of 1666, but was repaired, and has been since increased by several additions. The principal buildings, which form the 4 sides of an area, have a piazza between them with Gothic arches, and the walls are supported by abutments. The front has Doric columns supported on pedestals. Contiguous to this hospital, is *St Bartholomew's Hospital*. It was originally founded soon after the accession of Henry I. by Rahere the king's jester, as an infirmary for the priory of St Bartholomew the Great, then stood near the spot. But upon the dissolution of religious houses, Henry VIII. dissolved it, and endowed it with 500 marks a-year in condition that the citizens should pay the sum annually for the relief of 100 infirmaries. The endowments have been since so much diminished, that it now receives the distressed of all nations. In 1702, a beautiful frontispiece was erected towards Smithfield, adorned with pilasters and entablature, and a pediment of the Ionic order with a statue of Henry VIII. in a niche in the middle, and those of two cripples on the sides supporting the pediment over it. In 1729, a plan was made for rebuilding the rest of this hospital, the execution of which a magnificent edifice has since been erected. In Colman-street ward, on the S. side of the square called *Moorfields* stands *Bethlehem Hospital*, founded in 1674 by the lord-mayor and aldermen of London for the reception and cure of lunatics. It is a noble edifice, built with brick, and adorned with pilasters, entablatures,

and sculptures; particularly with the figures of two lunatics over the grand gate, which are well executed. This building is 540 feet long and 40 broad, exclusive of two wings of a later erection, for lunatics deemed incurable. This hospital contains a great number of convenient apartments, where the patients are maintained, and receive all medical assistance, without any expence to their friends, except bedding. The structure is divided into two stories, through each of which runs a long gallery from the one end to the other. On the S. side are the cells, and on the N. the windows that give light to the galleries, divided in the middle by handsome iron grates, to keep the men and women separate. This hospital being united to that of Bridewell, both are managed by the same president, governors, treasurer, clerk, physician, surgeon, and apothecary; but each has a steward and inferior officers of its own. Opposite to Bethlehem hospital stood that of *St Luke*, a long plain building, appropriated to the same purposes, but wholly independent of the former. Of late the patients were removed from this hospital (since pulled down) to a new one erected under the same name in Old-street, on the same plan, extending in front 393 feet.

(16.) **LONDON, INNS OF COURT IN.** There are 15 inns of court and chancery. In Farringdon Ward Without are the Inner and Middle Temple, Serjeant's Inn, Clifford's Inn, Barnard's Inn, Staples Inn, and Furnival's Inn. The *Temple* was originally founded by the Knight's Templars, who settled here in 1185. It was divided into 3 parts; the Inner, Middle, and Outer Temple; so called from their situations respecting the Bar. On the dissolution of the order of Knights Templars, it devolved to the Knights Hospitallers of St John of Jerusalem, who granted a lease of it to the students of the common law, and converted the Inner and Middle Temple into two inns of court for the study and practice of the common law. The Outer Temple became a house for the E. of Essex. The buildings of the Temple escaped the fire in 1666, but were most of them destroyed by subsequent fires, and have been since rebuilt. The two Temples are each divided into several courts, and have pleasant gardens on the banks of the Thames. They are appropriated to distinct societies, and have separate halls. The Inner Temple hall is said to have been built in the reign of Edw. III. and the Middle Temple hall, which is a magnificent edifice, was rebuilt in 1572 in form of a college hall. The Middle Temple gate was erected by Sir Amias Powlet, on a singular occasion. Sir Amias, about 1501, put Cardinal Wolsey, then parson of Lynton, into the stocks. In 1515 he was sent for to London by the cardinal on account of that ancient grudge, and commanded not to quit town till farther orders. In consequence, he lodged 5 or 6 years in this gateway, which he rebuilt; and to pacify his eminence, adorned the front with the cardinal's cap, badges, cognisance, and other devices of this butcher's son: so low were the great men obliged to stoop to that meteor of the times! Each temple has a good library, adorned with paintings and well furnished with books. An assembly called a *parliament*, in which the affairs of the society of the Inner Temple are managed

naged, is held there every term. Both Temples have one church, founded in 1183 by the Knights Templars; but the present edifice is supposed to have been built in 1420. It is supported by neat slender pillars of Suffolk marble, and is one of the most beautiful Gothic structures in England. In this church are many monuments, particularly of 9 Knights Templars cut in marble, in full proportion, some of them 7½ feet long; 6 are cross-legged, and therefore supposed to have been crusaders. The minister, who is called the *master of the Temple*, is appointed by the senior members of both societies, and presented by a patent from the crown. *Serjeant's Inn* is a small inn in Chancery lane, where the judges and serjeants have chambers, but not houses. In each of them there is a hall and a chapel. *Clifford's Inn* is an inn of chancery belonging to the Inner Temple. It was originally a house granted by Edward II. to the family of the Cliffords; but was afterwards let upon lease to the students of the law, and in the reign of Edward III. sold to the members of this society. *Bernard's Inn* is an inn of Chancery belonging to Gray's Inn, and is situated in Holborn. John Mackworth, dean of Lincoln, gave it to professors of the law. *Staple's Inn* belongs also to Gray's Inn, and is situated in Holborn. It was once a hall for the merchants of the staple for wool, whence its name; but was purchased by the benchers of Gray's Inn, and has been an inn of chancery since 1415. *Furnival's Inn* is an inn of chancery belonging to Lincoln's Inn, and was once the house of the family of the Furnivals, by whom it was let out to the professors of the law. It is a large old building, with a hall and a pleasant garden. *Gray's Inn* and *Lincoln's Inn* are two of the principal inns of court, but both are without the liberties of the city, though the former is situated within the parish of St Andrew Holborn. See WESTMINSTER.

(17.) LONDON, MARKETS IN. There are 15 flesh markets, one for live cattle, and 25 for corn, coals, hay, herbs, &c. Of these the 3 principal are, at Smithfield for cattle and hay, at Leadenhall for butcher's meat, wool, hides, and Colchester baize, and at Billingsgate for fish. The following are also very considerable, *viz.* Honey-lane, Newgate, and Fleet markets, chiefly for flesh, though with separate divisions, for fish, butter, eggs, poultry, herbs, and fruit; the Three-Cranes market for fruit. The principal corn market is held in a neat exchange in Marklane, and that for flour at Queenhithe. In Thames-street, near Billingsgate, there is an exchange for dealers in coals and masters of vessels in that trade. In Basing hall ward, is *Blackwellhall*, which adjoins to Guildhall, and is the greatest mart of woollen cloth in the world. It was purchased of King Richard II. by the city; and has ever since been used as a weekly market for broad and narrow woollen cloths, brought out of the country. It was burnt in 1666, but rebuilt in 1672, and is now a spacious edifice, with a stone front adorned with columns.

(18.) LONDON, MONUMENT OF. Near the N. side of London bridge stands the *Monument*, a beautiful and magnificent fluted column of the Doric order, built with Portland stone, and erected in memory of the conflagration in 1666. It was begun by *Sir Christopher Wren* in 1671, and finished by him

in 1677. Its height from the pavement feet; the diameter of the shaft, or body column, is 15 feet; the ground plinth, or part of the pedestal, is 28 feet square; a pedestal is 40 feet high. Over the capital on balcony encompassing a cone 32 feet which supports a blazing urn of gilt brass. In is a large staircase of black marble, consisting of 245 steps, each 10 inches and a half broad six inches thick. The W. side is adorned with a curious emblem in alt-relief, denoting the creation and restoration of the city. The first figure represents London sitting in ruins, in a guilting posture with her head dejected, dishevelled, and her hand carelessly lying on a sword. Behind is *Time*, gradually raising at her side is a woman touching her wrist, whilst a winged sceptre in the other hand, her to regard the goddesses in the cloud with a cornucopia, denoting *Pleanty*; the other with a palm branch, the emblem of *Peace*. Above the figure is a bee-hive, showing, that by industrious application the greatest misfortunes are to be overcome. Behind the figure of *Time* are two figures exulting at his endeavours to restore her; one is seated, in the midst of the ruins is a dragon as the supporter of the city arms, with a sword in his paw, endeavouring to preserve the same. Opposite to the city, on an elevated pavement, stands a king, in a Roman habit, with a laurel wreath, and a truncheon in his hand; and appearing her, commands three of his attendants to send to her relief. The first represents *Truth* with a winged head and circle of naked dancing thereon; and *Nature* holding out her breasts, ready to give all to all. The second is *Architecture*, with a compass in one hand, and a square and pair of compasses in the other; and the third is *Liberty*, waving in the air, showing her joy at the prospect of the city's speedy recovery. Behind her stands his brother the duke of York, with a garland in one hand to crown the rising city, and a sword in the other for her defence. Two figures behind are *Justice* and *Fortitude*; the former with a coronet, and the latter with a lion; and under the royal pavement lies a man gnawing a heart, and incessantly emitting infernal fumes from her mouth. On the plan of the reconstruction of the city is represented by the names of the artificers and labourers at work upon houses. (N., S. and E. sides, are inscriptions relating to the destruction occasioned by the conflagration, and the regulations about rebuilding the city, and the monument; and round it is the following —“ This pillar was set up in perpetual remembrance of the most dreadful burning of this constant city, begun and carried on by the treachery and malice of the Popish faction, in the night of September, in the year of our Lord 1666, in order to their carrying on their horrid project of extirpating the Protestant religion and abolishing *Liberty*, and introducing popery and slavery.”

(19.) LONDON, NUMBER OF CHURCHES, SCHOOLS, SQUARES, STREETS, HOUSES, &c. On the N. side St Paul's cathedral and the collegiate church at Westminster, there are 102 parish churches, 69 chapels, of the established religion; 21



tant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the monks, Dutch, Danes, &c.; 16 independent churches; 34 presbyterian meetings; 20 baptist churches; 19 popish chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors and people of 15 sects; and three Jewish synagogues. So there are at least 305 places devoted to religious worship in the compass of this vast pile of buildings, without reckoning those in the 21 out-parishes, usually included in the bills of mortality, a great number of methodist tabernacles. There are also 27 public squares, besides those in single buildings, as the Temple, &c.; 3 streets, 55 halls for companies; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffeehouses, 5975 alehouses; 1000 hack-coaches, 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, 15 courts and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling houses.

**B.) LONDON, PLACES OF PUBLIC AMUSEMENT.** The principal of these are Vauxhall, St. James's gardens, the 2 play-houses, the little theatre in the Hay-market, Sadlers-wells, Hughes's theatre, and Astley's Royal Grove, &c. The finest collections of rarities and natural history, are those in Sloane's in the British Museum, and that collected by the late Sir Ashton Lever, now the property of Mr Parkinson, and deposited in paper apartments for public inspection, near the south end of Black-friars bridge. See LEVER,

**C.) LONDON, POPULATION, AND CONSUMPTION OF PROVISIONS, &c. IN.** The total population of London is estimated at about one million inhabitants; who, according to a moderate calculation, are calculated to consume provisions to the amount of 228,652 *l.* 12 *s.* 10 *d.* and fuel, candles, paper, pens, ink, wax, snuff, tobacco, &c. to the amount of 415,104 *l.* 7 *s.* 7 *d.*; which, with the addition of 4,000 *l.* per week for corn, hay, and beans to horses, makes 47,756 *l.* 16 *s.* 2 *d.* per week, or £33,783,354: per annum.

**D.) LONDON, PRISONS IN.** There are ten prisons in London. In the street called the *Old Bailey* in Farringdon ward without, stands the prison for Criminals, called *Newgate*; built in a much more convenient situation, and on a more enlarged plan than the former. Here the unfortunate debtor is no longer annoyed by the rattling of chains, or by the more horrid imprecations issuing from the lips of those wretched beings who set defiance to all laws divine and human; and here also the offender, whose crime is capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free country. In this ward is likewise the *Fleet prison*, which is removed from the *Fleet*, a rivulet which formerly ran through it. This building is large, and reckoned the most convenient in the city for conveniences. It has the advantage of a large yard, which is enclosed with a high wall. This prison is as ancient as the reign of Richard I. and belongs to the court of Chancery, &c. In Farringdon ward Without is a building called *BRIDEWELL*, from a spring in the garden named *St Bridget's* or *St Bride's Well*. This was originally a royal palace, and occupied all the ground from *Fleet-ditch* on the E. to *Water-lane* on the W. That part of it now called *Salisbury-yard* was given to the bishops of *Salisbury* for

their town residence; and the E. part, which was rebuilt by King Henry VIII. is the present *Bridewell*. It was granted to the city by Edward VI. as an hospital; and he endowed it for the lodging of poor travellers, and for the correction of vagabonds, strumpets, and idle persons, as well as for finding them work. In one part of the building 20 artificers have houses; and about 150 boys, distinguished by white hats and blue doublets, are put apprentices to glovers, flax dressers, weavers, &c. and when they have served their time are entitled to the freedom of the city, with 10 *l.* towards carrying on the respective trades. The other part of *Bridewell* is a receptacle for disorderly persons, who are kept at beating hemp and other hard labour.

**(23.) LONDON, PUBLIC BUILDINGS, BRIDGES, &c. IN.** The streets and public buildings in London and its liberties being far too numerous for a particular description in this work, we shall only select the most remarkable. The original bridge, in *Bridge-ward*, was of wood, and appears to have been first built between 993 and 1016; but being burnt down about 1136, it was rebuilt of wood in 1163. The expences, however, of maintaining and repairing it became so burdensome to the inhabitants of the city, that they resolved to build a stone bridge a little W. of the wooden one. This was begun in 1176, and finished in 1209; and was 915 feet long, 44 feet high, and 73 feet wide; but houses being built on each side, the space between was only 23 feet. In one part had been a drawbridge, useful either by way of defence or for the admission of ships into the upper part of the river. This was protected by a strong tower. It served to repulse *Fauconbridge the Bastard* in his general assault on the city in 1471, with a set of banditti, under pretence of releasing the unfortunate *Henry*, then confined in the *Tower*. Sixty houses were burnt on the bridge on the occasion. It also served to check, and in the end annihilate, the insurrection of *Sir Thomas Wyatt*, in the reign of *Q. Mary*. The top of this tower, in turbulent times, used to be covered with heads or quarters of unfortunate partizans. Even so late as 1598, *Hentzner*, the German traveller, with German accuracy, counted on it above 30 heads. The old map of the city in 1597 represents them in a most horrible cluster. — An unparalleled calamity happened on this bridge within 4 years after it was finished. A fire began on it at the *Southwark* end; multitudes of people rushed out of London to extinguish it; while they were engaged in this charitable design, the fire seized on the opposite end, and hemmed in the crowd. Above 3000 persons either perished in the flames, or were drowned by overloading the vessels sent to their relief. The narrowness of the passage on this bridge having occasioned the loss of many lives from the number of carriages continually passing; and the straitness of the arches, with the enormous size of the stercoraries, which occupied one 4th part of the waterway, having also occasioned frequent and fatal accidents, the magistrates in 1756 obtained an act of parliament for improving and widening the passage over and through the bridge, which granted them a toll for every carriage and horse passing

over it, and for every vessel with goods passing through it; but these tolls proving insufficient, were abolished by an act made in 1753, for explaining, amending, and rendering the former act more effectual; and for granting the city of London money towards carrying on that work. In consequence of these acts, a temporary wooden bridge was built, and the houses on the old bridge were taken down. Instead of a narrow street 23 feet wide, there is now a passage of 31 feet for carriages, with a raised pavement of stone on each side, 7 feet broad, for the use of foot passengers. The sides are secured by stone balustrades, enlightened in the night with lamps. The passage thro' the bridge is enlarged by throwing the two middle arches into one, and other improvements. Under the 1st, 2d, and 4th arches, from the N. side of the bridge, and now likewise towards the S. extremity, there are engines worked by the flux and reflux of the river, the water of which they raise to such a height as to supply many parts of the city. Those engines were contrived in 1582 by one Peter Morice a Dutchman, and are called *London-bridge-water-works*. Opposite Fleet-ditch, stands **BLACKFRIARS BRIDGE**; an elegant structure. See **BRIDGE**, § 9; N° 1. The whole length is 995 feet: the breadth of the carriage way 28 feet, and that of the two footways 7 each. This bridge was begun in 1760; and finished in 1768, at the expence of L. 152,840. It is almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and shows the majesty of St Paul's in a very striking manner. Limestreet ward is remarkable for a very large building, of great antiquity, called *Leadenhall*, with flat battlements leaded on the top, and a spacious square in the middle. In 1309 it was the house of Sir Hugh Nevil knight; in 1384, of Humphry Bohun Earl of Hereford; in 1403 it became the property of the celebrated Whittington, who presented it to the mayor and commonalty of London; and in 1419, a public granary was erected here by Sir Simon Eyre, a citizen and draper, who built it with stone in its present form. A little to the E. of Leadenhall market, is the India house, built in 1726, on the spot occupied by Sir William Craven, mayor in 1610. The India Company have also erected a most magnificent warehouse on the site of the old Navy Office, on the W. side of the city walls, at the Minories. It is an oblong square of about 250 feet, by 160, and incloses a court of 150 feet by 60. The entry is by an arched gateway. In Broadstreet is the **BANK OF ENGLAND**, a stone building, which occupies one side of Threadneedle street. (See **BANK**, N° 10.) The entrance, and the building behind, were founded in 1703. Before that time the business was transacted in Grocers-hall. The front is a sort of vestibule; the base rustic, the ornamental columns above Ionic. Within is a court leading to a 2d elegant building, which contains a hall and offices, where the interest of above 500 millions is punctually paid. Two wings of uncommon elegance, designed by Sir Robert Taylor, have been added, and still further additions have been made and are making. The name of the projector of this national glory (says Mr Pennant) was Mr James

Paterfon of Scotland. This palladian country was in 1780 saved from the infamous banditti by the virtue of it who formed suddenly a volunteer company over-awed the miscreants; while the estate skulked, trembling in his man and left his important charge to its ENGLAND, § 101.) This important building since been very properly guarded by ry. At the extremity of Threadneedle is *Merchant-Taylors Hall*. In this street *South-Sea House*, first established in 1711 purpose of an exclusive trade to the and for supplying Spanish America with St Giles's Church, said to have been a hospital founded in 1117, by Q. M. rebuilt in 1625. By the amazing rail ground by various adventitious matter, in 1730 was 8 feet below the surface.

it necessary to rebuild the church in 17 finished in 1734, at the expence of 10, the W. side of Broad-street flood the Augustines, founded by the E. of S 1253. On the dissolution of the mona of the house was granted to William Lo afterwards Marquis of Winchester, w a magnificent house named *Winchester*. W. end of the church was granted in 15 a-Lasco for the use of the Germans an gitive Protestants, and afterwards to as a place for preaching. A part of i converted into a glass-house, and after *Pinnac-ball*, for the company of pin-n the E. of Winchester-street flood the b very eminent merchant, Sir Thomas afterwards known by the name of *Gresham*. (See **GRESHAM**.) It was pulled do years ago; and the *Excheq Office*, built i In Walbrook ward is the *Manfion-houf* dence of the lord mayor; begun in 17 nished in 1753. It is built of Portland; a portico of 6 fluted columns, of the order, in the front. The basement f masonry, and consists of rustic work; in is the door, which leads to the kitchen and other offices. On each side rise s steps, leading up to the portico, in which is the principal entry. The f trade of the stairs is continued along th the portico, and the columns support a gular pediment, adorned with a group in bas relief, representing the dignity a of the city of London. It is a heavy b an oblong form, and its depth is the lon ving several magnificent apartments, not well lighted, on account of the b surround it. Behind the mansion-houf *phen's Church*, justly reputed Sir C. Wren piece, and said to exceed every modern in the world in proportion and elegn mansion-house, and many adjacent. Round on the place where the *St. Luke's* flood. This took its name from a pair erected near the spot in 1281; and was market for provisions during many cent this ward is situated one of the most n pieces of antiquity in London. It is a g now standing in a case on the N. side c

et, close under the S. wall of St Swithin's church. It is called *London Stone*; and was formerly pitched edgewise on the other side of the street, opposite to where it now stands, fixed deeply in the ground, and strongly fastened with iron bars. It is mentioned so early as the time of beltran, K. of the W. Saxons, and has been carefully preserved. Of the original cause of its position no memorial remains; but it is supposed, as London was a Roman city, this stone might be the centre, and might serve as an object from which the distance was computed to the other considerable cities or stations in the province. The church of *St Mary le Bow*, in Cordwainer-street ward, is the most eminent parochial church in the city. It was built in the reign of William the First, being the first church the steeple of which was embellished with stone arches or *bosses*, was called *le Bow*. It was burnt in 1666, but was after rebuilt. The steeple is reckoned the most beautiful of its kind in Europe. In Cheap is *Guildhall*, or the *town-house* of London. It was originally built in 1111, but being much damaged by the fire in 1666, it was rebuilt in 1671. The front has a Gothic appearance, as well as two gigantic effigies in the hall. The hall is 13 feet long, 50 broad, and 55 high, adorned with the royal arms, and those of the city and its princes, as well as with several portraits of British sovereigns and judges. In this building are many apartments for transacting the business of the city, besides one for each of the judicial officers, of King's-Bench, Common-Pleas, and Chancery. *Goldsmiths Hall* stands in Foster-lane, and opens into the W. end of Cheap-side. In the same also is St Martin's le Grand, which, though surrounded by the city, was subject, near centuries, to Westminster Abbey. A fine church was built here in 700 by Wythred king of the Saxons, and rebuilt in 1056. On the N. side of Cheap-side stood the hospital of *St Thomas Acon*, founded by Fitz-Theobald and his wife Agnes, and by Thomas a BECKET, to whom it was dedicated. It was granted by king Henry VIII. to a company of mercers; destroyed by the fire in 1666; but rebuilt by the mercers company, and gave their hall here. Immediately to the E. of the narrow street called the *Old Jewry*, so named from a great synagogue which stood here till the Jews were expelled the kingdom in 1291. In thelegate ward is a hall, which belonged to the company of barber-surgeons, built by the celebrated Inigo Jones, and the upper end is formed by one of the towers or barbicans of London. The anatomical theatre is elliptical, and is finely contrived. This hall is now called *St Bartholomew's Hall*; the surgeons having obtained a separate charter, and built a new hall in the Old Jewry. Near Bridewell is *St Bride's Church*, a fine fabric 111 feet long, 57 broad, and 41 high, with a beautiful spire 254 feet in altitude, and a ring of 12 bells in its tower.

LONDON, PUBLIC OFFICES IN. The *Treasury Office for the Navy*, is seated on Little Britain. It is separated from Tower-hill by a wall and gate, and contains houses for the officers, store-houses, store-rooms, &c. under the direction of 7 commissioners and other officers. In

Tower ward is also the CUSTOM-HOUSE, a large, handsome, and commodious building of brick and stone. It stands upon the bank of the Thames, and is accommodated with large vaults, cellars, and ware-houses. On this spot is the busy concourse of all nations, who pay their tribute towards the support of Great Britain. The first custom-house was erected in 1559; which, being burnt in 1666, was rebuilt by Charles II. In 1718 it underwent the same fate, and was restored in its present form. In 1268 the half year's customs for foreign merchandise came only to L. 75:6:10; the annual produce of the customs, ending in April 1789, amounted to L. 3,711,126. In Water-lane, a little to the NW. of the custom house, is *Trinity-house*; founded in 1515, at a period in which the British navy began to assume a system. The founder was Sir Thomas Spert comptroller of the navy, and commander of the great ship *Henry Grace de Dieu*. The society is a corporation, consisting of a master, 4 wardens, 8 assistants, and 18 elder brethren selected from commanders in the navy and the merchants service. They may be considered as the guardians of our ships, military and commercial. Their powers are very extensive: they examine such of the children of Christ's hospital as study mathematics, and the masters of his majesty's ships; they appoint pilots for the Thames; settle the general rates of pilotage; direct light houses and beacons; grant licences to poor boatmen, not free of the city, to row on the Thames; prevent foreigners from serving on board our ships, without licence; punish offenders for mutiny and desertion; hear and determine complaints of officers and men in the merchant service; but unable to approach the court of admiralty; superintend the deepening and cleansing of the Thames, and have under their jurisdiction the tithing-office; have power to buy lands, and receive donations for charitable uses; and, in consequence, relieve annually many thousands of poor families, their widows, and orphans. In this house the business of the institution is carried on, but the mother house is at Deptford. The EXCISE OFFICE is a most magnificent building, erected on the site of GRESHAM COLLEGE. (See § 23.) The payments into this office amount to above 5½ millions a-year. S. of the Royal Exchange (§ 25.) and near the W. extremity of Lombard Street, is the *General Post-office*; a very handsome and commodious building.

(25.) LONDON, ROYAL EXCHANGE OR. The Royal Exchange, which is the meeting-place of the merchants of London, stands in the ward of Cornhill, and is the finest and strongest fabric of the kind in Europe. It was founded in 1566. Sir Thomas Gresham, merchant in London, made an offer to the lord mayor and citizens, to build, at his own expence, a commodious edifice for merchants to meet and transact business in, provided the city would find him a convenient situation for the same. The citizens, accordingly, purchased, for 35,218. 80 nobles, in the two alleys called *New St Christopher's*, and *Sutton's*, leading out of Cornhill into Thread-needle Street. The material of those houses were sold for 4781. and the ground, when cleared, was conveyed to Sir Thomas Gresham, who, accompanied by several aldermen,

See

and

laid the first brick of the new building on the 7th of June that year. The whole fabric was roofed by Nov. 1567, and was soon after completed under the name of the *Burſe*. This building was totally destroyed by the fire in 1666; and in its place the present magnificent structure was erected, at the expence of L. 80,000, upon a plat of ground 203 feet in length and 171 in breadth, containing an area in the middle, of 61 square perches, surrounded with a substantial and regular stone building, wrought in rustick. It has two fronts, N. and S. each of which is a piazza; and in the centre are the grand entrances into the area, under a very lofty and noble arch. The S. front in Cornhill is the principal; on each side of which are Corinthian demi-columns, supporting a compass pediment; and, in the intercolumniation on each side, in the front next the street, is a niche, with the statues of Charles I. and II. in Roman habits, well executed. Over the aperture, on the cornice between the two pediments, are the king's arms in relieve; on each side of this entrance is a range of windows between demi-columns, and pilasters of the composite order, above which runs a balustrade. This building is 56 feet high: and from the centre, in this front, rises a lantern and turret 178 feet high, on the top of which is a fan of gilt brass in the shape of a grasshopper, the crest of Sir Thomas Gresham. The N. front in Thread-needle street is adorned with pilasters of the composite order; but has triangular pediments. The inside of the area is also surrounded with piazzas, forming ambulatories for merchants, &c. Above the arches of this piazza is an entablature with curious ornaments; and on the cornice a range of pilasters with an entablature extending round, and a compass pediment in the middle of the cornice of each of the four sides. Under the pediment on the N. side are the king's arms; on the S. the city's arms; on the E. Sir T. Gresham's arms; and on the W. the mercer's arms. In these intercolumns are 24 niches, 20 of which are filled with the statues of the kings and queens of England. Under these piazzas, within the area, are 28 niches, all vacant but that in which Sir Thomas Gresham's statue is placed in the NW. angle, and that in the SW. where the statue of Sir John Barnard stands. The centre of this area is ornamented with a statue of Charles II. in a Roman habit, upon a marble pedestal about 8 feet high, encompassed with iron rails. The pedestal is enriched on the S. side with an imperial crown, a sceptre, sword, palm-branches, &c. On the W. side is a cupid cut in relieve, resting his right hand on a shield with the arms of France and England quartered, and holding a rose in his left hand. On the N. side is another cupid supporting a shield with the arms of Ireland; and on the E. side are the arms of Scotland, with a cupid holding a thistle; all done in relieve, by Gibbon. In this area, merchants and men of business meet every day at change hours; and for the more regular and readier dispatch of business, they dispose of themselves into separate walks. In building this expensive structure, not only magnificence, and convenience, but also œconomy, were consulted. A gallery was built over the 4 sides of the royal exchange, divided into 200 shops, which were let out to haberdashers, milli-

ners, &c. and which for several years occupied. But these galleries are now the Royal Exchange Assurance-office, the merchant-seamens office, the Marine Societioncers, &c. Under the whole area the finest dry vaults that can be found, which are let out to the East India company the turret is a good clock with 4 dials, regulated every day, so that it is a standard to all the mercantile part of the town; and with chimes at 3, 6, 9, and 12 o'clock upon 12 bells. The outside of this gallery suffers very much in appearance, from that surround it, and are built within, and which are occupied by bookfellers, cutlers, hosiery, watchmakers, &c.

(26.) LONDON, ST PAUL'S CATHEDRAL Farringdon-ward Within, is distinguished most magnificent Protestant church in the cathedral of *St Paul*. Sir Christophorus opinion that there had been a church on built by the Christians in the time of the was confirmed, when he searched for so for his own design; by discovering the original semicircular chancel of the old. They consisted of Kentish rubble stone, dated with exceedingly hard mortar, in man manner, much excelling the super. He explodes the notion of there having a temple of Diana. The first church is to have been destroyed in the Dioclesian tion, and to have been rebuilt under C. This was again demolished by the pagan and restored, in 603, by Seburt, a pet under Ethelbert king of Kent, the first monarch of the Saxon race; who, at the of St Augustine, appointed Melitus the fi of London. Erkenwald, the son of k 4th in succession from Melitus, ornam cathedral very highly, and improved the with his own patrimony. When Lor burnt in 1086, this church was rebuilt, Mauritius laid the foundations, which till its 2d destruction, in 1666. Thoug tius lived 20 years after he had begun it and Bp. Beauvages enjoyed the see 20 n such was the grandeur of the design, it remained unfinished. The style of the a cathedral was a most beautiful Gothic; ov end was an elegant circular window; the central tower rose a lofty and most spire. The dimensions, as taken in 1 these: The length 690 feet; the brea the height of the roof of the W. part, floor, 102; of the E. part, 188; of th 260; of the spire, which was made of v vered with lead, 274. The whole spac acres and a half, 1 rood and a half, and 6 The high altar dazzled with gems and g gifts of its numerous votaries. John France, when prisoner in England, fir his respects to St Erkenwald's shrine, basons of gold; and the gifts at the ob princes, foreign and British, were of im lue. On the day of the conversion of ti faint, the charities were prodigious, wh indulgence of 40 days pardon was given, *tentibus, contritis et confectis*; and, by

II. 1500 tapers were placed in the church, 1000 poor people fed in the church-yard. The holiness of this place did not prevent and profligates from lurking within the walls, and committing murders and every sort of crime. Edward I. permitted the dean and chapter to inclose the whole within a wall; and gates to exclude disorderly people.— These walls, on the NW. side, was the bishop's palace. Froissart tells us, that after the ornament in Smithfield, Edward III. and his queen lodged here, on occasion of their nuptials in 1361, the noble spire was totally burnt down, and never restored. In consequence of resolutions taken in 1620, by James I. to recathedralize the celebrated Inigo Jones was directed to the work. But it was not attempted, when Laud laid the first stone, and Inigo Jones

That great architect began with a most improper propriety, giving to the W. end a front of the Corinthian order, beautiful indeed, and in the style of the gothic pile; and to the ends of the transepts, gothic fronts in a most horrible manner. The great fire made way for restoring this ancient pile in its present noble form by Sir Christopher Wren, an architect worthy of so noble a design. It is built of fine Portland stone, of a cross. On the outside are two ranges of columns, consisting of 120 each; the lower of the Corinthian order, and the upper of the Composite. The spaces between the arches and windows and the architrave of the lower range are filled with a great variety of curious sculptures, as are also those above. On the N. portico, the ascent to which is by 22 steps of marble, and its dome supported by six Ionic columns. Over the dome is a pedimental face of which is engraved with the royal regalia, and other ornaments. On the S. portico, the ascent to which is by 25 steps, is a dome supported by 6 columns, corresponding to those on the N. side. The W. front has a magnificent portico, supported by 12 lofty Doric columns; over these are 8 columns of the Composite order, which support a noble pediment adorned with its acroteria, and in this pediment is a representation of St Paul's conversion, carved in bas relief. The ascent to this portico is by a flight of steps of black marble, extending the whole length of the portico; and the corner of the W. front is a beautiful turban dome, or cupola, rises in the centre of the building: 20 feet above the church is a circle of 32 columns with niches, placed exactly like others within; and terminated by a balustrade, which supports a handsome pediment adorned with a stone balustrade. Above this is a range of pilasters, with windows; and from the entablature of these, the height of the dome gradually decreases. On the summit of the dome is an elegant balcony, the centre of which runs a beautiful lantern adorned with Corinthian columns. The lantern is crowned with a copper ball, supporting a clock finely gilt. Within, the cupola stands on four enormous pillars, curiously adorned: the choir is supported by 6 pillars, and the church by two ranges, consisting of 20

more. The roof of the church and choir is adorned with arches and spacious peripheries of enrichments, admirably carved in stone. Quite round the inside of the cupola, there is a whispering iron balcony, or gallery, the top of which is richly painted by Sir James Thornhill. The first stone of this superb edifice was laid on June 21, 1675; and the building was completed in 1710; but the whole decorations were not finished till 1723. It was a most singular circumstance, that, notwithstanding it was 35 years in building, during which a revolution intervened, it was begun and finished by one architect, and under one prelate, Henry Compton, Bp. of London. The church of St Peter's was 135 years in building, in the reigns of 19 popes, and went through the hands of 12 architects. It is not, as has been said, built after the model of that famous temple: it is the entire conception of our great countryman, and has been preferred in some respects, by a judicious writer, to even the Roman Basilica. Its dimensions are less. The comparative view is given in the Parentalia, and copied in London and its Environs. The height of St Peter's, to the top of the cross, is 437½ feet; that of St Paul's 340 feet; so that, from its situation, it is lofty enough to be seen from the sea. The length of the first is 729 feet; of the latter, 500. The greatest breadth of St Peter's is 364; of St Paul's, 180. In the reigns of James I. and Charles I. the body of this cathedral was the common resort of the politicians, the newsmongers, and the idle in general. It was called *Paul's walk*; and is mentioned in the old plays, &c. of the times. Notwithstanding the magnificence of this noble pile, its defects have been remarked. Its situation is such, that it cannot be viewed at a distance. The division of the porticos, and the whole structure into two stories on the outside, indicate a like division within. The dome bears too great a proportion to the rest of the pile, and ought to have been raised exactly in the centre of the building; and there ought to have been two steeples at the E. end, to correspond with those at the W. On entering this church, we instantly perceive an obvious deficiency, not only of elevation but length, to assist the perspective; and the columns are heavy and clumsy, rather incumbering the prospect than enriching it. St Paul's occupies an area of 6 acres, and is railed all round with iron balustrades, each about 5½ feet high, fixed on a dwarf wall of hewn stone. In the W. end of this area is a marble statue of Q. Anne, holding a sceptre and globe, surrounded with 4 emblematical figures, representing Great Britain, France, Ireland, and America. Besides very large contributions for carrying on this edifice, the parliament granted a duty on sea-coal, which, at a medium, produced 5000l. a-year; and the whole expense of the building is said to have amounted to 736,752l. 2s. 3d.

(27.) LONDON, SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, &c. IN. There are 3 colleges, 8 public free schools, and 131 charity schools; wherein above 5000 poor children are educated. In Dowgate ward is a noted academy, called *Merchant-Taylor's School*, founded by the merchant-taylor's company, in 1651. It was burnt in 1666, but since rebuilt; and is a

very large structure, with commodious apartments for the masters and ushers, and a fine library. Sir Thomas White, lord mayor, having founded St John's college in Oxford in 1557, appointed this school as a seminary for it, and established at Oxford 46 fellowships for scholars elected from this school. In Cripplegate ward is a college, called *Sion College*, founded in 1627, on the site of Elsing hospital or priory, by Dr Thomas White vicar of St Dunstan's in the West, for the improvement of the London clergy; and with alms houses, under their care, for 20 poor persons, 10 men and 10 women. In 1631, the clergy of London were constituted fellows of the college; and from them are annually elected, on Tuesday 3 weeks after Easter, a president, two deans and 4 assistants, who meet quarterly, to hear a Latin sermon, and dine in the college hall. John Simpson rector of St Olaves, who superintended the building, added, at his own expence, a library 120 feet long, and amply filled with books. On the E. side of St Paul's cathedral is *St Paul's School*, founded in 1509 by Dr John Collett dean of this church, who endowed it for a master, an under master, a chaplain, and 153 scholars. In Warwick lane, stands the *College of Physicians*, erected in 1682 by Sir C. Wren. It is built of brick, and has a spacious stone frontispiece. Near the S. extremity of the Old Bailey, on the E. side, is the hall of the Company of Surgeons, with a theatre for dissection. In Castle Baynard ward is a large structure called *Doctors Commons*. It consists of several handsome paved courts, in which the judges of the court of admiralty, those of the court of delegates, of the court of arches, and the prerogative court, with the doctors that plead causes, and the proctors of the place, all live in a collegiate way; and from communing together, as in other colleges, the name of Doctors Commons is derived. Here courts are kept for the trial of civil and ecclesiastical causes under the Abp. of Canterbury and the Bp. of London. The college has an excellent library, every bishop at his consecration giving 20l. or 50l. towards purchasing books for it. Near Doctors Commons, on St Bennet's Hill, is the *College of Heralds*. See HERALDS, § 3. This building, originally the house of the earl of Derby, is a spacious quadrangle built of brick, and has convenient apartments. Here are kept records of the coats of arms of all the families and names in England.

(18.) LONDON, TOWER OF. The Tower stands E. of the Bridge and Monument. (§ 18, 2.) It is the chief-fortress of the city, and supposed to have been built by William the Conqueror, in 1066. It appears, however, to have been raised upon the remains of a more ancient fortress, erected probably by the Romans; for in 1720, in digging on the S. side of what is called *Cæsar's Chapel*, there were discovered some old foundations of stone, 3 yards broad, and so strongly cemented that it was with the utmost difficulty they were forced up. The great square tower, called the *White Tower*, was erected in 1078, under the direction of Gundulph Bp. of Rochester. This building originally stood by itself. Fitzstephen gives it the name of *Are Palatine*, or *the Palatine Tower*; the commander of which had the title of

Palatine. Within this tower is a very ancient chapel appropriated to the devotions of the king and queens. In 1092 a violent tempest did injury to the Tower; but it was repaired by William II. and Henry I. The former added castellated building on the S. side, between the Thames, afterwards called *St Thomas's Tower*. The Tower was first inclosed by Williamchamp, Bp. of Ely and chancellor under Henry I. who surrounded the whole with walls and made on the outside a vast ditch, into which in after times, water from the Thames was introduced. Different princes added other works present extent within the walls is 12 acre rods, the circuit on the outside of the ditch. The *Lions Tower*, originally called *quark*, was built by Ed. IV. Henry I. had a nagerie at his manor of Woodstock, where lions, leopards, lynxes, porcupines, and other wild animals, which were afterwards removed to the Tower. The royal menagerie is excellently well supplied. In 1738 the Tower ditch was filled all round. New barracks were some years ago erected on the Tower wharf, which part of the river; and upon the wharf is a line of pieces of cannon, which are fired upon state occasions. On this side of the Tower the ditch is filled and over it is a draw-bridge. Parallel to the wharf, within the walls, is a platform 70 feet length, called the *Ladies Line*, as it is frequented by ladies in summer, being shaded inside with a row of lofty trees; and will afford a delightful prospect of the shipping on the river. The ascent to this line is by stone steps, and once upon it one may walk almost round the tower without interruption. The principal entrance into the Tower is by a gate W. large enough to admit coaches and barges; but these are first admitted through the outward gate, situated without the ditch, and must pass a stout stone-bridge over the ditch before they can approach the principal entrance. There is, besides, an entrance SW. corner of the Tower outward wall, for footmen on foot, over the draw-bridge to the river. There is also a water-gate, commonly called *Traitor's gate*, through which traitors and state-prisoners are conveyed to or from the river, and which is seldom opened on any occasion; but the lords committed to the Tower in 1746 were admitted at the main entrance. This gate is a regular building, terminated at each end by two round towers, on which are fixed the infirmary, the mill, and the water-wheel to supply the Tower with water. In the Tower is a church, the offices of ordnance and of the mint, which comprehends near one third of the whole. There are also the offices of the keepers of the records, of the office, of the Spanish armoury, the hospital, and the new or small armoury; with barracks for the soldiers of the garrison, and a bandon for several officers who reside here. The principal officers of the Tower are, a constable, a lieutenant, and a deputy lieutenant. Eleven belong to this fortress; the militia of the Tower is 400 men, are obeyed, at the command of the constable of the Tower, to repair

and reinforce the garrison. It would swell this title beyond all due bounds, to give a description of all the curiosities in this ancient repository: the relics of royal magnificence. We shall therefore only give a very brief sketch of them. The first object of curiosity shown to strangers is the wild beasts. The next is the Mint, which comprehends about one 3d of the Tower. The next is the *White Tower* built by William I. a large square stone building nearly in the centre, containing a great variety of warlike engines; a complete set of arms for 10,000 seamen; various models of new invented engines of destruction; and the memorable spoils of the *invincible Spanish Armada*. On the NW. of the White Tower is the Grand Store-house, 245 feet long and 60 feet broad; containing what is called a *wilderness of arms*, for 80,000 men, all bright and fit for service, ranged in order. This grand store-house was begun by James II, and finished by William III. The horse armour contains a representation of the kings and heroes of England, in their like accoutrements, some of them on horseback. About 20 yards E. of the grand store-room, the Royal Jewels are deposited in a dark flag stone room; viz. 1. The imperial crown used at the coronation of the kings, made of gold and enriched with diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires, and pearls: the cap within is of purple velvet, lined with taffety and turned up with ermine. 2. The golden globe, put into the king's hand before he is crowned, enriched with precious stones. 3. The golden sceptre, with its orb upon a large amethyst set round with diamonds. 4. The sceptre and dove perched upon a Jerusalem cross, enriched with diamonds, &c. It is Edward's staff, 4 feet  $7\frac{1}{2}$  inches long, and of circumference, all of beaten gold, which is carried before the king at his coronation. 6. The crown of State, worn by the king in parliament, in which is a large emerald, 2 inches round; and is reckoned the finest in the world, and of an immense value. 7. The prince of Wales's crown. 8. The crown, globe, and sceptre, used by Mary II, with the diadem she wore at her coronation. 9. An ivory sceptre garnished with pearls, with a dove on the top, or gold enamelled white; made for K. James II's queen. 10. The *Cartana*, or *Sword of mercy*, with a blade 32 inches long, and near 2 broad, without a point; which is carried before the king at his coronation, between the two swords of justice. 11. The golden rings, and *armillas*, or bracelets for the wrists. The *AMPULLA*, or *golden eagle*, which holds holy oil, with which the monarchs are anointed, and the golden spoon into which it is poured. A salt-cellar of gold, in the form of the square tower, of most exquisite workmanship. All these are very ancient, and are used only at coronations. 14. A silver font, double gilt, elegantly wrought, in which the royal family are baptized. A large silver fountain presented to K. Charles II. by the town of Plymouth: besides all the other jewels, worn by the princes, and much antique plate. The public records are also kept in a hall, which is open for inspection, from November 1st, 9 months in the year, and from eight to ten in winter.

(29.) LONDON, TRADING COMPANIES OF. The trading part of London is divided into 89 companies; though some of them have neither charters, halls, nor liveries. Of these, 55 have each a hall for transacting the business of the corporation; and this consists of a master, or prime warden, a court of assistants, and livery.—Of these companies 12 are superior to the rest both in antiquity and wealth; and of one of those 12 the lord mayors have generally made themselves free at their election. These are the mercers, grocers, drapers, fish-mongers, goldsmiths, skinners, merchant-tailors, haberdashers, salters, iron-mongers, vintners, and clothworkers.—The principal incorporated societies of the merchants are, the *Hamburgh Company*, the *Hudson's Bay Company*, the *Russia Company*, the *Turkey Company*, the *East India Company*, the *Royal African Company*, the *South Sea Company*, and some *Insurance Companies*. Most of these companies have stately houses for transacting their business, particularly the *East India* and *South Sea companies*. See COMPANY, § IV.

(30.) LONDON, WARDS OF. See § 6.

(31.) LONDON, WATER, &c. OF. This great and populous city is happily supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable service to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with the parish officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire; for these plugs are no sooner opened, than vast quantities of water supply the engines. This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage, it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire, the premium is small, and the recovery in case of loss is easy and certain. (See INSURANCE, § 1.) Each of these offices keeps a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance in case of fire; and who are extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent.

(32.) LONDON, WEALTH AND GRANDEUR OF. Before the conflagration in 1666, LONDON was very elegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pestilential devastation. The fire which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of consequences which made ample amends for the losses sustained by individuals; a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful, than the former, yet it is ever to be regretted, that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan of the great Sir Christopher Wren, was disregarded, and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of private property; views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themselves and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, the metropolis of Great Britain would incontestably have been the most

most magnificent and elegant city in the universe, and would, of consequence, from the prodigious resort of foreigners of distinction and taste who would have visited it, have become an inexhaustible fund of riches to this nation. But though the deplorable blindness of that age deprived the nation of this valuable acquisition, London, by its modern improvements is still in a great degree rendered suitable to the character of the richest and most powerful people in the world. For although the want of regularity and uniformity in the streets of the city, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are circumstances that greatly lessen the grandeur of its appearance, yet the improvements for several years past have been very great; and the new streets, which are numerous, are spacious, and built with great regularity and elegance. The very elegant method of paving and enlightening the streets is also equally useful and ornamental. The roads are continued for several miles around upon the same model; and, exclusive of lamps regularly placed on each side, at short distances, are rendered more secure by watchmen stationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than those lights viewed at a distance, especially where the roads run across; and in the principal streets, such as Pall Mall, New Bond-street, Oxford-street, &c. London, then, in its large sense, including WESTMINSTER, SOUTHWARK, and part of MIDDLESEX, (see these articles,) forms one great metropolis, of vast extent and prodigious wealth. When considered with all its advantages, it is now what ancient Rome once was; the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the world. It is the centre of trade; has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; and is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, whence they are again sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. Hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed; and hence arises that circulation in the national body which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and prosperous. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witness their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a grand and elegant appearance, or are better stocked. The THAMES, on the banks of which London is situated, is a river which, though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce of any in the world. (See THAMES.) It is continually filled with fleets, sailing to or from distant climates; and its banks, from London-bridge to Blackwall, form almost one continued magazine of naval stores; containing 3 large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for building ships for the use of the merchants; besides the places allotted for building boats and lighters, and the king's yards lower down for building men of war. As the city is about 60 miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surpris'd by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the ocean. It rises regularly from the water side, and, extending itself

on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from E. to W. in a kind of theatre towards the N. and is continued for 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of numerous villas, populous villages, and country.

(II.) LONDON, a town of Maryland, in del county, 5 miles SW. of Annapolis.

(III.) LONDON, LITTLE, a village in near Samford Magna.

(IV.) LONDON, LITTLE, a village in Essex, S. of Hillingdon Heath.

(V.) LONDON, NEW, a county of Connecticut.

(VI.) LONDON, NEW, a sea port of Connecticut, on the W. side of the Thames, 80 NE. of New York.

(I.) LONDONDERRY, COLERAIN, or RY, a county of Ireland, in the province of Ulster. It is bounded on the S. and SW. by Donegal; on the E. by Antrim, from which it is separated by the BAN; W. and NW. by Donegal; N. by the Deucalidonian ocean. Its greatest length is about 36 miles, its breadth 30, containing about 251,510 acres. The bogs and moorlands of this county are manured with sea-sheep dung, which is generally pretty champaign, and not very fertile. It is noted for a very clear river called the *Bann*, abounding with salmon. This is distinguished from a less one of the same name called the *Greater or Lower Bann*. To cultivate and civilize this county, James I. granted a charter to a society at London; whence the name. It had two members to the imperial parliament.

(2.) LONDONDERRY, or DERRY, the chief town of the above county, and the see of a bishop at the bottom of Lough-Foyle. It has a good port, to which ships of the greatest burden have access, and a considerable trade. It has been 3 memorable sieges, which it withstood in consequence of the greatest hardships and discontents; viz. 1. In 1641, when the rebels could not reduce it either by fraud or force. 2. In 1649, when it was besieged by Lord Arden, reduced almost to extremity by famine, but relieved by troops sent from England. 3. In 1688, it held out against the French and Irish from 7th Dec. 1688 to the 31st July 1689, though it was neither well fortified nor provided with provisions or stores, and hardly any attempt was made to relieve it during so long a time. Though the city is 20 miles up the Foyle yet very large ships can come up to the quay, where there are 10 fathoms of water. It is now well fortified with a strong wall, besides outworks; and the banks of the river are several castles and forts. This city is of no great antiquity, having been first built and planted in the reign of James I. It was first settled by the society above-mentioned (see N<sup>o</sup> 1.) Its trade is very considerable, having only a large share in the herring-fishery, bringing ships to the W. Indies, New England, and Newfoundland, for which it is more advantageously situated than London. Though there are many rivers in LOUGH-FOYLE, which serve it in the way of a road; yet they are easily avoided, as the deep channels between them. Those ports are called *Emiffone*, *Rufferbull*, or *Caldy-head*, which is a little W. of the mouth of the harbour, and is the most northerly of Ireland, lying in



nhabitants are almost all Protestants, reckoned the cleanest, best built, and most civilly situated town in Ireland; and, says Corke, as convenient as any for commerce and domestic." The lake almost entirely surrounds it; and the whole ground plot of it belongs to the 12 great companies. Great quantities of salmon, salted, are exported hence to America.

**DONDERRY**, a town of New Hampshire, in Rockingham county, 30 miles WSW. of Portsmouth, and 48½ from Philadelphia.

**DONDERRY**, a township of Nova Scotia, in Cumberland county, on the N. side of the Cobequid mountains, settled by emigrants from Scotland and

**DONDONDERRY**, 2 townships of Pennsylvania, in Berks and Dauphin counties.

**DONDERRY**, a township of Vermont, in Franklin county; 33 miles NE. of Bennington.

**DONDERRY-GROVE**, a township of Pennsylvania.

**DONNE**, *adj.* [contracted from *alone*.] 1. Solitary; having no company.—  
The lone hour a blank of life displays.

*Savage.*  
vanish sceptres, coronets and balls,  
And you in lone woods, or empty walls.

*Pope.*  
not conjoin'd or neighbouring to others.  
In a house in Wales, with a mountain and  
is more contemplative than this court.

**DONNA**, a town of Sardinia, 22 m. E. of Bosa.  
**DONNELLY**, *n. f.* [from *lonely*.] 1. Solitude; solitude.  
company.—The huge and sportful assembly  
to him a tedious loneliness. *Sidney.* 2.  
to solitude.—

I see  
solitude of your loneliness. *Shakespeare.*  
**DONNELLY**, *adj.* [from *lone*.] 1. Solitary.—  
I go alone,

a lonely dragon. *Shakespeare.*

Why thus close up the stars  
in nature hung in heav'n, and fill'd their  
eyes

perlasting oil, to give due light  
to mist and lonely traveller? *Milton.*  
has made you dote, and vainly tell  
of imagin'd, in your lonely cell. *Dryden.*  
led to solitude.—

When, fairest princess,  
I fly thus from the full court retire,  
And find the graces follow. *Rowe.*

**DONNELLY**, *n. f.* [from *lone*.] Solitude; solitude; solitude.  
company.—

court life you knew the good,  
I could leave loneliness. *Donne.*  
I love her who loves loneliness best. *Donne.*  
**DONNELLY**, *adj.* [from *lone*.] Solitary; solitude.

What a dreadful face will nature wear?  
And how will these loneliness seats appear?

*Blackmore.*  
**DONNENFELD**, a town of Austria.

**DONNÉ**, James LE, a French writer of the 17th century, born at Paris in 1665. He was a member of the Académie Française, and librarian of St Honoré. *ed.* 1. *Bibliotheca Sacra*; 2 vols. folio,

1723; 2. *Bibliothèque de la France*; fol. 3. A historical Discourse on Polyglott Bibles. He died at Paris in 1721.

(2.) **LONG**, Roger, D. D. a native of Norfolk-shire, was educated at Cambridge; where he became master of Pembroke-hall, and Lowndes's professor of astronomy. He was also rector of Cherryhinton in Huntingdonshire, and of Bradwell juxta mare in Essex; and was author of a Treatise of Astronomy, and the inventor of a very curious astronomical machine, thus described by himself: "I have, in a room lately built in Pembroke-hall, erected a sphere of 18 feet diameter, wherein above 30 persons may fit conveniently; the entrance into it is over the south pole by six steps; the frame of the sphere consists of a number of iron meridians, not complete semicircles, the northern ends of which are screwed to a large round plate of brass, with an hole in the centre of it; through this hole, from a beam in the ceiling, comes the north pole, a round iron rod, about three inches long, and supports the upper parts of the sphere to its proper elevation for the latitude of Cambridge; the lower part of the sphere, so much of it as is invisible in England, is cut off; and the lower or southern ends of the meridians, or truncated semicircles, terminate on, and are screwed down to, a strong circle of oak, of about 13 feet diameter; which, when the sphere is put into motion, runs upon large rollers of lignum vitæ, in the manner that the tops of some windmills are made to turn round. Upon the iron meridians is fixed a zodiac of tin painted blue, whereon the ecliptic and heliocentric orbits of the planets are drawn, and the constellations and stars traced: the Great and Little Bear and Draco are already painted in their places round the north pole; the rest of the constellations are proposed to follow: the whole is turned round with a small winch, with as little labour as it takes to wind up a jack, though the weight of the iron, tin, and wooden circle, is about 1000 lb. When made use of, a planetarium will be placed in the middle. The whole, with the floor, is well supported by a frame of large timber." This curious piece of mechanism has been since perfected; all the constellations and stars of the northern hemisphere, visible at Cambridge, are painted in their proper places upon plates of iron joined together, which form one concave surface. Dr Long published a Commencement Sermon in 1728; and an answer to Dr Galley's pamphlet on Greek Accents. He died Dec. 16th 1770, aged 91.

(3.) \* **LONG**, *adj.* [*long*, French; *longus*, Latin.] 1. Not short: used of time.—He talk'd a long while, even till break of day. *Acts* xx.—He was desirous to see him of a long season. *Luke* xxiii. 2. Not short: used of space.—Emp'ress, the way is ready, and not long. *Milton.* 3. Having one of its geometrical dimensions in a greater degree than either of the other.—His branches became long because of the waters. *Ezek.*—We made the trial in a long neck'd phial left open at the top. *Boyle.* 4. Of any certain measure in length.—Women eat their children of a span long. *Lam.* ii. 20.—

These, as a line, their long dimensions drew,  
Stretching the ground with sinuous trace. *Milt.*  
The

The fig-tree spreads her arms,  
Branching so broad and long. *Milton.*  
A pond'rous mace,

Full twenty cubits long, he swings around. *Pope.*  
5. Not soon ceasing, or at an end.—Man goeth to his long home. *Ecclef. xii. 5.*—Honour thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long upon the land. *Exodus xx. 12.*—

They open to themselves at length a way  
Up hither under long obedience try'd. *Milton.*  
Him after long debate of thoughts revol'd  
Irresolute, his final sentence chose. *Milton.*  
Long and ceaseless his.

6. Dilatory.—Death will not be long in coming, and the covenant of the grave is not shewed unto thee. *Ecclef. xiv. 12.* 7. Tedious in narration.—Chief man'ry to dissect,

With long and tedious havock, fabled knights. *Milton.*  
Reduce, my muse, the wand'ring song,  
A tale should never be too long. *Prior.*

8. Continued by succession to a great series.—  
But first a long succession must ensue. *Milton.*  
9. [From the verb, *To long.*] Longing; desirous; or perhaps, long continued, from the disposition to continue looking at any thing desired.—Praying for him, and casting a long look that way, he saw the galley leave the pursuit. *Sidney.*—

Yet he but doubts, and parries, and casts out  
Many a long look for succour. *Dryden.*  
10. [In music and pronunciation.] Protracted; as, a long note, a long syllable.

(4.) \* LONG, adv. 1. To a great length in space.  
The marble brought, erects the spacious dome,  
Or forms the pillars long-extended rows. *Prior.*

2. Not for a short time.—  
With mighty barres of long-enduring brass. *Vaisfix.*

—When the trumpet soundeth long, they shall  
come up to the mount. *Exodus xix. 13.*—  
The martial Aeneas

Resum'd the long forgotten shield. *Dryden.*  
—One of these advantages, which Cernieus has  
laid down, is the making choice of some signal  
and long-expected day, whereon the action of the  
play is to depend. *Dryden.*—

So stood the pious prince unmov'd, and long  
Sustain'd the madness of the noisy throng. *Dryd.*  
The muse resumes her long-forgotten lays,  
And love, restor'd, his ancient realm serves us. *Dryden.*

—No man has complained that you have discour-  
sed too long on any subject, for you leave us in an  
eagerness of learning more. *Dryden.*—

The realm of Candahar for dow'r I brought,  
That long-contended prize for which you fought. *Dryden.*

—It may help to put an end to that long-agitated  
and unresolvable question, whether man's will be  
free or no? *Locke.*—

It av'n restores  
To thy fond wish the long-expected shores. *Pope.*  
3. In the comparative, it signifies for more time; and in the superlative, for most time.—When he could not longer hide him, she took for him an ark of bulrushes. *Exodus ii. 3.*—Eldst parents signifies either the eldest men and women that have had children, or those who have long had issue.

*Locke.* 4. Not soon.—Not long after the  
against it a tempestuous wind. *Acts xxvi.*  
At a point of duration far distant.—If it  
had been eternal, those would have been  
it, and generally spread long ago, and be  
memory of all ages. *Tillotson.*—

Say, that you once were virtuous &  
A frugal, hardy people. *Philips.*  
6. [For along; au long, Fr.] All along;  
out: of time.—

Them among  
There sat a man of ripe and perfect age  
Who did them meditate all his life long  
Some say, that ever gainst that feast  
Wherein our Saviour's birth is celebr  
The bird of dawning singeth all night  
*Shal.*

—He fed me all my life long to this c  
xlvi. 15.—Forty years long was I grow  
this generation. *Psalms.*

(5.) \* LONG, adv. [gelang, a fault, Sa  
the fault; by the failure. A word now  
use, but truly English.—Respective and  
had rather seek quietly their own, and  
the world may go well, so it be not long  
than with pains and hazard make them  
visers for the common good. *Hooker.*—

Maine, Blois, Poitiers, and Tours  
away,  
Long all of Somerset, and his delay.

Mistress, all this coil is long of you.  
—If we owe it to him that we know fo  
is perhaps long of his fond adopers that  
so little more. *Glanv.*

(6, 7.) LONG, in geography, 2 towns:  
in the provinces of Quang-si and Chen-si  
\* To LONG, v. n. [gelangen, German  
*Slimmer.*] To desire earnestly; to wish  
germs continued: with *for* or *after* a  
thing desired.—

Fresh expectation troubled not the  
With any long for change, or better it  
—And time eyes shall look, and sail will  
for them. *Dant.* xxviii. 32.—

If caus'd he wished, now he long'd fore.  
—The great master perceived, that K  
the place the Turkish tyrant long'd after

If the report be good, it causeth joy  
And longing hope, and well assured joy  
His sons, who seek the tyrant to ruin  
And long for arbitrary lords again,  
He dooms to death deserv'd.

Glad of the gift, the new-made war  
And arms among the Greeks, and lon  
qual fees.

Else whence this pleasing hope, this  
fire,  
This longing after immortality?

There's the tie that binds  
You long to call him father: Marcell's  
Work in your heart unken, and plea  
to.

—Nicomedes, longing for herring, was  
with such ones by his cook, at a great  
from the fish. *Arundel.*—

Through stormy f.  
I courted dangers, and I long'd for de  
A.

**NIMITY.** *n. f.* [*longanimitas*, Lat.] Forbearance; patience of offence. — Patience of Job, as it was of Moses, and surely had mastered the *longanimitas* and lasting sufferings. *Brown.*—That innocent and honest rather go clad in the snowy white robes and *longanimitas*, than in the red of blood. *Hoswel.*

**ES,** a town of Naples, in Calabria.  
**ES,** a town of Spain, in Arragon.  
**ES,** 3 bays of Jamaica, on the E. W. of the Island.

**LONGBOAT.** *n. f.* The largest boat or ship.—At the first descent on shore, the landing in his *longboat*. They first betray their masters, and then the vessel sinking, save themselves. *L'Esfrange.*

**LONG-BOAT** is principally employed for burdens, as anchors, cables, ballast, &c. *BOAT*, § II.

**CHAMP,** a town of France, in the dep. of Marne; 12 miles E. of Chaumont.  
**CHAMP,** a town of France, in the dep. of Marne; 3 miles W. of Paris.

**CHAMPS,** a town of France, in the dep. of Marne; 4 miles NNE. of Epinal.

**CHAMP,** a town of Salop, near Drayton. A territory of the ci-devant Austrian Empire now included in the French republic of the Ourte.

**CHAMP,** a town of France in the dep. of Marne; 6 miles S. of Langres.

**CHAMP,** a town of France, in the dep. of Marne and Loire, near the Doubs; 16½ miles S. of Chalons.

**CHAMP,** a town of Africa, in Loango.

**CHAMP,** a town of France, in the dep. of Marne; 4½ miles ESE. of Boulay.

**CHAMP,** a town of France, in the dep. of Marne; 15 miles SSW. of St

**LONGEVITY.** *n. f.* [*longævus*, Latin.] — That those are countries suitable for the habitation of man, and convenient to live in, where the *longevity* of the natives. *Roy.* — The *longevity* are chiefly amongst the *Arbuthnots*.

**LONGEVITY.** Immediately after the creation of the world was to be peopled by one woman, the ordinary age was 900

(See **ANTEDILUVIANS**, § 4, 10.) After the flood, when there were 3000 years, the world, their age was cut down to one of those patriarchs, but Shem, lived 900 years.

In the 2d century we find none lived 100 years; in the 3d none but Terah that lived 206 years; the world, at least a part of it, was not so well peopled, that they were not so long lived, and were cut down into different degrees.

By degrees, as the number of people increased, their *longevity* dwindled, till it was reduced to 70 or 80 years: and there it stood till the time of the flood.

**LONGEVITY, ANCIENT AND MODERN IN PART II.**

**LONGEVITY.** That the common duration of man's life has been the same in all ages since the above period, is plain both from sacred and profane history. Yet instances of lives greatly exceeding that period, are not only to be found in the history of all ages and countries, but even in our own country and in the present age. Mr Whitehurst, in his *Inquiry into the Origin and Strata of the Earth*, has given a list (since enlarged by Dr Fothergill,) of 32 persons, who died between 1635 and 1781, all of whom had lived above a century, most of them considerably longer, and one who was living in 1780, had attained the astonishing age of 175! Lord Bacon assures us from the most incontestable evidence, that in A. D. 76, when a general taxation was made over the Roman empire, by Vespasian, there were found living in Italy, between the Appennines and the Po, no fewer than 124 persons aged 100 and upwards. Of these 54 were 100 years old; 57 were 110; two 125; four 130; four 136; and three 140 years old each: besides 19 others in Parma, Placentia, Faventia, Kimino, &c. of whom six were 110 years old, seven 120, one 125, two 130, one 131, one 132, and one 150! And in our own age and country, *Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account* affords numerous and authentic evidences, that *longevity* is far from being uncommon. In proof of this we might, if room permitted, give quotations from above 400 of the 918 parochial accounts in that work; but we shall content ourselves with only one from that of Crossmichael in Galloway:—"Within these 20 years (says the rev. J. Johnstone) at least 12 persons have died in the lower parts of Galloway, from 100 to 115 years old. William Marshall a tinker in this place, is now 118. He might pass for 60: His faculties are unimpaired, and he walks through the country with ease." (*Vol. I. p. 168.*) From the various instances of *longevity* given by Mr Whitehurst and others; we shall only select a few of the most remarkable:

Names.	Ages.	Places of birth or abode.	Living or dead about.
Hippocrates	104	Isle of Coos	A. A. C. 358
Democritus	109	Abdera	361
Galen	140	Pergamus	A. D. 271
Marcus Aponius	150	Rimino	
Titus Fullonius	150	Bononia	
Mark Albuna	150	Ethiopia	
Lewis Cornaro	100	Venice	1566
Thomas Parre	152	Shropshire	1635
James Bowles	152	Killingworth	1656
Henry Jenkins	169	Yorkshire	1670
Robert Montgomery	126	Yorkshire	1670
James Sands	140	Staffordshire	
Countess of Desmond	140	Ireland	
Countess of Egleston	143	Ireland	1692
Margaret Scott	125	Dalkeith	
R. Blakeney, Esq.	114	Armagh	
Mary of Winchester	106	Hampshire	
Kath. M'Kenzie	117	Fowlis, Ross-sh.	
Col. T. Winflow	146	Ireland	1766

Names.	Ages.	Places of birth or abode.	Living or dead about.
John Mount	136	Scotland	A. D. 1766
Francis Conflit	150	Yorkshire	1768
Francis Bons	121	France	1769
C. J. Drakenberg	146	Norway	1770
Kenneth Munro of Inveran	100	Kiltearn, Ross-sh.	1775
Marg. Pattou	138	Lochwinnoch	
Mary Yates	128	Shropshire	1776
A. Goldsmith	140	France	1776
Countess of Loudoun	100	Loudoun	1779
M. Laurence	140	Orkney	
Janet Taylor	108	Fintray	1780
Louisa Truxo, a negress	175	{ Tucoinea } { S. America }	1780
Jane Reeves	103	Essex	1781
Evan Williams	145	Carmarthenshire	1782
John Wilson	116	Suffolk	1782
J. Brown, Esq;	107	Fowlis, Ross-sh.	1782
Alex. Ewart	104	Dumfries-shire	1789
John Jacobs	121	Mount Jura	1790
Helen Gray	105	Fife-shire	1791
Matthew Tait	123	Ayr-shire	1792
Donald M'Leod	104	Isle of Sky	1792
Tho. Garrick	108	Fife-shire	1792

(4.) LONGEVITY, CAUSES OF. Although longevity evidently prevails more in certain districts than in others, yet it is by no means confined to any particular nation or climate; for instances of it are to be found in almost every quarter of the globe. Longevity does not depend, so much as has been supposed, on any particular climate, situation, or occupation in life: for it often prevails in places where all these are extremely dissimilar; and it would, moreover, be difficult, in the histories of a number of different persons remarkable for longevity, to find any circumstance common to them all, except perhaps, that of being born of healthy parents, and of being inured to daily labour, temperance, and simplicity of diet. Among the inferior ranks of mankind, therefore, we find the most numerous instances of longevity; even frequently, when other external circumstances are extremely unfavourable: as in the case of the poor sexton of Peterborough, who, notwithstanding his unpromising occupation among dead bodies, lived long enough to bury two crowned heads, and to survive two complete generations. The almoner of Henry Jenkins and old Parr, is said to have subsisted chiefly of the coarsest fare, as they depended on precarious alms. Agnes Milbourne, after bringing forth a numerous offspring, and being obliged, through extreme indigence, to pass the latter part of her life in St Luke's workhouse, yet reached her 106th year in that sordid and unfriendly situation. The plain diet and invigorating employments of a country life are generally reckoned highly conducive to health and longevity; yet it has been justly remarked, that "the employment of the husbandman is not the most favourable for a very advanced life. Engaged in incessant toils, driven often from the extremity of heat to cold, exposed to all the inclemencies of the elements; these wear out the best constitutions; and extreme old age is to be ascribed more to the uncommon strength of stamina than to fine

air or climate." (Sir John Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* Vol. xvi. p. 302.) But it is allowed on a large scale, that the luxury and refinements of large cities are destructive to the human species; and that moderation alone, perhaps, more than counteracts all the boasted privileges of a city life. It is not luxury alone that shortens human life in cities. The want of pure air is a most important cause. Upon a general glance through Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* we have observed that parishes which are most remarkable for the purity of their inhabitants, are also remarkable only for purity of air, but even many of these are subject to occasional high winds. See § 5.

(5.) LONGEVITY, CIRCUMSTANCES TO PROMOTE, OR PREVENT. Every thing is most essentially necessary to life, may be comprised under the six following heads: 1. Climate; 2. Meat and drink; 3. Motion; 4. The secretions and excretions; 5. Sleep; 6. Affections of the mind. 1. Climate. The vivifying principle contained in the atmosphere, so essential to the support of animal life, concerning which authors have proposed so many conjectures, appears to be nothing else but that pure fluid discovered by the ingenious Dr Priestley, and erroneously by him denominated *dephlogisticated air*, but more accurately by the great Lavoisier, *OXYGENOUS AIR*. See *CHEMISTRY, Index*. The common atmospheric air is doubtless more or less healthy in proportion as it abounds with this animating principle. Oxygenous air exhales in copious streams from the leaves of all kinds of vegetables, even from the most poisonous kind, we may conclude as one cause, why instances of longevity are more frequent in the country than in the city, where the atmospheric air, instead of being impregnated with this salutary impregnation, is contaminated with noxious animal effluvia and gas. See *CHEMISTRY, Ind.* With respect to various observations prove, that those regions lie within the temperate zones are best calculated to promote long life. Hence, perhaps, may be explained, why Italy has produced so many long-lived persons, and why islands in general are more fertile than continents; of which Bermudas and others afford examples. And our own islands, liable to many sudden vicissitudes, afford instances of longevity than could well be expected. (See § 3.) Mr Whitehurst assures us, from facts, that Englishmen are in general longer lived than North Americans; and that a British constitution will last longer, even in that climate, than a native one. And Mr Wilkie has proved that the man's chance for long life is superior to that of an Englishman. (See *ANNUITIES, &c.*) In general it must be allowed, that the human constitution is adapted to the peculiar state of temperature of each respective climate, so that no part of the habitable globe can be pronounced to be either too hot or too cold for its inhabitants. Yet to promote a friendly intercourse between remote regions, the Author of nature has enabled the inhabitants to endure great and frequent changes of temperature without inconvenience. 2. Though food and drink of the most simple kinds, are allowed to be the

abled for supporting the body in health, yet it is hardly to be doubted but variety may be safely indulged occasionally, if men would not exceed the bounds of temperance. (See FOOD, § 4—6.)

4. *Motion and rest, sleep and watching.* It followed on all hands, that alternate motion and sleep and watching, are necessary to health and longevity; and that they ought to be adapted to age, temperament, constitution, temperature of the climate, &c.; but the errors which mankind daily commit in these respects become a fruitful source of diseases. While some are bloated and relaxed with ease and indolence, others are wasted, and become rigid by hard labour, and want of sleep and fatigues. 5. *Secretions and excretions.* Where the animal functions are duly performed, secretions go on regularly; and the different evacuations so exactly correspond to the quantity of food taken in, in a given time, that the body is found to return daily to nearly the same weight. If any particular evacuation happen to be preternaturally diminished, some other evacuation is proportionally augmented, and the equilibrium is not only preserved; but continued irregularities, in these important functions, cannot but terminate in disease. 6. *Affections of the mind.* The due regulation of the passions, perhaps, contributes more to health and longevity, than that of any other of the NON-NATURALS, as physicians absurdly pretend to them. The animating passions, such as hope, love, &c. when kept within proper bounds, gently excite the nervous influence, promote an equable circulation, and are highly conducive to health; while the depressing affections, such as fear, grief, and despair, produce the converse effect, and lay the foundation of the most dreadful diseases. There is reason to believe, that longevity is often in a great measure hereditary; and that healthy long-lived parents would not only transmit longevity and health to their children, but did not the frequent errors in the non-natural daily shorten human life. From these errors, and the unnatural modes of living, nearly all of the children born in the capital of Europe, die in infancy. Such an amazing number of premature deaths is not to be found among savage nations, or among the young of other animals! Man seems naturally destined to live in the sun, to spend a large portion of his life in the open air, to inure his body to rough exercises and the inclemency of the seasons, to make a plain repast when hunger dictates, and to lead the patriarchal life. But art and luxury have defeated the plan of nature; and by enslaving man to all the blandishments of sense, has rendered him an easy victim to vice and disease. To regulate the various abuses which take place in infancy, and are continued through every stage of modish life, would lead us far beyond our present subject. Suffice it to observe, that they are the most among people who are the most highly civilized and refined. To compare their artificial mode of life with that of nature or even with the mode of life of long-livers in the above list, (§ 3.) might afford a very striking contrast; and at the same time supply an additional reason, why in large numbers instances of longevity are so very rare.

b) LONGEVITY, PROPOSAL FOR AN ACCURATE

INVESTIGATION OF THE CAUSES OF. As the love of life, and the desire of protracting its short span, are natural to all men, it seems to be a public duty to examine minutely into the various causes that have been considered as conducive to health and long life, and, if possible, to distinguish such circumstances as are essential to that great end, from those which are merely accidental. But here it is much to be regretted, that an accurate history of the lives of persons remarkable for longevity, so far as relates to their diet, regimen, &c. has not been faithfully handed down to us; without which it is impossible to draw the necessary inferences. It is indeed astonishing, that historians and philosophers have hitherto paid so little attention to this important subject. Were writers of abilities, to undertake a full investigation of so interesting a subject, the inquiry might prove not only curious but highly useful. To furnish materials for a history of longevity, the bills of mortality throughout the kingdom ought to be revised, and put on a better footing, agreeable to the scheme of which Manchester and Chester have already given a specimen worthy of imitation. The plan might be further improved with very little trouble, by adding a particular account of the diet and regimen of every person who dies at 90 years of age or upwards; and mentioning whether his parents were healthy, long-lived people, &c. An accurate register, thus established throughout the British dominions, would be productive of many important advantages to society, not only in a medical and philosophical, but also in a moral and political view.

(1.) LONGFORD, a county of Ireland in the province of Leinster, bounded by the counties of Leitrim and Cavan on the N. Meath on the E. and S. and Roscommon on the W. It contains 134,700 Irish plantation acres, 24 parishes, 6 baronies, and, 4 boroughs; and before the Union, returned 10 members to parliament. It now sends 2 representatives to the Imperial parliament. It has a tolerable good soil, but much encumbered with marshes; and is about 25 miles long and 16 broad.

(2.) LONGFORD, the capital of the above county, is situated on the Cromlin, which falls, a few miles below, into the Shannon. It is a borough and market town, and has a barrack for a troop of horse. It is large and well built; and in a very early age an abbey was founded here, of which St Idos, one of St Patrick's disciples, was abbot. In 1400, a fine monastery was founded for Dominican friars, by O'Ferral prince of Annaly. It being destroyed by fire, Pope Martin V. in 1429, and Eugene IV. in 1433 and 1438, granted indulgences to all who should contribute to the rebuilding of it. The church of this friary, now the parish church, is in the diocese of Ardagh. There are 4 fairs. Longford is 64 miles NW. by W. of Dublin. Lon. 8. o. W. Lat 53. 42. N.

(3—7.) LONGFORD is also the name of 5 English villages; in Derby, Gloucester, Middlesex, Salop, and Wilts.

(1.) LONGFORGAN, a parish of Scotland, in the SE. corner of Perthshire, 7 miles long, and no-where above 3½ broad, but in some places very narrow; containing about 7,000 acres all in high cultivation, bounded for 3 miles on the S. by the

Tay. The climate is mild and salubrious; the surface partly hilly; the soil fertile, and much improved by leveling, embanking, draining, &c. producing excellent crops of wheat, barley, oats, pease, potatoes, yams, linseed, turnips, clover, hay, &c. There are five orchards abounding in fruits, besides fine gardens at Castle Huntly, which produce peaches, nectarines, apricots, almonds, figs, melons, &c. These have above 300 feet of glass, and a melon-pit, 20 feet by 12, so constructed as to receive the steam from a boiler of cast iron, containing 20 gallons, built in a chamber that occupies the whole space under the melon bed. The melons thus produced are highly flavoured. The population, in 1797, was 1526; increase 241 since 1755; number of horses, 347; sheep above 400; and black cattle 900; besides calves, pigs, poultry, 8 dove-cots, and great numbers of hares, foxes, partridges, &c. Bee husbandry is much cultivated, and excellent honey produced. Servitudes are abolished, and the roads are good. Castle-Huntly is the most ancient and remarkable edifice, being seated on the point of a singular rock, in the middle of a plain, 116 feet perpendicular in height on the SW. and sloping gradually to the E. The prospect from its top is one of the grandest in Perthshire; commanding a view of the Tay for 20 miles, and of Fife and Angus shires for above 60. The parish abounds with wood, shell marl, and excellent stone quarries.

(2.) LONGFORD, a village in the above parish, occupying 23 Scots acres, on the E. corner of the Carse of Gowrie. It was erected into a burgh of barony in 1672, by Charles II, with a market and 2 fairs, on 3d Wed. of June and Oct. It contained 126 families and 650 souls, in 1756. It lies 12 miles ENE. of Perth. Lon. 3° 16' 45" W. Lat. 56° 27' 48".

LONGFOURMACUS, a hilly parish of Scotland, in Berwickshire, 12 miles long, and 6 broad. The surface is mostly covered with heath. Oats, barley, pease, clover and rye-grass, are raised on a few acres improved by lime. The air is dry, cold, and piercing. The population, in 1796, was 452, increase 53, since 1755; number of horses 70; black cattle, 200; and sheep 10,000. Some cart loads of rich copper ore have been dug up in making a road, but the mine is not wrought.

LONGHAVEN, a bay on the W. coast of Aberdeenshire, 4 miles S. of Peterhead.

\* LONGIMANOUS. *adj.* [*longuemain*, French; *longimanus*, Lat.] Longhanded; having long hands.—The villainy of this Christian exceeded the persecution of heathens, whose malice was never so longimanous as to reach the soul of their enemies, or to extend unto the exile of their elyiums. *Quarant's F. Lear Errors.*

(1.) \* LONGIMETRY. *n. f.* [*longus* and *metron*; *longimetre*, French.] The art or practice of measuring distance.—Our two eyes are like two distant stations in *imagination*, by the assistance of which the distance between two objects is measured. *Milner's math. Principles.*

(2.) LONGIMETRY is properly the art of measuring lengths, both accessible and inaccessible. See *Geometrick*, and *Trigonometrick*.

(3.) \* LONGING. *n. f.* [from *long*.] *Laracæ*

desire; continual wish.—When within I came to the degree of uncertain wish that those wishes grew to unquiet longings I would fix my thoughts upon nothing, within little varying they should end with clea. *Sidney*.—

I have a woman's longing,

An appetite that I am sick withal,

To see great Hector in the weeds of peace.—The will is left to the pursuit of negotiations, and to the removal of those which it then feels in its want of, and to alter them. *Locke*.

(2.) LONGING is a preternatural appetent woman, and in some sick persons about to recover. It is called *PICTA*, from that name, which is said to be the same disorder. It consists of a desire of things to eat and drink, and in being of one and wanting another. It is called *PICTA*, from *μαλακία*, *weakness*. Cholera and men who labour under suppressions, are very subject to this complaint, are relieved by promoting the suppressions. In general, whether this disorder served in pregnant women, in persons from an acute fever, or in those who suffer obstructions of the natural evacuation of the appetite should be indulged.

\* LONGINGLY. *adv.* [from *longing*] incessant wishes.—

To his first bias longingly he leans,  
LONGINICO, the ancient OLYMP  
LANGANICO, and OLYMPIA.

(1.) LONGINUS, Dionysius, a Greek critic of the 3d century, by whom have been born in Athens, by others. His father's name is unknown, but by whom he was allied to the celebrated Platonist youth was spent in traveling with him, which gave him an opportunity to increase his knowledge, and improve his mind. Afterwards, he fixed his residence at Athens, the greatest assiduity applied to study, published his *Treatise on the Sublime*; with his reputation to such a height, and given the Athenians such an opinion of his judgment and taste, that they made him sovereign judge of authors, and every thing was received by the public, according to his judgment. He seems to have staid at Athens a long time, here he taught the academic philosophy, among others had the famous Porphyry for pupil. But it was at length his fortune to depart from Athens, and to mix in more active life, to train up young princes to virtue and to guide the busy passions of the great to moderation; to struggle for, and at last to procure of liberty. ZENOBIUS, queen of Armenia prevailed on him to undertake the education of her sons; and he soon gained an uncommon esteem; she spent the vacant hours of her life in his conversation, and modelled her manners and conduct by his instructions; prince Sivas at war with Artaban; and fortified by his power Artaban was compelled to march upon Pontus, her capital city. Zeno wrote her a letter, in which he

ender; to which she returned an answer, up by Longinus, which filled him with resentment. The emperor laid siege to the city; the Palmyrians were at length obliged to surrender. The queen and Longinus endeavoured to escape to Persia; but were overtaken and made prisoners on the point of crossing the Euphrates. She was intimidated weakly laid the blame of losing the liberty of her country on its true author; and the brave Longinus, to the disgrace of a conqueror, was immediately executed. (See *FRANCE*.) The writings of Longinus were numerous, some on philosophical, but the greater part on critical subjects. Dr Pearce has collected 25 treatises, none of which, excepting *the Sublime*, have escaped the depredations of the East and barbarians. On this imperfect piece of antiquity the fame of Longinus is raised, who, as he expresses it—"is himself the great sublime writer." The best edition of his works is that published at Utrecht in 1694, *cum notis* &c. It has been translated into English by G. G. G.

LONGINUS. See ITALY, § 14; and LOMBARDY, § 3.

LONGIONO, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Rubicon, and late province of Romagna.

\* LONGISH, *adj.* [from *long*.] Somewhat long.

LONG ISLAND, an island of New York, separated from the continent by a narrow channel. It extends from the city of New-York 140 miles E. terminating with Montauk point; and is 100 miles broad. It is divided into 3 counties, King's, Queen's, and Suffolk. The S. side is flat land, of a light sandy soil, bordered on the sea coast with large tracts of salt marsh and meadow, extending from the W. point of the island to Southampton; and well calculated for raising Indian corn. The N. side is hilly, and of a strong-soil, adapted to grain, hay, and fruit. A ridge of hills extends from Jamaica to South-hold. Large herds of cattle feed upon Hempstead plain, in Queen's county, which is 16 miles long, from E. to W. and 7 or 8 broad. It is frequented by vast numbers of plover. Rye grows tolerably well, but most part of the plain, lies common for cattle, horses, and sheep. The island contained 32,110 citizens, and 4,839 slaves in 1795.

LONGISSIMUS DORSI. See ANATOMY, § 209.

## L O N G I T U D E.

### DEFINITIONS.

LONGITUDE is thus defined and illustrated. Dr Johnson:

LONGITUDE. *n. f.* [*longitudo*, French; *longitudo*, Latin.] 1. Length; the greatest dimension.—The ancients did determine the *longitude* of all places which were longer than broad, by the extent of their latitude. *Wotton*.—The variety of climates had their origin in mere *longitude* only; but the different parts of our bodies may be diversified in all the dimensions of solid bodies; multiplies all over and over again, and opens the fancy in a new abyss of unfathomable variety. *Bentley*.—This universal gravitation exerts a constant and uniform action by certain and fixed laws, according to quantity of matter and distance of distance, that it cannot be determined or impaired. *Bentley*. 2. The circumference of the earth measured from any meridian. Some of Magellanus's company were the first who did compass the world through all the degrees of *longitude*. *Abbot*. 3. The distance of any place from the east or west of any

other place, or westward, counted in degrees upon the equator; but when the distance is reckoned by leagues or miles, and not in degrees, or in degrees on the meridian, and not of the parallel of latitude, in which case it includes both latitude and longitude, it is called *departure*.

Although the LONGITUDE, properly speaking, can neither be styled a science, nor even a branch of a science, yet the methods and instruments, invented to discover it at sea, form so important a branch of the sciences of navigation and geography, that we think it proper to insert every thing respecting it, in the usual form of the sciences in this work. We shall therefore give, 1. A brief history of the attempts made to discover it: 2. An account of some desiderata still required to complete the discovery: 3. Practical directions for finding it: And, 4. Examples of the methods generally used for that purpose.

### SECT. I. HISTORY of the ATTEMPTS made to discover the LONGITUDE at SEA.

To find the longitude at sea, is a problem to which the attention of navigators and mathematicians has been drawn ever since navigation began to be improved. The importance of this problem soon became so well known, that, in 1598, Philip III. of Spain offered a reward of 1000 crowns for the solution; and his example was soon followed by the States General, who offered 10,000 florins. In 1714 an act was passed in the British parliament, empowering certain commissioners to make out a bill for a sum not exceeding 2000l. for defraying the necessary expences of experiments for ascertaining this point; and likewise granting a reward to the person who made any progress in the solution, proportionable to the degree of accuracy with which the solution was

To conclude: *Longitude*, what other way have we, to mark when and where the dark eclipses be? *Donne*. was the method of discovering the *longitude* of bomb vessels. *Arbutnot* and *Pope's Mart*. 4. The position of any thing to east or west. The *longitude* of a star is its distance from the first point of numeration towards the east, first point, unto the ancients, was the vertex. *Brown*. 5. *Longitude*, in geography and navigation, is the distance of any place from another eastward

was performed: 10,000. was to be granted if the longitude should be determined to one degree of a great circle, or 60 geographical miles; 15,000 if to two thirds of that distance; and 20,000. if to the half of the distance.

In consequence of these offered rewards, innumerable attempts were made to discover this important secret. The first was that of JOHN MORIN professor of mathematics at Paris, who proposed it to Cardinal Richelieu; and though it was judged insufficient on account of the imperfection of the lunar tables, a pension of 2000 livres per annum was procured for him in 1643 by Cardinal Mazarine. Gemma Frisius had indeed, in 1530, projected a method of finding the longitude by means of watches, which at that time were newly invented; but the structure of these machines was then by far too imperfect to admit of any attempt; nor even in 1631, when METIUS made an attempt to this purpose, were they advanced in any considerable degree. About 1664, Dr HOOKE and Mr HUYGENS made a very great improvement in watchmaking, by the application of the pendulum spring. Dr Hooke having quarrelled with the ministry, no experiment was made with any of his machines; but many were made with those of Mr Huygens. One experiment, particularly, made by Major HOLMES, in a voyage from the Coast of Guinea in 1665, answered so well, that Mr Huygens was encouraged to improve the structure of his watches; but it was found that the variations of heat and cold produced such alterations in the rate of going of the watch, that unless this could be remedied, the watches could be of little use in determining the longitude.

A whimsical method of finding the longitude was proposed by Messrs WHISTON and DIXON from the report and flash of great guns. The motion of sound is known to be nearly equable, from whatever body it proceeds or whatever be the medium. Supposing therefore a mortar to be fired at any place the longitude of which is known, the difference between the moment that the flash is seen and the report heard will give the distance between the two places; whence, if we know the latitudes of these places, their longitudes must also be known. If the exact time of the explosion be known at the place where it happens, the difference of time at the place where it is heard will likewise give the difference of longitude. Let us next suppose the mortar to be loaded with an iron shell filled with combustible matter, and fired perpendicularly upward into the air, the shell will be carried to the height of a mile, and will be seen at the distance of near 100; whence, supposing neither the flash of the mortar should be seen nor the report heard, still the longitude might be determined by the altitude of the shell above the horizon.

According to this plan, mortars were to be fired at certain times and at proper stations along all frequented coasts for the direction of mariners. This indeed might be of use, and in stormy weather might be a kind of improvement in light-houses, or a proper addition to them; but with regard to the determination of longitudes, is evidently ridiculous.

In 1714, HENRY SULLY, an Englishman, ed a small tract at Vienna upon the art of watch-making. Having afterwards removed to Paris, he applied himself to the improvement of time-keepers for the discovery of the longitude. He taught the famous JULIAN DE ROY; a gentleman, with his son, and M. BERTHOUD, the only persons, who, since the days of Frisius, have turned their thoughts this way. But his experiments were made at sea with some watches, they were not able to accomplish anything of importance with regard to the point.

The first who succeeded in any considerable degree was Mr JOHN HARRISON; who, in 1714, produced a watch which went so exact for ten years together it did not err above a second in a month. In 1736 it was tried on a voyage to Lisbon and back again, on board of his Majesty's ships; during which it varied an error of a degree and an half in the computation of the ship's reckoning. In consequence of this he received public encouragement to go on; and by the year 1761 had finished time-keepers, each of them more accurate than the former. See HARRISON, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

The last turned out so much to his satisfaction, that he now applied to the commission of longitude for leave to make an experiment of his watch in a voyage to the West Indies, his mission being granted, his son Mr William Harrison set out in his Majesty's ship the *Dept. Jamaica* in the month of November 1761. The trial was attended with all imaginable success. The longitude of the island, as determined by the time-keeper, differed from that found by astronomical observations only one minute and a half of the equator; the longitudes of places on the way being also determined with great exactness. On the ship's return to England, it was found to have erred no more during the voyage than 1' 54" in time, little more than 10 miles in distance; which being within the error prescribed by the act, the inventor claimed the L. 20,000 offered by government. Objections however, were started. Doubts were proposed about the real longitude of Jamaica, as we were in the manner in which the time had been found there and at Portsmouth. It was alleged that although the time-keeper happened to be right at Jamaica, and after its return to England this was by no means a proof that it had been so in the intermediate times; in consequence of which allegations, another trial was agreed in a voyage to Barbadoes.

Precautions were now taken to obviate all these objections as possible. The commission sent out proper persons to make astronomical observations at that island; which, when compared with others in England, would ascertain beyond a doubt its true situation. In 1764 then, the *Dept. Jamaica* junior set sail for Barbadoes; and the result of the experiment was, that the difference of longitude betwixt Portsmouth and Barbadoes, shown by the time-keeper to be 3 h. 55 m. by astronomical observations to be 3 h. 55 m. the error being now only 43" of time, or 6' of longitude. In consequence of this and



ner trials, Mr Harrison received one half of the reward promised, upon making a discovery of the principles upon which his time-keepers were constructed. He was likewise promised the other half of the reward, as soon as time-keepers should be constructed by other artists, which should answer the purpose as well as those of Mr Harrison himself. At this time he delivered up all his time-keepers, the last of which was sent to Greenwich to be tried by Mr Nevil Maskelyne the astronomer royal. On trial, however, it was found to go with much less regularity than had been expected; and Mr Harrison attributed this to his having made some experiments with it which he had not time to finish when he was ordered to deliver up the watch. Soon after this, an agreement was made by the commissioners with Mr Kendall to construct a watch upon Mr Harrison's principles; and this upon trial was found to answer the purpose even better than any that Harrison himself had constructed. This watch was sent out with Capt. Cook in 1772; and during all the time of a voyage round the world in 1772, 1773, 1774, and 1775, never erred quite  $14\frac{1}{2}$  seconds per day: consequence of which, the house of commons, in 1774, ordered the other L. 10,000 to be paid Mr Harrison.

Still greater accuracy, however, has since been obtained. A watch was lately constructed by Mr Arnold, which during a trial of 13 months, from Dec. 1779 to Feb. 1780, varied no more than  $6^{\circ}69''$  in any two days; and the greatest difference between its rates of going on any day and the rate to it was  $4^{\circ}11''$ . The greatest error it would be committed therefore in the longitude during a single day would have been very little more than one minute of longitude; and thus might longitude be determined with as great exactness as the latitude generally can.—This watch, however, has not yet been tried at sea.

SECT. II. Of CERTAIN DESIDERATA still requisite to PERFECT the DISCOVERY of the LONGITUDE.

THE method of constructing time-keepers for determining the longitude seems to be brought to a great degree of perfection as can be expected. However, as these watches are subject to accidents, and may thus alter the rate of their going without a possibility of a discovery, it is necessary that some other method should be fallen upon, to correct from time to time those errors which may arise either from the natural going of the watch, or from any accident which may happen to it. Methods of this kind are all founded on celestial observations of some kind or other; and for these methods, or even for an improvement in time-keepers, rewards are still held out by Government.

After the discoveries made by Mr Harrison, the Act concerning the longitude was repealed, except so much of it as related to the constructing, selling, publishing, &c. of nautical almanacks and other useful tables. It was enacted also, that any person who shall discover a method for finding longitude by means of a time-keeper, the principles of which have not hitherto been made use of, shall be entitled to a reward of L. 5000, if,

after certain trials made by the commissioners, the said method shall enable a ship to keep her longitude during a voyage of six months within 60 geographical miles or a degree of a great circle. If the ship keeps her longitude within 40 geographical miles for that time, the inventor is entitled to a reward of L. 7500, and to L. 10,000 if the longitude is kept within half a degree. If the method is by improved astronomical tables, the author is entitled to L. 5000 when they show the distance of the moon from the sun and stars within 15 seconds of a degree, answering to about 7 minutes of longitude, after allowing half a degree for errors of observation, and under certain restrictions, and after comparison with astronomical observations for a period of  $18\frac{1}{2}$  years, during which the lunar irregularities are supposed to be completed. The same rewards are offered to the person who shall, with the like accuracy, discover any other method of finding the longitude.

These methods require celestial observations; and any of the phenomena, such as the different apparent places of stars with regard to the moon, the beginning and ending of eclipses, &c. will answer the purpose; only it is absolutely necessary, that some variation should be perceptible in the phenomenon in the space of two minutes; for even this short space of time will produce an error of 30 miles in longitude. The most proper phenomena therefore for determining the longitude in this manner are the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. Tables of their motions have been constructed, and carefully corrected from time to time, as the mutual attractions of these bodies are found greatly to disturb the regularity of their motions. The difficulty here, however, is to observe these eclipses at sea; and this difficulty has been found so great, that no person seems able to surmount it. The difficulty arises from the violent agitation of a ship in the ocean, for which no adequate remedy has ever yet been found, nor probably will ever be found. Mr CHRISTOPHER IRWIS indeed invented a machine which he called a MARINE CHAIR, with a view to prevent the effects of this agitation; but on trying it in a voyage to Barbadoes, it was found to be totally useless.

SECT. III. PRACTICAL DIRECTIONS for FINDING the LONGITUDE.

WE now proceed to give some practical directions for finding the longitude at sea by proper celestial observations; exclusive of those from Jupiter's Satellites, which, for reasons just mentioned, cannot be practised at sea. In the first place, however, it will be necessary to point out some of those difficulties which stand in the way, and which render even this method of finding the longitude precarious and uncertain. These lie principally in the reduction of the observations of the heavenly bodies made on the surface of the earth to similar observations supposed to be made at the centre; which is the only place where the celestial bodies appear in their proper situation. It is also very difficult to make proper allowances for the refraction of the atmosphere, by which all objects appear higher than they really are; and another difficulty arises from their parallax, which

which makes them, particularly the moon, appear lower than they would otherwise do, excepting when they are in the very zenith. It is also well known, that the nearer the horizon any celestial body is, the greater its parallax will be; and as the parallax and refraction act in opposite ways to one another, the former depressing and the latter raising the object, it is plain, that great difficulties must arise from this circumstance. The sun, for instance, whose parallax is less than the refraction, must always appear higher than he really is; but the moon, whose parallax is greater than her refraction, must always appear lower.

To render observations of the celestial bodies more easy, the commissioners of longitude have caused an EPHEMERIS or NAUTICAL ALMANACK to be published annually, containing every requisite for solving this important problem, which can be put into the form of tables. But whatever may be done in this way, it will be proper to make the necessary preparations concerning the dip of the horizon, the refraction, semidiameters, parallax, &c. in order to reduce the apparent to the true altitudes and distances; for which we shall here subjoin two general rules.

The principal observation for finding the longitude at sea is that of the moon from the sun, or from some remarkable star near the zodiac. To do this, the operator must be furnished with a watch which can be depended upon, for keeping time within a minute for six hours; and with a good Hadley's quadrant, or, which is preferable, a sextant: and this last instrument will still be more fit for the purpose, if it be furnished with a screw for moving the index gradually; likewise an additional dark glass, but not so dark as the common kind, for taking off the glare of the moon's light in observing her distance from a star. A small telescope, which may magnify 3 or 4 times, is also necessary to render the contact of a star with the moon's limb more discernible. A magnifying glass of 12 or 20 inches focus will assist the operator in reading off his observations with the greater facility.

1. *To MAKE THE OBSERVATION.* Having examined and adjusted his instrument as well as possible, the observer is next to proceed in the following manner: If the distance of the moon from the sun is to be observed, turn down one of the screens; look at the moon directly through the transparent part of the horizon glass; and keeping her in view, gently move the index till the sun's image be brought into the silvered part of that glass. Bring the nearest limbs of both objects into contact, and let the quadrant librate a little on the lunar ray; by which means the sun will appear to rise and fall by the side of the moon; in which motion the nearest limbs must be made to touch one another exactly by moving the index. The observation is then made; and the division coinciding with that on the Vernier scale, will show the distance of the nearest limbs of the objects.

When the distance of the moon from a star is to be observed when the moon is very bright, turn down the lightest screen, or use a dark glass lighter than the screens, and designed for this particular purpose; look at the star directly through

the transparent part of the horizon-glass; and keeping it there, move the index till the moon's image is brought into the silvered part of the same glass. Make the quadrant librate gently on the star's ray, and the moon will appear to rise and fall by the star: move the index between the librations, until the moon's enlightened limb is exactly touched by the star, and then the observation is made. In these operations, the plane of the quadrant must always pass through the two objects, the distance of which is to be observed; and for this purpose it must be placed in various positions according to the situation of the objects, which will soon be rendered easy by practice.

The observations being made, somebody, at the very instant when the operator calls, must observe by the watch the exact hour, minute, and quarter minute, if there be no second hand, in order to find the apparent time; and at the same instant, or as quick as possible, two assistants must take the altitudes of those objects the distance of which is observed; after which, the observations necessary for finding the longitude are completed.

The ephemeris shows the moon's distance from the sun, and likewise from proper stars, to every 3 hours of apparent time for the meridian of Greenwich; and that the greater number of opportunities of observing this luminary may be given, her distance is generally set down from at least one object on each side of her. Her distance from the sun is set down while it is between 90 and 120 degrees; so that, by means of a sextant it may be observed for 2 or 3 days after her last, and before her last quarter. When the moon is between 40 and 90 degrees from the sun, her distance is set down both from the sun and from a star on the contrary side; and, lastly, when the distance is above 120 degrees, the distance is set down from two stars, one on each side of her. The distance of the moon from objects on the east side of her is found in the ephemeris in the 8th and 9th pages of the month; and her distance from objects on the west is found in the 10th and 11th pages of the month.

When the ephemeris is used, the distance of the moon must only be observed from those stars the distance of which is set down there; and therefore a ready means of knowing the star from which her distance ought to be observed. The observer has then nothing more to do, than to set his index to the distance roughly computed at the apparent time, estimated nearly for the meridian at Greenwich; after which he is to look to the E. or W. of the moon, according as the distance of the star is found in the 8th or 9th, or in the 10th or 11th, pages of the month; and having found the moon upon the horizon glass, the star will be easily found by sweeping with the quadrant to the right or left, provided the air be clear and the star be in the line of the moon's shortest axis produced. The time at Greenwich is estimated by turning into time the supposed longitude East of that place, and adding it to the apparent time of the ship, or subtracting it from it as occasion requires. The distance of the moon from the sun, or a star, is roughly found at this time, by saying As 180 minutes (the number contained in three hours) is to the difference in minutes between the  
nearly

nearly estimated time and the next preceding time set down in the ephemeris; so is the difference in minutes between the distances in the ephemeris for the next preceding and next following times, to a number of minutes; which being added to the next preceding distance, or subtracted from it according as it is increasing or decreasing, will give the distance nearly at the time the observation is to be made, and to which the index must be set.

An easier method of finding the angular distance by bringing the objects nearly into contact in the common way, and then fixing the index tight to a certain degree and minute; waiting until the objects are nearly in contact, giving notice to the assistants to get ready with the altitudes, and when the objects are exactly in contact to call for the altitudes and the exact time by the watch. The observer may then prepare for taking another distance, by setting his index 3 or 5 minutes backwards, or forwards, as the objects happen to be receding from or approaching to each other, and proceeding to take the distance, altitudes, and time by the watch, as before. Thus the observer may take as many distances as he thinks proper; but 4 at the distance of 3 minutes, or 3 at the distance of 4 minutes, will at all times be sufficient. Thus not only the eye of the observer will be less fatigued, but he will likewise be enabled to manage his instrument with much greater facility in every direction, a vertical one only excepted. If in taking the distances the middle one is to be taken at any even division on the arch, such as a degree, or a degree and 20 or 40 minutes, that distance will be independent of the semidiameter division, and consequently free of those errors which frequently arise from the inequality of that division in several parts of the graduated scale. The observation ought always to be made about two hours A. M. or P. M. and the true distance may be found by the altitude of the sun taken at the precise time of the distance. If three altitudes are taken, then find the time by the altitude corresponding with the middle distance; thus the observation will be secured from any error arising from the irregularity of the going of the watch. As the time, however, found by the altitude of a star cannot be depended upon, because of the uncertainty of the horizon in the night, the best way of determining the time for a distance observation will be by two altitudes of the sun; one taken on the preceding afternoon, before he is within six degrees of the horizon; and the other on the next morning, when he is more than six degrees high. It must be observed, however, that in order to follow these directions, it is necessary that the atmosphere should be pretty clear from clouds; otherwise the observer must be obliged to make the observations at such times as he can best find them.

**3. To REDUCE the OBSERVED DISTANCE of the MOON, or a STAR, from the MOON, to the TRUE DISTANCE.** 1. Turn the longitude into time, and add it to the time at the ship if the longitude be West, but subtract it if it be E. which will give the proposed time at Greenwich; and this we may call the reduced time. 2. Find the nearest noon or midnight both before and after the reduced time in the seventh page of the month in the ephemeris.

3. Take out the moon's semidiameter and horizontal parallax corresponding to these noons and midnights, and find their differences. Then say, As 12 hours is to the moon's semidiameter in 12 hours, so is the reduced time to a number of seconds; which, either added to or subtracted from the moon's semidiameter at the noon or midnight just mentioned, according as it is increasing or decreasing, will give her apparent semidiameter; to which add the correction from Table VIII. of the ephemeris, and the sum will be her true semidiameter at the reduced time. And as 12 hours is to the difference of the moon's horizontal parallax in 12 hours, so is the reduced time to a fourth number; which, being added to or subtracted from the moon's horizontal parallax at the noon or midnight before the reduced time, according as it is increasing or decreasing, the sum or difference will be the moon's horizontal parallax at the reduced time. 4. If the reduced time be nearly any even part of 12 hours, viz. one 6th, one 4th, &c. these parts of the difference may be taken, and either added or subtracted according to the directions already given, without being at the trouble of working by the rule of proportion. 5. To the observed altitude of the sun's lower limb add the difference betwixt his semidiameter and dip; and that sum will be his apparent altitude. 6. From the sun's refraction take his parallax in altitude, and the remainder will be the correction of the sun's altitude. 7. From the star's observed altitude take the dip of the horizon, and the remainder will be the apparent altitude. 8. The refraction of a star will be the correction of its altitude. 9. Take the difference between the moon's semidiameter and dip, and add it to the observed altitude if her lower limb was taken, or subtract it if her upper limb was taken; and the sum or difference will be the apparent altitude of her centre. 10. From the proportional logarithm of the moon's horizontal parallax, taken out of the nautical almanack (increasing its index by 10), take the logarithmic cosine of the moon's apparent altitude, the remainder will be the proportional logarithm of her parallax in altitude; from which take her refraction, and the remainder will be the correction of the moon's altitude. 11. To the observed distance of the moon from a star add her semidiameter if the nearest limb be taken, but subtract it if the farthest limb was taken, and the sum or difference will be the apparent distance. 12. To the observed distance of the sun and moon add both their semidiameters, and the sum will be the apparent distance of their centres.

**3. To FIND the TRUE DISTANCE of the OBJECTS, having their APPARENT ALTITUDES and DISTANCES.** 1. To the proportional logarithm of the correction of the sun or star's altitude, add the logarithmic cosine of the sun or star's apparent altitude; the logarithmic sine of the apparent distance of the moon from the sun or star, and the logarithmic co-secant of the moon's apparent altitude. The sum of these, rejecting 30 from the index, will be the proportional logarithm of the first angle. 2. To the proportional logarithm of the correction of the sun or star's altitude, add the logarithmic co-tangent of the sun

sun or star's apparent altitude, and the logarithmic tangent of the apparent distance of the moon from the sun or star. The sum of these, rejecting 20 in the index, will be the proportional logarithm of the second angle. 3. Take the difference between the first and second angles, adding it to the apparent distance if it be less than 90, and the first angle be greater than the second; but subtracting it if the second be greater than the first. If the distance be greater than 90, the sum of the angles must be added to the apparent distance, which will give the distance corrected for the refraction of the sun or star. 4. To the proportional logarithm of the correction of the moon's altitude add the logarithmic cosine of her apparent altitude; the logarithmic sine of the distance correct for the sun or star's refraction, and the logarithmic cosecant of the sun or star's apparent altitude. The sum, rejecting 30 in the index, will be the proportional logarithm of the third angle. 5. To the proportional logarithm of the correction of the moon's apparent altitude, add the logarithmic cotangent of her apparent altitude, and the tangent of the distance corrected for the sun or star's refraction; their sum, rejecting 20 in the index, will be the proportional logarithm of the fourth angle. 6. Take the difference between the third and fourth angles, and subtract it from the distance corrected for the sun or star's refraction if less than 90, and the third angle be greater than the fourth; or add it to the distance if the fourth angle be greater than the third; but if the distance be more than 90, the sum of the angles must be subtracted from it, to give the distance corrected for the sun or star's refraction, and the principal effects of the moon's parallax. 7. In Tabl. XX. of the ephemeris, look for the distance corrected for the sun and star's refraction, and the moon's parallax in the top column, and the correction of her altitude in the left-hand side column; take out the number of seconds that stand under the former, and opposite to the latter. Look again in the same table for the corrected distance in the top column, and the correction of the moon's altitude in the left-hand side column; take out the number of seconds that stand under the former, and opposite to the latter. Look again in the same table for the corrected distance in the top column, and the principal effects of the moon's parallax in the left-hand side column, and take out the number of seconds. The difference between these two numbers must be added to the corrected distance if less than 90, but subtracted from it if greater; and the sum or difference will be the true distance.

4. To DETERMINE the LONGITUDE, after having obtained the TRUE DISTANCE. Look in the ephemeris among the distances of the objects for the computed distance betwixt the moon and the other object observed on the given day. If it be found there, the time at Greenwich will be at the

top of the column; but if it falls betwixt distances in the ephemeris which stand ately before and after it, and also the between the distance standing before computed distance; then take the proportional logarithms of the first and second differences between these two logarithms, and the difference between these two logarithms will be the proportional logarithm of a number of hours, minutes, and seconds; which being added to the time standing over the first distance will give the true time at Greenwich. Or it may be found by saying, As the first difference is to the second difference as the first difference is to a fractional part of time; which being added directed, will give the time at Greenwich. The difference between Greenwich time and the ship, turned into longitude, will be the time the observations were made; and will be the time at the ship is greatest, but W. if

#### SECT. IV. EXAMPLES of FINDING the LONGITUDE at SEA, by all the DIFFERENT METHODS usually tried.

1. To FIND the LONGITUDE by COMPUTATION from the SHIP'S COURSE. Were it possible to keep an accurate account of the distance the ship has run, and to measure it exactly by (see LOG, § 8.) or any other means, then the latitude and longitude would easily be settled by settling the ship's account to that time. If the course and distance being known, the course of latitude and departure is readily found in the Traverse Table; and the difference of longitude being known, the true longitude and latitude also be known. A variety of causes, however, concur to render this computation inaccurate, particularly the ship's continual defect from the course set by her playing to the right round her centre of gravity; the unequal force at the helm, and the distance sup- posed, being erroneous, on account of head, unsteady winds, currents, &c. for which seems impossible to make any allowance. The place of the ship, however, is judged of by the latitude every day, if possible, by observations; and if the latitude found by observations agrees with that by the reckoning, it is presumed that the ship's place is properly determined; if they disagree, it is concluded that the longitude stands in need of correction, and the latitude by observation is always to be depended upon.

Currents very often occasion errors in the computation of a ship's place. The causes in the great depths of the ocean are known, though many of the motions there can be accounted for. It is supposed some of those in the great ocean are owing to the tide following the moon, and a certain of the waters arising thence; likewise the settled nature of these currents may be the changes in the moon's declination toward the torrid zone, however, a considerable one occasioned by the trade winds, the motion constantly to the W. at the rate of 8 or 10 miles per day. At the extremities of the trade winds or near the 30th degree of N. or S. Lat.

probably compounded of this motion to  
 rd, and of one towards the equator ;  
 ships sailing within these limits ought  
 course each day for the current.

The error is supposed to have been occa-  
 a current, it ought, if possible, to be  
 the case is so or not ; or a reason-  
 ate must be made of its drift and  
 hen with the setting and drift, as a  
 distance, find the difference of latitude  
 ure ; with which the dead reckoning  
 reased or diminished : and if the lati-  
 orrected agrees with that by observa-  
 earture thus corrected may be safely  
 ae, and thus the ship's place with re-  
 longitude determined.

Suppose a ship in 24 hours finds, by  
 cknowing, that she has made 96 miles of  
 of lat. N. and 38 miles of departure W.  
 ervation finds her difference of latitude  
 n trial that there is a current which in  
 takes a difference of 16 miles lat. N.  
 es of departure E. Required the ship's

7 acc. 96 N. Dep. by acc. 38 W.  
 7 curt. 16 N. Dep. by curt. 10

Miles 112 Miles 28 W.  
 ad reckoning corrected by the current  
 difference of lat. 112 miles which is  
 is that found by observation ; whence  
 re 28 is taken as the true one.

The error is supposed to arise from the  
 l distances, we must observe, that if the  
 of latitude is much more than the de-  
 the direct course has been within 3  
 the meridian, the error is most probably  
 ince. But if the departure be much  
 n the difference of latitude, or the di-  
 be within 3 points of the parallel, or  
 5 points from the meridian, the error  
 to be ascribed to the course. But if  
 in general are near the middle of the  
 the error may be either in the course,  
 iftance, or both. This method admits  
 ces.

By the dead reckoning, the difference  
 is more than once and an half the de-  
 r when the course is less than 3 points :  
 ource to the difference of latitude and

With this course and the meridional  
 of latitude by observation, find the dif-  
 ference of longitude.

If the dead reckoning is more than once  
 f the difference of latitude ; or when  
 s more than five points : find the course  
 ce with the difference of latitude ; by  
 s, and departure by account ; then with  
 dle latitude by observation, and de-  
 account find the difference of lon-

If the difference of latitude and depar-  
 ture is nearly equal, or the direct  
 etween 3 and 5 points of the meridian :  
 ource with the difference of latitude and  
 by account since the last observation.  
 s course and the difference of latitude

by observation find another departure. Take half  
 the sum of these departures for the true one. With  
 the true departure and difference of latitude by  
 observation find the true course ; then with the  
 true course and meridional difference of latitude  
 find the difference of longitude.

3. To FIND the LONGITUDE at SEA by a VARI-  
 ATION CHART. Dr HALLEY having collected a  
 great number of observations on the variation of  
 the needle in many parts of the world, by that  
 means was enabled to draw certain lines on Mer-  
 cator's chart, showing the variation in all the  
 places over which they passed in the year 1700,  
 at which time he first published the chart ; whence  
 the longitude of those places might be found by  
 the chart provided its latitude and variation was  
 given. The rule is, Draw a parallel of latitude  
 on the chart through the latitude found by ob-  
 servation ; and the point where it cuts the curved  
 line marked with the variation that was observed  
 will be the ship's place.

EXAM. A ship finds by observation the lati-  
 tude to be 18° 20' north ; and the variation of the  
 compass to be 4° west. Required the ship's  
 place ? Lay a ruler over 18° 20' N. parallel to the  
 equator ; and the point where its edges cut the  
 curve of 4° W. variation gives the ship's place,  
 which will be found in about 27° 10' W. from  
 London.

This method of finding the longitude, however,  
 is attended with two inconveniencies. 1. That  
 when the variation line runs E. or W. or nearly  
 so, it cannot be applied ; though as this happens  
 only in certain parts of the world, a variation  
 chart may be of great use for the rest. Even in  
 those places indeed where the variation curves do  
 run E. or W. they may be of considerable use in  
 correcting the latitude when meridian observa-  
 tions cannot be had ; which frequently happens  
 on the northern coasts of America, the Western  
 Ocean, and about Newfoundland ; for if the va-  
 riation can be found exactly, the east and west  
 curve answering to it will show the latitude. But,  
 2. The variation itself is subject to continual  
 change ; whence a chart, though ever so perfect  
 at first, must in time become totally useless ; and  
 hence the charts constructed by Dr Halley, tho'  
 of great utility at their first publication, became  
 at length almost entirely useless. A new one was  
 published in 1746 by Messrs Mountaine and Dod-  
 son, which was so well received, that in 1756  
 they again drew variation lines for that year, and  
 published a third chart the year following. They  
 also presented to the Royal Society a curious pa-  
 per concerning the variation of the magnetic  
 needle, with a set of tables annexed, containing the  
 result of more than 50,000 observations, in six pe-  
 riodical reviews from 1700 to 1756 inclusive, a-  
 dapted to every 5° of lat. and lon. in the more  
 frequented oceans ; all of which were published  
 in the *Philos. Transf.* for 1757.

3. To FIND the LONGITUDE by the SUN'S DE-  
 CLINATION.—Having made such observations on  
 the sun as may enable us to find his declination at  
 the place, take the difference between this computed  
 declination and that shown at London by the eph-  
 eris ; from which take also the daily difference of

declination at that time; then say, as the daily difference of declination is to the above found difference, so is 360 degrees to the difference of longitude. In this method, however, a small error in the declination will make a great one in longitude.

4. *To FIND the LONGITUDE by the MOON'S CULMINATING.*—Seek in the ephemeris for the time of her coming to the meridian on the given day and on the day following, and take their difference; also take the difference betwixt the times of culminating on the same day as found in the ephemeris, and as observed; then say, as the daily difference in the ephemeris is to the difference between the ephemeris and observation; so is 360° to the difference of longitude. In this method also a small difference in the culmination will occasion a great one in the longitude.

5. *By ECLIPSES of the MOON.*—This is done much in the same manner as by the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites: For, if in two or more distant places where an eclipse of the moon is visible, we carefully observe the times of the beginning and ending, the number of digits eclipsed, or the time when the shadow touches some remarkable spot, or when it leaves any particular spot on the moon, the difference of the times when the observations were made will give the difference of longitude. Phenomena of this kind, however, occur too seldom to be of much use.

6. In the 76th vol. of the *Philos. Trans.*, Mr EDWARD PIGOT gives a very particular account of his method of determining the lon. and lat. of York; in which he also recommends the method of determining the longitude of places by observations of the moon's transit over the meridian. The instrument used in his observations were a gridiron pendulum clock, a two feet and an half reflector, an eighteen inch quadrant made by Mr Bird, and a transit instrument made by Mr Sisson. By these instruments an observation was made, on the 10th Sept. 1733, of the occultation of a star of the 9th magnitude by the moon, during an eclipse of that planet, at York and Paris. Besides this, there were observations made of the immersions of  $\phi$  *Aquarii* and  $\delta$  *Pisium*; the result of all which was, that between Greenwich and York the difference of meridians was 4' 27".

In 1733, Mr PIGOT thought of finding the difference of meridians by observing the meridian right ascensions of the moon's limb. This he thought had been quite original; but he found it afterwards in the *Nautical Almanack* for 1769, and in 1784 read a pamphlet on the same subject by the Abbé TOALDO; but still found that the great exactness of this method was not suspected; though he is convinced that it must soon be universally adopted in preference to that from the first satellite of Jupiter. After giving a number of observations on the satellites of Jupiter, he concludes, that the exactness expected from observations, even on the first satellite, is much overrated. "Among the various objections (says he), there is one I have often experienced, and which proceeds solely from the disposition of the eye, that of seeing more distinctly at one time than another. It may not be improper also to mention, that the observation I should have relied on as the

best, that of Aug. 30. 1785, marked as one of those most distant from the truth.

After giving a number of observations of the eclipse of the moon Sept. 10, 1783, he concludes that the eclipses of the moon's spots are not too much neglected, and that it might be relied upon much more were the following circumstances attended to: 1. To be particular in trying the clearness of the sky. 2. To choose spots as are well defined, and leave no part as to the part eclipsed. 3. That every observer should use, as far as possible telescopes of powerful, or at least let the magnifying power be the same. "A principal objection (may still be urged, viz. the difficulty of distinguishing the true shadow from the penumbra; this obviated, I believe the results would be exact than from Jupiter's first satellite: Undoubtedly the shadow appears better defined if viewed little; but I am much inclined to think with high magnifying powers, there is great uncertainty of choosing the same part of the shadow which perhaps is more than a sufficient objection for the loss of distinctness."

The following rule for meridian observations of the moon's limb is next laid down: "To create of the moon's right ascension in 12 hours as the increase of the moon's right ascension between two places found by observation to the difference of meridians.

EXAMPLE.—Nov. 30. 1782.

h.	m.	s.	
13	12	57.62	Meridian transit of moon's } second limb
13	13	29.08	Ditto of $\alpha$ $\mu$ } _____
		31.46	Difference of right ascension

13	14	8.05	Meridian transit of moon's } second limb
13	14	30.13	Ditto of $\alpha$ $\mu$ } _____
		22.08	Difference at York.
		31.46	Difference at Greenwich.

9.38 Increase of the moon's apparent right ascension between Greenwich and York, by observation.

141" in seconds of a degree, ditto, ditto  
The increase of the moon's right ascension in 12 hours, by computation, is 23,340 seconds; reduced into seconds is 43,200. According to the rule stated above,

23,340" : 43,200" : diff. of merid. = 2

"These easy observations and short (says Mr Pigot) are the whole of the business instead of computing the moon's right ascension 12 hours, I have constantly taken it from the *Nautical Almanacks*, which give it sufficiently exact, provided some attention be paid to create or decrease of the moon's motion the following circumstances attended to: 1. To be particular in trying the clearness of the sky. 2. To choose spots as are well defined, and leave no part as to the part eclipsed. 3. That every observer should use, as far as possible telescopes of powerful, or at least let the magnifying power be the same. 4. A principal objection (may still be urged, viz. the difficulty of distinguishing the true shadow from the penumbra; this obviated, I believe the results would be exact than from Jupiter's first satellite: Undoubtedly the shadow appears better defined if viewed little; but I am much inclined to think with high magnifying powers, there is great uncertainty of choosing the same part of the shadow which perhaps is more than a sufficient objection for the loss of distinctness."

1. Compare the observations with those made in several other places. 2. Let the

be observed at these places. 3. Such are in right ascension and declination are infinitely preferable. 4. It is strongly urged to get, as near as equal number of observations of each a mean of each set, and then a mean. 5. This will in a great measure correct of telescopes and sight. 5. The use of the telescopes to the eye of the observer the observation is also very necessary, subject to vary. 6. A principal error from the observation of the moon's may be considerably lessened, if certain spots near each limb were also settled observatories; in which case of the moon will perhaps be a constant. 7. When the difference of meridians,itudes of places, is very considerable, of the moon's diameter becomes an

such are the requisites to use this method, advantage, only one or two of them employed in the observations that I have two thirds of these observations had the same stars observed at Greenwich and yet none of the results, except a difference of 15" from the mean; therefore may expect a still greater exactness, within 10' if the above particulars be at-

the same stars are not observed, it is the observers from both places to compute right ascension from tables, in order to ascertain right ascension of the moon's though this is not so satisfactory as by observation, still the difference will be trifling the star's right ascensions are accurate. I am also of opinion, that the same may be put in practice by travellers with a transit instrument, constructed up with facility in any place. It is very, perhaps, that the instrument should be in the meridian for a few seconds of the stars, nearly in the same parallel with the moon, are observed; nay, I do not think, that if the instrument deviate a quarter or half a degree, or more, exactness can be attained; as a table computed, showing the moon's parallax for such deviation; which last may be found by the well known method of observing the whole difference of declination is

observers very seldom meet with suitable stars near the pole, or find a proper method of determining the error of the line of collimation. I shall recommend the following method.—Having computed the apparent declination of four, six, or more stars, which are in the same parallel of declination, observe them with the instrument inverted, or half when in its right position. If the difference of right ascensions between each set of observations agrees with the computation, there is no error; but if they disagree, half that difference is the error of the line of collimation. observations may also serve to determine the distance of the corresponding

wires are equal. In case of necessity, each limb of the sun might be observed in the same manner, though probably with less precision. By a single trial I made above two years ago, the result was much more exact than I expected. Mayor's catalogue of stars will prove of great use to those that adopt the above method.—I am rather surprised that the immersions of known stars of the 6th and 7th magnitude, behind the dark limb of the moon, are not constantly observed in fixed observatories, as they would frequently be of great use."

Mr JOHN McLEAN of the observatory, Edinburgh, gives the following rule for finding the ship's place, with miscellaneous observations on different methods. The rule was examined and approved of by Sir Joseph Banks, P. R. S.

1. With regard to determining the ship's place by the help of the course and distance sailed, the following rule may be applied.—It will be found as expeditious as any of the common methods by the middle latitude or meridional parts; and is in some respects preferable, as the common tables of sines and tangents only are requisite in applying it.—Let  $a$  and  $b$  be the distances of two places from the same pole in degrees, or their complete latitudes;  $c$  the angle which a meridian makes with the rhumb line passing through the places: and  $L$  the angle formed by their meridians, or the difference of longitude in minutes: then  $A$  and  $B$  being the logarithmic tangents of  $\frac{1}{2}a$  and  $\frac{1}{2}b$ ,  $S$  the sine of  $C$ , and  $S'$  the sine of  $(C + L)$ , we shall have the following equation

$$L = \frac{A - B}{S' - S} \quad (A - B \text{ signifies the difference between}$$

$A$  and  $B$ .) Also, from a well known property of the rhumb line, we have the following equation:

$S + E = R + D$ , where  $S$  is the logarithmic cosine of  $C$ ,  $E$  the logarithm of the length of the rhumb line, or distance,  $D$  the logarithm of the minute's difference of latitude, and  $R$  the logarithm of the radius.

By the help of these two equations, we shall have an easy solution of the several cases to which the middle latitude, or meridional parts, are commonly applied.

**EXAMPLE.** A ship from a port, in latitude  $56^\circ$  N. sails SW. by W. till she arrives at the latitude of  $40^\circ$  N: Required the difference of longitude.

Here  $a = 34^\circ$ ,  $b = 50^\circ$ ,  $c = 56^\circ 15''$ ,  $A = 9.48534$ ,  $B = 9.56107$ ,  $S = 9.9199308$ ,  $S' = 9.9198464$ ; there-

fore,  $L = \frac{A - B}{S' - S} = \frac{.757300}{.844} = 897$  the minutes dif-

ference of longitude. Also,  $S = 9.74474$ ,  $D = 2.98227$ ; therefore  $E = R + D - S = 3.23753$ , to which the natural number is 1728, the miles in the rhumb line sailed over.

2. The common method of finding the difference of longitude made good upon several courses and distances, by means of the difference of latitude and departure made good upon the several courses, is not accurately true.

For example: If a ship should sail due S. 600 miles, from a port in  $60^\circ$  N. lat. and then due W. 600 miles, the difference of longitude found by the common methods of solution would be 1053;

whereas

whereas the true difference of longitude is only 933, less than the former by 120 miles, which is more than  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the whole. Indeed every considerable alteration in the course will produce a very sensible error in the difference of longitude. Though, when the several rhumb lines sailed over are nearly in the same direction, the error in longitude will be but small.

The reason of this will easily appear from Fig. 2. Plate CCV; in which the ship is supposed to sail from Z to A, along the rhumb lines ZB, BA; for if the meridians PZ, PkaBL be drawn; and very near the latter other two meridians Pbd, Pmn; and likewise the parallels of latitude B<sub>2</sub>, D<sub>2</sub>, mo, bk; then it is plain that D<sub>2</sub> is greater than bk (for D<sub>2</sub> is to bk as the sine of DP to the sine of bP): and since this is the case every where, the departure corresponding to the distance PZ and course BZC, will be greater than the departure to the distance oZ and course oZC. And in the same manner, we prove that nB is greater than mo; and consequently, the departure corresponding to the distance AB, and course ABL, is greater than the departure to the distance A<sub>2</sub>, and course A<sub>2</sub>L: Wherefore, the sum of the two departures corresponding to the courses ABL and BZC, and to the distances AB and BZ, is greater than the departure corresponding to the distance AZ and course AZC: therefore the course answering to this sum as a departure, and CZ as a difference of latitude, (AC being the parallel of latitudes passing through A), will be greater than the true course AZC made good upon the whole. And hence the difference of longitude found by the common rules will be greater than the true difference of longitude; and the error will be greater or less according as BA deviates more or less from the direction of BZ.

3. Of determining the ship's longitude by lunar observations.

Several rules for this purpose have been lately published, the principal object of which seems to have been to abbreviate the computations requisite for determining the true distance of the sun or a star from the moon's centre. This, however, should have certainly been less attended to than the investigation of a solution, in which considerable errors in the data may produce a small error in the required distance. When either of the luminaries has a small elevation, its altitude will be affected by the variability of the atmosphere; likewise the altitude, as given by the quadrant, will be affected by the inaccuracy of the instrument, and the uncertainty necessarily attending all observations made at sea. The sum of these errors, when they all tend the same way, may be supposed to amount to at least one minute in altitude; which, in many cases, according to the common rules for computing the true distance, will produce an error of about 30 minutes in the longitude. Thus, in the example given by M. CALLET, in the *Tables Portatives*, if we suppose an error of one minute in the sun's altitude, or call it  $6^{\circ} 26' 34''$ , instead of  $6^{\circ} 27' 34''$ ; we shall find the alteration in distance according to his rule to be  $54''$ , producing an error of about 27 minutes in

the longitude: for the angle at the sun found, in the spherical triangle whose sides are the complement of the sun's altitude, complement of the moon's altitude, and observed distance about  $26^{\circ}$ ; and as radius is to the cosine so is  $60''$  the supposed error in altitude, alteration in distance. Perhaps the only objection of determining the distance, so as not to be affected by the errors of altitude, is that by first finding the angles at the sun and moon, and by then determining the correction of distance for parallax. The rule is as follows:

Add together the complement of the apparent altitude, the complement of the apparent distance, and the apparent distance; from half the sum of these three subtract the complement of the sun's altitude, and the logarithmic cosecant of the complement of the moon's altitude, the logarithmic sine of the apparent distance of centres, the logarithmic sine of the half sum, and the logarithm of the remainder; and half the sum of these logarithms, after rejecting 20 from the index, is the logarithmic cosine of half the angle at the moon.

As radius is to the cosine of the angle at the moon; so is the difference between the parallax and refraction in altitude to the correction of distance; which is to be added to the distance of centres when the angle at the moon is obtuse; but to be subtracted when it is acute, in order to have the distance once corrected.

In the above formula, if the word *sun* be changed for *moon*, and *vice versa*, wherever they occur, we shall find a second correction of distance to be applied to the distance, once corrected, but by addition when that angle is acute, and by subtraction when that angle is obtuse.

In applying this rule, it will be sufficient to take the complement, altitudes, and apparent distance of centres, true to the nearest minute or second; a small error in the angles at the sun and moon will have very little effect on the corrections of distance.

If D be the computed distance in feet, S the difference between the moon's parallax and refraction in altitude, S the sine of the angle at the moon, and R the radius; then

$$\frac{d^2 S^2}{2DR}$$

will be the third correction of distance, to be added to the distance twice corrected: But it is plain, from the nature of this correction, that it may be rejected, except when the distance D is very small, and the angle at the moon nearly equal to a right angle.

This solution is likewise of use in finding the true distance of a star from the moon, by changing the word *sun* into *star*, and using the refraction of the star, instead of the difference between the parallax and refraction in altitude of the sun, in finding the second correction of distance.

Ex. Given the observed distance of a star from the centre of the moon,  $50^{\circ} 8' 41''$ ; the altitude,  $55^{\circ} 58' 55''$ ; the star's altitude,  $5^{\circ} 5''$ ; and the moon's horizontal parallax,  $57''$ . Required the true distance?



Cofec. — 0°02512 — \*'s co. alt. — 70° 42'  
 D's co. alt. — 34 4 — Cofec. — 0°25169  
 Cofec. — 0°11479 — obf. dift. — 50 9 — Cofec. — 0°11479

2)154 55

Sine — 9°28950 — 77 27 — Sine — 9°98950

Rem. 6. 45 — Sine — 9°07018

Sine — 9°83688 — Rem. 43 23 — 2)19°42616

2)19°96629

Cofec. — 9°71308 — 58° 54'

Cofec. — 9°98314 — 15° 54'

117 48 = D's angle.

31 48 = \*'s angle.

Rad. : Cofec. 117° 48' : D's diff. parall. & refract. 1980" : 923" = 1st correct. of distance.  
 Rad. : Cofec. 31° 48' : star's refract. 162" : 138" = 2d correct. of distance.

Here the first correction of distance is additive, if the angle at the moon is obtuse; and the second correction is also additive, since the angle at the star is acute; therefore their sum 923" + 138" = 1061" = 17° 41", being added to 50° 8' 41", the present distance of the star from the moon's centre gives 50° 26' 21" for the true distance of centre nearly; — and 2 x L (d + S) — L (2 LR + L L D) = L. 8", which, being added to the distance twice corrected, gives 50° 26' 29" for the

true distance. By comparing this distance with the computed distances in the ephemeris, the time at Greenwich corresponding to that of observing the distance will be known; and the difference of those times being converted into degrees and minutes, at the rate of 15 degrees to the hour, will give the longitude of the place of observation: which will be E. if the time at the place be greater than at Greenwich, but W. if it be less.

L O N

L O N

**LONGITUDINAL.** *adj.* [from *longitude*; *Latin*, French.] Measured by the length; being in the longest direction.—*Longitudinal* is said to transverse: these vesiculæ are distended their longitudinal diameters straitened, and the length of the whole muscle shortened. *Cbeyne.*  
**LONGITUDINALLY,** *adj.* placed lengthwise.  
**LONG-KANG,** a town of Asia, in Corea.  
**LONGLY.** *adv.* [from *long.*] Longingly; great liking.—

Master, you look'd so longly on the maid,  
 whaps, you mark not what's the pith of all.

*Shak.*

**LONGMAY.** See LONMAY.  
**LONG-MEN,** a town of China, in Canton.  
**LONG-NAN,** a city of China, of the first rank, Schuen, on the Mouqua. It has several forts, and is of great use against the Tartars, 710 miles from Pekin.  
**LONGNY,** a town of France, in the dept. of Sarthe, 9 miles E. of Mortagne.  
**LANGOBARDI.** See LANGOBARDI.  
**LANGOBARDS.** See LOMBARDS, § 1.  
**LANGOBUCO,** a town of Naples  
**LANGOMONTANUS,** Christian, a learned astronomer, born in a village of Denmark in 1562. He was the son of a ploughman, and was obliged during his studies many hardships, during his time, like the philosopher Cleanthes, to the cultivation of the earth and the letter he received from the minister of the place. When he was 15, he stole away from his

family, and went to Wiburg, where there was a college, in which he spent 11 years; and though he was obliged to earn a livelihood, he studied with such ardour, that among other sciences he learned the mathematics in great perfection. He afterwards went to Copenhagen; where the professors of that university in a short time conceived so high an opinion of him, that they recommended him to the celebrated Tycho Brahe. He lived 8 years with that famous astronomer, and was of great service to him in his observations and calculations. At length, being extremely desirous of obtaining a professor's chair in Denmark, Tycho Brahe consented, though with some difficulty, to deprive himself of his service; gave him a discharge, filled with the highest testimonies of his esteem; and furnished him with money for the expense of his journey. He obtained a professorship of mathematics in the university of Copenhagen in 1605; and discharged the duty of it worthily till his death, in 1647. He wrote many learned works, the chief of which is his *Astronomia Danica*: 1640, fol. He also endeavoured to square the circle, and thought he had made that discovery; but Dr John Pell, an English mathematician, attacked him, and proved that he was mistaken.

(1.) **LONGSIDE,** a parish of Aberdeenshire, in the district of Buchan, about 5 miles square but irregular in its form. The surface is so level, that it is often overflowed by the Ugie, which runs through it from W. to E. This has suggested the idea of making a canal along its banks, from its

mouth

mouth near Peterhead, to Old Deer, 10 miles distant; which would be of great advantage to the country. The soil is light but fertile. Of 12,000 acres, 7000 are cultivated, 257 planted, 1800 under moss, and the rest uncultivated. About 7000 bolls of grain are produced, of which 3000 are exported, besides 300 black cattle; and butter, cheese and eggs to the amount of 3000 l. annually. The population in 1790 and 1791 was 1792: Decrease 187 since 1755. The parish abounds with various species of beautiful granite; and manufactures of narrow woollen cloths, jemmies, thread, &c. are established in it.

(2.) LONGSIDE, a town in the above parish, 4 miles W. of Peterhead.

\* LONGSOME. *adj.* [from *long*.] Tedious; wearisome by its length.—They found the war so churlish and *longsome*, as they grew then to a resolution, that, as long as England stood in state to succour those countries, they should but consume themselves in an endless war. *Bacon*.—

When chill'd by adverse snows, and beating rain,

We tread with weary steps the *longsome* plain.

*Prior*.

(1.) \* LONG-SUFFERING. *adj.* [from *long* and *suffering*.] Patient; not easily provoked.—The Lord God, merciful and gracious, *long-suffering*, and abundant in goodness. *Exodus*, xxxiv. 6.

(2.) \* LONG-SUFFERING. *n. f.* Patience of offence; clemency.—We infer from the mercy and *long-suffering* of God, that they were themselves sufficiently secure of his favour. *Rogers*.

\* LONGTAIL. *n. f.* [from *long* and *tail*.] Cut and long tail: a canting term for one or another. A phrase, I believe, taken from dogs, which belonging to men not qualified to hunt, had their tails cut.—He will maintain you like a gentlewoman.—Aye, that I will come cut and *longtail* under the degree of a quire. *Shak. Merry Wives*.

LONGTOWN, a town of Cumberland, on the Scots border, near the conflux of the Esk and Kirkcub, 9 miles from Carlisle, and 313 from London. It has a charity-school for 60 children; a market on Thursday, and two fairs. Lon. 2. 50. W. Lat. 55. 8. N.

LONGUE, a town of France, in the dep. of Maine and Loire, 7½ miles N. of Saumur.

(1.) LONGUEIL, Christopher DE, a learned writer, born at Malines in 1490. He was much in favour with several princes. He was employed by Pope Leo X. to write against Luther. He wrote also Commentaries on Pliny's book of Plants; and Observations on the Civil Law. He died in 1522.

(2.) LONGUEIL, Gilbert DE, a learned Dutch physician, born at Utrecht, in 1507. He published a Greek and Latin Lexicon; Remarks on Classic authors; and other works.

LONGUEMARCH, a town of the French republic, in the dept. of the Lys, and late province of Austrian Flanders; 7 miles NNE. of Ypres.

LONGUERUE, Lewis DE, a learned French divine, born at Charleville, in 1652. He wrote, 1. A Latin Dissertation on Tadian. 2. La Description Historique de la France. 3. Annales Archaicorum. 4. A Discourse on Transubstantiation; and, 5. Remarks on the Life of Cardinal Wolfey.

LONGUEVAL, a town of France, of Somme; 9 miles NW. of Peronne.

LONGUEVILLE, a town of France, dep. of the Lower Seine, and late prov. Normandy, seated on the Lee, 17 m. Rouen, and 9 S. of Dieppe. Lon. 1. 1. 49. 30. N.

LONGUION, a town of France, in the Moselle; 7½ miles SW. of Louviers, 22½ W. of Thionville. It has an iron-works, and a foundry of cannons.

LONGUS, a Greek sophist, author entitled *Heracles*, or Pastoral, and containing the loves of Daphnis and Cleitias, bishop of Avranches, speaks very geouly of this work, but censures son as obscene. As no ancient author mentions the time when he lived cannot be a J. Craggs, Esq. secretary of state, tra work into English.

\* LONGWAYS. *adv.* [This and r words so terminated are corrupted from the longitudinal direction.—This island a vast mole, which lies *longways*, almost parallel line to Naples. *Addison on Italy*.]

\* LONGWINDED. *adj.* [from *long* and *winded*.] Breathed; tedious.—

My simile you minded  
Which, I confess, is too *longwinded*.

\* LONGWISE. *adv.* [from *long* and *wise*.] Longitudinal direction.—They make a of a quill, *longwise* of that part of the quill which hath the pith, and crosswise of that part which is without pith. *Bacon*.—He was laid in beds, the one joined *longwise* unto the other, which he filled with his length. *Hakewell*.

(1.) LONGWY, a town of France, in the Jura, on the Doubs; 9 miles S. of Luxemburg.

(2.) LONGWY, a town of France, in the Moselle, and ci-devant duchy of Lorraine, with a castle; divided into the old and the new. This last was built and fortified by Louis XIV. It was taken by the Prussians and Austrians, Gen. Clairaut, on the 21st Aug. 1792, by the French, under Gen. Valence, on the 10th October, 1792. It is seated on an eminence, 167 miles SW. of Luxemburg, and 167 NW. of Paris. Lon. 5. 51. E. Lat. 49. 30. N.

LONG-YEN, a town of China, in the province of Szechuan.

LONIA, a river of Hungary, in Croatia.

LONICERA, HONEYSUCKLE, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants. The corolla is tubular and irregular; the berry polylocular and inferior. There are 10 species.

1. LONICERA ALPINA, the upright honey-suckle, rises with a shrubby stem, upright stem, branching from a 4 or 5 feet high; largish, spear-shaped leaves, opposite; and from the sides of the stem many red flowers by twos on long pedicels, each succeeded by two red berries together at their base; it flowers in August, and the berries ripen in autumn.

2. LONICERA CARULEA, the blue right honey-suckle, rises with a shrubby stem, branching moderately 3 or 4 feet high; many white flowers proceeding from the

s; appearing in May, and succeeded  
ries joined together at their base.

**ERA CAPRIFOLIUM**, the Italian ho-  
rises with shrubby declinated stalks,  
long slender trailing branches, termi-  
nate or whorled bunches of close-  
rs, very fragrant, and white, red, and  
irs.

**ERA DIERVILLA**, the yellow-flowered  
neyfuckle, rises with shrubby upright  
sing erect to the height of three or  
re branches terminated by clusters of  
flowers, appearing in May and June,  
ies continuing till autumn; but rarely  
ls here.

**ERA NIGRA**, the black-berried upright  
rises with a shrubby stem, branching  
igh, with white flowers succeeded by  
distinct black-berries.

**ERA PERICLYMENUM**, the common  
yfuckle, hath two principal varieties,  
;ish wild honeyfuckle, or woodbine of  
ind hedges, and the Dutch or Ger-  
uckle. The former rises with shrub-  
ry long, slender stalks, and branches  
e ground, or climbing round a sup-  
minated by oval imbricated heads,  
allish flowers of white or red colours,  
ng from June or July till autumn.  
ies with a shrubby declinated stalk,  
iling purplish branches, terminated  
ricated heads, furnishing large beau-  
wers of a fragrant odour, appearing  
July.

**ERA SEMPERVIRENS**, the evergreen  
ered honeyfuckle, rises with a shrub-  
l stalk, sending out long slender trail-  
l, terminated by naked verticillate  
ng, unreflexed, deep scarlet flowers,  
il, but of little fragrance.

**ERA SYMPHORICARPOS**, the shrubby  
rt, rises with a shrubby, rough stem,  
ect 4 or 5 feet high, with small green-  
e appearing round the stalk in August.

**ERA TARTARICA**, the Tartarian bo-  
; with a shrubby upright stem, branch-  
or 4 feet high; heart-shaped, oppo-  
nd whitish erect flowers succeeded  
s, sometimes distinct, and sometimes

**ERA XYLOSTEMUM**, the FLY HONEY-  
s with a strong shrubby stem, branch-  
he height of 7 or 8 feet; with erect  
s proceeding from the sides of the  
ch succeeded by large double red  
d together at their base. The flow-  
n June, and the berries ripen in  
The easiest method of propagating  
ts is by layers or cuttings. In both  
idly emit roots, and form plants in  
or transplantation. Some sorts are  
ed by suckers and seed.

**CERUS**, John, a learned German  
; born at Orthern. He was a Pro-  
ublished a Greek and Latin lexicon,  
her works. He died in 1569.

**CERUS**, Adam, the son of the pre-  
PART II.

ceding, was bred a physician, and published sever-  
ral books on natural history, and botany; parti-  
cularly a History of Plants, Animals, and Metals.  
He died in 1586.

**LONIGO**, or **LEONICO**, a trading town and  
district of Maritime Austria, in the Vicentino.

**LONINGEN**, a town of Germany, in West-  
phalia; 8 miles SSW. of Cloppenburg.

**LONJUMEAU**, a town of France, in the dep.  
of the Seine and Oise; 9 miles SE. of Versailles,  
and 10½ S. of Paris.

**LONKA**, a town of Poland, in Podolia.

**LONLAY**, a town of France, in the dep. of  
the Lower Charente, 6 m. N. of St Jean d'An-  
gely.

**LONMAY**, a parish of Scotland, on the coast  
of Aberdeenshire, 10 miles long, but hardly 4  
broad; 12 miles from Peterhead. The soil is va-  
rious; the air moist but healthy. Husbandry is not  
yet much improved. The population, in 1795,  
was 1650; the decrease 24, since 1755. There  
are several extensive moors.

**LONS**, or **LONS LE SAUMIER**, a city of France,  
capital of the dep. of Jura, formerly famous for  
its salt works, whence its name, *le saumier*, *le ei-  
salter*. It is seated on the Solvan, 30 miles from  
Dole. Lon. 5. 30. E. Lat. 46. 41. N.

(1.) **LONSDALE**. See **KIRKBY**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

(2.) **LONSDALE**, a vale of Westmorland.

**LONTHAL**, a river of Germany, in Sussia.

(1.) **LOO**, a town of the Batavian republic, in  
the dep. of the Rhine, and late province of Guel-  
derland, 8 miles W. of Deventer. Lon. 6. 0. E.  
Lat. 52. 18. N.

(2.) **LOO**, a town of the French republic; in the  
dep. of Lys, and late province of Austrian Flan-  
ders; 6 miles SSE. of Dixmude.

(3.) **LOO**, or **LOW**, a river of Cornwall, running  
into the British Channell, between E. and W.  
**LOOZ**, where it is navigable for vessels of 100 tons.

(4.) \* **LOO**. *n. f.* A game at cards.—A secret  
indignation, that all those affections of the mind  
should be thus vilely thrown away upon a hand  
at *loo*. *Addison*—

In the fights of *loo*. *Pope*.

\* **LOOBILY**. *adj.* [*looby* and *like*.] Awkward;  
clumsy.—The plot of the farce was a grammar  
school, the master setting his boys their lessons,  
and a *loobily* country fellow putting in for a part  
among the scholars. *L'Esfrange*.

\* **LOOBY**. *n. f.* [Of this word the derivation is  
unsettled. *Skinner* mentions *lapp*, German, *fool-  
ish*; and *Junius Ilabe*, a clown; Welsh; which  
seems to be the true original, unless it come from  
*lob*.] A lubber; a clumsy clown.—

Who could give the *looby* such airs? *Swiss*.

(1.) **LOOE**, an island in the British Channell,  
on the coast of Cornwall, 3 miles SE. of E.  
**LOOE**.

(2.) **LOOE, EAST**, or **EAST LOW**, an ancient  
borough of Cornwall, incorporated by charter  
from Q. Elizabeth, seated on the E. side of the  
**LOO**, 16 miles W. of Plymouth, and 32 WSW.  
of London. It has 2 fairs; and a battery of 4  
guns; and is connected with W. **LOOE**, by a large  
stone bridge of 15 arches. It is governed by a  
mayor, recorder, aldermen, and 9 burgesses.

*F f f* (2.) **LOOZ**,

tance.—

She once being loof, Antony

Claps on his sea-wing like a doating mallard,  
Leaving the fight. *Shak.*

(1.) \* LOOK. *interj.* [properly the imperative mood of the verb; it is sometimes *look ye.*] See! lo! behold! observe!—*Look*, where he comes, and my good man too; he's as far from jealousy as I am from giving him cause. *Shakespeare.*—*Look* you, he must seem thus to the world. *Shakespeare.*—*Look*, when the world hath fewest barbarous people, but such as will not marry, except they know means to live, as it is almost every where at this day, except Tartary, there is no danger of insundations of people. *Bacon.*—*Look* you! we, that pretend to be subject to a constitution, must not carve out our own quality; for at this rate a cobbler may make himself a lord. *Collier.*

(s.) \* LOOK. *n. f.* 1. Air of the face; mien; cast of the countenance.—

Thou cream-fac'd loon,

Where got'st thou that goose look? *Shak.*  
—Thou wilt save the afflicted people, but wilt bring down high looks. *Psal. xviii. 27.*

Then gracious Heav'n for nobler ends design'd,

Their looks erected, and their clay refin'd.

*J. Dryden, jun.*

—And though death be the king of terrors, yet pain, disgrace, and poverty, have frightful looks, able to discompose most men. *Locke.* 2. The act of looking or seeing.—

Then on the croud he cast a furious look,

And wither'd all their strength. *Dryden.*

When they met they made a furlly stand,

And glar'd, like angry lions, as they pass'd,

And with'd that ev'ry look might be their last.

*Dryden.*

And saw the woman's tears.

Bertran; if thou dar'st, look out

Upon yon slaughter'd host.

—I cannot, without some indignation, ill copy of an excellent original; much behold with patience Virgil and Homer their faces, by a botching interpreter. *Dry* tellectual beings, in their constant endeavor true felicity, can suspend this prof particular cases, till they have looked bef and informed themselves, whether that thing lie in their way to their main end. There may be in his reach a book, c pictures and discourses capable to delig struct him, which yet he may never take to look into. *Locke.*—Towards those who nicate their thoughts in print, I cannot with a friendly regard, provided there idency in their writings to vice. *Addison.* and substantial greatness of soul looks d a generous neglect of the censures plauses of the multitude. *Spektor.*—I thing left but to gather up the reliques of and look about me to see how few friend left. *Pope.*—The optick nerves of such look the same way with both eyes, as meet before they come into the brain optick nerves of such animals as do the same way with both eyes, as of fishes meet. *Newton.* 3. To have power of s Fate sees thy life lodg'd in a brittle

And looks it through.

3. To direct the intellectual eye.—In our deliverance past, and our danger pr to come, let us look up to God, and reform his own ways. *Bacon.*—We are to look at the bare action, but at the re: *Stillingfleet.*—The man only saved the pi

other battle before he could reach Ox-  
*ndon.* 5. To take care; to watch.—  
 hat ye bind them fast. *Shak.*  
 gathered bushels of apples, had there-  
 in them: he was only to *look* that  
 m before they spoiled, else he robbed  
*he.* 6. To be directed with regard to  
 —Let thine eyes *look* right on, and let  
 ds *look* straight before thee. *Prov.* iv.  
 have any particular appearance; to

I took the way,  
 through a path, but scarcely printed,  
 'd as lightly press'd by fairy feet.

*Dryden.*  
 stlefs modesty of private and publick  
 ous spirit, which all other Christi-  
 o labour after, should *look* in us as if  
 atural. *Spratt.*—Piety, as it is thought  
 e favour of God; and fortune, as it  
 e effect either of that, or, at least of  
 id courage, beget authority. *Temple.*  
 all they see me do an act that *looks*  
 e courage of a Spartan king. *Dryden.*  
 lain of want, and yet refuse all offers  
*looks* very fullen. *Burnet.*—Should I  
 favours done me by your lordship, I  
 would *look* more like vanity than gra-  
 tison.—Something very noble may be  
 out it *looketh* cumbersome. *Felton.*—  
 i sad spectacle of woe, he trod  
 rt sands, and now he *looks* a god. *Pope.*  
 vices and follies of others, observe  
 practice *looks* in another person, and  
 hat it *looks* as ill, or worse, in your-  
 —This makes it *look* the more like  
 e being frugal in her principles, but  
 the effects thence arising. *Cheyne.* 8.  
 air, mien, or manner.—  
*look* not big, nor stamp, nor stare, nor

nafter of what is mine own. *Shak.*  
 waste *looks* through his eyes?  
 l he *look* that seems to speak things  
 ge. *Shak.*  
 our hand, and trust me you *look* well,  
 ur years very well. *Shak.*—  
 ce, or such, be any aids to us?  
 as they were built to shake the world,  
 moment to our enterprize? *Ben.* 7.  
 cannot tell what a man says; if he  
 re, I may easily know what he *looks*.  
 will be his lot to *look* singular in loose  
 us times, and to become a bye-word.  
 9. To form the air in any particular  
 regarding or beholding.—  
 me the condition of the time,  
 must *look* more hideously on me,  
 ve drawn it in my fantasy. *Shak.*  
 ght, confus'd with shame,  
 d I once *look* up, or heave the head?

*Milton.*  
 up to you with reverence,  
 mated by the sight of him at whose  
 ve taken fire in his writings. *Swift.*  
*about one.* To be alarmed; to be  
 will import those men who dwell

careless to *look about* them; to enter into serious  
 consultation, how they may avert that ruin.  
*Decay of Piety.*—If you find a wasting of your flesh,  
 then *look about you*, especially if troubled with a  
 cough. *Harvey.*—John's cause was a good milch  
 cow, and many a man subsisted his family out of it;  
 however, John began to think it high time to *look*  
*about him.* *Arbutnot.* 11. To *look after.* To  
 attend; to take care of; to observe with care,  
 anxiety, or tenderness. Mens hearts failing them  
 for fear, and for *looking after* those things which  
 are coming on the earth. *Luti.*—Politeness of  
 manners, and knowledge of the world, should  
 principally be *looked after* in a tutor. *Locke.*—A  
 mother was wont to indulge her daughters, when  
 any of them desired dogs, squirrels, or birds;  
 but then they must be sure to *look* diligently *after*  
 them, that they were not ill used. *Locke.*—My  
 subject does not oblige me to *look after* the wa-  
 ter, or point forth the place whereunto it is now  
 retreated. *Woodw.* 12. To *look for.* To expect.  
 —Phalantus's disgrace was engriev'd, in lieu of  
 comfort, of Artelia, who telling him she never  
*looked for* other, bad him seek some other mistress.  
*Sidney.*—Being a labour of so great difficulty, the  
 exact performance thereof we may rather wish  
 than *look for.* *Hooker.*—

Thou  
 Shalt feel our justice, in whose easiest passage  
*Look for* no lets than death. *Shak.*  
 —If we sin wilfully that we have received  
 the knowledge of the truth, there remaineth no  
 more sacrifice for sins, but a certain fearful *looking*  
*for* of judgment. *Heb.* x.—In dealing with cunning  
 persons, it is good to say little to them, and that  
 which they least *look for.* *Bacon.*—This mistake  
 was not such as they *looked for*; and, though the  
 error in form seem'd to be consented to, yet the  
 substance of the accusation might be still insisted  
 on. *Clarendon.*—Inordinate anxiety, and unneces-  
 sary scruples in confession, instead of setting you  
 free, which is the benefit to be *looked for* by confes-  
 sion, perplex you the more. *Taylor.*—

*Look now for* no enchanting voice, nor fear  
 The bait of honied words. *Milton.*

Drown'd in deep despair,  
 He dares not offer one repenting prayer:  
 Amaz'd he lies, and sadly *looks for* death. *Dryd.*

I must with patience all the terms attend,  
 Till mine is call'd; and that long *look'd for* day  
 Is still encumber'd with some new delay. *Dryd.*  
 —This limitation of Adam's empire to his line,  
 will save those the labour who would *look for* one  
 heir among the race of brutes, but will very lit-  
 tle contribute to the discovery of one amongst  
 men. *Locke.* 13. To *look into.* To examine;  
 to sift; to inspect closely; observe narrowly to.—

His nephew's levies to him appear'd  
 To be a preparation 'gainst the Polack;  
 But better *look'd into*, he truly found  
 It was against your highness. *Shak.*

—The more frequently and narrowly we *look in-*  
*to* the works of nature, the more occasion we  
 shall have to admire their beauty. *Atterbury.*—It  
 is very well worth a traveller's while to *look into*  
 all that lies in his way. *Addison.* 14. To *look*  
*on.* To respect; to esteem; to regard as good or  
 bad.—Ambitious men, if they be checked in their  
 desires

desires, become secretly discontent, and look upon men and matters with an evil eye. *Bacon*.—

If a harmless maid

Should ere a wife become a nurse,

Her friends would look on her the worse. *Prior*.

15. To LOOK on. To consider; to conceive of; to think.—I looked on Virgil as a succinct, majestic writer; one who weighed not only every thought, but every word and syllable. *Dryden*.—He looked upon it as morally impossible, for persons infinitely proud to frame their minds to an impartial consideration of a religion that taught nothing but self-denial and the cross. *South*.—Do we not all profess to be of this excellent religion? but who will believe that we do so, that shall look upon the actions, and consider the lives of the greatest part of Christians. *Tillotson*.—In the want and ignorance of almost all things, they looked upon themselves as the happiest and wisest people of the universe. *Locke*.—Those prayers you make for your recovery are to be looked upon as best heard by God, if they move him to a longer continuance of your sickness. *Wake*. 16. To LOOK on. To be a mere idle spectator.—

I'll be a candle-holder, and look on. *Shak*.

—Some come to meet their friends, and to make merry; others come only to look on. *Bacon*. 17. To LOOK over. To examine; to try one by one.

Look o'er the present and the former time,

If no example of so vile a crime

Appears, then mourn.

*Dryden*.

—A young child, distracted with the variety of play-games, tired his maid every day to look them over. *Locke*. 18. To LOOK out. To search; to seek.—When the thriving tradesman has got more than he can well employ in trade, his next thoughts are to look out for a purchase. *Locke*.—Where the body is affected with pain or sickness, we are forward enough to look out for remedies. *Atterbury*.—Where a foreign tongue is elegant, expressive, and compact, we must look out for words as beautiful and comprehensive as can be found. *Felton*.—The curious are looking out, some for flattery, some for ironies, in that poem. *Swift*. 19. To LOOK out. To be on the watch.—Is a man bound to look out sharp to plague himself? *Collier*. 20. To LOOK to. To watch; to take care of.—There is not a more fearful wild fowl than your lion living, and we ought to look to it. *Shak*.—

Who knocks so loud at door?

Look to the door there, Francis.

*Shak*.

—Let this fellow be looked to: let some of my people have a special care of him. *Shak*.—

Uncleanly scruples fear not you; look to't.

*Shak*.

—Know the state of thy flocks, and look well to thy herds. *Prov*. xxvii. 33.—When it came once among our people, that the state offered conditions to strangers that would stay, we had work enough to get any of our men to look to our ship. *Bacon*.—If any took sanctuary for ease of treason, the king might appoint him keepers to look to him in sanctuary. *Bacon*.—The dog, running away with the flesh, bids the cook look better to it another time. *L'Esrange*.—For the truth of the theory I am in nowise concerned; the composer of it must look to that. *Woburn*. 21. To LOOK to. To behold.

(2.) \* To LOOK. v. a. 1. To feel for.—

Looking my love, I go from place

Like a young fawn that late hath laid

And seek each where.

2. To turn the eye upon.—Let us look ther in the face. 2 *Kings*, xiv. 8. 3. by looks.—

A spirit fit to start into an empire

And look the world to law.

4. To LOOK out. To discover by searching my eye upon so many of the ge next came to hand, I found encourage them to look out all the bills I could. Whoever has such treatment when I will look out other company, with will be at ease. *Locke*.

\* LOOKER. n. f. [from look.]

looks. 2. LOOKER on. Spectator, Shepherds poor pipe, when his harsh sighs anguish, into the fair looker on, passion enters. *Sidney*.—Such labour necessary then pleasant, both to them undertake it, and for the lookers on. He

My business in this state

Made me a looker on here in Vienna

Where I have seen corruption boil

Till it o'er-run the stew.

Did not this fatal war affront thee

Yet fattest thou an idle looker on?

—The Spaniard's valour lieth in the looker on; but the English valour lieth in the soldier's heart. *Bacon*.—

The people love him;

The lookers on, and the enquiring

Will talk themselves to action.

He wish'd he had indeed been g

And only to have stood a looker on

(1.) \* LOOKING-GLASS. n. f. [from

Mirror; a glass which shews forms

Go some of you and fetch a look

—There is none so homely but look glass. *South*.—We should make no our neighbours faults, than of a look mend our own manners by. *L'Esrange* surface of the lake of Nemi is never the least breath of wind, which together with the clearness of its waters, generally the name of Diana's looking-glass.

(2.) LOOKING-GLASS. See CATOPTRIC, and OPTICS.

(3.) LOOKING-GLASSES, CASTING AND POLISHING OF. See GLASS-MEN XII. XIII.

(4.) LOOKING-GLASSES, FOLIATING FOLIATING.

(1.) LOOK OUT, n. f. in the sea watchful attention to some important vent, which is expected to arise from situation of a ship, &c. It is principally navigation, when there is a probability from the real or supposed proximity of enemies. There is always a look-ship's fore-castle at sea, to watch for various objects lying near her track, as she makes a gradual approach as if the mate of the watch according

he quarter-deck, "Look out afore there!" persons appointed for this service.

LOOK-OUT, CAPE, a cape of N. Carolina. 6. 48. W. Lat. 34. 22. N.

LOOK-OUT, CAPE, a cape of Hudson's Bay. 19. 10. W. Lat. 55. 30. N.

LO, *n. f.* in metallurgy, a vessel made to : the washings of ores of metals. The hea- more metalline part of the ores remain in ough in which they are washed; the lighter ore earthy run off with the water, but set- the lool.

\* LOOM. *n. f.* [from *glomus*, a bottom of , *Minshew*. *Lome* is a general name for a : instrument. *Junius*.] The frame in which avers work their cloth.—He must leave no i thread in his loom. *Gov. of the Tongue*.— The web the string,

l o'er a loom of marble hung. *Addif.*  
 thousand maidens ply the purple loom,  
 weave the bed. *Prior.*

LOOM, in weaving, is a machine whereby distinct threads are woven into one piece. : are of various structures, accommodated various kinds of materials to be woven, and rious maner of weaving them; *viz.* for ns, silks, lincns, cottons, cloths of gold: her works, as tapestry, ribbands, stockings, hich will be found under their proper heads. EAVING. The weaver-loom-engine, other- alled the Dutch loom-engine, was brought se from Holland to London, in or about

\* LOOM. *n. f.* A bird.—A loom is as big as fe; of a dark colour, dappled with white on the neck, back, and wings; each fea- rked near the point with two spots: they in Farr Island. *Greav.*

LOOM, in geography, a town of Norway.

\* To LOOM. *v. n.* [*looman*, Sax.] To appear *Skinner*.

To Loom is also used to denote the indif- ferance of any distant object.

LOM-GALE, *n. f.* at sea, a gentle easy gale of in which a ship can carry her top-sails a-trip, M, HEIR, in law. See HEIR-LOOM.

\* LOON. *n. f.* [This word, which is now nly in Scotland, is the English word *loam*.] y fellow; a scoundrel; a rascal.—

Thou cream-fac'd loon!  
 ere got't thou that goose look? *Sbak.*  
 he false loom, who could not work his will  
 open force, employ'd his flatt'ring skill.

*Dryden.*  
 s young lord had an old cunning rogue; or,  
 Scots call it, a false loom of a grandfather,  
 he might call a Jack of all trades. *Arbutn.*

\* LOOP. *n. f.* [from *loopen*, Dutch, to run.] ble through which a firing or lace is drawn; amental double or fringe.—  
 or any skill'd in loops of ning'ring fine. *Spens.*  
 lake me to see it, or at least so prove it,  
 t the probation bear no hinge, nor loop,  
 hang a doubt on. *Sbak. Oibello.*

ind our crooked legs in hoops  
 le of shells, with silver loops. *Ben Jonson.*  
 old fellow shall wear this or that sort of cut  
 cloath's with great integrity, while all the

rest of the world are de,enerated into buttons, pockets, and loops. *Addison.*

(2.) LOOP, in the iron works, is a part of a sow or block of cast iron broken or melted off from the rest, and prepared for the forge or hammer. The usual method is, to break off the loop of about 3 of a cwt. This loop they take up with their slinging tongs, and beat it with iron sledges upon an iron plate near the fire, that so it may not fall to pieces, but be in a condition to be carried under the hammer. It is then placed under the hammer, and a little water being drawn to make the hammer move but softly, it is beat very gently, and by this means the dross and foulness are forced off, and after this they draw more and more water by degrees, and beat it more and more till they bring it to a square mass, of about two feet long, which they call a BLOOM.

\* LOOPED. *adj.* [from *loop*.] Full of holes.—  
 How shall your houseless heads and unfed sides,  
 Your loop'd and window'd raggedness, defend  
 you

From seasons such as these? \* *Sbak. K. Lear.*

\* LOOPHOLE. *n. f.* [*loop* and *hole*.] 1. Aper- ture; hole to give a passage.—

At loopholes cut thro' thickest shade. *Milton.*

Ere the blabbing Eastern scout

The nice morn on the Indian steep,

From her cabin'd loophole peep. *Milton.*

—Walk not near yon corner house by night; for

there are blunderbusses planted in every loophole,

that go off at the squeaking of a fiddle. *Dryden.*

2. A shift; an evasion.—

Needless, or needful, I not now contend,

For still you have a loophole for a friend. *Dryd.*

\* LOOPHOLED. *adj.* [from *loophole*.] Full of holes; full of openings, or void spaces.—

This uneasy loopbol'd gaol,

In which ye're hamper'd by the fetlock,

Cannot but put y'in mind of wedlock. *Hudibr.*

LOOPING, in metallurgy, a word used by the miners of some counties of England, to express the running together of the matter of an ore into a mass, in the roasting or first burning, intended only to calcine it so far as to make it fit for powdering. This accident, which gives the miners some trouble, is generally owing to the continuing the fire too long in this process.

LOO-POOL, a lake of Cornwall, formed by the Loo; near Helston, 2 miles long; separated from the sea, by a ridge over which the waves beat in high tides.

\* LOORD. *n. f.* [*loerd*, Dutch; *lourdant*, Fr.

*lurdan*, Erie; a heavy, stupid, or witless fellow.

*D. Trevoux* derives *lourdant* from *Lorde* or *Lourde*,

a village in Gascoigny, the inhabitants of which were formerly noted robbers, say they. But dex-

terity in robbing implies some degree of subtily,

from which the Gascoigns are so far removed,

that they are aukward and heavy to a proverb.

The Erie imports some degree of knavery, but in

a ludicrous sense, as in English, you pretty rogue;

though in general it denotes reproachful heaviness,

or stupid laziness. *Spenser's* Scholiast says, *loord*

was wont, among the old Britons, to signify a

lord; and therefore the Danes, that usurped their

tyranny here in Britain, were called, for more

dread than dignity, *lurdans*, i. e. lord Danes,

whole

whose insolence and pride was so outrageous in this realm, that if it fortun'd a Briton to be going over a bridge, and saw the Dane set foot upon the same, he must return back till the Dane was clean over, else he must abide no less than present death: but being afterwards expelled, the name of *lurdane* became so odious unto the people whom they had long oppress'd, that, even at this day, they use for more reproach to call the quartan ague the fever *lurdane*. So far the Scholiast, but erroneously. From *Spenser's* own words, it signifies something of stupid dulness rather than magisterial arrogance. *Macbean.*] A drone.—

Siker, thou'st but a lazy *lord*. *Spenser's Past.*

LOOSA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, in the polyandria class of plants. The calyx is pentaphyllous, superior; there are five subovate, cucullated, and large petals; the nectarium consists of 3 leaves, gathered into a conical figure, each terminated by two filaments; the capsule is turbinate, unilocular, and trivalved at top; the seeds are very numerous; and there are 3 linear and longitudinal sinuses.

LOOSDUYNEN, or LAUSDUN, a village of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Delft;  $3\frac{1}{2}$  miles SSW. of the Hague; famous for a monument in its church-yard, in memory of the countess of Henneberg, concerning whom it records a most incredible legend. The inscription bears, that this countess, Margaret, was daughter of Florence IV. earl of Holland and Zealand, sister to William, K. of the Romans, and wife of Herman, earl of Henneberg: That having one day challenged a poor woman with infidelity to her husband, because she had twins, the woman wished that she might bring forth as many children at a birth as there are days in the year; in consequence of which imprecation the countess was delivered of 365 children of both sexes; who, after being baptized by Guido, Bp. of Utrecht, all died, with the mother, and were buried in this church; A. D. 1276. This ridiculous story is gravely related as a fact well attested by Erasmus, Vives, Camerarius, Guiccardini, and many other authors.

(1.) \* LOOSE. *adj.* [from the verb.] 1. Unbound; untied.—If he should intend his voyage towards my wife, I would turn her *loose* to him; and what he gets more of her than sharp words, let it lie on my head. *Shak.*—Lo! I see four men *loose*, walking. *Dan.* iii. 25. 2. Not fast; not fixed.—Those few that clash'd might rebound after the collision; or if they cohered, yet by the next conflict might be separated again, and so on in an eternal vicissitude of fast and *loose*. *Bentley.* 3. Not tight; as, a *loose* robe. 4. Not crowded; not close.—

With extended wings a host might pass,

With horse and chariots, rank'd in *loose* array.

*Milton.*

5. Wanton; not chaste.—

Now a *loose* leman to vile service bound. *F. Q.*

When *loose* epistles violate chaste eyes,

She half consents who silently denies. *Dryden.*

6. Not close; not concise; lax.—If an author be *loose* and diffuse in his style, the translator needs only regard the propriety of the language. *Felton.*

7. Vague; indeterminate; not accurate.—It is but a *loose* thing to speak of possibilities, without the particular designs. *Baron.*—It seems unaccounta-

ble to be so exact in the quantity of liquor a small error was of little concern, and to *loose* in the doses of powerful medicines. *A.*

8. Not strict; not rigid.—Because com-

maketh them diligent observers of circum-

stances, the *loose* regard whereof is the nurse of vul-

garly. *Hooker.* 9. Unconnected; rambling.—

venture nothing without a strict examination as much ashamed to put a *loose* indigestion

upon the publick, as to offer brass for mon-

ey payment. *Dryden.*—Vario spends whole months

in running over *loose* and unconnected pages with fresh curiosity is ever glancing over words and ideas, and yet treasures up but little

knowledge. *Watts.* 10. Lax of body; not firm.—What hath a great influence upon the body is going to stool regularly: people that are *loose* have seldom strong thoughts, or strong

reason. *Locke.* 11. Difengaged; not enslaved.—The vailing principle is, to fit as *loose* from pleasure and be as moderate in the use of them, as the

Attorney. 12. Difengaged from obligation commonly with *from*; in the following line will

Now I stand

*Loose* of my vow; but who knows my thoughts?

13. Free from confinement.—They did deliver their prisoners *loose* homeward. *Isaiab.*—

With the wildest tempests *loose*.

14. Remiss; not attentive. 15. To break loose. To gain liberty.—If to break *loose* from the re-

straint of reason, and to want that restraint of reason which keeps us from chusing the worst

liberty, madmen and fools are the only fit

examples. *Locke.*—

Like two black storms on either hand  
Our Spanish army and the Indians stand  
This only space betwixt the clouds is eld  
Where you, like day, broke *loose* from bound  
to appear.

16. To let loose. To set at liberty; to set large; to free from any restraint.—And leaving bird *loose* into the open field. *Luc.*

When God lets *loose* a tyrant upon us, or a pest, if we fear to die, or know not to be free, the calamity sits heavy upon us. *Taylor.*—

Division and division, either of space or duration, the number of its repeated additions or deductions that alone remains distinct, as will appear in one who will let his thoughts *loose* in the expansion of space, or divisibility of matter. *I.* If improvement cannot be made a recreation must be let *loose* to the childish play they which they should be weaned from, by made surfeit of it. *Locke.*

(2.) \* LOOSE. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Liberty from restraint.—

Come, give thy soul a *loose*, and taste pleasures of the poor.  
Lucia, might my big swollen heart  
Vent all its griefs, and give a *loose* to fear  
Marsio could answer thee in sighs.  
When glorious fields and opening car  
views,  
He runs with an unbounded *loose*.  
—Poets should not, under a pretence of imitating the ancients, give themselves such a *loose* in language as if there were no connection in the world



Dismission from any restraining force.—  
 ge maketh no noise, except it be sharply  
 l by a hard and stiff body; and with a  
*lc. Bacon.*

To LOOSE. *v. a.* [*lesan*, Saxon.] 1. To  
 to untie any thing fastened.—The shoes  
 t I am not worthy to loose. *Abis.*—Can'st  
 the bands of Orion? *Job.*—Who is wor-  
 ofe the seals thereof? *Rev. v. 2.*—This is  
 e knot when we cannot loose it. *Burnet.*  
*lax.*—The joints of his loins were loosed.  
 3. To unbind any one bound.—Loose him  
 ; him to me. *Luke.* 4. To free from im-  
 nt.—The captive hasteneth that he may  
 . *Isaiab.*—He loosed, and set at liberty,  
 ive kings of the people of that country,  
 k kept in chains. *Abbot.* 5. To free from  
 ation.—Art thou loosed from a wife? seek  
 e. *1 Cor.* 6. To free from any thing that  
 the mind.—

there's the man, who, loos'd from lust  
 id self,  
 the pretor owes than to himself. *Dryd.*  
 e from any thing painful.—Woman, thou  
 from thy infirmity. *Luke.* 8. To disen-

They loos'd their hold again. *Dryden.*  
 To LOOSE. *v. n.* To set sail; to depart  
 g the anchor.—Ye should have hearken-  
 not have loosed from Crete. *Abis.*—The  
 loosing from Barcelona, came to the port  
 , in the island of Minorca. *Knolles.*—  
 hence by night, they were driven by con-  
 ds back into his port. *Raleigh.*

LOSELY. *adv.* [from loose.] 1. Not fast;  
 y; easily to be disengaged.—  
 ought your love eternal: was it ty'd  
 ily, that a quarrel could divide?

*Dryden's Aurengzebe.*

out bandage.—  
 golden locks for haste were loosely shed  
 her ears. *Fairy Queen.*

out union or connection.—  
 loosely wing the region, part more wise,  
 mon, rang'd in figure, wedge their way.  
*Milton.*

s within himself, all degrees of perfection  
 loosely and separately in all second beings.

4. Irregularly.—A bishop, living loosely,  
 ged that his conversation was not accor-  
 he apostles lives. *Camden.* 5. Negligent-  
 :fully.—We have not loosely through silence  
 d things to pass away as in a dream.  
 The chiming of some particular words  
 :mory, and making a noise in the head,  
 appeas but when the mind is lazy, or ve-  
 and negligently employed. *Locke.* 6.

; meanly; without dignity.—A prince  
 t be so loosely studied, as to remember  
 a composition. *Shak.* 7. Unchastely.—  
 stage how loosely does Astræa tread,  
 airly puts all characters to bed? *Pope.*

To LOOSEN. *v. a.* [from loose.] 1. To re-  
 hing tied. 2. To make less coherent.—  
 ear's rooting, then shaking doth the tree  
 loosening of the earth. *Bacon.* 3. To se-

compages.—

From their foundation loosing to an d fro,  
 They pluck'd the seated hills. *Milton.*  
 She breaks her back, the loosen'd sides give  
 way,

And plunge the Tuscan soldiers in the sea. *Dryd.*  
 4. To free from restraint.—It loosens his hands, and  
 assists his understanding. *Dryden.* 5. To make  
 not costive.—Fear loosenseth the belly; because the  
 heat retiring towards the heart, the guts are relax-  
 ed in the same manner as fear also causeth trem-  
 bling. *Bacon.*

(2.) \* To LOOSEN. *v. n.* [from loose.] To part;  
 to tend to separation.—When the polypus appears  
 in the throat, extract it that way, it being more  
 ready to loosen when pulled in that direction than  
 by the nose. *Sbarr's Surgery.*

\* LOOSENESS. *n. f.* [from loose.] 1. State con-  
 trary to that of being fast or fixed.—The cause of  
 the casting of skin and shell should seem to be the  
 looseness of the skin or shell, that sticketh not close  
 to the flesh. *Bacon.* 2. Latitude; criminal levity.  
 —A general looseness of principles and manners  
 hath seized on us like a pestilence, that walketh  
 not in darkness, but wasteth at noon-day. *Atter-*  
*bury.* 3. Irregularity; neglect of laws.—He en-  
 deavoured to win the common people both by  
 strained curtesy and by looseness of life. *Hayward.*  
 5. Lewdness; unchastity.—

Courtly court he made still to his dame,  
 Pour'd out in looseness on the grassy ground,  
 Both careless of his health and of his fame. *Spensf.*

5. Diarrhœa; flux of the belly.—Taking cold mo-  
 veth looseness by contraction of the skin and out-  
 ward parts. *Bacon.*—In pestilent diseases, if they  
 cannot be expelled by sweat, they fall likewise in-  
 to looseness. *Bacon.*—Fat meats, in phlegmatick sto-  
 machs, procure looseness and hinder retention.  
*Arbutnot.*

(1.) \* LOOSESTRIFE. *n. f.* [*Lysimachia*, Lat.] An  
 herb. *Miller.*

(2.) LOOSE-STRIPE. See LYSIMACHIA.

(1.) LOOTS, a ci-devant county of Germany,  
 in the late bishopric of Liege, now included in the  
 French republic, and dep. of the Ourte. It was  
 bounded on the E. by Lunburg, S. by Halby, W.  
 by Brabant, and N. by Champagne.

(2.) LOOTS, a town of the French republic, late  
 capital of the above county, 16 miles W. of Mac-  
 stricht. Lon. 5. 19. E. Lat. 50. 52. N.

\* LOP. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. That which  
 is cut from trees.—

Now thyself hath lost both lop and top,  
 As my budding branch thou would'st crop.

—You must cut it down, or else both body and  
 lop will be of little value. *Martimer.* 2. [LOPPA,  
 Swedish.] A flea.

\* To LOP. *v. a.* [It is derived by *Skinner* from  
 laube, German, a leaf.] 1. To cut the branches  
 of trees.—

Gentle niece, what stern ungentle hands  
 Have lopp'd and hew'd, and made thy body bare  
 Of her two branches? *Shak.*

Like to pillars,  
 Or hollow'd bodies, made of oak or fir,  
 With branches lopp'd in wood, or mountain  
 fell'd. *Mill.*

The

plants, whose luxury was lopp'd, with cranes underprop'd. *Cleavel.* grow from a plant to a great tree, d, is the same oak. *Locke.*—the bore, instead of Cynthia's spear, growth of the luxuriant year. *Pope.* v this —The gardener may lop reli-

—there's a head, mountains spirits fly;

*Dryden.*

annated it paradise was lopp'd off d that only left which it enjoyed its neighbour countries. *Woodw.* edicls bonds the poetries, } ax or wheel applies, } enic, or stretch it into size, }

*Smith.*

if leap. Obsolete.—

ing forth a naked swain, ngs like peacock's train,

*Spenser.*

ope to a tree.

town of Naples, in Abruzzo.

DP) LOPPHIUS, or INDIAN ROOT, in the materia medica. plant to which this article belongs is unknown. neither the woody nor cortical part of the root has any remarkable sensible quality. A slight bitterness is perceptible; and it is recommended, like simarouba, in diarrhoeas even of the colliquative kind, in half-dram doses four times a-day. Little of this root has been brought to Europe: but some of those who have had an opportunity of employing it, speak in very high terms of the effects obtained from it.

(2.) LOPEZ DE VEGA. See VEGA.

LOPHIUS, FISHING FROG, TOAD-FISH, or SEA-DEVIL; a genus of the branchiostegous order of fishes, whose head is in size equal to all the rest of the body. There are 3 species; the most remarkable is

LOPHIUS PISCATORIUS, the common *fishing frog*, an inhabitant of the British seas. This singular fish was called by the ancients *βαγχαλις*, and *rana*, for the same reason that we call it the *fishing frog*; because it resembles the frog in a tadpole state. Pliny takes notice of the artifice used by it to take its prey: "It puts forth the slender horns it has beneath its eyes, enticing by that means the little fish to play round, till they come within reach, when it springs on them." The fishing frog grows to a large size, some being between 4 and 5 feet long. The fishermen on that coast have a great regard for this fish, from a supposition that it is a great enemy to the dog-fish; and whenever they take it with their lines, set it at liberty. It is a fish of very great deformity: the head is much bigger than the whole body; is round at the circumference, and flat above, the mouth of a prodigious wideness. Mr Pennant mentions one taken near Scarborough, whose mouth was a yard wide. The under jaw is much longer than the upper: the jaws are full of slender sharp teeth: in the roof of the mouth are 2 or 3 rows of the same: at the root of the tongue, opposite each other, are two bones of an elliptical form, thick set with very strong sharp teeth. The nostrils do not appear externally, but in the upper part of the mouth are two large orifices that serve instead of

them. On each side the upper jaw are spines, and others are scattered about the part of the head. Immediately above the two long tough filaments, and on the others; these are what Pliny calls *cornua* says it makes use of to attract the little fish seem to be like lines flung out for that long the edges of the head and body are tude of short fringed skins, placed at equies. The aperture to the gills is placed each of these is very wide, so that four have imagined it to be a receptacle for in time of danger. The body grows like the tail, the end of which is quite even. four of the upper part of this fish is d lower part white; the skin smooth.

LOPO, a lake of Thibet, 18 miles l

\* LOPPER. *n. f.* [from *lop*.] One that

\* LOPPERED. *adj.* Coagulated; as milk. *Ainsw.* Thus it is still called in

\* LOQUACIOUS. *adj.* [from *loquax*, Lat. of talk; full of tongue.—

To whom sad Eve,

Confessing soon; yet not before her ju Bold, or *loquacious*, thus abash'd reply

In council she gives licence to her t *Loquacious*, brawling, ever in the wro

2. Speaking.— Blind British bards, with volant to Traverse *loquacious* strings, whose sole Provoke to harmless revels.

3. Apt to blab; not secret.

\* LOQUACITY. *n. f.* [from *loquacitas*, Lat. much talk.—Why *loquacity* is to be aw wife man gives sufficient reason, for in t tude of words there wanteth not fin. *K*

great *loquacity*, and too great taciturnit *Arbutnot.*

(1.) LORA, a town of Spain, in Sevi

(2.) LORA, a town and port of Upper LORANCA, a town of Spain, in N.

LORANTHUS, in botany, a genus c

nogyuia order, in the hexandria class c and in the natural method ranking unde

order, *Aggregat.e.* The germen is inter is no calyx; the corolla is sixfid and r

the stamina are at the tops of the petals ry is monospermous. There is only o

a native of America, discovered by F. and found growing naturally at La Ver.

Dr Houston. It rises with a shrubby t 10 feet high, dividing into several bran

vating at their ends clusters of small fear ed flowers, succeeded by oval berries wi

covering, and a hard shell with one cell several compressed seeds. It is prop

seeds, which should be sown soon afte ripe; otherwise they are very apt to m

lie a year in the ground without ge The plants require always to be kept

stove. LORARI, among the Romans, offic business it was, with whips and scourge pel the gladiators to engage. They als

flaves for disobedience. LORBUS, a town of Tunis, with a some fine relics of antiquity, 150 mil

Tunis. (1.)

**MURCIA**, a town of Spain, in Murcia, forty, inhabited chiefly by descendants of 34 miles SW. of Murcia, and 42 W. of na.

**MURCIA**, a town of Suabia, in Wirtemberg. H, and } two towns of the French re-  
-HAUSEN, } public, in the dept. of the  
d Moselle, and late electorate of Mentz;  
r 24 miles WNW. and the latter 27 W.

. Lorch is famous for fine wines.  
**LORD**. *n. f.* [*blaford*, Saxon.] 1. Mo-  
nief; governour.—

Man over man  
ie not lord.  
thens he was lord. *Dryd. Knight's Tale.*  
ve our author's only arguments to prove,  
are lords over their brethren. *Locke.*

call'd their lord Actæon to the game,  
ok his head in answer. *Addison.*  
love; o'er fear; extends his wide domain,  
uer'd lord of pleasure and of pain.

*Vanity of Human Wishes.*  
; supreme person.—

But now I was the lord  
fair mansion. *Shak. Merch. of Venice.*  
it; an oppressive ruler.—Now being as-  
to one company, rather without a lord  
berty to accomplish their misery, they  
ifion. *Hayward.*—

leath to fight, but kingly to controul  
e at ease, with arbitrary pow'r,  
the chiefs, the people to devour. *Dryd.*  
and.—

in bitterness of soul deplor'd  
nt daughter, and my dearer lord. *Pope.*  
io is at the head of any business; an o-

: harvest lord more by a penny or two,  
on his fellows the better to do. *Tupper.*  
man.—

art a lord, and nothing but a lord. *Shak.*  
al name for a peer of England.—Nor  
rimes objected against him so clear, as  
winning satisfaction to the major part  
uses, especially that of the lords. *King*  
l. A baron, as distinguished from those  
title. 9. An honorary title applied to  
3, lord chief justice, lord mayor, lord

is a title of honour given to those who  
ither by birth or creation; amounting  
e same as *peer of the realm*. The title is  
also given to all the sons of dukes and  
and to the eldest sons of earls. The  
d, *blaford*, is abbreviated from *Illaford*,  
and *Lord*. "The etymology of the  
J. Coates) is well worth observing; for  
posed of *illaf*, a loaf of bread, and *ford*,  
*fford*; so that *Illaford*, implied a giver  
cause, in those ages, such great men  
rdinary houses, and fed all the poor;  
reason they were called *givers of bread*,  
v much out of date, great men being  
aining the title, but few regarding the  
which it was first given." See *LADY*, § 2  
s, *HOUSE OF*, one of the three estates  
nt, is composed of the Lords Spiritual  
ral. (See § I. and II.) The following  
I. PART II.

are among the peculiar privileges of the house of  
Lords: 1. One very ancient privilege is declared  
by the charter of the forest, confirmed in parlia-  
ment, 9 Hen. III.; viz. that every lord spiritual  
or temporal summoned to parliament, and passing  
through the king's forests, may, both in going  
and returning, kill one or two of the king's deer  
without warrant; in view of the forester if he be  
present, or on blowing a horn if he be absent; that  
he may not seem to take the king's venison by  
stealth. 2. They have a right to be attended  
and constantly are, by the judges of the court of  
king's bench and common pleas, and such of the  
barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the  
coif, or have been made serjeants at law; also by  
the king's learned counsel, being serjeants, and by  
the masters of the court of chancery; for their ad-  
vice in point of law, and for the greater dignity  
of their proceedings. The secretaries of state, with  
the attorney and solicitor general, also used to at-  
tend the house of peers, and have to this day (to-  
gether with the judges, &c.) their regular writs  
of summons issued out at the beginning of every  
parliament, *ad tractandum et consilium impenden-*  
*dum*, though not *ad consentiendum*; but, whenever  
of late years they have been members of the house  
of commons, their attendance in the house of lords  
bath fallen into disuse. 3. Every peer, by licence  
obtained from the king, may make another lord  
of parliament his proxy, to vote for him in his  
absence: A privilege, which a member of the  
other house can by no means have, as he himself is  
but a proxy for a multitude of other people. 4.  
Each peer has a right, by leave of the house, when  
a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his  
dissent on the journal of the house, with the rea-  
sons for such dissent; which is usually styled his *pro-*  
*test*. 5. All bills, that may in their consequences  
any way affect the rights of the peerage, are by  
the custom of parliament to have their first rise in  
the house of peers, and to suffer no changes or a-  
mendments in the house of commons. 6. There  
is also one statute peculiarly relative to the house  
of lords; 6 Ann. c. 13. which regulates the elec-  
tion of the 16 representative peers of North Bri-  
tain, in consequence of the 22d and 23d articles  
of the union; and for that purpose prescribes the  
oaths, &c. to be taken by the electors; directs  
the mode of balloting; prohibits the peers elec-  
ting from being attended in an unusual manner;  
and expressly provides, that no other matter shall  
be treated of in that assembly, save only the elec-  
tion, on pain of incurring a præmunite; and a sim-  
ilar act was passed in 1800, regulating the elec-  
tions of the Irish Peers. See *NOBILITY* and *PEERS*.

1. *The LORDS, SPIRITUAL*, consist of 2 arch-  
bishops and 24 bishops; and, at the dissolution  
of monasteries by Henry VIII. consisted likewise  
of 26 mitred abbots and two priors: a very con-  
siderable body, and in those times equal in num-  
ber to the temporal nobility. All these hold, or  
are supposed to hold, certain ancient baronies un-  
der the king's for William I. thought proper to  
change the spiritual tenure of frankalmoign or  
free-tiths, under which the bishops held their  
lands during the Saxon government, into the feo-  
dal or Norman tenure by barony; which sub-  
jected their estates to all civil charges and assess-

ments, from which they were before exempt; and in right of succession to those baronies, which were unalienable from their respective dignities, the bishops and abbots were allowed their seats in the house of lords. But though these lords spiritual are in the eye of the law a distinct estate from the lords temporal, and are so distinguished in most of our acts of parliament; yet in practice they are usually blended together under the name of *the lords*; they intermix in their votes, and the majority of such intermixture joins both estates. And from this want of a separate assembly, and separate negative of the prelates, some writers have argued very cogently, that the lords spiritual and temporal are now in reality only one estate: which is unquestionably true in every effectual sense, though the ancient distinction between them still nominally continues. For if a bill should pass their house, there is no doubt of its validity, though every lord spiritual should vote against it; of which Selden and Sir Edward Coke give many instances: as, on the other hand, doubtless it would be equally good, if the lords temporal present were inferior to the bishops in number, and every one of those temporal lords gave his vote to reject the bill; though this Sir Edward Coke seems to doubt of.

II. *The Lords, TEMPORAL*, consist of all the peers of the realm, (the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament), by whatever title of nobility distinguished; dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, or barons. Some of these sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all new made ones; others, since the union with Scotland, and lately with Ireland, by election, which is the case of the 16 Scots peers, and 30 Irish peers who represent the body of the Scots and Irish nobility. Their number is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown: and once, in the reign of Queen Anne, there was an instance of creating no less than 12 together; in contemplation of which, in the reign of K. George I. a bill passed the house of lords, and was countenanced by the then ministry, for limiting the number of the peerage. This was thought by some to promise a great acquisition to the constitution, by restraining the prerogative from gaining the ascendancy in that august assembly, by pouring in at pleasure an unlimited number of new-created lords. But the bill was ill received, and miscarried in the house of commons, whose leading members were then desirous to keep the avenues to the other house as open and easy as possible. See KING, NOBILITY, PARLIAMENT; also COMMONS, and COMMONALTY, § 2.

(4.) *LORES OF REGALTY*. See LAW, PART III, Chap. I, § 3, III, § 4; and REGALTY.

\* *To LORD*, *v. n.* To dominate; to rule despotically: with *over* before the subject of power.

The virtues the *lordeth* in licentious bliss

Of her free will. *Spenser*.

I see them *lording* it in London streets. *Shak.*

—Those huge tracts of ground they *lorded over*, begat wealth, wealth us'd in pride. *Howel.*—

They had by this possess'd the towers of Gath,

And *lorded over* them.

*Milton.*

—I should choose rather to be tumbled  
dust in blood, bearing witness to any kn  
of our Lord, than by a denial of truths  
blood and perjury, wade to a sceptre  
it in a throne. *South.*—

But if thy passions *lord* it in thy br  
Art thou not still a slave?

The valour of one man th' afflicte  
Imperial, that once *lorded o'er* the w  
Sustain'd.

Proud vagabonds! who make the  
home,

And *lord* it where you have no right  
LORD HOWE'S ISLAND. See HOWE!  
LORDI, a nation of Illyricum.

\* *LORDING*, *n. f.* [from *lord*.] A  
a lord in contempt or ridicule.—

I'll question you  
Of my lord's tricks, and yours, who  
boys.

You were pretty *lordings* then!  
To *lordings* proud I tune my lay,  
Who feast in bower or hall.

\* *LORDLINESS*, *n. f.* [from *lordly*  
nity; high station.—

Thou vouchsafest here to visit me  
Doing the honour of thy *lordliness*  
To one so weak!

2. Pride; haughtiness.

\* *LORDLING*, *n. f.* A diminutive  
Traulus, of amphibious breed,  
By the dam from *lordlings* sprung,  
By the fire exhal'd from dung.

(1.) \* *LORDLY*, *adj.* [from *lord*.]  
ting a lord.—*Lordly* sins require *lordly*  
support them. *South.* 2. Proud; nar  
picious; insolent.—

Bad, as yourself, my Lord;  
Ain't like your *lordly*, lord protector!  
—Lords are *lordly* in their wize  
Expect another message more inq  
More *lordly* thund'ring than thou  
hear.

Ev'ry rich and *lordly* swain,  
With pride wou'd drag about her ct

(2.) \* *LORDLY*, *adv.* Imperiously;  
ly proudly.—

A famish'd lion, issuing from the  
Roars *lordly* fierce.

*LORDOSIS*, [of *lordos*, bent inward  
medical writings, a name given to a c  
flute of the spine, in which it is bent i  
toward the anterior parts. It is used  
tion to *gibbous*, or *hump-backed*. See!

\* *LORDSHIP*, *n. f.* [from *lord*.] 1.  
power.—Let me never know that any  
tion should get any *lordship* in you  
*Sidney*.—It being set upon such an in  
of the ground, it gives the eye *lordship*  
large circuit. *Sidney*.—They which are  
to rule over the Gentiles, exercise *in*  
them. *Mark*, x. 42.—Needs must the *l*  
from virtue slide. *Fairfax*. 2. Seigneur  
—How can those grants of the kings  
without wronging of these lords whic  
lands and *lordships* given them? *Sp*  
is *lordship* of the see, wherein the 1

when he walketh about his own possession.—

lands and lordships for their own work now lam barber, but his worship now. *Dryd.* Honour used to a nobleman not a duke.

I assure your lordship, me horror of it almost turn'd me when first I heard it. *Ben J.* Not answer it to the world, if I gave lordship my testimony of being the best w living. *Dryd.* 4. Titulary commanders, and some other persons in id office.

ORE. *n. f.* [from *leran*, to learn.] Lesson; instruction.—

Or the modest *lore* of maidenhood or sojourn with these armed men. *Fairfax.* Or shall I fly?

Or of nations, or the *lore* of war. *Fairf.* Or standing rul'd not; and the will her *lore*! but in subjection now I appetite. *Milton.*

The subtle fiend his *lore* I'd, now milder. *Milton.*

Or herself, proud mistress now no more at thund'ring against heathen *lora*. *Pope.* *n. f.* [from *loran*, Saxon.] Lost; destroy-use.

Or, in geography, a river of France, into the Seine, at Chatillon.

Or, a town of Spain, in Grenada.

ORNO, John Francis, a Venetian nobleman of the 17th century, who wrote some esteemed particularly, *The Life of Adam*; and some *Comes of Cyprus*; and some *Comes of works* make 6 vols. 12mo.

ORON, a town of Maritime Austria, in the ovigo, on the Adige; 20 miles E. of 1. 12. 50. E. Lat 45. 5. N.

ORON. *n. f.* [from *loran*, Saxon.] An aoundrel. Obsolete.—

ORON. *n. f.* [from *loran*, Saxon.] An aoundrel. Obsolete.—

ORON, a town of Maritime Austria, of Friuli, and territory of Cadorno, of Cadorna.

ORENZO, ST a town, district and ritime Austria, in Istria. The town NE. of Rovigno.

ORENZO, ST, 3 towns of Naples: 1. in 1: 2. in Calabria Ultra, 8 miles W. of Capitanata, 3 miles SE. of Lesina.

OREZO, a district of Maritime Austria, ensive in the Dogado of Venice, com all the alluvions of the Po, and con rishes; and 12,500 souls, in 1797.

OREZO, a large town in the above district, 3,300 souls.

ORTO, a town of Italy, in the Marche with a bishop's see. It is small, but d contains the famous *casa santa*, or so much visited by pilgrims. This rding to the legend, was originally a n Nazareth, inhabited by the Virgin ich she was saluted by the angel, and ed our Saviour. After their deaths, u great veneration by all Christians, i consecrated into a chapel, and de be virgin; upon which occasion St

Luke (according to the Catholics,) made that identical image, which is still preserved here, and dignified with the name of *Our Lady of Loretto*. This sanctified edifice was allowed to sojourn in Galilee as long as that district was inhabited by Christians; but when infidels got possession of the country, a band of angels, to save it from pollution, took it in their arms, and conveyed it from Nazareth to a castle in Dalmatia. But, not having been entertained with suitable respect at this castle, the same indefatigable angels are said to have carried it over the sea, and placed it in a field belonging to a noble lady called *Lauretta*, from whom the chapel takes its name. This field happening unfortunately to be frequented by highwaymen, the angels removed it to the top of a hill belonging to two brothers; who, being equally enamoured of their new visitor, became jealous of each other, quarrelled, fought, and fell by mutual wounds. After this catastrophe, the angels finally removed the holy chapel to the eminence where it now stands, and has stood there 400 years, having lost all relish for travelling, in so much that even the arrival of the French atheists could not make it stir one foot. The sacred chapel stands due E. and W. at the farther end of a large church, of the most durable stone of Istria, which has been built round it. The inside is of the choicest marble, after a plan of San Savino's, and ornamented with basso-relievos, the workmanship of the best sculptors which Italy could furnish in the reign of Leo X. The subject of these basso-relievos are, the history of the blessed virgin, and other parts of the Bible. The whole case is about 50 in length, and 30 in breadth, and 30 in height; but the real house itself is no more than 32 feet in length, 14 in breadth, and 22 the sides about 18 feet in height; the centre of the roof is 4 or 5 feet higher. The walls of this little holy chapel are composed of pieces of a reddish substance, of an oblong square shape, laid one upon another, in the manner of brick. Before the late war, this chapel was the richest receptacle of the tribute of superstition, in Europe; and to the devotees of the Roman Catholic persuasion, the most sublime object of pilgrimage. But Gen. Bonaparte, notwithstanding his recent zeal for the church, having profanely appropriated its immense sacred treasures, its gold and silver angels, images, crucifixes, globes, and sceptres, precious stones, &c. to the use of his army and the French republic, it is unnecessary here to give a detail of its ci-devant riches and reliques. Readers who still feel any curiosity on this subject, may be amply gratified by perusing the ingenious Dr Moore's entertaining *Tour through Italy*. Loretto was taken by the French on the 4th of June 1796. Its only trade, even before the war, consisted in rosaries, crucifixes, Madonnas, Agnus Dei's, and medals, which are manufactured in this town, and sold to pilgrims, some of them at a high price; but the greater part are adapted to the purses of the buyers, and sold for a mere trifle. The poverty of these manufactures, and of the inhabitants in general, is a proof that the reputation of our Lady of Loretto was on the decline, even before the war. In the great church which contains the holy chapel are confessionals, where the penitents

from every country of Europe may be confessed in their own language, priests being always in waiting for that purpose; each of them has a long white rod in his hand, with which he touches the heads of those to whom he thinks it proper to give absolution. They place themselves on their knees in groups around the confessional chair; and when the holy father has touched their heads with the expiatory rod, they retire, freed from the burden of their sins, and with renewed courage to begin a fresh account. In the spacious area before this church there is an elegant marble fountain, supplied with water from an adjoining hill by an aqueduct. In this area there is also a statue of Sixtus V. in bronze. Over the portal of the church is a statue of the Virgin. The gates are likewise of bronze, embellished with basso-reliefs of admirable workmanship; the subjects taken from the Old and New Testaments, and divided into different compartments. There are also several paintings which are highly esteemed, particularly two in the treasury. The subject of one of these is the Virgin's Nativity, by Annibal Carracci; and of the other, a Holy Family, by Raphael. The altars, or little chapels in the great church, are lined with marble and embellished by sculpture; but nothing within it interests a traveller of sensibility so much as the iron grates before those chapels, which were made of the fetters and chains of the Christian slaves, who were freed from bondage by the glorious victory of Lepanto. The place where the governor resides stands near the church, and the ecclesiastics who are employed in it lodge in the same palace, where they receive the pilgrims of distinction. The environs of this town are very agreeable, and in fine weather the high mountains of Croatia may be seen from it. It is seated on a mountain. Lon. 13. 30. E. Lat. 43. 24. N.

(2.) **LORETTO**, a small town of Canada, 9 miles NE. of Quebec, inhabited by Christian Indians of the Huron tribe.

(3.) **LORETTO**, a town of the French republic, in Corsica, 7 miles NE. of Porta.

(4.) **LORETTO**, a river of Calabria Citra.

**LORETZ**, a river of Switzerland, which runs from the lake Zug, and falls into the Reufs.

**LORGUES**, a populous town of France, in the dep. of Var, and late prov. of Provence, on the Argens, 5 miles W. by S. of Draguignan, and 360 S. by E. of Paris. Lon. 6. 27. E. Lat. 43. 30. N.

**LORICA**, in Roman antiquity, was a cuirass, brigantine, or coat of mail, in use among the soldiers. It was generally made of leather, and is supposed to be derived from *lorum*, a thong. The loricae were set with plates of metal in various forms; sometimes in hooks or rings like a chain, sometimes like feathers, and sometimes like the scales of serpents or fishes, to which plates of gold were often added. There were many other lighter cuirasses, consisting only of many folds of linen cloth, or of flax made strong enough to resist weapons. Such soldiers as were rated under 1000 drachms, instead of the lorica now described, wore a *pellorale*. The Roman lorica was made like a shirt, and defended the wearer both before and behind, but was so contrived that the back part could be occasionally separated from the front.

Some of the loricae were made of cords or flax, close set together; whence they were called *thoraces*, *bilices*, *trilices*, &c. from the cords fixed one upon another; but they were used rather in hunting than in battle.

\* **To LORICATE**, *v. a.* To plate or ture hath *loricated*, or plaistered over, the tympanum in animals with ear-wax and entangle any insects that should at creep in there. *Ray*.

**LORICATION**, *n. f.* or **COATING**, in chemistry, is the covering a glass or earthen vessel with a coat or crust of a matter able to resist fire to prevent its breaking in the performance of a process that requires great violence of heat. *See* CHEMISTRY, § 318, 319.

(1.) \* **LORIMER**. **LORINER**, *n. f.* [from *Lorimer*] Bridlecutter.

(2.) *The LORIMERS* are one of the companies of London, that make bits for bridles, of such a size as will fit such like small iron ware. They are mentioned in stat. 1 Rich. II. c. 12.

**LORIOLE**, a town of France, in the Drome; 9 m. W. of Crest, and 12 S. of Valence.

\* **LORIENT**, *n. f.* [from *galgulus*] A kind of stone.

**LORIS**, in zoology. See **LEMUR**, N° 1.

**LORIT**, Henry, a learned critic of the 17th century, born in 1488, at Glaris, in Switzerland, and hence surnamed *Glareanus*. He was contemporary with Erasmus. His writings are numerous, and chiefly in the classics. He died in 1563.

(1.) **LORME**, Phillibert DE, one of the celebrated architects in the 16th century, born at Lyons. Q. Catherine de Medicis gave him the superintendance of buildings; and he directed the construction of those of the Louvre, the Tuileries, the castle of St Anet, St Germain's, and other edifices erected by her orders. He wrote several books of architecture, which are esteemed. He died about 1577.

(2.) **LORME**, a town of France, in the dioc. of Nevers, 6 m. ENE. of Corbigny, and 330 N. of Paris.

\* **LORN**, pret. pass. [of *lorian*, Saxo-Frisian] faken; lost.—

Who after that he had fair Una  
Through light misseeming of her loya

**LORNE**, a division of Scotland, in Argyllshire, which extends about 30 miles in length to S. and about 9 at its utmost breadth; on the E. by Braidalbin; on the W. by the Lochaber; on the N. by Lochaber; and divided on the N. by Loch Melford, and on the S. by Loch Eive; on the banks of Loch Eive stands the castle of Bergomarn, wherein the courts of justice were anciently held. This district, bounding with lakes, is the most pleasant part of Argyllshire, producing plenty of wheat and barley. It once belonged to the family of Macdougall, still residing on the estate, but devolved to the lords of Argyll in consequence of a marriage with the heiress, at that time of the Stuart family. The chief place of this district is the castle of **DUNSTAFFNAGE** (**DUNSTAFFNAGE**), a seat of the Scotts, famous previous to the conquest of the Picts by Kenneth II. On the bank of Loch Eive are the ruins of the monastery of Ardchattan, founded by the monks of Vallicaulum in Burgundy, for

Donald Macdougall, ancestor of the Mac-  
of Lorn. Here K. Robert Bruce, before  
entire possession of Scotland, held a par-

See ARDCHATTAN.—The country a-  
in Druidical, Danish, and other monuments.

OROUX BECONNOIS, a town of France,  
ep. of Mayne and Loire, 13½ miles WNW.

OROUX BOTTEBAU, a town of France,  
lep. of the Lower Loira.

OUI, a town of Spain in Murcia.—

QUIN, a town of France, in the dep. of  
e, 4½ miles SE. of Sarrbourg, and 20 E.  
ville.

RACH, a town of Suabia, in Baden.

ORRAIN, a ci-devant sovereign state of  
, and late province of France; now divi-  
d 4 departments, viz. the Meuse, Meurthe,  
, and Vosges. It was bounded on the N.  
emburg and Treves; on the E. by Alsace  
ux Ponts; on the S. by Franche Comte,  
the W. by Champagne and Bar. It is a-  
o miles long, and 75 broad; and abounds  
wine, hemp, flax, rapefeed, game, fish, and  
necessaries of life. It has fine meadows  
e forests, with mines of iron, silver, and  
; also salt pits. The principal rivers are the  
Moselle, Seille, Meurthe, and Sarre. It was  
into 3 parts; viz. 1. the duchy of Lorraine  
r so called, anciently a sovereign state; 2.  
hy of Barr, which formerly belonged to  
es of Lorraine, but afterwards came under  
ernment of France; and 3. the bishoprics  
, Toul, and Verdun, which have belonged  
ce ever since 1552. Lorraine, was ancient-

LOTHARINGIA from Lothaire I; (See  
; § 17;) and after various revolutions,  
nch, in 1733, during the war between  
and Germany, obtained possession of it.  
re peace in 1735, it was agreed, that Sta-  
king of Poland, should possess these du-  
nd that after his death they should be u-  
r ever to France. It was also agreed, that  
Stephen, duke of Lorraine, the emperor's  
w, should have the grand duchy of Tuf-  
an equivalent for Lorraine. After the death  
rand duke of Tuscany, in 1737, K. Stanis-  
the duke of Lorraine took possession of their  
ve dominions, and the cessation was con-  
nd guaranteed by a treaty in 1738. Upon  
h of K. Stanislaus in 1766, Lorraine was  
l to France. The inhabitants are labo-  
nd valiant. Their trade consists chiefly of  
d linen cloth. Nancy is the capital.

ORRAIN, Claude DE. See CLAUDE, N° 2.

ORRAIN, Henry DE, 3d Duke of Guise,

son of duke Francis, and grandson of

the first duke of Guise; and born in 1550.

a great general, but of an ambitious and

it disposition. He formed the rebellious

on called the *Leigue*, (See FRANCE, § 43.)

ined by his uncle, the cardinal of Lorraine.

retence of defending the catholic faith,

in open rebellion against Henry III, who

eanly got him assassinated at Blois, whi-

had summoned the duke to appear before

the 23d Dec. 1587.

ORRAIN, Robert DE, an eminent sculptor,

born at Paris in 1666. He made so rapid a pro-

gress in the art of designing, that at the age of 18,

the celebrated Girardon intrusted him with the

care of teaching his children and correcting his

disciples. He committed to him also, in conjunc-

tion with Noulisson, the execution of the famous

tomb of Cardinal Richelieu in the Sorbonne, and

his own tomb at St Landres in Paris. On his re-

turn from Rome, he finished several pieces at Mar-

seilles, which had been left imperfect by the death

of Mr Puget. He was received into the academy

of sculpture in 1701. His master piece is *Galatea*,

a work universally admired. He afterwards made a

Bacchus for the gardens at Versailles, a Faun for

those of Marly, and several bronzes, among which

is an Andromeda; all in an excellent taste. This

artist succeeded chiefly in heads; particularly in

those of young girls, which he performed with

incomparable delicacy and truth. He died go-

vernor of the Academy in 1742.

(1.) LORRIS, a town of France, in the dep. of

the Loiret, and late prov. of Orleanois; 12 miles

S. of Montargis, and 24 E. of Orleans.

(2.) LORRIS William DE, a French poet of the

13th century, author of the famous romance of

*the Rose*; which was early translated into English.

He died about 1250.

LORRY, Charles, A. M. D. an eminent French  
physician, born at Crosne, in 1725. He publish-  
ed, 1. *Essai sur l'usage des Alimens*; 1770. 2. *De*  
*Melancholia et morbis melancholicis*: 2 vol. 8vo 3.  
*De Morbis Cutaneis*: 4to. A translation of Dr  
Mead's works into Latin: 2 vols 8vo. He died  
in 1783.

LORYMA, an ancient town of Doris. *Liv.*

LOSARI, a town of the French republic, in  
the island and dep. of Corfica; 15 m. N. of Calvi.

LOSDORF, a town of Bohemia.

(1.)\* To LOSE. v. a. prot. and part. *loft*. [*lofan*,

Saxon.] 1. To forfeit by unsuccessful contest:

the contrary to *win*.—

I fought the battle bravely which I *loft*,

And *loft* it but to Macedonians. *Dryden.*

The lighten'd courses ran;

They rush'd and *won* by turns and *loft* the day.

*Dryden.*

2. To forfeit as a penalty. In this sense is *Para-*

*dic loft*.—

Fame—few, alas! the casual blessing boast,

So hard to gain, so easy to be *loft*! *Pope.*

3. To be deprived of.—He *loft* his right hand with

a shot, and, instead thereof, ever after used a hand

of iron. *Knolles*.—

Who conquer'd him, and in what fatal strife

The youth, without a wound could *lose* his life.

*Dryden.*

4. To suffer diminution of.—The fear of the Lord

goeth before obtaining of authority; but rough-

ness and pride is the *lofing* thereof. *Ecclef. x. 21*.—If

the salt have *loft* his labour, wherewith shall it be

salted? *Mat. 5.* To possess no longer: contrary

to *keep*.—They have *loft* their trade of woollen

drapery. *Graunt*.—

The Trojan honour and the Roman boast,

Admir'd when living, and ador'd when *loft*. *Dryd.*

—We should never *lose* sight of the country,

though sometimes entertained with a distant prof-

pect of it. *Addison*. 6. To miss, so as not to find.

*Venus*

Venus wept the sad disaster  
Of having *lost* her fav'rite dove. *Prior.*  
7. To separate or alienate. It is perhaps in this  
sense always used passively, with *to* before that  
from which the separation is made.—

But if to honour *lost* 'tis still decreed  
For you my bowl shall flow. *Pope.*  
—When men are openly abandoned, and *lost* to  
all shame, they have no reason to think it hard,  
if their memory be reproached. *Swift.* 8. To  
ruin; to send to perdition.—

In spite of all the virtue we can boast,  
The woman that deliberates is *lost*. *Addison.*  
9. To bewilder, so as that the way is no longer  
known.—

I will go *lose* myself  
And wander up and down to view the city. *Shak.*  
—Nor are constant forms of prayer more likely  
to flat and hinder the spirit of prayer and devo-  
tion, than unpremeditated and confused variety  
to distract and *lose* it. *King Char.*—When the  
mind pursues the idea of infinity, it uses the ideas  
and repetition of numbers, which are so many  
distinct ideas, kept best by number from running  
into a confused heap, wherein the mind *loses* it-  
self. *Locke.*—

*Lost* in the maze of words he turns again. *Pope.*  
10. To deprive of.—How should you go about to  
*lose* him a wife he loves with so much passion?  
*Temple.* 11. Not to employ; not to enjoy.—

The happy have whole days, and those they  
use,  
Th' unhappy have but hours, and these they  
*lose*. *Dryden.*

To *lose* these years which worthier thoughts  
require,  
To *lose* that health which should those thoughts  
inspire. *Swage.*

12. To squander, to throw away.—  
I no more complain,  
Time, health, and fortune are not *lost* in vain. *Pope.*  
13. To suffer to vanish from view.—

Like following life in creatures we dissect,  
We *lose* it in the moment we detect. *Pope.*  
Off in the passions' wild rotation tost,  
Our spring of action to ourselves is *lost*. *Pope.*

14. To destroy by shipwreck.—  
The coast

Where first my shipwreck'd heart was *lost*. *Prior.*  
15. To throw away; to employ ineffectually.—  
He has merit, good-nature, and integrity, that  
are too often *lost* upon great men. *Pope.* 16. To  
miss; to part with, so as not to recover.—These  
sharp encounters, where always many more men  
are *lost* than are killed or taken prisoners, put  
such a stop to Middleton's march, that he was  
glad to retire. *Clarendon.* 17. To be freed from;  
as, to lose a fever.—

His feely back the bunch has got  
Which Edwin *lost* before. *Parnel.*  
(2.) \* To LOSE. *v. n.* 1. Not to win.—

We'll hear poor rogues  
Talk of court news, and we'll talk with them too,  
Who *loses*, and who wins. *Shak.*

2. To decline; to fail.—  
Wisdom in discourse with her  
*Loss*: discomfiteance. *Milton.*

\* LOSABLE. *adj.* [from *lost*.] Subject to

privation.—Consider whether motion, or a propen-  
sity to it, be an inherent quality belonging to  
atoms in general, and not *loseable* by them. *Boyle.*

\* LOSEL. *n. f.* [from *lostan*, Saks. to perish.] A  
scoundrel; a sorry worthless fellow. A word now  
obsolete.—Such *losels* and scatterlings cannot easi-  
ly, by any sheriff, be gotten, when they are  
challenged for any such fact. *Spenser.*—

A *lofel* wand'ring by the way,  
One that to bounty never cast his mind,  
Ne thought of honour ever did assay  
His baster breast. *Fairy Q.*

Be not with work of *losels* wit defamed,  
Ne let such verses poetry be named. *Hubberd.*  
By Cambridge a town I do know,  
Whose *losses* by *losels* doth show  
More here then is needful to tell. *Tupper.*

A gross hag!  
And, *lofel*, thou art worthy to be hang'd  
That wilt not slay her tongue. *Shak.*

(1.) \* LOSER. *n. f.* [from *lose*.] One that is de-  
prived of any thing; one that forfeits any thing;  
one that is impaired in his possession or hope; the  
contrary to *winner* or *gainer*.—

With the *losers* let it sympathize. *Shak.*  
—If one of the speakers be vain, tedious, and  
trifling, he that hears, and he that answers, are  
equal *losers* of their time. *Taylor.*—It cannot last,  
because that act seems to have been carried on  
rather by the interest of particular countries, than  
by that of the whole, which must be a *loser* by it.

*Temple.*—  
A bull with guided horns,  
Shall be the portion of the conquering chief,  
A sword and helm shall cheer the *loser's* grief. *Dryd.*

—*Losers* and malecontents, whose portion and  
inheritance is a freedom to speak. *South.*

(2.) LOSER, a town of Bavaria, in Saltzburg.  
LOSPA, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.  
LOSTO, a town of Naples, in Bari.

\* LOSS. *n. f.* [from *lofs*.] 1. Detriment; pri-  
vation; diminution of good; the contrary to  
*gain*.—The only gain he purchased was to be ca-  
pable of *loss* and detriment for the good of others.

*Hooker.*—An evil natured son is the dishonour of  
his father that begat him; and a foolish daughter  
is born to his *loss*. *Ecclus.*—The abatement of  
price of any of the landholder's commodities, less-  
ens his income, and is a clear *loss*. *Locke.* 2.

Miss; privation.—  
If he were dead, what would betide of me?  
—No other harm but *loss* of such a lord.

The *loss* of such a lord includes all harms. *Shak.*  
3. Deprivation; forfeiture.—  
*Loss* of Eden, till one greater man  
Restore it, and regain. *Milton.*

4. Destruction.—  
Her fellow ships from far her *loss* deserv'd;  
But only she was sunk. *Dryden.*

—There succeeded an absolute victory for the  
English, with the slaughter of above 20,000 of the  
enemy, with the *loss* but of one man, though not  
at all hurt. *Bacon.* 5. Fault; puzzle: used only  
in the following phrase.—Not the least transac-  
tion of sense and motion in man, but philosophers  
are at a *loss* to comprehend. *South.*—Reason is al-  
ways striving, and always at a *loss* while it is cre-  
dited.



that which is not its proper object. nan may sometimes be at a *loss* which with. *Baker*. 6. Useless application. *at loss* of time to explain any farther to the enemy in numbers of men *addison*.

and } two rivers of Germany, in  
[CH, } Upper Saxony.

a river of Scotland, in Morayshire, in the hills of Dallas, and, after a ; miles, falls into the sea at Loffie-often overflows its banks.

OUTH, a sea port of Elgin, at the e Loffie, containing about 180 inha-1791, 49 vessels, of from 55 to 60 l its port, with coals, London and oods, bark, salt, iron, lime, &c. It it 20,000 bolls of grain, and 20 licen-e employed in 1791.

GREAT, and LITTLE, two well built uritime Austria, in the isle of Cherso, UARNARO ISLANDS, one mile distant: ontaining 1800 inhabitants, the latter

*participial adj.* [from *lose*.] No longer een days appear'd your pleasing coast, ly mountains, half in vapours *loss*.

*Pope's Odyssey*. a river of Russia, in Tobolsk.

[*לוט*, Heb. *i. e.* joined together.] the s, nephew of Abraham, and progeni-ocahites and Ammonites. His separa-raham, his captivity by Chedorlao-oration by the bravery of his uncle, nary hospitality, his deliverance from on of Sodom, his wife's metamorpho-: fatal intoxication, and involuntary eorded in Gen. xiii, xiv, and xix. s character is particularly taken notice postle Peter: 2 Ep. ii. 7, 8. Some modest worship of Baal-peor, the god bites and Ammonites, from the invol- of their ancestor. See BAAL-PEOR.

*n. s.* [*blaut*, Gothic; *blot*, Saxon; 1. Fortune; state assigned.— length concludes my ling'ring *lot*.

*Sidney*. *lot* is best; and by aiming at what we e lose what we have already. *L'Esfr*. d I stand; he was but born to try man, to suffer and to die. *Pope's Od*. ny thing used in determining chances. ll cast *lots* upon the two goats; one ord, and the other *lot* for the scape- vi. 8.—

utks in equal portions she divides, e unequal, there by *lots* decides. *Dryd*. s his friends to cast *lots*, to shew, that t voluntarily expose them to so immi- *Virgome*. 7. It seems in *Shakspeare* ucky or wished chance.—

ave heard your general talk of Rome, s friends there, it is *lots* to blanks hath touch'd your ears; it is Mene-

*Shakspeare*. 1; a parcel of goods as being drawn

by lot: as, what *lot* of silks had you at the sale? 5. Proportion of taxes; as, to pay scot and *lot*.

(3.) LOT, in geography, a department of France, bounded on the E. by that of Cantal; SE. by that of Aveyron; S. by those of the Tarn, and the Upper Garonne; W. by that of Lot and Garonne; NW. by that of Dordogne; and N. by that of Correze. It is 70 miles long, about 35 broad; and comprehends the ci-devant prov. of QUERCY. The capital is CAHORS.

(4.) LOT, a river of France, which rises about 10 miles ESE. of Mende, in the dep. of Lozere; runs through the above dep. passes by Mende, St Come, Cahors, Villeneuve, Agen, &c. and joins the Garonne near Aiguillon.

(5.) LOT AND GARONNE, a dep. of France, bounded on the N. by that of the Dordogne; E. by that of Lot; (N° 3.) S. by that of Gers, and W. by those of Landes and Gironde: 45 miles long from E. to W. and 36 broad from N. to S. It contains part of the ci-devant province of GUYENNE. AGEN is the capital.

LO-TCHANG, a town of China, in Canton.

(1.) \*LOTE tree, or nettle tree. *n. s.* A plant. —The leaves of the *lote* tree are like those of the nettle. The fruit of this tree is not so tempting to us, as it was to the companions of Ulysses: the wood is durable, and used to make pipes for wind instruments: the root is proper for hafts of knives, and was highly esteemed by the Romans for its beauty and use. *Miller*.

(2.) LOTE, or LOTE TREE. See CELTIS.

LOTEN, John, a good landscape painter of the English school, though born in Switzerland. His taste led him to solemn and dreary scenes, as land storms accompanied with showers of rain, &c. His landscapes are generally large; and he painted with nature, truth, and force; but his colouring is reckoned cold, and a darkish tint predominates in it. He died in London about 1681.

(1.) LOTH, a parish of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, on the N. side of the Frith of Murray; 14 miles long, but no-where above  $\frac{1}{2}$  of a mile broad. The climate is healthy, and the soil fertile; producing good crops of oats, barley, pease, and potatoes. About 3000 bolls of barley, of 18 stones each, are produced annually. The population, in 1791, was 1370; increase 177, since 1755: the number of horses was about 500; sheep, 1800; and black cattle, 500. Relics of Pictish castles are to be seen in the parish; and a human skeleton of a *gigantic size* was found in one of them.

(2.) LOTH, a small river in the above parish, which rises in the adjacent mountains, and falls into the sea, a mile below the village of *Glen-Loth*; in a channel cut through a rock 20 feet high, by Lady Jane Gordon, countess of Sutherland. It is very rapid, and in high floods impassable. Salmon are occasionally taken in it.

(3.) LOTH, or LOATH. See LOATH.

LOTHAIRE, the name of a king of France, 2 emperors of Germany, and a king of Lorrain. See FRANCE, § 17, 20; and GERMANY, § 14, 15.

LOTHARINGIA, the ancient name of Lorrain, so called from the emperor Lothaire I. See FRANCE, § 17; and LORRAIN.

LOTHBURY, a town of Bucks, N. of Newport.

To LOT  
100

To LOATHE.  
e common to three counties  
ddington, Edinburgh, and  
therwise called EAST, MID.

LIANS. The total population of  
the three Lothians, as reported to Sir John Sin-  
clair, between 1790 and 1798, was 169,191 souls;  
and the total increase was 32,241, since 1755.

I. LOTHIAN, EAST, OR HADDINGTON-SHIRE,  
is bounded on the NW. by the Frith of Forth;  
on the E. by the German Sea; on the SE. by Ber-  
wickshire; and on the W. by the county of Edin-  
burgh. It extends about 25 miles from E. to W.  
and where broadest, nearly 15 from N. to S. The  
coast, advancing northward into the Frith, forms  
an irregular curve. This is one of the most fruit-  
ful counties in Scotland, producing great quanti-  
ties of wheat and all sorts of grain; and being  
well watered, and plentifully supplied with fish,  
fowl, fuel, and all the necessaries of life. It a-  
bounds with towns, villages, and farms, interper-  
sed with a great number of elegant houses belong-  
ing to persons of rank and fortune. For cultivat-  
ion, populousness, and fertility, this shire may  
vie with any tract of land in Great Britain. Be-  
sides the farming, which turns out to great ac-  
count, the people on the sea coast employ them-  
selves in the fishery, salt-making, and in foreign  
trade; and some of the more inland inhabitants  
engage in the linen and woollen manufactures.  
Lime-stone and coal are found in most parts of  
the country, and great numbers of sheep are fed  
on the hills of LAMERMUIR. The population of  
E. Lothian, between 1790 and 1798, was 28,966;  
and had decreased 743 since 1755.

II. LOTHIAN, MID, OR EDINBURGH-SHIRE, is  
about 35 miles long, but varies in its breadth in  
different places from 5 to 16 miles. It is bound-  
ed on the E. by East Lothian; on the S. by the  
county of Peebles; on the W. by that of Linlith-  
gow; and on the N. by part of West Lothian and  
the Frith of Forth. The aspect of the country is  
in general level and pleasant, interspersed with a  
few hills, that help to exhibit the agreeable pros-  
pects. It is well watered with rivers, and shaded  
with woods. It produces plenty of coal, lime-  
stone, a soft black marble, and some copper ore.  
The soil, naturally fertile, is finely cultivated, and  
yields as plentiful harvests of excellent wheat as  
are found in any part of Great Britain. The whole  
country is interspersed with grand houses and plan-  
tations, belonging to noblemen and gentlemen of  
fortune. The farmers are masters of agriculture;  
and wealthy in consequence of their skill, some of  
them paying 500 l. of yearly rent. The country  
is well inhabited, and contains a great number of  
towns and populous villages. Along the sea coast  
the people subsist by fishing, and traffic in coals  
and salt, &c. Those in the inland parts are em-  
ployed in farming, and some branches of the weav-  
ing manufacture. The sterility of this shire is  
in the gift of the crown; and Edinburgh is a  
county in itself. The population of Mid Lothian,  
between 1790 and 1798, amounted to 122,937;  
and had increased 32,241 since 1755.

III. LOTHIAN, WEST, OR DISTRICT-SHIRE,  
is bounded on the N. by the Frith of Forth; by  
the Almond, which divides it from Mid Lothian,

on the E. On the SW. it joins the coun-  
ty of Perth; and on the W. it is separated from  
shire by the Avon. Its form, though  
approaches to a parallelogram. It mea-  
sures NE. to SW. nearly 20 miles. Its breadth  
on the shore of the Frith, does not ex-  
ceed 10 miles. The country is pleasant and fertile,  
and abounds with corn, pasturage, coal, lime-stone,  
ore; and, in the reign of James VI. it had a  
silver mine. The population of West Lothian,  
between 1790 and 1798, amounted to 17,  
and had increased 741, since 1755.

LO-TIEN, a town of China, in Hou-

(1.) \* LOTION. *n. f.* *Uctio*, Latin;

—A *lotion* is a form of medicine composed  
of aqueous liquids, used to wash any part of the  
body. *Quincy*.—In *lotions* in women's cases, he  
uses portions of hellebore macerated in two  
water. *Arbitratot*.

(2.) A LOTION is, strictly speaking, su-  
perintending as beautifies the skin, by cleansing it  
of deformities which a disordered blood  
deposits upon it. Medicines of this kind, however  
the most part insignificant, and some-  
times dangerous; the only proper method of  
treating these disorders is, by administering such  
as tend to correct that morbid state of the  
constitution whence they arise.

(3.) LOTION, in pharmacy, denotes a  
preparation of medicines, by washing them in a  
liquid, either made very light, so as to touch  
only the dregs; or sharp, so as to penetrate  
in order to clear them of some salt, or  
spirit, as is done to antimony, precipi-  
tation, &c. or intended to take away  
the grossness or ill quality, or to communicate  
some.

LOTOPHAGI, in ancient geography  
the people of the Regio Syrtica, so called from  
living on the LOTUS; inhabiting between  
Syrtis, from the Cinyphus to the Triton;  
lotus was said to be a food so delicious, that  
strangers forget their native country.  
The wine was expressed from it which did not  
keep above ten days. (*Pliny*.) See MENISIX.

LO-TSE, a town of China, in Yun-

(1.) \* LOTTERY. *n. f.* *Lotteria*, Fr.

A game of chance; a sortilege; distributing  
prizes by chance; a play in which lots  
are drawn for prizes.—

Let high-sighted tyranny rage on,

Till each man drop by lottery.

—The *lottery* that he hath devised in the  
effects of gold, silver, and lead, will never  
be taken by any but who you shall rightly  
call Fortune, that with malicious joy

Does man, her slave, oppress,

Sillious and unconstant still,

Promotes, dignities, debauches in strife

And makes a way of life.

—Every warrior may be said to be a  
lottery, and the best commanders to have  
their own for their work. See *Lottery*.

(2.) The LOTTERY, or the STATE LOT-  
tery, a kind of public game, at hazard, frequented  
in, as well as France, and Holland, be-  
fore the late war, to raise money for the service of  
the State. It is appointed with us by the authority

sent, and managed by commissioners appointed by the lords of the treasury for that purpose. It consists of great numbers of blanks and prizes, which are drawn out of wheels, one of which contains the numbers, and the other the corresponding blanks or prizes. The Romans invented lotteries to enliven their Saturnalia. This festival began by the distribution of tickets which gained some prize. Augustus made lotteries which consisted of things of little value; but Nero established some for the people, in which 1000 tickets were distributed daily, and several of those who were favoured by Fortune got rich by them. Herodotus invented some very singular lotteries; the prizes were either of great value, or of none at all; one gained a prize of six slaves, and another of six slaves; some got valuable vases, and others vases of common earth. A lottery of this kind exhibited an excellent picture of the inequality with which Fortune distributes her favours. The first English lottery we find mentioned in history was drawn A. D. 1569. It consisted of 60,000 lots, at 10s. each lot: the prizes were great; and the profits were to go towards repairing the havens of this kingdom. It was drawn at the W. door of St Paul's cathedral. The drawing began on the 11th of January 1569, and continued incessantly drawing, *day and night*, till the 1st of May following; as Maitland, from Stowe, informs us in his History, Vol. I. p. 257. There were then only three lottery offices in London. The proposals for this lottery were published in 1567 and 1568. It was first intended to have been drawn at the house of Mr Dericke, her majesty's agent (*i. e.* her jeweller), but was afterwards drawn as above mentioned. Dr Rawlinson shows in the Antiquarian Society, in 1748, one of the original proposals for this state lottery, printed by Henry Bynneyman, in 1568. In 1612, king James, in favour of the plantation of English colonies in Virginia, granted a lottery, to be held at the W. end of St Paul's; whereof one Thomas Waply, a taylor of London, had the chief prize, which was 4000 crowns in plate. (*Baker's Chron.*)

(3.) LOTTERY OFFICES, LAWS RESPECTING. In the reign of queen Anne, it was thought necessary to suppress lotteries, as nuisances to the public. Since that time, however, they have been licensed by an act of parliament, under various regulations. The act passed in 1778 restrains any person from keeping an office for the sale of tickets, shares, or chances, or for buying, selling, or registering, without a licence; for which licence each office-keeper must pay 50l. to continue in force for one year, and the produce to be applied towards defraying the expences of the lottery. And no person is allowed to sell any share or chance less than a 16th, on the penalty of 50l. All tickets divided into shares or chances are to be deposited in an office, to be established in London by the commissioners of the treasury, who are to appoint a person to conduct the business thereof; and all shares are to be stamped by the said officer, who is to give a receipt for every ticket deposited with him. The numbers of all tickets so deposited are to be entered in a book

VOL. XIII. PART II.

of shares into which they are divided; and two pence for each share is to be paid to the officer on depositing such tickets, who is therewith to pay all expences incident to the office. All tickets deposited in the office are to remain there three days after the drawing. And any person keeping an office, or selling shares, or who shall publish any scheme for receiving moneys in consideration of any interest to be granted in any ticket in the said lottery, &c. without being in possession of such ticket, shall forfeit 500l. and suffer three months imprisonment. And no business is to be transacted at any of the offices after eight in the evening, except on the evening of the Saturday preceding the drawing. No person is to keep any office for the sale of tickets, &c. in Oxford or Cambridge, on penalty of 20l. Before this regulating statute took place, there were upwards of 400 lottery offices in and about London only; but the whole number afterwards, for all Britain, as appeared by the list published by authority, amounted to no more than 51.

(4.) LOTTERY, STATUTES AGAINST SALES BY. See GAMING, § 3.

(1.) LOTUS, or BIRD'S-FOOT TREFOIL, in botany, a genus of the decandria order, belonging to the diadelphica class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 3d order, *Papilionaceae*. The legumen is cylindrical and very erect; the axis closing upwards longitudinally; the calyx is tubulated. There are many species, but only 6 are usually cultivated in our gardens; viz.

1. LOTUS CRETICUS, the Cretan silvery lotus, hath a slender under shrubby stalk, rising by support 3 or 4 feet high, ornamented with trifoliate, bright, silvery leaves; and branches terminated by several yellow flowers succeeded by subternate pods.

2. LOTUS DORCYNIMUM, white Austrian lotus, or shrub trefoil of Montpellier, has under shrubby smooth stalks, branching 3 or 4 feet high, and the branches terminated by aphyllous heads of small white flowers appearing in June, succeeded by short pods.

3. LOTUS EDULIS, sends forth several trailing stalks about a foot long, furnished at their joints with trifoliate, roundish smooth leaves, having oval stipules. The flowers come singly from the sides of the stalks, on long peduncles, with 3 oval floral leaves, the length of the flower: the latter is small, yellow; and is succeeded by a thick arched pod, having a deep furrow on its outside. This species is an annual, and a native of Italy, where the pods are eaten, like kidney beans.

4. LOTUS HIRSUTUS, the hairy Italian lotus, hath upright hairy stalks branching a yard high; and terminated by heads of whitish hoary-cupped flowers, appearing in June, and succeeded by oval pods full of seed, which ripens in autumn.

5. LOTUS JACOBÆUS, the lotus of St James's Island, hath upright herbaceous stalks branching 2 or 3 feet high; and, from the upper part of the branches, long slender footstalks, terminated each by 3 or 5 yellowish purple flowers, appearing most part of the summer and autumn, and succeeded by subternate pods filled with plenty of seeds. These 5 species may be propagated either by seeds or cuttings,

H h h

tings, but require to be kept in pots in the greenhouse during winter.

6. **LOTUS TETRAGONOLOBUS**, or *the winged pea*, hath trailing, slender, branchy stalks, about a foot long, garnished with trifoliate oval leaves; and, from the axillas of the branches, large, papilionaceous red flowers, one on each footstalk; succeeded by tetragonous solitary pods, having a membranous wing or lobe running longitudinally at each corner. It flowers in June and July, and they ripen in autumn. It is a hardy annual, and is easily raised from seed sown between February and May; requiring only to be kept from weeds. It was formerly cultivated here as an esculent; for its young green seed-pods may be dressed and eat like peas, or kidney beans; and are used so still in the N. of England.

(II) **LOTUS**, the *Lote tree*. See **CELTIS**.

(III) **LOTUS**, **EGYPTIAN**. See **NYMPHÆA**, § II, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

(IV) **LOTUS**, **HONEY**. See **TRIFOLIUM**.

(V) **LOTUS**, **LIBYAN**. See **RHAMNUS**, N<sup>o</sup> 6.

(VI) **LOTUS** OF **HOMER**. See **DIOSPYROS**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

**LOTZIN**, a town of Prussia, with a fort, seated on a canal, 56 miles SE. of Königsberg.

**LOVA**, a town of Hungary, 20 m. W. of Crot.

(1.) \* **LOVAGE**. *n. f.* [*Jewishicum*, Lat.] A plant.

(2.) **LOVAGE**, in botany. See **LIGUSTICUM**.

**LOVANDA**, a river of **LOANGO**.

**LOVANGIRI**, a province of **Loango**.

**LOUANS**, a town of France, in the dept. of Saone and Loire, on an island formed by the Seilles, Sallé, and Solnan. It has several manufactories, and lies 18 miles SE. of Chalons.

**LOVARD**, a town of Dorsetsh. in Piddleton.

(1.) **LOVAT**, a river of Russia, in Polotsk.

(2.) **LOVAT**, a town of Turkey, in Bulgaria.

**LOUBENS**, a town of France, in the dep. of Upper Garonne; 15 miles E. of Toulouse.

**LOUBIERE**, a town of Hispaniola.

\* **LOUD**. *adj.* 1. Noisy; striking the ear with great force.—

His prowess Philomelides confests'd,  
And loud acclaiming Greeks the victor blefs'd.  
*Popc.*

The numbers soft and clear,  
Gently steal upon the ear;  
Now *louder*, and yet *louder* rise,  
And fill with spreading sounds the skies. *Popc.*  
2. Clamorous; turbulent.—She is *loud* and stubborn. *Prov.*

**LOUDE**, a town of France in the dep. of the Upper Loire; 6 miles NW. of Puy en Velay.

\* **LOUDEAC**, a town of France in the dep. of North Coasts, 20 miles S. of St Brieux.

\* **LOUDLY**. *adv.* [from *loud*.] 1. Noisily; so as to be heard far.—

The soldier that philosopher well blam'd,  
Who long and *loudly* in the schools declaim'd.  
*Denham.*

2. Clamorously; with violence of voice.—I read above fifty pamphlets, written by as many presbyterian divines, *loudly* disclaiming toleration. *Saviff.*

\* **LOUDNESS**. *n. f.* [from *loud*.] 1. Noise; force of sound; turbulence; vehemence or fierceness of clamour.—Had any disaster made room for grief, it would have moved according to prudence, and the proportion of the provocation; it

would not have fallied out into complacency. *South.*

**LOUDOHN**, or } Gideon Ernest, I  
(1.) **LOUDON**, } See **LAUDOHN**.

(2.) **LOUDON**, a large township of fetts, in Berkshire county, comprehending acres, of which 2,944 are under lakes. About 124 miles W. of Boston.

(3.) **LOUDON**, a township of New England in Rockingham county, on the E. side of the river; containing 1084 citizens, in 1790.

(4.) **LOUDON**, a rich and fertile county in Virginia, bounded on the E. by the Potomac, by Fairfax, S. by Fauquier, and NW. by Loudoun counties; 50 miles long and 20 broad; contained 14,932 citizens, and 4,030 slaves. Leesburg is the capital.

(5.) **LOUDON**, a hill of Scotland in Ayrshire.

**LOUDOUN**, a parish of Ayrshire, from the above hill which stands in its NW. corner, 9 miles long from E. to W. and from 3 to 4 miles broad. The climate is rainy, but healthy.

The soil is a rich deep loam, improved by lime, inclosures, &c. into 1733, by John, Earl of Loudoun; who planted above a million of trees in it. There are oats, barley, and potatoes. About 1755, the population was 2,308; increase 814, since 1755: there are now 3,640 sheep.

**LOUDUN**, a town of France, in the dept. of Vienne, on an eminence between the Dives and the Dive; containing about 4,000 citizens. 17 E. Lat. 47. 2. N.

**LOUE**, a town of France, in the dept. of Sarthe, 15 miles W. of Mons.

(1.) \* **LOVE**. *n. f.* [from the verb.] A passion between the sexes.—

Hearken to the birds *love*-learned  
The dewie leaves among! *Spenser's*  
While idly I stood looking on,  
I found th' effect of *love* in idleness.  
My tales of *love* were wont to weep  
I know you joy not in a *love* discourse  
I look'd upon her with a soldier's  
That lik'd, but had a rougher task  
Than to drive liking to the name of *love*  
What need a vermil-tinctur'd lip  
*Love*-darting eyes, or tresses like the

*Love* quarrels off in pleasing conceits  
Not wedlock treachery, endang'ring  
—A *love* potion works more by the  
charm than nature. *Collier on Popularity*  
You know y' are in my pow'r by my

Let mutual joys our mutual trust  
And *love*, and *love*-born confidence

Cold is that breast which warm'd  
before,  
And these *love*-darting eyes must roll

2. Kindness; good-will; friendship.—  
What *love*, think'st thou, I sue for  
My *love* till death, my humble thanks, and

love which virtue begs, and virtue grants.

*Shakefp.*  
rought Daniel into favour and tender love  
prince. *Dan. i. 9.*—The one preach Christ  
ation, but the other of love. *Phil. i. 17.*  
s shall all men know that ye are my dis-  
ye have love one to another. *John, xiii. 35.*  
reared have we spent the nights,  
e Ledean stars, so fam'd for love,  
cr'd at us from above.

*Cowley.*  
Demetrius  
love to Nedar's daughter Helena,  
on her soul.

*Shak.*  
will marry make your loves to me,  
ly is bespoken.

*Shak.*  
quiry of truth, which is the love-making  
g of it; the knowledge of truth, the pre-  
f it; and the belief of truth, the enjoy-  
is the sovereign good of human nature.

*Issays.* 4. Tenderness; parental care.—  
on that ever was, so fully represents the  
of God, and his tender love to mankind,  
the most powerful argument to the  
God. *Tillotson.* 5. Liking; inclina-  
as, the love of one's country.—  
uth, of patrimonial wealth possist,  
ve of science faintly warm'd his breast.

*Fenton.*  
beloved.—  
the temple gates unto my Love. *Spens.*  
at the world and love were young,  
uth in every shepherd's tongue;  
pretty pleasures might me move,  
with thee, and be thy love. *Shakefp.*  
banish'd never hopes his love to see. *Dryd.*  
lover and the love of human kind. *Pope.*  
els.—

not lolling on a lewd love bed,  
his knees at meditation. *Shak. Rich. III.*  
onable liking.—The love to sin makes a  
against his own reason. *Taylor.*—Men in  
their own opinions may not only sup-  
is in question, but allege wrong matter  
ocke. 9. Fondness; concord.—

*Shakefp.*  
come unto you with a rod, or in love,  
spirit of meekness? *1 Cor. iv. 21.* 10.  
of union.—Love is the great instrument  
the bond and cement of society, the  
spring of the universe: love is such an  
s cannot so properly be said to be in the  
the soul to be in that; it is the whole  
it up into one desire. *South.* 11. Pic-  
representation of love.—

lovely babe was born with ev'ry grace:  
as his form as painters, when they show  
tmost art, on naked loves bestow. *Dryd.*  
'd of endearment.—  
so dishonour, trust me love, 'tis none;  
die for thee. *Dryden's Don Sebastian.*  
eference to God.—I know that you  
the love of God in you. *Jobn.*—Love is  
ts, of friendship and of desire; the one  
riends, the other betwixt lovers; the  
onal, the other a sensitive love: so our  
d consists of two parts, as esteeming of  
desiring of him. *Hammond.*—The love

of God makes a man chaste without the laborious  
arts of fasting, and exterior disciplines; he reach-  
es at glory without any other arms but those of  
love. *Taylor.* 14. A kind of thin silk stuff. *Inf-*  
*worth.*—This leaf held near the eye, and obverted  
to the light, appeared so full of pores, with such  
a transparency as that of a sieve, a piece of cy-  
press, or lovehood. *Boyle on Colours.*

(2.) LOVE, in a large sense of the word, denotes  
all those affections of the pleasing kind, which ob-  
jects and incidents raise in us.

(3.) LOVE, in its usual and more appropri-  
ate signification, may be defined, "that affec-  
tion which, being compounded of animal desire,  
esteem, and benevolence, becomes the bond of  
attachment and union between individuals of the  
different sexes; and makes them feel in the society  
of each other a species of happiness which they  
experience no where else." We call it an *affection*  
rather than a *passion*, because it involves a desire  
of the happiness of its object. In the savage state,  
and even in the first stages of refinement, the bond  
of union between the sexes seems to consist of no-  
thing more than mere animal desire and instinctive  
tenderness for their infant progeny. The former  
impels them to unite for the propagation of the  
species; and the latter preserves the union, till the  
children, who are the fruit of it, be able to pro-  
vide for their own subsistence. That in such uni-  
ons, whether casual or permanent, there is no  
mutual esteem and benevolence, is apparent from  
the state of subjection in which women are held  
in rude and uncultivated nations, as well as from  
the manner in which marriages are in such na-  
tions contracted. Sweetness of temper, a capital  
article with us in the female character, displays  
itself externally in mild looks and gentle manners,  
and is the first and perhaps the most powerful in-  
ducement to love in a cultivated mind. "But  
such graces (says the late Lord Kames, in his  
Sketches of the History of Man,) are scarce dis-  
cernible in a female savage; and even in the most  
polished woman would not be perceived by a  
male savage." Hence in the early ages of society  
a man purchased a woman to be his wife, as one  
purchases an ox or a sheep to be food; and valued  
her only as she contributed to his sensual gratifi-  
cation. Instances innumerable might be collected  
from every nation of which we are acquainted  
with the early history. The history of the patri-  
archal age recorded by Moses, affords several;  
(See Gen. xxi, xxix, &c.) and Homer's Iliad ab-  
ounds with them. The heroic Achilles, though  
susceptible of the purest friendship, when depriv-  
ed of his Briseis, complains only of his being rob-  
bed of his prize of war. His pride is offended, but  
his love seems not at all alarmed. Nor are the  
sentiments of Agamemnon one whit more refined,  
though Mr Pope and Mad. Dacier seem to think  
more favourably of him as a lover. Since then,  
it is evident, that in the heroic age of Greece e-  
ven princes and kings were strangers to the gen-  
erous affection of love, it cannot be surprising, that  
this affection has very little influence upon man-  
kind in the lowest ranks of the most polished so-  
cieties of modern Europe. That this is the case,  
that among the generality of uneducated men and  
women, there is little other bond of attachment  
than

than the sensual appetite, daily experience affords numberless proofs. We daily see youths, rejected by their mistresses, paying their addresses without delay to girls who, in looks, temper, and disposition, are diametrically opposite to those whom so lately they pretended to love; We daily see maidens, slighted by their lovers receiving the addresses of men, who, in nothing but their sex, resemble those to whom a week before they wished to be married; and it is not uncommon to find a girl entertaining several lovers together, that if one or more of them should prove false, she may still have a chance not to be totally deserted. Did esteem and benevolence, placed on manners and character, constitute any part of vulgar love, these people would act very differently; for they would find it impossible to change their lovers and their mistresses with the same ease that they change their cloaths. To this account of love, as it appears in savage nations, some may oppose the descriptions of the softer passion in the poems of OSSIAN. That bard describes the female character as commanding respect and esteem, and the Caledonian heroes as cherishing for their mistresses a flame so pure and elevated, as never was surpassed, and has seldom been equalled, in those ages which we commonly call most enlightened. This is indeed true; and it is one of the reasons which have induced Johnson and others to pronounce the whole a modern fiction. Into that debate we will not here enter. We may admit the authenticity of the poems, without acknowledging that they furnish any exception to our general theory. They furnish indeed in the manners which they describe a wonderful anomaly in the general history of man. All other nations of which we read were in the hunter state savage and cruel. The Caledonians, as exhibited by Ossian, are gentle and magnanimous. The heroes of Homer fought for plunder, and felt no clemency for a vanquished foe. The heroes of Ossian fought for fame; and when their enemies were subdued, they took them to their bosoms. The first of Greeks committed a mean insult on the dead body of the first of Trojans. Among the Caledonians insults offered to the dead, as well as cruelty to the living, were condemned as infamous. The heroes of Ossian appear in no instance as savages. How they came to be polished and refined before they were acquainted with the most useful arts of life, it is not our business to inquire; but since they unquestionably were so, their treatment of the female sex, instead of opposing, confirms our theory. Luxury indeed appears to be as inimical to love as barbarism; and in modern nations, the tender and exalted affection, which deserves that name, is as little known among the highest orders of life as among the lowest. Perhaps the Caledonian ladies of Ossian resembled in their manners the German ladies of Tacitus, who accompanied their husbands to the chase, fought by their sides in battle, and partook with them of every danger. If so, they could not fail to be respected by a race of heroes among whom courage took place of all other virtues: and this single circumstance, from whatever cause it proceeded, may sufficiently ac-

count for the estimation of the female character among the ancient Germans and Caledonians different from that in which it has been held by most every other barbarous nation. But entering farther into this subject, we then observe, that, a woman, whose disposition is gentle, delicate, and rather timid than bold, is possessed of a large share of sensibility and delicacy, and whose manners are soft and pleasing, must command the esteem and benevolence of every individual of the other sex who is possessed of sound understanding; but if her person is deformed, or not such as to excite some degree of animal desire, she will attract no man. In like manner, a man whose moral character is good, whose understanding is acute, and whose conversation is instructive, must command the esteem of every sensible and virtuous woman; if his figure be disagreeable, his manners ill, his habits slovenly, and above all, deficient in personal courage, he will hardly excite desire in the female breast. It is on the qualities which command esteem and benevolence in the female person, united with those which excite animal desire, that the individual so accomplished an object of love to one of the other sex, when these qualities are thus united, each increases the other in the imagination of the other. The beauty of his mistress gives her, by her person, a greater share of gentleness, and every thing which adorns the female character, than perhaps she really possesses; his persuasion of her internal worth makes her, on the other hand, apprehend her beauty absolutely unrivalled. The affection that is excited is more or less pure, and will be less permanent, according as the one or the other part of which it is compounded predominates. "Where desire of possession (says Lord Bolingbroke in his *Sketches*,) prevails over our esteem of the person and merits of the desirable object, love loses its benevolent character: the appetite for gratification becomes ungovernable, and tends to its end, regardless of the misery that it will procure. In that state love is no longer a sweet and agreeable affection; it becomes a selfish, painful, and insatiable passion, which, like hunger and thirst, produceth pain and distress but in the instant of fruition; as soon as fruition is over, disgust and aversion succeed to desire. On the other hand, esteem, founded on a virtuous character and noble manners, prevails over animal desire, and never would not for the world gratify himself at the expense of his mistress's honour or mind. He wishes, indeed, for enjoyment to him enjoyment is more exquisite than the mere sensual lover, because it unites itself with the gratification of sense; at the same time, so far from being succeeded by disgust and aversion, it increases his benevolence to her, whose character and manners he admires, and who has contributed so much to his happiness. Benevolence to an individual, having a certain end, admits of acts without number, and is not fully accomplished. Hence mutual affection, which is composed chiefly of esteem and benevolence, can hardly be of a shorter duration

ects. Frequent enjoyment endears such to each other, and makes constancy a pleasure when the days of sensual enjoyment are steem and benevolence will remain in the making sweet, even in old age, the society pair, in whom are collected the affections and, wife, lover, friend, the tenderest affections of human nature."—On the whole it is, that the affection between the sexes, deserves the name of LOVE, is inseparably tied with virtue and delicacy; that a man's morals cannot be a faithful or a generous one that in the breast of him who has ranged from woman for the mere gratification of sensual appetite, desire must have effaced them for the female character; and that, where, the maxim too generally received, a reformed rake makes the best husband, rarely seldom a chance to be true. We think likewise is inferred, that thousands fancy lives in love who know not what love is, or how it is generated in the human breast: and where we begin to advise such of our reason may imagine themselves to be in that state, mine their own minds, to discover, whether the objects of their love were old or ugly, could still esteem them for the virtues of character, and the propriety of their manner.

This is a question which deserves to be well considered by the young and the amorous, who, in making the matrimonial connection, are too fondly impelled by mere animal desire, inflammation, and beauty. "It may indeed happen, (says Lord Shaftesbury, in his *Elem. of Criticism*), after the pleasure gratifying that desire is gone (and if not by esteem and benevolence, go it must with respect to passion), that a new bond of attachment is formed upon more dignified and more rational principles; but this is a dangerous experiment."

Even supposing good sense, good temper, and internal worth of every sort, yet a attachment upon such qualifications is rare; because it commonly or rather almost never happens, that such qualifications, the foundation of an indissoluble connection, if they did not originally make esteem predominate, afterwards are rendered altogether ineffectual by satiety of enjoyment creating disgust."

**LOVE, EXTERNAL SYMPTOMS OF.** The symptoms produced by love, as a disease, according to medical writers, are as follow: The eyes twinkle; the eyes are hollow, and yet as if full with pleasure: the pulse is not altered to the passion, but the same with that attends solicitude and care. When the object of this affection is thought of, particularly if it is sudden, the spirits are confused, the senses change, and its force and time are very variable. In some instances, the person, is sad and melancholy; in others, the person not being conscious of his state, pines away, is slothful, and loses of food; though the wiser, when they themselves are in love, seek pleasant company and lively entertainments. As the force of love increases, sighs grow deeper; a tremor affects the face and pulse; the countenance alternately pale and red; the voice is suppressed in the fauces; the eyes grow dim; cold sweats break out; sleep ab-

sents itself, at least until the morning; the secretions become disturbed; and a loss of appetite, a hectic fever, melancholy, or perhaps madness, if not death, constitutes the sad catastrophe. On this subject the curious may consult *Agineta*, lib. iii. cap. 17. *Oribas. Synop.* lib. viii. cap. 9. or a treatise professedly written on love, as it is a distemper, by *James Ferrard*, Oxford, printed 1640.

(5.) **LOVE, SUPERSTITIOUS REMEDIES FOR.** The manners of the Greeks and Romans were similar to each other in the affairs of love. They generally made a discovery of their passion, by writing upon trees, walls, doors, &c. the name of their beloved. They usually decked the door of their dulcinea with flowers and garlands, made libations of wine before their houses, sprinkling the posts with the same liquor, as if the object of their affection was a real goddess. For a man's garland to be untied, and for a woman to compose a garland, were held to be indubitable indications of their love. When their love was without success, they used several arts to excite affection in the object of their desire. They had recourse to enchantresses, of whom the Thesalian were in the highest estimation.—The means made use of were most commonly philtres or love potions, the operation of which was violent and dangerous, and frequently deprived such as drank them of their reason. Some of the most remarkable ingredients of which they were composed were these: the hippocamane, the jynx, insects bred from putrefaction, the fish remora, the lizard, brains of a calf, the hairs on the tip of a wolf's tail, his secret parts, the bones of the left side of a toad eaten with ants, the blood of doves, bones of snakes, feathers of screech-owls, twisted cords of wool in which a person had hanged himself, rags, torches, reliques, a nest of swallows buried and famished in the earth, bones snatched from hungry bitches, the marrow of a boy famished in the midst of plenty, dried human liver; to these may be added several herbs growing out of putrid substances. Such were the ingredients that entered into the composition of that infernal draught a *love potion*. But, besides the philtres, various other arts were used to excite love, in which the application of certain substances was to have a magical influence on the person against whom they levelled their skill. A hyæna's udder worn under the left arm, they fancied would draw the affections of whatever woman they fixed their eyes upon. That species of olives called *olive*, and barley-bran made up into a paste, and thrown into the fire, they thought would excite the flame of love. Flour was used with the same intention. Burning laurel, and melting wax were supposed to have the like effect. When one heart was to be hardened, and another mollified, clay and wax were exposed to the same fire together. Images of wax were frequently used, representing the persons on whom they wished to make an impression; and whatever was done to the substitute of wax, they imagined was felt by the person represented. Enchanted medications were often sprinkled on some part of the house where the person resided. Love pledges were supposed to be of singular use and efficacy: these they placed under their threshold, to preserve the affections of the owner from wandering.

Love knots were of singular power, and the number three was particularly observed in all they did. But no good effect was expected, if the use of these things was not attended with charms or magical verses and forms of words. See MAGIC. The ancients imagined, that love excited by magic might be allayed by more powerful spells and medicaments; or by applying to demons more powerful than those who had been concerned in raising that passion. But love inspired without magic had no cure. The antidotes against love were generally *agnus castus*, which has the power of weakening the generative faculty; sprinkling the dust in which a mule had rolled herself; tying toads in the hide of a beast newly slain; and applying amulets of minerals or herbs, which were supposed of great efficacy in other cases; and invoking the assistance of the infernal deities. Another cure for love was bathing in the waters of the river Selennus; to which we may add as the most efficacious, the *lover's leap*, or jumping down from the Leucadian promontory. See LEUCATA.

\* To LOVE. *v. a.* [*lusjan*, Saxon.] 1. To regard with passionate affection, as that of one sex to the other.—

Good shepherd, tell this youth what 'tis to love.—

—It is to be made all of sighs and tears;  
It is to be made all of faith and service;  
It is to be made all of fantasy,  
All made of passion, and all made of wishes;  
All adoration, duty, and obedience;  
All humbleness, all patience, all impatience,  
All purity, all trial, all observance. *Shak.*

I could not love I'm sure

One who in love were wise. *Cowley.*

—The jealous man wishes himself a kind of deity to the person he loves; he would be the only employment of her thoughts. *Addison.* 2. To regard with the affection of a friend.—

None but his brethren he, and sisters, knew,  
Whom the kind youth prefer'd to me,  
And much above myself I lov'd them too.

*Cowley.*

3. To regard with parental tenderness.—He that loveth me shall be loved of my father, and I will love him. *John.* 4. To be pleased with.—We see that salmon and smelts love to get into rivers, though against the stream. *Bacon.*—

Wit, eloquence, and poetry,

Arts which I lov'd.

*Cowley.*

He lov'd my worthless rhimes, and, like a friend,

Would find out something to commend. *Cowley.*

5. To regard with reverent unwillingness to offend—Love the Lord thy God with all thine heart. *Deut. vi. 5.*

(1.) \* LOVEAPPLE. *n. f.* A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) LOVE-APPLE. See SOLANUM, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

\* LOVEKNOT. *n. f.* [*love* and *knot.*] A complicated figure, by which affection interchanged is figured.

LOVELACE, Richard, M. A. son of Sir Wm. Lovelace, an English poet, born at Kent in 1618, and educated at Oxford. He was a zealous royalist, and suffered much for his attachment to Charles I. His poems are elegant; and he wrote

also 2 plays; viz. The scholar, a Comedie, and The Soldier, a Tragedy. He died in 1658.

\* LOVELETTER. *n. f.* [*love* and *letter.*] A letter of courtship.—Have I escap'd *lovelet* hollyday time of my beauty, and am I not for them? *Shak.*—The children are of the different notions of their parents follow the father, while the daughters follow the mother, and romances to their mother.

\* LOVELILY. *adv.* [*from lovely.*] In such a manner as to excite love.—

Thou look'st

Lovely, dreadful

\* LOVELINESS. *n. f.* [*from lovely.*] A quality of mind or body that carries in one person the only of good will *loveliness* and lovingness.

When I approach

Her *loveliness*, so absolute she seems,  
That what she wills to do, or say,

Seems wisest, virtuous, best, discreetest,  
—If there is such a native *loveliness* in it to make them victorious when they are on the side of truth? *Addison.*

\* LOVELORN. *adj.* [*love* and *lorn.*] Of one's love.—

The *love-lorn* nightingale,

Nightly to thee her sad song mourns

\* LOVELY. *adj.* [*from love.*] Am citing love.—

The breast of Hecuba,

When she did suckle Hector, look'd

lier

Than Hector's forehead.

—Saul and Jonathan were lovely and p their lives, and in their death they were

vided. 2 *Sam.*—  
The flowers which it had press'd

Appared to my view,

More fresh and lovely than the rest.

That in the meadows grew.

—The Christian religion gives us a m character of God than any religion ever

lotson.—

The fair

With cleanly powder dry their hair;

And round their lovely breast and hea

Fresh flow'rs their mingl'd odours sha

\* LOVEMONGER. *n. f.* [*love* and *monger.*] who deals in affairs of love.—

Thou art an old *lovenonger*, and spe fully.

LOVENDEGEN, a fort of the French, in the dep. of the Scheldt, and late Austrian Flanders; on the Canal between Bruges; 5 miles W. of Ghent. *Lat. 51. 0. N.*

LOVENTINUM, or LUENTINUM, in geography, a town of the Demeta in Brit the mouth of the Tuerobis, or Tivy; to have been afterwards swallowed u earthquake, and to have stood where the led *Lin Sarutan* in Brecknockshire, now

\* LOVER. *n. f.* [*from love.*] 1. One in love.—



s blind, and *lovers* cannot see  
 ty follies that themselves commit. *Sbak.*  
 be never said, that he whose breaſt  
 with love, ſhould break a *lovers* reſt.

*Dryd.*  
 ; one who regards with kindneſs.—  
 rother and his *lover* have embrac'd.

*Sbak.*  
 I tell thee, fellow,  
 ral is my *lover*. *Sbak.*  
 o likes any thing.—To be good and  
 nd a *lover* of knowledge, are amiable  
 net.

ANO, a town of Naples in the prov.  
 ; 5 miles NE. of Nardò.

LEAP. See LEUCATA.  
 TON, a river of Maritime Auftria, in  
 e of the Vicentino.

ECRET. *n. f.* [*love* and *secret*.] Secret  
 vers.—

danger, Arimant, is this you fear?  
*love* secret which I muſt not hear. *Dryd.*

ICK. *adj.* [*love* and *sick*.] Disordered  
 languishing with amorous deſire.—

1 the ſhore inhabits purple ſpring,  
 ghtingales their *loveſick* ditty ſing. *Dryd.*

1 dear miſtreſs of my *loveſick* mind,  
 1 a pretty preſent has deſign'd. *Dryd.*

1 reliefs to eaſe a *loveſick* mind,  
 eſcribes deſpair. *Granville.*

OME. *adj.* [from *love*.] Lovely. A word

Nothing new can ſpring  
 thy warmth, without thy influence

iful or *lovesome* can appear. *Dryden.*

ONG. *n. f.* [*love* and *song*.] Song expreſſ-  
 Poor Romeo is already dead! Stabb'd  
 e wench's black eye, run through the

*loveſong*. *Sbak.*—  
 ig weeds and fatyrick thorns are grown,  
 eds of better arts were early ſown.

*Donne.*  
 UIT. *n. f.* [*love* and *suit*.] Courtſhip.—  
*eſuit* hath been to me

l as a ſiege. *Sbak.*

ALE. *n. f.* [*love* and *tale*.] Narrative

The *lovetale*  
 ſion's daughters with like heat. *Milt.*

a proper perſon to entruſt  
 with. *Addiſon.*

HOUGHT. *n. f.* [*love* and *thought*.] A-  
 cy.—

to ſweet beds of flowers,  
 e beds lie rich when canopied with bow-  
*Sbak.*

OY. [*love* and *toy*.] Small preſents given  
 Has this amorous gentleman preſent-  
 with any *lovetoy*s, ſuch as gold ſnuff-  
*tabinet*.

RICK. *n. f.* [*love* and *trick*.] Art of ex-  
 —

diſports than dancing jollities;  
 e tricks than glancing with the eyes.

*Donne.*  
 H. *n. f.* [*loch*, Irith, a lake.] A lake;  
 nd ſtanding water

A people near the northern pole that wot,  
 Whom Ireland ſent from *loughs* and forests  
 hore,

Divided far by ſea from Europe's ſhore. *Fairf.*  
 —*Lough* Neſs never freezes. *Philoph. Tranſact.*

LOUGH-AGHREE, a lake of Ireland, in Down  
 county, 4 miles ESE. of Dromore.

LOUGH-ALLEN, a lake of Ireland, in the coun-  
 ty of Leitrim, above 30 miles in circumference,  
 and ſurrounded by high mountains.

LOUGH-ALLUA, a lake in Cork, Munſter.

LOUGH-ARROW, a lake, in Sligo, Connaught.

LOUGHBOROUGH, a town of England, in Lei-  
 ceſterſhire, the 2d in the county. In the time of  
 the Saxons it was a royal village. Its market is  
 on Thurſday, and its fairs are on Apr. 25th, May  
 28th, Aug. 1ſt, and Nov. 2d. It has a large church,  
 a free ſchool, and 2 charity ſchools for 80 boys,  
 and 20 girls. It has been much reduced by fires,  
 but is ſtill a very agreeable town, and is ſeated  
 on the Foſſe, which runs almoſt parallel with the  
 Soar. The new canal has made its coal trade  
 very extenſive. It is 18 miles N. of Leiceſter,  
 and 109 NW. by W. of London. Lon. 1. 10. W.  
 Lat. 52. 48. N.

(1.) LOUGH-BRICKLAND, a lake of Ireland, in  
 the county of Down, abounding with *ſpeckled*  
*trouts*, which the name implies in the Iriſh.

(2.) LOUGH-BRICKLAND, a poſt town of Ire-  
 land, near the lake (Nº 1.) 58 miles from Dub-  
 lin. It conſiſts of one broad ſtreet, at the end of  
 which is the pariſh church, built by Bp. Taylor,  
 ſoon after the Reſtoration. The linen manufac-  
 ture is carried on very extenſively; and the town  
 is a great thoroughfare, the turnpike road from  
 Dublin to Belfast paſſing near it. It has 5 fairs.

LOUGH-COIN. See LOUGH-STRANGFORD.

LOUGH-COON, a lake of Ireland, in Mayo.

LOUGH-CORRIB. See CORRIB.

LOUGH-CURRAN. See CURRAN, Nº 3.

(1.) LOUGH-DERG, a lake of Ireland, in Done-  
 gal, anciently called *Derg-abbán*, i. e. *the river of*  
*the woody morafs*, from a river which iſſues out  
 of this lake. It is famous for an iſland that con-  
 tains St Patrick's purgatory, which is a narrow  
 little cell, hewn out of the ſolid rock, in which a  
 man could ſcarce ſtand upright.

(2.) LOUGH-DERG, a lake of Ireland, between  
 the counties of Galway and Tipperary.

LOUGH-DIAN, a lake in Down county, Ulſter.

LOUGH-DRINE, a lake in Cork, Munſter.

LOUGH-EARNE, a great lake of Ireland, in the  
 county of Fermanagh, near 20 miles in length,  
 and in ſome places 14 in breadth, diverſified with  
 upwards of 300 iſlands, moſt of them well wood-  
 ed, inhabited, and covered with cattle. It a-  
 bounds with great variety of fiſh; ſuch as huge  
 pikes, large breams, roaches, eels, trouts, and ſal-  
 mon. The water of the lake in ſome places is  
 ſaid to have a particular ſoftneſs and ſlimineſs,  
 that bleaches linen much ſooner than could be  
 done by other water. The lake is divided into  
 the Upper and Lower, between which it contracts  
 itſelf for 5 or 6 miles to the breadth of an ordinary  
 river.

LOUGH-ERIN, a lake in Down county, in ſome  
 places above 16 fathoms deep, producing very  
 large pikes, trouts, eels, &c.

(1.) LOUGH-

(1.) **LOUGH** is a lake in Down, Ulster.  
 (2.) **LOUGH** is, See **ESK**, N<sup>o</sup> 4.  
**LOUGH-F** is a lake of Ireland, in Down.  
**LOUGH-FULLA**, a large lake or gulf of Londonderry, before the mouth of which is a great sand bank called *the Towns*, which, however, does not obstruct the navigation, as there are 15 fathoms of water in the channel. See **LONDONDERRY**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.  
**LOUGH-GARA**. See **GARA**.  
**LOUGH-GILL**, two lakes, in Sligo and Antrim.  
**LOUGH-GUIR**, a lake of Limerick, Munster.  
**LOUGH-HINE**, a lake in Cork, 2 miles in circumference; abounding with salmon, white trouts, crabs, lobsters, efcalops, oysters, &c.  
**LOUGH-INCHQUIN**, a lake in Clare county, Munster; affording delicious fish and fine prospects.  
**LOUGH-INNY**, a lake in W. Meath, Leinster.  
**LOUGH-KAY**, a beautiful lake of Ireland, in Leitrim, Connaught, interspersed with islands, some containing old castles and ruins, and some of them highly cultivated.  
**LOUGH-KERNAN**, a lake in Down, Ulster.  
**LOUGH-LANE**, a lake in W. Meath, Leinster.  
**LOUGH-LEAN**. See **KILLARNEY**, N<sup>o</sup> 2.  
**LOUGH-LEE**, or **Lough-Curran**, an oval lake in Cork, 3 miles long and 1½ broad, containing 3 islands and abounding with salmon and trouts.  
**LOUGH-LIN**, a town in Roscommon.  
**LOUGH-LOUGHAIL**, a lake of W. Meath, 3 m. long, one broad, and containing 5 islands, planted with trees, and cultivated.  
**LOUGH-MACNEAN**, a lake in Cavan, Ulster, containing 3 well cultivated islands.  
**LOUGH-MAGHAN**, a lake in Down, Ulster, covering 23 acres, and stored with fish.  
**LOUGH-MORE**, a large lake in Limerick.  
**LOUGH-NEAGH**, an extensive lake of Ireland, in the counties of Armagh, Down, Derry, and Antrim. It is the largest in Europe, those of Ladoga and Onega in Russia, and that of Geneva in Switzerland, excepted; being 20 miles long and 16 broad. The area is computed to be 100,000 acres. It is remarkable for a healing virtue; and for petrifying wood, which is not only found in the water but in the adjacent soil at a considerable depth. On its shores several beautiful gems have been discovered. Its ancient name was *Loch-neacha* or *Loch-Neach*, from *loch* and *Neach*, *avondorf*, *divine*, or *eminent*. Its petrifying powers are not instantaneous, as several of the ancients have supposed, but require a long series of ages to bring them to perfection, and appear to be occasioned by a fine mud or sand, which insinuates itself into the pores of the wood, and which in process of time becomes hard like stone. On the borders of this lake is Shane's castle, the ancient seat of the Rt. Hon. John O'Neil. Dr Smyth seems to doubt whether the healing quantity in this lake is not to be confined to one side of it, called the *fishing bark*; and he informs us, that this virtue was discovered in the reign of Charles II. in the instance of the son of one Mr Cunningham, who had an *evil* which run on him in 8 or 10 places; and after all application seemed in vain, was perfectly healed, by bathing in this lake about 8 days. Hence that writer gives another

derivation of the name *Lochneach*, which seems to hint at this quality; *Neagh*, Irish signifying a sore or ulcer, which corrupted into *Neagh*: hence he apprehends this lake was remarked at a much earlier for its healing property. As to its power it is mentioned by Nennius a w 9th century, who says, *Est aliud flugnum, cui ligna durascere in lapides. Homines dum ligna, et postquam formaverunt, flugnum, et manent in eo usque ad caput capite anni lapis invenitur, et vocatur flug Ecbach.*

**LOUGH-RAMOR**, a lake of Ireland, near Virginia, about 40 miles from I has several islands, with ruinous forts.

**LOUGH-REA**, a town and lake in C miles SW. of Galway, and 86 from D

**LOUGH-REE**, a spacious lake be counties of Langford and Roscommon by the Shannon, and containing several

**LOUGH-RIGG**, a town of England morland, near Rydal, with which it cates by a bridge.

**LOUGH-SALT**, a lake of Ireland, is on a mountain, between Kilmacrenan Inn.

**LOUGH-SCUDY**, a lake of W. Meath

**LOUGH-SHARK**, a lake in Down, 80

**LOUGH-SHELLIN**, a large lake in W one mile from Dairy's Bridge, conn Lough-Inny at Finae.

**LOUGH-SKY**, a lake of Mayo, Com

**LOUGH-STRANGFORD**, a lake of Ire county of Down, so named from the of STRANGFORD, on the W. side of into the sea. It was formerly name COIN, or LOUGH-COYNE. (See **DOWN**;) is a deep bay, about 17 miles long, and 5 broad; stretching W. to Downpatrick Comber and Newton, and covering 2 Irish. It abounds with excellent fish; but there is a herring fishery about Anbar or entrance is about 3 miles below ford; and has a long rock in the neck passage, dangerous on account of it though there is a broad passage on e and deep water. The current is very rapid, running at the rate of 6 or 7 mile Few vessels go higher up than Strang islands in this lake are numerous; Dr merated 260. From an actual survey, Dr Dr Smyth wrote his history, it appears 54 islands known by particular names, more nameless; these 54 islands cor acres. The great manufacture carried islands, and on the coasts of the lake which employs a number of hands, and computed to produce to the propriet 1000l. a-year clear profit. Four of the called SWAN ISLANDS, from the number that frequent them.

**LOUGH-SWILLY**, a lake in Louth, I

**LOUGHTON**, the name of 3 English in Bucks, Devonshire, Essex, and 2 in

**LOUGNON**, a river of France, w into the Seine, at Pentarlier.

**LOUHANS**. See **LOUANS**.

**IBOND**, Edward, Esq. an English poet, Middlesex, and educated at Kingston upon . He wrote several esteemed Poems, which lected and published in one volume, in and several Essays in the Periodical Paper, *the World*. He died at his seat near Hamp- 775.

**IGNANO**, a town of Naples, in the pro- Otranto; 12 miles SSW. of Brindisi.

**VING**. *particip. adj.* [from *love*.] *t.* Kind; late.—

So *loving* to my mother,  
he would not let ev'n the winds of heav'n  
her face too roughly. *Shak. Hamlet.*

arl was of great courage, and much loved  
ldiers, to whom he was no less *loving* a-  
2790. 2. Expressing kindness.—The king  
r in his arms till she came to herself, and  
ed her with loving words. *Essh. xv. 8.*

**VINGKINDNESS**, *n. f.* Tenderness; fan-  
ercy. A scriptural word.—Remember,  
, thy *lovingkindnesses*. *Psaln, xxv. 6.*—He  
pted the arguments of obedience to the  
tion of our understanding, requiring us to  
him only under the amiable attributes of  
s and *lovingkindness*, and to adore him as  
id and patron. *Rogers.*

**VINGLY**. *adv.* [from *loving*.] Affection-  
rith kindness.—The new king, having no  
*gly* performed all duties to him dead than  
rised on the sledge of his unnatural bro-  
much for the revenge of his father, as for  
lishing of his own quiet. *Sidney*.—It is no  
utter to live *lovingly* with good-natured  
k persons; but he that can do so with  
ard and perverse, he only hath true cha-  
lor.

**VINGNESS**. *n. f.* [from *loving*.] Kind-  
ction.—Carrying thus in one person the  
bands of goodwill, loveliness and *loving-*  
107.

**NGTON**, a town of Hampshire.

**LOUIS**, the French name for *Lewis*. See  
N° 1—27. It is astonishing how general  
ice has of late become, among modern  
uthors, of writing *Louis* instead of *Lewis*,

English name was *obsolete*. This and  
ilar pieces of affectation are the more ri-  
that at least 99 out of every 100 English  
an neither read nor *pronounce* properly  
ds as *Louis*, *Jean*, &c. (See *CI-DEVANT*.)

*antry* might be pardonable in the com-  
Newspaper, who, in the hurry of trans-  
r the press and the post, might *copy* the  
ames by mistake, instead of *translating*  
ut when we find such respectable writers  
*utkins* following the example of the News-  
s, and inserting in his *Biographical Dict.*  
of the whole 16 *Lewises* of France, and 9  
any, Hungary, Poland, &c. under **LOUIS**,  
so much as a single reference from the old  
ame **LEWIS**, it looks as if our literati  
mbined in a conspiracy with those of  
o explode the English language. What  
thought of a French author, who should  
at Paris, a *History of France*, or a *Bio-*  
*Dictionary*, in the *French Language*, and  
f *Louis* insert the English name **LEWIS**  
KILL. PART II.

throughout his work?—If the celebrated but un-  
fortunate Brissot was accused of a degree of *An-*  
*glo-mania*, for only inserting the English letter *W*  
instead of *Ou* in his French title of *Onarville*,  
(which it is said he did, from his fondness for  
*English liberty*.) what degree of **GALLOMANIA**  
may not those English authors be accused of, who  
daily pester us with French words, names, and  
phrases, while our own language is abundantly  
copious, and almost as much preferable to the  
French, as our laws, liberties, religion, and con-  
stitution, are to those of that nation? See **LAN-**  
**GUAGE**, *SECT. V.* and *VI.*

(2.) **LOUIS**, JOHN. See **LOUVS**.

(3.)\* **LOUIS D'OR**. *n. f.* [Fr.] A golden coin of  
France, valued at about twenty shillings.—If he  
is desired to change a *louis d'or*, he must consider  
of it. *Spectator*.

(4.) **The Louis D'OR**, or *Lewidore*, was first  
struck in 1640, under Lewis XIII. and had long a  
considerable currency, before the revolution. See  
**MONEY**.

(5.) **LOUIS, FORT**, a French settlement near the  
mouth of the Coza in Florida, 60 miles NE. of the  
mouth of the Mississippi. It was the residence of  
the governor of Louisiana, till the peace in 1763.

(6.) **LOUIS, KNIGHTS OF ST**, a ci-devant mili-  
tary order in France, instituted by Lewis XIV. in  
1693. Their colours were of a flame colour, and  
passed from left to right; the king was their grand  
master. There were in it 8 great crosses, and 24  
commanders; the number of knights was not li-  
mited. At their institution, the king charged his  
revenue with a fund of 300,000 livres for the pen-  
sions of the commanders and knights.

(7.) **LOUIS, ST**, an island on the W. coast of  
Africa, at the mouth of the Senegal, with a fort.  
It was ceded to the British at the peace in 1763;  
but retaken by the French during the American  
war, and ceded to them by the peace of 1783.  
Lon. 15. 35. W. Lat. 16. 0. N.

(8.) **LOUIS, ST**, a lake of Canada. Lon. 73. 40.  
W. Lat. 45. 25. N.

(9.) **LOUIS, ST**, a sea port town of Hispaniola,  
on the S. coast; 220 miles W. of St Domingo.

(10.) **LOUIS, ST**, a town of Louisiana, on the  
W. coast of the Mississippi. Lon. 90. 50. W.

(11.) **LOUIS, ST**, the capital of Grande Terre,  
in Guadeloupe; with a fort; 9 miles SE. of Salt  
River.

(12.) **LOUIS, ST**, a Spanish town on the W. side  
of the Mississippi, 13 miles below the mouth of the  
Missouri. It is under a Spanish commandant, but  
the inhabitants are chiefly French, who have had  
a liberal education, and, by conciliating the af-  
fections of the natives, have drawn all the Indian  
trade of the Missouri to the town. It consists of  
above 220 large stone houses, and above 800 inha-  
bitants, who have large flocks of cattle, &c. It  
is 5 miles N. by W. of Cahokia, and 150 W. by  
S. of St Vincents, on the Wabash.

(13.) **LOUIS, ST, DE MARANHAM**, a town on  
the N. coast of Brazil.

(1.) **LOUISA**, a sea port of Sweden, on the N.  
coast of the Gulf of Finland, built in 1745.

(2.) **LOUISA**, a county of Virginia, 35 miles  
long, and 20 broad; bounded on the N. by O-  
range, NE. by Spottsylvania, SE. by Goochland,  
SW.

by Fluvanna, and W. by Albemarle counties. It contained 3,894 citizens, and 4,573 slaves, in 1790.

LOUISA, a river of Virginia, which runs into the Cole, a SW. branch of the Great Kan-

LOUISBOURG, } the capital of Cape Breton.  
LOUISBURG, or } It has an excellent harbour, near 12 miles in circumference. It was taken by the British in 1745; restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748; retaken by the British in 1758; and ceded to them in 1763, when the fortifications were rased. (See BRETON, CAPE, § 2, 3.) Lon. 59. 48. W. Lat. 45. 54. N.

LOUISIANA, a country of North America, bounded on the S. by the gulph of Mexico, on the E. by the Mississippi, on the W. by New Mexico, and on the N. by an unknown country. It extends from 29° to 40° Lat. N. and from about the 80° to 96° or 97° Lon. W. of London. The climate varies according to the latitudes. The southern parts are not so hot as those parts of Africa which lie under the same parallel, and the northern parts are colder than the countries of Europe at the same distance from the pole: the causes of which are supposed to be the thick forests which over-run the country, and the great number of rivers; the former preventing the sun from heating the earth, and the latter supplying it with moist vapours; besides the cold winds which come from the north over vast tracts of land. They have bad weather; but it never lasts long, for the rain generally falls in storms and sudden showers; the air is wholesome, the inhabitants healthy, and they who are temperate live to a great old age. The country is extremely well watered; and almost all the rivers that run through it fall into the Mississippi.

(1.) LOUISVILLE, a town of Georgia, on the NE. bank of the Great Ogeechee, 45 miles SW. of Augusta. Lon. 82. 42. W. Lat. 32. 55. N.

(2.) LOUISVILLE, a town of Kentucky, capital of Jefferson county, on the S. bank of the Ohio, at the rapids; 70 miles W. of Lexington. Lon. 86. 6. W. Lat. 38. 4. N.

LOUTZ, a town of Poland, in the palat. of Rava 44 m. E. of Gueda. Lon. 19 o. E. Lat. 52. 26. N.

LOU-KIEN, a river of China, in Chen-fi.

LOULAY, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente, 6 miles N. of St Jean d'Angely.

LOULI, a town and river of Portugal, in Algarve; with a castle, in hospital, and about 4,200 inhabitants. 9 miles N. of Faro.

LOUNG, LOCH. See LOCH-LONG.

LOUNGAN, a city of China, of the first rank, in the prov. of Chan-li, 267 miles SSW. of Pekin. Lon. 130. 20. E. of Ferro. Lat. 36. 42. N.

\* To LOUNGE. v. n. [Landeron, Dutch.] To idle; to live lazily.

\* LOUNGER. n. s. [from lounge.] An idler.

(1.) LOUP, a river of Canada, which runs into the St Lawrence, 90 miles below Quebec.

(2.) LOUP, ST, a town of France, in the dep. of the Two Sevres; 9 miles NNE. of Partenay.

(3.) LOUP, ST, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Saone; 6 miles NW. of Luxeuil.

(4.) LOUP, ST DE SALLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire; 11 m. N. of Chalon.

LOUPPE, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire; 18 miles W. of Chartres.

LOURDE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Pyrenees, and late prov. of Bigorre, with an ancient castle on a rock, 6 miles S. of Argeliez, and 10½ S. of Tarbe. Lon. o. Lat. 43. 8. N.

LOUREZA, a town of Spain, in Galicia.

LOUROUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre and Loire, 9 miles NW. of Loches, and 8 S. of Tours.

LOUROZA, a town of Portugal, in Beira.

LOURY, a town of France, in the dep. of Loiret; 9 miles NE. of Orleans.

(1.) \* LOUSE. n. s. plural lice. [Lus, Saxon Dutch.] A small animal, of which different species live on the bodies of men, beasts, and birds of all living creatures.—There were lice on man and beast. Exod. viii. 18.—

Frogs, lice, and flies, must all his path  
With loath'd intrusion.

—It is beyond even an atheist's credulity a pudence to affirm, that the first men might proceed out of the tumours of trees, as maggot flies are supposed to do now, or might grow on trees; or perhaps might be the lice of some enormous animals, whose species is now extinct.—Not that I value the money the fourth the skip of a louse. Swift.

(2.) LOUSE, in zoology. See PEDICULARIS.

\* To LOUSE. v. n. [from the noun.] To be troubled with lice.—As for all other good women love to do but little work, how handsome louse themselves in the sunshine, they that had but a while in Ireland can well witness. Swift.

You sat and lous'd him all the sun-shine

(1.) \* LOUSEWORT. n. s. The name of a plant called also rattle and cock's comb.

(2.) LOUSEWORT. See PEDICULARIS.

\* LOUSILY. adv. [from louse.] In a mean, and scurvy way.

\* LOUSINESS. n. s. [from lousy.] The abounding with lice.

(1.) \* LOUSY. adj. [from louse.] 1. Swarming with lice; over-run with lice.—

Let him be daub'd with lice, live he where,

Sometimes be lousy, but be never poor.

—Sweetbair and gooseberry are only lousy

times, or very hot places. Mortimer. 2.

low born, bred on the dunghill.—I pray y

remembrance on the lousy knave mine li

lousy knave, to have his gibes and his mo

Snake'sp.

(2.) LOUSY DISEASE. See MEDICINE.

\* LOUPE. n. s. [Loope, old Dutch.] A mean awkward fellow; a clown.—A plain noble heart doth disdain, that the trust of the is repaid in such a loupe's hands, had show an obedience, taken on shepherdis. Subv.

This loupe, as he exceeds our lords, t

Is, that we scarce are men, and you ar

Tis no trusting to you foolish loupe.

s wail'd the *louts* in melancholy strain.  
*Gay's Past.*

To *LOUT*. *v. n.* [*blutan*, to bend, Saxon.]  
 obedience; to bend; to bow; to stoop.

It was used in a good sense.—  
 The knight saluted, *louting* low,  
 And him quitted, as that courteous was.

*Spenser.*  
 The sand bag he was seen,  
 Low, like a for'ster green.

*Ben Jonson.*  
 Palmer, grey with age, with count'nance  
 Using low,

And ev'n to the earth before the king did  
 bow.

*Drayton.*  
 To *LOUT*. *v. a.* This word seems in  
 re to signify, to overpower.—

*Shak.*  
 I louted by a traitor villain,  
 And not help the noble chevalier.

*LOUTH*, a town of Lincolnsh. one of the  
 most gayest in the country, having num-  
 erous assemblies, concerts, &c. but even  
 des. It contains about 4000 inhabitants;  
 a canal to the sea at Tilney, about 8 m.  
 A charity school for 40 children; and a free  
 school founded by Edward VI, with a large  
 and a fine steeple, 288 feet high. It has  
 on Wed. and Sat. and fairs on May 24th,  
 16th. It is 28 miles NE. of Lincoln,  
 N. of London. Lon. o. 10. E. Lat. 53.

*LOUTH*, a county in the E. part of Ireland,  
 in the form of a half-moon, on the side  
 of the sea, being much longer than it is broad.  
 It is bounded on the S. and SW. by the county  
 of Wick, on the NW. by Monaghan, on the  
 N. by the bay of Carlingford, and on the NE.  
 by the bay of Carlingford, which separates it  
 from the county of Wick. It is watered by  
 several small rivers which fall into the sea,  
 and on its S. frontiers by the river Liffey.  
 Its chief towns are Dundalk and Carlingford.  
 Besides we include Drogheda, a part  
 of this county. It is the smallest coun-  
 ty in Ireland, but very fertile; and abounds  
 with remains of antiquities, of which Mr  
 Jones has *Louthiana*, has given a very ample  
 account. It contains 111,180 Irish plantation  
 acres, 5 baronies, and 5 boroughs; and  
 12 members to the Imperial parliament. It  
 is 22 miles long and 14 broad.

*LOUTH*, a town in the above county, with  
 12 miles from Dundalk, and 19 N. by W.  
 from Drogheda.

*LOUTISH*. *adj.* [from *lout*.] Clownish;  
 y.—This *loutish* clown is such, that you  
 may see so ill-favoured a visar; his behaviour  
 is such that he is beyond the degree of ridiculous.

*LOUTISHLY*. *adv.* [from *lout*.] With the  
 same signification as the *loutish*.

*ZOVA*, a town of Russia, in Irkutsk.

*LOUAIN*, a city of the French republic, in  
 the prov. of Dyle, and ci-devant prov. of Austrian  
 Flanders, pleasantly seated on the Dyle, in a fer-  
 ry. The walls are 9 miles in circum-  
 ference, not above a third part of the ground  
 on which they stand being laid out in gardens,  
 vineyards. The castle stands on a high  
 mound surrounded with fine gardens, and has a

charming prospect all over the country. The  
 town contains 9 market places, 14 water mills,  
 126 streets, 16 stone bridges, and several hand-  
 some palaces. The town-house is a venerable old  
 building, adorned with statues on the outside;  
 and the churches are very handsome, particularly  
 the collegiate church of St Peter; but the prin-  
 cipal ornament is the university, founded in 1426  
 by John IV. duke of Brabant. In contains about  
 40 colleges, among which are 4 called *Pedagogia*;  
 and an English college of friars, preachers, estab-  
 lished by Card. Howard, brother to the duke of  
 Norfolk, who, before he was raised to the pur-  
 ple, had been chaplain to Q. Catherine, consort  
 to Charles II. The Irish have likewise a seminary,  
 erected in part under the care of Eugenius Mat-  
 theus, titular archbishop of Dublin, 1623. In  
 1743 the inhabitants amounted to 12,000. At  
 the beginning of the 14th century, under John  
 III. it had a flourishing manufacture of woollen  
 cloth: 400 houses being occupied by substantial  
 clothiers, who employed an incredible number  
 of weavers, so great it is said, that a bell was  
 rung to prevent any injuries which the children  
 in the street might receive from the crowd and  
 hurry on their returning from work. In 1382,  
 these weavers took up arms, and rebelled against  
 Duke Wenceslaus, throwing from the windows  
 of the Town-hall 17 of the aldermen and counsellors,  
 and afterwards proceeded to lay waste great  
 part of Brabant; but being besieged and reduced  
 to great extremities, they implored mercy, which  
 was granted after executing some of the ring-  
 leaders. But the weavers were banished, and the  
 greater part took refuge in England; where they  
 introduced or at least improved the woollen man-  
 ufacture. From that period the manufacture de-  
 clined, and little or no cloth of any account is  
 made there at present. This impolitic step of  
 Duke Wenceslaus sent treasures to England, by  
 those exiled people; and thus gave an important  
 lesson to governors to deal with great precau-  
 tion respecting such useful members of the community.  
 Upon the ruins of these looms was also formed  
 the cloth manufacture of LIMBOURG, which is  
 still carried on with advantage. The old drapers'-  
 hall is now converted into 4 public schools, where  
 lectures in divinity, philosophy, law, and physic,  
 are given, and the public acts are made. Adjoin-  
 ing to these is the university library; over the  
 door of the chief entrance are these words, *Sapi-  
 entia edificavit sibi domum*. The principal church  
 is collegiate, dedicated to St Peter, which had  
 formerly 3 very large towers with elevated spires,  
 one considerably higher than the 2 collateral; these  
 were blown down in the year recorded by this  
 chronogram, *oMnia CaDVnt*. Louvain was an-  
 ciently the capital of the province, long before  
 Brussels had any claim to that title. Louvain has  
 been often besieged, but seldom taken. In 1542,  
 it was besieged by the Gueldrians: in 1572, by  
 William Pr. of Orange: in 1635, by the Dutch,  
 and French united; and in 1710 by the French;  
 but on all these occasions the enemy were obliged  
 to retire with loss. In 1746, however, it was ta-  
 ken by the French; and again in 1792, by the  
 French republicans under Dumouriez, but e-  
 vacuated on the 22d March 1793. It was at last  
 retaken

retaken and annexed to the republic in 1794. It lies 13 miles NE. of Brussels, and 21 SW. of Antwerp. Lon. 4. 40. E. Lat. 51. 12. N.

LOUVE, a river of France, which runs into the Adour, near Castelnau.

LOUVEN, a river of Norway.

\* LOUVER, *n. f.* [from *Pouvert*, Fr. an opening.] An opening for the smoke to go out at in the roof of a cottage. *Spenser.*

LOUVESTEIN, or LOEVESTEIN, a fort of the Batavian republic, in the isle of Bommelwaert, and dep. of the Dommel and Scheldt, at the conflux of the Meuse and the Wahal. In this fortress, the celebrated Grotius and other Dutch patriots were imprisoned by Prince Maurice, in 1619. It lies 3 miles E. of Gorcum, and 16 of Dort. Lon. 5. 13. E. Lat. 50. 40. N.

LOUVET, Jean Baptist, a celebrated French senator, and man of letters, one of the founders of the French revolution, and a considerable sufferer during the course of the most bloody part of it. From a very interesting sketch of his life, written by himself, in the caverns of Jura in 1794, and published in 1795, our room permits only to select the few following particulars.—Every thing that a man of sensibility, whose manners were simple, could desire, was obtained by him anterior to the revolution. He lived in the country; he composed works of literature, the success of which had laid the foundation of his little fortune; and his love of independence had led him to banish luxury so completely, that 800 francs *per annum* (about L. 34 Str.) sufficed for his maintenance. The first 7 vols. of his first work, *The Adventures of the Chevalier de Faublas*, increased his income, and the publication of 6 more, in spring 1789, added to it still farther. But the profits of his next work, a novel, were diminished by the revolution, which, by the demand it produced for political writings, raised the taste for frivolous pieces. Previous to this he had been “inspired with an immortal passion,” by a young lady whom he calls *Louise*, who had been brought up with him, and had felt a mutual flame, but had been married to a rich man, in her 16th year, and was now a widow of 22. Her sentiments were so entirely the same with his own, that on the news of the capture of the Babilie, she presented him with the three-coloured cockade. This lady; whom he celebrates as possessed of every virtue, he afterwards married. Mean time Mounier having published a pamphlet in October 1789, accusing the Parisians of the crimes of the Orleans faction, Louvet wrote an answer entitled *Paris Justified*; which was so well received, that he was immediately admitted a member of the Jacobin club, which, however, he attended but seldom. But all his writings were now directed towards the revolution. Thus *Enlilic de Ferme*, was a romance intended to prove the utility and sometimes the necessity of *divorce*, as well as of the *marriage of Priests*. In the same spirit he wrote two comedies. In the one, of 5 acts, entitled *L'Amili Conspirateur, ou le Bourgeois Conjugué du 18me siècle*, he attacked the prejudices concerning nobility. The other was a pointed satire on the mummeries of the court of Rome, entitled *L'Élection et L'Audience du Grand*

*Lama Siffi*. These however, being too bold, were not performed; but his farces, *La Grand Revue des armes noire et blanche* ten in ridicule of the army of Coblenz, presented 25 times. Hitherto he had taken an active part in the revolution: “Happy” he said, “in having reformed so many ancient abuses, had, like many others, heartily promised to this emasculated constitution, hoping it alone would produce a cure to our yet raw wounds, without agitation and without rhage. Yes, I swear by that heaven, while the inward sentiments of man, that, if it had not a thousand times tried to raise *half-liberty* from us, I should never have seen our entire liberation but from time alone it became incontestable, that it conspired against, and, not content with fomenting internal dissensions, it called in foreign aid.”—Indignant at these manœuvres, Louvet presented a *petition* to the Princes to the Legislative Assembly, 25th Dec. 1791; which with other two petitions were printed by order of the assembly 1792, in the debate respecting a war which gave rise to the schism between the Girondins and Robespierre’s faction, Louvet the former, reduced Robespierre himself to silence, and from that moment was professed by him. Mean time Louvet became editor of a paper called the *Sentinel*, of which 20,000 copies were sometimes printed, and in one number which he attacked the conduct of Dumouriez. On the 10th of Aug. Louvet contributed a part of the Swiss guards. After the battle of Sept. he denounced Robespierre, and been supported by Pétion would have prevented the rise of that tyrant’s power and the horrors which followed. He however published a letter addressed to *Maximilian Robespierre and his friends*. On this occasion he was expelled the Jacobin Club, along with Roland and other Girondins. At the trial of Lewis XVI, he supported the motion of Sallé for an appeal to the people. He denounced the plot of the March 1793, in a pamphlet addressed to the *National Convention*, &c. but was not supported by his friends; on which occasion he said to his wife, “Our friends rush to the scaffold; separate from them, were not their party duty and virtue.” But the horrors of the 9th of Thermidor obliged them to separate, and he was confined. After providing for the safety of his wife, and being 5 weeks secreted by two friends, he left Paris, June 24th, and went through various adventures, which it is impossible to describe without emotion, but which it is equally impossible either to make room for or abridge. He is now in the habit of saying, that after passing sometimes for a philosopher, sometimes for a soldier, at other times for a deserter, and at all times for a violent man, or Maratist, and running a thousand risks, devoted, he at last, by the astonishing success of “a man, to whom he had done a final adieu about 10 years before, but who, during his life, had never affected to be his friend, obtained a safe and impenetrable asylum, in the caverns of Mount Jura; where he remained till the end of July 1794, when his wife

ws of the Thermidorean revolution; which he returned to Paris, was well his seat by the convention, and not lected president. After this he com- okfeller, but died in summer 1797. 5 feet 6 inches high, of a fallow com- ther harsh features, and short-sighted; ents and activity were great, his wit tyle masculine and satirical, his elo- quating but bold; daring yet correct; grity unblemished.

RS, a town of France, in the dep. of iles N. of Evreux, 15 S. of Rouen, and . of Paris. It has a manufacture of Lon. 1 15. E. Lat. 49. 0. N.

ANANO. See LOVIGNANO.

VIGNE, a town of France in the dep. Vilaine, 7½ miles NNE. of Fougères.

VIGNE EN BAIN, a town of France, in lle and Vilaine, 7 miles SW. of Vitré, a populous town of Asia, in the king- n, with a palace, 50 miles N. of Siam. o. E. Lat. 50. 8. N.

IS, a town of France, in the dep. of niles N. of Epernay.

ES, a town of France, in the dep. of Jisc, 12 miles N. of Paris.

2 towns of China, in Canton and Ho-

or LOUIS, John, an eminent engraver, ed about the middle of the 16th cen- ording to Bafan, he was a native of e learned the art from Peter Soutman, that Suyderhoef studied under him; al style of engraving bears some resem- hat of his master. One of his best iana, with her nymphs, reposing after a middling-sized plate, lengthwise, is.

C, a town of France, in the dep. of miles NE. of Uzerches, and 12 N.

W. *adj.* 1. Not high.—

wand'ring courie now high, now low, hid,

e, retrograde. *Milton.*

z far upwards.—It became a spreading tature. *Ezek. xvii. 6.* 3. Not elevated local situation.—

ity Cæsar! do'st thou lye so low? y conquests, glories, triumphs, spoils, o this little measure? *Sbak.*

n days and nights, except to those be polar circles; to them day mighted shone, while the low sun, opene his distance, in their sight ded still th' horizon, and not known west. *Milton.*

er is washed away from them is car- to the lower grounds, and into the hing is brought back. *Burnet.* 4. De- downwards; deep.—

vest bottom shook of Erebus. *Milton.* as heav'd the tumid hills, so low, k a hollow bottom, broad and deep, bed of waters. *Milton.*

His volant touch rough all proportions low and high,

Fled and pursu'd transverse the resonant fugue.

*Milton.*  
5. Not deep; not swelling high; shallow: used of water.—As two men were walking by the sea- side at low water, they saw an oyster, and both pointed at it together. *L'Esrange.*—It is low ebb sure with his accuser, when such peccadillos are put in to swell the charge, *Atterbury.* 6. Not of high price: as, corn is low. 7. Not loud; not noisy.—

When in open air we blow,  
The breath, tho' strain'd, sounds flat and low.

*Waller.*  
—The theatre is so well contrived, that, from the very deep of the stage, the lowest sound may be heard distinctly to the farthest part of the audience.

*Addison.* 8. In latitudes near to the line.—They take their course either high to the north, or low to the south. *Abbot.* 9. Not rising to so great a sum as some other accumulation of particulars.—

Who can imagine, that in sixteen or seventeen hundred years time, taking the lower chronology, that the earth had then flood, mankind should be propagated no farther than Judæa? *Burnet.* 10. Late in time: as, the lower empire. 11. Dejected; depressed.—

His spirits are so low his voice is drown'd. *Dryden.*

He grows dispirited and low,  
He hates the fight, and shuns the foe. *Prior.*

12. Impotent; subdued.—

The lowest, most dejected, thing of fortune,  
Stands still in esperance. *Sbak.*

Why but to keep ye low and ignorant. *Milt.*  
—To keep them all quiet, he must keep them in greater awe and less splendor; which power he will use to keep them as low as he pleases. *Graunt.*

13. Not elevated in rank or station; abject.—  
He woos both high and low, both rich and poor. *Sbak.*

—Try in men of low and mean education, who have never elevated their thoughts above the spade. *Locke.* 14. Dishonourable; betokening meanness of mind: as, low tricks.—

Yet sometimes nations will decline so low  
From virtue, which is reason, that no wrong  
But justice, and some fatal course annexed,  
Deprives them of their outward liberty. *Milt.*

15. Not sublime; not exalted in thought or dic- tion.—He has not so many thoughts that are low and vulgar, but, at the same time, has not so many thoughts that are sublime and noble. *Speer.*—  
In comparison of these divine writers, the noblest wits of the heathen world are low and dull. *Felton.*  
16. Submissive; humble; reverent.—

I bring them to receive  
From thee their names, and pay their scalty  
With low subjection. *Milton.*

From the tree her step she turn'd,  
But first low reverence done, as to the pow'r  
That dwelt within. *Milton.*

(2.) \* Low. *adv.* 1. Not aloft; not on high.—  
There under Ebon shades and low-brow'd  
rocks,

As ragged as thy locks,  
In dark Cimmerian desert ever dwell. *Milton.*

My eyes no object met  
But low hung clouds. *Dryden.*

No

No luxury found room  
 roof  
 Dryden.  
 springs are the German's pride;  
 narrower frames obtain,  
 bodies are the growth of Spain.

Crestb.  
 brow'd rocks hang nodding o'er the  
 Pope.  
 price; meanly. It is chiefly u-

f their numbers and secure in soul,  
 dent and over-lusty French:  
 up-rated  
 Shal play at dice? Shak.  
 low-born lafs, that ever

Shak.  
 ed out, my lodge descends  
 ping family. Swift.—  
 general flood,  
 ay'rice creeping on,

Pope.  
 ards our own.—In  
 was first inhabited,  
 's time they wand-  
 ds. Locke. 4. With  
 voice.—

he is retir'd to rest. Cato.  
 te of subjection.—How comes it that,  
 en oncé fo low brought, and thoroughly  
 they afterwards lifted up themselves fo  
 ? Spenser.

n geography, a river of Cornwall, fo  
 the lowness of its current between its  
 See Loo, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

LOW, EAST and WEST. See LOOE.

To Low. v. a. [from the adjective.] To  
 sink; to make low. Probably misprinted for  
 lower.—The value of guineas was lowed from  
 one-and-twenty shillings and sixpence to one-and-  
 twenty shillings. Swift.

(2.) \* To Low v. a. [bloran, Saxon. The ad-  
 jective.] low, not high is pronounced lo, and would  
 rhyme to no: the verb low, to bellow lou; and is by  
 Dryden rightly rhymed to now.] To bellow as a  
 cow.—Doth the wild afs when he has grafs? or  
 loweth the ox over his fodder? Job vi. 5.—

The maids of Argos, who, with frantick  
 cries,  
 And imitated lowings, fill'd the skies. Rosc.  
 Fair lo grac'd his shield, but lo now,  
 With horns exalted stands, and seems to low.

Dryden.  
 Had he been born some simple shepherd's heir,  
 The lowing herd, or fleecy sheep his care. Prior.

(1.) \* LOWBELL. n. f. [lacye, Dutch; leg, Sax.  
 or logs, Islandick, a flame, and bell.] A kind of  
 fowling in the night, in which the birds are wakened  
 by a bell, and lured by a flame into a net.  
 Low denotes a flame in Scotland; and to low, to  
 flame.

(2.) LOW-BELL is a name given to a bell, by  
 means of which they take birds in the night, in  
 open champaign countries, and among stubble, in  
 October. The method is to go out about 9 o'-  
 clock in a still evening, when the air is mild and  
 the moon does not shine. The low-bell should be  
 of a deep and hollow found, and of such a size  
 that a man may conveniently carry it in one  
 hand. The person who carries it is to make it

toll all the way he goes, as nearly as possible  
 that manner in which the bell on the neck of  
 sheep tolls as it goes on and feeds. There must  
 so be a box made like a large lantern, about  
 foot square, and lined with tin, but with one  
 open. Two or three great lights are to be  
 this; and the box is to be fixed to the per  
 breast, with the open side forwards, so that it  
 may be cast forward to a great distance. It  
 spread as it goes out of the box; and will  
 tinctly show to the person that carries it w  
 ever there is in the large space of ground  
 which it extends, and consequently all the  
 that roost upon the ground. Two persons  
 follow him who carries the box and bell, on  
 each side, so as not to be within the reach of  
 light to show themselves. Each of these  
 have a hand net of about 3 or 4 feet square  
 tenced to a long pole; and on whichever side  
 bird is seen at roost, the person who is near  
 to lay his net over it, and take it with as  
 noise as possible. When the net is over the  
 person who laid it is not to be in a hurry to  
 the bird, but must stay till he who carries the  
 is got beyond it, that the motions may not be  
 covered. The blaze of the light and the noi  
 the bell terrify and amaze the birds in su  
 manner that they remain still to be taken; bu  
 people who are about the work must keep  
 greatest quiet and stillness in their power. S  
 people go on this scheme alone. The pe  
 then fixes the light box to his breast, and  
 ries the bell in one hand and the net in the o  
 of the net in this case may be somewhat smaller,  
 the handle shorter. When more than one ar  
 at a time, it is always proper to carry a gun  
 it is no uncommon thing to spy a hare wh  
 this expedition.

LOWDORE, a famous cataract of Cum  
 land, on the E. side of Derwent Water, in  
 vale of Keswyck; formed by the fall of the  
 ters of Watanlath, through an awful chait  
 tween two vast rocks.

\* LOWE. The termination of local nam  
 Lowe, loc, comes from the Saxon blacu, a  
 heap, or barrow; and so the Gothick blais  
 monument or barrow. Gibbon's Camden.

LOWEN, a town of Silesia, in Brieg.

LOWENBERG, a town of Silesia, in Jau

LOWENSTEIN, a town of Suabia, and  
 tal of a county, annexed to the duchy of  
 temberg; 20 miles NE. of Stuttgart.

(1.) LOWER, Richard, M. D. an eminent  
 lish physician in the 17th century, born in C  
 wall, and educated at Westminster and Ox  
 He practised physic under Dr Thomas W  
 whom he instructed in some parts of anatom  
 pcially when he was writing his Cerebri ana  
 In 1674, they discovered the medicinal wat  
 Ashop in Northamptonshire; which, upon  
 recommendations, became very much frequ  
 In 1666 he followed Dr Willis to London;  
 tised physic under him; and became F. R. S  
 of the college of physicians. In 1669 he  
 ublished Tractatus de cord.; also de Motu et C  
 Sanguinis, et Chyli in eum Transitu. After the  
 of Dr Willis in 1675, he was esteemed the  
 eminent physician in London. He died in 1  
 (2.) Lo



1. Sir William, a noted royalist, in K. Charles I. born at Tremare, in When the king's affairs became desed to Holland, where he wrote 6 ied in 1662.

ER. *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Cloudi-ness. 2. Cloudiness of look.—Phi-alous for Zelmane, not without fo er as that face could yield. *Sidney.*

OWER. *v. a.* [from *low*.] 1. To bring g down by way of submission.— igh vessels pass their wat'ry way, naval world due homage pay; reverence their top-honours *lower*, the asserted power. *Prior.*

to sink down.—When water issues ertures with more than ordinary ras along with it such particles of loose met with in its passage through the sustains those particles till its motion uit, when by degrees it *lowers* them, a fall. *Woodward.* 3. To lessen; to price or value.—The kingdom will *owering* of interest, if it makes foreign- any of their money. *Locke.*—Some it is for their advantage to *lower Child on Trade.*

OWER. *v. n.* To grow less; to fall;

The present pleasure, ion *low'ring*, does become ite of itself.

OWER. *v. n.* [It is doubtful what was meaning of this word: if it was oined to the appearance of the sky, it is to *grow low*, as the sky seems to do her: if it was first used of the coun-ay be derived from the Dutch *lo- c* alkance: the *ow* sounds as *ou* in word *lower*, when it means to *grow*, the *ow* as *o* in *more*.]—1. To appear, and gloomy; to be clouded.—

the winter of our discontent ious summer by this sun of York; e clouds that *lowered* upon our house. p bosom of the ocean buried. *Shak.* 'ring spring, with lavish rain, n the slender stem and bearded grain.

heavens are filled with clouds and ars a *lowering* countenance, I with- from these uncomfortable scenes.

en is overcast, the morning *low'rs*, ly in clouds brings on the day. *Cato.* iven's feast the Welkin *lours*, penthouse streams with hasty show'rs, enty days shall clouds their fleeces

to pout; to look sullen.—There hen Acton saw her, and one of her shs, who weeping, and withal *lower-*ght see the workman meant to set f anger. *Sidney.*—unts the throne, and Juno took her

'discontent sat *low'ring* on her face. *Dryden.*

LOWERING, among distillers, a term used to express the debasing the strength of any spiritu-ous liquor, by mixing water with it. The stand-ard and marketable price of these liquors is fixed in regard to a certain strength in them called PROOF; this is that strength which makes them, when shaken in a phial or poured from on high into a glass, retain a froth for some time. In this state, spirits consist of about half pure or totally inflammable spirit, and half water; and if any fore-ign or home spirits are so be exposed to sale, and are found to have that proof wanting, scarce any body will buy it till it has been distilled a- gain and brought to that strength; and if it is above that strength, the proprietor usually adds water to it to bring it down to that standard. There is another kind of lowering among the re- tailers of spirituous liquors to the vulgar, by re- ducing it under the standard proof. Whoever has the art of doing this without destroying the bubble proof, which is easily done by means of some addition that gives a greater tenacity to the parts of the spirits, will deceive all that judge by this proof alone. In this case, the best way to judge of liquors is by the eye and tongue, and especially by the HYDROMETER.

\* LOWERINGLY. *adv.* [from *lower*.] With cloudiness; gloomily.

\* LOWERMOST. *adj.* [from *low*, *lower*, and *most*.] Lowest.—Plants have their seminal parts uppermost; living creatures have them *lower- most*. *Bacon.*—The same part of the pipe which was now *lowermost* will presently become higher. *Wilkin's D. datus.*

LOWES, or LOWES WATER, a lake of Cum-berland, a mile long and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of a mile broad, situat- ed among beautiful hanging woods and groves. It runs from N. to S. into CROMACK WATER.

LOWESTOFF. See LAYSTOFF & LESTOFF. LOWICZ, a town of Poland, in Rawa, with a strong fort on the Bzura.

LOWKOW, a town of Poland, in Volhynia. \* LOWLAND. *n. f.* [*low* and *land*.] The coun-try that is low in respect of neighbouring hills; the marsh.—

His errand was to draw the *lowland* damps, And noisome vapours, from the foggy fens. *Dryd.* No nat'ral cause the found from brooks or bogs,

Or marshy *lowlands*, to produce the fogs. *Dryd.* LOWLANDERS, *n. f.* natives of low coun-tries, distinguished from Highlanders.

\* LOWLILY. *adv.* [from *lowly*.] 1. Humbly; without pride. 2. Meanly; without dignity.

\* LOWLINESS. *n. f.* [from *lowly*.] 1. Humi- lity; freedom from pride.—

*Lowliness* is young ambition's ladder, Whereto the climber upward turns his face.

The king-becoming graces, As justice, verity, temperance, staidness, Bounty, persever'ance, mercy, *lowliness*, Devotion, patience, courage, fortitude; I have no relish of them. *Shak. Macbeth.*

Eve, With *lowliness* majestic, from her seat, And grace, that won who saw to wish her stay, Rose. *Milton's Par. Lost.*

—If with a true Christian *lowliness* of heart, and a devout fervency of soul, we perform them, we shall find, that they will turn to a greater account to us, than all the warlike preparations in which we trust. *Atterb.* 2. Meanness; want of dignity; subject depression.—They continued in that *lowliness* until the division between the two houses of Lancaster and York arose. *Spenser*.—The *lowliness* of my fortune has not brought me to flatter vice. *Dryden*.

(1.) \* **LOWLY**. *adj.* [from *low*.] 1. Humble; meek; mild.—I am meek and *lowly* in heart. *Matt. xi. 29*.—We of our parts saluted him in a very *lowly* and submissive manner. *Bacon*.—

With cries they fill'd the holy fane;  
Then thus with *lowly* voice Ilioneus began. *Dryd.*  
—With how *lowly* a reverence must we bow down our souls before so excellent a Being! *Rogers. 2.*  
Mean; wanting dignity; not great.—

One common right the great and *lowly* claims. *Pope.*

3. Not lofty; not sublime.—  
For all who read, and reading not disdain,  
These rural poems, and their *lowly* strain,  
The name of Varus oft inscrib'd shall see. *Dryd.*

(2.) \* **LOWLY**. *adv.* [from *low*.] 1. Not highly; meanly; without grandeur; without dignity.—I will shew myself highly f.d., and *lowly* taught; I know my business is but to the court. *Shakefp.*—

'Tis better to be *lowly* born,  
And range with humble livers in content,  
Than to be perk'd up in a glitt'ring grief,  
And wear a golden sorrow. *Shak. Henry VIII.*  
2. Humbly; meekly; modestly.—

Be *lowly* wise:  
Think only what concerns thee, and thy being. *Milton.*

Another crowd  
Preferr'd the same request, and *lowly* bow'd. *Pope.*

\* **LOWN**. *n. f.* [*liun*, Irish; *loen*, Dutch, a stupid drone.] A scoundrel; a rascal. Not in use.—  
King Stephen was a worthy peer,  
His breeches cost him but a crown,  
He thought them sixpence all too dear,  
And therefore call'd the tailor *lown*. *Shak.*

\* **LOWNESS**. *n. f.* [from *low*.] 1. Contrariety to height; small distance from the ground.—  
They know

By th' height, the *lowness*, or the mean, if dearth,  
Or foizon follow. *Shak. Ant. and Cleop.*  
—The *lowness* of the bough where the fruit cometh, maketh the fruit greater, and to ripen better. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—In Gothick cathedrals, the narrowness of the arch makes it rise in height, the *lowness* opens it in breadth. *Addis.* 2. Meanness of character or condition, whether mental or external.—

Nothing could have subdu'd nature  
To such a *lowness* but his unkind daughter. *Shak.*  
Now I must

To the young man send humble treaties,  
And palter in the shift of *lowness*. *Shakefp.*

3. Want of rank; want of dignity.—The name of servants has of old been reckon'd to imply a certain meanness of mind, as *lowness* of condition. *South.* 4. Want of sublimity; contrary to loftiness of stile or sentiment.—His stile is accommo-

dated to his subject, either high or low; if his fault be too much *lowness*, that of Perflus is the hardness of his metaphors. *Dryden.* 5. Submissiveness.—The people were in such *lowness* of obedience as subjects were like to yield, who he lived almost four-and-twenty years under so potent a king as his father. *Bacon.* 6. Depressing dejection.—Hence that poverty and *lowness* of spirit to which a kingdom may be subject, as well as a particular person. *Swift.*

\* **LOWSPIRITED**. *adj.* [*low* and *spirit*.] Depressed; depressed; not lively; not vivacious; not sprightly.—Severity carried to the highest breaks the mind; and then, in the place of an orderly young fellow, you have a *lowspirited* moped creature. *Locke.*

\* **To LOWT**. *v. a.* To overpower. *Shak.*

(1.) **LOWTH**, Dr William, a learned divine, born at London in 1661, was the son of an apothecary, and took his degree of D. D. at Oxford. His learning recommended him to Dr M. W., of Winchester, who made him his chaplain, and gave him two livings in Hampshire, and conferred on him a prebend in the cathedral of Winchester. Few were more deeply versed in critical learning, there being scarcely any ancient author, Greek or Latin, profane or ecclesiastical, but what he read with accuracy, constantly accompanying his reading with critical and philological remarks. Of his collections in this way he was upon all occasions very communicative: Hence his notes on *Clemens Alexandrinus*, inserted in Potter's edition of his remarks on *Josephus*, communicated to the world for his edition; and those numerous annotations on the Ecclesiastical Historians, inserted in *Reading's* edition of them at Cambridge. He assisted the author of *Bibliotheca Biblica*, an Englishman, late Bp. of Durham, in his "Dei of Christianity." His piety, diligence, hospitality, and beneficence, rendered his life highly exemplary, and enforced his public exhortations. He married Margaret, daughter of Robert Pitt, of Blandford, by whom he had two sons and two daughters. He died in 1732. He published a vindication of the divine authority and inspiration of the Old and New Testaments; 2. Editions for the profitable reading of the Holy Scripture; 3. Commentaries on the prophets; and other works.

(2.) **LOWTH**, Robert, D. D. and F. R. S. of the preceding, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) and bishop successively of St David's, Oxford, and London, was born the 29th Nov. 1710. He studied at Winchester college, where his exercises were distinguished by uncommon elegance; and in 1730, he went to New College, Oxford, where he continued his studies, and took the degree of M. A. June 1737. In 1741, he was elected by the university professor of Hebrew poetry, re-elected in 1745, and whilst he held that office, he read his remarkable lectures *De sacra poesi Hebraeorum*. In 1746, Bp. Hoadley appointed him rector of Ovington, in the county of Hampshire; in 1750, archdeacon of Winchester, rector of East Woodhay in 1753. In 1754 the university created him D. D. by diploma; an honour never granted but to distinguished persons. Having, in 1749, travelled with Lord George Sackville, Lord Frederick Cavendish, in 1755, the late

Lieutenant of Ireland, Dr Lowth went to London as his grace's first chaplain. Soon after he was offered the bishopric of Limerick, preferring a less dignified station in his country, he exchanged it with Dr Leslie, Bishop of Durham and rector of Sedgfield, for the bishopric of Limerick. In Nov. 1765, he was made R. S. In June 1766, he was, on the death of Dr Squire, raised to the see of St Asaph, in Oct. he resigned for that of Hereford, in April 1777, he was translated to the see of London, on the death of Bp. Terrick; and he declined the offer of the primacy of all England.

Having been long afflicted with the gout, he bore with the most exemplary patience, and he died at Fulham, Nov. 3, 1787. He was married in 1752, Mary, daughter of Laurence of Christ-church, Hants, Esq. by whom he had 2 sons and 5 daughters; of whom 2 and 3 survived him. His literary character may be judged from the value and the importance of his works. Besides his *Prelections on the Hebrew Language*, which have been read with applause at home, and the Latinity of which is that of Buchanan in classical purity, he published in 1758, *The life of William of Wykeham, Archbishop of York*, with a dedication to Bp. Hoade, which involved him in a dispute concerning the primacy of Winchester college. This controversy on both sides carried on with such acrimony, though relating to a private concern, that it will be read with pleasure and improve the life of Wykeham is drawn from the most authentic sources; and affords much information concerning the manners, and transactions of the times in which Wykeham lived, as well as revived two literary societies of which he was the founder, and in which Dr Lowth was educated. In 1762 was first published his *Short Introduction to the English Grammar*, which has since gone through many editions. It was originally designed for domestic use; but its judicious and useful method, which teaches what is right and what is wrong, has insured public approbation and very general use. In 1765, Dr Lowth was engaged with Bp. Warburton in a controversy, which made so much noise at the time, that it even attracted the notice of royalty. He published his last great work, *A Sermon on the Imitation of Christ*, which proved adequate to the expectations of the public. Several discourses were also published, worthy of the author. Among these, one on the *kingdom of Christ's religion*, and on the means of attaining these by the advancement of religion, by freedom of inquiry, by toleration, and mutual charity, has been much admired, as exhibiting a most comprehensive view of the five states of the Christian church. Of other pieces, none display greater merit than his *Genealogy of Christ*, and the *Hercules*, both written very early in his life, and applied to the alarming situation of Britain.

III. PART II.

tain in 1745; and some *Verses on the death of Frederick prince of Wales*, with a few smaller poems. Learning and taste, however, did not constitute Bp. Lowth's highest excellence. Eulogium can scarcely ascend too high, in speaking of him either as a private man or a Christian pastor. His amiable manners rendered him an ornament to his station, whilst they endeared him to all with whom he conversed; and his zeal for the interest of religion made him promote to places of and trust dignity such clergymen as he knew were best qualified to fill them. To the world he was a benefit by his splendid abilities; and whilst virtue and learning are esteemed, the memory of LOWTH will be respected.

\* **LOWTHOUGHTED**: *adj.* [*Low and thought.*] Having the thoughts withheld from sublime or heavenly meditations; mean of sentiment; narrow-minded.—

Above the smok and stir of this dim spot,  
Which men call earth, and with lowthoughted  
care;

Strive to keep up a frail and feverish being. *Milt.*  
Divine oblation of lowthoughted care! *Pope.*

(1.) **LOXA**, **LOJA**, or **LOYA**, a town of Spain, in Granada, on the Xenil; famous for its copper and salt works; 27 miles W. of Granada.

(2.) **LOXA**, a province, or jurisdiction, of Peru, in Quito, famous for fine Peruvian bark and cochineal: containing about 10,000 people.

(3.) **LOXA**, a town in the above province.

**LOXAN**, a town of China, in Ho-nan prov.

**LOXIA**, in zoology; a genus of birds of the order of passerines: the distinguishing characters are these: The bill is strong, convex above and below, and very thick at the base: the nostrils are small and round: the tongue is as if cut off at the end: the toes are 4, placed 3 before and one behind; excepting in one species, which has only two toes before and one behind. There are 93 species, besides many varieties. The following are among the most remarkable:

1. **LOXIA ABYSSINICA**, the *Abyssinian grosbeak*, is about the size of the hawfinch: the bill is black; the irides are red; the top and sides of the head, throat, and breast, are black; the upper parts of the body, belly, and thighs, pale yellow, inclining to brown where the two colours divide: the scapulars are blackish; the wing coverts brown, bordered with grey; the quills and tail brown, edged with yellow: the legs are of a reddish grey. This bird is found in Abyssinia; and makes a curious nest of a pyramidal shape, which hangs from the ends of branches. The opening is on one side, facing the east; the cavity is separated in the middle by a partition; up which the bird rises perpendicularly about half-way, when descending, the nest is within the cavity on one side. The brood is thus defended from snakes, squirrels, monkeys, and other mischievous animals, besides being secure from rain, which in that country sometimes lasts for six months together.

2. **LOXIA BENGALENSIS**, the *Bengal grosbeak*, is a trifle bigger than a house sparrow; the bill is of a flesh-colour; the irides are whitish; the top of the head is of a golden yellow; the upper parts of the body are brown, with paler edges; the sides of the head and under parts rufous white;

K k k

acrois

across the breast is a brown band, uniting to, and of the same colour with, the upper parts of the body; the legs are of a pale yellow, the claws grey. This species (thus described by Mr Latham) seems to be the same with the Indian grosbeak described as follows in the *Asiatic Researches*: "This little bird, called *bayâ* in Hindi *berbera* in Sanscrit, *bâbûi* in the dialect of Bengal, *cibû* in Persian, and *tenawawit* in Arabic, from his remarkably pendant nest, is rather larger than a sparrow, with yellow brown plumage, a yellowish head and feet, a light coloured breast, and a conic beak very thick in proportion to his body. This bird is exceedingly common in Hindostan; he is astonishingly sensible, faithful, and docile, never voluntarily deserting the place where his young were hatched, but not averse, like most other birds, to the society of mankind, and easily taught to perch on the hand of his master. In a state of nature he generally builds his nest on the highest tree that he can find, especially on the palmyra, or on the Indian fig-tree, and he prefers that which happens to overhang a well or a rivulet: he makes it of grass, which he weaves like cloth and shapes like a large bottle, suspending it firmly on the branches, but so as to rock with the wind, and placing it with its entrance downwards to secure it from birds of prey. His nest usually consists of 2 or 3 chambers; and it is the popular belief that he lights them with fire-flies, which he catches alive at night, and confines with moist clay or with cow dung. That such flies are often found in his nest, where pieces of cow dung are also stuck, is indubitable; but as their light could be of little use to him, it seems probable that he only feeds on them. He may be taught with ease to fetch any small thing that his master points out to him: it is an attested fact, that if a ring be dropped into a deep well, and a signal given to him, he will fly down with amazing celerity, catch the ring before it touches the water, and bring it up with apparent exultation and it is asserted, that if a house or any other place be shown to him once or twice, he will carry a note thither immediately on a proper signal. One instance of his docility I can myself mention with confidence, having often been an eye-witness of it. The young Hindoo women at Benares, and in other places, wear very thin plates of gold, called *ficas*, slightly fixed by way of ornament between their eye-brows; and when they pass through the streets, it is not uncommon for the youthful libertines, who amuse themselves with training bayâs, to give them a signal, which they understand, and send them to pluck the pieces of gold from the foreheads of their mistresses, which they bring in triumph to the lovers. The bayâ feeds naturally on grasshoppers and other insects; but will subsist, when tame, on pulse macerated in water: his flesh is warm and drying, of easy digestion, and recommended in medical books as a solvent of stone in the bladder or kidneys; but of that virtue there is no sufficient proof. The female lays many beautiful eggs resembling large pearls; the white of them, when boiled, is transparent, and the flavour, is exquisitely delicate. When many bayâs are assembled on a high tree, they *make a lively din*; but it is rather chirping than

singing: Their want of musical talents amply supplied by their wonderful force, which they are not excelled by any feathered inhabitant of the forest."

3. *LOXIA CERULEA*, the *blue grosbeak* size of the bullfinch: The bill is stout and the base of it surrounded with black which reach on each side as far as the whole plumage besides is a deep blue, quills and tail, which are brown, with a tinge of green, and across the wing covers a red: the legs are dusky. See *Plate CC* inhabit S. America; but are sometime found in Carolina, where they are very solitary only in pairs, but disappear in winter.

4. *LOXIA CARDINALIS*, the *cardinal* is near 8 inches in length. The bill is of a pale red colour: the irides are black; the head is greatly crested, the feathers rising to a point when erect: round the bill, throat, and breast, the colour is black; the rest of the plumage is of a fine red; the quills and tail dull red, and brownish within: the legs are of the same colour. The female differs from the male in being mostly of a reddish brown. See *Plate CC*. This species is met with in several parts of America; and has attained the name of *cardinal* from the fineness of its song, which resembles that of the nightingale and most part of the summer, it sits in the highest trees, singing early in the morning and piercing the ear with its loud piping: these birds are frequently kept in cages, and sing throughout the year, with intervals of muteness. They are fond of *maize* and *wheat*; and will get together great numbers, often as much as a bushel, which they fully cover with leaves and small twigs, leaving only a small hole for entrance into the nest. They are also fond of *bees*. They come to the beginning of April into New York country, and frequent the Magnolia swamps in summer: in autumn they depart towards the south. They are pretty tame, frequent along the road before the traveller; and are very gregarious, scarce ever more than 3 or 4 met with together. Being familiar birds, they have been made to breed them in cages with success.

5. *LOXIA CHLORIS*, the *GREEN ILLINOIS* well known bird: the general colour is green, palest on the rump and becoming white on the belly; the quills and tail-feathers are brown and stout; and the legs are of a pale yellow. This species is pretty common and flies in troops during winter. They build their nests in some low bush or hedge of dry grass, and lined with hair, wood, or moss, containing 5 or 6 greenish eggs, marked at the end with red brown; and the male takes the care of sitting. These birds soon become tame, and are very familiar almost as soon as they are taken. They live 5 or 6 years. Like the chaffinch, they are blind if exposed to the sun. This species is pretty common every where on the con-

very frequent in Russia; and is not at all found in Siberia, though it has been met with in Kamtschatka. It is sufficiently common in Cumberland and Scotland; yet is scarce ever observed in the former in winter, but the last week of March comes plentiful, and breeds as in other parts of England.

6. *LOXIA COCCOTHAUSTES*, the *HAWFINCH*, in length 7 inches; breadth, 13; the bill is funnel-shaped, strong, thick, and of a dull pale pink colour; the breast and whole under side are of a rusty flesh colour; the neck ash-coloured; the back and coverts of the wings of a deep brown, the base of the tail of a yellowish bay; the greater inner feathers are black, marked with white on the inner webs: the tail is short, spotted with white on the inner sides; and the legs are of a flesh-colour. This species is ranked among the finch birds; but they only visit these kingdoms occasionally, for the most part in winter, and never breed here. They abound more in France, being introduced into Burgundy in small flocks, about the beginning of April; and soon after making their nests, between the bifurcation of the branches of trees, about 12 feet from the ground, of small dry twigs, intermixed with liverwort, and lined with moss and other materials. The eggs are of a roundish shape, of a bluish green spotted with olive brown, with irregular black markings interspersed. They are also common in Italy, Germany, Sweden, and the West and South parts of Russia, where the wild finches grow. They feed on berries, kernels, &c.

From the great strength of its bill, it cracks the stones of the fruit of the haws, cherries, &c. with the greatest ease.

7. *LOXIA CURVIROSTRA*, the *common cross-bill*, about the size of a lark, and is known by the curvature of its bill, both mandibles of which curve opposite ways and cross each other. The natural colour of the plumage in the male is of a lead inclining to rose colour, and more or less tinged with brown: the wings and tail are brown; the legs black. The female is of a green colour, the male mixed with brown in those parts where the male is red. This species inhabits Germany, Poland, Switzerland, Russia, Siberia, where it breeds; but migrates sometimes in vast flocks into Britain and other countries, for though in some years few are met with, in others they have visited us by thousands, feeding on such spots as are planted with pines, for the sake of the seeds, which are their natural food. They hold the cone in one claw like the parrot, and have all the actions of that bird when kept in a cage. They also visit North America and Greenland; and make their nests in the highest parts of fir trees, fastening them to the branches with the resinous matter which exudes from the

8. *LOXIA ENUCLEATOR*, the *pine grosbeak*, is about the size of a lark, and weighs 2 oz. The bill is straight, dusky, and forked at the end: the head, neck, and breast, are of a rich crimson; the sides of the feathers ash colour; the quill feathers and tail dusky, their exterior edges of a white: the legs are black. This species frequents the most northern parts of this kingdom,

being only met with in Scotland, especially the Highlands, where they breed, and inhabit the pine-forests, feeding on the seeds, like the cross-bill. They also abound in the pine forests of Siberia, Lapland, and the North of Russia; and are common about St Petersburg in autumn, where they are caught in great plenty for the table. They return North in spring. They are likewise common in the North parts of America; appearing at Hudson's Bay in May, and feeding on the buds of the willow. The South settlements are inhabited by them throughout the year, but the North only in summer. Our late voyagers met with this bird in Norton Sound; it was also found at Conalshka.

9. *LOXIA MINUTA*, the *minute grosbeak*, is about the size of a wren: the bill is stout, thick, short, and brown: the upper parts of the plumage are grey brown, the under parts and rump ferruginous chestnut; the 4th, 5th, and 6th quills are white at the base: the legs are brown. It inhabits Surinam and Cayenne. It is said to keep paired to its mate the whole year; and is a lively, and not very tame bird. It mostly frequents lands which have lain for some time uncultivated; and lives both on fruits and seeds. It makes a roundish nest, the hollow of which is two inches in diameter, composed of a reddish herb, and placed on the trees which it frequents. The female lays 3 or 4 eggs.

10. *LOXIA NIGRA*, the *black grosbeak*, is about the size of a canary bird: the bill is black, stout, and deeply notched in the middle of the upper mandible; the plumage is black, except a little white on the fore part of the wing and base of the two first quills: the legs are black. It inhabits Mexico. See Plate CCIII.

11. *LOXIA ORIX*, the *grenadier grosbeak*, is about the size of a house sparrow. The forehead, sides of the head and chin, the breast and belly are black; the wings are brown, with pale edges; and the rest of the body is of a beautiful red colour: the legs are pale. These birds inhabit St Helena, and the Cape of Good Hope; frequenting watery places that abound with reeds, among which they are supposed to make their nest. If (as is supposed) this be the same with Kolben's Finch, he says that the nest is of a peculiar contrivance, made with small twigs interwoven very closely and tightly with cotton, and divided into two apartments with but one entrance (the upper for the male, the lower for the female), and is so tight as not to be penetrated by any weather. He adds, that the bird is scarlet only in summer, being in winter wholly ash-coloured. These birds, among the green reeds, from the brightness of their colours, appear like so many scarlet lilies.

12. *LOXIA PENNSILIS*, the *penfile grosbeak*, the *TODDY BIRD* of Fryer, is about the size of the house sparrow: the bill is black, the irides are yellow; the head, throat, and fore part of the neck, the same; from the nostrils springs a dull green stripe, which passes through the eye and beyond it, where it is broader; the hind part of the head and neck, the back, rump, and wing coverts, are of the same colour: the quills are black, edged with green; the belly is deep grey, and

with a long neck: made of dry grass and other materials, and suspended at the ends of the branches; the opening always to the NW. He counted fifty on one tree only; and describes the bird itself as being like a Canary bird, of a dark yellow, and chirping like a sparrow. Fryer also talks of the ingenuity of the *Tuldy Bird*, making a nest "like a scepel, with winding meanders," and tying it by a slender thread to the bough of a tree. "Hundreds of these pendulous nests may be seen on these trees." *Account of Lu- dia and Persia*, p. 76.

13. *LOXIA PHILIPPINA*, the *Philippine grass-beak*, is about the size of a sparrow: the top of the head, the hind part of the neck and back, and the scapulars, are yellow, the middle of the feathers brown: the lower part of the back is brown, with whitish margins: the fore part of the neck and breast are yellow; and from thence to the vent yellowish white: the wing coverts brown, edged with white: the quills are brown, with pale rufous or whitish edges; and the tail the same: the legs are yellowish. These birds inhabit the Philippine Islands, and are noted for making a most curious nest, in form of a long cylinder, swelling out into a globose form in the middle. This is composed of the fine fibres of leaves, &c. and fastened by the upper part to the extreme branch of a tree. The entrance is from beneath; and after ascending the cylinder as far as the globular cavity, the true nest is placed on one side of it; where this little architect lays her eggs, and hatches her brood in perfect security. A variety of this species, the *Baglascbat* (Buff. iii. 469), an inhabitant of Abyssinia, makes a very curious nest like the former, but a little different in shape; and is said to have somewhat of a spiral form, not unlike that of a nautilus. It suspends

lays them there, but bring forward: face already in a caterpillar state, the from their concealments, and make tion along the budding branches, and bably destroy every hope of fruitage, useful birds, whose young are prey by caterpillars.—The bullfinch, in it has only a plain note; but when it comes remarkably docile, and may any tune after a pipe, or to whistle at the justest manner: it seldom forgets learned; and will become so tame as call, perch on its master's shoulder command, go through a difficult mu They may be also taught to speak, an instructed are annually brought to L Germany.

15. *LOXIA SOCIA*, the *sociable grass-beak*, about the size of a bullfinch; The general of the body above is rufous brown. parts yellowish; the beak and muzzle the legs brown; and the tail is short. the interior country at the Cape of C where it was discovered by Mr P Plate CCIV. These birds live together in societies, and their mode of nidification extremely uncommon. They build in *Mimosa* which grows to an uncommon which they seem to select for that well on account of its ample head, and strength of its branches, calculated to support the extensive buildings which to erect, as for the tallness and smooth trunk, which their great enemies, tribe, are unable to climb. The method the nests themselves are fabricated, is rious. In the one described by Mr P: could be no less a number (he says

ient to satisfy me by ocular proof, that  
 d to their nest as they annually increas-  
 bers, still from the many trees which  
 n borne down with the weight, and o-  
 ich I have observed with their boughs  
 ly covered over, it would appear that  
 ily the safe; when the tree which is the  
 of this aerial city is obliged to give way  
 rease of weight, it is obvious that they  
 nger protected, and are under the ne-  
 rebuilding in other trees. One of these  
 nests I had the curiosity to break down,  
 form myself of the internal structure of  
 ound it equally ingenious with that of  
 nal. There are many entrances, each  
 forms a regular street, with nests on  
 s, at about two inches distance from  
 r. The grass with which they build is  
 e Boshman's grass: and I believe the  
 to be their principal food; though, on  
 ; their nests, I found the wings and legs  
 nt insects. From every appearance, the  
 h I dissected had been inhabited for ma-  
 and some parts of it were much more  
 than others: this therefore I conceive  
 amount to a proof, that the animals  
 it at different times, as they found ne-  
 rom the increase of the family, or ra-  
 e nation or community." *Jour. into the*  
*be Hottentots. p. 133. &c.*

RIA TRIDACTYLA, the *three-toe'd gros-*  
*guifso balito* of *Buffon*, has only three  
 before and one behind. The bill is  
 n the edges: the head, throat, and fore-  
 neck are of a beautiful red, which is  
 l in a narrow band quite to the vent;  
 part of the neck, back, and tail, are  
 wing coverts brown edged with white;  
 own, with greenish edges; and legs a  
 the wings reach half way on the tail.—  
 ies inhabits Abyssinia; where it frequents  
 nd is a solitary species. It feeds on ker-  
 ds, which it breaks with ease with its

RIA VIOLACEA, the *purple grosbeak*, is  
 : size of a sparrow: The bill is black:  
 age, violet black; except the irides, a  
 r the eye, the chin and the vent, which  
 the legs are dusky grey. This species  
 the Bahama Islands, Jamaica, and the  
 arts of America. See *Pl. CCIV.*

(ODROMICK. *n. f.* [*ὀδρῆσι* and *δρόμος*].—  
*ick* is the art of oblique sailing by the  
 hich always makes an equal angle with  
 idian; that is, when you sail neither  
 nder the equator, nor under one and  
 meridian, but across them: hence the  
 ombs, or the transverse tables of miles,  
 table of longitudes and latitudes, by  
 : sailor may practically find his course,  
 latitude, or longitude, is called *lox-*  
*Harris.*

. See LOXA, N° 1.  
 AL. *adj.* [*loyal*, Fr.] 1. Obedient; true  
 nct.—

Of Gloster's treachery,  
 the *loyal* service of his son,

When I inform'd him, then he call'd me *foe*.  
*Shak.*

—The regard of duty in that most *loyal* nation  
 overcame all other difficulties. *Knolles.*—

*Loyal* subjects often seize their prince,  
 Yet mean his sacred person not the least offence.  
*Dryden.*

2. Faithful in love; true to a lady, or lover.—  
 Hail, wedded love! by thee  
 Founded in reason *loyal*, just, and pure. *Milt.*

There Laodamia with Evadne moves,  
 Unhappy both! but *loyal* in their loves. *Dryden.*

\* LOYALIST. *n. f.* [from *loyal*.] One who  
 professes uncommon adherence to his king.—The  
 cedar, by the instigation of the *loyalists*, fell out  
 with the homebians. *Houel.*

\* LOYALLY. *adv.* [from *loyal*.] With fide-  
 lity; with true adherence to a king; with fide-  
 lity to a lover.—

Wealthy kings are *loyally* obey'd. *Pope.*  
 \* LOYALTY. *n. f.* [*loiaute*, French.] 1. Firm  
 and faithful adherence to a prince.—

*Loyalty*, well held, to fools does make  
 Our faith meer folly. *Shak.*

—He had never had any veneration for the court,  
 but only such *loyalty* to the king as the law re-  
 quired. *Clarendon.*—

Abdiel faithful found  
 Unshaken, uneduc'd, unterrify'd,  
 His *loyalty* he kept. *Milton.*

For *loyalty* is still the same,  
 Whether it win or lose the game. *Hudibras.*

2. Fidelity to a lady, or lover.  
 LOYAT, a town of France, in the dep. of  
 Morbihan; 7½ miles E. of Joffelin.

LOYES, a town of France, in the dep. of Ain,  
 1½ miles NE. of Meximieux.

LOYOLA, IGNATIUS, the founder of the or-  
 der of the JESUITS, was born at the castle of  
 Loyola, in Giupuscoa, in 1491; and became first  
 page to Ferdinand V. king of Spain, and then an  
 officer in his army. In this last capacity, he  
 signalized himself by his valour; and had his right  
 leg broken by a cannon ball, at the siege of Pam-  
 peluna, in 1521. While he was under cure of  
 his wounds, a *Life of the Saints* was put into his  
 hands, which determined him to forsake the mi-  
 litary for the ecclesiastical profession. His first  
 devout exercise was to dedicate himself to the  
 blessed virgin as her knight. He then practised  
 the most severe mortifications for above a year;  
 after which he went a pilgrimage to the Holy  
 Land; and on his return to Europe, he continu-  
 ed his theological studies in the universities of  
 Spain, though he was then 33 years of age. In  
 1526, upon commencing preacher, he was im-  
 prisoned at Alcan, and Salamanca, and impeach-  
 ed before the inquisition. After this he went to  
 Paris, and laid the foundation of his new order;  
 the institutes of which he presented to Pope Paul  
 III. who made many objections to them, but at  
 last confirmed the institution in 1540. He died  
 at Rome, July 31, 1556, aged 66; and left his  
 disciples two famous books; 1. *Spiritual exerci-*  
*ses*; 2. *Constitutions or rules of the order*. But  
 though these avowed institutes contain many pri-  
 vileges obnoxious to the welfare of society, the  
 most

most diabolical are contained in the private rules entitled *Monita secreta*, which were not discovered till the close of the 17th century; and most writers attribute these, and even the Constitutions, to Laynez, the second general of the order. See **JESUITS**, § 2.

**LOYTZ**, a town of Pomerania, in Gutzkow.  
**LO-YUNG**, a town of China, in Quang-si.

**LOZAY**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente; 18 miles ENE. of Rochfort.

(1.) \* **LOZENGE**. *n. f.* [*lozenge*, French. Of unknown etymology.] 1. A rhomb.—The best builders resolve upon rectangular squares, as a mean between too few and too many angles; and through the equal inclination of the sides, they are stronger than the rhomb or *lozenge*, *Wotton's Architecture*. 2. *Lozenge* is a form of a medicine made into small pieces, to be held or chewed in the mouth till melted or wasted. 3. A cake of preserved fruit: both these are so denominated from the original form, which was rhomboidal.

(2.) **LOZENGE**, in heraldry. See **HERALDRY**, *Chap. III. Sect. II.* Though all heralds agree, that single ladies are to place their arms on lozenges, yet they differ with respect to the causes that gave rise to it. Plutarch says, in the life of Theseus, that in Megara, an ancient town of Greece, the tomb-stones, under which the bodies of the Amazons lay, were of that form. *S. Petra Sancta* says this shield represents a *cushion*, on which women used to sit and spin. Sir J. Ferne thinks it is formed from the shield called **TERRA**, which the Romans finding unfit for war, allowed women to place their ensigns upon, with one of its angles always uppermost.

(3.) **LOZENGES**, among jewellers, are common to brilliant and rose diamonds. In brilliants, they are formed by the meeting of the skill and star facets on the bezel; in the latter, by the meeting of the facets in the horizontal ribs of the crown. See **FACET**.

(4.) **LOZENGES**, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) in medicine, are otherwise called *trochisci*, or **TROCHES**.

(1.) **LOZERE**, a department of France, 55 m. long and 33 broad, comprehending the ci-devant prov. of **GEVAUDAN**. It is bounded on the N. by the departments of Cantal and Upper Loire; E. by that of Ardeche: S. by that of Gard; and W. by those of Aveyron and Cantal. **MENDE** is the capital.

(2.) **LOZERE**, a ridge of mountains in the above department, (to which they give name,) 16 miles from Mende.

**LOZICZE**, a town of Poland, in Biełk.

**LOZZI**, a town of Corsica, 11 miles NW. of Corte.

\* **LP**. a contraction for *lordship*.

(1.) **LU**, a town of the French republic, in the ci-devant duchy of Montferrat; 8 miles S. of Casale, and 8 W. of Alexandria.

(2.) **LU**, a town of China, in Ghan-tong.

(3.) \* **LU**. *n. f.* A game at cards.—

Ev'n mighty pain who kings and queens o'er-threw,

And mow'd down armies in the fights of *lu*. *Pope*.

**LU'A**, a river of Cuba, 25 m. NE. of Cape Cruz.

**LUANCO**, a town of Spain, in Asturia.

**LUBAT**, a town of Turkey, in Natolia.

\* **LUBBARD**. *n. f.* [from *lubber*.] A lazy fellow.—

Yet their wine and their victuals th'  
mudgeon *lubbards*

Lock up from my sight, in cellars a  
boards.

**LUBBECKE**, a city of Westphalia, in the ty of Minden, with a considerable jurisdiction. Its walls were built in 1279. Its chief trade is in yarn, linen, cattle, and beer. It was 1368, 1519, 1705, and 1734. It lies 14 m. of Minden.

**LUBBEN**, a town of Lusatia, on the 56 miles N. of Dresden.

\* **LUBBER**. *n. f.* [of this word the best opinion seems to be from *lubber*, said by J. to signify in Danish *fat*.] A sturdy drone; fat, bulky losel; a booby.—

For tempest and showers deceiveth;

And lingering *lubbars* loose many a pen

—These chase the smaller shoals of fish  
main sea into the havens, leaping up and  
puffing like a fat *lubber* out of breath. *Cd*

They clap the *lubber* Ajax on the shoulder

As if his feet were on brave Hector's tomb

And great Troy shrinking. *Shak. Troil*

A notable *lubber* thou reportest him to

Then lies him down the *lubber* fiend

Venetians do not more uncouthly rise

Thus did your *lubber* state mankind be

—How can you name that superannuated  
*Congreve*.

(1.) \* **LUBBERLY**. *adj.* [from *lubber* and bulky.—I came at Eaton to marry M. Page; and she's a great *lubberly* boy. *St*

(2.) \* **LUBBERLY**. *adv.* Aukwardly; —Merry Andrew on the low rope copie the same tricks which his master is to do performing on the high. *Dryden's Dedica*

(1.) **LUBEC**, or } a city and port of C

(1.) **LUBECK**, } in the circle of Lo

ony, and duchy of Holstein. It is feate

conflux of the Trave, with the Stecke:

Elbe, the Wackenitz, &c. 12 miles from

tic, where it has a fine harbour. By t

kenitz and the Elbe it communicates

German ocean. The city lies on the side

with the Trave, increased by the Steck

the one side, and the Wackenitz on th

and is strongly fortified with bastions

walls, and ramparts; the last of which a

ed with trees, and form an agreeable wa

bec being formerly the chief of the Hanse

was very powerful in consequence of

trade; but a great part of that trade is no

ferred to Hamburg: however, it still emp

of its own ships, and has a great share of

tic trade. It is about 2 miles long, and mo

broad. The houses are all of stone. Seven

streets have on each side rows of limetre

canals in the middle. The chief public fl

are the ancient cathedral, several other I

churches; a nunnery for 22 ladies, with;

and priores; a poors-house; an alms-houf

phan's house; an hospital dedicated to t

Ghost; a house in which poor travellers;

tained 3 days, and then sent forward wit



such as happen to be sick, are provided with all that is necessary till they recover or die; the city-argy, a grammar-school of 7 classes, a Calvinist church, and a Popish chapel. The deputies of the Hanse Towns used to meet here formerly in their own-house. An alliance still subsists between the city and Hamburg, and Bremen; and these cities, under the name of HANSE TOWNS, negotiate treaties with foreign powers. It has various manufactures. In the diet of the empire Lubec is possessed of the third seat among the Rhenish impenities; and among those of the circle, has the first.

The city is a republic within itself, and the emperor both makes and executes laws in regard to civil and criminal matters. A father and son, or brothers, cannot be in the regency at the same time. The famous league of the Hanse Towns was begun here in 1164. This city had its charter of privileges from the emperor Frederic formerly it carried on wars, both offensive and defensive, for several years, not only against the dukes of Mecklenburg, but against the kings of Sweden and Denmark; particularly in 1428, when it fitted out 250 ships of force against Eric king of Denmark. (See HANSE, § 3.) There are about 20 churches in Lubec, with lofty spires. Trade brings ships of burden into the very heart of the city; but the largest unload at Travels, i. e. the mouth of the Trave, 10 miles distant.

Formerly it employed 600 ships. In the wine cellar here, it is said there is wine 200 years old. The church of St Mary's, a lofty pile, supported by tall pillars, of one stone each, and a high spire, covered with gilt lead. The city's garrison consists of about 800 men. The residence of its Lutheran bishop, though he is a prince of the empire, is said not to exceed 3000 l. It lies 40 miles NE. of Hamburg. Lon. 10. 53. Lat. 53. 52. N.

LUBBECK, or LUBOI, an island of the Eastern Ocean, near that of Madura. Lon. 112. 5. Lat. 5. 50. S.

LUBEN, a city of Germany, in the margraviate of Lower Lusatia, situated on the Spree, capital of a small circle of the same name. It is the seat of the diets, and of the chief tribunals and officers; and has several churches with a noble land and hospital. Lon. 14. 25. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

LUBERSAC, a town of France, in the department of the Sarthe; 7½ miles W. of Uzerche.

LUBIEN, a town of Poland, in Posenia.

LUBIENITSKI, Stanislaus, a polish gentleman, descended from a noble family, born at Lubow in 1623, and educated by his father. He became a celebrated Socinian minister; and endeavoured to obtain a toleration from the German princes for his brethren. His labours, however, were ineffectual; being himself persecuted by the Lutheran ministers, and banished from Lubow to place; until at length he was poisoned by his two daughters, his wife narrowly escaped in 1675. He wrote, 1. *A history of the reformations in Poland*; 2. *A history of Comets from the year 1 to 1665*; and other works in Latin.

LUBIN, Augustin, (according to Dr Watson *Nicholas Lubin* (according to others,) Geographer to Lewis XIV, and an Augustine monk, born in 1624. He wrote a Description of

Lapland; Sacred Geography; and several other works. He died in 1695, aged 71.

(2.) LUBIN, Eilhard, a protestant divine, born at Westersted in Germany, and educated at Leipzig. He became professor of poetry in the university of Rostock in 1595; and in 1605, professor of divinity. He wrote notes on Anacreon, Juvenal, Persius, &c. and several other works; but that which made the most noise is, a Treatise on the nature and origin of evil, entitled, *Ptolemaeus de causa prima et natura mal*, printed at Rostock in 1596; in which we have a curious hypothesis to account for the origin of moral evil. He supposed two co-eternal principles; not matter and vacuum, as Epicurus did; but God, and *Nilium* or *Nothing*. This being attacked by Grawer, was defended by Lublin; but after all, he is deemed better acquainted with polite literature than with divinity. He died in 1621.

LUBLIN, a considerable town of Poland, capital of the palatinate of the same name, with a citadel, a bishop's see, an university, a Jewish synagogue, and judicial courts. It has 3 fairs, frequented by merchants from all nations. It is seated on the Bystrzyna. Lon. 22. 31. E. Lat. 51. 26. N.

LUBLYO, a town and castle of Hungary.

LUBOW, a town of Poland, in Cracow, 50 miles SE. of Cracow. Lon. 20. 36. E. Lat. 49. 36. N.

LUBOZ, a town of Lithuania.

\* To LUBRICATE. *v. a.* [from *lubricus*, Latin.] To make smooth or slippery; to smoothe.—There are aliments which, besides this *lubricating* quality, stimulate in a small degree. *Arbutnos*.—The patient is relieved by the mucilaginous and the saponaceous remedies, some of which *lubricate*, and others both *lubricate* and stimulate. *Sharp*.

\* To LUBRICITATE. *v. n.* [from *lubricus*, Latin.] To smoothe; to make slippery.

\* LUBRICITY. *n. s.* [from *lubricus*, Latin; *lubricité*, French.] 1. Slipperiness; smoothness of surface. 2. Aptness to glide over any part, or to facilitate motion.—Both the ingredients are of a lubricating nature; the mucilage adds to the *lubricity* of the oil, and the oil preserves the mucilage from inspissation. *Ray on Creation*. 3. Uncertainty; slipperiness; instability.—The manifold impossibilities and *lubricities* of matter cannot have the same conveniences in any modification. *More*. He that enjoyed crowns, and knew their worth, excepted them not out of the charge of universal vanity; and yet the politician is not discouraged at the inconstancy of human affairs, and the *lubricity* of his subject. *Glanville's Apology*.—A state of tranquillity is never to be attained, but by keeping perpetually in our thoughts the certainty of death, and the *lubricity* of fortune. *L'Étrange*. 4. Wantonness; lewdness.—From the lechery of these fauns, he thinks that satyr is derived from them, as if wantonness and *lubricity* were essential to that poem which ought in all to be avoided. *Dryden*.

\* LUBRICK. *adj.* [from *lubricus*, Lat.] 1. Slippery; smooth on the surface.—

Short thick fobs, whose thund'ring volleys float

And roul themselves over her *lubrick* throat

In panting murmurs.

*Crazeaux*  
2. Un-

In n. 1 y.—I will deduce him from  
 er h) e deep and *lubrick* waves of  
 anton; lewd. [*lubricus*, Fr.]  
 arry'd down  
 ult'rate age? *Dryden*  
 f. [*lubricus*, Latin.] 1. Slip-  
 parts of water being voluble  
 is fine, it easily insinuates it-  
 vegetables. *Woodward*. 2.  
 judgment being the leading  
 er, if it ored with *lubricous* opinious in-  
 d of c) ived truths, and perempto-  
 resolv) re practice will be irregular  
 \* J) *Blauville*.  
 Latin,] N. n. f. [*lubricus* and *facio*,  
 The cau- 1. 1) ublicating or smoothing.—  
 medicines e t) ion and relaxation, as in me-  
 lows. I) ch as milk, honey, and mal-

\* LI S. n. f. *lila*  
 Latin,] 1. 1) 1)  
 quor is prepared for the innu-  
 of the heads of the bones; 1)  
 by the marrow; a mucilagiu-  
 tain glandules seated in the a-  
 LUBRIN, a town of Spain. 1) da.  
 LUBZ, a town of Saxony. i  
 (1.) LUC, a town of Fra-  
 Drome, seated on the Drom  
*Crittwell*.

(2.) LUC, a town of France, in the dep-  
 fere, and late prov. of Dauphiny; seated  
 Drome, 32 miles S. of Grenoble, Lon. 5. 48. E.  
 Lat 44. 40. N. *Brookes*.

(3.) LUC, a town of France, in the dep. of  
 the Lozere; 5 miles S. of Langogne.

(4.) LUC, a town of France, in the dep. of  
 Lower Pyrennees; 6 miles N. of Oleron.

(5.) LUC, a town of France, in the dep. of Var;  
 12 miles E. of Brignolle.

(6.) LUC, a town of Germany, in Bavaria, on  
 the Nab; 12 miles ENE. of Amberg.

LUCA, in ancient geography, a town of Etruria,  
 on the Aufer; a colony and a municipium; now  
 called *Lucca*, capital of the republic of that name,  
 near the Secchia. Lon. 11. 20. E. Lat. 43. 45. N.

LUCÆ BOVES, elephants, so called, because  
 first seen in Pyrrhus's wars in LUCANIA. *Pliny*.

LUCAN. See LUCANUS, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

LUCANAS, a town of Peru, near the source  
 of the Apurimac, containing some very rich silver  
 mines. It has a very extensive jurisdiction, and  
 great trade in cattle, grain, fruits, silver, &c.

LUCANI, the people of Lucania, descendants  
 of the Samnites.

LUCANIA, a country of Italy, and a part of  
 Magna Grecia; bounded on the N. by the Silarus,  
 by which it is separated from the Picentini, and by  
 the river Bradanus by which it is parted from the  
 Apuli Peucetii; on the S. by the Laus, which sepa-  
 rated it from the Bruttii; on the E. by the Si-  
 nus Tarentinus; and on the W. by the Tuscan sea.

LUCANO. See LUGANO.

(1.) LUCANUS, Marcus Annæus, a Latin po-  
 et, born at Corduba in Spain about A. D. 39. He  
 was the son of Annæus Mela, the youngest bro-  
 ther of Seneca; and was conveyed to Rome from  
 the place of his nativity at the age of 8 months;

a circumstance, as his more indulgent c-  
 serve, which sufficiently refutes the c-  
 those who consider his language as provin-  
 Rome he was educated under the Stoic C-  
 so warmly celebrated by his disciple P-  
 fatirist, who was the intimate friend of L-  
 the close of his education, Lucan is said  
 passed some time at Athens. On his  
 Rome he rose to the office of quaestor, l-  
 had attained the legal age. He was after  
 rolled among the augurs; and married;  
 noble birth, and of a most amiable  
 Lucan had for some time been admitted  
 liarity with Nero, when the emperor cho-  
 tend for poetical honours by the public  
 a poem he had composed on Niobe. L-  
 the hardness to repeat a poem an Or-  
 competition with that of Nero; and the  
 the contest were just and bold enough  
 against the emperor. Hence Nero be-  
 persecutor of his successful rival, and  
 him to produce any poetry in public.  
 known conspiracy of Piso against the ty-  
 followed; and Tacitus concludes that I-  
 gaged in the enterprize from the poetic  
 he had received. But a more probab-  
 for his conduct may be found in the get-  
 dor of his character, and his passionate  
 of freedom. Tacitus alleges a charge a  
 poet, equally injurious and improbable;  
 Lucan, when accused of the conspiracy  
 time denied the charge; but at last, un-  
 mise of impunity, accused his mother A-  
 accomplice. But from this charge Mr F-  
 fully vindicated him, in his Notes to his  
*istle on Epic Poetry*. And the fact re-  
 Tacitus himself seems decisive; for he  
 that "The information against Atilla, t-  
 of Lucan, was dissembled; and, with  
 cleared, she escaped unpunished."  
 therefore vindicate the honour of Luc-  
 firmness and intrepidity are indeed ver-  
 displayed in that picture of his death  
 citus himself has given us. He was con-  
 have his veins cut, as his uncle Seneca l-  
 him; and, "while his blood issued in  
 perceiving his feet and hands to grow  
 itiflen, and life to retire by little and lit-  
 extremities, while his heart was still be-  
 vital warmth, and his faculties nowise  
 recollected some lines of his own, which  
 a wounded soldier expiring in a manner t-  
 bled this. The lines themselves he rehe-  
 they were the last words he ever utte-  
 critics differ concerning the verses of t-  
 lia which the author repeated. Some  
 verses were v. 810 to 814, *lib. ix.* but L-  
 tends that the passage occurs in *Lib. ii.*  
 638; thus translated by Mr Rowe;  
 No single wound the gaping rupture  
 Where trickling crimson swells in flood.  
 But, from an opening horrible and wide  
 A thousand vessels pour the bursting  
 At once the winding channel's course  
 Where wand'ring life her mazy journey  
 At once the currents all forgot their  
 And lost their purple in the azure sea  
 Such was the death of Lucan before he

died his 27th year.—His wife, Polla Argentario, is said to have transcribed and corrected the 3 first books of his *Pharsalia* after his death. It is much to be regretted (Mr Hayley observes) that we possess not the poem which he wrote on the merits of this amiable and accomplished woman; but her name is immortalized by other two poets of that age. The veneration which she paid to the memory of her husband is recorded by Martial; and more poetically described in that elegant production of Statius, *Genesblacon Lucani*, a poem said to have been written at the request of Argentario. The author, after touching with great delicacy on the compositions of Lucan, pays a short compliment to the beauty and talents of Argentario; laments the cruel fate which deprived her so immaturity of domestic happiness; and concludes with an address to the shade of Lucan, which furnishes a strong presumption of Lucan's innocence, in regard to the accusation mentioned above. "Had he been really guilty of basely endangering the life of his mother (says Mr Hayley), it is not probable that his wife would have honoured his memory with such enthusiastic veneration."—"If his character as a man has been injured by the historian, continues he, his poetical reputation has been treated not less injuriously by the critics. Quintilian disputes his title to be classed among the poets; and Scaliger says, with a brutality of language disgraceful only to himself, that he seems rather to bark than to sing. But the most elevated poetic spirits have been his warmest admirers; in consequence he was idolized by Corneille, and in England translated by Rowe.—The severest censures on Lucan have proceeded from those who have unfairly compared his language to that of Virgil: but how unjust and absurd is such a comparison! How differently should we think of Virgil as a poet, if we possessed only the verses which he wrote at that period of life when Lucan composed his *Pharsalia*! In the disposition of his subject, in the propriety and elegance of diction, he is undoubtedly far inferior to Virgil: but if we attend to the bold originality of his design, and to the vigour of his sentiments; if we consider the *Pharsalia* as the rapid and uncorrected sketch of a young poet, executed in an age when the spirit of his countrymen was taken, and their taste in literature corrupted; it may be justly esteemed one of the most noble and best wonderful productions of the human mind." Lucan wrote several poems, but none remain besides his *Pharsalia*.

(2.) LUCANUS, the STAG-BEETLE, in zoology; a genus of insects of the order coleoptera. The antennae end in a club or knob, which is compressed or flattened on one side, and divided into short segments resembling the teeth of a comb; the jaws are protracted or advanced before the head, and are dentated. There are 20 species.

LUCANUS CERVUS is the largest as well as the most singular. See Plate CCIII. It has two large moveable maxillæ, resembling the horns of a stag, which project from its head, and have acquired the appellation of Stag-Beetle. Those maxillæ, broad and flat, equal to one 3d of its length, have in the middle, towards their inner end, a small branch, and at their extremity are

forked. They have also several small teeth throughout their length. The head that bears these maxillæ is very irregular, very broad and short. The thorax is something narrower than the head and body, and margined round. The elytra are very plain, without either streaks or lines. The whole animal is of a deep brown colour. It is commonly found upon the oak, but is scarce in the neighbourhood of London, and though the largest of coleopterous insects to be met with in this part of the world, it is much smaller than those of the same species that are found in woody countries. It is strong and vigorous, and its horns, with which it pinches severely, are carefully to be avoided. The jaws are sometimes as red as coral, which gives this insect a very beautiful appearance; the female is distinguished by the shortness of the jaws, which are not half so long as those of the male. The females deposit their eggs in trunks of decayed trees, such as the oak and the ash. The larvæ lodge under the bark and in the hollow of old trees, which they eat into and reduce into fine powder, and there transform themselves into chrysalids. They are common in Kent and Sussex, and are sometimes met with in other parts of England. The protracted jaws are particularly useful to these animals, in stripping off the bark from trees, and affixing themselves thereby to the tree, while they suck with their trunk the juice that oozes from it.

LUCAR, ST, 3 towns of Spain, in Andalusia: viz.

1. LUCAR, ST, DE BARAMEDA, is a handsome town with a good harbour, well defended. It was once the greatest port in Spain, before the galleons unloaded their treasure at Cadiz. It is seated at the mouth of the Guadalquivir, 13 miles N. of Cadiz. Lon. 6. 5. W. Lat. 36. 40. N.

2. LUCAR, ST, DE GUADIANA, a strong town on the confines of Algarve; seated on the Guadiana, with a harbour, 64 miles W. of Seville. Lon. 5. 59. W. Lat. 37. 32. N.

3. LUCAR, ST, LA MAJOR, a small town seated on the Guadiana, 10 m. W. of Seville. Lon. 6. 32. W. Lat. 37. 21. N.

LUCARIA, [from *lucus*, Lat. a grove.] a feast celebrated at Rome on the 18th of July, in memory of the flight of the Romans into a great wood, where they found an asylum from the Gauls. This wood was situated between the Tiber and the *Via Salaria*. On this festival, Plutarch tells us, it was customary to pay the actors, with the money arising from the felling of wood. This money was called *lucar*.

LUCARNO. See LOCARNO, N° 1, and 2.

(1.) LUCAS, Charles, M. D. a celebrated Irish patriot, born in 1713. He was a member of parliament in Ireland, and distinguished himself on the side of opposition. (See IRELAND, § 16.) He wrote several works on medical subjects, and died in 1771, aged 58. His funeral was attended by the corporation of Dublin, who settled a pension on his widow.

(2.) LUCAS, Francis, a learned divine, born at Bruges, and hence named *Brugensis*. He was well skilled in the Oriental languages, and wrote much in illustration of the Scriptures. He died in 1619.

(3.) LUCAS, Paul, a famous French traveller, born

born at Rouen, in 1644. He made several voyages to the East, and brought home a great number of curiosities, with which Lewis XV. enriched his cabinet, and made him his antiquary. His Travels make several volumes, but it is said his veracity is not always to be depended on. He went to Madrid in 1736, and died there in 1737.

(4.) LUCAS, Richard, D. D. a learned English divine, born in 1648, and educated at Oxford: after which he took orders, and was for some time master of the free school at Abergavenny. Being esteemed an excellent preacher, he became vicar of St Stephen's, Coleman street, in London, and lecturer of St Olave's in Southwark. In 1696 he was installed prebendary of Westminster. His sight began to fail in his youth; and he totally lost it in his middle age. He was greatly esteemed for his piety and learning; and published several works, particularly, 1. Practical Christianity: 2. An inquiry after happiness: 3. Several Sermons: 4. A Latin translation of the whole duty of man. He died in 1715.

(5.) LUCAS JACOBS, or } an eminent artist, call-  
LUCAS VAN LEYDEN, } ed also *Hugense*, was  
born at Leyden in 1494. He received his first in-  
structions in painting from his father Hugues Ja-  
cobs; but completed his studies under Cornelius  
Engelbrecht. He gained much money by his pro-  
fession; but being of a generous turn of mind,  
spent it freely, and lived in a superior style. A  
few years before his death, he made a tour in  
Zealand and Brabant; and during his journey, a  
painter of Flushing, envious of his great abilities,  
gave him poison at an entertainment; which,  
though slow, was fatal in its effect, and put an  
end to his life, after six years languishing under its  
cruel influence. Others, denying the story of the  
poison, attribute his death to his incessant indus-  
try. The superiority of his genius manifested it-  
self very early, for his works, at the age of 9,  
were so excellent as to excite the admiration of  
all contemporary artists; and when he was about  
15, he painted a St Hubert, which gained him  
great applause. His tone of colouring (Mr. Pilkington  
observes) is good; his attitudes are well cho-  
sen; his figures have a considerable expression in  
their faces, and his pictures are very highly finish-  
ed. He endeavoured to proportion the strength  
of his colouring to the different degrees of distance  
in which his objects were placed: for in that early  
time, the true principles of perspective were but  
little known. In the town-hall at Leyden, his  
most capital picture, *the Last Judgment*, is pre-  
served with great care; the magistrates having re-  
fused very large sums for it. Lucas painted not only  
in oil, but also in distemper and upon glass. Nor  
was he less eminent for his engraving. He car-  
ried on a friendly correspondence with Albert  
Durer; and, as regularly as Albert Durer pub-  
lished one print, Lucas published another, with-  
out the least jealousy on either side, or wish to de-  
preciate each other's merit. When Albert came  
into Holland upon his travels, he was received by  
Lucas in a most affectionate manner. His style of  
engraving, however, according to Mr Strutt, dif-  
fered considerably from that of Albert Durer,  
"and seems evidently to have been founded upon  
the works of Israel van Mechlen." His prints are

very neat and clear, but without any effect. The strokes are as delicate upon  
jects in the front, as upon those in the d  
and this want of variety, joined with th  
ness of the masses of shadow, give his en  
with all their neatness, an unfinished app  
He was attentive to the minutiae of his  
gave great expression to the heads of his  
but, in his works the same heads are r  
repeated. The hands and feet are rather  
ed than correct; and when he attempted  
the naked figure, he succeeded but ind  
He made the folds of his draperies long a  
ing; but his female figures are too often  
ly loaded with girdles, bandages, and ot  
mental trappings. He engraved on wood  
as on copper; but his works on the so  
not numerous. They are, however, ve  
ed; though not equal, upon the whole,  
of his friend Albert. Lucas's prints ar  
numerous, but seldom met with complet  
following are among the principal: 1.

*sleeping, with a priest murdered by his side,*  
*the figure stealing his sword; a middling-*  
*right plate; 1508. 2. An ecce homo, a lar*  
*lengthwise; 1510. 3. The crucifixion on M*  
*vary, ditto. 4. The wife mens offering, dit*  
*5. Return of the prodigal son, middli*  
*lengthwise; 1518. 6. The dance of Magdal*  
*lengthwise; 1519. 7. His own portrai*  
*upright; 1525. 8. David playing before*  
middling-sized, upright, very fine print  
print called *Ulespiegel*, which is the scar  
his works. It was in the collection of th  
France; and said by Marolles to be un  
Marianne had also an impression of it.  
sents a travelling bag-piper with his fam  
sisting of his wife, 7 children, a little do  
a singular groupe. This rare print is dat  
and has been sold for 16 louis d'ors. It  
7½ inches high by 4¾ broad; and has be  
copied.

LUCAU, two towns of Germany; 1.  
thia, near the Geil; 2. in Saxony, 13 m  
Leipfic.

LUCAYA ISLANDS. See BAHAMA.

(1.) LUCCA, a small republic of Italy  
coast of the Mediterranean, between the  
republic on the W. Modena on the N.  
cany on the E. According to Keysser,  
about 30 miles in circumference, but is e  
fertile and populous. It contains, besides  
(Nº 2.) 150 villages. The number of in  
are computed at 120,000. The govern  
lodged in a gosalon'er, whose power is r  
same with that of the doge of Genoa.  
sisted by 9 counsellors: but the power c  
ten continues only for two months; dur  
time they live in the state palace, and at  
lic expence. They are chosen out of t  
council, which consists of 240 nobles, an  
ged by a new election every two years.  
venues of the republic are about 400,000  
crowns. This small state has preserved it  
and independence in the midst of all the l  
lutions of ITALY.

(2.) LUCCA, the capital of the above  
is situated in a plain, terminating in most

ences, adorned with villas, summer-houses, fields, and plantations of every kind. It is about 3 Italian miles in circumference, and well lined with fortifications; and its streets, regular, are wide, well paved, and full of houses. The number of its inhabitants computed to be above 40,000; and they have large manufactures, especially of silk. Lucina has a bishop, who enjoys several extraordinary privileges; and its cathedral is

Lon. 11. 27. E. Lat. 43. 52. N.

LUCCA, a river of Asia, in Persia.

LUCIUS, Lucius, a celebrated Roman historian Cicero requested to write the history of his consulship. (*Cic. Ep. 5, 12.*) He favoured the Pompey, but experienced the clemency

LUCI, a town of Naples, in Calabria.

LUCOS, a river of Morocco, anciently called which runs into the Atlantic at Larache.

LUCER, *n. f.* [perhaps from *lypus*, Latin.] all grown.—They give the dozen white deer coat. *Shakespeare.*

LUCER, in ichthyology. See *ESOX*, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

LUCER, in geography, a river of Scotland, inshire, which runs into Luce Bay, 1½ miles from Glenluce. It abounds with salmon fish.

LUCER BAY, a large bay on the S. coast of Ireland, between the Mull of Galloway and Mull of Kintyre. Vessels of above 60 tons may ride in it.

LUCER, NEW, a parish of Wigtonshire, distant from OLD LUCE, in 1646, 10 miles long, and 5 to 6 broad. The greater part of the parish is covered with heath, moss, or rocks. There are 32 farms on the low fertile grounds on the S. of the Luce. The population, in 1793, was 1,200; it decreased 59, since 1755. About 364 sheep, 1420 sheep, and 672 stones of wool, are annually sold out of the parish.

LUCER, OLD, a parish of Wigtonsh. anciently called along with NEW LUCE, the original GLLENLUCE. It is 10 miles long, but its breadth from 2 to 7 feet, being deeply indented by Luce Bay on the one side and New Luce on the other. About one half is arable; the other half is light and fertile; the other half is reserved for cattle. Husbandry has been but little improved. Before 1780, the grain raised was sold to the inhabitants. In 1790, 800 bolls of wheat and meal were exported. About 850 sheep, 600 sheep, 50 packs of wool, and 150000 annually sold. There are about 400 farms. The population, in 1791, was 1200; decreased since 1755, owing chiefly to the emigration of farms.

LUCER, E. and W. two rivers of Jamaica.

LUCER, a town of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, 2 miles W. of Lauffen.

LUCERNA, a town of Spain, in Cordova.

LUCERNA, a town of Spain, in Valencia.

LUCENAY LES AIX, a town of France, in the department of Nièvre, 9 miles S. of Decize.

LUCENAY L'ÉVÊQUE, a town of France, in the department of the Saône; 7½ miles N. of Autun.

LUCENT, *adj.* [*lucens*, Lat.] Shining; bright;

I meant the day-star should not brighter rise;  
Nor send like influence from his *lucens* seat.

*Edw. Jonson.*

A spot like which perhaps

Astronomer in the sun's *lucens* orb,

Thro' his glaz'd optick tube yet never saw. *Milt.*

LUCENTII, } in ancient geography, a town  
LUCENTIA, or } of Hispania Citra, now called  
LUCENTUM, } Alicant.

LUCERA, a populous city of Naples, capital of the prov. of Capitanata; and a bishop's see; with 4 churches and 9 monasteries; 60 miles N. of Naples.

LUCERES, in Roman antiquity, the 3d in order of the 3 tribes into which Romulus divided the people, including foreigners; also called from the *lucus* or grove, where Romulus opened an asylum.

(1.) LUCERIA, in ancient geography, a town of Italy, in Apulia; which in Strabo's time still exhibited marks of Diomedes's sovereignty in those parts. It is called by Ptolemy NUCCERIA; now Nocera de Pagani, in Naples. Lon. 15. 0. E. Lat. 40. 40. N.

(2.) LUCERIA, and LUCERIUS, } in mythology, names given to Juno and Jupiter, as the deities which give light to the world.

LUCERNA, a town and valley of the French republic, in Piedmont; 5 miles SW. of Pignerolo, and 15 SW. of Turin. Lon. 7. 38. E. Lat. 44. 52. N.

(1.) LUCERNE, one of the 13 cantons of the Helvetic republic. It holds the 3d place among the 13; and is the head of the Catholic cantons. It is less than Zurich, and much less than Berne, but far more extensive than any of the rest, being about 16 leagues long, and 8 broad. The population is estimated at 100,000. The mountainous part abounds in wood and pasture, furnishing cattle, hides, cheese, and butter, for exportation. All the N. part is fertile in grain, fruit, and hay; supplying sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. Their manufactures consist in silk and cotton thread. The ci-devant government was oligarchical. The councils were chosen from among 500 citizens only. The great council of 64 members was the nominal sovereign; but the power resided in the senate, or little council of 36, having for their chiefs the two Avoyers. They threw off the Austrian yoke in 1353; and by entering into a perpetual alliance with the three ancient cantons, they gave such weight to the confederacy, as to enable it in 1386 to resist all the efforts of the enemy at the bloody battle of Sempach. During the late war this canton had its share of distress. See REVOLUTION and WAR.

(2.) LUCERNE, the capital of the above canton, is situated at the extremity of the lake (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) where the Reufs issues from it. The buildings are ancient, and the streets narrow; the population is between 3 and 4000. As this is the great passage to Italy by Mount St Gothard, and the merchandize which passes the Alps on mules, to be transported by the Reufs, Aar, and Rhine, is all deposited here, it might have a flourishing trade if manufactures were attended to. The Reufs separates the town into two unequal parts, which are connected by 3 bridges; one wide for carriages; and two narrow

narrow covered ones for foot passengers. There is also a 4th over an arm of the lake. The chief religious edifices are the cathedral of St Leger, and several convents. Of the secular buildings, the hotel de Ville is the principal. The arsenal is well furnished. What attracts most the notice of strangers is, a plan in relief of part of the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, and Berne, and the whole of Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwald, executed by Gen. Pflüger on a large scale. He has completed about 60 square leagues; the plan is 12 feet long, and 9½ broad; every mountain is accurately measured; and every object distinctly placed. Lucerne is 30 miles SW. of Zurich, and 35 E. of Berne. Lon. 8. 6. E. Lat. 47. 5. N.

(3.) LUCERNE, a lake in the above canton, exhibiting greater variety and more picturesque scenery than any other of the Helvetic lakes. It is 7 leagues long in a right line, and 3 broad, about Kuffnacht; but the shape is very irregular. The whole S. side is bordered by high mountains; but the N. exhibits hills of no great height. The narrow gulph that extends towards the W. is bordered on the N. and NW. by mount Pilat, a mountain rising more than 6000 feet above the lake; and on the S. by mount Burgenberg. Stanz-Stadt, belonging to the canton of Unterwald, is on this side; and here the lake is deepest. Kuffnacht is on the point of the other gulph, which extends towards the E. and is wider than the former.

(4.) LUCERNE, in botany. See MEDICAGO.

LUCÉY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meurthe, 3 miles NW. of Toul.

LUCHEN, a town of Spain, in Valencia.

LUCHEUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Somme, 4½ miles NE. of Doullens, and 15 SW. of Arras.

LUCHO, a town of Lunenburg, on the Jetze, 40 miles ESE. of Lunenburg, and 54 NE. of Zell.

LUCHY, a town of France, in the dep. of the Oise, 9 miles N. of Beauvais.

(1.) LUCIA, or ST ALOUSIE, or ST LUCIA, one of the Caribbee Islands, about 22 miles long, and 11 broad, the middle of it lying in Lon. 27. e. W. Lat. 39. 14. N. It was first settled by the French in 1650; but was reduced by the English in 1664, who evacuated it in 1666. The French immediately re-settled the island, but were again driven away by the Caribbs. As soon as the savages were gone, the former inhabitants returned for a short time; but being afraid of falling a prey to the first privateer that should visit their coasts, they removed to other French settlements that were stronger, or might be better defended. There was then no regular colony at St Lucia; it was only frequented by the inhabitants of Martinico, who came thither to cut wood, and to build canoes, and who had considerable docks on the island. In 1718 it was again settled by the French; but 4 years after, it was given by the British court to the duke of Montague, who was sent to take possession of it. This occasioned some disturbance between the two courts; which was settled, however, by an agreement made in 1731, that, till the respective claims should be finally adjusted, the island should be evacuated by both nations, but that both should have wood and

water there. This agreement furnished an opportunity for private interest to exert itself. The English no longer molested the French in their habitations; but employed them as their assistants, carrying on with richer colonies a smuggling trade which the subjects of both governments thought equally advantageous to them. This trade continued more or less considerable till the treaty 1763, when St Lucia was ceded to the crown of France. After that time the colony flourished considerably. In the beginning of 1772, the number of white people amounted to 2018 four men, women, and children; that of the black to 663 freemen, and 12,795 slaves. The estate consisted of 928 horses and mules, 2070 horn cattle, and 3184 sheep and goats. There were 38 sugar plantations, which occupied 978 plots of land; 5,395,889 coffee trees; 1,321,600 coconut plants; and 367 plots of cotton. There were 706 dwelling places. The annual revenue at that time was about 175,000l. which, according to the Abbé Raynal, must have increased one third yearly for some time. It was taken by the British fleet under admirals Byron and Barrington in 1779, but restored to France at the peace 1783. It was again taken by the British troops under Sir Charles Grey and Sir John Jervis 1794; but in 1795, the French, negroes, and mulattoes rose, and were so successful, that, April 1795, they were in possession of the whole island except Morne Fortune, which surrendered in May. But on the 26th May 1796, that and the whole island were recovered by Gen. Abercrombie, after an obstinate resistance; 12000 men taken prisoners. It was ceded to the French by the treaty of peace in 1801—2. The soil of St Lucia is tolerably good, even at the side; and is much better the farther one advances into the country. The whole of it is capable of cultivation, except some high and craggy mountains which bear evident marks of old canoes. In one deep valley there are still 8 or 10 ponds, the water of which boils up in a dreadful manner, and retains some of its heat at a distance of 6000 toises from its reservoirs. The air in the inland parts is unwholesome; but comes less noxious as the woods are cleared and the ground laid open. On some parts of the coast the air is rendered still more unhealthy, by the waters of some small rivers which spring from the foot of the mountains, and not having sufficient slope to wash down the sands with which the flux of the ocean stops up their mouths, stagnate and spread into unwholesome marshes on the neighbouring grounds.

(2.) LUCIA, ST, a high and mountainous island of Africa, one of the Cape de Verd Islands, about 12 leagues long. On the ESE. side is a harbour, with a bottom and shore of white sand; but the road is opposite to St Vincent's to the SW. where there are at least 20 fathoms of water. On the W. side there is no water. It abounds with game and land fowl, tortoises, &c. Lon. 24. 8. Lat. 16° or 17° 18' N.

(3.) LUCIA, ST, a town of the French republic in the island and dep. of Corsica; 6 m. NE. of Corte.

(4.) LUCIA, ST, a town of S. America, in

of Buenos Ayres, on the E. bank of the  
 12.) 140 miles N. of Santa Fe.

5.) LUCIA, St, a town and fort of Maritime  
 Stria, in the Trevisan.

6.) LUCIA, ST, a town of Sicily, in the valley  
 Demora; 7 miles N. of Messina.

LUCIAN, or LUCIANUS, a celebrated Greek  
 rhetor in the first century, born at Samosata, in  
 the reign of Trajan. He studied law and practised  
 some time as an advocate; but afterwards com-  
 menced rhetorician. He lived to the time of  
 Marcus Aurelius, who made him register of Alex-  
 andria in Egypt; and, according to Suidas, he  
 was at last worried by dogs, in his 90th year,  
 B. C. 180. Lucian was one of the finest wits in  
 antiquity. His Dialogues, and other works,  
 were written in pure Greek. In these he has join-  
 ed the useful to the agreeable, instruction to sa-  
 tisfaction, and erudition to elegance: They abound in  
 fine and delicate railery which characterises  
 the Attic taste.—Lucian has been censured as an  
 pious scoffer at religion, but surely religion  
 admits neither in the theology of the Pagan poets,  
 nor in the extravagant opinions of philosophers,  
 such he justly ridicules; but he no-where writes  
 against an over-ruling providence, though he  
 sometimes pollutes his wit with obscenity.

LUCIANA, a town of Spain in Andalusia.

1.) LUCIANISTS, or LUCANISTS, a religi-  
 ous sect, so called from LUCIANUS, or *Lucanus*,  
 heretic of the 2d century, a disciple of Mar-  
 cion, whose errors he followed, adding some new  
 ones to them. Epiphanius says he abandoned  
 Lucian; teaching that people ought not to mar-  
 ry; and yet other authors mention that he held  
 error in common with Marcion and other  
 heretics. He denied the immortality of the soul;  
 holding it to be material.

2.) LUCIANISTS, another sect who appeared  
 some time after the Arians. They taught, that  
 the Father had been a Father always, and that he  
 was the name even before he begot the Son; as  
 being in him the power or faculty of generation:  
 and in this manner they accounted for the eter-  
 nity of the Son.

LUCIANO, a town of Spain, in New Castile.

LUCIANUS. See LUCIAN, and LUCIANISTS.

(1.) \* LUCID. *adj.* [*lucidus*, Lat. *lucide*, Fr.]  
 Shining; bright; glittering.—

Over his *lucid* arms

A military vest of purple flow'd. *Milton.*  
 It contracts it, preserving the eye from being  
 injured by too vehement and *lucid* an object. *Ray.*  
 If a piece of white paper, or a white cloth, or  
 the end of one's finger, be held at the distance of  
 about a quarter of an inch, or half inch, from  
 that part of the glass where it is most in motion,  
 the electric vapour which is excited by the fric-  
 tion of the glass against the hand, will, by dath-  
 ing against the white paper, cloth, or finger, be  
 set into such an agitation as to emit light, and  
 make the white paper, cloth, or finger, appear  
 like a glow-worm. *Newton.*—

The pearly shell its *lucid* globe unfold,  
 And Phoebus warm the rip'ning ore to gold. *Pope.*  
 Pellucid; transparent.—

On the fertile banks

Of Abbaa and Phaphar, *lucid* streams. *Milton.*

—On the transparent side of a globe, half silver  
 and half of a transparent metal, we saw certain  
 strange figures circularly drawn, and thought we  
 could touch them, till we found our fingers stop-  
 ped by that *lucid* substance. *Gulliver.* 3. Bright  
 with the radiance of intellect; not darkened with  
 madness.—The long dissensions of the two houses,  
 which, although they had had *lucid* intervals and  
 happy pauses, yet they did ever hang over the  
 kingdom, ready to break forth. *Bacon.*—

Some beams of wit on other souls may fall,  
 Strike through and make a *lucid* interval.

*Dryden.*

—I believed him in a *lucid* interval, and desired  
 he would please to let me see his book. *Tatler.*—  
 A few sensual and voluptuous persons may, for a  
 season, eclipse this native light of the soul; but  
 can never so wholly smother and extinguish it,  
 but that, at some *lucid* intervals, it will recover  
 itself again. *Bentley.*

(2.) LUCID INTERVALS, intervals of reason that  
 occur between the fits of lunatics or maniacs,  
 wherein the phrenzy leaves them for a short time.

\* LUCIDITY. *n. f.* [from *lucid*.] Splendour;  
 brightness. *Dist.*

LUCIENSTEIG, ST, a narrow pass from the  
 country of the Grisons into Germany, 3 miles  
 from Meyenfeld, defended by a fort, which was  
 taken by General Massena, on the 6th March  
 1799.

(1.) LUCIFER, in astronomy, is the bright  
 planet Venus, which either goes before the sun  
 in the morning, and is our morning star; or in  
 the evening follows the sun, and then is called  
 HESPERUS or the evening star.

(2.) LUCIFER, in the mythology, the son of  
 Jupiter and Aurora.

(3.) LUCIFER, in ecclesiastical history, a cele-  
 brated bishop of Cagliari, in Sardinia, who gave  
 rise to a schism, by not admitting the decree of the  
 council of Alexandria, A. D. 362, for receiving  
 the Arian bishops, who recanted their errors.  
 He was banished by Constantius for defending  
 the Nicene doctrine concerning the Trinity. He  
 died A. D. 370. His works were published at  
 Venice.

LUCIFERA, in mythology, a surname given  
 to Diana, under which title she was invoked by the  
 Greeks in childbed. She was represented as cov-  
 ered with a large veil, interspersed with stars,  
 bearing a crescent on her head, and holding in  
 her hand a lighted flambeau.

LUCIFERIAN, a religious sect, who adhered  
 to the schism of *Lucifer*. (See LUCIFER, N<sup>o</sup> 2.)  
 St Augustine intimates, that they believed the  
 soul, which they considered as of a material na-  
 ture, to be transmitted to the children from their  
 fathers. They increased mightily in Gaul, Spain,  
 Egypt, &c. There were but two Luciferian bi-  
 shops, but a great number of priests and deacons.  
 They bore a peculiar aversion to the Arians.

\* LUCIFEROUS. *adj.* [*lucifer*, Latin.] Giving  
 light; affording means of discovery.—The experi-  
 ment is not ignoble, and *luciferous* enough, as  
 shewing a new way to produce a volatile salt.  
*Boyle.*

\* LUCIFICK. *adj.* [*lux* and *facio*, Latin.] Mak-  
 ing light; producing light.—When made to con-

verge, and so mixed together; though their *luck* motion be continued, yet by interfering, that equal motion, which is the colorifick, is interrupted. *Green.*

LUCIGNANO, a town of Etruria, 10 miles S. of Sienna. Lon. 11. 11. Lat. 43. 0. N.

LUCILIUS, Caius, a Roman knight, and a Latin poet, was born at Suessa in Italy, about 240 B. C. He served under Scipio Africanus in the war with the Numantines; and was in great favour with that celebrated general, and with Lælius. He wrote 30 books of satires, in which he lashed several persons of quality very sharply. Some learned men ascribe the invention of satire to him; but M. Dacier insists that Lucilius only gave a better turn to that kind of poetry, and wrote it with more wit and humour than his predecessors Ennius and Pæcivius had done. His fragments have been carefully collected by Francis Donza at Leyden, in 1599, with notes.

LUCINA, a goddess among the Romans, who presided over women in labour. Some take her to be Diana, others Juno, others make her a distinct goddess, daughter of Jupiter and Juno. She is called *Lucina*, because she brought children to light; from the Latin *lux*, light. The Greeks called her *ΙΟΥΝΙΑ*.

LUCINISSA, a town of Gotitia.

LUCINO, a river of Naples.

LUCIO, ST, a town of Etruria, 14 miles ESE. of Lephorn.

LUCIPARA, an island in the E. Indian Ocean. Lon. 105. 14. E. Lat. 4. 10. S.

(1.) LUCITO, a town of Naples, in Molise.

(2.) LUCIRO, ST, a town of Naples, in Calabria.

(1.) LUCIUS, a very common prænomen among the ancient Romans.

(2.) LUCIUS, the 1st Christian King of S. Britain, succeeded his father Coilus I. A. D. 170; and died in 181.

(3.) LUCIUS I. pope and saint, succeeded Cornelius in 252, and was martyred in 253.

(4.) LUCIUS II. pope, a native of Bologna, succeeded Celestin II. in 1144, and died in 1145.

(5.) LUCIUS III. succeeded Alexander III. in 1181, but was twice compelled to fly from Rome by popular insurrections. He is infamous for having, by a constitution made in 1184, for the extirpation of heresy, laid the foundation of the bloody INQUISITION.

(6.) LUCIUS, in ichthyology. See *ESOX*, N° 3.

\* LUCK. *n. f.* [*geluck*, Dutch.] 1. Chance; accident; fortune; hap; casual event.—

He forc'd his neck into a noose,  
To shew his play at fast and loose;

And, when he chanc'd t' escape, mistook  
For art and subtlety, his luck.

—Some such method may be found by human industry or *luck*, by which compound bodies may be resolved into other substances than they are divided into by the fire. *Boyle.* 2. Fortune, good, or bad.—

Glad of such *luck* she is, that lucky maid,  
A long time with this *luck* people find,  
To gather breath in many galleries. *Spenser.*  
Farewell, good *luck* go with thee. *Shak.*

I did demand what news from Shre  
He told me, that rebellion had ill *luck*.

—That part of mankind who have had th  
or the *luck*, to pass, in common opinion  
wisest, have followed a very different scent  
—Such, how highly soever they may  
*luck* to be thought of, are far from beu  
ites indeed. *South.*—

But all, it seems, who had the *luck* t  
Swear they ne'er tasted more delicious

LUCKAU, a town of Lubtia, 49 mi  
Dresden, and 50 SE. of Francfort on the

LUCKENS, a town of Sweden, in Dr

LUCKENWALDE, a town of Saxony,  
deburg. Great part of it was burnt in 1

\* LUCKILY. *adv.* [from *lucky*.] Fort  
by good hap.—It is the pencil thrown  
upon the horse's mouth, to express th  
which the painter with all his skill could  
*Dryden.*—It happens *luckily* for the  
of a new race of kings upon the Briti  
that the first of this royal line has all th  
fications. *Addison.*

\* LUCKINESS. *n. f.* [from *lucky*.] G  
tune; good hap; casual happiness.—  
sometimes lights on truth, is in the rig  
chance; and I know not whether the  
the accident will excuse the irregular  
preceding. *Litch.*

\* LUCKLESS. *adj.* [from *luck*.] Unto  
unhappy.—

Glad of such *luck* the *luckless* lacks,  
A long time with that savage people  
Though *luckless*, yet without disgrace  
What else but his immoderate lust  
Pray'rs made and granted in a *luckless*

LUCKNOW, an ancient and extensiv  
Hindustan, capital of Oude, but mean  
The walls of the houses are chiefly built  
and covered with thatch, though some are  
The streets are crooked, narrow, unev  
dirty; and in the rainy season hardly  
There are, however, a few magnificent  
Sujah Dowlah pulled down the ancient  
and erected others. That of the Nabob  
is seated on a high bank near the Gob  
commands an extensive view of the river a  
try, on the E. Lon. 81. 25. E. Lat. 26. 3

LUCKO, a town of Poland, capital  
hymia, with a citadel and bishop's see; i  
the Ster; 75 miles NE. of Lemburg, and  
of Warsaw. Lon. 25. 30. E. Lat. 51. 13.

\* LUCKY. *adj.* [from *luck*; *geluckig*.]  
Fortunate; happy by chance.

But I more fearful, or more *lucky* wi  
Disinay'd with that deformed, dismal  
Fled fast away. *Fai.*

Perhaps some arm more *lucky* than t  
May reach his heart, and free the wor  
bondage.

LUCO, a town of Naples, in Abruzzo

(1.) LUCON, or LUZON, a town of F  
the dep. of Vendee, and late prov. of Po  
is seated in a morass, on a canal 6 mil



of Fontenay, and 50 S. of Nantes.  
N. Lat. 46. 27. N.

EM, or } the chief of the PHILIPPINES,  
IA, } more generally called *Mamilla*.  
LA.

HEREA, a species of Perca.

ACTIVE. *adj.* [*lucratif*, Fr. *lucratus*,  
ul; profitable; bringing money.—The  
merchandise being the most *lucrative*,  
sury at a good rate. *Bacon*.—The dis-  
tlyie inclined him to pursue the more  
way of living by war, than the more  
ethod of life by agriculture. *Broome*.  
E. *n. f.* [*lucrum*, Latin.] Gain; profit;  
dvantage. In an ill sense.—  
Mlice and *lucre* in them

l this woe here. *Sbat.*  
ll the sacred mysteries of Heav'n  
own vile advantages shall turn,  
nd ambition. *Milton.*

supreme in each hard instance try'd,  
l pain, all anger, and all pride,  
of pow'r, the blast of publick breath,  
of *lucre*, and the dread of death. *Pope.*  
LIA, a celebrated Roman lady, the wife  
of Collatinus, and the cause of the revo-  
me from a monarchy to a republic. Be-  
l by Sextus, the eldest son of Tarquin  
ed herself, A. A. C. 509. The bloody  
ith her dead body exposed to the se-  
he signal of Roman liberty; the ex-  
he Tarquins, and abolition of the re-  
was instantly resolved on, and carried  
See ROME.

LUCIUS CARUS, Titus, a celebrated  
pended of an ancient and noble  
y. He studied at Athens, where he  
e of Epicurus's sect, and acquired  
ation by his learning and eloquence;  
ower of his age fell into a frenzy, occa-  
a philtre given him by his wife, who  
edly fond of him. Lucretius, during  
s of his madness, put Epicurus's doc-  
verse, and composed his six books *De*  
*ra*, which are still extant. It is said  
ed himself in a fit of madness, A. A. C.  
11 years old. The most correct edi-  
ucretius, is that of Simon de Coline.  
al de Polignac has retranslated Lucretius's  
rguments in his excellent Latin poem  
*ti-Lucretius*. His poem *De rerum na-*  
een translated into English by Mr

IFEROUS. *adj.* [*lucrum* and *fero*, Lat.]  
rofitable.—Silver was afterwards sepa-  
te gold, but in a small quantity,  
eriment, the cost and pains consid-  
*luciferous*. *Bapt.*

IFICK. *adj.* [*lucum* and *facio*, Latin.]  
vain.

ENESS, the ancient inhabitants of  
Italy, which lies on the banks of the  
CRINUS.

CO, a lake or rather a bay of Italy,  
s; anciently called *Lucrinus*.

LUS LUCUS, a lake of Campania, be-  
and Putcoli, famous for oysters; (*Ho-*  
*al, Juvenal*;) now a perfect bay since

the earthquake in 1538. Mr Cruttwell says it is  
now a morass, filled with rushes. Dr Oppenheim  
says, it was filled up with earth by the *Monte Nu-*  
*ovo*, or new mountain, in 1538. It was separa-  
ted by a dyke from the Tyrrhene Sea.

\* LUCTATION. *n. f.* [*luctus*, Lat.] Struggle;  
effort; contest.

\* To LUCUBRATE. *v. a.* [*lucubrar*, Lat.] To  
watch; to study by night.

\* LUCUBRATION. *n. f.* [*lucubratio*, Latin.]  
Study by candle light; nocturnal study; any thing  
composed by night.—Thy *lucubrations* have been  
perused by several of our friends. *Taylor.*

\* LUCUBRATORY. *adj.* [*lucubratorius*, from  
*lucubror*, Lat.] Composed by candle light.—You  
must have a dish of coffee, and a solitary candle  
at your side, to write an epistle *lucubratory* to your  
friend. *Pope.*

\* LUCULENT. *adj.* [*luculentus*, Lat.] 1. Clear;  
transparent; lucid. This word is perhaps not u-  
sed in this sense by any other writer.—

And *luculent* along

The purer rivers flow. *Thomson's Winter.*  
2. Certain; evident.—They are against the obsti-  
nate incredulity of the Jews the most *luculent* tes-  
timonies that the Christian religion hath. *Hooker.*

LUCULLUS, Lucius Licinius, a Roman gene-  
ral, celebrated for his eloquence, his victories,  
and his riches. In his youth he made a figure at  
the bar; and being afterwards made quaestor in  
Asia, and praetor in Africa, governed those pro-  
vinces with great moderation and justice. Scarce  
was he known as a military man, when he twice  
beat the fleet of Hamilcar, and gained two great  
victories over him. His happy genius was great-  
ly improved by study; for he employed his leisure  
in reading the best authors on military affairs.  
Being made consul with Aurelius Cotta, during  
the 3d war with Mithridates king of Pontus, he  
was sent against this prince; and this expedition  
was attended with a series of victories, which did  
him less honour than an act of generosity towards  
his colleague; who, willing to take advantage of  
his absence to signalize himself by some great ex-  
ploit, hastened to fight Mithridates; but was de-  
feated and shut up in Calcedonia; where he must  
have perished, if Lucullus, sacrificing his resent-  
ment to his patriotism, had not flown to his as-  
sistance, and disengaged him. All Pontus then  
submitted to Lucullus; who being continued in  
his government of Asia, entered the territories of  
Tigranes, the most powerful king in Asia. That  
prince marched with a formidable army against  
Lucullus: who defeated him with a handful of  
men, and killed great numbers of his forces; took  
Tigranocertes, the capital of his kingdom; and  
was ready to put an end to the war, when the in-  
trigues of a tribune got him deposed, and Pom-  
pey nominated in his room. Lucullus having  
brought home prodigious riches, now gave him-  
self up to excessive luxury; and his table was  
loaded with a profusion till that time unknown.  
He brought from the East a great number of  
books, which he formed into a library, and gave  
admittance to all men of learning, who frequen-  
ted it in great numbers. Toward the end of his  
life, he fell into a kind of madness; and Lucullus,  
his brother, was appointed his guardian. He is

tail

said to have been the first who brought cherries into Europe, having brought the rafts from Pontus.

LUCUMO, the first name of TARQUIN I. changed afterwards to LUCIUS. See ROME.

LUCUS, a wood, or grove, sacred to a deity, so called à *lucendo*, because a great number of lights were usually burning in honour of the god; a practice common with idolaters; as we learn from Scripture: hence Homer's *αγλαυκός*.

LUCY, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, (late duchy of Savoy,) on the Rhone, 16 miles NW. of Chambéry.

LUD, a British king mentioned in old chronicles, and said to have reigned about A. M. 3878. He is reported to have enlarged and built walls about *Troynewant*, or new Troy, where he kept his court, and made it his capital. The name of London is hence derived from *Lud's town*; and *Ludgate*, from his being buried near it: but other derivations are at least as probable. See LONDON, § 2.

LUDAIA, a town and district of JAVA.

LUDE, a town of France, in the department of the Sarthe, and district of Fleche.

LUDENSCHEID, or LUNSCHEDÉ, a town of Westphalia, in the county of Mark, famous for its iron works. It was almost totally burnt in 1723. It lies 28 miles NE. of Cologne.

LUDER, a town of Germany, 6 miles W. of Fulda.

LUDERSBURG, a town of Saxony, in Lawenburg, on the Elbe, 5 miles above Lawenburg.

LUDI, in Roman antiquity, shows and public games made for the entertainment of the people. See GAME, § 3. For the particular games of Greece and Rome, see ATELLANI, ISTHMIÀ, NEMEAN, OLYMPIC, &c.

\* LUDICROUS. *adj.* [*ludicr*, Lat.] Burlesque; merry; sportive; exciting laughter.—Plutarch quotes this instance of Homer's judgment, in closing a *ludicrous* scene with decency and instruction. *Broom*.

\* LUDICROUSLY. *adv.* [from *ludicrous*.] Sportively: in burlesque; in a manner that may excite laughter.

\* LUDICROUSNESS. *n. f.* [from *ludicrous*.] Burlesque; sportiveness; merry cast or manner; ridiculousness.

\* LUDIFICATION. *n. f.* [*ludificor*, Lat.] The act of mocking, or making sport with another. *Dis*.

LUDINO, a hill of maritime Austria, in Friuli.

LUDITZ, a town of Bohemia, in Saats.

LUDIUS, a celebrated painter, who lived in the reign of Augustus, and excelled in grand compositions. He was the first who painted the fronts of houses in the streets of Rome; which he beautified with great variety of landscapes, and other subjects.

(1.) LUDLOW, Edmund, son of Sir Henry Ludlow, was born at Maidenhead, and educated in Trinity college, Oxford. His father opposing K. Charles I.'s interest, he joined the same party, and was present at the battle of Edgehill as a volunteer under the earl of Essex. Upon the death of his father, he was chosen M. P. for Wilts, and obtained the command of a regiment of horse for the defence of that county. He was one of the king's judges; after whose death he was sent by parliament into Ireland, in quality of lieu-

tenant general of the horse; which employment he discharged with diligence and success till the death of the lord deputy Ireton, when he was for some time as general, though without the title; Cromwell, who knew him to be sincerely the interest of the commonwealth, always found out some pretext to hinder the conferring of that character upon him. The last stroke had been given by Ludlow to the Irish rebellion, if the usurpation of Cromwell had not prevented it. Upon him he never acted; and though Cromwell, by his utmost efforts, he remained inflexible. After Cromwell's death, he endeavoured to restore the commonwealth; but Charles II. being recalled, he concealed himself, and escaped into Switzerland, where he settled at Vevay. After the revolution, he came over into England, to be employed in Ireland against King James; but, appearing publicly in London, an address was presented to Sir Edward Seymour to King William III. in proclamation in order to apprehend Colonel Ludlow, attainted for the murder of King Charles I. Upon this he returned to Vevay, where he died in 1693. During his retirement in Switzerland he wrote his *Memoirs*; which were published in 2 vols. 8vo. and 1 vol. folio.

(2.) LUDLOW, a town of Shropshire, at the confuix of the Tame and the Corve, 18 miles from Shrewsbury, and 138 from London. It was the president of the council of the marches, established by Henry VIII. generally kept his courts in it, which the town was much benefited. But the courts were abolished in 1688. Its neighbourhood to Wales makes it a great thoroughfare, and was incorporated by Edward IV. and has the privilege of trying and executing criminals. It is one of the neatest towns in England; and has walls and 7 gates. It is divided into 4 wards, and is governed by 2 bailiffs, 12 aldermen, and 12 common council men, a recorder, town clerk, steward, chamberlain, coroner, &c. From the castle on the top of the hill on which the town stands is a most delightful prospect. In an apartment of the outer gatehouse BUTLER is said to have written the first part of his *Hudibras*. The castle was besieged and taken by K. Stephen. Some of the offices are fallen down, and a part of it turned into a bowling-green; but a part of the royal apartments and the sword of state still left. The battlements are very high and thick, and adorned with towers. It has a near church, where are the coats of arms of many Welch lords, and over the stable-doors are the arms of Elizabeth, the earls of Pembroke, &c. This castle was a palace of the prince of Wales. The Tame has a good bridge, several weirs, and turns many mills. Here is a large parish church, in the choir whereof is an inscription relating to Prince Arthur, elder brother to Henry VIII. who died here, and whose bowels were deposited. In the market-place is a conduit, with a long stone cross on it, and a niche where the image of St Laurence, to whom the church was dedicated. It has an alms-house for 301 people, and two charity schools for 50 boys and 30 girls. It has 4 weekly markets and 5 fairs, has annual horse-races, and the country round exceedingly pleasant, fruitful, and populous.

at part called the *Corvedale*, being the banks of the Corve. Ludlow lends hers to parliament.

**DOLPH**, Job, a very learned writer of century, born at Erfurt in Thuringia, 1624. He travelled much, and was manuscripter; visited libraries, searched after curiosities and antiquities every where, and conversed with learned men of all nations. He raised him to the rank of councillor of after 18 years service, to that of honorary. He died at Francfort, April 8, 1704. He published A History of Ethiopia, in 1685; an Ethiopic Grammar, and many other books.

**DOLPH**, Henry William, nephew of (1.) was born at Erfurt in 1655. He came to England as secretary to M. Lenth, in the court of Copenhagen to that of Denmark, and being recommended to Prince Denmark, was received as his secretary. He enjoyed this office for some years, until incapacitated by a violent disorder; when discharged with a handsome pension: afterwards, he travelled into Muscovy, where he was received by the Czar, and where his talents made the Muscovite priests suppose him to be a conjuror. On his return to London he was cut for the stone; and as soon as he was able to permit, in acknowledgment of the civilities he had received in Muscovy, he published a Grammar of their language, that the nation might learn their own tongue in a regular manner. He then travelled into the East, to inspect the state of the Christian church in that part; the deplorable condition of which he found, after his return, with the aid of the Bishop of Worcester, to print an edition of the Testament in the vulgar Greek, to present to the Greek church. In 1709, when great numbers of Jesuits came over to England, Mr Dolph was appointed by Q. Anne one of the commissioners to manage the charities raised for them; and died early in 1710. His collected works were published in 1712.

**LOGIA**, in botany, a genus of the monandria class, belonging to the tetrandria class, and in the natural method ranking under the order, *Calycanthemae*. The corolla tubular; the calyx quadripartite, superfluous tetragonal, quadrilocular, inferiously 4-lobed.

**DWIGSBURG**, a town of Suabia, in Germany, 5 miles NNE. of Stuttgart.

**DWIGSBURG**, a town of Pomerania.

**DWIGSBURG**, a town of Wirtemberg.

**LOGIUM**. See **LOQUENTINUM**. In medicine, is in general used for a diffusive kind; but in a more particular sense, to contagious and pestilential diseases. The *lues Gallica*, or *venerica*, signifies the venereal disease. See **MEDICINE**, *Index*.

**LOGO**, a town of Spain, in Arragon.

**LOG**, *n. f.* [In Scotland.] The palm of the hand. **LUFF**, *v. n.* [or *loof*.] To keep close. **LUG**, *v. n.* To keep close. **LUG**, *v. n.* To keep close. **LUG**, *v. n.* To keep close.

Contract your swelling sails, and luff to wind. *Dryden.*

(1.) To **LUFF** signifies to put the helm towards the lee side of the ship, in order to make the ship sail nearer the direction of the wind. Hence the pilot's orders to the steersman, *luff round*, or *luff a-lee*, is the excess of this movement, by which it is intended to throw the ship's head up in the wind, in order to tack her, &c. A ship is accordingly said to *spring her luff* when she yields to the effort of the helm, by sailing nearer to the line of the wind than she had done before. See **TO HAUL THE WIND**.

**LUFF-TACKLE**, a name given by sailors to any large tackle that is not destined for a particular place, but may be variously employed as occasion requires. It is generally somewhat larger than the jigger tackle, although smaller than those which serve to hoist the heavier materials into and out of the vessel, which latter are the main and fore tackles, the stay and quarter tackles, &c.

(1.) \* **LUG**, *n. f.* 1. A kind of small fish.—The seed on salt unmerchanted pilchards, tag worms, *lugs*, and little crabs. *Carew*. 2. [In Scotland.] An ear. 3. *Lug*, a land measure, a pole or perch.—

That ample pit, yet far renown'd  
For the large leap which Debon did compel  
Caulin to make, being eight *lugs* of ground.

(2.) **LUG**, a river of Herefordshire, which runs into the Wye, near Hereford.

(3.) **LUG** a river of Wales, which rises in Radnorshire, and runs through Salop and Monmouthshire, into the Severn, near Chepstow.

(1.) \* To **LUG** *v. a.* [*alucan*, Saxon, to pull; *luga*, Swedish, the hollow of the hand.] 1. To hale or drag; to pull with rugged violence.—

Ye gods! why this  
Will *lug* your priests and servants from your  
sides. *Shakesp.*

Thy bear is safe, and out of peril,  
Though *lugg'd* indeed, and wounded very ill.  
*Hudibras.*

When savage bears agree with bears,  
Shall secret ones *lug* saints by th' ears? *Hudib.*  
Like hounds ill coupled; Jowler *lugs* him still  
Through hedges. *Dryden.*

Whose pleasure is to see a strumpet tear  
A cynick's beard, and *lug* him by the hair.  
*Dryden.*

—Either every single animal spirit must convey a whole representation, or else they must divide the image amongst them, and so *lug* off every one his share. *Collier*. 2. To **LUG** *out*. To draw a sword, in burlesque language.—

But buff and beltmen never know these cares;  
They will be heard, or they *lug out* and cut.  
*Dryden.*

(2.) \* To **LUG**, *v. n.* To drag; to come heavily: perhaps only misprinted for *lags*.—

My flagging soul flies under her own pitch,  
Like fowl in air too damp, and *lags* along,  
As if she were a body in a body. *Dryden.*

**LUGA**, a mountain of the Italian republic, in the cis-devant county of Bormio; 10 miles N. of Bormio.

(1.) LUGANO, or LUCANO, one of four cidevant ITALIAN BAILIEWICS, formerly belonging to Switzerland, but united to the Cisalpine republic in Oct. 1797, and included in the dep. of Verbano. It is now included in the Italian republic, dept. of the Lario, and district of Varese. It is 20 miles long and 13 broad; containing 60 square miles; 106 towns and villages, and 53,000 citizens, in 1797.

(2.) LUGANO, a trading town of the Italian republic, late capital of the above bailiwick, seated on the N. side of the lake, (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) and containing about 8000 citizens: 16 miles NW. of Como, and 16 SE. of Bellinzona.

(3.) LUGANO, a lake of the Italian republic, in the centre of the above bailiwick, 25 m. long and from 2 to 4 broad; 190 feet higher than the lakes of Como and Locarno.

LUGDE, a town of Germany, in Paderborn.

(1.) LUGDUNUM, in ancient geography, the capital of the Segufiani in Gallia Celtica, situated at the conflux of the Arar and Rhodanus, on an eminence, as the Celtic term *dun* signifies; built by Manutius Plancus under Augustus, while commanding in that part of Gaul; and whither he led a colony. It is now called LYONS.

(2.) LUGDUNUM BATAVORUM, in ancient geography, a town of the Batavi in Gallia Belgica; now called LEYDEN.

(3.) LUGDUNUM CONVENARUM, in ancient geography, a town of Gallia Narbonensis, in Aquitania, at the foot of the Pyrenees. Now called ST BERTRAND. See CONVENÆ.

LUGEUS LACUS, in ancient geography, a lake of Japydia, in Illyricum, S. of the Save, near the head of the Arfia: Now commonly called the ZIRICHNITZ LAKE, from a small adjoining town. It is furrowed with mountains, from which currents run down into earthy and rocky furrows; where, the water becoming redundant, it regurgitates, returning with extraordinary celerity, and spreading itself, forms a lake, in most places 18 cubits deep. These waters afterwards retire with no less celerity than they came on, not only through the furrows, but through the whole of the bottom, as through a sieve; which when perceived by the inhabitants, they stop up the larger apertures, and thus take great quantities of fish. When the lake is dry, they cut down their harvest on the spot where they sowed, and sow again before the inundation comes on; and grass shoots so quick on it, that it may be cut down in three weeks. (*Lazius; Wernherus.*) See CZIRNITZER ZEE.

\* LUGGAGE. *n. f.* [from *lug*.] Any thing cumbersome and unwieldy that is to be carried away; any thing of more weight than value.—

Come, bring your *luggage* nobly on your back, *Shakesp.*

What do you mean

To doat thus on such *luggage*? *Shak.*

Think not thou to find me slack, or need

Thy politick maxims, or that cumbersome

*Luggage* of war these shewn me. *Milton.*

How durst thou with that fullen *luggage*

O' th'self, old ir'n, and other baggage,

T' oppose thy number against us? *Hudibras.*

—If the *luggage* be prized equally with the jew-

els, none will be cast out till all be st *Glanville.*—

A lively faith will bear aloft the r  
And leave the *luggage* of good worl

—I am gathering up my *luggage*, and  
for my journey. *Swift to Pope.*

LUGGARIS. See LOCARNO, N<sup>o</sup>

LUGGERSHALL, an ancient t  
Wiltshire, 12 miles N. of Salisbury, at  
W. of London. It is now a small ham  
forest of Chute, in a delightful count  
merly was the residence of several kin  
a castle. It is governed by a bailiff cho  
the lord of the manor's court-leet. I  
25th July, and sends two members to  
Lord George Gordon sat as one of  
GORDON, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

LUGII, or LOGIONES. See LYGI

LUGNY, a town of France, in the d  
and Loire, 6 m. NE. of Clunay, and 10 J

(1.) LUGO, a town of the Italian  
the dep. of the Lower Po, and late d  
rara; 15 miles S. of Ferrara, and 1  
Bologna. In July 1796, the inhabitants  
rose against the French, after the whol  
submitted. A bloody battle ensued,  
3 hours: 1000 of the insurgents and  
French were killed; the town was gi  
pillaged, and its name changed to Ce

(2.) LUGO, a town of Maritime Ar  
prov. of the Paduano, 10 miles E. of

(3.) LUGO, a city of Spain, in Galicia  
ho, anciently the metropolis of Spai  
are from 12 to 15 feet thick. It is a  
and contains 3 parishes, 4 convents,  
tals. It is famed for its hot baths; a  
SW. of Oviedo. Lon. 8. 52. W. La

(4.) LUGO, John, a learned Jesuit,  
drid, and educated at Salamanca. I  
fessor of divinity at Valladolid, and a  
Rome, where Urban VIII. made him  
He was the first who introduced the  
into France, in 1650. He died at Ro  
His works, on theology, were print  
in 7 vols. fol.

LUG-SAIL, a square sail, hoisted on  
the mast of a boat or small vessel  
which hangs nearly at right angles w  
These are more particularly used in t  
gas, navigated by the Spaniards in  
ranean.

\* LUGUBRIOUS. *adj.* [*lugubre*,  
Lat.] Mourful; sorrowful.—A demt  
a *lugubrious* look, a whining tone, u  
sum of many mens humiliations. *De*

LUIHE, a river of Saxony, in Lan

LUISINI, or } Francis, a learned V  
LUISINO, } in 1523, who taught  
Latin at Reggio, and was secretary  
Parma. He wrote illustrations of o  
ges in the Clashes; published in Gru  
tium. He died in 1568.

LUISTRE, a town of France, in th  
Aube, 6 miles NE. of Arcis, and 9 J

(1.) LUITPRAND, a celebrated I  
torian of the 10th century, born at Pa  
secretary to Bercngarius, who, in 9-

lor to Constantine VIII; but having affronted him, Otho I. drove Berengarius the throne, and made Luitprand bishop on a. In 968, he was sent ambassador to Nicephorus Phocas. He died in Italy. His works were printed at Antwerp, in 1640, in folio. LUITPRAND, K. of Lombardy. See LOMBARDO.

LUKE, ST, the evangelist, and the disciple of Paul, was originally of Antioch in Syria, a physician. He particularly followed himself to St Paul, and was his faithful companion in his travels and labours. He went first to Troas in Macedonia, about A. D. 51, to preach his Gospel in Achaia about 53; and then to the Acts of the Apostles, which contains a full account of his life. Of all the inspired writers of the New Testament, his works are written in the most elegant Greek. It is believed, that St Luke wrote his Gospel, or in Achaia.

LUKE, ST, THE EVANGELIST'S DAY, a festival in the Christian church, observed on the 18th of October.

LUKE, ST, THE GOSPEL OF, a canonical Gospel in the New Testament. Some think that it is the Gospel of St Paul's Gospel; and that, when the evangelist speaks of his Gospel, he means what St Luke's. Irenaeus says, that St Luke in writing what St Paul preached to the Romans; and Gregory Nazianzen tells us, that St Luke wrote with the assistance of St Paul.

LUKEWARM. *adj.* [The original of this word is *lulub*, in Saxon, is *bleoth*; in Dutch *blig*; in Dutch *lie-wete*; whence proper *luke*, to which warm may be added, to make it, by the first word, the force of the fever, *boiling hot*.] 1. Moderately warm; so warm as to give only a pleasing

heat, whose life away did pass,  
flow'd in his own yet *luke-warm* blood,  
from his wound yet welled fresh alas!

*Fairy Queen.*

you a better feast never behold,  
not of mouth friends: smoke and *luke-warm* water

perfection. *Shak. Timon of Athens.* The body in *luke-warm* water is of great use to temperate hot and sharp humours. Whence is it but from this power that water, which alone distils with *luke-warm* heat, will not distil from salt without a great heat? *Newton's Opticks.* *gentle*; not ardent; not zealous.—If some men be staid, it is an obedience to *luke-warm* languishing, that it merits not the name of *dryden*.—

sober conduct is a mighty virtue  
*warm patriots.* *Addison's Cato.*

LUKEWARMLY. *adv.* [from the adjective.] moderate warmth. 2. With indifference.

LUKEWARMNESS. *n. f.* [from *luke-warm*.] moderate or pleasing heat. 2. Indifference; ardour.—Some kind of zeal counts all moderation *luke-warmness*. *K. Charles.*—The effect of zeal is *luke-warmness*, or coldness; the excess is inordinate heat and spiciness. *Spratt.*—Go dry your chaff and stub-

ble, give fire to the zeal of your faction, and reproach them with *luke-warmness*. *Swift.*

(1, 2.) LULA, a town of Swedish Lapland; seated at the mouth of the river LULA, on the W. side of the gulph of Bothnia, 42 miles SW. of Tornea. Lon. 21. 0. E. Lat. 64. 30. N.

(3.) LULA LAPMARK, a province of Swedish Lapland; bounded by that of Tornea on the N. by the Bothnic Gulph on the E. by Pithia Lapmark on the S. and Norway on the W.

LULAND, an island of Cornwall.

\* To LULL. *v. a.* [*lulu*, Danish; *lallo*, Latin.]

1. To compose to sleep by a pleasing sound.—

A gentle stream, whose murmuring wave did play

Amongst the pumy stones, and made a sound  
To lull him soft asleep, that by it lay. *F. Queen.*

Such sweet compulsion doth in musick lie,  
To lull the daughters of necessity. *Milton.*

These lull'd by nightingales embracing slept. *Milton.*

2. To compose; to quiet; to put to rest.—

To find a foe it shall not be his hap,  
And peace shall lull him in her flow'ry lap. *Milt.*

No more these scenes my meditations aid,  
Or lull to rest the visionary maid. *Pope.*

By the vocal woods and waters lull'd,  
And lost in lonely musing in a dream. *Thomson.*

\* LULLABY. *n. f.* [*lullus*, Latin. *Quem nutricum fuisse deum contendit Turnebus, from lull: it is observable, that the nurses call sleep by, by; lullaby is therefore lull to sleep.*] A song to still babes.

Only that noise heav'n's rolling circles kept,  
Sung lullaby, to bring the world to rest. *Fairf.*

Phœmel, with melody,

Sing in your sweet lullaby. *Shakespeare.*

—Marry, Sir, lullaby to your bounty till I come again. *Shakespeare.*—Drinking is the *lullaby* used by nurses to still crying children. *Locke on Education.*

LULLI, John Baptist, the most celebrated musician that has appeared in France since the revival of learning, was born at Florence. He was taken to France when very young, and he carried the art of playing on the violin to the highest perfection. Lewis XIV. made him superintendant of music. Some time after Perinna having introduced operas into France, and quarrelling with his company, he resigned his privilege to Lulli. Operas were then carried to the utmost perfection by him, and were attended with continual applause. Lulli gave a piece of his own composition, annually till his death, in 1687.

(1.) LULLY, Raymond, a famous writer, surnamed the *Enlightened Doctor*, was born in Majorca in 1225. He applied himself with indefatigable labour to the study of the Arabian philosophy, to chemistry, physic, and divinity; and acquired great reputation by his works. He at length went to preach the gospel in Africa; and was stoned to death in Mauritania, at the age of 80. He is honoured as a martyr at Majorca, whither his body was carried. He wrote many treatises on all the sciences, in which he shows much study and subtilty, but little judgment or solidity. A complete edition of his works has been printed at Mentz.

(2.) LULLY, Raymond, surnamed *Neoplyssa*, a native of Terraca, who from being a Jew turned

Dominican friar. He maintained several opinions that were condemned by Pope Gregory XI.

(1.) \* LUMBAGO, *n. f.* [*lumbi*, Lat. the loins.] *Lumbago* are pains very troublesome about the loins, and small of the back, such as precede ague fits and fevers: they are most commonly from fullness and acrimony, in common with a disposition to yawnings, shudderings, and erratick pains in other parts, and go off with evacuation, generally by sweat, and other critical discharges of fevers. *Quincy.*

(2.) LUMBAGO. See MEDICINE, *Index*.  
LUMBALES, or } the arteries and veins which  
LUMBARES, } spread over the loins.  
LUMBAR NERVES. } See ANATOMY, *Index*.  
LUMBAR REGION. }

(1.) \* LUMBER, *n. f.* [*Uona, geloma*, Saxon, householdstuff; *loumering*, the dirt of an house, Dutch.] Any thing useless or cumbersome; any thing of more bulk than value.—

The very bed was violated  
By the coarse hands of filthy dungeon villains,  
And thrown amongst the common lumber. *Otway.*  
If to some useful art he be not bred,  
He grows mere lumber, and is worse than dead. *Dryden.*

Thy neighbour has remov'd his wretched  
store,  
Few hands will rid the lumber of the poor. *Yew.*  
—If God intended not the precise use of every  
single atom, that atom had been no better than a  
piece of lumber. *Greene.*—

The poring scholasts mark;  
Wits, who, like owls, see only in the dark;  
A lumber-house of books in every head. *Pope.*

(2.) LUMBER, a town of Spain, in Navarre.  
(1.) \* To LUMBER, *v. a.* (from the noun.) To  
heap like useless goods irregularly.—In *Rollo* we  
must have so much stuff *lumbered* together, that  
not the least beauty of tragedy can appear. *Rymer.*

(2.) \* To LUMBER, *v. n.* To move heavily, as  
burthened with his own bulk.—  
First let them run at large,  
Nor lumber o'er the meads, nor cross the wood. *Dryden.*

LUMBERTON, a post town of N. Carolina,  
capital of Robeson county.

LUMBRICALS, 4 muscles of the fingers, and  
as many of the toes. See ANATOMY, § 214, 218.

LUMBRICUS, the WORM, in zoology; a ge-  
nus of insects belonging to the order of vermes in-  
testina. The body is cylindrical, annulated, with  
an elevated belt near the middle, and a vent-hole  
on its side. There are two species of this animal.

1. LUMBRICUS MARINUS, the marine worm, or  
lug, is of a pale red colour, and the body is com-  
posed of a number of annular joints; the skin is  
fibrous, and all the rings or joints are covered  
with little prominences, which render it extreme-  
ly rough to the touch. See *Plate CCIII. Fig. 14.*  
It is an inhabitant of the mud about the sea shores,  
and serves for food to many kinds of fish: surpris-  
ing large ones are to be met with about the Boy-  
jar rocks in Sicily. The fishermen bait their  
hooks and nets with them. For the effects of  
these animals in the human body, and the method  
of expelling them, see MEDICINE, *Index*.

2. LUMBRICUS TERRESTRIS, the ear-  
worm, Mr Barbut observes, differs exte-  
riourly in colour and external appearance in the  
periods of its growth, which has occasi-  
onally little acquainted with the variation  
kind of animals to make four or five diff-  
erent species of them: The general colour is a d  
They live under ground, never quitting  
but after heavy rains or at the approach  
and in the season of their amours. The  
to force them out is, either to water the  
with infusions of bitter plants, or to traun  
The bare motion on the surface of the  
them up, in fear of being surpris'd by the  
dable enemy the mole. The winding pr  
of the worm is facilitated by the inequal  
body, armed with small, stiff, sharp-poi  
tles: when it means to insinuate itself  
earth, there oozes from its body a clam  
by means of which it slides down. It i  
mages the roots of vegetables. Its food  
portion of earth, which it has the facu  
getting. The superfluous is ejected by v  
crement, under a vermicular appearanc  
worms are hermaphrodites, and have th  
generation placed near the neck: their c  
is performed on the ground; nothing be  
usual than to see it full of holes, which  
thought to be made by those kind of v  
ming to the surface in quest of females.  
their coition they would sooner suffer t  
to be crushed than parted.

LUMELLIN, a ci-devant district in t  
of Milan, lying along the Po. Mortari  
lencia are the principal places. It was  
the duke of Savoy in 1707, and confirm  
treaty of Utrecht in 1713; but is now in  
the Italian republic, and dep. of Osona.

LUMELLO, a small town of the  
public, in the above district, formerly tho  
of the kings of Lombardy; 26 m. SW.

LUMIZZANO, a valley of the Ital-  
lie, in the dep. of the Mincio district.  
duchy of Verona, containing 2 villages &  
citizens.

\* LUMINARY, *n. f.* [*luminare*, Lat.  
Fr.] 1. Any body which gives light.—  
The great luminary

Dispenses light from far.  
2. Any thing which gives intelligence.—  
Graham, I know not upon what *lumi-  
nary* pieced in his face, dissuaded him from  
*Wotton*. 3. Any one that instructs in  
The circulation of the blood, and the v  
spring of the air, had been reserved for  
py discovery by two great *luminaries* of  
*Bacon*.

\* LUMINATION, *n. f.* [from *lumen*.  
of light. *Diſt.*

(1.) \* LUMINOUS, *n. f.* [*luminosus*, I  
Shining; emitting light.—Fire burneth  
making it first *luminous*, then black and b  
lastly, broken and incinerate. *Bacon*.—

Its first convex divides  
The *luminous* inferior orbs includ'd,  
From chaos.  
—How came the sun to be *luminous*?

sity of natural causes. *Bentley*. 2. En-  
l.—

th may, industrious of herself, fetch day,  
lling east; and with her part averfe  
the sun's beam, meet night; her other part  
*minous* by his ray. *Milton*.  
ig; bright.—The most *luminous* of the  
k colours are the yellow and orange;  
ct the senses, more strongly than all the  
ther. *Newton*.

UMINOUS EMANATIONS have been ob-  
om human bodies, as well as from those  
The light arising from currying a horse,  
g a cat's back, are well known. Similar  
have been observed on combing a woman's  
rtholin gives an account, which he entitles  
*endens*, of a lady in Italy whose body shined  
ightly touched with a piece of linen. These  
of animal bodies have many properties in  
with those produced from glass; such as  
id, snapping, and not being excited with-  
degree of friction; and are undoubtedly e-  
See ELECTRICITY, *Ind.* and LIGHT, § 12.  
UMINOUSNESS, *n. f.* the property of  
minous.

UMINOUSNESS OF PUTRESCENT SUB-  
S. See LIGHT, § 12.

UMINOUSNESS OF THE SEA. See COOK,  
§ 9; LIGHT, § 13, and SEA.

LO, a town of Corfica, 5 m. E. of Calvi.  
SDEN, Andrew, Esq; a lite eminent  
ian and man of letters, born in Aberdeen,

He was of the family of Cushnie, in A-  
hire, and in the early period of his life,  
into Italy, and resided a considerable time  
; during which he wrote a work, enti-  
*marks on the Antiquities of Rome and its*  
; wherein he describes the venerable an-  
of that ci-devant metropolis of the world,  
al fidelity and elegance. He afterwards  
any years at Paris, where his company  
;ht after by many of the first literati  
He returned to his native country, and  
the house of John McGouan, Esq; the  
id companion of his youth, on the 26th  
of.

MEN, a town of the French republic, in  
of the Dyle, and late proy. of Austrian  
; 5 miles E. of Dieft.  
O, a town of Cuba, 25 miles SW. of Ha-

MP. *n. f.* [*lompe*, Dutch.] 1. A small  
any matter.—The weed *kal* is by the E-  
used first for fuel, and then they crush  
s into *lumps* like a stone, and so sell them  
Venetians. *Bacon*.—Without this various  
of the water, how could *lumps* of sugar  
ast into it be so perfectly dissolved in it,  
*lumps* themselves totally disappear? *Boyle*.

A wretch is pris'ner made;  
e flesh turn off by *lumps*, the rav'nous foe  
rself cut.

*Tate*.  
ry fragrant flow'r, and od'rous green,  
forted well, with *lumps* of amber laid be-  
ween.

*Dryden*.  
nceive thus of the foul's intimate union  
infinite being, and by that union receiving  
leads one into as gross thoughts, as a

country maid would have of an infinite butter-  
print, the several parts whereof being applied to  
her *lump* of butter, left on it the figure or idea  
there was present need of. *Locke*. 2. A shapeless  
mass.—

Hence, heap of wrath, soul indigested *lump*;  
As crook'd in thy manners as thy shape. *Shak*.  
—Why might there not have been, in this great  
mass, huge *lumps* of solid matter, which, without  
any form or order, might be jumbled together?  
*Keil against Burnet*. 3. Mass undistinguished.—  
All men's honours

Lie like one *lump* before him, to be fashion'd  
Into what pinch he please. *Shak*.

—It is rare to find any of these metals pure: but  
copper, iron, gold, silver, lead, and tin, all pro-  
miscuously, in one *lump*. *Woodward*. 4. The whole  
together; the gross.—If my readers will not go  
to the price of buying my papers by retail, they  
may buy them in the *lump*. *Addison*.—Other epi-  
demical vices are rise and predominant only for a  
season, and must not be ascribed to human nature  
in the *lump*. *Bentley*.—The principal gentlemen of  
several counties are stigmatized in a *lump*, under  
the notion of being papists. *Swift*.

\* To LUMP. *v. u.* To take in the gross, with-  
out attention to particulars.—The expences ought  
to be *lumped* together. *Asliffe*.—The Spaniards u-  
pon this reckoned, that if Spain of itself weighed  
so well, they could not fail of success when the  
several parts of the monarchy were *lumped* in the  
same scale. *Addison*.

(1.) \* LUMPFISH. *n. f.* [*lump* and *fish*.] A sort  
of fish.

(2.) LUMPFISH. See CYCLOPTERUS, N° 2.

(1.) LUMPHANAN, [Gael. *i. e.* a bare little  
valley.] a parish of Aberdeenshire, 9 miles long  
from S. to N. and 6 broad; mostly surrounded by  
hills. The air is dry; the soil fertile, and the crops  
of oats, barley, peate, potatoes, &c. early. The  
population, in 1792, was 621; decrease 61: num-  
ber of horses 153; sheep 1907; and black cattle,  
902. The roads are good.

(2.) LUMPHANAN, a town in the above parish,  
8 miles N. of Kincardine, and 24 from Aberdeen.

\* LUMPING. *adj.* [from *lump*.] Large; heavy;  
great. A low word.—Nick, thou shalt have a  
*lumping* pennyworth. *Arbutnot*.

\* LUMPISH. *adj.* [from *lump*.] Heavy; gross;  
dull; unactive; bulky.—Out of the earth was  
formed the flesh of man, and therefore heavy and  
*lumpish*. *Raleigh*.—

Sylvia is *lumpish*, heavy, melancholy. *Shak*.

We are too dull and *lumpish*. *Suckling*.  
—Little terrestrial particles swimming in it after  
the grossest were sunk down, which, by their hea-  
viness and *lumpish* figure, made their way more  
speedily. *Burnet*.—

How dull and how insensible a beast  
Is man, who yet wou'd lord it o'er the rest?  
Philosophers and poets vainly strove

In every age the *lumpish* mass to move. *Dryden*.

\* LUMPISHLY. *adv.* [from *lumpish*.] With  
heaviness: with stupidity.

\* LUMPISHNESS. *n. f.* [from the adjective.]  
Stupid heaviness.

\* LUMPY. *adj.* [from *lump*.] Full of lumps;  
full of compact masses.—One of the best spades to  
dig

dig hard lumpy clays but too small for light garden mould. *Mortimer.*

(1.) LUN, a town of China, in Hon-Quang.

(2.) LUN, or LUNE, a river of Germany, in Bremen, which runs into the Weser.

(3.) LUNA, in astronomy, the MOON. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*, under MOON.

(4.) LUNA, in alchemy, signifies silver; from the supposed influence of the moon upon that metal.

(5.) LUNA, in ancient geography, a forest of Germany, near the HERCYNIA; below which were the Boemi: it was therefore in Moravia, near the springs of the Marus, now March; which runs into the Danube over against Carnutum.

(6.) LUNA, or LUNNA, a town of Gallia Celtica, now called CLUGNY, in Burgundy.

(7.) LUNA, a town and port of Liguria, at the mouth of the Macra. The town was but small, but the port large and beautiful, according to Strabo. Its ruins are called *Luna Distrutta*. It was famous for its quarries of white marble, thence called *Lunense*; and for its large cheeses, each weighing 1000 lb. It lies 2 miles S. of Sarzana.

(8.) LUNA, a town of Lithuania, in Troki.

(9.) LUNA, a town of Spain, in Arragon.

(10.) LUNA, ALVARO, or ALVARES DE, the favourite of John II. king of Castile, was natural son of Don Alvaro de Luna, lord of Canete, in Arragon, by a woman infamous for unbounded lust. He was born in 1388, was introduced to court in 1408, and made a gentleman of the bed-chamber to king John, with whom he grew into high favour. In 1427 he was obliged to retire; the courtiers complaining that a man of no military skill, or virtue, should be advanced to the highest authority; and they could not bear that, by the assistance of a few upstart men, whom he had raised and fixed to his interest, he should reign as absolutely as if he were king. Accordingly Alvaro was banished from court 18 months; but this was the greatest affliction imaginable to the king; who showed every mark of distress upon his removal, and spoke of nothing but Alvaro. He was therefore recalled; and, being invested with his usual authority, revenged himself upon his enemies, by persuading the king to banish them. Of the 45 years he spent at court, he enjoyed for 30 of them so entire an ascendancy over the king, that nothing could be done without his orders. In short, he wanted nothing but the name of king; he had all the places in the kingdom at his disposal; he was master of the treasury, and by bounties had so gained the hearts of the subjects, that the king, though his eyes were now opened, and his affections sufficiently turned against him, durst not complain. At last however, he was seized, and imprisoned. During his confinement, he made several attempts to speak to the king in person; but not being able to effect this, he sent a letter to the king, in which after setting forth his services to the king, and acknowledging his sins against God, he adds—“I can no longer bear that prodigious mass of riches, which it was wrong of me to have heaped together. I should willingly resign them, but that every thing I have is in your power; and I am denied the opportunity of showing mankind,

that you have raised a person to the greatness, who can *contemn wealth* as we cure it, and give it back to him from I received it. But I desire you in the terms, that, as I was obliged by the lo the treasury to raise 10,000 or 12,000 £ *methods I ought not to have taken*, you w them to the persons from whom they sorted. If you will not grant this on a the services I have done, yet I think it to be done from the reason of the thing letter, however, produced no effect in hi for he was tried, and condemned to lose.

(11.) LUNA CORNEA. See CHEMISTRY

(12.) \* LUNACY. *n. f.* [from *luna*, the A kind of madness influenced by the moon; in general.—Love is merely madness, and as well a dark house and a whip as mad and the reason why they are not so punished is, that the *lunacy* is so ordinary, whippers are in love too. *Shak.*—

Your kindred thun your house,

As beaten hence by your strange *lunacy*—There is difference of *lunacy*; I had mad with him, that, when he had nothing all the ships that came into the haven with you, who, when you have so much in, think you have nothing. *Suckling.*

(13.) LUNACY. See LUNATIC, and M *Index.*

(14.) LUNACY, in law. See IDIOTCY, I man in his sound memory commits a offence, and before arraignment for it he mad, he ought not to be arraigned for it he is not able to plead to it with that ad caution that he ought. And if, after pleaded, the prisoner becomes mad, he be tried; for how can he make his defence after he be tried and found guilty, he senses before judgment, judgment that pronounced; and if, after judgment, he of nonsane memory, execution shall be for, peradventure, lays the humanity of lish law, had the prisoner been of sound he mighty have alledged something in judgment or execution. Indeed, in the reign of Henry VIII. a statute was made enacted, that if a person, being *compos* should commit high treason, and after madness, he might be tried in his able should suffer death, as if he were of per memory. But this savage and inhuman law repealed by the statute 1 & 2 Ph. & M. c. as is observed by Sir Edward Coke, “tition of an offender is for example, *ut paucos, metus ad omnes perveniat*: but so when a madman is executed; but the miserable spectacle, both against law, and treme inhumanity and cruelty, and can ample to others.” But if there be an whether the party be *compos* or not, this tried by a jury. And if he be so found a ocy, or absolute insanity, excuses from t and of course from the punishment, of a nal action committed under such deprivation of the senses: but if a lunatic has lucid intelligence, he shall answer for what



intervals, as if he had no deficiency. Yet, as if of absolute madmen, as they are not ble for their actions, they should not be ed the liberty of acting unles under protol; and, in particular, they ought not uffered to go loose, to the terror of the ubjects. It was the doctrine of our aw, that persons deprived of their reason e confined till they recovered their senses, : waiting for the forms of a commission or ecial authority from the crown: and now ragrant acts, a method is chalked out for ning, chaining, and sending them to their homes. The matrimonial contract like-annot take place in a state of idiocy. It merly adjudged, that the issue of an idiot itimate, and his marriage valid. A strange nation! since consent is absolutely requi- nanimony, and neither idiots nor lunatics able of consenting to any thing. And re the civil law judged much more sensibly, made such deprivations of reason a pre- npediment, though not a cause of divorce happened after marriage. And modern ons have adhered to the sense of the civil : determining that the marriage of a luna- being in a lucid interval, was absolutely But as it might be difficult to prove the ate of the party's mind at the actual cele- of the nuptials, upon this account (con- with some private family reasons), the 15 Geo. II. c. 30. has provided, that the e of lunatics and persons under phrenzies ed lunatics under a commission, or com- to the care of trustees under any act of ient) before they are declared of found y the lord chancellor, or the majority of urses, shall be totally void. Idiots and of nonseue memory, as well as infants rsons under duresis, are not totally disabled to convey or purchase, but *sub modo* only. ir conveyances and purchases are voidable, t actually void. The king, indeed, on be- an idiot, may avoid his grants or other But it hath been said, that a *non compos* ; though he be afterwards brought to a mind, shall not be permitted to allege his insanity in order to avoid such grant: for man shall be allowed to stupify himself, or his own disability. The progress of this is somewhat curious. In the time of Ed- . *non compos* was a sufficient plea to avoid s own bond: and there is a writ in the re- or the alien: r himself to recover lands alien- him during his insanity; *dam fuit non com- utitur, ut dicit*, &c. But under Edward cruple began to arise, whether a man should ritted to *blemish* himself, by pleading his insanity: and, afterwards, a defendant in having pleaded a release by the plaintiff ve last continuance, to which the plaintiff *fore tunc*, as the manner then was) that : out of his mind when he gave it, the adjourned the assize; doubting, whether plaintiff was sane both then at the com- ment of the suit, he should be permitted id an intermediate deprivation of reason; : question was asked how he came to re-

member to release, if out of his senses when he gave it? Under Henry VI. this way of reasoning (that a man shall not be allowed to disable himself, by pleading his own incapacity, because he cannot know what he did under such a situation) was seriously adopted by the judges in argument; upon a question, whether the heir was barred of his right of entry by the forfeiture of his insane ancestor? And from these loose authorities, which Fitzherbert does not scruple to reject as being contrary to reason, the maxim that a man shall not stultify himself, hath been handed down as settled law: though later opinions, feeling the inconvenience of the rule, have in many points endeavoured to restrain it. And, clearly, the next heir, or other person interested, may, after the death of the idiot or *non compos*, take advantage of his incapacity and avoid the grant. And so too, if he purchases under this disability, and does not afterwards upon recovering his senses agree to the purchase, his heir may either waive or accept the estate at his option. In like manner, an infant may waive such purchase or conveyance, when he comes to full age; or, if he does not then actually agree to it, his heirs may waive it after him. Persons also, who purchase or convey under duresis, may affirm or avoid such transaction, whenever the duresis is ceased. For all these are under the protection of the law; which will not suffer them to be imposed upon through the imbecility of their present condition; so that their acts are only binding, in case they be afterwards agreed to when such imbecility ceases. Yet the guardians or committees of a lunatic, by the statute 11 Geo. III. c. 20. are empowered to renew in his right, under the directions of the court of chancery, any lease for lives or years, and apply the profits of such renewal for the benefit of such lunatic, his heirs, or executors.

(1.) LUNÆ MORS, in ancient geography, a promontory of Lusitania, now called the *Rock of Lisbon*. Lon. 10. W. Lat. 38. 50. N.

(2.) LUNÆ MORS, a mountain of Ethiopia, from which the Nile was supposed to take its rise.

LUNÆ PORTUS, a very extensive port, or rather a bay of Liguria, between Portus Veneris and Portus Fricis, 20 miles in compass; now called, *the Gulf of SPEZIA*, on the E. coast of the Ligurian republic.

(1.) LUNAN, or INVERLUNAN, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, two miles long and one broad; containing 973 acres of arable ground, and 438 acres barren. The soil is fertile, and produces excellent crops of all kinds. The population, in 1791, was 291; increase 83 since 1755: number of horses 62, and black cattle 250.

(2.) LUNAN, a village in the above parish.

(3.) LUNAN, a river of Angus-shire, which rises from a morass near Forfar, and runs into Lunan bay at Lunan.

(4.) LUNAN, a fort of China, in Yun-nan.

(5.) LUNAN BAY, a bay of the German Ocean, on the coast of the above parish, (N<sup>o</sup> 1.) 4 miles S. by W. of Montrose.

LUNAN-HEAD, a village of Angus-shire, near Forfar, at the source of the Lunan.

(1.) \* LUNAR, LUNARY, (adj. lunaire, Fr. luna- rics,

*ries*, Lat.] 1. Relating to the moon.—They that have resolved that these years were but *lunary* years, *viz.* of a month, or Egyptian years, are easily confuted. *Raleigh*.—

Then we upon our globe's last verge shall go,  
And view the ocean leaning on the sky;

From thence our rolling neighbours we shall know,

And on the *lunar* world securely pry. *Dryden*.

2. Being under the dominion of the moon.—They have denominated some herbs solar and some *lunar*, and such like toys put into great words. *Bacon*.—The figure of its seed much resembles a horseshoe, which *Baptista Porta* hath thought too low a signification, and raised the same unto a *lunary* representation. *Brown*.

(2.) LUNAR CAUSTIC. See CHEMISTRY, *Ind.*

(3.) LUNAR DIAL. See DIALLING.

(4.) LUNAR IRIS, or LUNAR RAINBOW, a rainbow formed by the reflection of the rays of light from the moon. This phenomenon is seldom observed. On Friday the 30th Oct. 1803, at 7 P. M. a beautiful Lunar Iris was seen at Edinburgh, in the western part of the horizon. The moon being near the full, and her altitude not very great, the red, yellow, and violet colours were easily distinguished, and formed nearly a complete semicircle. It continued half an hour, and presented a most beautiful spectacle to many who had never before seen this phenomenon. Aristotle is said to have been the first who observed a lunar iris, and says they are never seen but at full moon. They never appear unless the moon be near the opposition. See RAINBOW.

(5.) LUNAR MONTH. See CHRONOLOGY, *Index*; and MONTH.

(6.) LUNAR NITRE. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

(7.) A LUNAR YEAR consists of 354 days, or 12 synodical months. See YEAR.

LUNARE OS, in anatomy, the 2d bone in the first row of the carpus; so named, because one of its sides is in a form of a crescent.

LUNARIA, SATIN FLOWER, HONESTY, or MOONWORT, in botany, a genus of the filiculosa order, belonging to the tetradynamia class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 39th order, *Siliquose*. The silicula is entire, elliptical, compressed plane, and pedicelled with the valves equal to the partition, parallel and plane; the leaves of the calyx are alternately fritted at the base. This plant is famous in many places for its medicinal virtues, though it is not received in the shops. The people in the N. of England dry the whole plant in the oven, and give as much as will lie on a shilling for a dose twice a-day in hemorrhages of all kinds, particularly in the too abundant flowing of the menfes, and with great success. The Welch, among whom it is common, Dr Needham informs us, make an ointment of it, which they use externally, and say it cures dysenteries.

LUNARIUM, in ancient geography, a promontory of Hispania Citra, between Blanda and Bætilo. Commonly called *the Cap. of Palafug*, or *of Tefit*, in Catalonia, on the Mediterranean; 15 miles W. of Palafugel.

(1.) LUNARY, *adj.* See LUNAR.

(2.) \* LUNARY. *n. f.* [*lunaria*, Lat.] Moonwort.—

Then sprinkles she the juice of rue  
With nine drops of the midnight dew  
From *lunary* distilling.

(1.) LUNAS, a town of France, in Herault, 6 miles W. of Lodeve.

(2.) LUNAS, a town of Sweden, in P

\* LUNATED. *adj.* [from *luna*.] For half moon.

(1.) \* LUNATICK. *adj.* [*lunaticus*, L] having the imagination influenced by t

Bedlam beggars, from low farms, Sometimes with *lunatick* bans, some prayers,

Enforce their charity.

(2.) \* LUNATICK. *n. f.* A madman.

The *lunatick*, the lover, and the p  
Are of imagination all compact.

—I dare ensure any man well in his w  
in the thousand that he shall not die  
in Bedlam within these 7 years; beca  
bove one in about 1500 have done so.

See the blind beggar dance, the c

The sot a hero, *lunatick* a king.

—The residue of the yearly profits f  
out in purchasing a piece of land, and  
thereon an hospital for the receptio  
and *lunaticks*. *Swift*.

(3.) A LUNATICK is properly one  
lucid intervals; sometimes enjoying  
and sometimes not; and that supposed  
on the influence of the moon.

(4.) LUNATICK, in law. Under the g  
of *non compos mentis* (which Sir Ed

says is the most legal name) are com

only lunatics, but persons under frenz

lose their intellects by disease; those

deaf, dumb, and blind, not being

such, in short, as are judged by the co

cery incapable of conducting their c

To these also, as well as ideots, the k

dian, but to a very different purpos

law always imagines, that these acci

fortunes may be removed; and the

constitutes the crown a trustee for t

nate persons, to protect their property

count to them for all profits received,

cover, or after their decease to their

tives. And therefore it is declared

Edw. II. c. 10. that the king shall pro

custody and sustentation of lunatics, a

their lands, and the profits of them

use when they come to their right min

king shall take nothing to his own use

parties die in such estate, the residue

tributed for their souls by the advice

dinary, and of course (by the subsequ

ments of the law of administrations) f

to their executors or administrators.

attack of lunacy, or other occasion

when there may be hopes of a speedy

of reason, it is usual to confine the u

jects in private custody, under the d

their nearest friends and relations; and

ture, to prevent all abuses incident t

ivate custody, hath interposed its auth

c. 49. for regulating private mad-houses. the disorder is grown permanent, and instances of the party will bear such ad- vantage, it is thought proper to apply legal authority to warrant a lasting con-

The method of proving a person non- sane is very similar to that of proving him an- nexed to the lord chancellor, to whom, by special commission from the king, the custody of idiots is intrusted, upon petition or infor- mation a commission in the nature of the *in- quirendo*, to inquire into the party's mind; and if he be found *non compos*, he commits the care of his person, with a allowance for his maintenance, to some one who is then called his *committee*. How- ever, in sinister practices, the next heir is permitted to be of this committee of the cause it is his interest that the party

But, it hath been said, there lies not objection against his next of kin, prob- ably not his heir; for it is his interest to preserve the lunatic's life, in order to increase the estate by savings, which he or his family afterwards is entitled to enjoy. The heir is made the manager or committee of the estate being clearly his interest by good ma- to keep it in condition: accountable, to the court of chancery, and to the party himself, if he recovers; or otherwise, to the administrators. See LUNACY, § 3.

LUNATION. *n. f.* [*lunation*, Fr. *luna*, the revolution of the moon.—If the *lu-* observed for a cycle of 19 years, which is of the moon, the same observations are repeated for succeeding cycles for ever. *Time*.

LUNATION is the period between one new moon and another; called also *synodical month*. See ASTRONOMY, *Index*; CYCLE and EPACT.

LUNCARTY, or LONCARTY, an ancient vil- lage of five miles N. from Perth. The fields here, which are now covered with linen cloths, and where the most extensive works are carried on, of any in Great Britain, were formerly the scene of one of the most important events in Scottish History. In the reign of Kenneth III. of Scotland, obtain- ing a decisive victory over the Danes in 970, re- sulting in the name of "The Uncarty." In the neighbourhood, and to the out-fields of Luncarty, stand the remains of an old village, known for many ages as the *Dunmark*; and here, the writer of the *Annals*, has been present at the opening of sepulchres, where the Danish slain were interred. The arms of pikes, spears, swords, and other instruments have been from time to time discovered, in a wonderful state of preservation, which have lain under ground, upwards of 1000 years. The Bleachfield of Luncarty is an object of attention to every inquiring traveller; only famous for extent, (1000 acres be- ing employed in bleaching) but also for the superior manner in which goods are manufactured and finished.

LUNEA. *n. f.* [*Minibus* derives it from the *HEON*.] *lou'ua*, Spanish; *Skin-ner* from the *L. PART. II.*

*kleinken*, a small piece, Teutonic. It probably comes from *clutch* or *clunch*.] As much food as one's hand can hold.—

When hungry thou stood'st staring, like an oat,  
I slic'd the *luncheon* from the barley loaf. *Gay*.

(1.) LUND, a town of Sweden, in the province of West Gothland, on Lake Wenner; 36 miles NNE. of Uddevalla.

(2.) LUND, or } a considerable town of Sweden,  
LUNDEN, } capital of the prov. of Schonen,  
with an archbishop's see and an university. It was ceded to the Swedes by the Danes in 1658. Lon. 13. 25. E. Lat. 55. 40. N.

(1.) LUNDIE, a parish of Scotland in Angus- shire, to which that of FOULIS in Perthshire is united. See FOULIS, N° 1. It is of a circular form, and contains 3258 acres, of which 2000 are arable. The air is moist, the soil fertile; the crops barley, oats, flax, and potatoes. The population, in 1790, was 334; that of both parishes 648; increase 62 since 1755. The number of horses in Lundie was 140, and of black cattle 364.

(2.) LUNDIE, [*Cacl. Linn-Di*, i. e. *the water of God*,] a lake in the above parish, to which it gives name. It is 7½ acres broad, and 60 feet deep.

LUNDY, an island of England, 50 miles off the NW. coast of Devonshire, 5 miles long and 2 broad, but so encompassed with inaccessible rocks, that it has but one entrance, so narrow that two men can scarce go abreast. It is reckoned in the hundred of Branton. It had anciently a fort and a chapel. The soil on the S. is pretty good, but barren on the N. where it has a high pyramidal rock called the *Constable*. Horses, kine, hogs, goats, sheep, and rabbits, abound in it; but the chief commodity is fowls, and their eggs are very thick on the ground at the season of breeding. No venomous creature will live in this island. In the reign of Henry VIII. one William Morisco, who had conspired to murder him at Woodstock, fled to this island, which he fortified, turned pirate, and did much damage to this coast, but was at last taken, with 16 of his gang, and put to death.

(1.) \* LUNE. *n. f.* [*luna*, Latin.] 1. Any thing in the shape of an half moon.—

A troop of Janizaries strew'd the field,  
Fall'n in just ranks or wedges, *lunes*, or squares;  
Firm as they stood. *Watts*.

2. Fits of lunacy or frenzy; mad freaks. The French say of a man fantastical or whimsical, *Il a des lunes*. *Hannet*.—

Be strew them  
These dangerous, unsafe *lunes*, i' th' king;  
He must be told on't, and he shall: the office  
Becomes a woman best. *Shakespeare*.

3. A lish: as, the *lune* of a hawk.

(2.) LUNE, LUNULA, in geometry, a plane in form of a crescent, terminated by the circumference of two circles, that intersect each other within.

(3.) LUNE, a town 2 miles N. of Lunenburg.

(4, 5.) LUNE, 2 rivers of England; 1. in West- morland, running into the Tees; 2. in Yorksh. running into the Irish sea below Lancaster.

(1, 2.) LUNEBURG. See LUNENBURG.

(1.) LUNEBURG, a town of Prussia, in Natagen. LUNEGIANA, a province of Etruria, compre- hending several fields belonging to Austria, united, in July 1801, to the Ligurian republic.

LUNEL, a town of France, in the dep. of Gard, 16 m. E. of Montpellier. Lon. 4. 19. E. Lat. 43. 40. N.

LUNEN, 2 towns of Germany, in Westphalia: 1. in the county of Mark 20 miles SW. of Munster: 2. in that of Verden, 3 miles NNW. of Rottenburg.

(1.) LUNENBURG, or LUNEBURG ZELL, a principality of Germany, bounded on the S. by that of Calenberg, the diocese of Hildesheim, and the duchy of Brunswic; N. by the duchy of Lauenburg and the Elbe, which separates it from the territory of Hamburg; on the E. by the duchy of Brunswic, the Alte Mark, and the duchy of Mecklenburg; and W. by the duchies of Bremen and Verden, the county of Hoya, and the principality of Calenberg. The soil, except along the Elbe, Aller, and Jetz, is either sand, heath, or moor. In the fertile parts are produced wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, buck wheat, flax, hemp, hops, pulse, oak, beech, firs, pines, birch, and alder; together with black cattle and horses. The heaths abound with bees and honey, and a small species of sheep, whose wool is long and coarse. Lauenburg is well furnished with salt springs and limestone, and the forest of Gorde with venison. The Elbe, Ilmenau, and Aller, being navigable, are very advantageous to the country, independent of their fish. The general diets of this principality are convened twice a year, and held at Zell. They consist of the deputies of the nobility and citizens of Lunenburg, Uelzen, and Zell, who have the nomination of the members of the high colleges, and other officers, jointly with the sovereign. There are near 200 Lutheran churches in the country, under two general and 15 subordinate superintendants, several grammar-schools, two Calvinist churches at Zell, and an academy of exercises at Lunenburg. The manufactures are chiefly linen cloth, cottons, ribbons, stockings, hats, starch, bleached wax, refined sugar, gold and silver wares, all kinds of wooden wares, barges, boats, and ships. The exports of these to Hamburg, Lubec, and Altena, are considerable. The neighbourhood of these cities, with the facility of conveying goods and merchandize to them and other places, either by land or water, is very advantageous to this country. This principality gives the king of Great Britain a seat and voice in the college of the princes of the empire, and of the circle of lower Saxony. Its quota in the Matriculi is 20 horses and 120 foot, or 720 florins in lieu of them. The revenues of the principality arise chiefly from the demesnes, tolls on the Elbe, contributions, duties on cattle, beer, wine, brandy, and other commodities, which all together must be very considerable, some bailiwicks alone yielding upwards of 20,200 rix-dollars.

(2.) LUNENBURG, the capital of the above principality, (N° 1.) a pretty large town of Germany, on the Elmen, or the Ilmenau, which is navigable for 13 miles from this town to the Elbe. Its inhabitants are reckoned at between 8000 and 9000. Formerly this town was one of the Hanse, and an imperial city. Some derive its name from *Lina*, the ancient name of the Ilmenau; others from *Luna*, the moon, an image of which is said to have been worshipped by the inhabitants in the times of Paganism. Here were anciently 4 con-

vents, viz. of Minims, Premonstratensians, Benedictines, and Minorites. Out of the revenues of the Benedictine monastery was founded an academy for the martial exercises, where young gentlemen of Lunenburg are maintained gratis, are taught French, fencing, riding, and dancing; but foreigners are educated at a certain fixed price. A Latin school was also founded, consisting of 4 classes, and well endowed out of these revenues. The management of these, and the estates appropriated to their maintenance, belongs to the landschaft director, and the aufreiter, who are both chosen from among the Lunenburg nobles. The first came in place of the Popish abbot, as such is head of the states of the principality and president of the provincial college. He bears the title of *excellency*. The chief public edifices are 3 parish churches, the ducal palace, 3 hospitals, the town-house, the salt magazine, the anatomical theatre, the academy; the convent church of St Michael, in which lie interred the ancient dukes; and in which is the famous table 8 feet long, and 4 broad, plated over with chagold, with a rim embellished with precious stones of an immense value, which was taken from the Saracens by the emperor Otho I. and presented to this church; but in 1698, a gang of thieves stripped it of 200 rubies and emeralds, together with a large diamond, and most of the gold; that but a small part of it now remains. Here are some very rich salt springs. Formerly upwards of 120,000 tons of salt have been annually brought here, and sold; but since the commencement of the 18th century, the salt trade hath declined. The 5th part of the salt made here belongs to the king, but is farmed. It is said to excel all the other salt made in Germany. This town is well fortified; and has a garrison, which is lodged in the racks. In the neighbourhood is a good lime-quarry; and along the Ilmenau are ware-houses in which are lodged goods brought from all parts of Germany, to be forwarded by the Elmenau to Hamburg, or by the Asche to Lubec, whence other goods are brought back the same way. This town drives a considerable traffic in wax, horn-wool, flax, linen, salt, lime, and beer. Lunenburg lies 27 miles from Hamburg, 43 from Hanover, 65 from Brunswic, 76 from Bremen, and 68 from

(3.) LUNENBURG, a county of Virginia, 30 miles long and 20 broad; containing 4,627 citizens, and 4332 slaves in 1795. It is bounded on the N. by Nottaway, SE. by Brunswic; SW. by Mecklenburg, and W. by Charlotte counties.

(4.) LUNENBURG, a town in the above county, 50 miles SW. of Richmond.

(5.) LUNENBURG, a township of Massachusetts in Worcester county, 45 miles NW. of Boston, containing 1,100 citizens, and 14,000 acres of land.

(6.) LUNENBURG, a township of New York, Albany county on the W. side of Hudson's river opposite to Hudson, 30 miles S. of Albany.

(7.) LUNENBURG, a county of Nova Scotia, Mahone bay. Its chief towns are Lunenburg (N° 8.) Chester, and New Dublin.

(8.) LUNENBURG, a town in the above county inhabited chiefly by Germans; 35 miles SW. of Halifax.

NENBURG, a township of Vermont, in  
nty, on the Connecticut.

NSE MARMOR, in the natural history of  
its, a species of white marble now call-  
*u marble*, and distinguished from the sta-  
d by its greater hardness and less splen-  
is, and always was much esteemed in  
and ornamental works. It is of a very  
fine texture, of a very pure white, and  
re transparent than any other of the  
bles. It is still found in great quantities  
See LUNA, N<sup>o</sup> 5.

RA, a mountain of Italy, between Naples  
oli; abounding with sulphur, alum and  
aters.

UNETTE. *n. f.* [French.] A small half  
unette is a covered place made before  
ne, which consists of two faces that form  
wards, and is commonly raised in fos-  
water, to serve instead of a fausse braye,  
pute the enemy's passage: it is six toises  
of which the parapet is four. *Trevoux*.  
LUNETTE, in fortification, differs from  
N only in its situation. See FORTIFI-  
PART I; *Sec.* V. and VII.

NETTE, in the manege, is a half horse-  
sch a shoe as wants the sponge, *i. e.* that  
ie branch which runs towards the quar-  
: foot.

NETTE is also the name of two small  
felt, made round and hollow, to clap  
eyes of a vicious horse that is apt to  
strike with his fore feet, or that will not  
rider to mount him.

VILLE, a large and populous town of  
the dep. of the Meurthe, and ci-devant  
Lorrain, seated in a plain between the  
nd Vezouze, which unite below it. It  
ient castle now converted into barracks,  
dukes of Lorrain kept their court; as  
wards K. Stanislaus, who founded a mi-  
lemy, an hospital and a large library in  
is town the convention was held, and  
peace concluded, between the emperor  
and the French republic, in Oct. 1801.  
miles SE. of Nanci, and 62 W. of Stras-  
n. 6 35. E. Lat. 48. 36. N.

, a town of China, in Quang-si.

GED. *adj.* [from *lungs*.] Having lungs;  
: nature of lungs; drawing in and emit-  
:s the lungs in any animal body.—

mith prepares his hammer for the stroke,  
he *lung'd* bellows hissing fire provoke.

*Dryden*.

:-GROWN. *adj.* [*lung* and *grown*.] The  
etimes grow fast to the skin that lines  
within; whence such as are detained  
accident are *lung-grown*. *Harvey on Conf.*  
RO, a town of Naples, in Calabria.

UNGS. *n. f.* [*Jungen*, Sax. *lang*, Dutch.]  
; the part by which breath is inspired  
:d.—

ould I, but my *lungs* are wasted so,  
length of speech is utterly denied me.

*Shakesp.*

bellows of his *lungs* begin to swell,  
the good receive, woe bad expel. *Dryd.*

Had I a hundred mouths, a hundred tongues,  
And throats of brass inspir'd with iron *lungs*;  
I could not half those horrid crimes repeat,  
Nor half the punishments those crimes have met.

*Dryden*.

(2.) LUNGS. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

(3.) LUNGS, INSTRUMENT FOR INFLATING  
THE, an invention of M. Gorey physician to the  
military hospital at New Brifack, which appears  
to be extremely well adapted to the purpose, and  
may be used with the greatest facility. It is thus  
described in the *Journal de Medecine*, for June 1789.  
This instrument, which the inventor styles *apodo-  
pic*, that is, *restorer of respiration*, consists of a  
double pair of bellows, BCLM, *fig. 1*, Pl. CCIV.  
the two different parts of which have no commu-  
nication with each other. In the lower side BM,  
is an aperture A for a valve constructed on the  
principles of those of Mr Nairne's air-pump. It  
consists of a rim of copper, closed at one end by  
a plate of the same metal, in which plate are seven  
small holes placed at equal distances. This plate  
is covered with a piece of silk coated with elastic  
gum, in which are six transverse incisions of 2 or  
3 lines in length. Each incision is so made as to  
be situated between two of the holes, and at an  
equal distance from each: see D, *fig. 2*. The silk  
must be made very secure, by a thread passing se-  
veral times round the rim. A stream of air, ap-  
plied to that side of the plate which is opposite  
the silk, will pass through the holes, and, lifting  
up the silk, escape through the incisions. On the  
contrary, a stream of air applied to the other side  
will press the silk upon the plate, and thus close  
the holes, so that it will be impossible for it to  
pass through them. This valve opens internally,  
so as to admit the air from without. At B is ano-  
ther valve, on the same construction, but opening  
in a contrary direction, thus permitting the air to  
escape out of the lower part into the tube EF,  
but preventing its entrance. At C is another  
valve, opening internally to admit the air from  
the tube EF; and at D there is a 4th opening ex-  
ternally, to discharge the air from the upper part.  
The flexible tube EF, screwed on at the end CB,  
being introduced into one of the nostrils, whilst  
the mouth and the other nostril are closed by an  
assistant, if we separate the two handles LM,  
which were close together at the introduction of  
the tube, it is evident, that the air in the lungs  
will rush into the upper part through the valve C,  
whilst the external air will fill the lower part  
through the valve A: the two handles being again  
brought into contact, the atmospheric air will be  
forced into the lungs through the valve B, and at  
the same time the air in the upper part will be  
discharged at the valve D. Thus by the alterna-  
te play of the double bellows, the lungs will  
be alternately filled and emptied as in respira-  
tion. In using the instrument care should be  
taken not to be too violent; as the more per-  
fectly the natural motion of respiration is imita-  
ted the better. To prevent any substances from  
without injuring the valves A, D, *fig. 1*, the  
rim is made with a screw, B, *fig. 3*, in order to  
receive a cap A A, *fig. 3*, full of small holes. This  
screw has also another use. If oxygenous gas be  
preferred,

preferred, a bladder filled with it, *fig. 4.* may, by means of the screw *A.* be fastened to the valve *A.*, *fig. 1.*; and, to prevent waste, as this air may serve several times, a flexible tube may be screwed on the valve *D.*, *fig. 1.* communicating with the bladder by means of the opening *d.*, *fig. 4.*: thus it may be employed as often as the operator thinks proper. There is a handle *K.* to the partition in the middle, in order that, if it be at any time necessary to use either of the divisions alone, the other may be confined from acting. *c.*, *b.*, *fig. 5.* represent the two valves to be applied at the end of the instrument *C.*, *B.*, *fig. 1.*; and *fig. 6.* is a section of the end *C.*, *B.* showing the valves in their proper places. The capacity of the instrument should be proportioned to the quantity of air received into the lungs in inspiration, which Dr Goodwyn has ascertained to be twelve cubical inches or somewhat more. Each division of the instrument, therefore, should be capable of containing that quantity.

LUNGSARP, a town of Sweden, in W. Gothia.

(1.) \* LUNG-WORT. *n. f.* [*pulmonaria*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

(2.) LUNG-WORT, in botany. See PULMONARIA.

(3.) LUNG-WORT, COW'S. See VERBASCUM.

(4.) LUNG-WORT, GOLDEN. See HIERACIUM.

(1.) \* LUNISOLAR. *adj.* [*lunisolaire*, French; *luna* and *solaris*, Latin.] Compounded of the revolution of the sun and moon.

(2.) A LUNISOLAR YEAR, in chronology, is the space of 532 common years; found by multiplying the cycle of the sun by that of the moon. See CHRONOLOGY, *Index.*

LUNKA, a town of Samogitia.

\* LUNT. *n. f.* [*lont*, Dutch.] The matchcord with which guns are fired.

LUNTZ, a town of Germany, in Austria.

LUNTA. See LUNE, § 2.

LUNZENAU, a town of Upper Saxony.

LUPANNA, an inhabited island, in the Adriatic, with a good harbour near Ragusa.

LUPARA, a town of Naples, in Molise.

LUPERCAL, in Roman antiquity, a place under mount Palatine, where the LUPERCALIA were performed.

LUPERCALIA, feasts instituted in ancient Rome, in honour of Pan. They were celebrated on the 15th of the kalends of March, or 15th of February, or 3d day after the ides. They are supposed to have been established by Evander. On the morning of this festival the LUPERCI, or priests of Pan, ran naked through the streets of Rome, striking the married women they met on the hands and belly with a thong or strap of goat's leather, which was held an omen promising them fecundity and happy deliveries. See LUPERCI. This feast was abolished in the time of Augustus; but afterwards restored, and continued in the time of the emp. Anastasius.—Baronius says it was abolished by pope Anastasius in 496.

LUPERCI, the priests of the god PAN. See LUPERCALIA. They were the most ancient order of priests in Rome; they were divided into two colleges, called *Fabii*, and *Quintilii*. To these *Cæsar* added a 3d called *Julii*.

(1.) \* LUPINE. *n. f.* [*lupin*, Fr. *lupinus*, Lat.]

A kind of pulse.—It has a papilionaceous out of whose empalement rises the pale towards turns into a pod filled with e or spherical seeds: the leaves grow like upon the foot stalks. *Miller.*—When would undertake any excellent piece, diet himself with peas and lupines, that tion might be quick and refined. *Peack*

Where stalks of lupines gre

Th' ensuing season, in return, may b

The bearded product of the golden

(2.) LUPINE, } in botany, a genus of

LUPINUS, } eria order, belonging

delphia class of plants; and in the natu

ranking under the 32d order *Papiliono*

calyx is bilabiated; there are 5 obli

roundish antheræ; the legumen is

There are 7 species, six of them are ha

ceous flowery annuals, and one peren

with upright stalks from 1 to 3, or 4

namented with digitate leaves, and ten

long whorled spikes of papilionaceo

white, blue, yellow, and rose-colour

are all easily raised from seed; and suc

open borders, where they make a fi

The seeds of the white lupine, have a

taste accompanied with a disagreeable

are said to be anthelmintic, both inter

and applied externally. *Caspar Hoffm*

against their external use, and tells w

have sometimes occasioned death;

*Pauli* says, that he saw a boy of 8 or

age, after taking a dram of them, in

zed with exquisite pains in the abdom

culty of respiration, and almost total

and that he was relieved by a glyster

sugar, which brought away a vast

worms. But *M. Geoffroy* justly obser

ther these symptoms were owing to

or that the seeds, if they have any no

ty, lose it with their bitterness in boili

were used among the Greeks as food,

mended by *Galen* as very wholesome.

LUPO GLAVO, a town of Istria.

LUPOW, a town of Saxony, in Po

LUPPURG, a town of Bavaria, in Po

LUPULUS, in botany. See HUMU

(1.) LUPUS, the WOLF. See CAN

xi; 1—5.

(2.) LUPUS, in astronomy. See A

§ 548.

(3.) LUPUS MARINUS. See ANAR

(1.) \* LURCH. *n. f.* [This word is

*Skinner* from *Pouerbe*, a game of drau

used, as he says, among the Dutch

derives from *arca*; so that, I suppose

are lost are left in *lorche*, in the *lu*

whence the use of the word.]

(2.) \* LURCH, TO LEAVE IN THE

in a forlorn or deserted condition; to

out help. A ludicrous phrase.—

Will you now to peace incline,

And languish in the main design,

And leave us in the lurch.

But though thou'rt of a different

I will not leave thee in the lurch.

—Have a care how you keep company

n they find themselves upon a pinch, will r friends in *the lurch*. *L'Esfrange*.—It is ke advantage of their simplicity and cred *leave them in the lurch* at last. *Arbutts* about town had a design to cast us out hionable world, and *leave us in the lurch*, of their late refinements. *Addison*.

To LURCH. *v. a.* [*lurcor*, Latin.] 1. To to swallow greedily.—Too far off from ics may hinder businets; or too near ill provisions, and maketh every thing on. 2. To defeat; to disappoint. A word only in burlesque. [from the game *lurch*.]

He waxed like a sea;

the brunt of seventeen battles since,  
bt all swords o' th' garland. *Shak.*  
ver designed the use of them to be cony putting such an emptiness in them, as quickly fail and *lurch* the expectation. This is a sure rule, that will never deceive he sincere communicant. *South*. 3. To ily; to filch; to pilfer.

To LURCH. *v. n.* [*loeren*, Dutch; or ra- the noun.] 1. To shift; to play tricks. If, sometimes leaving goodness on my , and hiding mine honour in my necessi- ain to shuffle, to hedge, and to *lurch*. . To lie in wait: we now rather use *lurk*. the one was upon wing, the other stood upon the ground, and flew away with the *strange*.

LURCHER. *n. f.* [from *lurch*.] 1. One hes to steal, or to betray or entrap.— t from his play the scudding *lurcher* flies; ev'ry honest tongue Stop thief refunds.

*Gay*.

that watches for his game.—I cannot those worthies more naturally than un- hadow of a pack of dogs, made up of *lurchers*, and setters. *Taiter*. 3. [*Lurco*, glutton; a gormandizer. Not used.

LURCHER, (§ 1, *def.* 2.) a kind of hunting h like a mongrel grey hound, with prick- a shagged coat, and generally of a yel- hite colour: they are very swift runners, they get between the burrows and the ey seldom miss; and this is their common in hunting: yet they use other subtilties, imbler does, some of them bringing in ce, and those are the best. A lurcher will n a hare at stretch. See *CANIS*, § 1, vi. 6—28.

JRCY, a town of France, in the dep. of r; 7½ miles NE. of Donjon.

JRCY LEVY, a town of France, in the allier; 9 miles NE. of Cerilly, and 9 N. Bourbon L'Archambaud.

JANE, *n. f.* an idle lazy fellow. For the f this word, See *ENGLAND*, § 17; and

LURE. *n. f.* [*Uurre*, French; *lore*, Dut.] thing held out to call a hawk.—

faulcon now is sharp and passing empty, ill she stoop, she must not be full gorg'd, en the never looks upon her *lure*. *Shak.* *lure* she cast abroad, thinking that this l belief would draw, at one time or other, ds to strike upon it. *Bacon*.—A great ef-

tate to an heir, is a *lure* to all the birds of prey round about to seize on him. *Bacon*.—

This stiffneck'd pride, nor art nor force can bend,

Nor high-flown hopes to reason's *lure* descend.

*Denham*.

A falc'ner's nry is, when Emma hawks;

With her of tarsels, and of *lures* he talks. *Prior*.

2. Any enticement; any thing that promises ad- vantage.—

How many have with smiles made small ac- count

Of beauty; and her *lures*, easily scorn'd? *Milt.*

*Luxury*

Held out his *lure* to her superiour eye. *Madden*.

(2.) A LURE, in falconry, (§ 1, *def.* 1.) a device of leather, in the shape of two wings, stuck with feathers, and baited with a piece of flesh, to call back a hawk when at a considerable distance.

(3.) LURE, a town of France, in the dept. of Upper Saone, and late prov. of Franche Comté, 30 miles NE. of Besançon. Lon. 6. 33. E. Lat. 47. 38. N.

(1.) \* To LURE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To attract; to entice; to draw.—

As when a flock

Of ravenous fowl, though many a league re- mote,

Against the day of battle, to a field

Where armies lie encamp'd, come flying, *lur'd*

With scent of living carcasses. *Milton*.

—A man spent one day in labour, that he might pass the other at ease, and *lured* on by the plea- sure of this bait, when he was in vigour he would provide for as many days as he could. *Temple*.

Should you *lure*

From this dark haunt, beneath the tangled roots

Of pendant trees, the monarch of the brook,

Behoves you then to play your finest art.

*Thomson*.

Volumes on shelter'd stalls expanded lie,

And various science *lures* the learned eye. *Gay*.

(2.) \* To LURE. *v. n.* To call hawks.—Stand- ing near one that *lured* loud and shrill, I had sud- denly an offence, as if somewhat had broken, or been dislocated in my ear, and immediately after a loud ringing. *Bacon*.

LURGAN, a flourishing town of Ireland, in Ar- magh, 67 miles from Dublin; agreeably situated in the midst of a much improved country. The inhabitants are extensively engaged in the linen manufacture. It stands on a gentle eminence, a- bout two miles from LOUGH NEAGH, of which it commands a most beautiful and extensive prospect. It has 3 fairs. Lon. 6. 31. W. Lat. 54. 35. N.

LURGAN-BAY, a town of Ireland, in the county of Leitrim and prov. of Conhaught.

LURGAN-GREEN, a post town of Ireland, in Louth, 37 miles from Dublin; a mile from a seat of lord Charlemont. It has 3 fairs.

LURI, a town of Corsica, 12 m. W. of Bastia.

\* LURID. *adj.* [*luridus*, Latin.] Gloomy; dismal. Not used.—

Slow settling o'er the *lurid* grove,

Unusual darkness broods.

*Thomson*.

LURIDÆ, the 28th order in Linnæus's Frag- ments of a natural method. See *BOTANY*.

LURIN,

**LURIN**, a town of Peru, in Lima.  
 \* **To LURK**. *v. n.* [probably *lurch* and *lurk* are the same word. See **LURCH**.] To lie in wait; to lie hidden; to lie close.—

Far in land a savage nation dwelt,  
 That never tasted grace, nor goodness felt;  
 But like wild beasts, *lurking* in loathsome den,  
 And flying fast as roebuck through the fen,  
 All naked. *F. Queen.*

—Milbrook *lurketh* between two hills, a village of some eighty houses, and borrowing his name from a mill and little brook running there through. *Carew.*—

They lay not to live by their worke,  
 But theevishly loiter and *lurke*. *Tusser.*  
 —Let us *lurke* privily for the innocent. *Prov. i. 11.*

The wife, when danger or dishonour *lurks*,  
 Safest, and seemliest by her husband stays. *Milton.*

The *lurking* gold upon the fatal tree. *Dryd.*  
 The king unseen

*Lurk'd* in her hand. *Pope.*  
 —I do not *lurk* in the dark. *Swift.*

\* **LURKER**. *n. f.* [from *lurk*.] A thief that lies in wait.

\* **LURKINGPLACE**. *n. f.* [*Lurk* and *place*.] Hiding place; secret place.—Take knowledge of all the *lurking-places* where he hideth himself. *1 Sam. xxiii. 23.*

**LURS**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Alps; 16½ miles SW. of Digne.

**LURY**, a town of France, in the dep. of Cher; 13½ miles W. of Bourges.

**LUS**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Pyrenees; 3 miles SW. of Bareges.

**LUSATIA**, (Sclavonic, *i. e.* a marshy, or woody country.) a marquisate of Germany, in Upper Saxony; bounded on the E. by Silesia, W. by Misnia, S. by Bohemia, and N. by Brandenburg. It is divided into **UPPER** and **LOWER LUSATIA**. The heathy and mountainous tracts are generally barren; but the lower lands are tolerably fertile, producing wheat, rye, oats, barley, pease, lentils, beans, millet, flax, hops, tobacco, wine, and manna. Of several of these articles, however, considerable quantities are imported. There are also quarries of stone, medicinal springs, bastard diamonds, agates, jaspers, earthen ware, alum, ironstone, vitriolic and copper water, cattle, fish, venison, &c. The rivers Spree, the Black Elster, and the Pulznitz, have their sources in Lusatia, which is also watered by the Neisse and Queis. The ancient inhabitants were the Saxons, who were succeeded by the Vandals, and these by the Sober-Wends, a Sclavonian people. The present inhabitants, the descendants of the Wends, have an odd dress; and the language is so inarticulate and guttural, that it hath been said, it might be pronounced without lips, teeth, or tongue; but the towns are almost wholly peopled by Germans. Both marquisates were formerly subject either to the kings of Bohemia, the archdukes of Austria, or electors of Brandenburg; but, in 1636, they were ceded to the elector of Saxony, in payment of 72 tons of gold, which he spent in assisting Ferdinand II. against the Bohemians. Christianity was first planted in Lusatia in the 7th century;

but it was several centuries before fully established. In the 11th century minsters were erected, but at the reform numbers embraced Lutheranism, that is the predominant religion; which it continues, though there are several Roman churches. The **HERNHUTTERS** possess influence here. There are considerable manufactures of woollen and linen stuffs in the Lusatia, especially the Upper. In Budissen and its vicinity enormous quantities of stockings, spat-caps, and gloves are made. The linens also flourish here, chiefly in Upper where all sorts of linens are made, printed, and dyed. There are also considerable manufactures of hats, leather, paper, gunpowder, bleached wax, &c. The exportation of commodities, particularly linens and silks, is not so great as formerly, but is still considerable and more than overbalances their imports of wool, yarn, silk, wines, spices, corn, fruits, garden stuffs, and hops. Disputes many years standing have subsisted between Saxon artificers and linen-manufacturers on this side, and the diet towns on the other; the former unjustly seeking to exclude the latter from their share in the linen trade. The natives are not so industrious as the Saxons, but they are better than they did the Bohemian. They have had much esteem and encouragement since the reformation. Progress has been brought to great perfection in this court.

1. **LUSATIA, LOWER**, is moorish and has 4 principal towns which send deputies to the land diets; 13 country towns, 10 towns, and several good schools, with stipends for the students. The land consists of prelates, lords, and knights, and the natives of the state towns, Luckau, Guben, and Kalau. Two diets are yearly held, called *voluntary diets*; but when superior causes the states to be summoned, positions to be laid before them, by deputies for that purpose, such convened a *great land diet*. The marquisate is divided into 5 circles, each of which holds a circle town in its circle town. The chief officers, either by the superior or the states, are: president of the upper office, the land captain, the land judge. The principal tribunal is the land court, and the upper office, to which appeals from the inferior judicatories. There are also officers for the several circles. Spirits are managed by a consistory, erected in 1687. The taxes are paid into the chest of the diet and consigned to the general chest, of which the upper tax-receiver is superintendant; without an annual account which is examined and passed by the deputies.

2. **LUSATIA, UPPER**, till the middle of the 15th century, was called the *Mark*, *i. e.* a marquisate, or land of *Budissin and Gortitz*. Lower only *Lusatia*. The air of Upper is hilly or mountainous, is better than that of the Lower. Both abound in wood, and turf for fuel. In Upper there are six towns which send deputies to



smaller country towns, and 4 market towns. The schools, particularly at Gorkitz, and Zittau, are distinguished for learning. The states consist, 1st, of state lords; 2dly, knights; 3dly, of the gentry and commander which are comprehended the barons, nobles and burgeses, possessors of fief-estates; and, 4thly, of the representatives of the six towns. Without the consent of the states no taxes can be imposed, nor any public importance transacted. The diets are ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary meet every year, and the extraordinary when summoned by the sovereign upon particular emergency or ecclesiastical matters, the dean of the diocese and his consistory exercise all kinds of jurisdiction; and, among the Protestant jurisdictions belongs either to the superior office, or the patrons. The revenues consist of the subsidies granted by the states, which are reckoned capitation and estate tax, and partly of the beer tax, excise, tolls, &c. Prussia is divided into two great provinces, Pomerania and Gorkitz, which are subdivided into lesser circles.

**LUSCIOUS.** *adj.* [from *delicious*, say some; or more probably derives it from *luxuri*, properly pronounced: 1. Sweet, so as to be sweet, in a great degree.—The food which is now is as *luscious* as loches, shall shortly be as *coloquintida*. *Sbak.*—The *luscious* liquor on the ground. *Milt.* keep their *luscious* native taste. *Dryd.* ; ; delightful.—He will bait him in with his proposal of some gainful purchase.

**LUSCIOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *luscious*.] Sweet degree.

**LUSCIOUSNESS.** *n. f.* [from *luscious*.] Impurity.—Can there be a greater impurity in God, than to embitter sensualities which intoxicate us? *Decay of Piety.* feed worms by reason of the *lusciousness* of the grain. *Mortimer.*

**LUSERN.** *n. f.* [*lupus cervarius*, Latin.]

**LUSERN.** See **FELIS**, N° XI—XIX.

**LUSERN.** *H. a. f.* Of a dark, deep, full colour, so pale and faint; from *lousche*. *Hanmer.* *lusb* and *lusty* the grass looks? how green? *Sbak.*

**LUSERN,** a town of Maritime Austria, in

**LUSERN,** a town of France, in the department of Poitou, on the 2 m. SW. of Poitiers, and 200 of Paris.

**LUSITANI,** the people of **LUSITANIA**.

**LUSITANIA,** in ancient geography, one of the parts of Hispania, extending to the N. of Spain, quite to the sea of Cantabria, at least to the *Montorium Celticum*. But Augustus made it his boundary on the S. and the N. thus constituting only a part of the province of **PORTUGAL**. *Diodorus*; *Stephanus*.

**LUSITANIA,** a river of Upper Saxony.

**LUSK.** *adj.* [*luscbe*, French.] Idle; lazy; *Di&*.

(2.) **LUSK**, a town of Ireland, in Dublin.

\* **LUSKISH.** *adj.* [from *lusb*.] Somewhat inclinable to laziness or indolence.

**LUSKISHLY.** *adv.* [from *lusb*.] Lazily; indolently.

\* **LUSKISHNESS.** *adv.* [from *lusb*.] A disposition to laziness.

**LUSO**, a river of Italy, in Urbino.

\* **LUSORIOUS.** *adj.* [*luforius*, Lat.] Used in play; sportive.—Things more open to exception, yet unjustly condemned as unlawful; such as the *luforious* lots, dancing, and stage-plays. *Sanderfon.*

\* **LUSORY.** *adj.* [*luforius*, Lat.] Used in play.—There might be many entertaining contrivances for the instruction of children in geometry and geography, in such alluring and *lufory* methods, which would make a most agreeable and lasting impression. *Watts.*

(1.) **LUSS**, a parish of Scotland, in Dunbartonshire, 8½ miles long from S. to N. and from 2½ to 5 broad. The climate is temperate, and though moist, remarkably healthful, and instances of longevity are numerous. The surface is mountainous; of 17,402 Scots acres, only 1538 are arable; 880 are under natural wood, chiefly oak. The soil is light and gravelly. There are 4 rivers running into Loch-Lomond, which lies partly in this parish. See **LOMOND**, N° III. There is a great variety of wild quadrupeds, birds, fish, and reptiles in the parish; of which a particular enumeration is inserted in Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* Vol. xvii. p. 247—253. The population, in 1793, was 917; decrease 61, since 1755: the number of horses was 140; sheep 7500; black cattle 534; and swine 8; valued in all at 7595l. 12s. 6d. The annual produce, in oats, barley, potatoes, flax, hay, &c. is valued at 6649l. 8s. 11d.: the annual cutting of the oak woods, at 7,600l. There are two excellent slate quarries, from which about 440,000 slates are annually exported.

(2.) **LUSS**, a river in the above parish.

(3.) **LUSS**, a village in the above parish, in which a cotton manufacture was erected in 1790. It is seated on the W. side of Loch-Lomond, 10 miles NW. of Dunbarton.

(1.) **LUSSAC**, a town of France, in the department of Gironde, 6 miles ENE. of Libourne.

(2.) **LUSSAC LES CHATEAUX**, a town of France, in the department of Vienne, 18 miles SE. of Poitiers.

(3.) **LUSSAC LES EGLISES**, a town of France, in the department of Upper Vienne, 33 miles N. of Limoges.

(1.) **LUSSAN**, a town of France, in the department of Gard, 9 miles N. of Uzès.

(2.) **LUSSAN**, Margaret DE, a French romance-writer, born in 1682. The celebrated Huet gave her an education, which she improved greatly. Her works are numerous. The best is *Anecdotes de la cour de Philippe Auguste*, 6 vols. 12mo. She died in 1758.

**LUSSINGE**, a town of the French republic, in the department of Mont Blanc, 3 m. NW. of Bonne.

\* **LUST.** *n. f.* [*lust*, Saxon; *lust*, Dutch.] 1. Carnal desire.—

This our court, infected with their manners, Shews like a riotous inn; Epicurism and *lust*

Make

Make it more like a tavern or a brothel,  
 Than a grac'd palace. *Shak.*  
 Lust, and rank thoughts. *Shak.*  
 —They are immoderately given to the *lust* of the  
 flesh. *Abbot.*—When a temptation of *lust* assaults  
 thee, do not resist it by disputing with it, but fly  
 from it, that is, think not at all of it. *Taylor.*—  
 2. Any violent or irregular desire.—My *lust* shall  
 be satisfied upon them: *Exodus*, xv. 9.—The un-  
 godly, for his own *lust*, doth persecute the poor.  
*Psal.*—Virtue was represent'd by Hercules: he is  
 drawn offering to strike a dragon; by the dragon  
 are meant all manner of *lusts*. *Peacbam.*—

All weigh our acts, and whate'er seems un-  
 just,  
 Impute not to necessity, but *lust*. *Ind. Emp.*  
 The *lust* of lucre. *Pope.*  
 3. Vigour; active power; lustiness. Not used.—  
 Trees will grow greater, and bear better fruit, if  
 you put salt, or lees of wine, or blood, to the  
 root: the cause may be, the increasing of the *lust*  
 or spirit of the root. *Bacon.*

\* To LUST, *v. n.* 1. To desire carnally.—  
 Inconstant man, that loveth all he saw,  
 And *lusted* after all that he did love. *Roscommon.*  
 2. To desire vehemently.—Giving sometimes pro-  
 digally; not because he loved them to whom he  
 gave, but because he *lusted* to give. *Sidney.*—The  
 Christian captives in chains could no way move  
 themselves, if they should unadvisedly *lust* after li-  
 berty. *Knolles.* 3. To sit; to like. Out of use.  
 —Their eyes swell with fatness; and they do  
 even what they *lust*. *Psal.* lxxiii. 7. 4. To have  
 irregular dispositions, or desires.—The mixed  
 multitude fell a *lusting*. *Numb.*—The spirit that  
 dwelleth in us *lusteth* to envy. *Jam.* iv. 5.

LUSTENFELDEN, a town of Austria.  
 \* LUSTFUL. *adj.* [*lust* and *full*.] 1. Libidi-  
 nous; having irregular desires.—  
 Turning wrathful fire to *lustful* heat. *F. O.*  
 —There is no man that is intemperate or *lustful*,  
 but besides the guilt likewise stains and obscures  
 his soul. *Tillotson.* 2. Provoking to sensuality;  
 inciting to lust.—

Thence his *lustful* orgies he enlarg'd. *Milt.*  
 \* LUSTFULLY. *adv.* [from *lustful*.] With sen-  
 sual concupiscence.

\* LUSTFULNESS. *n. f.* [from *lustful*.] Libidi-  
 nousness.

\* LUSTIHED. } *n. f.* [from *lustly*.] Vigour;  
 \* LUSTIHOOD. } sprightliness; corporal abili-  
 tility. Not now in use.—

A goodly personage,  
 Now in his freshest flower of *lusthood*. *Spenser.*  
 Reason and respect

Make livers pale, and *lusthood* dejected. *Shak.*  
 I'll prove it on his body;

Despight his nice fence, and his active practice,  
 His May of youth and bloom of *lusthood*. *Shak.*

\* LUSTILY. *adv.* [from *lustily*.] Stoutly; with  
 vigour; with mettle.—

I determin'd to fight *lustily* for him. *Hen. V.*  
 Let's tunc, and to it *lustily* a while. *Shak.*

—Barbarossa took upon him that painful jour-  
 ney, which the old king *lustily* performed. *Knolles.*  
 He has fought *lustily* for her. *Southerne.*

\* LUSTINESS. *n. f.* [from *lustly*.] Stoutness;  
 sturdiness; strength; vigour of body.—

He with good speed began to take  
 Over the fields in his frank *lustiness*.  
 —Where there is so great a prevent  
 ordinary time, it is the *lustiness* of the  
*con.*—Cappadocian slaves were famous  
*lustiness*. *Dryden.*

\* LUSTLESS. *adj.* [from *lustly*.] Not  
 weak. *Spenser.*

\* LUSTRAL. *adj.* [*lustral*, French  
 Lat.] Used in purification.—

His better parts by *lustral* waves re-

(2.) LUSTRAL DAY, [*Dies Lustricus*],  
 quity, the day on which the lustrations  
 formed for a child, and its name given  
 the 9th day from the birth of a boy, and  
 from that of a girl. Over this festival the  
 NUNDINA was supposed to preside; the  
 wives, nurses, and domestics, handed  
 backwards and forwards, around a fire  
 on the altars of the gods, after which they  
 led it with water; hence this feast had  
 of *amphidromia*. The old women mix  
 and dust with the water. The whole en-  
 a sumptuous entertainment. The pare-  
 ved gifts from their friends on this occa-  
 the child was a male, the door was deck'd  
 an olive garland; if a female, with work-  
 ing the work about which women were  
 ployed.

(3.) LUSTRAL WATER was used by  
 cients in their ceremonies to sprinkle  
 the people. From them the Romanists  
 rowed the *holy water* used in their churches.

(1.) \* LUSTRATION. *n. f.* [*lustratio*  
*lustratio*, Latin.] Purification by water  
 Job's religious care,

His sons assemblies, whose united pra-  
 Like sweet perfumes, from golden censers  
 He with divine *lustrations* sanctifies.

—That spirits are corporeal seems a cog-  
 native unto himself, and such he should  
 hour to overthrow; yet thereby he  
 the doctrine of *lustrations*, amulets, and  
*Brown.*—

Should Io's priest command  
 A pilgrimage to Meroc's burning tar  
 Through deserts they would seek  
 springs,

And holy water for *lustration* bring.  
 —What were all their *lustrations* but  
 solemn purifyings, to render both them  
 their sacrifices acceptable to their gods

By ardent pray'r, and clear *lustration*  
 Purge the contagious spots of human

(2.) LUSTRATIONS, in antiquity  
 monies by which the ancients purifie  
 ties, fields, annies, or people, defiled by  
 or impurity. Some of these were pub-  
 private. There were 3 methods of  
 lustration, *viz.* by fire and sulphur, by  
 by air; which last was done by tan-  
 tating the air round the thing to be  
 Some of these could not be dispensed  
 lustrations of houses in time of a plague  
 the death of any person: others were

afure: The public lustrations at Rome were celebrated every 5th year; when they led a victim into every the place to be purified, and in the same time burnt a great quantity of perfumes. Their country lustrations, which they called *AMBARVALIA*, were celebrated before they began to reap their corn: in those of the armies, which they called *ARMILUSTRIA*, some chosen soldiers, armed with laurel, led the victims, which were a sheep, a bull, a horse, and a pig, thrice round the arrayed in battle array, in the field of Mars, whom the victims were afterwards sacrificed, uttering many imprecations upon the enemies of the Romans. The lustrations of their fields were performed thus; the shepherd sprinkled them with pure water and thrice surrounded his sheepfold with a composition of saffron, laurel, and brimstone set on fire; and afterwards sacrificed to the goddesses Pales an offering of milk, wine, a cake, and millet. Private houses were lustrated with water, a fumigation of laurel, olive-tree, saffron, and such like; and the victim commonly was a pig. Lustrations made for particular persons were commonly called *expiations*, or the victims *piacula*. See *AMBARVALIA*.—In their lustratory sacrifices, the Athenians sacrificed a man, one for the men of their city, and another for the women. Divers of these expiations were austere: some fasted; others abstained from sensual pleasures; and some, as the priests of Delos, castrated themselves. The postures of the penitents were different according to the different sacrifices: The priests changed their habits according to the ceremony to be performed; white, purple and black, were the most usual colours. They cast into the river, or at least, out of the city, the animals or other things that had been used for a lustration or sacrifice of atonement; and thought themselves threatened with some great misfortune when by chance they trod upon them. Part of these ceremonies were abolished by Constantine, and his successors: the rest subsisted till the Gothic kings were masters of Rome; after whom they expired, excepting what the priests thought proper to adopt into the church. For the lustration, or expiation, of the ancient times, see *EXPIATION*, § 4, 5.

(1.) \* *LUSTRE*. *n. s.* [*lustre*, French.] 1. Brightness; splendour; glitter.—You have one eye left that sees some mischief on him.—Lest it see more mischief; out, vile jelly! where is thy lustre now? *Shak.*

To her foul time doth perfection give,  
And adds fresh lustre to her beauty still. *Davies.*  
The scorching sun was mounted high,  
In all its lustre, to the noonday sky. *Ovid.*

Pass but some fleeting years, and these poor eyes,

Where now without a boast some lustre lies;  
No longer shall their little honours keep,  
But only be of use to read or weep. *Prior.*  
The sun's mild lustre warms the vital air. *Pope.*  
A sconece with lights.—

Ridotta sips, and dances till she see  
The doubling lustres dance as quick as she. *Pope.*  
Eminence; renown.—His ancestors continued  
at 400 years, rather without obscurity than  
any great lustre. *Wotton.*—Used to wonder how  
OL. XIII. PART II.

a man of birth and spirit could endure to be wholly insignificant and obscure in a foreign country, when he might live with lustre in his own. *Swift.*  
4. [From *lustre*, Fr. *lustrum*, Latin.] The space of five years.—Both of us have closed the tenth lustre, and it is time to determine how we shall play the last act of the farce. *Bolingbroke.*

(2.) *LUSTRE*, in commerce, denotes the gloss on any thing, particularly on manufactures of silk, wool, or stuff. It is likewise used to denote the composition or manner of giving that gloss.—The lustre of silks is given them by washing in soap, then clear water, and dipping them in alum water cold. To give stuffs a beautiful lustre: For every 8 lb. of stuff allow ¼ lb of lintseed; boil it half an hour, and then strain it through a cloth, and let it stand till it is turned almost to a jelly: afterwards put 1½ oz. of gum to dissolve 24 hours; then mix the liquor, and put the cloth into this mixture, take it out, dry it in the shade, and press it. If once, doing is not sufficient, repeat the operation. Curriers give a lustre to black leather first with juice of barberries, then with gum-arabic, ale, vinegar, and Flanders glue, boiled together. For coloured leather, they use the white of an egg-beaten in water. Moroccos have their lustre from juice of barberries, and lemon or orange. For hats, the lustre is frequently given with common water; sometimes a little black dye is added: the same lustre serves for furs; except that for very black furs they sometimes prepare a lustre of galls, copperas, Roman alum, ox's marrow, and other ingredients.

(1.) \* *LUSTRING*. *n. s.* [from *lustre*.] A shining silk; commonly pronounced *lustre*.

(2.) *LUSTRINGS*. A company was incorporated for making, dressing, and lustrating alamodes and lustrings in England, who were to have the sole benefit thereof, by stat. 4 and 5. William and Mary. And no foreign silks known by the name of *lustrings* or *alamodes* are to be imported but at the port of London, &c. Stat. 9. and 10. W. III. c. 43. See *SILK*.

\* *LUSTROUS*. *adj.* [from *lustre*.] Bright; shining; luminous.—Noble heroes, my sword and yours are kin, good sparks and *lustrous*. *Shak.*—The more *lustrous* the imagination is, it filleth and fixeth the better. *Bacon.*

*LUSTRUM*, in Roman antiquity, a general muster and review of all the citizens and their goods, which was performed by the censors every 5th year, who afterwards made a solemn lustration. See *LUSTRATION*, § 2. This custom was first instituted by Servius Tullius, about A. U. C. 180. In course of time the lustra were not celebrated so often; for we find the fifth lustrum celebrated at Rome only in A. U. C. 574.

(1.) \* *LUSTWORT*. *n. s.* [*lust* and *wort*.] An herb.

(2.) *LUSTWORT*, or *SUN-DEW*. See *DROSER*.  
\* *LUSTY*. *adj.* [*lustig*, Dutch.] Stout; vigorous; healthy; able of body.—

This lusty lady came from Persia late. *Spens.*  
If lusty love should go in quest of beauty,  
Where should he find it fairer than in *Shak.*

We yet may see the old man in a morning,  
Lusty as health, come ruddy to the field. *Otway.*

**LUTANGE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Moselle, 7½ miles SE. of Thionville, and 11 NE. of Metz.

\* **LUTANIST**. *n. f.* [from *lute*.] One who plays upon the lute.

\* **LUTARIOUS**. *adj.* [*lutarius*, Latin.] 1. Living in mud. 2. Of the colour of mud.—

A scaly tortoise-shell, of the *lutarius* kind. *Grew*.

**LUTAYA**, one of the PHILIPPINE ISLES.

(1.) \* **LUTE**. *n. f.* [*lut*, *lut*, Fr.] 1. A stringed instrument of music.—

Orpheus with his *lute* made trees,

And the mountain tops that freeze,

Bow themselves when he did sing. *Shak.*

—May must be drawn with a sweet countenance, upon his head a garland of roses, in one hand a *lute*. *Peacbam*.—

In a sadly pleasing strain

Let the warbling *lute* complain. *Pope*.

—A *lute* string will bear a hundred weight without rupture, but at the same time cannot exert its elasticity. *Arbutnot*.—

Love-whisp'ring woods, and *lute* resounding waves. *Dunciad*.

2. [From *lut*, Fr. *lutum*, Lat.] A composition like clay with which chemists close up their vessels.—

Some temper *lute*, some spacious vessels move.

*Garth*.

(2.) The **LUTE**, (§ 1. *def.* 1.) consists of 4 parts, viz. the table, the body or belly, which has 9 or 10 sides; the neck, which has 9 or 10 stops or divisions, marked with strings; and the head or cross, where the screw for raising and lowering the strings to a proper pitch of tone are fixed. In the middle of the table there is a rose or passage for the sound; there is also a bridge that the strings are fastened to, and a piece of ivory between the head and the neck, to which the other extremities of the strings are fitted. In playing, the strings are struck with the right hand, and with the left the stops are pressed. The lutes of Bologna are esteemed the best on account of the wood, which is said to have an uncommon disposition for producing a sweet sound.

(3.) **LUTE**, or **LUTING**, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) is a mixed, tenacious, ductile substance, which grows solid by drying. See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.

\* **To LUTE**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To close with lute, or chemists clay.—Take a vessel of iron, and let it have a cover of iron well *luted*, after the manner of the chemists. *Bacon*.—Iron may be so heated, that, being closely *luted* in a glass, it shall constantly retain the fire. *Wilkins*.

**LUTENBURG**, a town of Austria, in Stiria, 34 m. SE. of Gratz. Lon. 16. 10. E. Lat. 46. 46. N.

**LUTETIA**, or **LUTETIA PARISIORUM**, in ancient geography, a town of the Parisii, in Gallia Celtica, situated in an island in the Sequana, or Seine. It received its name, as some suppose, from the great quantity of clay, (*lutum*,) in its neighbourhood. J. Cæsar fortified and embellished it, from which circumstance some authors call it *Julii Cævitas*. Julian the apostate resided there for some time. It is now **PARIS**, the capital of France; so called from its name *Parys* in the lower age.

† **LUTHER**, Martin, the celebrated author of the Reformation, was born at Eisleben in Saxony,

in 1483. Though his parents were perceived a learned education; during that of which, he gave many indications of genius. Being tinged with some religious melancholy, which delights and devotion, he retired into a convent of fine friars; where he acquired great for piety, knowledge and unwearied to study. The cause of this retirement have been, that he was once struck by and his companion killed by his side by flash. He had been taught the scholastic phy then in vogue, and made considerable progress in it; but happening to find a bible in the library of his monastery, he with such assiduity, as quite astonished and increased his reputation for sanctity that he was chosen professor of philology, at Wittenberg on the Elbe, a ducal elector of Saxony had founded an. While Luther continued to enjoy the reputation for sanctity and learning, Tetimican friar, came to Wittenberg, and indulgences. Luther beheld his success with great concern; and having first inveighed indulgences from the pulpit, he afterwards 95 theses, containing his sentiments on the subject. These he proposed, not as proposed, but as subjects of inquiry. He appointed a day on which they were invited to impugn them either in by writing; and to the whole he joined protestations of his high respect for the fee, and of his implicit submission to its. No opponent appeared at the time. The theses spread over Germany with astonishment, and were read with the greatest. But though he met with no opposition was not long before many zealous ch rose, to defend those opinions with wealth and power of the clergy were connected. Their cause, however, means promoted by these endeavours; began to call in question the authority non law and even of the pope himself. of Rome at first despised these new doctrines, at last the attention of the pope, Leo raised by the great success of the reform the complaints of his adversaries, Luther, in July 1518, to appear at Rome 60 days, before the auditor of the chamber of Luther's adversaries, named *Prierias*. written against him, was appointed to and decide upon his doctrines. The pope at the same time to protect a man who and profane tenets were so shocking to and enjoined the provincial of the Augustinian order, and gave offence and disturbance whole church. From these letters, a pointment of his enemy to be his judge easily saw what justice he might expect and therefore was anxious to have his in Germany, and before a more impartial He wrote a submissive letter to the pope he promised an unreserved obedience

he entertained no doubt of the divine power's authority; and, by the instance of the other professors, Cajetan the pope in Germany was appointed to hear the cause. Luther appeared without hesitation; but Cajetan thought it his dignity to dispute the point with a man much his inferior; and therefore required the virtue of the apostolic powers with which he was clothed, to retract the errors which he had been clothed with regard to indulgences and of faith, and to abstain for the future from the publication of new and dangerous opinions. This last forbade him to appear in his press, he intended to comply with what was demanded of him. This haughty and violent proceeding, with other circumstances, gave the pope's friends such reasons to suspect that Luther's safe-conduct would not be able to protect him from the legate's resentment, that he fled from him secretly to withdraw from Rome and return to his own country. But upon his departure, according to a form of which had been given some examples, he prepared a solemn appeal from the pope, ill-informed at that time of the state of his cause, to the pope, when he received more full intimation. Cajetan, upon Luther's abrupt retreat, and at the pope's appeal, wrote to the elector of Saxony, informing him, as he regarded the peace of Germany and the authority of its head, either to detain Luther as a prisoner to Rome, or to drive him out of his territories. Frederic the elector, from political motives, protected Luther, thinking he might be of use in checking the enormous power of the see of Rome; but he was not Germany refounded with his fame, had not admitted him into his presence. He had great respect and much attention for Luther, and fore-seeing how fatal a removal of Luther would be to its reputation, he only declined complying with the demands of the pope, but openly avowed great concern for the safety, whose situation became daily more alarming. If he should be obliged to leave Rome, he had no other asylum, and must submit to whatever punishment the rage of his enemies could inflict; and so they thought to condemn him, that he had been declared a heretic at Rome before the expiration of 60 days allowed him to make his appeal. Notwithstanding all this, he discovered symptoms of timidity; but continued to persevere in his conduct and opinions, and to inveigh against the errors of his adversaries, with more vehemence than ever. And, being convinced that the pope would soon proceed to the most violent measures, he appealed to a general council, as the law of the Catholic church, and superior to the pope; who being a fallible man, was not to be judged at St Peter, the most perfect of his predeceutors. In the mean time the court was assiduous to crush the author of these doctrines. A bull was issued by the pope, commanding the legate prior to Luther's appeal, in which he was forbidden to grant the virtues of indulgences, and subjected to the heaviest ecclesiastical censures all who should teach a *contrary doctrine*. Such

a clear decision of the sovereign pontiff against him might have proved fatal to Luther's cause, had not the death of the emperor Maximilian I, which happened Jan. 17th, 1550, given matters a different turn. Both the principles and interest of Maximilian had prompted him to support the authority of the pope; but by his death, the vicariate of that part of Germany, which is governed by the Saxon laws, devolved to the elector of Saxony; and, under his friendly shelter, Luther himself enjoyed tranquillity, and his opinions took such deep root in different places, that they could never be eradicated. At the same time, as the election of an emperor was a point more interesting to Leo, than a theological controversy, of which he could not foresee the consequences, he was extremely solicitous not to irritate a prince of such influence in the electoral college as Frederic; and discovered great unwillingness to pronounce the sentence of excommunication against Luther, which his adversaries continually demanded with the most clamorous importunity. A suspension, therefore, of proceedings against Luther took place for 18 months; and frequent negotiations were carried on during this interval, to bring matters to an amicable issue. The manner in which these were conducted having given our reformer many opportunities of observing the corruption of the court of Rome, its obstinacy in adhering to established errors, and its indifference about truth, however clearly proposed or strongly proved, he began, in 1520, to utter some doubts with regard to the divine origin of the papal authority, which he publicly disputed with Eccius, one of his most learned antagonists. The dispute was indecisive, both parties claiming the victory; but it must have been very mortifying to the partizans of the Romish church to hear such an essential point of their doctrine publicly attacked. Luther after this proceeded to push on his inquiries and attacks from one doctrine to another, till at last he began to shake the firmest foundations on which the wealth and power of the church were established. Leo then saw that there were no hopes of reclaiming such an incorrigible heretic; and therefore prepared to pronounce the sentence of excommunication against him. The college of cardinals was often assembled to prepare the sentence with due deliberation; and the ablest canonists were consulted how it might be expressed with unexceptionable formality. At last it was issued on the 15th of June 1520. Forty-one propositions, extracted out of Luther's works, were therein condemned as heretical, scandalous, and offensive to pious ears; all persons were forbidden to read his writings, upon pain of excommunication; such as had any of them in their custody were commanded to commit them to the flames; he himself, if he did not, within 60 days, publicly recant his errors, and burn his books, was pronounced an obstinate heretic, excommunicated, and delivered to Satan; and all secular princes were required, under pain of incurring the same censure, to seize his person, that he might be punished as his crimes deserved. Luther was not in the least disconcerted by this sentence, which he had for some time expected. He renewed his appeal to a general council; declared the pope to be

be that *Antichrist*, or man of sin, whose appearance is foretold in the New Testament; declaimed against his tyranny with greater vehemence than ever; and at last, by way of retaliation, having assembled all the professors and students in the university of Wittemberg, in the presence of a vast multitude of spectators, he cast the volumes of the canon law, together with the bull of excommunication, into the flames. The manner, in which this action was justified, gave still more offence than the action itself. Having collected from the canon law some of the most extravagant propositions with regard to the plenitude and omnipotence of the pope's power, as well as the subordination of all secular jurisdiction to his authority, he published these with a commentary, pointing out the impiety of such tenets, and their evident tendency to subvert all civil government. On the accession of Charles V. Luther found himself in a very dangerous situation. Charles, to secure the pope's friendship, had determined to treat him with great severity. His eagerness to gain this point, rendered him not averse to gratify the papal legates in Germany, who insisted, that, without any delay or formal deliberation, the diet, then sitting at Worms, ought to condemn a man, whom the pope had already excommunicated as an incorrigible heretic. Such an abrupt proceeding, however, being deemed unprecedented and unjust by the members of the diet, they made a point of Luther's appearing in person, and declaring whether he adhered or not to those opinions, which had drawn upon him the censures of the church. Not only the emperor, but all the princes through whose territories he had to pass, granted him a safe conduct; and Charles wrote to him at the same time, requiring his immediate attendance on the diet, and renewing his promises of protection from any injury or violence. Luther did not hesitate one moment about yielding obedience; and set out for Worms, attended by the herald who had brought the emperor's letter and safe-conduct. While on his journey, many of his friends, whom the fate of John Huss, under similar circumstances, filled with solicitude, advised and intreated him not to rush wantonly into the midst of danger. (See Huss.) But Luther, superior to such terrors, courageously replied, "I am lawfully called to appear in that city; and thither will I go in the name of the Lord, though as many devils as there are tiles on the houses were there combined against me." The reception, which he met with at Worms, was such as might have been reckoned a full reward of all his labours, if vanity and the love of applause had been his motives. Greater crowds assembled to behold him than had appeared at the emperor's public entry; his apartments were daily filled with princes and persons of the highest rank; and he was treated with an homage more sincere, as well as more flattering, than any which pre-eminence in rank or birth can command. At his appearance before the diet, he behaved with great decency and firmness. He readily acknowledged an excess of acrimony and vehemence in his controversial writings; but refused to retract his opinions unless he were convinced of their falsehood, or to consent to their being tried by any other

rule than by the word of God. Some ecclesiastics proposed to imitate the example of the council of Constance, and, by punishing the author of this pestilent heresy, who was their power, to deliver the church at such an evil. But the members of the diet refused to expose the German integrity to reproach by a second violation of public faith. Charles being unwilling to stain the beauty of his administration by such an ignominious departure, Luther was permitted to depart in safety. A few days after he left the city, a severe edict was published in the emperor's name, and by the authority of the diet, depriving him, as an obnoxious and excommunicated criminal, of all the rights and privileges which he enjoyed as a subject of the empire, bidding any prince to harbour or protect him, and requiring all to seize his person as soon as he should be within the term specified in his protection should be. But this decree had no effect; the execution being prevented, partly by the multiplicity of occupations which the commotions in Saxony, the wars in Italy and the Low Countries, and partly by a prudent moderation employed by the elector of Saxony, his faithful patron. As Luther, on his return to Worms, was passing near Altenstein, a number of horsemen in masks rushed suddenly out of a wood, where they had pointed them to lie in wait for him, surrounding his company, carried him, and sending all his attendants, to Wortburg, a town not far distant. There the elector ordered to be supplied with every thing necessary for his retreat; but the place of his retreat was concealed, until the fury of the violence against him began to abate, upon a change in the political system of Europe. In Saxony, where he remained nine months, and frequently called his *Paradisus*, after that which St John was banished, he exerted his vigour in defence of his doctrines, and refutation of his adversaries; publishing sermons, which revived the spirit of his followers, which were diminished and disheartened at the disappearance of their leader. Luther appeared publicly again at Wittemberg, on the 6th of January 1522. He appeared indeed without a safe-conduct; but immediately wrote him to prevent his taking it ill. The edict of the emperor had given little or no check to Luther for the emperor was no sooner gone, than his edict was despised, and the doctrine spread faster than before. Carolus Luther's absence, had pushed things further than his leader; had attempted to remove images, to set aside confession, invocation of saints, and abstention from meats; had allowed the monks to desert their monasteries, to despise their vows, and in short, had quite changed the discipline of the church at Wittemberg: though not against Luther's sentiments, which were blamed by him, as rashly and unseasonable. Lutheranism was still confined to Germany; had not got to France; and Henry VIII. the most rigorous acts to hinder it from spreading into England. Nay, to show his zeal for the

his skill in theology, he wrote a treatise *Of the seven sacraments*, against Luther's book *Of the city of Babylon*; which he presented to Leo Oct. 1521. The pope was so well pleased with the king of England, that he complimented him with the title of *Defender of the Faith*. Luther, however, paid no regard to his kingship: but treated him with great sharpness, treating both of person and performance in the most contemptuous manner. Henry complained of Luther's effects to the princes of Saxony: and Fisher, of Rochester, replied in behalf of Henry's interest: but neither the king's complaint, nor the pope's reply, were attended with any visible effect. Luther now made open war with the pope's bishops; and that he might make the people despise their authority as much as possible, he wrote a book against the pope's bull, and against the order falsely called the *order of bishops*. The same year, 1522, he wrote a letter dated July 29th, to the assembly of the States general in Worms; in which he assured them, that he laboured to establish their doctrine in Germany, and exhorted them not to return to the union of the church of Rome; and he published, this year, a translation of the New Testament in the German tongue, which was afterwards corrected by himself and Melancthon. A translation having been printed several times, and lying in every body's hands, Ferdinand arch-duke of Austria, the emperor's brother, made a severe edict, to hinder the farther publication of it; and forbade all the subjects of his imperial majesty to have any copies of it, or of Luther's other books. Some other princes followed the example; whereupon Luther wrote a treatise *Of the secular power*, in which he accuses the pope of tyranny and impiety. The diet of Worms, which was held at Nuremberg, at the end of the year 1521, to which Adrian VI. Leo's successor, sent a legate, dated Nov. 25th, wherein he observes, that Martin Luther, after the sentence of the diet of Worms, continued to teach the same doctrine, and daily to publish books full of heresies, that it appeared strange to him, that so large a religious nation could be seduced by a wicked apostate friar: that nothing, however, could be more pernicious to Christendom: and therefore he exhorts them to use their utmost endeavours to make Luther, and the authors of such tumults, return to their duty; or, if they were obstinate, to proceed against them according to the laws of the empire, and the severity of the last edict. The resolution of this diet was published in the form of an edict, on the 6th of March 1523; but it had no effect in checking Lutherans, who still went on in the same triumphant manner. This year Luther wrote many sermons, particularly one upon *the dignity and office of the supreme magistrate*; which Frederic elector of Saxony is said to have been highly pleased with. About the same time, a writing in the Bohemian language to the Waldenses, or Pickards, in Bohemia and Moravia, who had applied to Luther, "about worshipping the body of Christ in the Eucharist." He wrote also another book, which he dedicated to the senate and people of

Prague, "about the institution of ministers of the church." He drew up a form of saying mass. He wrote a piece, entitled, *An example of popish doctrine and divinity*; which Dupins calls a *satire against nuns, and those who profess a monastic life*. He wrote also against the vows of virginity, in his preface to his commentary on 1 Cor. viii. which was soon followed with effects: for 9 nuns, among whom was Catharine de Bore, (see BORE, N<sup>o</sup> 1.) eloped from the nunnery at Nimptschen, and were brought, by the assistance of Leonard Coppen, a burgher of Torgau, to Wittemberg. This act was highly extolled by Luther; who, in a book written in the German language, compares the deliverance of these nuns from the slavery of a monastic life, to that of the souls which Jesus Christ has delivered by his death. This year Luther had occasion to canonize two of his followers, who, as Melchior Adam relates, were burnt at Brussels in July, and were the first who suffered martyrdom for his doctrine. He wrote also a consolatory epistle to three noble ladies at Misnia, who were banished from the duke of Saxony's court at Friburg, for reading his books. In the beginning of 1524, Clement VII. sent a legate into Germany to the diet, which was to be held at Nuremberg. Adrian VI. a little before his death, had canonized Benno, who was bishop of Meissen in the time of Gregory VII. and a most zealous defender of the holy see. Luther wrote a piece entitled *Against the New Idol and Old Devil set up at Meissen*; in which he treats the memory of Gregory and Adrian with great freedom. Clement VII.'s legate represented to the diet of Nuremberg the necessity of enforcing the execution of the edict of Worms, which had been strangely neglected by the princes of the empire: but, notwithstanding his pressing solicitations, the decrees of that diet were thought so ineffectual, that they were condemned at Rome, and rejected by the emperor. This year the dispute between Luther and Erasmus, about free-will, began. Erasmus had been much courted by the Papists to write against Luther; and tired out at length with their importunities, and desirous at the same time to clear himself from the suspicion of heresy, he resolved to write against Luther, though, as he tells Melancthon, it was with reluctance, and chose free-will for the subject. His book was entitled, *A Diatribe, or Conference about Free-will*; and was written with much moderation, and without personal reflections. He tells Luther in the preface, "That he ought not to take his dissenting from him in opinion ill, because he had allowed himself the liberty of differing from the judgment of popes, councils, universities, and doctors of the church." Luther answered Erasmus's book in a treatise *De Servo Arbitrio, or Of the Servitude of Man's Will*; and though Melancthon had promised Erasmus, that Luther should answer him with moderation, yet Luther never wrote any thing sharper. He accused Erasmus of being careless about religion, and little solicitous what became of it, provided the world continued in peace; and that his notions were rather philosophical than Christian. Erasmus immediately replied to Luther, in a piece called *Hyperaspistes*; in the first part of which he answers his arguments, and in the

ad his personal reflections. In Oct. 1524 Luther threw off the monastic habit; which, was a very proper preparative to his marriage with Catharine de Bore, on the 13th June 1525. This conduct of his was blamed not only by the Catholics, but, as Melancthon says, by those of his own party. He seemed even for some time ashamed of it himself, on account of the circumstances of the time, when Germany was groaning under the miseries of a war, which was said to be owing to Lutheranism. But Luther soon assumed his former intrepidity, and boldly defended what he had done. "I took a wife (says he), in obedience to my father's commands; and hastened the consummation, to prevent impediments, and stop the tongues of slanderers." He also says, that he did it partly as concurring with his grand scheme of opposing the Catholic corruptions. Luther found himself extremely happy in his new state and especially after his wife had brought him a son. "My rib Kate (says he) desires her compliments to you, and thanks you for the favour of your kind letter. She is very well, through God's mercy. She is obedient and complying with me in all things; and more agreeable, I thank God, than I could have expected." He was heard to say (Seckendorf tells us), that he would not exchange his wife for the kingdom of France, nor for the riches of the Venetians; and that for 3 reasons; 1st, Because, she had been given him by God, at the time when he implored the assistance of the Holy Ghost in finding a good wife. 2dly, Because, though she was not without faults, yet she had fewer than other women; and, 3dly, Because she religiously observed the conjugal fidelity she owed him. His marriage, however, did not retard his activity in the work of reformation. He revised the Augsburg confession of faith, and apology for the Protestants, when the Protestant religion was first established on a firm basis. See PROTESTANTS and REFORMATION. After this, Luther had little else to do than to sit down and contemplate the mighty work he had finished; for, that a singular monk should have given the church such a shock, that there needed but such another entirely to overthrow it, may well be stiled a mighty work. He did indeed little else; for the remainder of his life was spent in exhorting princes, states, and universities, to confirm the reformation; and in publishing such pieces as might encourage, direct, and aid them in doing it. The emperor threatened temporal punishment with armies, and the pope eternal with bulls and anathemas; but Luther disregarded their threats. His friend and coadjutor Melancthon was not so indifferent; for Melancthon had a great deal of softness, moderation, and diffidence, which made him very uneasy, in the existing disorders. Hence we find many of Luther's letters written on purpose to comfort him under these distresses and anxieties. In 1533, Luther wrote a consolatory epistle to the citizens of Oschatz, who had suffered some hardships for adhering to the Augsburg confession. He had also about this time a controversy with George duke of Saxony, who had such an aversion to Luther's doctrine, that he obliged his subjects to take an oath that they would never embrace it. However, 60 or 70 citizens of Leipsh

had deviated from the Catholic system point, on which they had consulted Lut on which George complained to the elect that Luther had not only abused his pe preached up rebellion among his subject elector ordered Luther to be acquainted this; and to be told that if he did not el self of the charge, he could not escape ment. But Luther easily refuted the ac and proved that, so far from stirring up jects against him, on the score of religio exhorted them rather to undergo the hardships, and even suffer banishment. the Bible translated by him into German printed, as the privilege under the elect shows; and it was published in 1535. published this year a book against mass consecration of priests, in which he relafence he had with the devil upon thof for in Luther's whole history, he never conflicts within, but the devil was a antagonist. In February 1537, an was held at Smalkald about matters of to which Luther and Melancthon we At this meeting Luther was seized wit vious an illness, that there were no hope very. He was afflicted with the stone, a stoppage of urine for 12 days. In th condition he insisted on travelling, notwit all that his friends could say to prevent resolution, however, was attended wit effect; for the night after his departure to be better. As he was carried along, his will, in which he bequeathed his d of Popery to his friends and brethren; ag what he often used to say: *Pessis eram: ricens ero mors tua, papa*; that is, "I plague of the Pope in my life, and in I shall be his death." This year the court of Rome, finding it impossib with the Protestants by force, began to course to stratagem. They affected the think, that though Luther had indee things on with a high hand and to a v treme, yet what he had pleaded in d these measures was not entirely without tion. They talked with a seeming show ration; and Pius III. proposed a reform among themselves, and even went so fa a place for a council to meet at for tha But Luther treated this farce as it dese masked and detected it immediately; a dicule it the more strongly, caused a pic drawn, in which was represented the pe on high upon a throne, some cardinals a with foxes tails on, and seeming to eva wards and downwards (*sursum deorsum* as Melchior Adam expresses it). This over against the title-page, to let the reaz once the scope and design of the boo was, to expose that cunning and arti which those subtle politicians affected t and purify themselves from their errors; sitions. Luther published about the f A Confutation of the pretended Gran stantine to Sylvester, Bp. of Rome; and letters of John Huss, written from his Constance to the Bohemians. Thus w



ill his death, in 1546. That year, according to Melancthon, he paid a visit to his country, which he had not seen for many years, and returned again in safety. But soon afterwards he was called thither again by the earls of Saxony, to compose some differences which had arisen about their boundaries. Luther had been used to such matters; but because he was at Ilsleben, a town in the territory of Saxony, he was willing to do his country what he could, even in this way. Preaching his usual course there at Wittemberg, upon the 21st of January, he set off on the 23d; and at Saxony lodged with Justus Jonas, with whom he staid three days, because the waters were so good. Upon the 28th, he passed over the river Elbe, with his three sons and Dr Jonas; and being in great danger, he said to the Doctor, "Do not think it would rejoice the devil exceedingly, if you, and my three sons, should be drowned here; but if he entered the territories of the earls of Saxony, he was received by 100 horsemen, and conducted in a very honourable manner; but was at the same time so very ill, that he could hardly have lived." He said, that these attacks often came upon him when he had business to undertake: of this, however, he recovered; but died on the 18th of February, at the age of 55. A little before he expired, he admonished those that were about him to God for the propagation of the Gospel; his body was put into a leaden coffin, and with great funeral pomp to the church at Ilsleben. Dr Jonas preached a sermon upon the occasion.

The earls of Mansfeldt desired that his body should be interred in their territories; but the earls of Saxony insisted upon his being carried back to Wittemberg: which was accordingly done: and there he was buried with the same pomp that perhaps ever happened to any man. Princes, earls, nobles, and students in great number, attended the procession; and the duke of Saxony made his funeral oration. A thousand were invented by the Papists about Luther's death. Some said that he died suddenly; that the devil strangled him; &c. Nay, some invented about his death, even while he was alive. Luther, however, put forth an advertisement of his being alive; and, to be even more convincing, wrote a book to shew that the papacy was founded by the devil; his works were collected after his death, and printed at Wittemberg in 7 vols folio. His death survived him a few years and continued to be celebrated at Wittemberg. She went thence in 1552, when the town was surrendered to the emperor. Before her departure, she had received of 50 crowns from Christian III. king of Denmark; and the elector of Saxony, and the duke of Mansfeldt, gave her tokens of their love.

With these additions to what Luther had said, she maintained herself and her family. She returned to Wittemberg, and the town was restored to the elector; where she lived in a very pious manner, till the plague carried her to leave it again in 1552. She sold her house at Wittemberg; and retired to Torgau in her journey thither, the horses grow-

ing unruly, and attempting to run away, she leaped out of the vehicle, and got a fall, of which she died within 3 months, on the 10th Dec. 1552. She was buried in the great church there, where her tomb and epitaph are still to be seen; and the university of Wittemberg, (then at Torgau because the plague raged at Wittemberg,) made a public programme concerning the funeral pomp.

**LUTHERANISM**, *n. s.* the sentiments of Martin Luther with regard to religion. See **LUTHER**. Lutheranism has undergone some alterations since the time of its founder. Luther rejected the epistle of St James, as inconsistent with the doctrine of St Paul, in relation to justification; he also set aside the Apocalypse: both which are now received as canonical in the Lutheran church. Luther reduced the number of sacraments to two, viz. baptism, and the eucharist: but he believed the **IMPANATION**, or **CONSUBSTANTIATION**, that is, that the matter of the bread and wine remain with the body and blood of Christ; and it is in this article that the main difference between the Lutheran and English churches consists. Luther maintained the mass to be no sacrifice; exploded the adoration of the host, auricular confession, meritorious works, indulgences, purgatory, the worship of images, &c. which had been introduced in the corrupt times of the Romish church. He also opposed the doctrine of free-will, maintained predestination, and asserted our justification to be solely by the imputation of the merits and satisfaction of Christ. He also opposed the fastings in the Romish church, monastical vows, the celibacy of the clergy, &c.

**LUTHERANS**, the Christians who follow the opinions of Martin Luther. See **LUTHER**. The Lutherans, of all Protestants, differ least from the Romish church; as they affirm, that the body and blood of Christ are materially present in the sacrament of the Lord's supper, though in an incomprehensible manner; and likewise represent some religious rites and institutions, as the use of images in churches, the distinguishing vestments of the clergy, the private confession of sins, the use of wafers in the administration of the Lord's supper, the form of exorcism in the celebration of baptism, and other ceremonies of the like nature, as tolerable, and some of them as useful. The Lutherans maintain, with regard to the divine decrees, that they respect the salvation or misery of men, in consequence of a previous knowledge of their sentiments and characters, and not as free and unconditional, and as founded on the mere will of God. Towards the close of the 17th century, the Lutherans began to entertain a greater liberality of sentiment than they had before adopted; though in many places they persevered longer in severe and despotic principles than other Protestant churches. Their public teachers now enjoy an unbounded liberty of dissenting from the decisions of those creeds, which were once deemed almost infallible rules of faith and practice, and of declaring their dissent in the manner they judge most expedient. Mosheim attributes this change in their sentiments to the maxim which they generally adopted, that Christians were accountable to God alone for their religious opinions; and that no individual could be

justly punished by the magistrate for his erroneous opinions, while he conducted himself like a virtuous and obedient subject, and made no attempts to disturb the peace and order of civil society.

**LUTHERN**, in architecture, a kind of window over the cornice, in the roof of a building; standing perpendicularly over the naked of a wall, and serving to illuminate the upper story. Lutherens are of various forms; as square, semicircular, round, called *bull's eyes*, *flat arches*, &c.

**LUTKENBURG**, a town of Holstein, 30 m. N. of Lubeck, and 55 NE. of Hamburg.

**LUTON**, a town of Bedfordshire among hills, famous for its manufactures of straw: 20 miles S. of Bedford, and 34 N. of London. Lon. 0. 25. W. Lat. 52. 27. N.

**LUTRA**, in zoology. See **MUSTELA**.

**LUTRI**, a town of the Helvetic republic, in the country of Vand, on the N. coast of the Lake of Geneva, 2½ miles E. of Lausanne.

**LUTSCHINEN**, a river of the Helvetic republic, in the canton of Bern and bailiwick of Interlaken, which flows through a romantic narrow valley, for many miles, till it falls into the lake of Brienz. It has a bridge, which, being badly joined together, presents a most terrific appearance to strangers.

**LUTTENBERG**, 2 towns of Stiria.

(1.) **LUTTER**, a town of Brunswick, famous for a battle fought between Christian IV. K. of Denmark, and the imperialists under Gen. Tilly, in 1626. It is 8 miles NW. of Goslar, and 13 SE. of Hildesheim. Lon. 10. 25. E. Lat. 52. 4. N.

(2, 3.) **LUTTER**, 2 rivers of Germany; 1. in Saxony, running into the Lachte, 12 miles NE. of Zell: 2. in Westphalia, running into the Aa, 2 miles S. of Hervorden.

**LUTTERBERG**, a town of Hanover, formerly a county under its own lords: 15 m. S. of Goslar.

**LUTTERHAUSEN**, a town of Holstein, taken by Gen. Tilly in 1627; 2 miles from Hamburg.

**LUTTERWORTH**, a town of Leicestershire, seated on the Swift, with a handsome church, and lofty steeple, containing above 1600 inhabitants. The celebrated **WICKLIFF**, the first reformer, was rector here in the 14th century. It has a market on Monday and is 14 miles S. of Leicester, and 88 NNW. of London. Lon. 1. 10. W. Lat. 52. 26. N.

**LUTTI**, Benedict, an eminent painter, born at Florence in 1666. He was the disciple of Antonio Dominico Gabiani, and was judged equal to his master: he painted easel pieces, and his works were much valued in England, France, and Germany. The emperor knighted him; and the elector of Mentz sent him a cross set with diamonds. Lutti was never satisfied in finishing his pictures; yet though he often retouched them, they never appeared laboured. He died in 1724.

\* **LUTULENT**. *adj* [*lutulentus*, Latin.] Muddy; turbid.

**LUTZELSTEIN**, **LUTZENSTEIN**, or **PETIT-PIERRE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine, with a fort on a mountain: 24 miles NW. of Strasbourg. Lon. 7. 17. E. Lat. 48. 55. N.

**LUTZEN**, a town of Upper Saxony, for a battle fought in 1632, wherein Gustolphus king of Sweden was killed. It lies on the Elster, 9 miles ESE. of Merseb. 10 WSW. of Leipzig. Lon. 12. 37. E. 20. N.

**LUVINO**, a town of the Italian rep. dep. of the Lario, and district of Varese E. bank of Lake Maggiore.

\* **To LUX**. } *v. a.* [*luxur*, French  
\* **To LUXATE**. } Lat.] To put out to disjoint.—Consider well the *luxated* joint way it slipped out; it requireth to be ret in the same manner. *Wise man*.—

Descending carelessly from his couch,  
*Lux'd* his joint neck.

(1.) \* **LUXATION**. *n. f.* [from *luxa*  
1. The act of disjoining. 2. Any thing ed.—The undue situation, or connexion in fractures and *luxations*, are to be red chiralurgical means. *Flayer*.

(2.) **LUXATION**, in surgery, is when a moved out of its place, so as to impesstroy its proper motion. See **SURGERY**.

\* **LUXE**. *n. f.* [French, *luxuria*, Lat.] voluptuousness. Not used.—

The pow'r of wealth I try'd,  
And all the various *luxes* of costly pride

(1.) **LUXEMBURG**, one of the ci-devinces of the Netherlands. It was bou the E. by the archbishopric of Treves; by Lorrain; on the W. by Champagne bishopic of Liege, which with part of I bounded it on the N. It lies in the fore dennes: in some places it is covered w tains and woods; but in general it is corn and wine, and has a great number mines. The principal rivers are, the Sour, Ourte, and Semoy. In 1795, it v run by the French; in 1796 annexed to public; and now forms the departmen **RETS**, or *the Forests*.

(2.) **LUXEMBURG**, a city of the Franc lic, in the dep. of Forets, and late prov Austrian Netherlands. It was the capit duchy, as it now is of the departmen seated partly on a hill, and partly on a p is very strong both by art and nature. indifferently built, though there are so stone houses in it. The Jesuits church is some edifice, in the modern taste. The taken by Lewis XIV. in 1684; who au the fortifications, and made it one of the towns in Europe. It was ceded to Spai treaty of Ryfwick; but the French took in 1701, and gave it up to the house of by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1715. It was besieged by the French for several in February it was bombarded, and the afterwards turned into a blockade; but garrisoned by 10,000 men under Marl. and in no want of provisions, it was rendered on the 7th of June. It is 25 m of Treves, and 100 W. of Mentz. Lon W. Lat. 49. 52. N.

(3.) **LUXEMBURG**, Francis Henry de Rrenci, duke of, and marshal of France, a ed general in the service of Louis XIV.

e was with the prince of Conde at the  
crocy, in 1643; and in 1668. distinguish-  
at the conquest of Franche Compté.  
commanded in chief the French army  
; when he defeated the enemy near  
nd Bodegrave, and was universally ad-  
he fine retreat he made in 1673. He  
rshal of France in 1675; gained the  
leurus in 1690, that of Steenkirk in  
that of Nerwind in 1693. He died at  
1695.

EMBURG, FRENCH, a ci-devant prov.  
comprehending part of the ancient  
o r.) ceded to France in 1659, by the  
e Pyrenées, and including the districts  
of Thionville, Montmedy, Marville,  
Carignan, and Damvilliers. It now  
lepartment of the MOSELLE.

IL, a town of France, in the dep. of  
saone, near some warm baths and cha-  
ings, at the foot of Mount Vosge, 15  
Vesoul. Lon. 6. 24. E. Lat. 47. 50. N.

RD, LAKE, a lake or arm of the sea  
t of Dorsetshire, near Pool.

N, a town of Somersetsshire, between  
nd Uphill.

LAN, a town of Cornwall, W. of Left-

RIANCE. } n. f. [from *luxurians*, Lat.]  
RIANCY. } Exuberance; abundant or  
enty or growth.—A fungus prevents  
y by its *luxuriancy*. *Wise man*.—Flowers  
the garden in the greatest *luxuriancy*  
on. *Speclator*.—

thro' the parting robe th' alternate breast  
xuriance rose. *Thomson's Summer*.

LIANS FLOS, a LUXURIANT or double  
a flower, some of whose parts are in-  
umber, to the diminution or entire ex-  
others. The parts that are augmented  
d in luxuriant flowers, are the flower-  
tals; the parts that are diminished, or  
cluded, are the stamina or chives. See  
*Index*. Many natural orders of plants  
any circumstances produce luxuriant  
f this kind are the masked flowers of  
, excepting calve's-snout; the rough-  
belliferous, stary plants, and such as  
ie joints, of Ray: some umbelliferous  
wever, are *prolific*. The pea bloom,  
r-shaped flowers, are rarely rendered  
me instances, however, of luxuriance,  
d in a species of ladies-finger, coronilla,  
.

All luxuriant flowers are vegetable  
Such as are perfectly full cannot be  
by seeds; because these, for want of  
on, cau never ripen. Full flowers  
re denominated by Linnæus *eunuchs*.  
t degree of luxuriance is very common  
l, lychnis, anemone, stock, Indian cress,  
marigold, ranunculus, violet, pœony,  
is. Flowers which do not exclude all  
, perfect their seeds. Of this kind are  
nel-flower, campanula, and some o-  
ie flowers, as those of the water-lily,  
l, and cactus, have many rows or se-  
s, without the number of stamina be-  
I. PART II.

ing in the least diminished. Such flowers are by  
no means to be reckoned luxuriant. See *PLANTS*  
*FLOS*.

\* LUXURIANT. *adj.* *luxurians*, Lat.] Exuber-  
rant; superfluously plenteous.—A fluent and *luxu-*  
*riant* speech becomes youth well, but not age.  
*Bacon's Essays*.—

The mantling vine gently creeps *luxuriant*. *Milt.*  
—If the fancy of Ovid be *luxuriant*, it is his cha-  
racter to be so. *Dryden*.—

Prune the *luxurians*, the uncouth refine,  
But show no mercy to an empty line. *Pope*.

\* To LUXURIATE. *v. n.* [*luxurior*, Lat.] To  
grow exuberantly; to shoot with superfluous plenty.

\* LUXURIOUS. *adj.* [*luxuriæus*, Fr. *luxuriosus*,  
Lat.] 1. Delighting in the pleasures of the table.  
2. Administring to luxury.—

Those whom thou saw'st  
In triumph, and *luxurious* wealth, are they  
First seen in acts of prowess eminent,  
And great exploits; but of true virtue void. *Milt.*  
The *luxurious* board. *Anon*.

3. Lustful; libidinous.—

She knows the heat of a *luxurious* bed:  
Her blush is guiltiness, not modesty. *Shakespeare*  
I grant him bloody,  
*Luxurious*, avaricious, false, deceitful. *Shak.*

4. Voluptuous; enslaved to pleasure.—

*Luxurious* cities, where the noise  
Of riot ascends above their loftiest tow'rs. *Milt.*

5. Softening by pleasure.—

Repel the Tuscan foes, their city seize,  
Protect the Latians in *luxurious* ease. *Dryden*.

6. Luxuriant; exuberant.—

The work under our labour grows  
*Luxurious* by restraint. *Milt. Par. Lost*.  
\* LUXURIOUSLY. *adv.* [from *luxurious*.] De-  
liciously; voluptuously.—

Hotter hours you have  
*Luxuriously* pick'd out. *Shak.*  
Where mice and rats devour'd poetick bread,  
And with heroick verse *luxuriously* were fed.  
*Dryden*.

He never slept in solemn state;  
Nor day to night *luxuriously* did join. *Dryden*.

(1.) \* LUXURY. *n. f.* [*luxuræ*, old Fr. *luxuria*,  
Lat.] 1. Voluptuousness; addictedness to pleasure.  
Egypt with Assyria strove  
In wealth and *luxury*. *Milton*.

—Riches expose a man to pride and *luxury*, and a  
foolish elation of heart. *Addison's Speclator*.—

2. Lust; lewdness.—

Urge his hateful *luxury*,  
His bestial appetite in change of lust. *Shak.*

3. Luxuriance; exuberance.—Young trees of se-  
veral kinds set contiguous in a fruitful ground,  
with the *luxury* of the trees will incorporate.

*Bacon*. 4. Delicious fare.—He cut the side of the  
rock for a garden, and by laying on it earth, fur-  
nished out a kind of *luxury* for a hermit. *Addison*.

(2.) LUXURY may be defined an extravagant in-  
dulgence in diet, dress, and equipage. *Luxury*,  
among the Romans, prevailed to such a degree,  
that several laws were made to limit it. The ex-  
travagance of the table began about the time of  
the battle of Actium, and continued in great ex-  
cess till the reign of Galba. Peacocks, cranes of  
Malta.

Malta, nightingales, venison, wild and tame fowl, were considered as delicacies. A profusion of provisions was the reigning taste. Whole wild boars were often served up, and filled with various small animals, and birds of different kinds: this dish they called the *Trojan horse*, in allusion to the wooden horse filled with soldiers. Fowls and game of all sorts were served up in whole pyramids, piled up in dishes as broad as moderate tables. Lucullus had a particular name for each apartment; and in whatever room he ordered his servants to prepare the entertainment, they knew by the direction the expence to which they were to go. When he supped in the Apollo, the expence was fixed at 50,000 *drachms*, that is 1250 l. M. Antony provided 8 boars for 12 guests. Vitellius had a large silver platter, said to have cost a million of *sesterces*, called *Minerva's buckler*. In this he blended together the livers of gilt-heads, the brains of peacocks and peacocks, the tongues of phenicopters, and the milts of lampreys. Caligula served up to his guests pearls of great value dissolved in vinegar; the same was done also by Clodius, the son of Ætop the tragedian. Apicius laid aside 90,000,000 of *sesterces*, besides a mighty revenue, for no other purpose but to be sacrificed to luxury. (See *APICIUS*.) The Roman laws to restrain luxury were *Lex Orestia*, *Fannia*, *Didia*, *Licina*, *Cornelia*, and many others: but these were ineffectual; for as riches increased amongst them, so did sensuality. Instances of luxury in eating are recorded by English historians, surpassing even the extravagance of the Romans. As to *dress*, luxury in that article seems to have attained a great height as early as the reign of Edward III. when there were no fewer than 7 sumptuary laws passed in one session of parliament to restrain it. Concerning the utility of luxury to a state, there is much controversy among political writers. Baron Montelucien says, that luxury is necessary in monarchies; but ruinous to democracies. With regard to Britain, whose government is a compound of both, it is a dubious question, how far private luxury is a public evil, or cognizable by public laws. Formerly there were a number of penal statutes to restrain excess in apparel, chiefly made in the reigns of Edward III, IV. and Henry VIII. But all of them it appeared expedient to repeal afterwards. In fact, although luxury will of necessity increase according to the influx of wealth, it may not be for the general benefit of commerce to prohibit it; yet for the good of the public, it might be proper that such as go beyond due bounds in eating, drinking, and dressing, should be taxed accordingly. This is, however, a point which would require deliberation; and, in mercantile countries, such restraints would be found prejudicial, most likely impracticable, especially where true liberty is established.

LUZ, a sea port in the isle of CANARY.

LUZARA, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio, and district (late duchy) of Mantua, near the influx of the Crostolo into the Po. A battle was fought near it, between the French and Spaniards in 1702, when both sides claimed the victory. It is 16 miles S. of Mantua. Lon. 10. 50. E. Lat. 45. 0. N.

LUZARCHES, a town of France, in the dep. of Seine and Oise; 23 miles N. of Paris.

LUZECH, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot, 71 m. N.W. of Cahors, and 15 S. of Cahors.

LUZERNE, a county of Pennsylvania, long from N. to S. and 75 broad from E. to W. It contains 12 townships, 4,893 citizens, and 1,000 slaves, in 1795. It is bounded on the N. by York, E. and SE. by Northampton, and on the S. by Lycoming and Northampton counties. It is rich in iron ore and iron works are erected. Wilkesbarre is the capital.

LUZILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Indre, 9 miles S. of Amboise.

LUZON. See *LUÇON* and *MANILLA*.

LUZY, a town of France, in the dep. of Nievre, 17 miles SW. of Autun.

LUZZANA, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio, and district (late duchy) of Mantua; 22 miles S. of Mantua.

LUZZARA. See *LUZARA*.

LUZZI, a town of Naples, near the city.

\* *LY. v. n.* [A very frequent termination of names of places and of adjectives and verbs when *ly* terminates the name of a place, derived from *leag*, Saxon, a field. *Gibson*—ends an adjective or adverb, it is contracted, like *z*: as, *beastly*, *beastlike*; *plainly*, *plainly*.]

LYBIA, or *LIBYA*, a name anciently given to all that part of Africa lying between the river Nile and the river Triton; and coming in the dep. of *CYRENAICA*, *MARMARICA*, and *SYRIA*. See these articles, and *LYBIA*, § 1—4.

LYCÆA. See *LYCÆUS*.

LYCÆUM [*Λυκαίων*] in antiquity, a school or academy at Athens, where Aristotle taught his philosophy. The place was composed of porticoes, and trees planted in a circular form, where the philosophers disputed. Hence *philosophy of the Lycæum* is said to signify the philosophy of Aristotle, or the Peripatetic philosophy. Suidas observes, that the Lycæum took its name from its having been originally a temple of Apollo Lycæus; or a portico or gallery built by Lycæus the son of Apollo: but others mention it to have been built by Pisistratus or Pericles.

LYCÆUS, in ancient geography, a mountain of Arcadia, sacred to Jupiter; whence *Lycaeus* (*Πίνυς*): Sacred also to Pan (*Φυλίσκος*); hence *LYCÆA*, the rites performed to Pan on this mountain; which, Evander carrying to Latium, were called *LUPERCALIA*.

\* *LYCANTHROPY. n. f.* [*λυκάνθρωπος* and *άνθρωπος*.] A kind of madness, in which men have the qualities of wild beasts, like a man in his sleep, and grows as insensible as the man that dreamt of a *lycant* was for ever after wary not to come near a wolf. (*Taylor*.)

(1.) LYCAON I, in fabulous history, king of Arcadia, son of Pelasgus and Phylis. He built a town called Lycaonia, on the mountain Lycæus, in honour of Jupiter. He had many wives, by whom he had a daughter Callisto, and 50 sons. He was succeeded by his eldest son. He lived about A. C. 1000.

ON II. king of Arcadia, celebrated for  
He was changed into a wolf by  
ause he offered human victims on the  
her Pan. Some attribute this meta-  
another cause. The sins of man-  
y relate, were become so enormous,  
visited the earth to punish wicked-  
pity. He came to Arcadia, where  
nanced as a god, and the people be-  
proper adoration to his divinity.  
ever, who used to sacrifice all stran-  
ranton cruelty, laughed at the pious  
is subjects; and to try the divinity of  
served up human flesh on his table.  
y so irritated Jupiter, that he im-  
roved the house of Lycaon, and  
into a wolf.

IES, the people of LYCAONIA.

IONIA, in ancient geography, a small  
he Hither Asia, bounded by Pamphi-  
Cappadocia on the N. Pisidia and  
the W. and Armenia Minor on the  
ountry, though situated very near  
us, and part of it on it, yet the Ro-  
ed it in *Asa intra Taurum*.

ONIA, an ancient name of ARCADIA.  
ONIA, an island in the Tiber, joined  
a bridge, and to the land by an-  
e Celsus, and Fabricius.

I, or LYFCHAM, a town of Norfolk;  
of Norfolk, and 92 NNE. of Lon-  
50. E. Lat. 52. 45. N.

DUS, in ancient geography, a city of  
*iv.* 27. 32.) now called GIUSTANDEL.  
S, in botany, the CAMPION, BAGHE-  
OS, CATCH-FLY, &c.; a genus of  
in order, belonging to the pentandria  
ts; and in the natural method rank-  
ne 22d order, *Car. 2: phyllæ*. The ca-  
phyllous, oblong, and smooth; there  
uncultivated petals; with the segments  
almost blind; the capsule quinquelo-

IS CHALCEDONICA, the *Cisalcedonian*  
hath a fibrated perennial root; up-  
t, hairy, annual stalks, rising three or  
h; garnished with long, spear-point-  
ing leaves, by pairs opposite; and the  
d by a large, compact, flat bunch of  
rlet or flame-coloured flowers, ap-  
une and July. Of this there are va-  
single scarlet flowers, with large  
et flowers of great beauty and ele-  
pale-red flowers, and with white  
these varieties, the double scarlet  
erior to all for size and elegance;  
eing large, very double, and collected  
arge bunch, exhibit a charming ap-  
e single scarlet kind is also very pret-  
others effect an agreeable variety with  
inds.

IS DIOECIA, the *dioecious lychnis*, com-  
l *Lucifer's button*, hath fibrated per-  
; upright stalks, branching very dis-  
gular, 2 or 3 feet high; having oval,  
d, rough leaves, by pairs opposite;  
branches terminated by clusters of  
ers of different colours and proper-

ties in the varieties; flowering in April and May.  
The varieties, are the common single red-flowered  
bachelors button, double red, double white, and  
single white-flowered. The double varieties are  
exceedingly ornamental; the flowers large, very  
double, and continue long in blow; the single  
red fort grows wild by ditch sides and other moist  
places in many parts of England; from which the  
doubles were accidentally obtained by culture in  
gardens. The flowers are often dioecious, *i. e.*  
male and female on distinct plants.

3. LYCNIS FLOS CUCULI, the *cuckoo-flower*  
*lychnis*, hath fibry perennial roots; upright, branch-  
less, channelled stalks, near two feet high; gar-  
nished with long, narrow, spear-shaped leaves, in  
pairs opposite; and terminated by branchy foot-  
stalks, sustaining many purple, deeply quadrifid  
flowers; appearing in May. The flowers having  
each petal deeply quadrifid in a torn or ragged  
like manner, the plant obtained the name  
of *Ragged Robin*. There are varieties with single  
and double flowers. The double fort is large,  
very multiple, fair flower; it is an improved va-  
riety of the single, which grows wild in most  
of our moist meadows, and is rarely cultivated;  
but the double, being very ornamental, merits  
culture in every garden.

4. LYCHNIS VISCARIA, the *viscous German lychnis*,  
commonly called *catch-fly*, hath fibry per-  
ennial roots; crowned by a tuft of long grassy  
leaves close to the ground; many erect, straight,  
single stalks, rising 1½ or 2 feet high, exuding  
from their upper part a viscous or clammy mat-  
ter; garnished with long narrow leaves, by pairs  
opposite; and terminated by many reddish pur-  
ple flowers, in clusters one above another, form-  
ing a sort of long loose spike; all the flowers with  
entire petals; flowering in May. There are va-  
rieties with single red flowers with double red  
flowers, and with white flowers. The double  
variety is considerably the most eligible for general  
culture, and is propagated in plenty by parting  
the roots. All the varieties of this species emit-  
ting a glutinous liquid matter from their stalks,  
flies happening to light thereon sometimes stick  
and entangle themselves, whence the name *Catch-  
Fly*. All the 4 species and respective varieties are  
very hardy; all fibrous-rooted, the roots peren-  
nial; but are annual in stalks, which rise in spring,  
flower in summer, succeed in the singles by  
plenty of seed in autumn, by which all the single  
varieties may be raised in abundance, but the  
doubles only by dividing the roots, and some by  
cuttings of the flower-stalks.

LYCIA, a country of Asia Minor, bounded by  
the Mediterranean on the S. Caria on the W.  
Pamphylia on the E. and Phrygia on the N. It was  
anciently called *Milyas*, and *Tremile*, from  
the *Milyæ*, or *Solyms*, a people of Crete, who  
came to settle there. It was named *Lycia* from  
Lycus the son of Pandion, who established him-  
self there. The inhabitants have been greatly  
commended by the ancients for their sobriety and  
justice. They were conquered by Cræsus king  
of Lydia, and afterwards by Cyrus. Though they  
were subject to the power of Persia, yet they were  
governed by their own kings, and only paid a  
yearly tribute to the Persian monarchs. They be-  
came

came part of the Macedonian empire when Alexander came into the east, and afterwards were ceded to the house of the Seleucids. The country was reduced into a Roman province by Claudius.

**LYCIUM**, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 28th order, *Luride*. The corolla is tubular, having its throat closed up with the beard of the filaments; the berry is bilocular. There are 8 species natives of various countries.

**LYCODONTES**, in natural history, the petrified teeth of the *lupus piscis*, or wolf-fish, frequently found fossil. They are of different shapes; but the most common kind rise in a semiorbicular form, and are hollow within, somewhat resembling an acorn-cup; this hollow is found sometimes empty, and sometimes filled with the stratum in which it is immersed. Many of them have an outer circle, of a different colour from the rest.

**LYCOMEDES**, in fabulous history, a king of Scyros an island in the Ægean sea. He was son of Apollo and Parthenope. He was secretly entrusted with the care of young Achilles, whom his mother Thetis had disguised in women's cloaths, to remove him from the Trojan war, where she knew he must unavoidably perish. He is infamous for his treachery to Theseus, who had implored his protection when driven from his throne, by the usurper Menætheus. Lycomedes, either envious of the fame of his illustrious guest, or bribed by Menætheus, led Theseus to an elevated place, on pretence to show him the extent of his dominions, and perfidiously threw him down a precipice, where he was killed.

**LYCON**. See **LYCOPOLIS**.

**LYCOPERDON**, in botany, a genus of the natural order of fungi, belonging to the cryptogamia class of plants. The fungus is roundish, and full of farinaceous seeds. There are 10 species; the following are the most remarkable:

1. **LYCOPERDON BOVISTA**, the common puff ball, is frequent in meadows and pastures in the autumn. It varies exceedingly in size, figure, superficies, and colour. In general, it consists of a sack or bag, having a root at its base, and the bag composed of three membranes, an epidermis, a tough white skin, and an interior coat which adheres closely to the central pith. The pith in the young plants is of a yellowish colour, at first firm and solid, but soon changes into a cellular spongy substance, full of a dark dull-green powder, which discharges itself through an aperture at the top of the fungus, which aperture is formed of lacerated segments, in some varieties reflexed. The powder is believed to be the seeds, which through a microscope appear of a spherical form, and to be annexed to elastic hairs. (See *Haller's Hist. Helvet. n. 2172.*) Among the numerous varieties of this fungus, the *glabrum* is most remarkable. It is a smooth sessile kind, of a nearly spherical form, puckered or contracted at the root. This sometimes grows to an enormous size. It has been found in England as big as a man's head; and at Carraria, near Padua in Italy, specimens have been gathered, weighing 25 lb. and measuring two yards in circumference; but its more ordinary size is that of a walnut or an apple. The varieties of this species have no ill-

mits, being frequently found to run together; the scaly, warty, and echinate ing smooth as the plants grow old, of the fungus having no determinate natural colour of the puff-ball is either or ash-coloured; but sometimes yellow and brownish. The internal spongy plied to wounds, is esteemed good ings. Pressed and dried in an oven, becomes a kind of tinder, the smoke said to intoxicate bees. (See *Gen 1766.*) Masfigli says the Italians fry triety, and indeed any of the others and eat them with salt and oil.

2. **LYCOPERDON TUBER**, *TRUFFI raneous puff-balls*, a native of woods land and England. It grows generally 3 or 4 inches under ground, without root. The figure of it is nearly spher that of a potatoe; the exterior coat afterwards black, and studded with or polyhedrous tubercles; the interior solid and callous, of a dirty white colour, grained like a nutmeg with lines; in which, according to Miched minute oval capsules, containing 2 to 4 round warted seeds. The tru Britain seldom exceed 3 or 4 oz. in in Italy, and some other parts of t they are said to have been found of weight of from 8 to 14 lb. They are ble, either fresh and roasted like pot ed and sliced into ragouts. They h and somewhat urinous smell, and ar be aphrodisiacal. Dogs are with taught to hunt for them by the f scratch up the ground under which t

**LYCOPERSICON**. See **SOLANUM**

**LYCOPHRON**, a famous Grec grammarian, born at Colchis in Eube rished about A. A. C. 304, and, acc vid, was killed by an arrow. He w dies; but all his works are lost, ex entitled *Cassandra*, which contains a predictions, which he supposes to ha by Cassandra, Priam's daughter. T extremely obscure. The best editio of Dr Potter, printed at Oxford in 1

**LYCOPODIUM**, **CLUB MOSS**; a natural order of musci, belonging to gamia class of plants. The anther and sessile; there are no calyptra. species; the following are the most r

1. **LYCOPODIUM CLAVATUM**, the *moss*, abounds in dry and mountainou fir forests. The stalk is prostrate, b ereeping, from a foot to 2 or 3 yar radicles woody. The leaves are nu row, lanceolated, acute, often incur tremity, terminated with a long wh every where surround the stalk. cles are erect, firm, and naked (excep ly set with lanceolate scales), and ar ends of the branches. They are gen inches long, and terminated with tw yellowish spikes, imbricated with oval finely lacerated on the edges, and en hair. In the *ala* or bosom of the scale

aped capsule, which bursts with elasticity when ripe, and throws out a light yellow powder, which falls down into the flame of a candle, flashes with a small explosion. The Swedes make mats of this moss to rub their shoes upon. In Russia and some other countries, the powder of the capsules is used in medicine to heal galls in children, chops in the face, and other sores. It is also used to powder over medicinal pills, and to make artificial lightning at theatres. The Poles make a decoction of the plant, and, dipping a linen cloth into it, apply it to the heads of persons afflicted with the disease called *hepatica polonica*, which is said to be cured by this mentation.

1. *LYCOPodium SELAGO*, FIR CLUB MOSS, is common in the Highland mountains of Scotland, and in the Hebrides. The stalk at the base is simple and reclining; but a little higher is divided into upright dichotomous branches, from 2 to 6 inches high, surrounded with 8 longitudinal oblique ribs of lanceolate, smooth, rigid, imbricated leaves. Near the summits of the branches, in the axils of the leaves, are placed single kidney-shaped capsules, consisting of two valves, which open horizontally like the shells of an oyster, and cast out a fine yellow powder. These capsules Linnæus supposes to be *anthers*, or male parts of fructification. In the axils also of many of the leaves, near the tops of the branches, are often found what he calls *female flowers*, but which Haller esteems to be only gems or buds of a future plant. They consist, first, of 4 stiff, lanceolate, incurved, minute leaves, one of the outermost longer and larger than the rest. These are supposed to correspond to the styles in regular flowers. Again, at the bottom of the calyx are five small pellucid substances, resembling leaves, visible only by a microscope, which are supposed analogous to pistils. These, in time, grow up into three large broad leaves, two of the two united together like the hoof of an ox; with a third narrower one annexed at the base, and two other minute ones opposite to the other three. These five leaves are joined at the base; and in autumn, falling from the calyx, vegetate, and produce a new plant. See a dissertation *De feminebus muscorum*, *Amenit. Academ.* II. p. 261. In the island of Raafay, near Sky, in Ross-shire, and some other places, the inhabitants make use of this plant instead of alum, to fix the colours in dyeing. The Highlanders also sometimes take an infusion of it as an emetic and cathartic: but it operates violently; and, unless taken in a small dose, brings on giddiness and convulsions. Linnæus informs us, that the Swedes use a decoction of it to destroy lice on swine and other animals.

*LYCOPOLIS*, or *LYCON*, in ancient geography, so called from the worship of wolves, two towns of Egypt, viz. 1. in the Delta, or Lower Egypt, near the Mediterranean; 2. in the Thebais, or Higher Egypt, in the N. part, W. of the Nile.

*LYCOPOLITÆ*, the people of *LYCOPOLIS*.

*LYCOPOLITES*, a district of Egypt.

*LYCOPSIS*, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the pentandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 41st order, *Asperifolia*. The corolla has an incurved tube.

*LYCOPUS*, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the diandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 42d order, *Verticillata*. The corolla is quadrisid, with one of the segments emarginated; the stamens standing asunder, with 4 retuse seeds.

*LYCURGIA*, a festival observed by the Spartans, in memory of their lawgiver *LYCURGUS*, whom they honoured with a temple and anniversary sacrifice.

*LYCURGUS*, the celebrated legislator of the Spartans, was the son of Eunomes king of Sparta. He travelled to Greece, to the isle of Crete, to Egypt, and even to the Indies, to converse with the sages and learned men of those countries, and to learn their manners, their customs, and their laws. After the death of his brother Polydectes, king of Sparta, his widow offered the crown to Lycurgus, promising that she would make herself mistress of the child of which she was pregnant, provided he would marry her; but Lycurgus nobly refused her offers, and afterwards contenting himself with being tutor to his nephew Charillus, restored to him the government when he came of age; but notwithstanding this regular and generous conduct, he was accused of a design to usurp the crown. This calumny obliged him to retire to the island of Crete, where he studied the laws and customs of nations. On his return to Lacedæmon, he reformed the government; and, to prevent the disorders occasioned by luxury and the love of riches, he prohibited the use of gold and silver; placed all the citizens in a state of equality; and introduced the strictest temperance, the most exact discipline, and those admirable laws which (a few excepted) have been celebrated by all historians. It is said, that, to engage the Lacedæmonians to observe them inviolably, he made them swear not to change any part of them till his return; and that he afterwards went to the island of Crete, where he killed himself, after ordering his ashes to be thrown into the sea, lest, if his body should be carried to Sparta, the Lacedæmonians should think themselves absolved from their oath. He flourished about A. A. C. 870.

(1.) *LYCUS*, in ancient geography, a river of Phrygia, which disappears near Colossæ, and rises again about 4 stadia from it, after which it falls into the Mæander.

(2—5.) *LYCUS*, the name of other 4 rivers, in Armenia, Assyria, Paphlagonia, and Sarmatia.

*LYD*, or *LID*. See *LID*, N° 1.

*LYDD*, a town of England in Kent, 2½ miles SW. of Romney, of which town and port it is a member, and 71 miles from London. It is a populous town with a market on Thursday and fair on July 24th. It is incorporated by the name of a bailiff, elected 22d July, jurats, and commonalty. In the beach near Stone-end, is a heap of stones, fancied to be the tomb of Crispin and Crispianus. And near the sea is a place called *Holm-stone*, consisting of beach and pebble-stones, which abounds nevertheless with holm trees. Here is a charity school.

*LYDDA*, in ancient geography, a town and district of Judæa, 14 miles NE. of Joppa and 32 W. of Jerusalem, originally belonging to the *Ephraimites*.

phraimites, but afterwards to the Benjamites. In the time of the Maccabees it was taken from Samaria. It is famous for Peter's cure of Æneas; and for a college of the Jews, which produced many celebrated Rabbis.

LYDDON, a river of Dorsetshire which runs into the Stour, near Sturminster.

LYDGATE, John, called the *Monk of Bury*; not, as Cibber conjectures, because he was a native of that place, for he was born about 1380, in the village of Lydgate, but because he was a monk of the Benedictine convent at St Edmund's-Bury. After studying some time in the English universities, he travelled to France and Italy; and, having acquired a competent knowledge of the languages of those countries, he returned to London, where he opened a school, in which he instructed the sons of the nobility in polite literature. At what time he retired to the convent of St Edmund's-Bury, does not appear; but he was there in 1415, and was living in 1446, aged about 66; but when he died is not known. Pitts says, he was an elegant poet, a persuasive rhetorician, an expert mathematician, an acute philosopher, and a tolerable divine. He was a voluminous writer; and his language is less obsolete, and his versification much more harmonious, than those of Chaucer, who wrote about 50 years before him. He wrote, 1. History of the Theban war, printed at the end of Chaucer's works, 1561, 1602, 1687. 2. Praemiation of good counsel; *Ibid.* 3. The life of Hector; London 1594, fol. printed by Gros de dedicated to Henry V. 4. Life of the Blessed Virgin; printed by Caxton. 5. The proverbs of Lydgate upon the fall of princes; printed by Wink. Word. Lond. 4to. 6. Dispute of the horse, the sheep, and the goose, Caxton; 4to. 7. The temple of Truth; among the works of Chaucer. 8. London Tick-penny; see Stowe's history, &c. Besides an incredible number of other poems and translations preserved in various libraries, and of which the reader will find a catalogue in Bishop Tanner.

(1.) LYDIA, in ancient geography, a celebrated kingdom of Asia Minor.—All the ancient writers tell us, that Lydia was first called ΜΑΩΝΙΑ or ΜΕΩΝΙΑ, from Meon king of Phrygia and Lydia; and that it was known under no other denomination till the reign of Atys, when it began to be called *Lydia* from his son Lydus. Bochart finding in his learned collection of Phœnician words the verb *lud*, signifying *to wind*, and observing that Lydia is watered by the Mæander, so famous for its winding, concludes that it was thence named *Lydia* or *Ludia*. The ancient name Μεωνια, he takes to be a Greek translation of the Phœnician word *lud*; wherein he agrees in some measure with Stephanus, who derives the name of Μεωνια from *Meon*, the ancient name of the Mæander. Some take the word *meonia* to be a translation of a Hebrew word signifying *metal*, because that country, say they, was in former times enriched with mines. Though Lydia and Μεωνια are by most authors indifferently used for the same country, yet they are sometimes distinguished; that part where mount Tmolus stood, watered by the Pactolus, being properly called *Meonia*; and the other, lying on the coast, *Lydia*. This distinction is used by Homer, Callimachus,

Dionysius, and other ancient writers. In after ages, when the Ionians, who had planted a colony on the coast of the Ægean Sea, began to make some figure, that part was called *Ionis*, and the name of *Lydia* given to the ancient Μεωνια—Lydia, according to Pliny, Ptolemy, and other ancient geographers, was bounded by Mysia Major on the N. by Caria on the S. by Phrygia Major on the E. and Ionis on the W. lying between 39° and 39° Lat. N. The kingdom of Lydia was not confined within these narrow boundaries, but extended from Halys to the Ægean sea. Pliny's description includes *Æolia*, lying between the Helmus and the Caucasus.

(2.) LYDIA, HISTORY OF. Josephus, and after him all the ecclesiastical writers, derive the origin of the Lydians from Lud Shem's 4th son, from the similitude of the names. Some will have the Lydians to be a mixed colony of Phrygians, Moesians, and Carians. Others finding some conformity in religious ceremonies between the Egyptians and Tuscans who were a Lydian colony, conclude them to have been originally Egyptians. All we know for certain is, that the Lydians was a very ancient nation, as is manifest from their very fables; for Atys, Tantalus, Pelops, Niobe, and Arachne, are all said to have been the children of LYDUS. And Zaphus in his *Lydians*, quoted by Stephanus, informs us, that the ancient city of Alicalon, one of the five satrapies of the Philistines, mentioned in the books of Joshua and the Judges, was built by one Alicalon a Lydian, whom Achæmus king of Lydia had appointed to command a body of troops which he sent into Syria. The Heraclidæ, or kings of Lydia descended from Hercules, began to reign before the Trojan war; and had been preceded by a long series of sovereigns sprung from Atys, and hence styled *Atyadæ*: a strong proof of the antiquity of that kingdom. The Lydians began very early to be ruled by kings whose government seems to have been despotic and the crown hereditary. They had 3 distinct races of kings, viz. the *Atyadæ*, the *Heraclidæ*, and the *Mermnadæ*. The *Atyadæ* were so called from Atys the son of Cotys and grandson of Manes the first Lydian king. But the history of this family is obscure and fabulous. They were succeeded by the *HERACLIDÆ*, or descendants of Hercules. For Hercules being, by the direction of the oracle, sold as a slave to Omphale, queen of Lydia, and relict of K. Tmolus, to expiate the murder of Iphitus, had, during his captivity, by one of her slaves, a son named *Cleolus*, whose grandson Argon, was the first of the *Heraclidæ* that ascended the throne of Lydia. Others say, that Omphale herself, astonished at the valour of Hercules, fell in love with him, married him, and had two sons by him, named *Agelaus* and *Lamon*; the eldest of whom succeeded her, and gave rise to the new royal race. This race is said to have reigned 505 years, the son succeeding the father for 23 generations. They began to reign about the time of the Trojan war. The last of the family was *CANDAULES*, who was contemporary with Romulus, and who lost both his life and kingdom by his imprudence. For, according to Herodotus and Justin, he was so vain of his wife's beauty, that he



d her naked to Gyges, his favourite minister, which enraged the queen so much, that she red with, or rather ordered Gyges, to murder; which he accordingly did, while Canis was asleep, married the queen, and took possession of the kingdom, in which he was con- firmed by the oracle at Delphi. Gyges showed gratitude, by sending many rich presents to the oracle, particularly 6 cups of gold weighing talents. He made war on Miletus and Smyrna, Colophon, and subdued the whole coun- try of Troas. In his reign, and by his permission, the city of Abydos was built by the Milesians. Rich and other writers relate his accession to the crown in a different manner, and tell us, without mentioning the queen, that Gyges rebelled against Candaulus and slew him in an engagement. (See **GYGES**.) In Gyges began the 3d race called the **IONIAN**; who were also Heraclidæ, being descended from the other son of Hercules by Omphale.

Gyges reigned 38 years, and was suc- ceded by his son Ardyes, who carried on the war against the Milesians, and possessed himself of Sardis, in those days a strong city. In his reign the Lydians invaded and over-run all Asia Mi- nor. Herodotus informs us, that they even took the metropolis of Lydia, but could never enter the castle. Ardyes reigned 49 years, and was succeeded by his son Sadyattes, who reigned 23 years, and warred most part of his reign with the Milesians. To him succeeded his son Alyattes, who for 5 years continued the war against the Milesians, ravaging their country, and about the same time carrying away all their corn yearly, or to oblige them, for want of provisions, to surrender their city, which he could not receive any other way, the Milesians being then masters of the sea. In the 12th year of this war the Lydians having set fire to the corn in the field, the flames were carried by a violent wind, to the temple of Minerva at Apollonia, and burnt it to the ground. Not long after, Alyattes sent a deputation to consult the oracle at Delphos; but refused to return any answer till the king had rebuilt the temple of Minerva. Alyattes then sent ambassadors to Miletus, to conclude a peace with the Milesians till the temple should be rebuilt. On the arrival of the ambassadors, Alyattes commanded the corn in the city to be brought into the market-place, ordering the citizens to banquet in it, and revel as if the city were plentifully supplied with provisions, that the ambassadors might acquaint their master with their affairs, and divert him from pursuing the war. Alyattes had the desired effect, for Alyattes, hearing this account from his ambassadors, changed the war into a lasting peace, and ever after lived in friendship with Thrasybulus and the Milesians. He was succeeded, after a reign of 23 years, by his son Croesus, whose uninter- rupted prosperity, in the first years of his reign, reflected the glory of all his predecessors. He made war on the Ephesians, whose city he be- sieged and took, notwithstanding their consecra- tion to Diana, and fastening the walls by a rope

to her temple, which was 7 stadia distant from the city. After this he attacked the Ionians and Aeolians, obliging them, and all the other Greek states of Asia, to pay him a yearly tribute. Having met with such extraordinary success by land, he resolved to render his power equally conspicu- ous by sea; but was dissuaded from this enter- prise by Bias of Priene, or as others say by Pitta- cus of Mytilene. He therefore determined peace- ably to enjoy the laurels which he had won, and began now to consider himself as the happiest of men. (See **CROESUS**.) But his happiness was soon allayed by the death of his favourite son Atys, who was unfortunately killed at the chase of a wild boar. For this loss he continued discon- solate for two years and in a state of inaction, till the conquests of Cyrus, and growing power of the Persians again roused his martial spirit. He apprehended that the success, which attended Cyrus in all his undertakings, might at last prove dangerous to himself, and therefore resolved to put a stop, if possible, to his progress. In this resolution, he was encouraged by the oracle of Apollo at Delphi; to whom he sacrificed 3000 oxen, and adorned his shrine with dedications equally valuable for the workmanship and for the materials; precious vessels of silver, ewers of iron beautifully inlaid and enamelled; various orna- ments of pure gold, particularly a gold lion weighing ten talents, and a female figure 3 cubits or near 5 feet high. In return for these magni- ficent presents, the oracle, in ambiguous lan- guage, flattered Croesus with obtaining an easy victory over his enemies, and with enjoying a long life and a prosperous reign; enjoining him to contract an alliance with the most powerful of the Grecian states; and assuring him that *if he crossed the Helles, he would overthrow a great em- pire*, which he concluded to be that of Persia. Elevated with these favourable predictions, he formed an alliance with the Lacedæmonians, then the most powerful state in Greece; to whom he had formerly made a present of a large quantity of gold for a statue of Apollo, in return for which they now sent him a large brazen vessel capable of containing 300 amphoras (above 12 hogheads) elegantly carved. Croesus had formerly made an alliance with Amasis king of Egypt, and Lab- yntus or Balthazza, king of Babylon; and having now obtained the friendship of the most warlike nation of Europe, the newly raised power of Cy- rus and the Persians seemed incapable of resisting such a formidable confederacy. Elevated with these ideas, Croesus waited not to attack the Persian dominions until he had collected the strength of his allies. The impetuosity of his temper precipitated him into measures no less ruinous than daring. Attended only by the arms of Lydia, and a band of mercenaries, he marched toward the Helles; and having crossed it that deep and broad stream, entered Cappadocia, the western frontier of Media. That unfortunate country soon experienced all the calamities of invasion. The Persian plain, the most beautiful and the most fertile district of Cappadocia, was laid waste; the ports of the Helles, a wealthy and inland city, were plundered; and the inhabitants were either put to the sword or dragged into captivity.

Meanwhile, the approach of Cyrus afforded the Lydian king an opportunity of bringing the war to a speedy issue. Such was the rapidity of his movement, after being informed of the ravages of Cappadocia, that he arrived from the shores of the Caspian to those of the Euxine Sea before the army of Cræsus had provided necessaries for their journey. That prince, when apprised of the neighbourhood of the Persians, encamped on the Pterian plain; Cyrus likewise encamped at no great distance; and a general engagement was fought with equal fury and perseverance, and only terminated by the darkness of night. The loss on both sides hindered a renewal of the battle. The numbers, as well as the courage of the Persians, much exceeded the expectation of Cræsus. As they discovered no intention to harass his retreat, he determined to move back towards Sardis, to spend the winter in his palace, and after summoning his numerous allies to his standard, to take the field early in spring with such increase of force as seemed sufficient to overpower the Persians. But this design was defeated by the vigilance of Cyrus, who waited until Cræsus had re-entered his capital, and had disbanded the foreign mercenaries, who composed the most numerous division of his army. Cyrus then put his Persians in motion, and such was his celerity, that he brought the first news of his own arrival in the plain of Sardis. Cræsus's firmness was not shaken by this unforeseen danger; though his mercenaries were disbanded, his own subjects served him from attachment, had been long accustomed to victory, and were animated with a high sense of national honour. The Lydians in that age fought on horseback, armed with long spears; the strength of the Persians consisted in infantry. They were so little accustomed to the use of horses, that camels were almost the only animals which they employed as beasts of burden. As the troops on both sides approached to join battle, the Lydian cavalry, terrified at the unusual appearance of the camels, mounted with men in arms, were thrown into disorder, and endeavoured to escape. Cræsus, who perceived the confusion, was ready to despair of his fortune; but the Lydians, abandoning their horses, prepared with uncommon bravery to attack the enemy on foot. Their courage deserved a better fate; but unaccustomed to this mode of fighting, they were received and repelled by the Persian infantry, and obliged to take refuge in Sardis. The walls of that city bid defiance to the art of attack, then practised by the most warlike nations. If the Persian army should invest it, the Lydians had provisions for several years; and they expected that in a few months, or even weeks, they would receive such assistance from Egypt, Babylonia, and Sparta, as would oblige the Persians to raise the siege. The valour of the Spartans might have saved the sinking empire of Lydia, but before their argument could fail, Cræsus was no longer a sovereign. Notwithstanding the strength of Sardis, that city was taken by storm on the 20th day of the siege; the walls having been scaled in a quarter which, appearing altogether inaccessible, was too carelessly guarded. Hyreades a Mede accidentally observed a Lydian

centinel descend part of the rock to helmet. Hyreades, being accustomed to pass this rocky country, tried to pass this rock, and accomplished it. The bravest of his countrymen followed his example, and were in greater numbers of their countrymen. The king of Sardis was surpris'd; the city was taken; and the rich capital of Lower Lydia fell to the rapacity of an indignant victor. Lydia continued subject to the Persians till they were conquered by the Macedonians.—For the Lydian monarch, see **CRÆSUS**.

**LYDIAT**, Thomas, a learned Englishman, born in 1572, and educated at Oxford, in 1609, he became acquainted with Dr. James Ussher, afterwards Abp. of Armagh, who took him to Dublin college two years. He returned to England; and the rectory of Alkington becoming vacant, he was appointed to it; but at length, being engaged for a near relation, which he was unwilling before spent his patrimony in printing books, he was sent to prison; and at Oxford, in the King's Bench, until Sir William Boswell, a generous and learned man, Dr Robert Pink, was his college, Bp. Usher, and Dr Laud, discharged him. In the civil wars, he suffered the rectory of Alkington from the parliament was 4 times pillaged to the value of 1000*l*. and was forced for 3 months to borrow money to shift himself. He died in 1646. He wrote several pieces in English, and many works in Latin, concerning chronology and natural history.

**LYDIUS LAPIS**, in the natural history of the ancients, the touch-stone for trying silver, called by some *Heraclius lapis*, which names were also applied by the ancients to the load-stone; and hence has an ambiguity in their works, as Pliny has observed. The true *lapis Lydius*, or **TOUCHSTONE**, is anciently found only in the river Tmolus, afterwards found in many other places, and now very common in many of the mountains. The ancients give us very remarkable and circumstantial accounts of the uses of it; and it is plain they were able to separate the alloys of gold by means of it with great exactness. Several different stones are mentioned under this name, for this purpose. A green marble called *verdello*, is most commonly used; and with us, very frequently of the *basaltic*, the same with that which the ancients called the *Giant's Cauldron*. See **BASALTES**; **GIANT'S CAULDRON**; **ICELAND**, § 7; **STAFFA**; and **VOLCANO**. **LYE**, Edward, M. A. a learned Englishman, born at Totness in Devonshire, and died in 1769. He published, 1. *An Anglo-Gothic Dictionary*; in 2 vols fol. 1762: 2. *Mar of these languages: and other*

**LYGEUM**, in botany; a genus of the gymnia order, belonging to the triandria class; and in the natural method ranked under the fourth order, *Gramina*. The spath

ylous; there are a pair of corollæ upon the germen; the nut is bilocular.

**LYGII**, **LIGII**, **LUGII**, or *Logiones*, in ancient geography, a people of Germany, W. of the Vistula, where it forms a bend like a crescent. (*Strabo, Zofimus.*) Their name *Lugii* is derived from their close confederacy. The Vistula was their boundary on the N., E., and S. Mount Asciburgius on the W. The whole of that country now lies in Poland, on this side Vistula.

**LYGUM**, a town of Denmark, in Sleswick.

(1.) \* **LYING**. *participial noun*, from *lie*, when it signifies to be recumbent, or to speak falsely, otherwise.—They will have me whipt for speaking true, thou wilt have me whipt for lying, and sometimes I am whipt for holding my peace. *Sbak.* Many tears and temptations beset me by the way in wait of the Jews. *AB.*, xx. 19.

(2.) **LYING IN**. See **MIDWIFERY**.

(3.) **LYING TO**, or **LYING BY**, the situation of a ship when she is retarded in her course, by arranging the sails in such a manner as to counteract each other with nearly an equal effort, and render the ship almost immoveable, with respect to her progressive motion, or head way. A ship is usually brought to by the main and fore top-sails, one of which is laid aback, whilst the other is set, so that the latter pushes the ship forward, and the former resists this impulse by forcing her stern. This is particularly practised in a general engagement, when the hostile fleets are drawn up in two lines of battle opposite each other. It is also used to wait for some other ship, to avoid approaching or expected; or to avoid pursuing a dangerous course, especially in dark or stormy weather, &c.

**LYKE**. *adj.* for *like*. *Spenser.*

**LYL**. See **LILLY**, N° 1.

(1.) **LYME**, a river of England, which runs between Dorset and Devon shires, into the Sea near Lyme Regis. See N° 2.

(2.) **LYME**, or **LYME**, a sea port town of England, in Dorsetshire, near the sea, on the western side of Devonshire, in a cavity between two hills, which makes it difficult of access. It is about 5 furlongs long, and contains about 200 houses. As it lies on the declivity of a hill, the houses make a good appearance; some of them are built of free stone, and covered with blue slate.

The corporation consists of a mayor, (who is just sworn to peace during his mayoralty and 2 years after), a recorder, 15 burgeses, and a town clerk. This place had formerly a very flourishing trade with France, Spain, the Straits, Newfoundland, and the West Indies; during which, the customs amounted in some years to 16,000 l. But it stands upon such a high steep rock, that the merchants are obliged to load and unload their goods at a place about a quarter of a mile off, called the *Cobb*, originally built in the reign of Edward III. which costs a great sum to maintain, but forms such a harbour which perhaps is not to be equalled in the world, the place being sheltered by a high thick stone wall, and in the main sea a good way from the shore, and deep enough for carriages and ware-houses, the custom-house officers have one upon it. The cellars of the low part of the town, near the

**Vol. XIII. PART II.**

sea, are however often overflowed by the spring tides 10 or 12 feet. There are guns planted for defence of the Cobb and the town. The custom-house stands on pillars, with the corn-market under it. There are an alms-house, a Presbyterian and an Anabaptist meeting-house. The church stands at the east end of the town on a rising ground. The market is on Friday, and there are two fairs. In 774, the Saxon king Kinwulf gave land hereabouts to the church of Sherborn, for boiling of salt. At this place the duke of Monmouth landed in 1685. A few years ago above 2000 l. worth of gold and silver coins of Charles I. and II. were discovered by some labourers. It is 28 miles E. by S. of Exeter, and 143 WSW. of London. Lon. 2. 56. W. Lat. 50. 39. N.

**LYMINGTON**, a borough of Hampshire, about a mile from the channel, between the main land and the isle of Wight; with a harbour for vessels of considerable burden. The tide flows near a mile above the town. It has a market on Saturday, and two fairs; and sends two members to parliament. It is 17 miles SW. of Southampton, and 97 of London. Lon. 1. 33. W. Lat. 50. 43. N.

(1.) \* **LYMPH**. *n. f.* [*lymphe*, Fr. *lympba*, Lat.] Water; transparent colourless liquor.—When the chyle passeth through the mesentery, it is mixed with the *lymph*, the most spirituous and elaborated part of the blood. *Arbutnot.*

(2.) **LYMPH** is separated in the body from the mass of blood, and contained in peculiar vessels called *lymphatics*. See **ANATOMY**, § 333; and **BLOOD**, § 7.

\* **LYMPHATED**. *adj.* [*lymphatus*, Lat.] *Mad. Dist.*

**LYMPHATI**, a name given by the Romans to such as were seized with madness; supposed to be used for **NYMPHATI**, because the ancients imagined that every person who had the misfortune to see a nymph was instantly struck with phrenzy. *Lymphati* may indeed signify *madmen*, as derived from *lympba*, water, over which element the nymphs were thought to preside. But it appears most likely, that distracted people were called *lymphati*, from the circumstance of madmen being affected with the *hydrophobia* or dread of water after the bite of a mad dog; for this peculiarity, in cases of canine madness, was not unknown to the Romans.

(1.) \* **LYMPHATIC**. *n. f.* [*lymphatique*, Fr. from *lympba*, Lat.] The *lymphatics* are slender pellucid tubes, whose cavities are contracted at small and unequal distances; they are carried into the glands of the mesentery, receiving first a fine thin lymph from the *lymphatic* ducts, which dilutes the chylous fluid. *Cbeyn's Phil. Principles.*—Upon the death of an animal, the spirits may sink into the veins, or *lymphatics*, and glandules. *Floyer.*

(2.) **LYMPHATIC VESSELS**. See **ANATOMY**, *Ind.*

\* **LYMPHEDUCT**. *n. f.* [*lymphica* and *ductus*, Lat.] A vessel which conveys the lymph.—

The glands,  
All artful knots, of various hollow threads,  
Which *lymph ducts*, an art'ry, nerve, and vein,  
Involv'd and close together wound, contain.

*Blackmore.*

(1.) **LYNCEUS**, in fabulous history, the only

of Ægyptus who was saved by the 50 daughters of Danaus and DANAEUS. This is the son of Aphareus, one of the gods of great use, by enabling him to sink banks and rocks in their way, that he had so piercing a power, that it only penetrates the earth, and not the sea, but even to hell. This fable is taken from Lyncurium the stars, and discovering silver concealed in the earth. It is found in S. Carolina, 11 miles S. of

ARG, a town of Virginia, in Bedford county. It was a printing office, a weekly gazette, and several mills. It is 150 miles W. by N. of Richmond.

LYNCURIUM, a stone thought to be the same with the TOURMALIN. The name is derived from *lynx*, and *urine*. See ELECTRICITY, *Index*, under TOURMALIN.

LYNCURIUS LAPIS, a stone capable of producing mushrooms. In the *Ephemerides of the Curious* mention is made of a stone so called by Dr John George Wolckamerus, who saw one in Italy, which never ceases to produce in a few days mushrooms of an excellent flavour by the most simple and easy process imaginable. "It is (says he) of the bigness of an ox's head, rough and uneven on its surface, and on which also are perceived some clefts and crevices. It is black in some parts, and in others of a lighter and greyish colour. Internally it is porous, and nearly of the nature of the pumice stone, but much heavier; and it contains a small piece of flint, which is so incorporated with it as to appear to have been formed at the same time the stone itself received its form. This gives room to judge, that those stones have been produced by a fat and viscid juice, which has the property of indurating whatever matter it filtrates into. The stone, when slightly covered with earth, and sprinkled with warm water, produces mushrooms of an exquisite flavour, which are usually round, sometimes oval, and whose borders, by their inflexions and different curvities, represent in some measure human ears. The principal colour of these mushrooms is sometimes yellowish, and sometimes of a bright purple; but they are always distinguished with different spots of a deep orange colour, or red brown; and when these spots are recent, and still in full bloom, they produce a very agreeable effect to the sight. But what appears admirable is, that the part of the stalk which remains adhering to the stone, when the mushroom has been separated from it, grows gradually hard, and petrifies in time; so that it seems that this stinging retters to the stone the nutritive juice it received from it, and that it thus contributes to its increase." John Baptist Porta says, that this stone is found in several parts of Italy; and that it is not only to be met with at Naples, taken out of mount Vesuvius, but also on mount Pantherus, in the principality of Arellino; on mount Garganus, in Apulia; and on the summit of some other high mountains. He adds, that the mushrooms which grow on those sorts of stones, and are usually called fungi

*lyncurii*, have the property of dissolving and melting the stone of the kidneys and bladder that, for this purpose, nothing more is than to dry them in the shade, and being reduced to powder, to make the patient, fasting sufficient quantity of this powder in a white wine, which will cleanse the excretory of the urine, that no stones will ever afterwards lodge in them. As to the form of the stones, their root is stony, uneven, dividing into its longitudinal direction, and consisting of fibres as fine as hairs, interwoven one with another. Their form, on first shooting out, resembles a small bladder, scarce larger than the end of a vine; and if in this state they are squeezed between the fingers, an aqueous subacid liquor comes out. When at their full growth, they are of a finger's length, larger at top than at bottom, and becomes insensibly slenderer in proportion as it is nearer the earth. These mushrooms are formed in an umbella, and variegated with infinity of little specks situated very near the surface. They are smooth and even on the top part, but underneath leafy like the common mushrooms. Their taste is likewise very agreeable, and the sick are not debarred from eating them when dressed in a proper manner. Some philosophers and physicians submitted these stones to chemical analysis, in order to be more fully acquainted with the judges of the uses they might be put to; when there first came forth, by distillation, an insipid water, and afterwards a spirit. The retort having been heated to a certain degree there arose an oil, which had nearly the taste of that of guaiacum; and a very acrid matter extracted from the ashes.

(1.) \* LYNDEN TREE. *n. f.* (*Silia*), a plant.

(2.) LYNDEN TREE. See TILIA.

(1.) LYNE, a river of Scotland, in the shire, which runs into the Tweed at Lincolnton.

(2.) LYNE, a village in Peebles-shire, in the flux of the Lyne and the Tweed, 3 m. from Peebles.

(3.) LYNE, a river of England, which runs into the Trent, near Nottingham.

(1.) LYNN, a maritime town of Massachussetts in Essex county, 15 miles NE. of Boston, famous for the largest manufactory of shoes in the States; 200,000 pairs being annually made.

(2.) LYNN, a river of England, which runs into the Ouse at Lynn Regis.

(1.) LYNS, or LYNS REGIS, a large well built town in the county of Norfolk, which sends 12 members to parliament. It was a borough by prescription in 1298. King John, on account of his hereditary enmity to him against the barons, made it a borough, with extensive privileges; and gave him a silver cup of 73 oz. doubly gilt and enamelled, and a large silver sword, that is carried by the mayor; though some say, this last is the sword which he gave to the town by exchange with the bishop of Norwich, which it was called *Lynn Regis* or *Regis*, the head of *Bishop's Lynn*. Henry III. made it a town for serving him against the barons, and had 15 royal charters; and is governed by a mayor, 2 stewards, recorder, 12 aldermen,

council men. It has tv o churches, be- nicholas's chapel; a prebysterian and a ceting-house, with a bridewell, several , and a free school. In Sept. 1741 the both its churches were blown down by nd that of St Margaret, which was 193 having beat down the church, it was ward which king George II. gave 1000. obert Walpole, 5ool. This church was n abbey. The town-house, called *Tri-* nd the exchange are noble fabrics. The has a bell-tower of free-stone, and an spire over it, 170 feet from the ground. library in it, and another at St Marga- : Grey-friars steeple is a noted sea-mark- ion of this town, near the mouth of the it a commercial communication with ; by which Peterborough, Ely, Stam- ord, Huntingdon, Northampton, Cam- Edmundsbury, the N. part of Bucks, and parts of Norfolk and Suffolk, are sup- heavy goods. Of coals and wine, this is a port for importation of any place on coast of England. In return Lynn re- the corn exported from these counties, more of it abroad than any port except foreign trade is great, to Holland, Nor- Baltic, Spain, and Portugal. The har- fe, but difficult to enter by reason of and shoals in the passage; but good always ready. The town consists of a- houses; and appears to have been an- y strong from its ruins. St Ann's plat- e N. end has 12 great guns, and com- the ships passing near the harbour; and e land there are a wall and a ditch. Four through the town; and the tide of the ch is about as broad as the Thames at idge, rises 20 feet perpendicular. In the ct-place a statue was erected in 1686 l. In another market place is a statue l III. and a fine cross with a dome and ported by 16 pillars. The market free-stone, supported by 16 columns; feet high, erected on 4 steps, neatly a- th statues, &c. On the 1st Monday of nth, the mayor, aldermen, preachers, o settle all matters amicably, and pre- nits. This was established in 1588, and *be Feast of Reconciliation*. The markets ef. and Sat. and there are 2 fairs; one Feb. 14, lasts 14 days, and is called *Lynn* other is a cheese fair on Oct. 6. Du- vil wars this town hold out for Charles ined a siege by 18,000 men for above nt was obliged to surrender, and to pay d for every inhabitant, and a month's : soldiers, to save it from plunder. It o much with provisions, that Spelman es and Bacchus seem to have establish- gazines at it." The king's quay, where ed wines are chiefly landed, is a hand- re, with brick buildings, and a statue s I. in the centre. Lynn Regis lies 44 . of Cambridge, and 106 N. of London.

. E. Lat. 52. 45. N.

(NX. *n. f.*; Latin.) A spotted beast, re- or speed and sharp sight.—He that has

an idea of a beast with spots, has but a confused idea of a leopard, it not being thereby sufficiently distinguished from a *lynx*. *Locke*.—

What modes of light betwixt each wide ex-  
treme,

The moles's dim curtain, and the *lynx's* beam.

*Pope*.

(2.) LYNX. See FELIS, N<sup>o</sup> XI.—XII.

LYCENA, a strong town of Algiers.

(1.) LYON, a river of Perthshire, which rises from Loch Lyon, runs through Fortingal, and falls into the Tay, 2 miles ENE of Kenmore.

(2.) LYON, a town of N. Carolina, 4 miles ESE. of Fayetteville.

(3.) LYON KING OF ARMS, FOR SCOTLAND, is the 2d King at arms for Great Britain. He is invested and crowned with great solemnity; and to him belongs the publishing royal proclamations, marshalling funerals, reversing arms, &c. This office is of great antiquity and respect in Scotland; and although the precise time of its institution is unknown, yet it must have been as early as the introduction of armorial figures as hereditary marks of gentility and distinction into this country, which was in the 12th century. His regalia are, a crown of gold, with a crimson velvet cap, a gold tassel, and an ermine lining; a velvet robe reaching to his feet, with the arms of the kingdom embroidered thereon before and behind in the proper tinctures; a triple row of gold chain round his neck, with an oval gold medal pendent there- to, on one side of which is the royal bearing, and on the other St Andrew with his cross enamelled in proper colours, and a baton of gold enamelled green, powdered with the badges of the kingdom. The Lord Lyon's rank is superior to that of any other king of arms, as he holds his office immediately from the sovereign, by commission under the great seal; whereas the kings of arms in England are deputies to the Earl Marshal, and act under his authority. Formerly Scotland was divided into two provinces, the one on the N. and the other on the S. side of the Forth; and these provinces were under the management of two deputies appointed by the Lord Lyon to superintend the execution of all the business of his office. Before the revolution, the Lord Lyon, at his admission into office, was solemnly crowned by the sovereign or his commissioner, in presence of the nobility, the officers of state, and other great men, after a suitable sermon preached in the royal chapel; and his crown was of the same form with the imperial crown of the kingdom. On solemn occasions he wears the regalia above described; at all other times, he wears the oval gold medal or badge on his breast, suspended by a broad green ribbon. He has the absolute disposal of all the offices in his own court, and of the heralds and pursuivants places. The messengers at arms throughout Scotland are also created by him, and are amenable to his jurisdiction. And the powers vested in him by his commission are the same with those of the sovereign in all matters relative to the marks of gentility. See LAW, PART III; Chap. I; Sect. III, § 16.

LYONESE, the inhabitants of LYONS.

LYONET, Peter, F. R. S. &c. an ingenious na- turalist, born at Maastricht, and descended from

of candidate in divinity, he studied law, with such success, that he was promoted at the end of the first year. At the Hague, he studied the art of decyphering; and became secretary of the cyphers, translator of the Latin and French languages, and patent master, to their High Mightinesses. Meanwhile he undertook an historical description of such insects as are found about the Hague; collected materials for several volumes; and having invented a method of drawing adapted thereto, he enriched this work with a great number of plates, universally admired by all who had seen them. In 1742 was printed at the Hague a French translation of a German work, *the Theology of Insects*, by Mr Lefser. Mr Lyonet having deferred the publication of his work, made some observations on that of Lefser, to which he added two beautiful plates, engraved from his designs, which made his merit universally known. The celebrated Reaumur had Lefser's translation reprinted at Paris, chiefly on account of Mr Lyonet's observations; on which he bestowed the highest encomiums. Lyonet afterwards executed drawings of the fresh-water polypus for Mr Trembley's beautiful work, 1744. The ingenious Wandelaar had engraved the first five plates; when Lyonet, who had never seen this operation, having experienced difficulties in getting the remaining 8 finished in the superior style he wished, resolved to perform the task himself. He accordingly took a lesson of an hour from Mr Wandelaar, engraved 3 or 4 small plates, and immediately began upon the work itself; which he performed in such a manner as procured the highest praise, both from Mr Trembley and the celebrated Van Gool; who declared that the performance astonished the most experienced artists. In 1748 he was chosen F. R. S. of London. In

560 articles; among which are many of the first Dutch masters. He also wrote pieces of Dutch poetry. He died of inflammation in his breast, at the Hague, in aged 83, leaving a most estimable character.

LYONNOIS, a large ci-devant province of France, now included in the dep. of Loire. It was bounded on the N. by E. by Dauphiny, Bresse, and the province of Dombes; S. by Vivarais and Velay; and Auvergne and a part of Bourbonnois comprehended Lower Lyonnais, Beau Forez. It produces corn, wine, fruit, excellent chestnuts. The principal rivers are Soane, Rhone, and Loire. Lyons was

(1.) LYONS, a large, rich, ancient town of France, capital of the province of Rhone and Loire. It has an academy of sciences and belles lettres, and an academy of sciences. It is seated in the centre at the conflux of the Rhone and Saone. On the N. side of it are two high mountains; and the town of St Sebastian serves as a bulwark against N. winds, which often blow with great violence. It contains about 160,000 inhabitants. The houses, in general, are high and well built. It has 6 gates, and as many suburbs. The cathedral, the arsenal, the amphitheatre built by the ancient Romans, the hospital, the cathedral, the numerous palaces, are worthy of a particular attention. It is a place of great trade, extended not only through France, but into Switzerland, and Spain; and it has 4 fairs, which are well frequented. It was founded by L. Manutius Plancus, and peopled by the Burgundians, about 10 years B. C. In the 5th century, it was taken by the Burgundians, but was recovered by the sons of Clovis. In 1792, an

LYONS, a town of N. York in Ontario co.  
 4) LYONS, Israel, an eminent botanist and  
 mathematician, the son of a learned Polish Jew,  
 was a Jeweller, and published a Hebrew  
 grammar, and observations on Scripture History.  
 He was born at Cambridge in 1739. In 1758,  
 he published a Treatise on Fluxions: in 1763,  
*Observations on the plants which grow in the  
 neighbourhood of Cambridge*. He gave several  
 public lectures at Oxford; and in 1773, accom-  
 panied Capt Phipps, (afterwards Lord Mulgrave,)  
 to the North pole, by order of the Board of Lon-  
 don, who rewarded several of his inventions.  
 He received a salary of 100 l. a-year, for calculating  
 the *Nautical Almanack*. He married, and died  
 in London in 1775.

PEZE, or LIPCH, a county of Hungary,  
 its capital, seated on the Gran; 5 m. above  
 Cz.

LYRA, in astronomy, a constellation in  
 the northern hemisphere. See ASTRONOMY, §

LYRA, in ichthyology. See CALLIONIMUS  
 N° 3.

LYRE. *n. f.* [*lyre*, Fr. *lyra*, Lat.] A harp;  
 a musical instrument to which poetry is, by poets  
 and writers, supposed to be sung.—  
 With other notes than to th' Orphean lyre.

Milton.

My softest verse, my darling lyre,  
 on Euphelia's toilet lay.  
 never touched his lyre in such a truly chro-  
 nic manner as upon that occasion. *Arbutnot.*

The LYRE, was an instrument of the string-  
 ed, much used by the ancients.

LYRE, INVENTION AND IMPROVEMENTS  
 12. All ancient authors agree that the Lyre  
 was invented by Mercury; but they differ much  
 respecting the number of strings with which it  
 was furnished. Some assert it was only 3; that  
 the 2d and 4th were acute, and the 3d was an  
 intermediate one a mean between

Others assert that the lyre had 4 strings;  
 that the 2d was a fourth from the first,  
 and the 4th the same distance from the 3d,  
 and the 3d was a tone. Others

assert that the lyre of Mercury had 7 strings.  
 Ptolemy, a follower of Pythagoras, says,  
 that the lyre made of the shell was invented by Mer-  
 cury, and the knowledge of it, as it was trans-  
 mitted to Orpheus, was transmitted to Orpheus  
 by Hermes, who taught the use of it to Thamyris and  
 Amphion the Theban, who built the Lyres of  
 Thebes to the 7 strings of the lyre.

That Orpheus was afterwards killed  
 by Thracian women; that they cast his lyre  
 into the sea, which was afterwards thrown up at  
 Lesbos, a city of Lesbos; that certain fishers  
 found it, they brought it to Terpander, who  
 carried it to Egypt, exquisitely improved, and  
 presented it to the Egyptian priests, as a  
 sacrifice to the honour of their deity. The dis-  
 agreement among authors seems to have arisen from  
 confounding together the Egyptian and the  
 Grecian Mercuries. The invention of the  
 lyre with 3 strings was due to the first  
 Mercurius. The lyre attributed to the

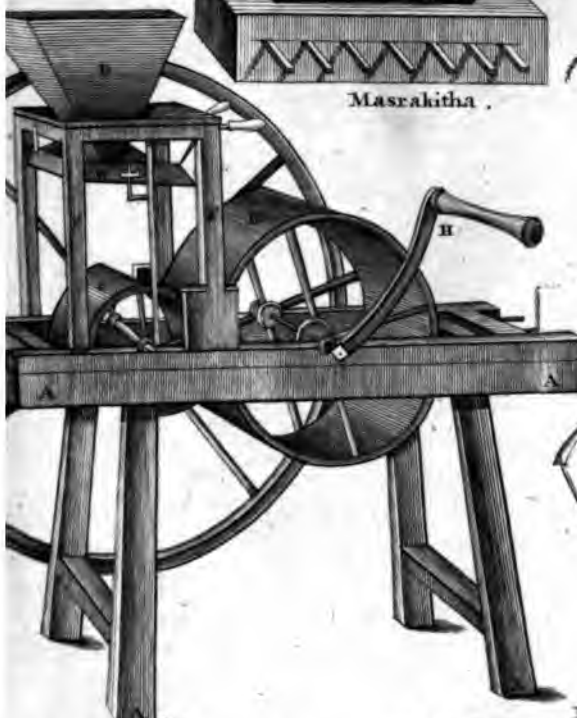
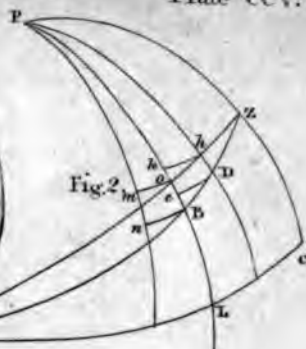
Grecian Mercury is described by almost all the  
 poets to be an instrument of 7 strings. (See MER-  
 CURY.) Vincent Galili has collected the vari-  
 ous opinions of the Greek writers, who have men-  
 tioned the invention of the chelys or testudo;  
 and Mr Spence has done the same in a very cir-  
 cumstantial but ludicrous manner. The sub-  
 stance of the legend he quotes, is "that Mer-  
 cury, after stealing some bulls from Apollo, retired  
 to a grotto, at the foot of a mountain in Arca-  
 dia; found a tortoise feeding at the entrance,  
 killed and eat the flesh of it; and as he was di-  
 verting himself with the shell, observed the noise  
 it gave from its concave figure; on which he cut  
 several thongs out of the hides he had stolen,  
 fastened them as tight as he could to the shell,  
 and, thus invented a new kind of music with  
 them." The most ancient representations of this  
 instrument agree very well with this account of  
 its invention: the lyre, on the old celestial globes,  
 was represented as made of one entire shell of a  
 tortoise; and that of Amphion in the celebrated  
 group of the Dirce or Toro, in the Farnese pa-  
 lace at Rome, which is of Greek sculpture, and  
 very high antiquity, is figured in this manner.  
 There have, however, been many other claimants  
 to the seven-stringed lyre. For though Mercury  
 invented this instrument, Homer says, he after-  
 wards gave it to Apollo, (who was the first that  
 played upon it with method, and accompanied it  
 with poetry,) as a peace-offering for the oxen he  
 had stolen from him. Diodorus informs us, that  
 Apollo, repenting of the cruelty with which he  
 had treated Mariyas, (see MARSYAS,) broke the  
 strings of the lyre, and put a stop for a time to  
 any further progress in the practice of that new  
 instrument. "The Muses (adds he) afterwards  
 added to this instrument the string called *mesé*;  
 Linus, that of *lichanos*; and Orpheus and Tha-  
 myras, those strings which are named *hypate* and  
*parhypate*. Many ancient authors tell us, that,  
 before the time of Terpander, the Grecian lyre  
 had only 4 strings. Suidas says, it remained in  
 this state 856 years, from the time of Amphion,  
 till Terpander added to it 3 new strings, which  
 extended the musical scale to a heptachord, and  
 supplied the player with two conjoint tetrachords.  
 About 150 years after this, Pythagoras added an  
 8th string to the lyre, to complete the octave,  
 which consisted of two disjoint tetrachords. Boe-  
 thius tells us, that the system did not long re-  
 main in such narrow limits as a tetrachord.  
 Choraëbus, the son of Atys, king of Lydia, ad-  
 ded a 5th string; Hyagnis, a 6th; Terpander, a  
 7th; and Lycaon of Samos, an 8th. But all these  
 accounts are irreconcilable with Homer's hymn  
 to Mercury, where the chelys, or testudo, the  
 invention of which he ascribes to that god, is said  
 to have had 7 strings. There are many claimants  
 among the musicians of ancient Greece to the  
 strings that were afterwards added to these, by  
 which the scale, in the time of Aristoxenus, was  
 extended to two octaves. Athenæus speaks of  
 the *nine-stringed* instrument; and Ion of Chios, a  
 tragic and lyric poet, who recited his pieces in  
 the 82d olympiad, 452 B. C. mentions, in some  
 verses quoted by Euclid, the *ten-stringed* lyre; a  
 proof that the 3d conjoint tetrachord was added.

te, which was about 50 years  
fracted the octachord. The  
the same musical discoveries  
sic was cultivated in different  
the inhabitants of each im-  
ow, instruments, some of which  
... of those of other parts of  
ns to attribute the same in-  
t persons. Thus the single  
Minerva and to Mariyas; the  
to Pan and to Cybele; and the  
lyre or  
Linc  
Orpheus.

(4) ...S, VARIOUS FORMS OF. With respect  
to the form of the ancient lyre, as little agreement  
is to be found among authors as about the number  
of strings. The best evidences concerning it are the  
representations of that instrument in the hands of  
ancient statues, bas-reliefs, &c. *Plate CCIV. Fig. 1.*  
is a representation of the *TESTUDO*, or lyre of  
*phion*, in front, as it appears, on the  
celebrated *Toro Farnese* at Rome  
able work, consisting of 4 figur  
life, besides the *toro* or bull, w  
Callia's baths, where the *Farnese*  
discovered: and, except the *Laocoon*, is the  
piece of Greek sculpture mentioned by Pliny  
is now remaining. The two projections near the  
bottom seem to have been fastenings for the  
strings, and to have answered the purpose of tail-  
pieces in modern instruments. *Fig. 2.* The lyre  
held by *Terpsichore*, in the picture of that *Muse*,  
dug out of *Herculanum*. *Fig. 3.* The *Abyssin-  
ian testudo*, or lyre, used at present in the pro-  
vince of *Tigre*, from a drawing of *Mr Bruce*, com-  
municated to *Dr Burney*. "This instrument  
(*lyre*) has sometimes 5, sometimes 6, but most  
frequently 7 strings, made of the thongs of raw  
sheep or goat skins, cut extremely fine, and twist-  
ed: they rot soon, are very subject to break in dry  
weather, and have scarce any sound in wet. From  
the idea, however, of this instrument being to ac-  
company and sustain a voice, one would think  
it was better mounted than formerly. The *A-  
byssinians* have a tradition, that the *sistrum*, *lyre*,  
and *tambourine*, were brought from *Egypt* into  
*Ethiopia*, by *Thoth*, in the very first ages of the  
world. The *flute*, *kettle-drum*, and *trumpet*, they  
say, were brought from *Palestine*, with *Menelek*,  
the son of their queen of *Seba* by *Solomon*, who  
was their first *Jewish* king. The lyre in *Ambaric*  
is called *beg*, the *sheep*; in *Ethiopic*, it is called  
*mesako*; the verb *shako* signifies to strike strings  
with the fingers: no *plectrum* is ever used in *A-  
byssinia*; so that *mesako*, being literally inter-  
preted, will signify the 'stringed instrument  
played upon with the fingers.' The sides, which  
constitute the frame of the lyre, were anciently  
composed of the horns of an animal of the goat  
kind, called *agazam*, about the size of a small cow,  
and common in the province of *Tigre*. I have  
seen several of these instruments very elegantly  
made of such horns, which nature seems to have  
shaped on purpose. Some of the horns of an *A-  
frican* species of this animal may be seen in *M.  
Buffon's* history of the King of France's cabinet.  
They are bent, and less regular than the *Abyssin-  
ian*; but after the *mus* became common in the

province of *Tigre*, and the woods were  
this animal being more scarce, the *lyre*  
made of a light red wood; however, it  
cut into a spiral twisted form, in imita-  
ancient materials of which the lyre was  
The drawing I send you was one of the  
ments made of wood. The lyre is gen-  
3 feet to 3 feet 6 inches high; that is  
drawn through the point of the lower  
horns, to the lower part of the base of  
ing board. It is exceedingly light, and  
riage, as an instrument should natural  
rugged and mountainous a country.  
consider the parts which compose the  
cannot deny it the earliest antiquity.  
first state was a hunter and a fisher, and  
instrument was that which partakes in  
state. The lyre, composed of two princ-  
owes the one to the horns of an animal  
to the shell of a fish." See *HARP*, §  
4. *An Etruscan lyre*, with 7 strings, in the  
of *Etruscan*, *Greek*, and *Roman* antiq  
lified from the cabinet of *Sir William*  
*Vol. I. Naples 1766. Pl. cix.* Though  
upon which it is represented is of suc-  
able and remote antiquity, the tail pie-  
belly, and sound holes, have a very re-  
pearance, and manifest a knowledge of  
struction of musical instruments, among  
cans, superior to that of the *Greeks* at  
in much later times. The lower part  
strument has much the appearance of a  
viol, and displays more than the emb-  
whole violin family. The strings lie  
intended to be played on with a bow;  
the cross lines on the tail piece are  
frequently seen on the tail pieces of old  
*The Tripodian lyre* of *Pythagoras* the *Z-*  
from a bas-relief in the *Massei* palace at  
presenting the whole choir of the *Mu-*  
*neus* gives the following account of the  
dinary instrument, *lib. xiv. cap. 15. p. 63*:  
ancient instruments are recorded (says  
of which we have so little knowledge  
can hardly be certain of their existence  
the tripod of *Pythagoras* the *Zacynthi-*  
on account of its difficulty, continued  
a short time. It resembled in form the  
tripod, whence its name. The legs were  
tant, and fixed upon a moveable base  
turned by the foot of the player; the feet  
placed between the legs of the stool; the  
the top served for a sound board, and the  
the 3 sides of the instrument were tuned  
ferent modes, the *Doric*, *Lydian*, and  
The performer sat on a chair made on  
striking the strings with the fingers of the  
and using the *plectrum* with the right, at  
time turning the instrument with his foot  
ever of the 3 modes he pleased: so that  
practice he was enabled to change the *mus*  
such velocity, that those who did not  
imagined they heard 3 different perform-  
ing in 3 different modes. After the death  
admirable musician, no other instrument  
same kind was ever constructed." *Fig.*  
*CCV.* represents a lyre in the famous anti-  
ture dug out of *Herculanum*, upon wh





M. Tetradaetyla or Long-tailed.

MANIS OF Scaly Lizard  
Manis Pentadaetyla or short-tailed.



is teaching young Achilles to play. See IRON.

**LYRICAL.** } *adj.* [*Lyricus*, Lat. *lyrique*, Fr.]  
 (1.) \* **LYRICK.** } Pertaining to an harp, or to  
 es or poetry sung to an harp; singing to an  
 P.—

All his trophies hung and acts enroll'd  
 In copious legend, or sweet *lyrick* song. *Milt.*  
 Somewhat of the purity of English, somewhat  
 more equal thoughts, somewhat of sweetness  
 he numbers; in one word, somewhat of a finer  
 n, and more *lyrical* verse, is yet wanting.  
*Pden.*—

The lute neglected, and the *lyrick* muse. *Pope.*  
 2.) \* **LYRICK.** *n. f.* A poet who writes songs  
 the harp.—The greatest conqueror in this na-  
 t, after the manner of the old Grecian *lyricks*,  
 not only compose the words of his divine  
 s, but set them to music himself. *Addison.*

3.) **LYRIC POETRY**, such as the ancients sung  
 the lyre or harp.—It was originally employed  
 celebrating the praises of gods and heroes, and  
 characteristic was sweetness. Who was the  
 or of it is not known. It was much culti-  
 ed by the Greeks; and Horace was the first  
 attempted it in the Latin language. Ana-  
 n, Alcæus, Sthenichorus, Sappho, and Horace,  
 = the most celebrated lyric poets of antiquity.

**LYRIST.** *n. f.* [*lyristes*, Latin.] A musician  
 plays upon the harp.—

His tender theme the charming *lyrist* chose  
 Enerva's anger, and the direful woes  
 Which voyaging from Troy the victors bore.

*Pope.*  
**LYRODI**, among the ancients, musicians who  
 ed on the lyre and sung at the same time.  
 s appellation was also given to such as made  
 their employment to sing lyric poems com-  
 ed by others.

LYS, or LIS, a river of France, which rises  
 Lisburg, in the dep. of the Straits of Calais,  
 by Aire, St Venant, Armentieres, Comines,  
 and runs into the Scheldt at Ghent.

LYS, a department of the French republic,  
 comprehending part of the ci-devant prov. of  
 Flandres. Bruges is the capital.

LYS, or LIS. See LIS, N° 1.

LYS, a measure used by the Chinese in es-  
 timating distances: 200 lys make 60 geographical  
 or one degree.

LYSANDER, a famous Spartan general,  
 conquered the Athenians at ÆGOSPOTA-  
 and subjected their city to 30 tyrants. See  
 CA, § 13, 14; and SPARTA.

LYSANDER, a military township of New  
 in Onondago county, comprehending the  
 of Hannibal and Cicero; 16 miles SE. of lake  
 Erie.

LYSANDRIA, a Samian festival, celebrated  
 games and sacrifices in honour of the Lace-  
 dæmonian general Lysander. It was anciently cal-  
 led *Lyria*: but this name the Samians abolished  
 public decree.

LYSIARCHI, *n. f.* an ancient magistrate, who  
 intended the sacred games, and presided in  
 acts of religion in the province of Lycia. He  
 created in a council consisting of deputies  
 the 23 provincial cities. The lysarchs were

both heads of the council and pontiffs of the pro-  
 vince.

LYSIAS, an ancient Grecian orator, born at  
 Syracuse in the 80th olympiad. At 15, he went  
 to Thurion, a colony of the Athenians; and when  
 grown up, assisted in the administration of the go-  
 vernment many years. When about 47 years of  
 age, he returned to Athens; whence, being after-  
 wards banished by the 30 tyrants, he went to Me-  
 gara. He was very familiar with Socrates, and  
 other illustrious philosophers. He taught oratory,  
 though he did not plead at the bar, but he sup-  
 plied others with speeches. "Fuit *Lysias* in cau-  
 sis forensibus non versatus," (says Cicero), "*sed*  
*egregie subtilis scriptor atque elegans*," &c. Quin-  
 tilian gives him a similar character. Plutarch  
 and Photius relate, that 425 orations were for-  
 merly exhibited under the name of Lysias; of  
 which only 34 are now extant. The best edition  
 is by Dr John Taylor at London, 1739, 4to; Cam-  
 bridge, 1740, 8vo.

LYSIMACHIA, LOOSESTRIFE, in botany, a ge-  
 nus of the monogynia order, belonging to the  
 pentandria class of plants; and in the natural me-  
 thod ranking under the 20th order, *Rotaceæ*. The  
 corolla is rotaceous; the capsule globular, beak-  
 ed, and ten valved. There are 10 species, but  
 only 4 are commonly cultivated in gardens. These  
 hardy herbaceous perennials and biennials, rising  
 with erect stalks from 18 inches to 2 or 3 feet high;  
 garnished with narrow entire leaves; and termi-  
 nated by spikes and clusters of monopetalous, ro-  
 tated, five parted spreading flowers of white and  
 yellow colours.—They are easily propagated by  
 seeds, and thrive in any soil or situation.

LYSIMACHIUS, one of Alexander the Great's  
 generals and successors. See MACEDON, § 14-17.

LYSIPPUS, a celebrated Greek statuary, born  
 at Sicyone. He was first a locksmith, afterwards  
 a painter; but at last applied himself entirely to  
 sculpture; in which he acquired an immortal re-  
 putation, and made a great number of statues that  
 were the admiration of the people of Athens and  
 Rome. His grand statue of the sun represented  
 in a car drawn by 4 horses, was worshipped at  
 Rhodes. He made several statues of Alexander  
 and his favourites, which were brought to Rome  
 by Metellus, after he had reduced the Macedo-  
 nian empire; and the statue of a man wiping and  
 anointing himself after bathing, being particu-  
 larly excellent, was placed by Agrippa before his  
 baths in that city. He lived in the time of Alex-  
 ander the Great, about 334 B. C.; and left 3 sons,  
 all famous statuaries.

LYSSIE OSTROVA. See FOX ISLANDS, § 2.  
 The principal of these islands are named *Atchak*,  
*Amuck*, *Sungarama*, *Yunaklan*, *Umnak*, and  
*Unakaska*; but there are also many small ones in  
 clusters.

LYSTON, a town of Devonshire, seated on  
 the Lyd, 4 miles from Newport.

(1.) LYSTRA, in ancient geography, a town  
 of Lycania, famous for being the birth-place of  
 Timothy, and the scene of a miracle performed  
 by Paul and Barnabas. Acts xiv, 6-18. and xvi, 1.

(2.) LYSTRA, a town of Kentucky, in Nelson Co.

LYTHRUM, PURPLE LOOSESTRIER, in botany,  
 a genus of the monogynia order, belonging

to the decandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 17th order, *Calycanthemae*. The calyx is cleft in 12 parts; and there are six petals inserted into it; the capsule is bilocular and polyspermous. There are 10 species, of which the most remarkable are,

1. *LYTHRUM HISPANUM*, the *Spanish loosestrife*, with an hyssop leaf, grows naturally in Spain and Portugal. It hath a perennial root. The stalks are slender, not more than 9 or 10 inches long, spreading out on every side. The lower part of the stalks is garnished with oblong oval leaves placed opposite. The flowers come out singly from the side of the stalks at each joint; they are larger than those of the common sort, and make a fine appearance in July when they are in beauty. It is propagated by seeds brought from those countries where it is native.

2. *LYTHRUM SALICARIA*, the common purple loosestrife, with oblong leaves, is a native of Britain, and grows naturally by the sides of ditches and rivers. It hath a perennial root, from which come forth several upright angular stalks, rising from 3 to 4 feet high, garnished with oblong leaves placed sometimes by pairs; but sometimes there are 3 leaves at each joint standing round the stalk. The flowers are purple, and produced in a long spike at the top of the stalk: so make a fine appearance. This species is propagated by parting the roots in Autumn, in a moist soil.

(1.) *LYTTLETON*, Edward, lord Lytton, keeper of the great seal in the reign of Charles I. was eminent for his probity and his moderation at the commencement of that monarch's disputes with his subjects. Without forfeiting his fidelity to the king, he preserved the esteem of the parliament till 1644, when he was made colonel of a regiment in the king's army at York. He died in 1645. Besides several speeches which have been printed, he wrote reports in the common pleas and exchequer, printed at London in 1683, in folio; several arguments and discourses, &c.

(2.) *LYTTLETON*, George, lord, eldest son of Sir Thomas Lytton, bart. descended from the great judge Littleton, (See *LITTLETON*, N<sup>o</sup> 5.) was born in 1706, at 7 months; and the midwife, supposing him to be dead, threw him carelessly into the cradle; where, had not some signs of life been observed by one of the attendants, he might never have recovered. He received the elements of his education at Eaton school, where he showed an early inclination to poetry. His pastorals and some other light pieces were originally written in that seminary; whence he was removed to the university of Oxford, where he sketched the plan of his *Persian Letters*, a work which afterwards procured him great reputation, not only from the elegance of their style, but from the excellent observations they contain on the manners of mankind. In 1728, he set out on the tour of Europe; and, on his arrival at Paris, became acquainted with Mr Poyntz, then minister at the court of Versailles; who was so struck with his extraordinary capacity, that he employed him in many political negotiations, which he executed with great judgment and fidelity. Mr Lytton, while on his travels, instead of lounging away his hours at the coffee-houses and adopting the fashi-

onable follies and vices of France and Italy, his time alternately in his library and in the society of men of rank and literature. About this time he wrote this poetical epistle to Dr Ayscough and Mr Pope, which show singular taste and rectness. After continuing a considerable time in Paris with Mr Poyntz, he proceeded to London and Geneva; and thence to Turin, where he was honoured with great marks of friendship from the Sardinian majesty. He then visited Milan, Genoa, and Rome, where he applied himself to the study of the fine arts; and was in that celebrated metropolis, allowed to be a perfect judge of painting, sculpture, and architecture. During his continuance abroad, he constantly corresponded with his father. Several of his letters are extant, and place his filial affection in a very distinguished light. He soon returned to his native country, and was elected M. P. for Okehampton in Devonshire; and he was so much to the satisfaction of his constituents that they several times re-elected him for the same place without putting him to the least contest. About this period, he received great marks of friendship from Frederic prince of Wales, who, in 1737, appointed his principal secretary, and continued in the strictest intimacy with him till his death. His attention to public business did not, however, prevent him from exerting his poetical talent. A most amiable young lady, Miss Fortescue, daughter of Hugh Fortescue of Pilleigh, in Devonshire, inspired him with a passion, which produced a number of little poems remarkable for their tenderness and elegance. He had a happy facility of striking out an epigram or a couplet, which obtained him a reputation. In 1742, he married this lady, whose exemplary conduct, and uniform practice of religion and virtue, established his conjugal happiness upon the most solid basis. In 1744, he was elected one of the lords commissioners of the treasury, which gave him an opportunity of exerting his influence in rewarding merit and ability. He was the friend and patron of the late Henry I. James Thomson, author of the Seasons, Mr Lett, Dr Young, Mr Hammond, Mr West, Mr Pope, and a correspondent of M. Voltaire. After the death of Thomson, who left his affairs in a very embarrassed condition, Mr Lytton supported that poet's sister under his protection. He wrote the tragedy of *Coriolanus*, which that writer did not put the last hand to; and brought it to the theatre royal, Covent-garden, with a preface of his own writing, in which he so pathetically lamented the loss of that delightful bard, that not only Mr Quin, who spoke the lines, but the whole audience, burst into tears. In the beginning of 1746, his wife died, in the 25th year of her age; leaving one son, (see *N<sup>o</sup> 1.*) a daughter, Lucy, who married lord Viscountess. Her remains were deposited at Okehampton in Worestershire; and an elegant monument erected to her memory in the church of Okehampton, which contains a beautiful poetical inscription written by her husband; who also wrote an elegy on her death, which will be admired where the conjugal affection and pathetic poetry are both esteemed. His masterly *Essay on the Character*



perianthium of the male is triand; that of the female is as in the male; the fruit is a plum two-celled superior.

**MABERLA**, a lake of Negroland, which runs into the Senegal. Lon. 7. 40. E. Lat. 14. 40. N.

**MABILLON**, John, a learned French writer born at Pierre-monte, on the frontiers of Champagne, in 1632. He was educated in the university of Rheims, and afterwards entered into the abbey of the Benedictines of St Remy. In 1663, he was appointed keeper of the monuments of France at St Dennis. Next year he went to Paris; and assisted F. D'Acheri, in compiling his *Spicilegium*. See **ACHERI**. This made him known. Soon after he revised from the MSS. and published an edition of St Bernard, and many other works, which are evidences of his vast capacity and industry. In 1683, Mr Colbert sent him into Germany, to search the archives and libraries of the ancient abbeys, for what was most proper to illustrate the history of the church. He published an account of this journey. In 1685, he undertook another journey into Italy, by order of the king of France; and returned in 1686 with a collection for the king's library of above 3000 volumes of rare books, printed and in MSS. He composed two volumes of the pieces which he had discovered in that country. He was highly esteemed for his virtues as well as his learning.

**MABRA**, a town of Algiers, 10 miles W. of Bona.

**MACACO**, or **MACAUCCO**. See **LEMUR**.

(1.) **MACAO**, a town of China, in Canton, on an island at the mouth of the Tac. The Portuguese have been in possession of the harbour for 150 years. Formerly they had a great trade here; but now they have only a post with a small garrison. The houses are built for the European manner; and there is Chinese manturin, as well as a Portuguese governor to take care of the town and district. Lon. 112. 15. E. Lat. 22. 12. N.

(2.) **MACAO**, an ornithogon. See **PERITACUS**.

**MACARIA**, *Myrica*, the Hippocyst; in mythology, daughter of Hercules and Deianira. Her story is the same as that of Hippocyst and the Heracleidae, who were supported by the Athenians, the hero whom it is said, to insure victory to his party, was conducted to the repose of the oracle. The Athenians therefore, decreed divine honours to her, and worshipped her as the goddess of language. See **HERACLES**.

**MACARIUS**, a celebrated history, the follower of the apostle, an Egyptian monk, who was of an ardent temper, the close of the 4th century, for his great virtue. In his writings there are many singular tenets, and ecclesiastical and civil laws of Origines.

**MACARIUS**, the name of flowers of **MACARIUS**, a native of Italy, who, about the close of the 9th century, passed into France, the great at-tention he paid to the Averrhoes, that one opinion that the medicinal performed the opinion of the effect of the words all the names.

**MACARIUS**, the name of **MACARIANS**, N. 1 and 2.

(1.) **MACARIUS**, a fop, a fable, one who has been made of dials. *Abb.*

(2.) **MACARONI**. See **POLENGIO**, and the next article.

**MACARONIAN**, or } *adj.* a kind of be  
**MACARONIC**, } poetry, consist

jumble of words of different languages words of the vulgar tongue Latinized, or words modernized. Some derive the word *Macaron*, Fr. or *Macaroon*; (see **MAC** § 2.) which, from their being composed of various ingredients, occasioned this kind of which consists of Latin, Italian, Spanish, English, &c. to be called by their name. **MACARIO**, a Benedictine monk, was the first who invented this kind of verse. See **POLENGIO** best pieces of this kind are, the *Baldus*, *MACARIO*, and *Macaronis Fortis* by Stefano among the Italians; and the *Reatus veris* among the French. Rabelais first transferred *macaronic* style out of the Italian verse into prose, in his *Pantagruel*. We have little left in the *macaronian* way, but some preserved in Camden's remains. But the and Netherlanders have had their *macaron* *Certamen Catholicum cum Calvinistis*, by Hamiconius Frius, contains about 1200 the words whereof began with C. Our co Drummond of Hawthornden's *Polemo* is superior to any thing written in this st

"*Nymphæ quæ colitis bigibissima monti*  
 &c.

\* **MACAROON**. *n. f.* [*macaron*, Italian] coarse, rude, low fellow; whence *macaron*, in which the language is purposely ed.—

I sigh and sweat,

To hear this *macaron* talk on in vain  
2. [*Macaron*, French.] A kind of sweet made of flower, almonds, eggs, and sic

**MACARSKA**, a town of Maritime Dalmatia, capital of the *polovina*, or of Vergoraz and Narenta. It is a bishop's see a pretty good harbour on the gulph of Lon. 15. 57. E. Lat. 45. 42. N.

**MACIAS**, a town and district of Peru, formerly very rich, and still fertile; produced cotton, sugar, the florax, and many other trees.

(1.) **MACASSAR**, or **CELEBES**, an island, in the E. India Ocean; E. of Batta, Philippines, and W. of the Moluccas; the heat of the climate would be intolerable, not moderated by the N. winds, and which regularly fall in the months of January, and during two months that it nearly ceases. The N.W. point of it lies in Lon. 121. 6. E. Lat. 1. 22. N.

(2.) **MACASSAR**, a commercial king's above island. The inhabitants of it are reptiles at all seasons. great numbers of monkeys, who are dangerous serpents; four of which are that they will swallow one of these animals.

(3.) **MACASSAR**, a large, strong, and town, capital of the above king's country. It is a city, and is built upon a steep, and is surrounded by thick woods, and is built up into them, which they draw up as they have entered. The roofs are covered with large leaves, which prevent the sun from entering. It is seated near the mouth of

which runs through the kingdom from N. to S. Lon. 117. 55. S. Lat. 5. 0. E.

**MACASSAR POISON**, in natural history, called *ppo* in the Macassar and Malayan tongue, is the gum of a certain tree, shining, brittle, black, every way like stone pitch, growing in the island (N<sup>o</sup> 1.), with which the natives arm themselves, having a long hollow trunk of a hard wood like brazil, accurately bored, and at one end is fixed a large lance-blade of iron. They use a small arrow, very straight, and somewhat finer than a large wheaten straw; at one end they fix it into a round piece of white, light, soft, and like cork, about the length of the little fin-ger fit for the bore of the trunk, to pass clear the force of one's breath, and to fill it so exactly, that the air may not pass by, but against it, in order to carry it with the greater force. At the other end they fix in it either a small fish-bone for that purpose, or make a blade of wood of the bigness of the point of a lancet about  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch long, and making a little notch in the end of the arrow, they strike it firm therein, which is anointed with poison. The poisonous gum, when gathered, is put into hollow canes, stopp'd very close, and thus brought to Macassar. When they fit it for use, they take a piece of the turtle-shell, and a stick cut flat and smooth at one end: when they take green galangal root, and with the addition of a little fair water press the juice into a clean china dish: then with a knife scraping a little of the poison upon a shell, dip the end of the stick in the forcement liquor, and with this dilute the poison to the consistence of a syrup: when this is done, they dip the fish-tooth or wooden blade with the stick, and lay it in the sun, so that it may be dried hard. The pointed arrows thus prepared, put in hollow bambous, close shut, and in this they retain their virtue for a month.

**MACASSAR STRAITS** OR, the narrow sea between Celebes and Borneo.

**MACASSARS**, the people of MACASSAR. They are robust, courageous, and greatly addicted to the Mahometans.

**MACAU**, a town of France, in the depart. of Gironde, 10 miles N. of Bourdeaux.

**MACAULAY**, Catherine, a celebrated female philosopher, daughter of John Sawbridge, Esq. of High, in Kent, and sister of the late Alder-Sawbridge, M. P. She was married June 1770, to George Macaulay, M. D. who left her a widow with one daughter. In 1778, she had a younger brother of the famous empiric, John Graham. (See GRAHAM, N<sup>o</sup> 3.) She wrote, *the History of England from the Accession of King I. to the Revolution*; the 1st vol. of which was published in 1763, 4to. and the 8th and last in 1790.

This work was very popular, and is preserved by the late lord Gardenstone, to that of the late HUME, N<sup>o</sup> 1. 2. A modest plea in property of Copy-Right. 3. Observations on the pamphlet, entitled, "Thoughts on the Causes of the present Discontents," 1770, 8vo. 4. Remarks on Hobbes's *Rudiments of Government and Society*. 5. Address to the people of England, France, and Ireland, on the present important

crisis of affairs, 1755. 6. History of England, from the Revolution to the present time, in a series of letters to the rev. Dr Wilson; 1778, 4to. 7. Treatise on the Inmutability of Moral Truth, 1782, 8vo. and 8. Letters on Education, 8vo. 1790. She was a keen republican. Dr Wilson made her a present of a handsome house, called *Alfred House*, in Bath; and erected a statue of her, in the character of *Liberty*, in his parish church of Walbrook. She died at Binfield, in Berks, 23d June, 1791.

(1.) \* **MACAW**. *n. f.* A bird in the West Indies, the largest species of parrot.—

(2.) **MACAW**. See PSITTACUS, N<sup>o</sup> 4.

(1.) \* **MACAW-TREE**. *n. f.*—A species of the *palm-tree*, very common in the Caribbee islands, where the negroes pierce the tender fruit, whence issues a pleasant liquor; and the body of the tree affords a solid timber, supposed by some to be a sort of ebony. *Miller*.

(2.) **MACAW TREE**. See PHOENIX, N<sup>o</sup> 3.

**MACBETH**, a Scots nobleman of the blood royal, who murdered Duncan I. king of Scotland, A. D. 1046; and, chasing Malcolm Canmore, his son and heir into England, usurped the crown. Sward earl of Northumberland, whose daughter Duncan had married, undertook, by order of Edward the Confessor, the protection of the fugitive prince; marched with an army into Scotland; defeated and killed Macbeth; and restored Malcolm to the throne of his ancestors. Shakespeare has made this transaction the subject of one of his best tragedies, though against all the rules of the ancient drama.

**MACBRIDE**, Dr David, an eminent physician and philosopher, descended from an ancient Scots family in the county of Galloway. His grandfather and father were Presbyterian clergymen in Ireland; the father at Belfast; the latter at Ballymony in Antrim, where he married, and where our author was born in April 1725. After the usual education, and having studied some time under an eminent surgeon in his native place, he was sent to the university of Glasgow, and afterwards to that of Edinburgh. He then went on board the navy as a surgeon's mate, and after some time was raised to the rank of surgeon. Although, in this situation, he acquired a great deal of practical experience, yet, having been rather young when he first attended the classes, he returned to Edinburgh, and again entered on the career of academical pursuits, under Dr Monro, and those other teachers, whose abilities raised the fame of the medical school at this metropolis. The celebrity of the medical teachers in London led him also to visit that capital, where he studied under Dr Hunter and Dr Smellie, and acquired a knowledge of the best practice, by attending the public hospitals. Thus qualified for the exercise of his profession, about the end of 1749 he fixed his residence in Dublin. His success, however, was at first greatly retarded by an uncommon degree of modesty, so that for several years he was employed by few people either of rank or fortune. But this eventually promoted the cause of science; for the leisure this afforded him was employed in researches, which

as an ingenious philosopher and able practitioner, his name was enrolled with honour in the lists of many learned societies; and the university where his studies had commenced, conferred upon him the degree M. D.—Nor were his talents confined to the advancement of medicine alone. Having discovered a considerable improvement in the art of tanning, he published first, *An Account of a New Method of Tanning*; and afterwards, *Instructions for carrying on the New Method of Tanning*. As a testimony of respect for his ingenuity, prize medals were conferred upon him by the Societies of Arts both in London and Dublin. His last and most extensive publication was, *A Methodical Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Medicine*. Most, if not all of these publications, went through various editions, and were translated into different languages. Mean time his employment increased so rapidly, that he had more business than he could transact either with ease or safety. This having kept him in perpetual agitation both of body and mind, at last induced an almost total incapacity of sleeping. In this situation, he was attacked with a fever, which put an end to his life on the 13th December 1778, in the 53d year of his age. During his residence in Dublin he was twice married, and had children by both his wives, none of whom survived him. After his death, several of the playful trinkets of his infants, with the signature of *dulces exuvia*, were found in his repositories, a proof, that in him the great mind of the philosopher was conjoined with the feeling heart of the affectionate father. And if his conduct was exemplary as an husband and parent, his manners were no less amiable as a companion and friend.

MACCABÆUS, Judas. See JUDAS and JAWS, § 6.

Cyrene, who wrote in Greek the *1* das Maccabeus and his brethren, against Antiochus Epiphanes, and *Et* book does not equal the accuracy of contains a history of about 15 years execution of Heliodorus's commission by Seleucus to carry away the the temple, to the victory obtained Maccabeus over Nicanor; that is 328, to the year 383, or A. A. C are in the Polyglot bibles, both of I don, Syriac versions of both these they, as well as our English version from the Greek. There is also a 5 Maccabees, containing the history of tion of the Jews in Egypt, by Pto tor, and their sufferings under it. have been written by some Alexan Greek, soon after the time of Jes Sirach. It is in most of the ancient of the Greek Septuagint, particular andrian and Vatican, but was never the vulgar Latin version of the Bib quently into any of our English copies Iphus's history of the martyrs that der Antiochus Epiphanes, is found Greek Bibles, under the name of *t of the Maccabees*.

(2.) MACCABEES, the followers cabæus. The name was generally who suffered in the cause of the truder the Egyptian and Syrian tyrant MACCARY BAY, a bay on the MACCAYE, a town of France, the Lower Pyrenees; 7 miles SE. of MACCHIA, 2 towns of Naples, provinces of Capitanata and Calabria ( MACCLESFIELD, a large and h.



ed, which are dug up chiefly for splin-  
serve the poor for candles. Lon. 2. 10.  
53. 15. N.

ORIG. See MACOIG.

UFF, a town of Scotland on the coast  
hire, with a good harbour; containing  
abitants in 1791.

MACE. *n. f.* [*magga*, Saxon; *maça*, Spa-  
An ensign of authority born before ma-

— nightly upheld that royal *mace*

now thou bear'st.

*F. Quern.*

*ie*, French; *massa*, Latin.] A heavy  
apon; a club of metal.—

O murth'rous slumber!

thou thy leaden *mace* upon my boy

lays the musick?

*Shak.*

urkish troops breaking in with their scy-  
id heavy iron *maces*, made a most bloody

1. *Knolles.*—

th with his *mace* petrific smote. *Milton.*

h his *mace* their monarch struck the  
cund;

*Dryd. n.*

mighty *maces* with such haste deicewd,  
break the bones, and make the armour

end.

*Dryden.*

1, Latin.] A kind of spice.—The nut-  
closed in a threefold covering, of which

id is *mace*: it is thin and membranace-  
oleaginous, and a yellowish colour: it

xtremely fragrant, aromatick, and agree-  
ll, and a pleasant, but acrid and oleagi-

te. *Hill's Mat. Med.*—Water, vinegar,  
y, is a most excellent sudorifick: it is

ectual with a little *mace* added to it.

be MACE, (§ 1, *def.* 2.) was anciently much  
the cavalry of all nations. It was com-  
ade of iron; its figure much resembles a

e-mill; many specimens may be seen in  
er. It was with one of these that Wal-

ayor of London knocked the rebel Wat

in off his horse in Smithfield, for approach-

ing king Richard II. in an insolent man-  
l as he fell, he dispatched him with his

be MACE, (§ 1, *def.* 1.) in modern times  
ged its form; and being no longer a war

nt, is made of copper or silver gilt, orna-  
with a crown, globe, and cross, and is

chief ensign of authority throughout  
Britain. Similar to the ancient maces,

ose staves at the end of which iron or  
balls armed with spikes were suspended

is: they were till lately carried by the pi-  
f the trained bands or city militia.

MACE, (§ 2, *def.* 3.) in the materia medica,  
nd coat or covering of the kernel of the

is a thin and membranaceous substance,  
aginous nature, and a yellowish colour;

ret with in flakes of an inch or more in  
which are divided into a multitude of

tions. It is of an extremely fragrant, a-  
and agreeable flavour; and of a plea-

it acrid oleaginous taste. It is carmina-  
matick, and astringent; and possesses all

es of nutmeg, but has less astringency.—  
s of mace and nutmeg, whether prepared

by distillation or expression, are so much of the  
same nature, that they may be indiscriminately

used for one another on all occasions. They give  
ease in cholics, and often in nephritic cases, ta-

ken internally from one drop to five or six of the  
distilled oil, or an equal quantity of the express-

ed; and externally, they are of use to rub para-  
lytic limbs: they also assist digestion; and will

often stop vomitings and hiccoughs, only by be-  
ing rubbed on the region of the stomach. Nurses

apply oil of mace by expression to children's na-  
vils to ease their gripes, and often with success;

and we are assured, by authors of credit, that  
when rubbed on the temples, it promotes sleep.

\* MACEALE. *n. f.* [*mace* and *alc.*] Ale spiced  
with mace.—I prescribed him a draught of *mace-*

*ale*, with hopes to dispose him to rest. *Wifeman.*

\* MACEBEARER. *n. f.* [*mace* and *bear.*] One  
who carries the mace before persons in authority.

—I was placed at a quadrangular table, opposite  
to the *macebearer*. *Spektor.*

MACEDA, a town of Spain, in Galicia.

(1.) MACEDON, or MACEDONIA, a celebra-  
ed kingdom of antiquity, bounded on the E. by

the Ægean sea; on the S. by Thessaly and Epi-  
rus; on the W. by the Ionian sea or Adriatic;

and on the N. at first by the Strymon and the Scar-  
dian mountains, but afterwards by the Nessus.

(2.) MACEDON, ANCIENT EXTENT, DIVISIONS,  
NAMES, &c. OF. The kingdom of Macedonia, ex-

tended in a direct line only 150 miles in length;  
but the windings of the coast lengthened it out

to 3 times that extent; in which almost every  
convenient situation was occupied by a Grecian

sea-port. The country was naturally divided by  
the Thernaic and Strymonic gulphs, into the

provinces of Pieria, Chalcis, and Pangæus. The  
middle region, which took its name from a city

of Eubœa whence it was originally peopled, was  
very fertile and pleasant; the inland country, be-

ing diversified by lakes, rivers, and arms of the  
sea, was extremely convenient for inland naviga-

tion, while the towns of Amphipolis, Potidæa,  
Acanthus, and many others, afforded marts for

the commerce of the republics of Greece, as well  
as of Thrace and Macedon. On one side of this

district were the mountains of Pangæus, and on  
the other the plains of Pieria. The Pangæan

mountains, which extended 90 miles towards the  
E. on the river Nessus, though proper neither

for corn nor pasture, produced plenty of timber  
for ship-building; while the southern branches of

the mountain contained rich veins of gold and  
silver; but these, though wrought successively by

the Thasians and the Athenians, were only brought  
to perfection by K. Philip II. who extracted from

them gold and silver to the value of 200,000 l.  
Sterling annually. Pieria extended 50 miles a-

long the Thernaic gulph, to the confines of  
Thessaly and mount Pindus. The inland part of

the country was beautifully diversified with shady  
hills and fountains; and so admirably calculated

for solitary walks and retirement, that the an-  
cients looked upon it to be the favourite haunt of

the Muses, and accordingly bestowed upon them  
the title of PIERIDS. In the most early times

this country was called *Emathia*, from *Emathius*  
one of its princes. The name of Macedon is said

from MACEDO a descendant others suppose it to have of MYGONIA, a district of remote ages, Macedon, at number of petty principalities even the names are now

CEDEON, ANCIENT HISTORY OF, FROM TO ALCEIAS. All authors agree, that was the first who established any permanent in Macedon. He was an Argive, ant of Hercules, and about 814 years B. C. led a small colony of his countrymen inland district of Macedon, then called . This territory was about 300 miles in extent. On the S. it was separated from by a number of Greek republics, of which considerable were those of Olynthus and and on the N. E. and W. was surrounded by kingdoms of Thrace, Pæonia, and according to the traditions of those having consulted the oracle on his intended expedition, was commanded by the goats in the establishment of empire. For some time he proceeded, without knowing what to make of answer; but happening to enter the of *Emathia*, at that time governed by *Idas*, he observed a herd of goats running *Edeja* the capital. Recollecting then the of the oracle, he attacked and took the surprise, soon after making himself master of the whole kingdom. In memory of this remarkable event he called the city *Agea*, and the

*Ægates*, from the goats who conducted him, and made use of the figure of a goat in his standard. This fable accounts for the figure of a goat on the coins of Philip and his successors. The little colony of Argives led into *Emathia* by *Caranus* would soon have been overwhelmed by the barbarous nations who surrounded it, had not this prince and his subjects taken care to ingratiate themselves with their neighbours, rather than to attempt to subdue them. They instructed them in the Grecian religion and government, and in the knowledge of many useful arts; adopting themselves, in some degree, the language and manners of the barbarians; imparting to them in return some part of the Grecian civilization and polite behaviour. Thus they gradually associated with the fierce and warlike tribes in their neighbourhood; and this prudent conduct, being followed by succeeding generations, may be looked upon as one of the causes of the Macedonian greatness. *Caranus* dying after a reign of 28 years, left the kingdom to his son *Cœnus*, in 786, who having considerably enlarged his dominions, was succeeded by *Thurymas*, in 774; and he by *Perdiccas I.* in 727. This last prince is by *Thucydides* and *Herodotus* accounted the founder of the Macedonian monarchy; but his history is so obscured by fable, that nothing certain can now be known concerning it. In process of time, however, the good understanding which had subsisted between the Macedonians and their barbarous neighbours began to be interrupted; and in 673 B. C. the kingdom was for the first time invaded by the

rians. At first they did considerable damage by their ravages; but *Argæus* the son and successor of *Perdiccas I.* having decoyed them into an ambush, cut off great numbers, and obliged the remainder to leave the kingdom. In the reign of his successors, however, they returned, and often proved very troublesome enemies. *Argæus* was succeeded by his son *Philip I.* in 640 B. C. and he by his son *Æropas*, in 602; who left the kingdom to his son *Alcetas*, in 576.

(4.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, FROM ALCEIAS TO ALEXANDER I. *Alcetas* ascended the throne about the time that the Persian monarchy was founded; and had the dexterity to preserve his dominions from the encroachments of the Greeks on the one hand, and of the Persians on the other; but in the reign of his son *Amyntas I.* was succeeded him in 547, a formal demand was made of submission to the great King *Darius*, by sending him a present of earth and water. Seven ambassadors were sent on this errand by *Megabyzus* the officers of *Darius*. They were sumptuously entertained by *Amyntas*; but having dared to take some indecent liberties with the Macedonian women, *Alexander* the king's son had them all to be murdered. This rashness had almost proved the ruin of the kingdom; but *Alexander* pacified *Babaris*, the general sent to him by *Megabyzus*, by showing him *Isidrygæa*, a very beautiful woman, with whom a Persian fell in love, and afterwards married her. From this time the Macedonians were counted the faithful allies of the Persians; and *Amyntas* obtained the country in the neighbourhood of mount *Hæmus* and *Olympus*, at the same time that the city of *Alabanda* in *Phrygia* was given to *Amyntas* the nephew of *Alexander*. The Macedonians distinguished themselves in the time of the Persian invasion of Greece, by furnishing their allies with 200,000 recruits; though some cities, particularly *Podidra*, *Olynthus*, and *Delium*, adhered to the Grecian interest. The last were taken and rased, and the inhabitants massacred by the Persians; but *Podidra* escaped by reason of the sea breaking into the Persian camp, which it did great damage. *Alexander*, however, afterwards thought proper to court the favour of the Greeks by giving them intelligence of the time when *Mardonius* designed to attack them. The remaining transactions of this reign are entirely unknown further than that he enlarged his dominions to the river *Nessus* on the E. and the *Axius* on the W.

(5.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, FROM ALEXANDER I. TO ALEXANDER II. *Alexander I.* was succeeded in 454, by his son *Perdiccas II.* whose reign was a series of unsuccessful intrigues for the destruction of the Athenian influence in *Olynthus*, and the establishment of that of Macedon in its stead. *Perdiccas II.* was succeeded about 415 B. C. by his son *Archelaus*, who enlarged his dominions by the conquest of *Pydna*, and other places in *Pieria*, though his ambition seems rather to have been to improve his dominions than greatly to extend them. He facilitated the communication between the principal towns of Macedon, by cutting straight roads through the country; he built walls and fortresses in such places as

afforded

ordered favourable situations; encouraged agriculture and the arts, particularly those subservient to war; formed magazines of arms; raised and disciplined a considerable body of cavalry; and in short, says Dr Gillies, added more to the solid grandeur of Macedon than had been done by all his predecessors. Nor was he regardless of the arts of peace. His palace was adorned by the works of Grecian painters. Euripides was long entertained at his court; Socrates and other men of merit and genius, were invited to reside in Macedonia, and treated with distinguished regard by the monarch attentive to promote his own glory and the happiness of his subjects. This great monarch died after a reign of six years, but according to others of 41, a space by far too short to accomplish the magnificent projects he had formed. After his death the kingdom fell under the power of several pretenders, and usurpers. A number of competitors appeared for the throne; and these by and by called in to their assistance the Thracians, Thessalians, the Olynthian confederates, Athens, Sparta and Thebes. Bardyllis, an brave and daring chief, who, from being head of a gang of robbers, had become sovereign of the Thracians, entered Macedon at the head of a numerous army, deposed Amyntas II. the grandson of Alexander I. and set up in his place one Argæus, who consented to become tributary to the Illyrians. Another candidate for the throne, named Ptolemæus, was supported by the Thracians; but, with the assistance of the Thessalians and Olynthians, Amyntas was restored in 397. After his restoration, however, the Olynthians refused to deliver several places of importance belonging to Macedonia, which Amyntas had either entrusted to their care, or which they had taken from his enemies. Amyntas complained to Sparta; and the republic sent him 2000 men under Eudamidas, and afterwards a powerful reinforcement under his brother Phœbidas; but these last were defeated till the season for action was past. Eudamidas, however, with his small army performed great service. The appearance of a Spartan encouraged the subjects and allies of the Olynthians to revolt; and the city of Potidra surrendered soon after his arrival. But being too related with his niece, Eudamidas approached to near Olynthus, that he was attacked, defeated, and killed in a rally of the citizens. He was succeeded by Teleutias the brother of Argæus, who commanded a body of 10,000 Spartans, and was assisted by K. Amyntas and Dardas his brother, the governor of the most westerly province of Macedon, which abounded in cavalry. By the formidable troops the Olynthians were defeated in a number of battles, and obliged to shut themselves up in their city; on which Teleutias proceeded with his hostilities to invest Olynthus. His exclusive design was to destroy his enemies and establish his rule. A body of Olynthian horse passed the mountains in sight of the allied army, though so superior in numbers. Teleutias ordered his subjects to attack them; the Olynthians, having retreated across the mountains, were closely pursued by the Macedonians, most part of whom also passed the river; but the Olynthians suddenly turned upon them, killed upwards of 100, with Tele-

monidas their leader. Teleutias, exasperated at this disaster, ordered the remainder of the targeteers and cavalry to pursue; while he himself advanced at the head of the heavy armed foot with such celerity that they began to fall into disorder. But the Lacedæmonians imprudently advancing just under the battlements of the city, the townsmen on the walls, discharged upon them a shower of missile weapons, while the flower of the Olynthian troops sallied forth and attacked them with such violence, that Teleutias was slain, the Spartans defeated, and the whole army at last dispersed with great slaughter, and obliged to shelter themselves in Acanthus, Apollonia, Spartolus, and Potidæa. The Spartans, undismayed by this terrible disaster, continued their operations under their King Agesipolis, and after his death under Polybiades, an experienced general, with so much success, by sea and land, that the Olynthians; after holding out for 10 months, at last submitted on very humiliating conditions. They formally renounced all claim to the dominions of Chalcis; they ceded the Macedonian cities to their ancient governor; and in consequence of this Amyntas left the city of *Ægæa* or *Edessa*, where till now he had held his royal residence, and fixed it at *PELLA*, a city of great strength and beauty, situated on an eminence, which together with a plain of considerable extent was defended by impenetrable morasses, and by the rivers *Anus* and *Lydias*. It was about 15 miles from the *Ægean* sea, with which it communicated by these rivers. It was originally founded by Greeks, who had lately conquered and peopled it; but in consequence of the misfortunes of Olynthus, it now became the capital of Macedon, which it continued ever after to be. Amyntas, thus fully established in his dominions, continued to enjoy tranquillity during the rest of his life, and was succeeded by his son Alexander II. in 371 B. C.

(6.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, FROM ALEXANDER II. TO THE DEPOSITION OF AMYNTAS III. AND USURPATION OF PERDICA II. The reign of Alexander II. was short, and disturbed by invasions of the Illyrians; from whom he was obliged to purchase a peace. His two brothers, Perdicas and Philip, being both very young, Pausanias again usurped the throne; but was soon deprived of it, by the exertions of Iphicrates the Athenian; who, in gratitude for some favours he had formerly received from Amyntas and his queen Eurydice, expelled the usurper, and got Perdicas the eldest son established on the throne. During the minority of Perdicas, however, his bustling brother, Ptolemæus Arrabæus, who was his guardian, usurped the kingdom; but was deposed by the Theban general Pelopidas, who reinstated Perdicas in his dominions, in 368 B. C. and to secure the dependence of Macedonia upon Thebes, carried along with him 20 Macedonian youths as hostages; among whom was Philip the king's younger brother. Ptolemæus was expelled by the protection of such powerful allies, as got Iphicrates and the Athenians, and even obtained the right to Amyntas's kingdom, which was then decreed to them by the general assembly of Greece. He also refused to send Pelopidas the tribute which the Macedonians had agreed to pay him, which

occasioned

recovering Amphipolis, easily induced them to support his claims; in consequence of which they fitted out a fleet, with 3000 heavy armed soldiers, which they sent to the coast of Macedon. Philip, the late king's brother, no sooner heard of his defeat and death, than he set out privately from Thebes; and on his arrival at Macedon found matters in the situation above described. Naturally ambitious, he had acquired, during the time he was an hostage, a high degree of that knowledge of men and manners, which was most suited to insure his success. To him that period was a period of improvement. From the age of 15 he had been much in the family of EPAMINONDAS; and in his travels through Greece he had cultivated an acquaintance with Plato, Isocrates, Aristotle, and other great philosophers. His appearance in Macedon instantly changed the face of affairs. In the name of his nephew Amyntas III. he treated with the Pæonians and Thracians; whom, by bribery and fair promises he prevailed upon to abandon Pausanias, and withdraw their forces, as the Illyrians had already done. And having thus got rid of these barbarians, he was now at liberty to oppose the Athenians, who supported Argæus, and threatened a very formidable invasion. The appearance, however, of the Athenian fleet before Methone, with that of Argæus at the head of a numerous army in Pieria, having filled the whole country with consternation, Philip took the opportunity of getting Amyntas set aside and himself declared king; for which indeed the danger of the times afforded a very plausible pretext.

(7.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, FROM PHILIP II'S USURPATION TO HIS CONQUEST OF AMPHIPOLIS. Argæus, in the mean time, having advanced with his Athenian allies towards Edessa, Philip,

gan to circumscribe the power of his chief especially in the more remote province by little regard to the authority of the Macedon. To counteract their ambitious choice a body of the bravest Macedonians whom he entertained at his own table honoured with many testimonies of his giving them the title of his *companions*, obliging them constantly to attend him in hunting. Their intimacy with the king, which was considered as an indication of merit, obliged them to superior diligence the severe duties of military discipline. young nobility, eager to participate in honours, vied with each other in their desire to gain admission into this distinguished order; that while on the one hand they served as pages, on the other they formed an nursery for future generals, by whom both Alexander were afterwards greatly assisted in conquests. About this time Philip instituted the Macedonian Phalanx; but as put by Dr Gillies. (See PHALANX.) this, Philip, according to our author, introduced arms, horses, and other necessaries for war, produced a more severe and exact military discipline than had formerly been known in Greece. While he thus took the best methods to secure himself at home and formidable to his Pæonians again began to make incurious incursions into his kingdom. The death of Agis their king who was a man of great military skill and of almost every power of resist them if they were attacked. Philip, of consequence, reduced their country with little opposition to the state of tributaries. No sooner was this accomplished than he undertook a winter's campaign against

ly of infantry, but with only 400 horse. They some time made a gallant resistance, but were at last defeated with the loss of 7000 men, among whom was Bardyllis, who fell at the age of 90. The consequence was the cession of a considerable part of their territory, and subjection to an annual tribute. Philip now began to put in execution his other designs than any he had yet attempted. The rich coasts to the S. of Macedon, inhabited by Greeks, presented a strong temptation to his ambition and avarice. The confederacy of OLYNTHUS, after having thrown off the yoke of Athens, was become more powerful than ever, and could send into the field an army of 10,000 foot troops, besides a number of cavalry. Most of the towns in Chalcidice were become its allies and subjects; so that this populous province, with Pangaon on the right and Pieria on the left, formed a barrier against any incursions of the Macedonians. But Philip, anxious to establish a navy, considered the conquest of Amphipolis as more immediately necessary, as besides its naval and commercial advantages, it would open a road to the woods and mines of Pangaeus. The Amphipolitans, alarmed at the hostile designs of Philip, themselves under the protection of the Olynthians, who readily received them into the confederacy, and sent ambassadors to Athens, requesting their assistance against Philip. But the Macedonians sent his agents to Athens, with such expenses, that they arrived before any thing could be concluded with the Olynthian deputies. Haggard over the popular orators, he flattered and seduced in such an artful manner, that a negotiation was set on foot, by which Philip engaged to conquer Amphipolis for the Athenians, upon condition that they surrendered to him the fort of Amphipolis. Thus the Athenians, deceived by their magistrates, and outwitted by the policy of Philip, rejected the offers of the Olynthians. The ambassadors of Olynthus returned highly disgusted at their reception, but had scarce communicated their news to their countrymen, when Philip's ambassadors arrived at Olynthus; and pretending to be with them on the affront they had received from Athens, expressed their surprize that they should neglect the assistance of that distant and haughty republic, when they could avail themselves of the strength of Macedon, which wished to enter into alliance with their confederacy. As a proof of his sincerity, Philip offered to put them in possession of Amphipolis, an important town in the vicinity, and a base for them the cities of Pydna and Potidæa. He prevailed upon the Olynthians not only to surrender Amphipolis, but even to assist him; which he pressed that city so closely, that, unable to defend itself alone against so powerful an enemy, it surrendered at discretion, A. A. C. 357.

**OF MACEDON, HISTORY OF, FROM THE CONQUEST OF AMPHIPOLIS TO THAT OF OLYNTHUS.** Though the obstinate defence of the Amphipolitans might have furnished a pretence for Philip, he contented himself with diminishing the influence of the popular leaders from whom he had to expect the most dangerous opposition, treating the rest of the inhabitants with great clemency; but took care to add Amphipolis to his own dominions, notwithstanding his promises to the Athenians.

PL. XIII. PART II.

finding it against his interest at this time to fall out with the Olynthians, he cultivated the friendship of that republic with great assiduity; took the cities of Pydna and Potidæa, which he readily yielded to the Olynthians, though they had given him but little assistance in the reduction of these places. Potidæa had been garrisoned by the Athenians, and these the artful king sent back without ransom. He next took possession of the gold mines of Thrace, by the conquest of Crenida, which he made a Macedonian colony, and named PHILIPPEA; and drew annually from its gold mines near 1000 talents, or 200,000 l. sterling. The coins struck here were likewise called *Philippi*. Philip next took upon him to settle the affairs of Thessaly, where every thing was in confusion. This country had been greatly oppressed by Alexander tyrant of Pheræ, as well as by Tisiphornus, Pitholaus, and Lycopyron, his brothers-in-law, who had murdered him. By the united efforts of the Thessalians and Macedonians, these usurpers were easily overthrown, and the Thessalians, out of a mistaken gratitude, surrendered to Philip all the revenues arising from their fairs and towns of commerce, as well as all the conveniences of their harbours and shipping. Having thus not only established his sovereignty, but rendered himself very formidable to his neighbours, he formed an alliance with Arybbas king of Epirus, and in A. A. C. 357, married Olympias, his sister, a match thought the more equal as the kings of Epirus were descended from Achilles, as those of Macedon were from Hercules. The nuptials were solemnized at Pella with great pomp, and several months were spent in shows and diversions; during which Philip showed such proneness to vice of every kind, as disgraced him in the eyes of his neighbours, and probably laid the foundation of his domestic unhappiness. So much was his behaviour taken notice of by the neighbouring states, that the Pæonians and Illyrians threw off the yoke, and engaged in their schemes Cotys K. of Thrace. But Philip, giving up his dissipation, early in the spring of 356, took the field with the flower of his troops, and, marching in person against the Pæonians and Thracians, dispatched Parmenio into Illyria. Both enterprises proved successful; and while Philip returned victorious from Thrace, he received an account of Parmenio's victory; a 2d messenger informed him of a victory gained by his chariot at the Olympic games; and a 3d that Olympias had been delivered of a son at Pella. This was the celebrated ALEXANDER, to whom the diviners prophesied the highest prosperity and glory, from his being born in such auspicious circumstances. Soon after Alexander's birth, Philip wrote the following letter to Aristotle; "Know that a son is born to us. We thank the gods not so much for their gift, as for bestowing it at a time when Aristotle lives. We assure ourselves that you will form him a prince worthy of his father, and worthy of Macedon." Pæonia was now one of his provinces; on the E. his dominions extended to the sea of Thasos, and on the W. to the lake Lychnidus. The Thessalians were in effect subject to his jurisdiction, and Amphipolis secured him many commercial advantages; he had a numerous and well disciplined army, with plentiful

resources for supporting such an armament, and carrying through his other ambitious schemes; but his deep and impenetrable policy rendered him more formidable than all these put together. His first scheme was the reduction of Olynthus, the most populous and fertile country on the borders of Macedon; after which his ambition prompted him to acquire the sovereignty of all Greece. He had deprived the Athenians gradually of several settlements in Thrace and Macedon; but he took care always to give such appearance of justice to his actions, that his antagonists, could hardly find a plausible pretext for engaging in war against him. He perceived that the affairs of the Greeks were drawing to a crisis, and he determined to wait the issue of their dissensions. The Phocians plowed up the lands consecrated to Apollo, and the Amphictyons fulminated a decree against them, commanding the sacred lands to be laid waste, and imposing a heavy fine upon the community. Their resistance to this decree involved all Greece in a new war. Philip, at the beginning of this *Phocian or sacred war*, (as it was called) was engaged in Thrace, where a civil war had taken place among the sons of Cotys. Philip interfered, and his encroachments at length became so enormous, that Kerobletes, the most powerful of the contending princes, ceded the Thracian Chersonesus to the Athenians; who sent Chares with a powerful armament to take possession of it. He took Sestos by storm, and treated the inhabitants cruelly; while Philip reduced Methone in Pieria, but during the siege lost his right eye. All this time the Phocian war raged with fury, and involved in it all the states of Greece. Lycophron, one of the Thessalian tyrants, whom Philip had deprived of his authority, had again resumed it; and his countrymen having taken part with the Phocians, Lycophron called in Onomarchus the Phocian general to protect him against Philip; who, however, defeated Phyalus the brother of Onomarchus, whom the latter had sent into the country with a detachment of 7000 men. After this he besieged and took the city of Pegasæ, driving the enemy towards the frontiers of Phocis. Onomarchus then advanced with the whole army; and Philip, being inferior in numbers, was at first repulsed; and his troops harassed in their retreat by rocks rolled down from precipices. But returning soon with 20,000 foot, and 600 horse, whom he encouraged by reminding them, that they were fighting in the cause of the gods against sacrilegious wretches, the Phocians were utterly defeated; upwards of 6000 perished in the battle and pursuit, and 3000 were taken prisoners. The body of Onomarchus being found among the slain, was hung up on a gibbet as a mark of infamy, on account of his having polluted the temple; and those of the rest were thrown into the sea. After this victory, Philip set about the settlement of Thessaly; and having detached Kerobletes from the interest of the Athenians, he established him in the sovereignty of Thrace; with a view to destroy him when a proper opportunity offered. Were he once possessed of the dominions of that prince, the way to Byzantium was open to him, and to pave the way for this conquest, he attacked the fort of Heræum, a small and unim-

portant place; but valuable by its neighbourhood to Byzantium. The Athenians at last perceived the designs of Philip, and determined to counteract them; but too readily giving credit to a report of his death, they discontinued their preparations, and directed their whole attention to the sacred war, which, instead of being ended by the death of Onomarchus, now raged with more fury. Phyalus, above-mentioned, under the influence of the Phocians; and his affairs becoming every day more desperate, he converted into money the most precious materials below the temple at Delphi, and with this he doubled the pay of his soldiers. By this piece of sacrilege, he purchased the assistance of 1000 Lacedæmonians, 2000 Achæans, and 2000 Athenian foot, with 400 cavalry, which he took the field with great prospect of success. Philip now thought it time to throw off the mask entirely, for which the proceedings of the Achæans, particularly their league with the Corinthians, furnished him with a plausible pretext; revenging such horrid sacrilege as had been committed at Delphi seemed to give him a right to march at the head of an army into Greece. The superstition of the Greeks, however, had blinded them to such a degree, but they could not believe that Philip's piety was a mere pretence; that his real design was to conquer the country. The Athenians no sooner heard of the march of the Macedonian army, than they dispatched a strong guard to secure the pass of Mopylæ; so that Philip was obliged to retreat, and was greatly chagrined and disappointed. His first step was to call an assembly to deliberate on the measures proper to be taken to resist Philip's ambition; and this assembly is made famous by the first appearance of Demosthenes as an orator against Philip. Athens for some time had been in a very alarming situation. The city was deeply involved in the sacred war; their possessions were plundered by Philip; and mercenary partisans drew off the public funds to such a degree, that, instead of taking measures to counteract that ambitious prince, they themselves about the designs of the Persian monarch, who was preparing for war against the Greeks, Egyptians, and Phœnicians. The orator, and Phocion the statesman, sought to divert the multitude, from a state of the unsteady of the Athenians; who, they were sure to contend with so active a prince as Philip, therefore exhorted them to cultivate his friendship. Their arguments were violently opposed by Demosthenes, who, in his addresses to the assembly, exhorted them to awake from their inactivity, and assume the direction of their own affairs; to abandon all romantic schemes of ambition, and instead of carrying their arms into remote countries, to prepare for repelling the attacks which might be made upon their own dominions. He insisted upon a better regulation of their finances, and an equal distribution of the public burthens, upon retrenching many superfluous expenses. He told them, that they were not yet prepared to meet Philip in the field; they must begin by prosecuting Olynthus and the Chersonesus, which it would be necessary to raise 100

and troops, with a due proportion of cavalry, ought to be transported to the islands of Thasos, Thasos, and Sciathos, in the neighbourhood of Macedon. But all his rhetoric could not avail upon the indolent Athenians to provide their own safety. They appear, indeed, at times, to have been desperately sunk in effecy and dissipation; which disposition Philip care to encourage. There was an assembly in the city called the *Sixty*, who met expressly for purposes of extinguishing all care about public affairs, and to intoxicate themselves with excess of pleasure. To this assembly Philip sent to support their extravagancies; and so effectually did they answer his purposes, that all eloquence of Demosthenes could not counter the speeches of orators much his inferiors, backed by Macedonian gold. The destruction of Olynthus soon followed. This city, which the balance of power betwixt Athens and Macedon, was taken and plundered, and the inhabitants sold for slaves.

**M A C E D O N, HISTORY OF, FROM THE CONQUEST OF OLYNTHUS TO THE DEATH OF PHILIP AND ACCESSION OF ALEXANDER III.** Philip's hopes now depended on putting an end to the present war. For this purpose he affected a neutrality, that he might thereby become the arbiter of peace. His hopes were well founded; for the Athenians, who were at the head of the league against the Phocians solicited him on the one side, and the Phocians confederated with the Phocians did the same on the other. He answered neither, yet held them in dependence. In his heart he favoured the Phocians, or rather placed his hopes of favouring the Phocians in that state; for he well knew, that the Athenians, Spartans, and other states allied with Phocis, would never allow him to enter Thermopylae, and lead an army into their country. So much respect, however, did he pay to the ambassadors from these states, particularly Ctesiphon and Phrynon, from Athens, that he believed and reported him to be in their interest.

The Athenians, therefore sent ten plenipotentiaries to treat of peace, among whom were Demosthenes and Æschines, but though they were treated with the utmost civility, by Philip, they returned, after being put off for 3 months, without coming to any conclusion. In the mean time he took from the Athenians such places in Thrace as might best cover his frontiers; giving plenipotentiaries, in their stead, abundance of promises, and the strongest assurances that he would be as beneficial to them as ever his colonies had been. At last a peace was concluded, but the ratification was deferred till he had possessed himself of Pheræ, and saw himself at the head of a numerous army: He then treated the plenipotentiaries with assurances, that he would be ready at all times to give the Athenians proofs of his friendship. On their return Demosthenes, Demosthenes gave it as his opinion, that the promises of Philip ought not to be relied upon; Æschines however, was of an opposite opinion. The rest of the plenipotentiaries concurred with Æschines; and the people, desirous of quiet, and addicted to pleasure, decreed that the peace should be kept. Phocion, the worthiest man in

the republic, did not oppose Philip, as he considered that the Athenians of those times were nothing like their ancestors; and therefore, he was desirous, since they could not be at the head of Greece themselves, that they would at least be upon good terms with that power which would be so. Philip, while the Athenians were in this good humour, passed Thermopylae, and entered Phocis with an air of triumph; which so terrified the Phocians, that they gave up all thoughts of defence, and submitted to his mercy. Thus the Phocian war, which had so long employed all Greece, was ended without a stroke; and the judgment on the Phocians remitted to the Amphictyons, who decreed the walls of 3 Phocian cities to be demolished, the people to pay a yearly tribute of 60 talents, and never to use either houses or arms till they had repaid to the temple of Apollo the money they had sacrilegiously carried from thence; their arms to be broken to pieces, and burnt; and their double voice in the council to be taken from them, and given to the Macedonians. Other orders were also made for settling the affairs both of religion and state throughout Greece: all of which were executed with great exactness and moderation by Philip, who paid the most profound respect to the council; and, when he had performed its commands, returned peaceably with his army to Macedon, which gained him great reputation. At Athens alone, the justice and piety of Philip was not understood. The people began to see, though rather too late, that they had been deceived by those who had negotiated the late peace. They saw, that, through their acceptance of it, the Phocians were destroyed; that Philip was now master of Thermopylae, and might enter Greece when he pleased; that, in abandoning their allies, they had abandoned their own interest; and that, in all probability, they might soon feel the weight of his power, whom they had so foolishly trusted: they therefore began to take new and hostile measures; to repair their walls and forts, &c. But the influence of Demosthenes prevented them from entering into such an unequal contest, as he persuaded them rather to think of raising Philip by degrees, as by degrees they had raised him. Notwithstanding this resolution Diopithes, who had the command of the Athenian colonies in Thrace, observed that Philip kept his army in exercise, by taking several places in Thrace, which terribly incommoded the Athenians, and perceiving well what end he had in view, did not stay for instructions from home; but having raised with much expedition a considerable body of troops, taking advantage of the king's absence with his army, entered the adjacent territories of Philip, and wasted them with fire and sword. The king, who, on account of the operations of the campaign in the Chersonese, was not at leisure to repel Diopithes by force, nor indeed could divide his army without imminent hazard, chose, like an able general, rather to abandon his provinces to insults, which might be afterwards revenged, than, by following the dictates of an ill-timed passion, to hazard the loss of his veteran army, whereon lay all his hopes. He contented himself, therefore, with complaining to the Athenians of





ferable. He quarrelled with his wife Olympias such a degree, that he divorced her and married other woman named *Cleopatra*. This produced a quarrel between him and his son Alexander; which also came to such a height, that Alexander retired into Epirus with his mother. Some time afterwards, however, he was recalled, and a reconciliation took place in appearance; but in the mean time a conspiracy was formed against the king's life, the circumstances and causes which are very much unknown. Certain it is, however, that it took effect, during an exhibition public shows in honour of his daughter's marriage with the king of Epirus. Philip, having given a public audience to the ambassadors of Greece, was proceeding in state to the theatre, when he was stabbed at the door, by one Pausanias; who, endeavouring to escape, was overtaken, and instead of being secured, to discover his accomplices, was killed on the spot. As to the character of Philip, he was certainly one of the greatest monarchs, that ever sat on a throne. Had he lived longer, he would in all probability have subdued the Persians. "Yet, even on this supposition, (as Dr Gillies observes) there is not any man of sense and probity, who would purchase his imagined grandeur and prosperity at the price of artifices and his crimes; and to a philosopher, who considered either the means by which he obtained his triumphs or the probable consequences of his dominion over Greece and Asia, the very ambition of this mighty conqueror would appear but a deceitful scene of splendid misery." PHILIP II.

(10.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DEATH OF PHILIP II. TO THE DESTRUCTION OF PEBES. No sooner did the news of Philip's death reach Athens, than, as if all danger had in past, the inhabitants showed the most extravagant signs of joy. The affairs of Macedonia were in a very distracted state on the accession of Alexander: for all the neighbouring nations were at war with the Athenians, that the young king was a giddy boy; and being irritated by the usurpations of Philip, immediately revolted; while the states of Greece entered into a confederacy against him. The Persians had been contriving to transfer the war into Macedonia; but as soon as the news of Philip's death reached them, they supposed all danger was over. At the same time Calanus, one of the Macedonian generals aspired to the crown, and sought to draw off the soldiers from their allegiance. In the councils held on this occasion, Alexander's best friends advised Calanus rather to make use of dissimulation than force, and to cajole those whom they thought he could subdue. These advices were ill-suited to the temper of their monarch, who thought vigorous measures only proper, and therefore immediately led his army into Thessaly. Here he harangued the princes so effectually, that he thoroughly convinced them over to his interest, and was by them declared general of Greece; upon which he returned to Macedonia, where he caused Attalus to be put to death. In the spring of the next year (335 B. C.) Alexander resolved to subdue the Triballians and Illyrians, who inhabited the countries now called *Bulgaria* and *Sclavonia*, and

had been very formidable enemies to the Macedonian power. In this expedition he discovered, though then but 20 years of age, a surprising degree of military knowledge. Having advanced to the passes of Mount Hæmus, he found that the barbarians had posted themselves in the most advantageous manner. On the tops of the cliffs, and at the head of every passage, they had placed their carriages and waggons in such a manner as to form a kind of parapet with their shafts inwards, that when the Macedonians should have half ascended the rock, they might be able to push these heavy carriages down upon them. They reckoned the more upon this contrivance, because of the close order of the phalanx, which, they imagined, would be terribly exposed by the soldiers wanting room to stir, and thereby avoid the falling waggons. But Alexander, having directed his heavy-armed troops to march, gave orders, that, where the way would permit, they should open to the right and left, and suffer the carriages to go through; but that, in the narrow passes, they should throw themselves on their faces with their shields behind them, that the carts might run over them. This had the desired effect; and the Macedonians reached the enemy's works without the loss of a man. The dispute was then quickly decided; the barbarians were driven from their posts with great slaughter, and left behind them a considerable booty. The next exploits of Alexander were against the Getæ, the Taulantii, and other nations inhabiting the country on the other side of the Danube. Them he also overcame, showing in all his actions the most perfect skill in military affairs, joined with the greatest valour. In the mean time, however, almost all the states of Greece were put in commotion, by a report which had been confidently spread abroad, that the king was dead in Illyria. The Thebans, on this news, seized Amyntas and Timolaus, two eminent officers in the Macedonian garrison which held their citadel, and dragged them to the market place, where they were put to death without form of process, or any crime alleged against them. Alexander did not suffer them to remain long in their mistake. He marched with such expedition, that in 7 days he reached Pallene in Thessaly; and in six days more he entered Bœotia, before the Thebans had intelligence of his passing the straits of Thermopylæ. Even then they would not believe that he was alive; but insisted, that the Macedonian army was commanded by Antipater, or by one Alexander the son of Æropus. The rest of the Greeks, however, were not so hard of belief; and therefore sent no assistance to the Thebans, who were thus obliged to bear the consequences of their own folly. The city was taken by storm, and the inhabitants were for some hours massacred without distinction of age or sex; after which the houses were demolished, all except that of Pindar the famous poet, which was spared out of respect to the merit of its owner, and because he had celebrated Alexander I. king of Macedonia. The lands, excepting those destined to religious uses, were shared among the soldiers, and 30,000 prisoners sold for slaves; by which 440 talents were brought into the king's treasury. In this

Thebans perished; but the posterity and those who had entertained his were saved.

EDON, HISTORY OF, FROM THE OF THEBES, TO THAT OF TYRE.

The rest of the Grecian states were humbled, that they thought no

stance, and Alexander had nothing to

is favourite project of invading preparation was necessary for

monarch, who went out as to an reckoned upon being sup-

of his enemies. Historians is to the number of his army;

that he had not above 30,000, 4,000 foot, and 5000 horse. He had

month's provisions, but it is not known had any money, though Aristobu-

had 70 talents. To prevent distur-

ripator was left in Macedon with and 1500 horse. The army having

Amphipolis, he marched thence to of the Strymon; then crossing mount

he took the road to Abdera. Crossing us, he proceeded through the country of

id in 20 days reached Sestos; thence he Eleus, where he sacrificed on the

rotefilaus, because he was the first a- Greeks who, at the siege of Troy, set

e Asiatic shore. The greatest part of under Parmenio, embarked at Sestos,

a fleet of 160 galleys of 3 benches of is small craft. Alexander himself sailed

; and when he was in the middle of the Hellespont, offered a bull to Neptune and

the Nereids. When he drew near the shore, he lanced a javelin, which stuck in the earth: then,

in complete armour, he leaped upon the strand; and having erected altars to Jupiter, Minerva,

and Hercules, he proceeded to Ilium, where he sacrificed to Minerva; and taking down some

arms which had hung in her temple since the Trojan war, consecrated his own in their stead.

He sacrificed also to the ghost of Priam, to avert his wrath on account of his own descent from

Achilles. In the mean time the Persians had assembled a great army in Phrygia; among whom

was one Memnon a Rhodian, the best officer in the service of Darius. Alexander, after perform-

ing his usual ceremonies, marched directly towards the enemy. Memnon gave it as his opi-

on that they should burn and destroy all the country round, that they might deprive the Greeks

of the means of subsistence, and then transport a part of their army into Macedon. But the Per-

sians, depending on their cavalry, rejected this salutary advice; and posted themselves along the

river Granicus, to wait the arrival of Alexander. In an engagement which happened on the banks

of that river, the Persians were defeated, (see GRANICUS,) and Alexander became master of all the

neighbouring country. The city of Sardis was immediately delivered up; and Alexander built a

temple in it to Jupiter Olympius. After this, he restored the Ephesians to their liberty; ordered

the tribute which they formerly paid to the Persians to be applied towards the rebuilding of the

magnificent temple of Diana; and having settled

the affairs of the city, marched against Miletus.

This place was defended by Memnon with a considerable body of troops who had fled thither af-

ter the battle of Granicus, and therefore made a vigorous resistance. The city, however, was

soon reduced, though Memnon with part of the troops escaped to Halicarnassus. After this, A-

lexander dismissed his fleet, probably to show his army that their only resource now lay in subvert-

ing the Persian empire. Almost all the cities between Miletus and Halicarnassus submitted as

soon as they heard that the former was taken; but Halicarnassus, where Memnon commanded

with a very numerous garrison, made an obstinate defence. Nothing, however, was able to resist

the Macedonian army. Memnon was at last obliged to abandon the place; upon which Alexander

took and rased the city of Tralles in Phrygia; received the submission of several princes tributary

to the Persians; and having destroyed the Marmarians, a people of Lycia who had fallen

upon the rear of his army, put an end to the campaign; after which he sent home all the

married men; which endeared him more to his soldiers than any other action of his life. As soon

as the season would permit, Alexander quitted the province of Phaselus; and, having sent part of

his army through the mountainous country to Perga, continued his march towards Gordium, a

city of Phrygia; the enemy having abandoned the strong pass of Telmissus, through which

was necessary for him to march. When he arrived at Gordium, he expressed a desire of seeing

K. Gordius's chariot, and the famous knot in the harness, of which such strange stories had been

published to the world. (See GORDIAN KNOT; and GORDIUS N<sup>o</sup> I.) Most of authors say he cut

the knot, but Aristobolus assures us, that he wrested a wooden pin out of the beam of the waggon,

which held it up, and so took the yoke from under it. Be this as it will, Arrian informs us, that a great

tempest of thunder, lightning, and rain, happening the succeeding night, it was held declarative

of the true solution of this knot, and that Alexander should become lord of Asia. He next

marched towards Cilicia; the Persians abandoning all the strong passes as he advanced. As soon

as he entered the province, he heard that Artabanes, whom Darius had made governor of Tarsus, was

about to abandon it, and that the inhabitants were afraid he would plunder them before he withdrew.

To prevent this, Alexander marched incessantly, and arrived just in time to save the city. But his

saving it had well nigh cost him his life, for, either through the excessive fatigue of marching, as some

say, or, according to others, by his plunging when very hot into the Cydnus, he fell into such a dis-

temper as threatened his immediate dissolution. His soldiers and physicians were equally alarmed;

but PHILIS the Acaruanian gave him a potion, which restored him to his usual health. After his

recovery, he received the agreeable news, that Ptolemy and Alexander had defeated the Persian

generals, and made great conquests on the Hellespont; and soon after, he met the Persian army at

Ilium, commanded by Darius himself. A bloody engagement ensued, in which the Persians were

defeated with great slaughter. (See ISSUS.) The consequences

Consequences of this victory were very advantageous to the Macedonians. Many governors of provinces and petty princes submitted to the conqueror; and such as did so were treated, not as newly conquered people, but as his old hereditary subjects; being neither burthened with soldiers nor oppressed with tribute. Among the number of those places, which, within a short space after the battle of Issus, sent deputies to submit to the conqueror, was the city of Tyre. Azelicus, the king, was absent in the Persian fleet; but his son was among the deputies, and was very favourably received by Alexander; who told the deputies, that he would come and sacrifice to the Tyrian Hercules, the patron of their city. But the Tyrians were too suspicious, to think of admitting such an enterprising prince with his troops within their walls. They sent therefore their deputies again to him, to inform him, that they were ready to do whatever he should command them; but, as to his coming and sacrificing to their city, they could not consent to that, but were determined not to admit a single Macedonian within their gates. Alexander immediately dismissed their deputies in great displeasure; and assembled a council of war, wherein the siege of Tyre was resolved on. The town was not taken, however, without great difficulty, after a siege of six months; which provoked Alexander to a degree, that he treated the inhabitants with the greatest cruelty; 6000 armed men were slain in the town; 2000 were crucified on the sea shore; and all the rest of the inhabitants were massacred without distinction, except such as took refuge in the temples, and 15,000 who were conveyed to Sidon by the Sidonians, who served in Alexander's army.

(See.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, FROM THE DESTRUCTION OF TYRE TO THAT OF PERSEPOLIS. After the reduction of Tyre, Alexander, though the season was far advanced, resolved to make an expedition into Syria; and in his way thither proposed to chastise the Jews, who had highly offended him during the siege of Tyre: for when he sent to them to demand provisions for his soldiers, they answered, That they were the subjects of Darius, and bound by oath not to supply his enemies. The king, however, was pacified by their submission; and not only pardoned them, but conferred many privileges upon them. (See *GEN.* § 3.) From Jerusalem Alexander marched directly to GAZA, the only place in that part of the world which still held out for Darius. This was a very large and strong city, situated on a hill, about 5 miles from the shore. One of his officers, *Batis*, an eunuch, had the government of the garrison, and having made every preparation for sustaining a long siege, defended it with great valour, and several times repulsed his enemies; but at last was taken by storm, and all the garrison slain but one man. This secured to Alexander an entrance into Egypt, which having before been very impatient of the Persian yoke, admitted the Macedonians peaceably. Here he laid the foundations of the city of ALEXANDRIA, which for many centuries after was the capital of the country. While he remained here, he also formed the extraordinary design of visiting the temple of Jupiter Ammon.

In this expedition, he hazarded himself and his troops in the highest degree, first by the want of water, which, in the sandy deserts surrounding the temple, is no where to be found; and, secondly by the uncertainty of the road from the fluctuation of the sands; which changing their situation every moment, leave neither a road nor mark to march by. These difficulties, however, Alexander overcame; and having consulted the oracle, and received a favourable answer, returned to pursue his conquests. Having settled the government of Egypt, he appointed the general rendezvous of his forces at Tyre. Here he met with ambassadors from Athens, requesting him to pardon such of their countrymen as he found serving the enemy. Desirous to oblige such a famous state, he granted their request, and sent a fleet to the coast of Greece, to quell some commotions which had lately happened in Peloponnesus. He then directed his march to Thapsacus; and having passed the Euphrates and Tigris, met with Darius near Arbela, where the Persians were again overthrown with prodigious slaughter, and Alexander in effect became master of the Persian empire. (See ARBELA, § 2.) After this important victory, Alexander marched directly to Babylon, which was immediately delivered up; the inhabitants being greatly disaffected to the Persian interest. After 30 days stay in this country, he marched to Susa, which had already surrendered to Philoxenus; and here he received the treasures of the Persian monarch, amounting, according to the most generally received account, to 50,000 talents. Having received also at this time a supply of 6000 foot and 500 horse from Macedon, he set about reducing the nations of Media, among whom Darius was retired. He first reduced the Uxians; and having forced a passage to Persepolis the capital of the empire, he, like a barbarian, destroyed the stately palace there, a pile of building not equalled in any part of the world; (See PERSEPOLIS;) after having given up the city to be plundered by his soldiers. In the palace he found 120,000 talents, which he appropriated to his own use, and caused immediately to be carried away upon mules and camels; for he had such an extreme aversion to the inhabitants of Persepolis, that he determined to leave nothing valuable in the city.

(I.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, TILL THE DEATH OF DARIUS III, AND THE CONQUEST OF PERSIA. While Alexander remained at Persepolis, he received intelligence that Darius remained at Ecbatana, the capital of Media; upon which he pursued him with the greatest expedition, marching at the rate of near 20 miles a-day. In 15 days he reached Ecbatana, where he was informed, that Darius had retired from thence five days before, with an intent to pass into the remotest provinces of his empire. This put some stop to the rapid progress of the Macedonian army; and the king perceiving that there was no possibility of hurrying him self and his soldiers, turned his attention to other affairs. The Thessalian horse, who had deserved exceedingly well of him in all his battles, he dismissed according to his agreement; gave them their whole pay, and ordered 2000 talents more and above to be distributed among

declared that he would  
 any were willing to serve  
 desired they would enter  
 which a great many of  
 their horses, and prepa-  
 The king appointed E-  
 in to the sea, and assigned  
 escort: he likewise sent  
 take care of their embark-  
 re safely landed in Eubœa  
 r this, he set out again in  
 advancing as far as Rhages, a  
 journey from the Caspian straits;  
 Darius had passed those  
 therefore he halted only  
 erian whom Darius had  
 s made governor of Me-  
 set out on an expedition in-  
 he Caspian straits without  
 red his officers to col-  
 is sufficient to serve his  
 rough a wasted country.  
 could accomplish these  
 he received intelligence that  
 had been murdered by Bessus, one of his  
 jeets, and governor of Bactria. (See PER-  
 as soon as Alexander had collected his  
 ogether, and settled the government of  
 e entered Hyrcania; and having com-  
 greatest part of his army to the care  
 as, he, at the head of a choice body of  
 asled through certain craggy roads, and  
 arrival of Craterus, who took an open  
 path, struck the whole provinces with  
 terror, that all the principal places were im-  
 mediately put into his hands, and soon after the  
 province of Aria also submitted, and the king  
 continued Satibarzanes the governor in his em-  
 ployment.—The reduction of this province finish-  
 ed the conquest of Persia.

(14.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, TILL THE EX-  
 PEDITION OF ALEXANDER TO INDIA. The ambi-  
 tion of Alexander to become master of every  
 nation of which he had the least intelligence, in-  
 duced him to enter the country of the MARDI,  
 merely because its rocks and barrenness had hither-  
 to hindered any body from conquering, or indeed  
 attempting to conquer it. This conquest, how-  
 ever, he easily accomplished. But in the mean  
 time disturbances began to arise in Alexander's  
 new empire, and among his troops, which all his  
 activity could not thoroughly suppress. He had  
 scarcely left the province of Aria, when he receiv-  
 ed intelligence, that the traitor Bessus had caused  
 himself to be proclaimed king of Asia by the name  
*Artaxerxes*; and that Satibarzanes had joined  
 him, after having massacred all the Macedonians  
 who had been left in the province. Alexander  
 appointed one *Arifanes* governor in the room of  
 Satibarzanes; and marched thence with his army  
 against the ZARANGÆ, who, under the command  
 of Barzaentes, one of the conspirators against Da-  
 rius, had taken up arms, and threatened to make  
 an obstinate defence. But their numbers daily  
 falling off, Barzaentes being afraid they would  
 purchase their own safety at the expence of his,  
 privately withdrew from his camp, and, crossing  
 the Indus, sought shelter among the nations be-

yond it. But they, either detesting his treachery,  
 or dreading the power of Alexander, delivered  
 him up to Alexander, who caused him immedi-  
 ately to be put to death. The immense treasure  
 which the Macedonians had acquired in the con-  
 quest of Persia began now to corrupt them. The  
 king himself being of a generous disposition, lib-  
 erally bestowed his gifts on those around him; but  
 they made a bad use of his bounty, and indulged  
 in those vices by which the former possession of  
 that wealth had lost it. Alexander did all in his  
 power to discourage the lazy pride which now be-  
 gan to appear among his officers; but with little  
 effect. His courtiers at last proceeded to censure  
 his conduct, and to express themselves with fine  
 bitterness on his long continuance of the war, and  
 his leading them constantly from one labour to  
 another. This came to such an height, that the  
 king was at last obliged to use some severity in or-  
 der to keep his army within the limits of their  
 duty. From this time forward, however, Alex-  
 ander himself began to alter his conduct; and by  
 yielding a little to the customs of the Orientals,  
 endeavoured to secure that obedience from his  
 new subjects which he found so difficult to be pre-  
 served among his old ones. He likewise endeav-  
 oured to blend the customs of the Asiatics and  
 the Greeks. The form of his civil government  
 resembled that of the ancient Persian king; in  
 military affairs, however, he preserved the Mac-  
 donian discipline; but he made choice of 30,000  
 boys out of the provinces, whom he caused to be  
 instructed in the Greek language, and brought up  
 in such a manner, as that from time to time he  
 might with them fill up the phalanx. The Mac-  
 donians saw with great concern these extraordi-  
 nary measures, which suited very ill with their  
 gross understandings; for they thought, after all  
 the victories they had gained, to be absolute lords  
 of Asia, and to possess not only the riches of all  
 inhabitants, but to rule the inhabitants themselves;  
 whereas they now saw, that Alexander meant to do  
 such thing; but that, on the contrary, he introduc-  
 ed governments, offices at court, and all other  
 marks of confidence and favour, indiscriminately  
 both on Greeks and Persians.—From this time  
 the king seems to have given instances of a cruelt-  
 y he had never shown before. Philotas his most  
 intimate friend was seized, tortured, and put to  
 death, for a conspiracy of which it could never be  
 proved that he was guilty; and soon after Parme-  
 nio and some others were executed, without any  
 crime at all real or alleged. These things very  
 much disturbed the army. Some of them wrote  
 home to Macedonia of the King's suspicions of his  
 friends, and his disposition to hunt out enemies  
 at the very extremities of the world. Alexander  
 having intercepted some of these letters, and procur-  
 ed the best information he could concerning  
 their authors, pick'd out these dissatisfied people,  
 and having disposed them into one corps, gave  
 the title of the *turbulent battalion*; hoping thus  
 to prevent the spirit of dissatisfaction from pervad-  
 ing the whole army. As a farther precaution against  
 any future conspiracy, Alexander appointed his  
 phalition and Clytus generals of the auxiliary  
 horse: being apprehensive, that if this authority  
 was lodged in the hands of a single person, it  
 might

ight tempt him to dangerous undertakings, and  
 wife furnish him with the means of carrying  
 on into execution. To keep his forces in ac-  
 ceptance, he suddenly marched into the country of  
*Euergetæ*, i. e. *Benefactors*; and found them  
 of that kind and hospitable disposition for  
 which that name had been bestowed on their an-  
 cestors: he therefore treated them with great re-  
 spect; and at his departure added some lands to  
 his dominions, which lay contiguous to them.  
 Turning then to the E. he entered Arachosia, the  
 inhabitants of which readily submitted. While  
 he passed the winter in these parts, he received  
 intelligence, that the Arians, whom he had so lately  
 subdued, were again up in arms, Satibarzanes be-  
 lieved returned into that country with 2000 horse  
 raised him by Bessus. Alexander instantly dis-  
 patched Artabazus the Persian, with Erigyus and  
 others, two of his commanders, and a consi-  
 derable body of horse and foot: he likewise or-  
 dered Phrataphernes, to whom he had given the  
 government of Parthia, to accompany them. A  
 general engagement ensued, wherein the Arians  
 fought bravely till their commander Satibarzanes  
 was killed by Erigyus; whereupon the Arians fled,  
 leaving an easy conquest of the rest of the country  
 to Alexander. Alexander, notwithstanding the incle-  
 mency of the season, advanced into the country  
 of Propamisus, and, having crossed it in 16 days,  
 he found an opening leading into Media;  
 upon finding of a sufficient breadth, he directed  
 his army to be built there, which he called *ALEX-  
 ANDRIA*, as also several other towns about a day's  
 journey distant: and in these places he left 7000  
 soldiers, part of them such as had hitherto fol-  
 lowed his camp, and part of the mercenary sol-  
 diers, who, weary of continual fatigue, were con-  
 sidered to dwell there. Having thus settled things  
 in this province, sacrificed to the gods, and ap-  
 pointed Proexes the Persian president, with a  
 considerable body of troops under the command of Ni-  
 chomachus to assist him, he resumed his former de-  
 sign of penetrating into Bactria. Bessus, who had  
 assumed the name of *Artaxerxes*, when he was as-  
 sured that Alexander was marching towards him,  
 endeavoured to waste all the country between Paropa-  
 misus and the Oxus; which river he passed with  
 his forces, and then burnt all the vessels he had  
 made use of, for transporting them, retiring to  
 Mervaca, a city of Sogdia; fully persuaded, that,  
 by the precautions he had taken, Alexander would  
 be compelled to give over his pursuit. This con-  
 sideration, however, disheartened his own troops, and  
 he was obliged to lie to all his pretensions; for he had cen-  
 sured Darius's conduct, and charged him with  
 injustice, in not defending the Euphrates and  
 Tigris, whereas he now quitted the banks of the  
 Oxus, a defensible river perhaps in the world. Alex-  
 ander, continuing his march, notwithstanding all  
 the hardships his soldiers sustained, reduced all  
 the provinces under his obedience, particularly the ca-  
 pital, and the strong castle Aornus: in the latter  
 he placed a garrison under Archelaus; but the  
 government of the province he committed to Ar-  
 tabazus. He then continued his march to the  
 Oxus, at which when he arrived, he found it three  
 leagues of a mile over, its depth more than pro-  
 portionable to its breadth, its bottom sandy, its

stream so rapid as to render it almost unnavigable,  
 and neither boat nor tree in its neighbourhood,  
 so that the ablest commanders in the Macedonian  
 army were of opinion that they should be obliged  
 to march back. The king, however, having first  
 sent away, under a proper escort, all his infirm  
 and worn out soldiers, that they might be con-  
 ducted safe to the sea-ports, and thence to Greece,  
 devised a method of passing this river without ei-  
 ther boat or bridge, by causing the hides which  
 covered the soldiers tents and carriages to be stu-  
 fied with straw, and then tied together, and thrown  
 into the river. Having crossed the Oxus, he  
 marched directly towards the camp of Bessus,  
 where when he arrived, he found it abandoned;  
 but received, at the same time letters from Spita-  
 menes and Dataphernes, who were the chief com-  
 manders under Bessus, signifying, that, if he would  
 send a small party to receive Bessus, they would  
 deliver him into his hands; which they did ac-  
 cordingly, and the traitor was put to death. See  
*PERSLA*. A supply of horses being now arrived,  
 the Macedonian cavalry were remounted. Alex-  
 ander continued his march to Maracanda the ca-  
 pital of Sogdia, from whence he advanced to the  
 river Iaxartes. Here he performed great exploits  
 against the Scythians; from whom, however,  
 though he overcame them, his army suffered  
 much; and the revolted Sogdians being headed  
 by Spitamenes, gave him a great deal of trouble.  
 Here he married Roxana the daughter of Oxyar-  
 tes, a prince of the country whom he had sub-  
 dued. But during these expeditions, he greatly  
 disgusted his army by the murder of his friend  
 Clytus in a drunken quarrel at a banquet, and by  
 his extravagant vanity in claiming divine honours.  
 At last he arrived at the Indus, where Hephæstion  
 and Perdicas had provided a bridge of boats for  
 the passage of the army. Alexander, having cross-  
 ed that river, appointed Philip governor of Taxila,  
 and put a Macedonian garrison into the place, as  
 he intended to erect an hospital there for the  
 cure of his sick and wounded soldiers: after which  
 he set out on his Indian expedition, as related un-  
 der the article *INDIA*, § 4.

(15.) *MACEDON, HISTORY OF, TO THE DEATH  
 OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.* Alexander upon  
 his return to Caramania, redressed the injuries  
 of his people, who had been grievously oppressed  
 by their governors during his absence. He also he  
 was joined by his admiral Nearchus, who brought  
 him an account that all under his command were  
 in perfect safety, and in excellent condition; with  
 which the king was pleased, and after having be-  
 stowed on him singular marks of his favour, sent  
 him back to the navy. Alexander next set out  
 for Persia, where great disorders had been commit-  
 ted during his absence. These also he redressed,  
 and caused the governor to be executed; appoint-  
 ing in his room Peucestas, who saved his life when  
 he fought singly against a whole garrison as relat-  
 ed under *INDIA*, § 4. The new governor was no  
 sooner invested with his dignity, than he laid aside  
 the Macedonian garb, and put on that of the  
 Medes; being the only one of Alexander's captains,  
 who, by complying with the manners of the peo-  
 ple he governed, gained their affection. While  
 Alexander visited the different parts of Persia, he

took a view, among the rest, of the ruins of Persopolis, where he is said to have expressed great sorrow for the destruction he had formerly occasioned. From Persopolis he marched to Susa, where he gave an extraordinary loose to pleasure; resolving to make himself and his followers some amends for the difficulties they had undergone; purposing at the same time so effectually to unite his new conquered with his hereditary subjects, that the jealousies and fears, which had hitherto tormented both, should no longer subsist. With this view he married two wives of the blood royal of Persia; viz. Barfine, or Statora, the daughter of Darius, and Parysatis the daughter of Ochus. Drypetis, another daughter of Darius, he gave to Hephæstion; Amastine, the daughter of Oxyartes, the brother of Darius, married Craterus; and to the rest of his friends, to the number of 80, he gave other women of the greatest quality. All these marriages were celebrated at once, Alexander himself bestowing fortunes upon them; he directed likewise to take account of the officers and soldiers who had married Asiatic wives; and tho' they amounted to 10,000, yet he gratified each of them according to his rank. He next resolved to pay the debts of his army, and thereupon issued an edict directing every man to register his name and the sum he owed; with which the soldiers complying slowly, from an apprehension that there was some design against them, Alexander ordered tables heaped with money to be set in all quarters of the camp, and caused every man's debts to be paid on his bare word, without even making any entry of his name; though the whole sum came to 20,000 talents. On such as had distinguished themselves in an extraordinary manner, he bestowed crowns of gold. Peucestas had the first; Leonatus the 2d; Nearchus the 3d; Onesicritus the 4th; Hephæstion the 5; and therest of his guards had each of them one. After this he made other dispositions for conciliating the differences among all his subjects. He reviewed the 30,000 youths, whom at his departure for India he had ordered to be taught Greek and the Macedonian discipline; expressing high satisfaction at the fine appearance they made, which rendered them worthy of the appellation he bestowed on them, viz. that of *Epigoni*, i. e. successors. He promoted also, without any distinction of nation, all those who had served him faithfully and valiantly in the Indian war. When all these regulations were made, he gave the command of his heavy armed troops to Hephæstion, and ordered him to march directly to the banks of the Tigris, while in the mean time a fleet was equipped for carrying the king and the troops he retained with him down to the ocean. Thus ended the exploits of Alexander; the greatest conqueror that ever the world saw, at least with respect to the rapidity of his conquests. In 12 years he had brought under his subjection Egypt, Libya, Asia Minor, Syria, Phœnicia, Palestine, Babylonia, Persia, with part of India and Tartary. Still, however, he meditated greater things. He had now got a great taste in maritime affairs; and is said to have meditated a voyage to the coasts of Arabia and Ethiopia, and thence round the whole continent of Africa to the Straits of Gibraltar. Of this

however there is no great certainty; but intended to subdue the Carthaginians is more than probable. All these designs, however, were frustrated by his death, which happened at Babylon A. A. C. 323. He never after 8 days illness, without nameless sufferings; having only given his ring to Hephæstion and left the kingdom, *is the most uncharacteristic* character of this great prince has been represented; (See ALEXANDER III.) Historians seem to have looked upon him as an illustrious madman, than one who merited the epithet *Great*. From a careful observation of his conduct, however, it must appear, that he possessed not only a capacity to plan, but also to execute, the greatest enterprises that ever entered into the mind of any of the monarchs of the world. From whatever cause the notion originated, plain that he imagined himself a deity, and born to subdue the whole world. His schemes were as vague and impracticable as this idea. It does not appear, it cannot at all be looked upon as the same light in the time of Alexander. The Greeks were in his time the most powerful people in the world in respect to their skill in the arts, and the Persians were the most powerful in respect to wealth and numbers. The Carthaginians, Gauls, and Romans were the most powerful people in the world in respect to arms. In the series of wars which the Carthaginians carried on in Sicily, it appeared that they were capable of contending with the Greeks. In the wars they had an immense superiority over the Romans; much less then could they have sustained a successful attack from the whole power of Greece united. The Gauls and Romans were very brave, and of a martial disposition; but they were barbarous, and could not be taught to form regular and disciplined armies well disciplined and under the command of such a skillful leader as Alexander. Thus it appears, that the scheme of Alexander cannot be accounted that of a madman, who projects great things without any means to execute them. If we consider the end which most probably he had in view, could his scheme have been accomplished, he would find it not only the greatest but the most just and possibly be imagined. He conquered, he destroyed, he enslaved, or oppressed; but to civilize the whole world as one nation. No province conquered, than he took care to have had been part of his paternal inheritance. He allowed not his soldiers to oppress and plunder the Persians, which they were very much disposed to do; on the contrary, by giving into their hands the customs of the Persians, he strove to extinguish the mutual hatred which had so long existed between the two nations. In the several provinces which he subdued, he pursued a most excellent plan. His courage and military skill, which he never was excelled, were directed with a view to rapine or desultory conquest, to civilize and induce the barbarous to employ themselves in a more profitable and useful life. "Amidst the hardships of a military life," (says Dr Gillies), "obstinate sieges, battles, and dear bought victories, he still maintained the rights of mankind, and practised the

humanity. The conquered nations enjoyed their laws and privileges; the rigours of despotism were softened; arts and industry encouraged, the proudest Macedonian governors compelled by the authority and example of Alexander, to observe the rules of justice towards their mean subjects. To bridle the fierce inhabitants of Scythian plains, he founded cities and established colonies on the banks of the Iaxartes and Oxus; and those destructive campaigns usually ascribed to his restless activity and blind ambition, appeared to the discernment of his extraordinary mind not only essential to the security of the conquest which he had already made, but necessary to the more remote and splendid expeditions which he still proposed to undertake, and which he performed with singular boldness and unexpected success."—"He was of a low stature, and somewhat deformed; but the activity and elevation of his mind animated and enobled his frame. His life of continual labour, and by an early and assiduous practice of the gymnastic exercises, he hardened his body against the impressions of cold and heat, hunger and thirst, and prepared his mind for the exertions of strength and activity, as have appeared incredible in the undisciplined softness of modern times. In the profuse and in prowess, he rivalled the greatest heroes of antiquity; and in the race of glory, he finally outstripped all competitors, became victorious to surpass himself. His superior skill in the art of war, and his uninterrupted success to his arms; and his natural humanity, enlightened by the philosophy of Greece, taught him to improve his conquests to the best interests of mankind. In his vast dominions, he built or founded not less than 70 cities; the situation of which being chosen with consummate wisdom, tended to facilitate communication, to promote commerce, and to diffuse civility through the greatest nations of the earth. It may be suspected, indeed, that he looked the extent of human power, when in the person of one reign he undertook to change the face of the world; and that he miscalculated the stubbornness of ignorance and the force of habit, when he attempted to enlighten barbarism, to soften ferocity, and to transplant the improvements of Greece into an African and Asiatic soil, where they have never been known to flourish. Yet let us consider the designs of Alexander he too hastily accused of extravagance. Whoever seriously considers what he actually performed before his 33d year, will be cautious of determining what he might have accomplished had he reached the ordinary term of human life. His resources were peculiar to himself; and such views as well as actions became him as would have become none besides. In the language of a philosophical historian, "he was to have been given to the world by a peculiar dispensation of Providence, being a man to none other of the human kind."

16.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, TO THE FUNERAL OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT. By the death of Alexander fell the glory of the Macedonians; they very soon relapsed into a situation as bad, or worse, than that in which they had been before the reign of Philip. This was occasioned principally by his not having distinctly named a succes-

for, and having no child come to the years of discretion, to whom the kingdom might seem naturally to belong. The ambition and jealousy of his mother Olympias, his queen Roxana, and especially of the great commanders of his army, not only prevented a succession from being ever named, but occasioned the death of every person, in the least related to Alexander. To have a just notion of the origin of these disturbances, it is necessary in the first place to understand the situation of the Macedonian affairs at the time of Alexander's death. When Alexander set out for Asia, he left Antipater, in Macedon, to prevent any disturbances that might arise either there or in Greece. The Greeks, even during the lifetime of Alexander, bore the superiority which he exercised over them with great impatience; and, though nothing could be more gentle than the government of Antipater, yet he was exceedingly hated, because he obliged them to be quiet. One of the last actions of Alexander's life set all Greece in a flame. He had, by an edict, directed all the cities of Greece to recal their exiles; which edict, when published at the Olympic games, created much confusion. Many of the cities were afraid, that, when the exiles returned, they would change the government; most of them doubted their own safety if the edict took place; and all of them held this peremptory decree to be a total abolition of their liberty. No sooner therefore did the news of Alexander's death arrive than they prepared for war. In Asia the state of things was not much better; not indeed through any inclination of the conquered countries to revolt, but through the dissensions among the commanders. In the general council which was called soon after the death of Alexander, after much confusion and altercation, it was at last agreed, or rather commanded by the soldiers, that Aridæus the brother of Alexander, who had always accompanied the king, and had been wont to sacrifice with him, should assume the sovereignty.—This Aridæus was a man of very slender parts and judgment, not naturally, but by the wicked practices of Olympias, who had given him poisonous draughts in his infancy, lest he should stand in the way of her son Alexander or any of his family; and for this, or some other reason, Perdicas, Ptolemy, and most of the horse-officers, resented his promotion to such a degree, that they quitted the assembly, and even the city. However, Meleager, at the head of the phalanx, vigorously supported their first resolution, and Aridæus was made king by the name of Philip. The Macedonians besides their regard for the deceased king, soon began to entertain a personal love for Philip III. on account of his moderation. It is remarkable, that notwithstanding all the favours which Alexander had conferred upon his officers, and the fidelity with which they had served him during his life, only two of them were attached to the interests of his family after his death. These were Antipater and Eumenes the Cardian, whom he had appointed his secretary. Antipater, being embroiled with the Greeks, could not assist the royal family who were in Asia; and Eumenes had not as yet sufficient interest to form a party in their favour. In a short time, however, Perdicas got Meleager murdered; by which means

the supreme power for a time fell into his hands. His first step was to distribute the provinces of the empire among the commanders in the following manner, in order to prevent competitors, and to satisfy the ambition of the principal generals of the army. Aridæus, and Alexander the son of Roxana, born after the death of his father, were to reign in Macedon. Antipater had the government of the European provinces. Craterus had the title of *protector*. Perdicas was general of the household troops in the room of Hephæstion. Ptolemy Lagus, the natural son of Philip, had Egypt, Libya, and that part of Arabia which borders upon Egypt. Cleomenes, a man of infamous character, whom Alexander had made receiver general in Egypt, was made Ptolemy's deputy. Leonædon had Syria; Philotas, Cilicia; Pithon, Media; Eumenes, Cappadocia, Euphratonia, and all the country bordering on the Euxine Sea, as far as Trapezus; but these were not yet conquered, so that he was a governor without a province. Antigonus had Pamphylia, Lycia, and Phrygia Major; Cassander, Caria; Menander, Lydia; Leonatus, Phrygia on the Hellespont. In the mean time, not only Alexander's will, but Alexander himself, was so much neglected, that his body was allowed to remain 7 days before any notice was taken of it, or any orders given for its being embalmed. The orders he left for building a fleet of 1000 stout galleys, for the reduction of the sea-coasts of Africa and Spain; for making a regular high-way along the coast of Africa; for erecting six temples of extraordinary magnificence; with castles, arsenals, havens, and yards for building ships; for building a number of new cities in Europe and Asia; and for raising a pyramid, equal in bulk and beauty to the biggest in Egypt, in honour of his father Philip, were all referred to a council of Macedonians, to be held nobody knew when or where. The government, in the hands of Perdicas and Roxana, quickly degenerated. Alexander was scarce dead when the queen sent for Statira and Drypetis, the two daughters of Darius, the former of whom had been married to Alexander and the latter to Hephæstion; but as soon as they arrived at Babylon, caused them both to be murdered, that no son of Alexander by any other woman, or of Hephæstion, might give any trouble to her or her son, Alexander. Syngambis, the mother of Darius, no sooner heard that Alexander was dead, than she laid violent hands on herself, being apprehensive of the calamities which were about to ensue. In the year 321 B. C. the Greeks confederated against Antipater, who was defeated, with the army under his command; and Leonatus being sent from Asia, with a considerable army, to his assistance, both were overthrown with great loss, and Leonatus killed. Soon after, however, Craterus arrived in Greece with a great army, which when joined to that of Antipater, amounted to no fewer than 40,000 foot, 3000 archers, and 5000 horse: while that of the confederates amounted only to 3000 horse, and 2500 foot. The Greeks were therefore defeated, and forced to sue for peace; which they obtained on condition of their receiving Macedonian garrisons into their chief cities. At Athens also the democratic government was abrogated; and such a

dreadful punishment did this seem to the Athenians, that 22,000 of them left their country retired into Macedon. Disturbances began to arise in Asia and Thrace. The Greek mercenaries, dispersed through the inland parts of Asia, despairing of ever being allowed to return home by fair means, determined to attempt force. For this purpose, they assembled a number of 20,000 foot and 3000 horse; but all cut off by the Macedonians. In Thrace Machus was attacked by one Scuthes, a prince that country who claimed the dominions of his ancestors, and had raised an army of 20000 and 8000 horse. But though the Macedonian commander was forced to engage this army with 4000 foot and 2000 horse, yet he kept the battle, and could not be driven out of the country. Perdicas, in the mean time, by pretending friendship to the royal family, had gained over them entirely to his interest; and at last put himself in possession of the province of Cappadocia by the feat of Ariarathes king of that country, who afterwards cruelly caused to be crucified his ambition, however, now began to lead him to difficulties. At the first division of the province to Perdicas, to strengthen his own authority, he proposed to marry Nicæa the daughter of Antipater; and so well was this proposal received by her brethren Jollas and Archias conducted him, in order to be present at the nuptials. Perdicas now had other things in view. He had been solicited by Olympias to marry her daughter Cleopatra, the widow of Alexander king of Macedonia, and who then resided at Sardis in Lydia. Eumenes promoted this match to the utmost of his power, because he thought it would be to the interest of the royal family; and his success had such an effect on Perdicas, that he sent to Sardis to compliment Cleopatra, and carry presents to her in name of her nephew. In the absence of Eumenes, however, Alcibiades brother of Perdicas, persuaded him to marry Nicæa; but, in order to gratify his ambition, he resolved to divorce her immediately after the marriage, and marry Cleopatra. By this marriage, he hoped to have a pretence for the government of Macedon; and, as a measure preparative to these, he laid plot for destroying Antigonus. But all his schemes were ruined by his own jealousy and precipitancy. Cynane, the daughter of Philip by his first wife, had brought her daughter *Adæa*, afterwards named *Eurydice*, to court, in hopes that Perdicas might marry her. Perdicas, from political motives, had conceived such an antipathy against Cynane, that he caused her to be murdered. This raised a commotion in the army, which alarmed Perdicas to such a degree, that he promoted the match between Aridæus and Eurydice; to prevent which, he had murdered his mother. But, in the mean time, Antigonus, seeing the designs of Perdicas against him, fled with his son Demetrius to Greece, there to shelter under Antipater and Craterus, who were formed of the ambition and cruelty of the Macedonians. A civil war was now kindled. Antipater, Craterus, Neoptolmus, and Antigonus, were all united against Perdicas; and it was the



me of the empire in general, that Eumenes, the most able general, as well as the most virtuous of all the commanders, was on the side of Perdiccas, because he believed him to be in the interest of Alexander's family. Ptolemy, in the mean time, remained in quiet possession of Egypt; but without the least intention of owning any person for his superior. However, he acceded to the league formed against Perdiccas; and thus he only person in the whole empire who considered the interest of the royal family was Eumenes. It was now thought proper to inter the body of Alexander, which had been kept for two years, during all which time preparations had been making for it. Aridæus, to whose care it was committed, set out from Babylon for Damascus, in order to carry the king's body to Egypt. This was much against the will of Perdiccas; for there was a superstitious report, that wherever the body of Alexander was laid, that country should flourish most. Perdiccas, therefore, out of regard to his native soil, would have conveyed to the royal sepulchres in Macedonia; but Aridæus, pleading the late king's express direction, was determined to carry it into Egypt, whence to be conveyed to the temple of Jupiter Ammon.—The funeral was accordingly conducted with all imaginable magnificence. Ptolemy came to meet the body as far as Syria; but, instead of burying it in the temple of Jupiter Ammon, erected a stately temple for it in Alexandria; and, by the respect he showed for his dead father, induced many of the Macedonian veterans to join him, who were afterwards of the greatest service to him.

17.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, TO THE TOTAL EXTIRPATION OF ALEXANDER'S FAMILY. Sooner was the funeral over, than both parties were to blows. Perdiccas marched against Ptolemy, but was slain by his own men, who, after the death of their general submitted to his antagonist; and thus Eumenes was left alone to contend against all the other generals who had served under Alexander. In this contest, however, he would by no means have been over-matched, if his soldiers been attached to him; but as they had been accustomed to serve under those very generals against whom they were now to fight, they were on all occasions ready to betray and desert Eumenes. However, he defeated and killed Neoptolemus and Craterus, but was still obliged to contend with Antipater and Antigonus. Antipater was now appointed protector of the empire, with sovereign power; and Eumenes was declared a public enemy. A new division of the empire took place. Egypt, Libya, and the parts adjacent, were given to Ptolemy because they could not be taken from him. Syria was confirmed to Leomedon. Philoxenus had Cilicia. Media and Arbelitis were given to Amphimachus. Babylon was bestowed on Seleucus. Suezell to Antigones, who commanded the Median ARGYRASPIDÆ, or *Silver Shields*, because he was the first who opposed Perdiccas. Iasus held Persia. Tlepolemus had Caramania. Pithon had Media as far as the Caspian Sea. Stasander had Aria and Drangia; Philip II. Stasenor, Bactria and Sogdia; Sybir-

tius, Aracopa; Oxyartes, the father of Roxana, Parapomifus. Another Pithon had the country between this province and Indja. Porus and Taxiles held what Alexander had given them. Cappadocia was assigned to Nicanor. Phrygia Major, Lycaonia, Pamphylia, and Lycia, were given to Antigonus. Caria to Cassander, Lydia to Cilytus, Phrygia the Less to Aridæus. Cassander was appointed general of the horse; while the command of household troops was given to Antigonus, with orders to prosecute the war against Eumenes.—Antipater having thus settled every thing as well as he could, returned to Macedonia with the treasures, to the great joy of his countrymen, having left his son Cassander to be a check upon Antigonus in Asia. Affairs now seemed to wear a better aspect than they had yet done; and, had Eumenes believed that his enemies really consulted the interest of Alexander's family, there is not the least doubt that the war would have been immediately terminated. He saw however, that the design of Antigonus was only to set up for himself, and therefore he refused to submit. From this time, therefore, the Macedonian empire ceased in Asia; and an account of the transactions of this part of the world fall to be recorded under the article SYRIA. The Macedonian affairs are now entirely confined to the kingdom of Macedonia itself, and to Greece. Antipater had not long been returned to Macedonia, when he died; and the last action of his life completed the ruin of Alexander's family. Out of a view to the public good, he had appointed Polyperchon, the eldest of Alexander's captains at hand, to be *protector* and *governor* of Macedonia. This failed not to disgust his son Cassander; who thought he had a natural right to these offices, and of course kindled a new civil war in Macedonia. This was indeed highly promoted by his first actions as governor. He began with attempting to remove all the governors appointed in Greece by Antipater, and to restore democracy wherever it had been abolished. The immediate consequence of this was, that the people refused to obey their magistrates; the governors refused to resign their places, and applied for assistance to Cassander. Polyperchon also had the imprudence to recal Olympias from Epirus, and allow her a share in the administration; which Antipater, and even Alexander himself, had always refused her. The consequence of all this was, that Cassander invaded Greece, where he prevailed against Polyperchon: Olympias returned to Macedonia, where she cruelly murdered Aridæus and his wife Eurydice; she herself was put to death by Cassander, who afterwards caused Roxana and her son to be murdered, and Polyperchon being driven into Etolia, first raised to the crown Hercules the son of Alexander by Statira, and then by the instigation of Cassander murdered him, by which means the line of Alexander the Great became totally extinct. Cassander having thus destroyed all the royal family, assumed the regal title, as he had for 16 years before had all the power. He enjoyed the title of *king of Macedonia* only three years; after which he died, about 298 B. C. By Thessalonica, the daughter of Philip II. he left three sons, Philip, Antipater, and Alexander.

Cassander. See ALEXANDER, V.

(18.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, UNTIL ITS CONQUEST BY THE ROMANS. In 287 B. C. Demetrius was driven out by Pyrrhus, who was again driven out by Lysimachus two years after, who was soon after killed by Seleucus Nicator; and Seleucus, in his turn, was murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, who became king of Macedon about 280 B. C. The new king was in a short time cut off, with his whole army, by the Gauls; and Antigonus Gonatas, the son of Demetrius Poliorcetes, became king of Macedon in 278 B. C. He proved successful against the Gauls, but was driven out by Pyrrhus king of Epirus; who, however, soon disobliged his subjects to such a degree, that Antigonus recovered a great part of his kingdom. But in a little time, Pyrrhus being killed at the siege of Arros, Antigonus was restored to the whole of Macedon; but scarcely was he seated on the throne, when he was driven from it by Alexander the son of Pyrrhus. This new invader was, in his turn, expelled by Demetrius the son of Antigonus; who, though at that time but a boy, had almost made himself master of Epirus. In this enterprize, however, he was disappointed; but by his means Antigonus was restored to his kingdom, which he governed for many years in peace. By a stratagem he made himself master of the city of Corinth, and from that time began to form schemes for the thorough conquest of Greece. The method he took to accomplish this was, to support the petty tyrants of Greece against the free states: which indeed weakened the power of the latter; but involved the whole country in so many calamities, that these transactions could not redound much to the reputation either of his arms or his honour. About 242 B. C. he died, leaving the kingdom to

Perseus now put all upon the general engagement; and Æmilius, with his courage and experience, would have defeated, had the Macedonians been commanded by a general of any courage or conduct. Light armed Macedonians charged with vigour, that after the battle, some of them were found within two furlongs of the camp. When the phalanx came to the points of their spears striking into the shields, kept the heavy armed troops fixing any motion; while, on the other hand, Perseus's light armed men did terrible execution. Æmilius was ready to give up all hope, perceiving, that, as the phalanx gained, he lost its order in several places, he caused his light-armed troops to charge in the places whereby the Macedonians were soon in confusion. Perseus fled, with his horse infantry at last did the same, but not till they had lost their lives. This battle determined the fate of Macedonia, which immediately fell into the hands of the Romans.

(19.) MACEDON, HISTORY OF, UNTIL ITS CONQUEST BY THE TURKS. The country was at last obliged to surrender to the Romans, by whom he was carried to Rome in triumph, and afterwards most barbarously executed. Some pretenders to the throne appeared afterwards; but being unable to defend themselves against the Romans, the country was reduced to a Roman province in 148 B. C. It continued subject till A. D. 1375, when it was reduced by the Turkish sultan Bajazet I. and remained in the hands of the Turks till 1517, when it was taken by the Sultan Selim I. and remained in the hands of the Turks till 1912, when it was taken by the Greeks. SALONICHI, the ancient THESSALONICA, was the capital.

(20.) MACEDONIANS, the natives of



that Pope Leo X. caused it to be acted at Rome. He was secretary, and afterwards historiographer to the republic of Florence. The house of Medicis procured him this last office, with a handsome salary, to pacify his resentment for having suffered the torture upon suspicion of being an accomplice in the conspiracy of the Soderini against that house, when Machiavel bore his sufferings heroically without making any confession. The great encomiums he bestowed upon Brutus and Cassius, both in his conversations and writings, made him strongly suspected of being concerned in another conspiracy against cardinal Julian de Medicis, afterwards pope by the name of Clement VII. However, they carried on no proceedings against him; but from that time he turned every thing into ridicule, and gave himself up to irreligion. He died in 1539, of a remedy which he had taken by way of prevention. Of all his writings, that which has made the most noise, and has drawn upon him the most enemies, is a political treatise, entitled the *Prince*; which has been translated into several languages, and written against by many authors. The world is not agreed as to his motives in writing this work; some think he meant to recommend tyrannical maxims; others, that he only delineated them to excite abhorrence. He also wrote, *Reflections on Titus Livius*, which are curious; *The History of Florence*, from 1205 to 1494; and a 4to. volume of *Poems*, &c. Mr Harrington considers him as a superior genius, and as the most excellent writer on politics and government, that ever appeared.

\* MACHINAL. *adj.* [from *machina*, Latin.] Relating to machines. *Dist.*

\* To MACHINATE. *v. a.* [*machinor*, Lat. *machiner*, Fr.] To plan; to contrive.

\* MACHINATION. *n. f.* [*machinatio*, Lat. *machination*, French; from *machinatus*.] Artifice; contrivance; malicious scheme.—

If you miscarry,

Your business of the world hath to an end,

And *machination* ceases. *Shak.*

O from their *machinations* free,

That would my guiltless soul betray; *Sandys.*

Be frustrate all ye stratagems of hell,

And devilish *machinations* come to nought.

*Milton.*

—How were they zealous in respect to their temporal governors? Not by open rebellion, not by private *machinations*; but in blessing and submitting to their emperors, and obeying them in all things but their idolatry. *Spratt.*

(1.) \* MACHINE. *n. f.* [*machina*, Latin; *machine*, French. This word is pronounced *masheen*.]

1. Any complicated work in which one part contributes to the motion of another.—We are led to conceive this great *machine* of the world to have been once in a state of greater simplicity, as to conceive a watch to have been once in its first materials. *Burns.*—

In a watch's fine *machine*,

The added movements which declare

How full the moon, how old the year,

Derive their secondary power

From that which simply points the hour.

*Prior.*

2. An engine.—

With inward arms the dire *mach*  
load,

And iron bowels stuff the dark abode.

3. Supernatural agency, in poems.—The lous fable includes whatever is supernatural especially the *machines* of the gods. *Pope.*

(2.) MACHINE, in general, signifies an that serves to augment or to regulate powers: Or it is any body destined to motion, so as to save either time or force word comes from the Greek *μηχανη*, *mechanē* art: And hence, in strictness, a machine is thing that consists more in art and invention in the strength and solidity of the materials which reason the inventors of machines are *ingenieurs* or *engineers*. Machines are either simple or compound. The simple ones are mechanical powers, viz. lever, balance, axis and wheel, wedge, screw, and inclined. See MECHANICS. From these the compound ones are formed by various combinations serve for different purposes. See HYDRAULICS and MECHANICS; also BURROUGHS, NON, CENTRIFUGAL, FIRE, FURNACE, DEN, RURAL OECONOMY, STEAM, &c.

(3.) MACHINES USED IN WAR, among Greeks, were principally these: 1. *Κλίμα* scaling ladders; 2. The battering ram; 3. *Λεπίς* lepolis; 4. The *χελών* or tortoise, called by mans *testudo*; 5. The *χόμα* or *agger*, which faced with stone, and raised higher than the Upon the *χόμα* were built *παργύρι* or towers; 6. *Γέφυρα*, or other hurdles; 8. *Καταπέτασμα*, from which they threw arrows mazing force; and, 9. The *λιθόβλας*, *πετροβόλον*, from which stones were cast with velocity. The principal warlike machine used by the Romans were, the ram, the wolf, the *testudo* or tortoise, the *ballista*, the puita, and the *scorpion*.

(1.) \* MACHINERY. *n. f.* [from *machinaria*, Latin; *machinery*, French.] Engine; complicated workmanship; self engines. 2. The *machinery* signifies that which the deities, angels, or demons, use in poems. *Pope.*

(2.) MACHINERY, (§ 1. *def.* 2.) in epic dramatic poetry, is when the poet brings a supernatural being upon the stage, to solve a difficulty, or perform some exploit out of reach of human power. The ancient poets never made use of machines, unless there was an absolute necessity for so whence the precept of Horace;

*Nec Deus interfit, nisi dignus vindice nudus*  
*Interditi.*

It is quite otherwise with epic poets, who introduce them in every part of their poems.

ton's Paradise Lost, the greater part of the are supernatural personages: Homer and do nothing without them; and, in Voltaire's *Henriade*, the poet has made excellent use of Lewis. As to the manner in which the machines should act, it is sometimes invidious simple inspirations and suggestions; sometimes actually appearing under some human form lastly, by dreams and oracles, which part the other two. But all these should be managed so as to keep within the bounds of probability.

\* MACHINERY

MINIST. *n. f.* [*machiniste*, Fr. from at.] A constructor of engines or ma-

EN, a town of the French republic, of Escaut, and late prov. of Austrian miles S. of Deinf.

MHLIN, a parish of Scotland, in Ayr- 7½ miles long, and from 2 to 4 broad; 5,400 acres. The air is mild, the sur- cept one hill, (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) and the soil ish. The population, in 1791, was 2631 since 1755: number of horses, lack cattle 1080. There are several red and white stone, lime stone, and

HLIN, a town in the above parish, 1000 inhabitants in 1791. It has fairs 5, June, July, Sept. Nov. and Dec.

MILN HILL, a hill chiefly in the above sh affords a very extensive prospect o- part of Ayrshire and part of Galloway. IS. See CERVUS, § I. N<sup>o</sup> 1, 2.

M, an instrument of music among s. Kircher apprehends that the name s two kinds of instruments, one of the other of the pulsatile kind. See Fig. 3 and 4.) That of the former chords; though there is great reat- whether an instrument requiring the air-bow, and so much resembling the o ancient. The latter was of a cir- made of metal, and either hung round ells, or furnished with iron rings sus- rod or bar that passed across the cir- supposes that it was moved to and dle fixed to it, and thus emitted a kind of murmur.

NETH, an ancient town of N. Wales, 19½ mile; from London, and Montgomery. It has a market on Mon- 15, on May 16, June 26, July 9, Sept. 19, 25, for sheep, horned cattle, and is seated on the Donay, over which 18 stone bridge, leading into Meri-

Here Owen Glyndowr exercised the his royalty in 1401: here he accepted f Wales, and attended a parliament; fe wherein they met remaining, but di- nements. Lon. 1. 46. W. Lat. 52. 24. N. ENCY. *n. f.* [from *maucient*.] Lean-

ENT. *adi.* [*maucilentus*, Latin.] Lean- NZELL, a town of Germany, in the Fulda, 9 miles NE. of Fulda.

KENZIE, Dr George, the learned us compiler of *The Lives of the most ters of the Scots Nation*, resided in of Rosemarkie, in Rose-shire, "in an longing to the Earl of Sutherland, and in the tomb of that family, in the ca- *Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* Vol. XI. p. s all the notice we find taken of this uthor, a piece of negligence which at ungrateful in succeeding "writers nation," towards an author who ex- f so much to perpetuate the me- rits of his learned countrymen.

ENYR, James, M. D. author of "the . PART II.

*Art of Preserving Health*, is said to have been for some time employed in teaching the grammar school of the burgh" of Rosemarkie. (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* XI. 248.) Neither of these authors are taken notice of in *Dr Watkins's Univ. Biog. Dict.*

(3.) MACKENZIE, Sir George, of Rosehaugh, an able lawyer, a polite scholar, and a celebrated wit, born at Dundee, in 1636. He studied at the universities of Aberdeen and St Andrew's; after which he applied himself to the civil law, travel- led into France, and prosecuted his study in that faculty for about three years. At his return to his native country, he became an advocate in the city of Edinburgh; and soon gained the character of an eminent pleader. He did not, however, suffer his abilities to be confined entirely to that province. He had a good taste for polite litera- ture; and he gave the public, from time to time, incontestable proofs of an uncommon proficiency therein. He had practised but a few years, when, in 1674, he was made king's advocate, a lord of the privy council in Scotland, and a judge in the criminal court. He was also knighted. In these stations he met with a great deal of trouble, on account of the rebellions and persecutions for reli- gious opinions which happened in his time. His office of advocate requiring him to act with fever- rity, he did not escape censure, as having, in the prosecution of many persons who were executed, stretched the laws too far. This rendered him so unpopular, that his monument, in the Grayfriars Churchyard at Edinburgh is still called *Bloody Mackenzie's Tomb*. But his defenders insist, that he only did his duty, and that he acquitted him- self like an able and upright magistrate. Upon the abrogation of the penal laws by king James II, though he had always been remarkable for his loyalty, and censured for his zeal against traitors and fanatics, he resigned his post; being convinced, that he could not discharge the duties of it with a good conscience. But he was soon after restor- ed, and held his offices till the revolution; an event which he did not approve. He had hoped that the prince of Orange would have returned to his own country, when matters were adjusted between the king and his subjects; and upon its proving otherwise, he quitted all his employments in Scot- land, and retired into England, resolving to spend the remainder of his days in the university of Ox- ford. He arrived there in Sept. 1689, and profes- sed his studies in the Bodleian library, being ad- mitted a student there June 2, 1690. In spring 1691 he went to London, where he fell into a disorder, of which he died in May. "The politeness of his learning, and the sprightliness of his wit, were (says the rev. Mr Granger) conspicuous in all his pleadings, and shone in his ordinary conversa- tion." He wrote several pieces of history and an- tiquities; Institutions of the laws of Scotland; Essays upon various subjects, &c. His works were printed at Edinburgh in 1716, in 2 vols folio.

(4.) MACKENZIE, Sir George, of Royston, F. R. S. first Earl of Cromarty, and eldest son of Sir John Mackenzie of Tarbat, by Margaret, daugh- ter of Sir George Esline, lord Innertell, was born in 1630. His father dying in 1654, he raised some

troops and joined lord Middleton to attempt the restoration of K. Charles II. but being defeated by Col. Morgan, he made an honourable capitulation. After the restoration he was employed by Middleton, in several public offices. In 1678, he was appointed Lord Justice General; in 1681, he was made a Lord of Session, and Lord Register. He now purchased Roystoun, and continued to have the chief rule in Scotland, during the reigns of Charles II. and James II. by whom, in 1685, he was created lord Viscount Tarbat; but, by his arbitrary proceedings, rendered himself very unpopular; notwithstanding which, he was, in 1691, restored by William III. to his office of Lord Register; wherein he acted a very double part, as appears from Pr. Carstairs's *State Papers*. In 1695, he resigned upon a pension of 4000. a-year; but upon Q. Anne's accession he was appointed Secretary of State; and, in 1703, created Earl of Cromarty. In 1704, he resigned, and was made Lord Justice General, which he held till 1710. He promoted the Union by his vote, speeches, and publications. He died at New Tarbat on the 17th Aug. 1714. He was an original and useful member of the Royal Society, and wrote many valuable papers in the *Philos. Transf.* He also published, 1. A vindication of K. Robert III. Edinburgh, 4to. 1695; 2. and 3. Two Letters on the Union; 4. A short explication of Daniel's prophecy, and St John's Revelation, Edin. 1706, 4to. 5. Historical Account of the Conspiracy of the E. of Gowrie, and R. Logan of Restalrig, against James VI. Edin. 1713, 8vo. and some other tracts.

MACKERAN, a town and prov. of Persia.

(1.) \* MACKEREL. *n. f.* *mackerel*, Dutch; *maquerreau*, Fr. A sea-fish.—Some fish are gutted, split, and kept in pickle; as whiting and *mackerel*. *Carew*.—

Law order'd that the Sunday should have rest;

And that no nymph her noisy food should sell,  
Except it were new milk or *mackerel*. *King*.

Sooner shall cats disport in water clear,  
And speckled *mackerels* graze the meadows fair,  
Than I forget my thepherd's wont'd love. *Gay*.

(2.) MACKEREL. See SCOMBER, N<sup>o</sup>. 1.

(3.) \* MACKEREL GALE seems to be, in *Drayden's* cant, a strong breeze; such, I suppose, as is desired to bring *mackerel* fresh to market.—

They put up every fish,

The wind was fair, but blew a *mackerel* gale.

*Drayden*.

MACKERMORE, one of the Western Islands of Scotland, 5 miles E. of Jura.

MACKEY, John, an Englishman, employed by the government as a spy upon James II. after the revolution, was author of *Memoirs of James's court at St Germaine, and of the court of England in the reigns of William III. and queen Anne*; in which are many curious anecdotes not to be met with in any other work. He died in 1726.

MACKINTOSH, a county of Georgia, between Liberty and Glynn counties, on the Altamaha.

MACKLIN, Charles, a late celebrated actor and dramatic writer, born in the N. of Ireland, in 1698. His original name Maclaughlin. He be-

came a performer in Lincoln's Inn 1706; and not long after was tried brother comedian in a quarrel, and of manslaughter. His features were harsh, that Quin rather profanely "If God writes a legible hand, th villain." He was, notwithstanding t humanity and extensive liberality. I plays, which are esteemed, viz. *Lo* and *The Man of the World*. He died principal character was *Shylock*, wh to so much perfection, that Pope sa "This is the Jew—That Shakeape

MACKNIGHT, James, D. D. a and learned clergyman of the chu land, one of the ministers of Edinbu thor of several valuable works on t 1772, he was appointed minister of l Church; and in 1779, one of the mi Old Church, Edinburgh. He publiche *mory of the Four Gospels*, in 4to. 1 *Truth of Gospel History*, 1764: 3. 7 and *Commentary on*, the Epistles to nians, 1787. He died Jan. 13th 180

MACKUM, a town of the Batav in the dep. of the Eems, and late pro land, 5 miles W. of Bolfwaert.

MACLAS, a town of France, in the Rhone and Loire, 15 miles E. of

(1.) MACLAURIN, Colin, F. R. mment mathematician and philosop son of a clergyman, and born at l Scotland, in 1698. He was sent to of Glasgow in 1709; where he studi

His great genius for mathematics ap ply as at 12 years of age; when, havin met with an Euclid, he became in a ter of the first six books without a in his 16th year he had invented ma positions, afterwards published und *Geometria Organica*. In his 15th ye degree of M. A. when he composed a thesis *On the power of Gravity*, w plume. After this he retired to a c his uncle, where he spent 2 or 3 ye rents were dead. In 1717, he flood the professorship of mathematics in college of Aberdeen, and obtained days trial with a very able competit he went to London, where he becar with Dr Hoadly, then Bp. of Bang; Sir Isaac Newton, and other crum was admitted T. R. S. In anothe 1721, he contracted an intimacy Folkes, Esq. P. R. S. which lasted In 1722, lord Polwarth, plenipate congress of Cambrai, engaged him tor and companion to his eldest son. After a short stay at Paris, and visit in France, they fixed in Lorraine; w rin wrote his piece *On the Perception of* gained the prize of the royal academ for 1724. But his pupil dying soon afte lie, he returned immediately to Ab he was hardly settled, when he reco tation to Edinburgh, to supply the James Gregory. He had some disc cewater, arising from competitors, &

er, were all surmounted, principally by Sir Isaac Newton; and in Nov. 1725, he was introduced to the university. In 1733, he married Anne, daughter of solicitor Stewart, by whom he had seven children, of whom five and his wife survived him. In 1734, Berkeley, bishop of Cloyne, published a piece called *The Analyst*; in which he took occasion, from some disputes that had arisen concerning the grounds of the fluxionary method, to explode the method itself, and to charge mathematicians in general with infidelity in religion. Maclaurin thought himself included in this charge, and began an answer to Berkeley's book; but, as he proceeded, so many new theorems and problems occurred to him, that instead of a vindicatory pamphlet, he published *A complete system of Fluxions, with their application to the most considerable problems in geometry and natural philosophy*: at Edinburgh, in 1742, 2 vols 4to. He also published many useful tracts in the 5th and 6th vols. of the *Medical Essays*, at Edinburgh; as well as in the *Philos. Trans.*; as, 1. Of the construction and measure of curves, N<sup>o</sup> 356. 2. A new method of describing all kinds of curves, N<sup>o</sup> 359. 3. On equations with impossible roots, May 1726, N<sup>o</sup> 394; On ditto, March 1729, N<sup>o</sup> 408. 5. On the description of curves, with farther improvements, Dec. 1732; N<sup>o</sup> 439. 6. A rule for finding the meridional parts of a spheroid, with the same exactness as of a sphere, Aug. 1741, N<sup>o</sup> 461. 7. On ditto, and March 10, 1742; N<sup>o</sup> 467, and 469. 9. Of the basis of the cells wherein the bees deposit their honey; Nov. 3, 1734, N<sup>o</sup> 471. In the midst of these studies, he was ready to lend his assistance promoting any scheme for the service of his country. Under his direction the geography of the Orkney and Shetland islands was first accurately ascertained in 1739. He had another scheme for the improvement of geography and navigation, of a more extensive nature; which was the opening a passage from Greenland to the South Sea to the north pole. That such a passage might be found, he was so fully persuaded, that he used to say, if his situation could admit of such adventures, he would undertake the voyage at his own charge. In 1745, having been very active in fortifying the city of Edinburgh against the rebel army, he was obliged to fly to the north of England; where he was invited by Abp. Herring, to reside with him during his stay; but being in this expedition exposed to cold and hardships, he contracted an illness which put an end to his life, in June 1746, at the age of 48. Mr Maclaurin was not only a great but a good man. His peculiar merit as a philosopher was, that all his studies were accommodated to general utility; and we find, in many places of his works, an application even of the most abstruse theories, to the perfecting of mechanical arts. He revised Dr David Gregory's *Practical Geometry*, and published it with additions, in 1745. On various occasions he served his friends and his country by his great skill. Frequent disputes having arisen concerning the gauging of vessels, he presented to the commissioners of excise two elaborate memorials, with their demonstrations, containing rules by which the officers now

act. He made also calculations relating to the provision, established by law, for the children and widows of the Scots clergy, and of the professors of the universities, entitling them to certain annuities, upon the voluntary annual payment of a certain sum by the incumbent. He gained the prize of the royal academy of sciences in 1724; and in 1740, the academy adjudged him a prize, for solving the motion of the tides from the theory of gravity; a question which had been given out the former year, without receiving any solution. He had only ten days to draw up this paper in. He afterwards revised the whole, and inserted it in his *Treatise of Fluxions*; as he did also the substance of the former piece. Since his death, two vols. more have appeared; his *Algebra*, and his *Account of Sir Isaac Newton's Philosophical Discoveries*.

(2.) MACLAURIN, John, Esq. of Dreghorn, one of the Senators of the College of Justice, and F. R. S. E. was the eldest son of the Professor, N<sup>o</sup> 1. He was born at Edinburgh, in 1734; and was educated first at the high school, and afterwards at the university there. In 1756 he was admitted a member of the faculty of Advocates, and in 1788 was promoted to the bench, by the title of *Lord Dreghorn*. His works were collected and published in 2 vols 8vo, 1792, and consist of Miscellanies in prose and verse.

MACMILLANITES, a name given to the CAMERONIANS, from Mr John Macmillan, Minister of Balmaghie, who, though he was deposed for adhering to their tenets, was so popular, that he retained possession of the church, manse, and congregation for 12 years; after which he retired voluntarily; and became an itinerant preacher, and founder of the sect of *Macmillanites*, or *Modern Cameronians*, who assume the title of the Reformed Presbytery. (*Sir J. Sinclair's Stat. Acc.* Vol. xiii. 643—9.) See CAMERONIANS and CARGILLITES.

MACCOIG, or MACCOIG, Malcolm, an ingenious young botanist, who with great labour and personal exertion, composed a work of considerable merit, entitled *Flora Edinburgensis*, the MS. of which is still unpublished, in the hands of Mr Andrew Fife, anatomist, Edinburgh. (See *FLORES*, § 2.) Mr Maccoig was born in Argyleshire, in 1764, and at 16 years of age hardly knew a word of English. He soon, however, made himself master of it, and having been bred to gardening, he was employed by Dr Hope and his successor Dr Rutherford to superintend the botanic garden between Edinburgh and Leith; and under these celebrated professors became so complete a botanist, that he attempted and accomplished the arduous task of compiling the above work. But the uncommon exertions he made, and the fatigue he underwent, in traversing and travelling over a circuit of 15 miles round the metropolis, in all directions, and in all weathers, to discover every genus and species of plants that grow spontaneously within that circumference, and his total neglect of diet during these fatiguing excursions, together with a cold caught in consequence of them, brought on a phtisis pulmonalis, which cut him off in Dec. 1788, just when his favourite work

was completed and transcribed for the press. So great was his botanical enthusiasm, that he assured the writer of this article, a short time before he died, that he had often walked 12 or 13 miles from Edinburgh and back again, between 4 in the morning and 10 at night, clambering over hills, rocks, and precipices, in search of rare plants, without taking any aliment whatever. As the work contains the most particular directions where to find a number of very rare plants, which are hardly known to exist in Scotland, it would certainly, if published, be an acceptable present to every lover of botany, as well as a most useful assistant to students in that science. He was married in 1786, but left no children.

MACON, a town of France, in the dep. of Saone and Loire; on the Saone, 35 miles N. of Lyons.

MACONNOIS, a ci-devant county of France, now included in the dep. of Saone and Loire. Maçon was the capital.

MACPHERSON, James, Esq. M. P. a Scottish writer of considerable celebrity, born in 1737. His first and most celebrated work was his translation of Ossian's Poems; the authenticity of which was attacked by Dr Johnson and others, and their merit of consequence, ascribed to Macpherson himself; who, instead of taking this as a compliment, wrote a threatening letter to the Doctor, which he answered in terms equally indignant. See OSSIAN. In 1773, he published a translation of the Iliad into heroic prose. He also wrote A History of Great Britain from 1660 to the accession of the House of Hanover, in 2 vols, 4to; and an Introduction to the history of Great Britain and Ireland. He also published some pamphlets in defence of Lord North's administration, on which side he voted in the house of Commons. He died in Feb. 1796, aged 59.

(1.) MACQUER, Peter Joseph, was born at Paris, 9th Oct. 1718. He was descended of a respectable family, and was a member of the academy of sciences, and professor of pharmacy. He was engaged in the *Journal des Sçavans*, for the articles, MEDICINE and CHEMISTRY; and had a share in the *Pharmacopœia Parisiensis*, published in 1758, in 4to. His other works are, 1. *Elémens de Chimie théorique*; Paris, 1749, 1753, 12mo; which have been translated into English and German. 2. *Elémens de Chimie pratique*, 1751, 2 vols. 12mo. These two works were re-published together, in 1756, in 3 vols 12mo. 3. *Plan d'un cours de Chimie expérimentale & raisonnée*, 1757, 12mo; in which he was associated with M. Beaumé. 4. *Formulae Medicamentorum Magistratum*, 1763. 5. *L'Art de la Teinture en Soie*, 1763. 6. *Dictionnaire de Chimie, contenant la théorie & la pratique de cet art*, 1766, 2 vols 8vo; which has been translated into German, with notes; and into English, with notes, by Mr Keir. Macquer, by his labours and writings, contributed very much to the improvement of chemistry. He died at Paris, Feb. 16, 1784.

(2.) MACQUER, Philip, brother to the above, (N° 1.) was born at Paris in 1720, and became advocate of the parliament of Paris. A weakness in his lungs having prevented him from pleading, he dedicated himself to literary pursuits. His works are, 1. *L'Abregé Chronologique de l'Histoire Ecclesi-*

*astique*, 3 vols 8vo. 2. *Les Annales* 1756, 8vo: a very judicious compilation *brève Chronologique de l'Histoire d'Espagne Portugal*, 1765; 2 vols 8vo. He died on Jan. 1770, aged 50. He had a correct and an eager thirst for knowledge. He had the Dictionary of Arts and Professions, 8vo, and in the Translation of the Syphil castor published by Lacombe.

(1.) MACRINUS, one of the best Latin poets of the 16th century, was born at Loudun, his real name was *John Salmon*; but he took the name of *Macrin*, from his being frequently so caressed by Francis I. on account of his extraordinary leanness. He was preceptor to Clément Savoy, count Tende; and to Honorius his brother; and wrote several pieces of lyric verse, which were so admired, they called *the Horace of his time*. He died at Loudun, in 1555.

(2.) MACRINUS, Charles, son to the above, his brother according to Dr Watkins, was inferior to him as a poet, and surpassed him in knowledge of the Greek tongue. He was married to Catherine of Navarre, the sister of the Great; and perished in the massacre of Bartholomew's day, in 1572.

MACRIS. See CHIO, N° 1.

MACROBII, (from *μακρος* *βίος*, long life) people of Ethiopia, celebrated for their innocence of their manners, as well as their uncommon longevity. See ETHIOPIA, people in the island Merœ. 3. The Hæmians were also called Macrobian.

MACROBIUS, Ambrosius Aurelius Tertullianus, an ancient Latin writer, who flourished at the end of the 4th century.—His country and his name are uncertain. Erasmus, in his *Ciceronis*, thought he was a Greek; and he himself says in the preface to his *Saturnalia*, that he was a Roman, but laboured under the inconvenience of writing in a language which was not his own. Barthius reckons him a Christian; but Hem and Fabricius suppose him to have been a Pagan. It is however certain, that he was of consular dignity, and one of the favourites of Theodosius. He wrote a Comment on Cicero's *Somnium Scipionis*, and 7 books of *Saturnalia*, which treat of various subjects, and are an agreeable mixture of criticism and antiquity. He made great use of other people's works, using not only their materials, but even their language, for which he makes an apology in the preface of his work. "I shall here (says he) imitate the bees, who suck the best juices from various sorts of flowers, and afterwards work them to various forms and orders, with form of their own proper spirit." The *Somnium* and *Saturnalia* have been often printed, which has been added, in the later editions, a piece entitled, *De Differentiis & Sæcularibus Verbis*.

MACROCEPHALUS, (from *μακρος*, great, and *κεφαλή*, head,) denotes a person with a head or longer than the common size. Macrocephalus, or Long-heads, is a name given to a certain kind of people, according to the accounts of authors, famous for the uncommon length of their



custom so far habituated them to it, that instead of looking on it as a deformity, they esteem it a beauty, and as soon as the child was born, it was dressed and fashioned its head to as great a roundness as possible, and afterwards used all such ornaments and bandages as might seem most likely to preserve its growing long. The greater part of the people in the Archipelago, some of the people of Asia, and even some of Europe, still press their children's heads out lengthwise. The Epimany people of America, &c. are all born with some singularity in the conformation of their heads; either a flatness on the top, two extraordinary protuberances behind, or one on each side; or a curvature which are the effects of an ancient usage, which at length is become a custom in the nation. According to the report of many travellers, the operation of compressing the head of a child lengthwise, while it is yet soft, has the effect to enlarge the interval between the two eyes, so that the visual rays fall more to the right and left, the sight would consequently see a much larger portion of the horizon; and the advantages of which they are well acquainted with, in hunting, and on a thousand other occasions.

Ever since the 16th century, the missionaries established in the countries inhabited by the natives of America, have endeavoured to abolish this custom; and we find in the sessions of the 3d Council of Lima, held in 1585, a canon which expressly prohibits it. But if it has been repressed among the Caribs, solely with the view of diminishing their children, which are born from those who are born in slavery. The Guanas, a people of South America, according to Le Veigh, press the heads of their children so that they become sharp at the top, and flat before and behind. They say they do this to give their heads a greater resemblance to the moon.

**MACROCERCI**, a class of animalcules which have tails longer than their bodies.

**MACROCNEMUM**, in botany, a genus of the Magnoliaceae order, belonging to the pentandria order of plants; and in the natural method ranked under the 30th order, *Contorta*.

**MACROCOLLUM**, or } [from *μακρος*, large,  
**MACROCOLUM**, } and *κόλλω*, I join.]  
The Romans, the largest kind of paper then known. It measured 16 inches, and often 24.

**MACROCOSM**. *n. f.* [*macrocosmos*, French; and *κοσμος*.] The whole world, or visible universe, in opposition to the microcosm, or world within.

**ACRONISI**, an island in the Archipelago, in the Livadia, anciently called *Helena*, from Queen Helena.

**MACROOM**, or } a town of Ireland, in the  
**MACROOMP**, } barony of Muskerry, and  
is 17 miles from Cork, 142 miles from Dublin; situated on the highest hills, in a dry gravelly limestone soil. It is named from an old crooked oak, so called *Macroom*, which grew here. The castle was first built in King John's time, soon after the English conquest, (according to Sir Richard Cox) by the lords of the Daltons. It was repaired and

beautified by Teague Macarty, who died in 1565, and was father to the celebrated Sir Cormac Mac-Teague, mentioned by Camden, as an active person in Q. Elizabeth's time. It was burnt down in the wars of 1641, but rebuilt by Earl Glancarty. Opposite to the bridge, is the parish church, dedicated to St Colman. Here is a barrack for a foot company, a market-house, and handsome Roman Catholic chapel. A considerable number of persons have been employed in combing wool and spinning yarn, and some salt-works have been erected here. Half a mile distant is a spa, that rises on the brink of a bog; its waters are a mild chalybeate, useful in hypochondriacal cases, and in cutaneous eruptions. There are 4 fairs.

**MACROPYRENIUM**, in natural history, a genus of fossils consisting of crustated septaria, with a long nucleus standing out at each end of the mass.

**MACROTELOSTYLA**, in natural history, a genus of crystals, composed of two pyramids joined to the end of a column; both pyramids and column being hexangular, and the whole body consequently composed of 18 planes.

(1.) \* **MACTATION**. *n. f.* [*μακταω*, Latin.] The act of killing for sacrifice.

(2.) **MACTATION**; [*MACTATIO*, Lat.] was performed either by the priest himself, or some of his inferior officers, called *popæ*, *agones*, *cultrarii*, and *victimarii*; but, before the beast was killed, the priest turning himself to the E. drew a crooked line with his knife, from the forehead to the tail. Among the Greeks, this ceremony was performed most commonly by the priest, or, in his absence, by the most honorable person present. If the sacrifice was offered to the celestial gods, the victim's throat was bent up towards heaven; if to the infernal, or to heroes, it was killed with its throat towards the ground. The manner of killing the animal was by a stroke on the head, and after it was fallen, thrusting a knife into its throat. Much notice was taken, and good or ill success predicted, from the struggles of the beast, or its quiet submission to the blow, from the flowing of the blood, and the length of time it lived after the fall, &c.

(1.) \* **MACULA**. *n. f.* [Latin.] 1. A spot. —And lastly, the body of the sun may contract some spots or *macule* greater than usual, and by that means be darkened. *Burnet's Theory*. 2. [In physick.] Any spots upon the skin, whether those in fevers or scorbutick habits.

(2.) **MACULÆ**, in astronomy, dark spots appearing on the luminous surfaces of the SUN and MOON, and even some of the PLANETS. See *ASTRONOMY, Index*.

\* **MACULATE**. *v. a.* [*maculo*, Latin.] To stain; to spot.

\* **MACULATION**. *n. f.* [from *maculate*.] Stain; spot; taint.—

I will throw my glove to death himself,  
That there's no *maculation* in the heart. *Sbat.*

\* **MACULE**. *n. f.* [*macula*, Latin.] A spot; stain.

**MACUNA**, one of the NAVIGATOR'S ISLANDS, in the S. Pacific Ocean; where M. De La Peyrouse, with his captain, several officers and men,

were

were massacred by the inhabitants. Lon. 169. 0. W. Lat. 14. 19. S.

(1.) \* MAD. *adj.* [*gemaad* Saxon; *mattio*, Italian.] 1. Disordered in the mind; broken in the understanding; distracted; delirious without a fever.—

Alack, Sir, he is *mad*. *Shak.*

This musick mads me, let it sound no more;  
For though it have help'd madmen to their wits,  
In me, it seems, it will make wise men *mad*.  
*Shak.*

Cupid, of thee the poets sung,  
Thy mother from the sea was sprung;

But they were *mad* to make thee young. *Dent.*  
—We must bind our passions in chains, lest like  
*mad* folks they break their locks and bolts, and  
do all the mischief they can. *Taylor.*—A bear, en-  
rag'd at the stinging of a bee, ran like *mad* into  
the bee-garden, and over-turn'd all the hives. *L'Est.*

Madmen ought not to be *mad*;  
But who can help his frenzy? *Dryden.*

But some strange graces and odd flights she  
had,

Was just not ugly, and was just not *mad*. *Pope.*

2. Expressing disorder of mind.—  
His gestures fierce  
He mark'd, and *mad* demeanour when alone.

*Milton.*  
3. Over-run with any violent or unreasonable de-  
sire: with *on*, *after*, *of*, perhaps better *for*, before  
the object of desire.—It is the land of graven im-  
ages, and they are *mad upon* their idols. *Jer.* l. 28.  
—The world is running *mad after*, *farce.* *Dryden.*  
—The people are not so very *mad of* acorns, but  
that they could be content to eat the bread of ei-  
vil perions. *Rym.* 4. Enraged; furious.—Holy  
writ represents St Paul as making havock of the  
church and persecuting that way unto the death,  
and being exceedingly *mad* against them. *D. Picty.*

(2.) \* MAD. *n.s.* [*madia*, Sax.] An earth-worm.  
*Antwort.*

(3.) MAD, a town of Hungary, 5 miles N. of  
Tokay.

(1.) \* To MAD. *v. a.* [from the adjective.] To  
make mad; to make furious; to enrage.—O vil-  
lain! cried out Zelmane, *madd*ed with finding an  
unlooked-for rival. *Sidney.*

This will witness outwardly,  
As strongly as the conscience does within,  
To the *madding* of her lord. *Shak.*

This *mads* me, that perhaps ignoble hands  
Have overlaid him, for they cou'd not conquer. *Dryden.*

(2.) \* To MAD. *v. n.* To be mad; to be fu-  
rious.—

The *madding* wheels  
Of brazen chariots rag'd. *Milton.*

She, mixing with a throng  
Of *madding* matrons, bears the bride along. *Dryden.*

(1.) MADAGASCAR, the largest of the Afri-  
can islands, is situated between 43° and 51° of  
Lon. E. and between 12° and 26° Lat. S. extend-  
ing in length near 1000 miles from NNE. to SSW.  
and about 300 in breadth where broadest.

(2.) MADAGASCAR, ANCIENT AND MODERN  
NAMES, AND DISCOVERY OF. This island, ac-  
cording to many learned geographers, is the

CERNE of Pliny, and the MEXUTHIAS  
Iemy. It was discovered in 1506 by  
Ahmeyda; but the Persians and the Arabians  
acquainted with it from time immemorial  
the name of *Serandib*. Alphonzo Albu-  
querque Ruy Pereira dy Conthinto to visit  
parts, and that general intrusted Tristram  
with the survey. The Portuguese call  
the island of *St Lawrence*; the French, who  
in the reign of Henry IV. named it *Ile*  
its proper name is MADEGASSE, now  
commonly called, *Madagascar*.

(3.) MADAGASCAR, CLIMATE, RIVE-  
RAINS, SOIL, PRODUCE, &c. OF. T  
of this island is uncommonly fine. T  
where watered by rivers and rivulets  
from a long chain of mountains that ru-  
ns its whole extent from E. to W. The  
promontories are called *Vicogora* and  
These mountains, according to the Arabians,  
contain a variety of precious mineral  
fossils. They are covered with pre-  
cious summits of which are crowned with  
trees, that seem coeval with the v  
interperfed with grand cascades, tho'  
to which is generally inaccessible. Th  
so sublimely picturesque, rural scenes f  
the hills, gently rising grounds, and  
vegetation of which is never represses  
temperance or the vicissitude of  
Vast savannas nourish numberless be-  
locks and of sleep; and the soil is fo  
the inhabitants scarce need to stir the  
a rake. They scrape little holes at  
distance from each other, into which th  
few grains of rice, and cover them wit  
and so great is the fertility, that the  
in this careless manner produce an he  
The forests present a prodigious variety  
useful and beautiful trees; ebony, w  
ing, bamboos of an enormous thickne  
trees of every kind. The timber u  
building is as common as those lin  
prized by the cabinet-maker. The Fi-  
nor Flacourt, in his history of this island  
that in 1650 he sent to France 52,000  
aloes of an excellent quality. All t  
trees and shrubs are surrounded by a nu-  
ber of parasitical plants: mushrooms  
kinds and colours are met with eve  
the woods; and the inhabitants know  
to distinguish those which are prejudi-  
collect large quantities of useful gu-  
sins; and out of the milky sap of a  
minated by them *sanguiore*, the inha-  
means of coagulation, make that fi-  
stance known to naturalists by the nar-  
*latic*. See JATROPHA, N° 2; and RESIN.

Besides the aromatic and medicinal h  
abound in the forests, the island produ-  
hemp of a length and strength which  
in Europe. Sugar, wax, honey, toba-  
white pepper, gum-lac, ambergis, fil-  
ton, would long since have been ob-  
metre, if the Europeans had furnish-  
bitants with the necessary instrum-  
ments for preparing and improving th-  
tious. The sugar-canes (says Mr. W

- to India, p. 14.) are much larger and finer than in the West Indies; being as thick as a man's fist, and so full of juice, that a foot of them will weigh two pounds. One of them will support a weller for 2 or 3 days. Here are also plenty of marinds; and such quantities of limes and oranges, that very large casks may be filled with their juices at a trifling expence, as they may be purchased for iron pots, muskets, powder, ball, &c. While Adm. Watson's squadron laid here in 1754, 15000 Ives preserved about half a hoghead of those roots, which proved afterwards of great service to the ship's crews. But no good water is to be had at Augustine, in the SW. part of the island, where they usually touch, unless boats are sent for it 4 or 5 miles up the river. There are great abundance of a variety of provisions of every kind, which a moderate climate and fertile soil can produce. The oxen are large and fat, and have each a protuberance between the shoulders, weighing about 20 lb. Their flesh is greatly esteemed by Europeans, and sent to India, and ships are sent to Madagascar for purpose to kill and salt them on the island. The sheep differ little from the goats; being equal in size, only that their heads are somewhat larger: their necks resemble that of a calf, and their weight at least ten pounds. Vast quantities of locusts rise here from the low lands in thick swarms, extending sometimes to an incredible extent and breadth. The natives eat these insects, and even prefer them to their finest fish. Their method of dressing them is to strip off their legs and wings and fry them in oil. Crocodiles, chameleons, &c. are also numerous.

4.) MADAGASCAR, GOVERNMENT, ORDERS, &c. OF. In the 2d vol. of Count Benyowsky's memoirs, we have the following account of the government of this island: "The Madagascar people have always acknowledged the line of Ranaivos, as that to which the rights of *Ampansacobe* sovereign belongs. They have considered this line as extinct since the death of Dian Ramini Lazon, which happened 66 years ago, and whose body was buried upon a mountain, out of which the river Manangouou springs; but having acknowledged the heir of this line on the female side, they re-established this title in 1776. The right of the *Ampansacobe* consists in nominating the *Rohandrians* to assist in the cabars, at which all those who are cited are bound to appear, and the judgment of the *Ampansacobe* in his cabar is decisive. Another prerogative is, that each *Rohandrian* is obliged to leave him by will a certain portion of his property, which the successors usually purchase by a slight tribute or fine. Thirdly, the *Ampansacobe* has a right to exact from each *Rohandrian* one tenth of the produce of his land, and a number of horned cattle and slaves, in proportion to the riches of the country possessed by each *Rohandrian*." The count next describes the different orders of the people, for which, See Appendix, § 2.—"Having made inquiries (adds he) from Bombetoki passing to the northward, and from Kar as Itapere, the result proved that there are *Rohandrians* actually reigning, and 287 *Voadziris*. These orders preserve a regular gradation, respecting which it would be very difficult to give a

detailed account. They live in the manner of the ancient patriarchs. Every father of a family is priest and judge in his own house, though he depends on the *Lohavohit*, who superintends his conduct. This last is answerable to his *Voadziri*, and the *Voadziri* to the *Rohandrian*. The Madagascar people, having no communication with the main land of Ethiopia, have not altered their primitive laws; and the language throughout the whole extent of the island is the same. It would be a rash attempt to determine the origin of this nation; it is certain that it consists of three distinct races, who have for ages past formed intermixtures which vary to infinity. The first race is that of Zafé Ibrahim, or descendants of Abraham; but they have no vestige of Judaism, except circumcision, and some names, such as Isaac, Reuben, Jacob, &c. This race is of a brown colour.—The 2d race is that of Zaféramini: with respect to this, some books, which are still extant among the *Ombiasies*, affirm, that it is not more than six centuries since their arrival at Madagascar.—With respect to the 3d race of Zafé Canambou, it is of Arabian extraction, and arrived much more lately than the others from the coasts of Ethiopia; hence it possesses neither power nor credit, and fills only the charges of writers, historians, poets," &c.

(5.) MADAGASCAR, HISTORY OF. The French attempted to conquer and take possession of this island, by order of Lewis XIII. and XIV. and they maintained a footing on it from 1642 to 1657. During this period, by the most cruel treachery, they taught the native princes the barbarous traffic in slaves, by villanously selling to the Dutch governor of Mauritius a number of innocent people, who had assisted them in forming a settlement at Fort Dauphin. Of their expulsion from it, a general account is already given under ANOSTI, § 3. We shall therefore only add the following particulars: La Case, one of the French officers employed by the governor of Fort Dauphin against the natives, was so successful in all his enterprises, that they called him *Deaan Pons*, the name of a chief who had formerly conquered the whole island. The French governor, jealous of his renown, treated him harshly, and refused to allow him the honours due to his valour. The sovereign of the province of Amboville, called *Daan Pafsitat*, taking advantage of his discontent, prevailed on him to become his general. Five Frenchmen followed him. *Daan Nong*, the daughter of *Rafesitat*, captivated by the person and heroism of La Case, offered him her hand with the consent of her father. The chief, grown old and infirm, wished to secure the happiness of his subjects, by appointing his son-in-law master of the rich province of Amboville. (See AMBOVILLE: La Case, however, refused the titles and honours attached to the sovereign power; and he would accept of no other character, than that of the father subject of his wife, who was declared sovereign at the death of her father. Scarcely in the affection of this princess, who was possessed of great qualities as well as of personal charms, he was beloved and respected by her family, and by all the people of Amboville, who revered him as a father; and yet, how much sooner he wished to

to make peace with La Cate and his sovereign spouse. This peace, however, was of short duration; the French, restless and insolent to the neighbouring nations, again drew on them the vengeance of the natives. Even the few friends whom they had acquired by means of La Cate, were rendered hostile by the tyrannic zeal of the missionaries; who, not contented with being allowed to make converts, insisted on Deaan Manang sovereign of Mandrarey, a powerful, courageous, and intelligent chief, well disposed to the French, to divorce all his wives but one. This prince assured them that he was unable to change his habits and way of living, which were those of his forefathers. Brother Stephen, the French priest, threatened to take his wives from him by military force, if he would not repudiate them all but one. To free himself from the persecution of this priest, he removed with his family 80 miles up the country; but he was soon followed by F. Stephen and another missionary, with their attendants. Manang still received them civilly; but he intreated them no longer to insist on the conversion of him and his people, as it was impossible for them to quit the customs and manners of their ancestors. The only reply which Stephen made was by tearing off the *olis*, the amulets and charms, which the chief wore as sacred badges of his own religion; and, throwing them into the fire, he declared war against him and his nation. This violence instantly cost him and his followers their lives; they were all massacred by order of Manang." See ANOSSE, § 3. "Our yoke (says the Abbé Rochon) was become odious and insupportable. Historians, for the honour of civilized nations, should bury in oblivion the afflicting narratives of the atrocities exercised on these people, whom we are pleased to call barbarous, treacherous, and deceit-

ful, but belong to those who are apt of cultivating them. These islanders have no locks nor keys; the principal part of their diet consists in rice, fish, and flesh; their rice is seasoned with a soup which is seasoned with pepper, ginger, saffron, and aromatic herbs. They display great address in catching birds, which are unknown in Europe; they hunt for larks, partridges, quails, pintadoes, and teal of 5 or 6 different kinds, blue herons, paroquets, and turtle-doves, in great plenty of a monstrous size, which are much prized on account of their exquisite flavour. The natives are so hideous in their appearance, that they first terrify the European sailors; but they have vanquished their repugnance to taste their flesh before that of the pull of their own country. The Melagaches also catch a immense quantity of sea fish; such as the sole, the herring, the mackerel, &c. with oysters, crabs, &c. They catch excellent eels and mullets of an exquisite flavour. The inhabitants near St Augustine's bay are able to exchange their provisions for European articles. These, on the part of the Melagaches, are cattle, poultry, milk, fruit, porcelain, potatoes, yams, fish, lances, &c. From the Europeans they receive muskets, bullets, flints, *clouties*, (including chiefs, and liners of all kinds) beads, &c.—Silver, which they call *Manila*, they esteem with them, and is made into ornaments for their wives. That part of the island which the English squadron touched, belongs to *Raba*, who, by the account of Mr Irvine, greatly to affect to be an Englishman. The people, like those of Joanna, seemed fond of

OF THE PEOPLE OF. The Madecasses are a good natured people, but easily provoked, apt to show their resentment when they think themselves injured. Another characteristic is, the high notions of dignity they entertain of their who resides in a town built with mud, 12 miles up from St Augustine's Bay. : physiognomy displays the appearance of ness and satisfaction: they are desirous only rning such things as may administer to their sities; that species of knowledge which de- s reflection is indifferent to them; sober, a- ctive, they spend the greatest part of their in amusement. In fine, according to the , they are equally devoid of vice and of vir- the gratifications of the present moment sole- rny their reflections; they possess no kind eught, and have no idea that there are men : world who trouble themselves about the e- f futurity. But such a description of any n beings is hardly credible. All the women adagascar, excepting the very poorest, wear ring over their breasts and shoulders, orna- ed with glass beads, and none go without a about their loins. They commonly walk a long slender rod or stick. The men mar- many women as they can support. The Rochon gives the following description of eople in the S. division of the island: "That of Madagascar in which Fort Dauphin is si- is very populous. When the chiefs go a- b, they are always provided with a musket tuck armed with iron, and adorned at the pity with a little tuft of cow's hair. They a bonnet of red wool. It is chiefly by the f of their bonnet that they are distinguished their subjects. Their authority is extreme- ed: however, in the province of Carca- the lands by custom belong to their chiefs, ttribute them among their subjects for the es of cultivation; they exact a trifling quit- return, which in their language is called .—The people of Carcanossi are not alto- rignorant of the art of writing; they even b some historical works in the Madagascar e; but their learned men, whom they term es, use the Arabic characters alone. They eatifies on medicine, geomancy, and judi- rology; the most renowned live in the pro- of Matatane: in that district magic still re- in all its glory; the Matanes are actually led by the other Madecasses on account eir excellence in this delusive art. The asses have public schools in which they egeomancy and astrology. The natives have ably learned the art of writing from rrahians, who made a conquest of this about 300 years since. The people of u, near fort Dauphin, are lively, gay, e, and grateful; they are passionately of women; are never melancholy in their ay; and their principal occupation is ase the sex: indeed, whenever they meet rives, they begin to sing and dance. The o, from being happy, are always in good r. Their lively and cheerful character is eely pleasing to the Europeans. I have of- . XIII. PART II.

ten been present at their assemblies, where affairs of importance have been agitated; I have observed their dances, their sports, and their amusements, and I have found them free from those excesses which are but too common among polished nations."—"If the people of Madagascar (adds the Abbe) have sometimes availed themselves of treachery, they have been forced to it by the tyranny of the Europeans. The weak have no other arms against the strong. They are uninformed and helpless; and we avail ourselves of their weakness, to make them submit to our covetousness and caprice. They receive the most cruel and oppressive treatment, in return for the hospitality which they generously bestow on us; and we call them traitors and cowards, when we force them to break the yoke with which we load them."

(8.) MADAGASCAR, MANUFACTURES AND ARTS IN. "In regard to arts and trades, (says Count Benyowsky,) the Madagascar nation are contented with such as are necessary to make their moveables, tools, utensils, and arms for defence; to construct their dwellings, and the boats which are necessary for their navigation; and lastly, to fabricate cloths and stuffs for their clothing. They are desirous only of possessing the necessary supplies of immediate utility and convenience. The principal and most respected business, is the manufacture of iron and steel. The artists in this way call themselves *ompanfa vite*. They are very expert in fusing the ore, and forging utensils, such as hatchets, hammers, anvils, knives, spades, sagaves, razors, pincers, or tweezers for pulling out the hair, &c. The 2d class consists of the goldsmiths (*ompanfa vola mena*): they cast gold in ingots, and make up bracelets, buckles, ear-rings, drops, rings. The 3d are called *ompanvilianga*, and are potters. The 4th are the *ompanevatta*, or turners in wood, who make boxes called *vatta*, plates, wooden and horn spoons, beehives, coffins, &c. The 5th *ompan cacafou*, or carpenters. They are very expert in this business, and use the rule, plane, compasses, &c. The 6th are the *ompaniavi*, or rope-makers. They make their ropes of different kinds of bark of trees, and likewise of hemp. The 7th *ompan lamba*, or weavers. This business is performed by women only, and it would be reckoned disgraceful in a man to exercise it. The *ombiaffis* are the literary men and physicians, who give advice only. The *berawitz* are comedians and dancers.

(9.) MADAGASCAR, QUADRUPEDS, INSECTS, &c. IN. See § 5.

(10.) MADAGASCAR, RELIGION OF THE PEOPLE OF. Count Benyowsky, in his *Memoirs and Travels*, already quoted, gives the following account of the religion of the people. "The Madagascar nation believe in a Supreme Being, whom they call ZANHARE, which denotes *Creator of all things*. They honour and reverence this Being; but have dedicated no temple to him, and much less have they substituted idols. They make sacrifices, by killing oxen and sheep, and they address all these libations to God. It has been asserted, that this nation likewise makes offerings to the devil; (See ANOSI, § 3.) but in this there is a

deception; for the piece of the sacrificed beast, which is usually thrown into the fire, is not intended in honour of the devil, as is pretended. This custom is very ancient. With regard to the immortality of the soul, the Madagascarian people are persuaded, that, after their death, their spirit will return again to the region in which the Zanhare dwells; but they by no means admit that the spirit of man, after his death, can suffer any evil. As to the distinction of evil or good, they are persuaded that the good and upright man shall be recompensed; in this life, by a good state of health, the constancy of his friends, the increase of his fortunes, the obedience of his children, and the happiness of beholding the prosperity of his family; and they believe that the wicked man's fate shall be the contrary to this. The Madagascarian people, upon this conviction, when they make oaths, add benedictions in favour of those who keep them, and curses against those who break them. In this manner they appeal to the judgment of Zanhare, in making agreements; and it has never been known, or heard of, that a native of Madagascar has broken his oath, provided it was made in the usual manner, which they say was prescribed by their forefathers. Mr Ives gives a similar account of the religion of this people, and a particular description of their manner of sacrificing, which greatly resembles that of the ancient Jews.

(II.) MADAGASCAR, TOWNS, VILLAGES, HOUSES, &c. IN. The Madagascarian people live in towns and villages. Almost all the towns and villages in the S. part of the island are placed on eminences, and surrounded with two rows of strong palisadoes, somewhat in the manner of such of our fences as are composed of hurdles and turf. Within is a parapet of solid earth about 4 feet in height; large pointed bamboos placed 5 feet from each other, and sunk in a pit, form a kind of loopholes, which contribute towards the defence of these villages. Some of which are besides fortified with a ditch 10 feet broad and 6 deep. The dwelling of the chief is called a *donac*. At the extremity of the town a guard of from 12 to 20 men is kept. The houses of private people consist of a convenient enclosure, surrounded by several walls; the master of the house dwells in the largest, and his women or slaves lodge in the smaller. These houses are built of wood, covered with leaves of the palm tree or straw. The houses of the great men of the country are very spacious; each house is composed of two walls and four apartments; and about the principal house other smaller habitations are built for the accommodation of the women, and the whole family of the chief; but the slaves cannot pass the night within them. Most of the houses inhabited by the Kalandrians are built with taste and admirable symmetry.

(1.) MADAÏ, the grandfather of Japhet, and progenitor of the Medes. See MEDIA.

(2.) MADAÏ, is also the name uniformly given to the Medes, in Scripture.

\* MADAM. *n. f.* *bon dame*, French; my dame. The term of compliment used in address to ladies of every degree. It was anciently spoken as in French, with the accent upon the last syllable.—

Certes, *madam*, ye have great cau-

*Madam*, once more you look at queen!

*Philipp's Dist.*  
MADAME ISLES, islands near Cap  
MADAN, Martin, an English distinguished family, born about 1716, at the bar, which he relinquished for though he obtained no preferment. of the Lock Hospital was built chiefly exertions, and he officiated as chaplain for years *gratis*. He was long a very popular preacher, but incurred much obloquy by a work entitled, *Thelyptibora, or a Treatise on the Ruin of the Church*; in 3 vols 8vo, 1781; wherein he defended the lawfulness of polygamy, in cases of necessity. He also published a translation of J. Perius; in 2 vols 8vo. He died in 1791, a man of uncommon abilities, and unusual morals.

MAD-APPLE. See SOLANUM, N<sup>o</sup>

MADARAVAN, a town of PEZ, see

\* MADBRAIN. } *adj.* [*mad* and

\* MADBRAINED. } ordered in the head.—

I give my hand oppos'd against

Unto a *madbrain* Rudeby, full of

He let fall his book,

And as he stoop'd again to take it

This *madbrain'd* bridegroom took

cue,

That down fell priest and book.

\* MADCAP. *n. f.* [*mad* and *cap*; *e* the *cap* for the head, or alluding to the person distracted persons by way of dist madman; a wild hotbrained fellow.—

That last is Biron, the merry *madcap*  
Not a word with him but a jest.

The nimble-footed *madcap* prince

And his comrades, that dust the w

And bid it pass. See

MADDEN, Samuel, D. D. an Irish French extraction, educated at Dublin some church preferments in Ireland. published *The Dissertations, or the Letters of the Learned* for which he received a library from him. In 1731, he projected a scheme for learning in Dublin College by procuring 1732-3, he published *Memories of the 17th Century; being original Letters of State* 1737 in 6 vols 8vo, Lond. This work in and suppressed. In 1740, he set on foot a year, to be divided into three years promoting arts and manufactures in 1743 or 44, he published *Boulton's 2d Poem*. He died Dec. 20th, 1755.

(1.) \* To MADDEN. *v. n.* [*from mad* mad.—

Such *madning* draughts of beer  
As for awhile overwhelm'd his rapt

(2.) \* To MADDEN. *v. n.* To be so act as mad.—

The dog-star rages, nay 'tis past

All Bedlam or Parnassus is let out;

Fire in each eye, and papers in each

They rave, recite, and *mad* their

\* **MADDER.** *n. f.* [*maler*, Saxon.] The of the *madder* consists of one single leaf, is cut into 4 or 5 segments, and expanded top; the flower-cup afterwards becomes a composed of two juicy berries closely joined together, containing seed for the most part, ed like a navel; the leaves are rough, and and the stalks in whorles. *Miller.*—*Madder* vated in vast quantities in Holland: what itch send over for medicinal use is the root, is only dried; but the greatest quantity is ry the dyers, who have it sent in coarse r. *Hill.*

**MADDER.** See RUBIA. M. Macquer ob- that the Hollanders are obliged to the re- from Flanders for the knowledge of manu- the root of madder; and that they ge- cultivate it in fresh lands which have not sloughed. The commodity, when manu- ed, is distinguished into different kinds, as *madder*, *bunch madder*, &c. The grape r is the heart of the root; the other, s the heart, consists also of the bark all fibres proceeding from the principal

For the *grape madder*, the finest roots are l out, the bark separated at the mill, and side root kept moist in casks for 3 or 4 years, makes it mor. fit for dyeing than otherwise ld be. Unless madder be kept close in this r, it is apt to spoil, and loses its bright col- a great measure. It is yellow at first, but red and dark with age. It should be chosen ine saffron colour, in very hard lumps, and brong though not disagreeable smell. The r used for dyeing cottons in the East Indies, ome respects different from that of Europe. e coast of Coronandel it has the name of and grows wild on the coast of Malabar. ultivated kind is imported from Vaour and rin, but the most esteemed is the Persian called also *dumaz*. Another plant, called *é chaze*, or colour-root, is also gathered on est of Coronandel; but this, though sup- to be a species of madder, is a kind of *ga- lore albo*, which, however, gives a tolerable colour to cotton. Another species of mad- called *chive-boya*, and *chine-kazala*, is cul- d at Kunder near Smyrna, and some other ries of Turkey in Asia. It is more esteemed the best Zealand madder imported by the 1; and experiments have shown that it is or to any other kind as a dyeing ingredient. odern Greeks call this kind of madder *li-* and the Arabs *fenzy*. The fine colour of madders, however, are by Macquer attri- to their being dried in the air, and not in . Another kind of madder is produced in a, where it is called *tyssie-voyana*; its quali- e nearly the same with those of the Euro- ind. The root of madder impregnates wa- h a dull red colour, and spirit of wine with a bright red. This root, when eaten by an- along with their food, tinges their urine, air most solid bones, of a deep red. Wool ussy boiled in a solution of alum and tartar, s from a hot decoction of madder and tar- very durable but not a very beautiful red . Mr Margraf (Berlin Mem. 1771), shows

how a very durable lake of a fine colour, fit for painting, may be obtained from madder. This process is as follows: "Take 2 oz. of the purest Roman alum, and dissolve it in 3 French quarts of distilled water that has boiled in a clean glazed pot. Set the pot on the fire; and when the wa- ter begins to boil withdraw it, and add 2 ounces of the best Dutch madder. Boil the mixture once or twice; then remove it from the fire, and filter it through a double filter of paper not coloured. Let the liquor thus filtrated stand a night to set- tle, and pour off the clear liquor into the glazed pot previously well cleaned. Make the liquor hot, and add to it gradually a clear solution of salt of tartar in water, till all the madder is pre- cipitated. Filtrate the mixture; and upon the red precipitate which remains upon the filter pour boiling distilled water, till the water no longer acquires a saline taste. The red lake is then to be gently dried. No other water, neither rain nor river water, produces so good a colour as that which has been distilled, and the quantity requir- ed of this is considerable. The colour of the a- bove precipitate is deep; but if two parts of mad- der be used to one part of alum, the colour will be still deeper; one part of madder and 4 of alum produce a beautiful rose colour." See DYEING, Part III. Sect. iii. and x.

(3.) **MADDER, LITTLE FIELD.** See SHERARDIA.

(4.) **MADDER, PETTY.** See CRUCIANELLA.

**MADDERTY**, a parish of Scotland, in Perth- shire. The climate is cold and wet; the soil a stiff clay, and husbandry little improved; yet more grain is produced than serves the inhabi- tants. The population, in 1795, was 651, and had decreased 165 since 1755. The roads are bad. The only antiquity is the abbey of Inch- Effry, founded A. D. 1206, by Gilbert Earl of Strathearn. See INCH-EFFRAY.

(1.) **MADDISON**, a county of Kentucky; bounded on the N. by Fayette, NE. by Clarke, S. by Lincoln, and W. by Mercer.

(2.) **MADDISON**, a town of Virginia; in Amherst county, 150 miles W. by N. of Richmond.

**MADDOX.** See MADOX, N° 1.

\* **MADE**, participle preterite of *make*.—Nei- ther hath this man sinned, nor his parents; but that the works of God should be *made* manifest.

**MADECASSÉS.** See MADAGASCAR, § 6.

\* **MADEFACTION.** *n. f.* [*maefario*, Latin.] The act of making wet.—'To all *maefaction* there is required an imbibition. *Bacon.*

\* **To MADEFY.** *v. a.* [*mad-fy*, Latin.] To moisten; to make wet.

(1.) **MADEIRA**, the largest of the **MADEIRA ISLANDS**, from which the rest take their name, is about 55 English miles long, and 10 miles broad; and was first discovered on the 2d July, in 1419, by Joao Gonzales Zarco. It is divided into two capitania; or governments, named *Funchal* and *Maxico*, from their chief towns. The former contains two judicatures, viz. Funchal and Calhetta; the latter is a town with the title of a county. The capitania of Maxico likewise com- prehends two judicatures, viz. Maxico or Ma- shico, and San Vicente. **FUNCHAL** is the only city in the island. See **FUNCHAL**. There are also 7 villas or towns; of which these 4 are in the

capitania of Funchal, viz. Calheta, Camara de Lobos, Ribeira Braba, and Ponta de Sol: and 3 in that of Maxico, viz. Maxico, San Vicente, and Santa Cruz. Funchal is divided into 26 parishes, and Maxico into 17. The governor is at the head of all the civil and military departments of this island, of Porto Santo, the Salvages, and the Ilhas Desertas, or Desert Isles; which contain only the temporary huts of some fishermen. The law department is under the corregidor, who is appointed by the king of Portugal, commonly sent from Lisbon, and holds his place during the king's pleasure. All causes come to him from inferior courts by appeal. Each judicature has a senate; and a judge, whom they choose, presides over them. At Funchal he is called *Juiz de Fora*; and in the absence, or after the death of the corregidor, acts as his deputy. The foreign merchants elect their own judge, called the *Providor*, who is at the same time collector of the king's customs and revenues, which amount in all to about 12,000l. Sterling. The greatest part of this sum is applied towards the salaries of civil and military officers, the pay of troops, and the maintenance of public buildings. This revenue arises, first from the tenth of all the produce of this island belonging to the king, by virtue of his office as grand master of the order of Christ; 2dly, from 10 per cent duties laid on all imports, provisions excepted; and lastly, from the 11 per cent, charged on all exports. The island has but one company of regular soldiers of 100 men; the rest of the military force is a militia consisting of 3000 men divided into companies, each commanded by a captain, who has one lieutenant under him and one ensign. No pay is given to either the private men or the officers of this militia; and yet their pieces are much sought after, on account of the rank which they communicate. These troops are embodied once a-year, and exercised once a-month. All the military are commanded by the *Sergeante-Mor*. The governor has two *Capitanos de Sal* about him, who do duty as aides-de-camp. The number of secular priests is about 1200, many of whom are employed as private tutors. Since the expulsion of the Jesuits, no regular public school is to be found here; but a priest instructs and educates ten students at the king's expence. These wear a red cloak over the usual black gowns worn by students. All, who intend to go into orders, are obliged to qualify themselves by studying in the university of Coimbra lately re-established. There is also a dean and chapter at Madeira, with a bishop at their head, whose income is considerably greater than the governor's; it consists of 110 pipes of wine, and of 40 mays of wheat, each containing 24 bushels; which amounts in common years to 3000l. Sterling. Here are likewise 60 or 70 Franciscan friars, in 4 monasteries, one of which is at Funchal. About 300 nuns live on the island, in 4 convents, of the order of Merci, Sta. Clara, Incomenzas, and Bon Jesus. Those of the last mentioned institution may marry whenever they choose, and leave their monastery. In 1768, the inhabitants living in 43 parishes of Madeira, amounted to 63,913, of whom there were 31,741 males and 32,172 females. But in that year 5243 persons died, and no more than 2198 children

were born; so that the number of dead that of births by 3045. But it is by some epidemical distemper had carried proportionate a number in that year mate is excellent, the weather in general temperate: in summer, the heat is very on the higher parts of the island, and the snow remains there for several days; habitants are of a tawney colour, and ed; though they have large feet, owing furs they make in climbing the crags this mountainous country. Their faces long, their eyes dark; their black hair falls in ringlets, and begins to crisp in viduals, which may be owing to inter with negroes; in general, they are hard but not disagreeable. Their women are ly ill-favoured. They are small, have cheek-bones, large feet, an ungraceful the colour of the darkest brunette. The portion of the body, the fine form of the and their large lively eyes, in some measure penfate for these defects. The labourers summer, wear linen trowsers, a coarse sh hat, and boots; some have a short jacket of cloth, and a long cloak. The women petticoat, and a short jacket, closely fitted shapes, which is not inelegant. They short, but wide cloak; and those who married tie their hair on the crown of on which they wear no covering. The people are very sober and frugal; their sitting of bread and onions, or other little animal food. Their common diet, or an infusion of the skin of the g it has passed through the wine press, which fermented acquires some tartness and cannot be kept long. The wine of the island is famous, and which they prefer regales them. Their principal occupation and raising vines; but as that branch culture requires little attendance for a of the year, they naturally incline to The vineyards are held only on an acre and the farmer reaps but 4 10ths of the as 4 other 10ths are paid in kind to the land, one tenth to the king, and one clergy. Such small profits, joined together of toiling merely for the advantage discourage improvements. Oppressed however, they preserve a high degree ofness and contentment; and in the evening assemble from different cottages to dance men wear French clothes, commonly very old fashioned. The ladies are delicate have agreeable features; but the mutual jealousy still lock them up, and deprive a happiness which the country would Many of the superior people are a sort of nobles whom we would call *gentry*, whose and genealogical pride makes them uncauses a ridiculous affectation of grand property is in the hands of a few families, who live at Funchal, and in the towns. Madeira consists of one large town, which rises every where from the sea to the centre of the island, converging to the middle of which is an excavation, c



val by the inhabitants, always covered with a rich and delicate herbage. From the calcined appearance and the soil, it seems probable that the island has been formerly a volcano, and, that the Val was its crater. Their supply of water is very scanty and as this article is absolutely necessary to the vineyards, it is not without great expence that a new vineyard can be planted; for the maintenance of which, the owners must purchase water at a high price, from those who are constantly supplied with it. Wherever a level piece of ground can be contrived in the higher hills, the natives make plantations of eddoes enclosed by a dike to cause a stagnation, as that plant succeeds best in swampy ground. The leaves serve as food for hogs, and the country people eat the roots. The sweet potatoe too, is cultivated, and makes a principal article of diet; together with chestnuts, which grow in extensive woods, on the higher parts of the island, where the vine will not thrive. Wheat and barley are likewise sown in spots where the vines are decaying through age, or where they are newly planted. But the crops do not produce above three months provisions; the inhabitants are therefore obliged to have recourse to other food, besides importing considerable quantities of corn from N. America in exchange for wine. The want of manure, and the inactivity of the people, are in some measure the causes of this disadvantage; but though husbandry were tried to perfection here, they could not raise corn sufficient for their consumption. They use their threshing-floors of a circular form, a corner of a field which is cleared and beaten level for the purpose. The sheaves are laid round out in a circle, and a square board, stuck full of sharp nails below, is dragged over them by a pair of oxen, the driver getting on it to increase its weight. This machine cuts the straw as if it had been chopped, and frees the grain from the husk, in which it is afterwards separated. The chief produce of Madeira is the wine, from which it has acquired fame and support. Wherever the soil, exposure, and supply of water, will admit of it, the vine is cultivated. One or more rows, about a yard or two wide, intersect each other, and are enclosed by stone walls two feet high. Along these walks, which are arched over with laths about 7 feet high, they erect wooden bars at regular distances, to support a lattice-work of bamboos, which slopes down from both sides of the walk, till it is only a foot and a half or two feet high, in which elevation it extends over the whole vineyard. The vines are in this manner supported from the ground, and the people have room to root out the weeds which spring up between them. In the season of the vintage, they creep under this lattice-work, cut off the grapes, and lay them into baskets: some bunches of these grapes weigh 6 lbs. and upwards. This method of keeping the ground clean and moist, and ripening the grapes in the shade, contributes to give the Madona wine that excellent flavour and body for which they are remarkable. The owners of vineyards are however obliged to allot a certain spot of ground for the growth of bamboos; for the lattice-work cannot be made without them; and

some vineyards lie quite neglected for want of this useful reed. The wines are of 3 different qualities. The best is called *Madeira Malmoisy*, a pipe of which cannot be bought on the spot for less than 40 or 42 l. Sterling. It is exceeding rich and sweet, and is only made in a small quantity. The next is dry wine, such as is exported to London, at 30 or 31 l. Sterling the pipe. Inferior sorts for the E. and W. Indies, and N. America sell at 28, 25, and 20 l. Sterling. About 30,000 pipes, upon an average, are made annually containing 110 gallons each. About 13,000 pipes, of the better sorts are exported; and all the rest is made into brandy for the Brazils, converted into vinegar, or consumed at home. The inclosures of the vineyards consist of walls, and hedges of prickly pear, pomegranates, myrtles, brambles, and wild roses. The gardens produce peaches, apricots, quinces, apples, pears, walnuts, chestnuts, and many other European fruits; together with some tropical plants, such as bananas, goavas, and pine apples. All the common domestic animals of Europe are found at Madeira; and their mutton and beef, though small, is very well tasted. Their horses are small, but sure-footed; and with great agility climb the difficult paths, which are the only means of communication in the country. They have no wheel-carriages of any kind; but in the town they use a sort of drays or sledges, formed of two pieces of plank joined by cross pieces, which make an acute angle before; these are drawn by oxen, and are used to transport casks of wine, and other heavy goods, to and from the warehouses. The wild animals of the feathered tribe, are numerous; but of wild quadrupeds there is only the common grey rabbit. Turkeys, geese, ducks, and hens, are very rare. There are no snakes, but all the houses, vineyards, and gardens, swarm with lizards; which they catch by hundreds in brass kettles, as, when once they are in, they cannot get out again, from the smoothness of the insides. The shores of Madeira, and of the neighbouring Salvages and Desertas, are not without fish; but as they are not in plenty enough for the rigid observance of Lent, pickled herrings are brought from Gottenburg in English bottoms, and salted cod from New York and other American ports, to supply the deficiency.

(2.) MADEIRAS, a cluster of islands in the Atlantic ocean in W. Long. 10° and between 32° and 33° N. Lat.

MADFUNE, a town of Egypt, anciently called *Abydos*. See *ABYDOS*, N° 3.

\* MADGEHOWLET. *n. f.* [*bubo*.] An owl. *Amfworth*.

\* MADHOUSE. *n. f.* [*mad* and *house*.] A house where madmen are cured or confined.—A fellow, in a *madhouse* being asked how he came there? Why, says he, the mad folks abroad are too many for us, and so they have muffled all the sober people, and couped them up here. *L'Esfrange*.

(1.) MADIAN, in ancient geography, a town of Arabia Petraea, near the Arnan; so called from one of the sons of Abraham by Ketura; in ruins in Jerome's time.

(2.) MADIAN. See *MADIAN*.

MADIANÆA REGIO, the country of MADIAN.  
MADIANÆI, or the inhabitants of MADI-  
MADIANITÆ, § AN.

\* MADLY, *adv.* [from *mad*.] Without un-  
derstanding; furiously.—

He wav'd a torch aloft, and madly vain,  
Sought godlight worship from a servile train.

*Dryden.*

\* MADMAN, *n. f.* [*mad* and *man*.] A man  
deprived of his understanding.—They shall be  
like madmen, sparing none, but still sporting.  
2 *Esdr.* xvi. 71.—He that eagerly pursues any  
thing, is no better than a madman. *L'Esrange.*  
—He who ties a madman's hands, or takes away  
his sword, loves his person while he disarms his  
frenzy. *South.*

MADMAR, a town of Persia, in Chorasan.

(1.) \* MADNESS, *n. f.* [from *mad*.] 1. Distrac-  
tion; loss of understanding; perturbation of the  
faculties.—Why, woman, your husband is in his  
old lunes again; he so buffets himself on the fore-  
head, that any madnes I ever yet beheld seem'd  
but tameness and civility to this distemper.  
*Shak.*—There are degrees of madnes as of folly,  
the disorderly jumbling ideas together, in some  
more, some less. *Lacke.* 2. Fury; wildness of  
passion; rage.—The power of God sets bounds  
to the raging of the sea, and restrains the madnes  
of the people. *King Charles.*—

He rav'd with all the madnes of despair,  
He roar'd he beat his breast, and tore his hair.

*Dryden.*

(2.) MADNESS, a most dreadful kind of delirium,  
without fever. See MEDICINE, *Index.*

(3.) MADNESS, CANINE. See HYDROPHOBIA,  
and MEDICINE, *Index.*

(1.) MADNUA, a district of Maritime Austria,  
in Fauh; containing one town and 24 villages.

(2, 3.) MADNUA, a river in the above district,  
and a borough containing 6000 inhabitants in  
1797.

(1.) MADOX, Dr Isaac, a worthy English  
prelate, born July 27, 1697, of obscure parents,  
who died during his infancy. His aunt placed  
him apprentice to a pastry-cook, but showing an  
inclination to learning, he was put to school by  
some friends, and completed his studies at Aber-  
deen. He entered into orders; and being made  
chaplain to Dr Bradford Bp. of Chichester, he  
married his niece, a very worthy lady, in 1731.  
After this he was made king's chaplain, clerk of  
the closet to queen Caroline, and about 1736 Bp.  
of St Asaph; whence, in 1743, he was translated  
to Worcester. He was an excellent preacher,  
and a great promoter of public charities; parti-  
cularly the Worcester infirmary, and the hospi-  
tal for inoculating the small-pox at London. His  
sermon in favour of this last institution, preached  
in 1752, was much admired, and contributed  
greatly to extend the practice of inoculation. He  
published some other single sermons, and a De-  
fence of the Doctrine and Discipline of the Church  
of England, in answer to Mr Neale's *History of the  
Puritans.*—Dr Madox died in 1759.

(2.) MADOX, Thomas, a learned and indefati-  
gable English Antiquary, of the 18th century,  
born in the 17th, but of whose birth, birth-place,  
family, and death, we find nothing on record.

Patronised by the learned lord Somers, he pub-  
lished, in 1702, "A collection of antique char-  
ters and instruments, taken from the originals,  
from the Norman conquest to the end of the  
reign of Henry VIII." In 1711, he published a  
work of still more importance, viz. "The His-  
tory and antiquities of the Exchequer of the  
Kings of England, from the conquest to the end  
of the reign of Edward II." &c. in fol. which was  
reprinted in 1769, in 4to. This was dedicated  
to Q. Anne, with a long prefatory epistle to lord  
Somers; and appears to have procured him the  
office of Historiographer royal. His last work  
was "Firma Burgi, or a historical Essay concern-  
ing the cities, towns and boroughs of England,"  
dedicated to K. George I. He also compiled a  
valuable "Collection of transcripts, in 94 vols.  
fol. and 4to. consisting chiefly of extracts from re-  
cords in the Exchequer, the rolls in the Tower,  
the Cottonian Library," &c. intended to afford  
materials for a Feudal History of England from  
the earliest times. These vols. which cost him  
30 years labour, were presented by his widow to  
the British Museum; and Mr Madox often said,  
that, when young he would have given 1500  
guineas for them.

MADRAS, or FORT ST GEORGE, a town and  
fort of Hindoostan, on the coast of Coromandel,  
built by Sir W. Langhorne, in 1640, by order of  
the English East India Company, in the reign of  
Charles II. It fronts the sea, and has a salt-water  
river on its back side, which hinders the fresh-  
water springs from coming near the town, so that  
they have no good water within a mile. In the  
rainy seasons it is incommoded by inundations;  
and from April to September, the heat would be  
intolerable were it not for the sea-breezes. It  
consists of two tow-; one, called the *White  
Town*, is walled round, has several bulwarks and  
bastions; is 400 paces long and 150 broad, and  
is divided into regular streets. It has two  
churches, for Protestants, and Papists; a good hos-  
pital, a town hall, and a prison. It is incorpo-  
rated, and has a mayor and aldermen, &c. The  
*Black Town* is inhabited by Gentoos, Mahome-  
tans, Jews, and Portuguese and Armenian Chris-  
tians; each of whom have their temples or  
churches. Both are ruled by the English governor  
and his council. The diamond mines are only  
distant a week's journey, which renders them  
pretty plentiful, but there are no large diamonds  
since the great one was procured by governor  
Pitt. This colony produces very little of its own  
growth or manufacture; and its trade is in the  
hands of the Armenians and Gentoos. The chief  
articles the British deal in, besides diamonds, are  
calicoes, chints, muslins, and the like. The co-  
lony consists of about 80,000 inhabitants, and they  
are generally 400 or 500 Europeans. Their rice is  
brought by sea to Gangam and Orix; their  
wheat from Surat and Bengal, and their fire-  
wood from the islands of Diu. The houses of  
the White Town are built with bricks, and have  
lofty rooms and flat roofs; the Black Town con-  
sists chiefly of thatched cottages. The military  
power is lodged in the governor and council, who  
are also the last resort in civil causes. The salaries  
of the company's clerks are small, but, they com-  
m. 7

rich by trading. It was taken by the  
746, but restored at the peace of Aix-

It lies 100 miles N. by E. of Pon-  
58 SE. of Bombay, and 1030 SW. by  
atta. Lon. 80. 25. E. Lat. 13. 6. N.

DE PORA, a town of S. America, in  
na, seated on the Grande, with a fan-  
t. It is almost as much resorted to  
of America as Loretto is in Europe;  
ge of the Virgin Mary is said to have  
miracles in favour of the sea-faring  
on. 76. o. W. Lat. 11. o. N.

PORA, in natural history, a genus of  
substances; the characters of which  
hey are almost of a stony hardness, re-  
e corals, and are usually divided into  
nd pervious by many holes or cavities,  
frequently of a stellar figure. In the  
stem, this is a genus of lithophyta:  
l that inhabits it is the MEDUSA; it  
is 39 species. According to Donati,  
is white when polished; its surface is  
bled, and the wrinkles run lengthwise  
ches; in the centre there is a sort of  
which is often pierced through its  
h by 2 or 3 holes. From this are de-  
at 17 laminæ, which run to the cir-  
in straight lines; and are transversely  
by other laminæ, forming many iri-  
ities; the cellules, which are compos-  
laminæ ranged into a circle, are the  
of little polypes, which are extreme-  
imals, generally transparent, and va-  
th beautiful colours. M. de Puyssonel  
at those writers who only considered  
of submarine substances, denominated  
of them, which seemed pierced with  
; and those, the holes of which were  
called *madr.pora*. He defines them  
of marine bodies which are of a stony  
without either bark or crust, and which  
e apparent opening at each extremity,  
ith rays that proceed from the centre  
mstance. He observes that the body  
al of the madrepora, whose flesh is so  
divides upon the gentlest touch, fills  
the head is placed in the middle, and  
by several feet or claws, which fill the  
e partitions observed in this sub-  
are at pleasure brought to its head,  
nished with yellow papillæ. He dis-  
at its head or centre was lifted up oc-  
bove the surface, and often contracted  
itself like the pupil of the eye: he  
claws moved, as well as its head or  
then the animals of the madrepora are  
its extremities become white. In the  
he says, the animal occupies the ex-  
nd the substance is of a stony but more  
re than the coral. This is formed, like  
ances of the same nature, of a liquor  
animal discharges; and he adds, that  
s of the polype of the madrepora are  
irily, and others in clusters.

DAID, a town of Spain, in New Cas-  
l of the kingdom, situated in Lon. 3.  
1. 40. 26. N. It stands in the centre of  
n, surrounded with mountains, and in

the very heart of Spain, on the banks of the Man-  
zanares. The city is in general well laid out; the  
streets are wide, clean, and well paved; and the  
houses lofty, but built of brick, with lattice win-  
dows, excepting those of the rich, which are of  
glass; only, during the summer heats, they use  
gauze, to let in the fresh air. There are two  
stately bridges over the Manzanares, and many  
magnificent churches, convents, hospitals, and  
palaces. The royal palace, which stands on the  
W. side of the town, on an eminence, is spacious  
and magnificent, consisting of three courts, and  
commanding a fine prospect. At the E. end of  
the town is the *Prado*, a delightful plain, planted  
with regular rows of poplar trees, and watered  
with many fountains; where the inhabitants of  
all ranks resort. The principal square is the *Plaza  
Mayor*, which is 1536 feet in circuit, and is fur-  
rounded with piazzas, and 156 elegant and lofty  
houses, 5 stories high. A market is held in the  
middle of it. The other squares and streets are  
ornamented with fountains in a very ill taste. The  
water, however, is excellent, and the air, though  
the weather be variable and uncertain, is extreme-  
ly pure. Madrid is well supplied with provisions  
of all kinds at reasonable rates; and the court,  
with the resort and residence of the quality, and  
the colleges and offices that are held in it, occa-  
sion a brisk trade and circulation of money. The  
churches have nothing remarkable in their archi-  
tecture: those of St Pasqual, St Isabella, and the  
Carmelites, contain highly valuable collections of  
pictures. Besides a variety of charitable founda-  
tions, there are here three confraternities, the re-  
venues of which are appropriated to the succour  
of the wretched; and an institution similar to the  
*Mont de Pieté* in Paris, the principal object of  
which is to advance money to the necessitous.—  
Madrid contains 15 gates, 18 parishes, 35 con-  
vents of monks, and 31 of nuns; 39 colleges, hos-  
pitals, and houses of charity; 7398 dwelling-hou-  
ses, and about 140,000 inhabitants. The Lon-  
bard traveller, F. Caino, tells us, that 50,000  
sheep and 12,000 oxen are annually consumed in  
it. There are 4 academies; viz. 1. The Spanish  
academy, founded in 1714, and consisting of 24  
members, including the president. 2. The ac-  
cademy of history; the object of whose meetings is  
to preserve and illustrate the historical monuments  
of Spain. Their labours met the approbation of  
Philip V. who in 1738 confirmed their statutes by  
a royal edict. This academy consists of 24 mem-  
bers, including the president, secretary, and cen-  
sor. 3. The academy of painting, sculpture, and  
architecture: and, 4. The academy of medicine.  
The environs of Madrid contain several royal  
seats; among which are Buen Retiro, Casa del  
Campo, Florida, Pardo, Sorfucia, and St Ildefon-  
so; but the most magnificent not only in this  
country but perhaps in the whole world is the  
Escorial. See ESCORIAL, N° 1. Another royal  
palace, greatly admired for its gardens and water-  
works, is Aranjuez. See ARANJUEZ. Madrid lies  
265 miles NE. of Lisbon, 590 S. by W. of Lon-  
don, 625 SSW. of Paris, and 755 N W. of Rome.

(2) MADRID, New, a town of Louisiana, W. of  
the Mississippi. Lon. 89. 50. W. Lat. 30. 36. N.

\* MADRIER, n. f. *Madrier*, in war, is a kind of  
Pia. k

plank armed with iron plates, having a cavity sufficient to receive the mouth of the petard when charged, with which it is applied against a gate, or other thing intended to be broken down. *Bailey*.

(1.) \* **MADRIGAL**. *n. f.* [*madrigal*, Spanish and French, from *mandra*, Latin; whence it was written anciently *mandriale*, Italian.] A pastoral song; any light airy short song.—A *madrigal* is a little amorous piece, which contains a certain number of unequal verses, not tied to the scrupulous regularity of a sonnet, or subtilty of an epigram: it consists of one single rank of verses, and in that differs from a canzonet, which consists of several strophes, which return in the same order and number. *Bailey*.—

Waters, by whose falls

Birds sing melodious *madrigals*. *Shak.*

His artful strains have oft delid'd

The huddling brook to hear his *madrigal*. *Milt.*  
—Their tongue is light and trifling in comparison of the English; more proper for sonnets, *madrigals*, and elegies, than heroick poetry. *Dryden*.

(2.) A **MADRIGAL** should consist of some tender and delicate thought, expressed with a beautiful and elegant simplicity. Menage derives the word from *mandra*, a sheep-fold, supposing it to have been originally a kind of pastoral; others derive it from *madrugar*, Spanish, to rise in the morning; from the *madrigals* being sung early in the morning by lovers to serenade their mistresses.

(3.) **MADRIGAL**, a town of Spain, in Old Castile.

**MADRIGOLO**, a town of Parma, 6 miles W. of Parma.

**MADRISIO**, a town of Maritime Austria, in Friuli, 30 miles N. of Venice.

**MADROGAN**, the capital of Monomotapa.

(1.) **MADURA**, a province of Indostan, 60 miles long and 30 broad, bounded on the E. by Tanjour and Marava; SE. by the sea; W. by the Balagate mountains, which separate it from Malabar, and N. by Visapour and Carnate. The chief commodities are rice, elephants teeth, and cotton cloth; of which last a great deal is made, very fine. The Dutch have a rich pearl fishery.

(2.) **MADURA**, the capital of the above province, is well fortified with square towers and parapets; 182 miles SSE. of Seringapatam, and 236 SSW. of Madras. Lon. 78. 11. E. Lat. 9. 30. N.

(3.) **MADURA**, an island, with its capital, in the East Indian Ocean, 73 miles long, and from 9 to 12 broad; very fertile in rice, and containing 3 provinces. Lon. 112. 49. E. Lat. 7. 5. S.

(1.) \* **MADWORT**. *n. f.* [*mad* and *wort*.] An herb.

(2.) **MADWORT**. See **ALYSSUM**.

**MÆANDER**, in ancient geography, a celebrated river of Asia Minor, rising near Colænzæ. It flows through Caria and Ionia into the Ægean sea between Miletus and Priene, after receiving the waters of the Marfyas, Lycus, Eudon, Lethæus, &c. It is celebrated among the poets for its numerous windings, which amount to not less than 600; and hence all windings are called *mæanders*.

**MÆATZÆ**, or } an ancient people of Scotland,  
**MÆATS**, } or rather of Britain, who inhabited the middle part of the island, and hence

are styled by Dr Anderson, in his *Royal Geogies*, the *Mid-land Britons*. Their territory between the two Roman walls, and comprehended the country since called Northumberland the territories between it and the Friths of and Forth. *Dunbritton* or **DUNBARTON** was capital; their kingdom was called by the Romans *Regnum Cambrense*; and they had kings of own till the Norman conquest. Such is I Anderson's account of the *Mæatzæ*; but other their territories comprehended only the now called **LAUDERDALE**.

**MÆCENAS**, Caius Cilnius, the great and counsellor of Augustus, and the cele and liberal patron and protector of men of letters. He was descended from the kings of Etruria; his immediate forefathers were only of the trian order. He is supposed to have been at Rome, as his family lived there; but no is known of him previous to the death of A. U. C. 709; when Octavius Cæsar was Rome, to take possession of his uncle's estate; and Mæcenas became first publicly known. From that time he accompanied him through his fortunes, and was his adviser upon all occasions, so that Pædo Albinovanus called him his *right-hand*. In A. U. C. 710, Mæcenas distinguished himself by his courage and military skill in the battle of Modena, as he did afterwards at Philippi. After this last battle began his men friendship with Horace, who was a tribune of the army of Brutus, and was taken prisoner. Mæcenas recommended him to Augustus, who restored to him his estate with no small additions. The league made at Brundisium between Anton and Augustus, was negotiated by Mæcenas on part of the latter. (See Hor. Sat. v. l. 1. A. U. C. 717, when Augustus and Agrippa sailed to Sicily to fight Sextus Pompeius by sea, Mæcenas, who accompanied them, was first appeale some commotions at Rome. After the battle of Actium, he was placed over the management of the empire. While Augustus was extinguishing the remains of the civil war in Egypt, Mæcenas prevented the origin of a new one, by detecting a conspiracy to assassinate the Emperor on his return to Rome, and put to death young Lepidus the founder of it.

The civil wars being ended Augustus returned to Rome; and from this time Mæcenas indulged himself at vacant hours in literary amusements and the conversation of men of letters. His taste was opened all the learned of his time; Virgil, Horace, Propertius, Varius, Fundanius, Fabius, Arifius, Plotius Tucca, Valgius, Ainius P and many others, whom it would be tedious to mention. All these dedicated their work part of them, to Mæcenas, and celebrated his praises; and Plutarch says, even Augustus himself subscribed his Commentaries to him and Agrippa. Mæcenas continued in Augustus's favour to the end of his life, but not without interruption; the emperor broke through all the rules of friendship as well as morals, by forming an intrigue with Mæcenas's wife. Mæcenas died in the year 81 or 745 A. U. C. but at what age is not known. He is often called *patronus* by Pædo Albinovanus.

emporary poet, whose elegy upon him is ex-

He made Augustus his heir; and recom-  
 led his friend Horace to him. Meecenas is  
 ever to have enjoyed a good state of health  
 y part of his life: and many singularities are  
 d of his bodily constitution. Though he  
 n the whole a virtuous character, yet it is  
 d on all hands, that he was very luxurious  
 ffeminate. But his name will ever be vene-  
 y men of letters, on account of the dis-  
 fised patronage and support he gave to all  
 fts and learned men of his time, whence his  
 has become almost an appellative for a pa-  
 of learning and genius. He was also an au-  
 kmicif; as he wrote, 1. *A History of Animals*:  
*Journal of the Life of Augustus*: 3. *A True*  
*precious Stones*: 4. *Octavia*; and, 5. *Pro-*  
*is*, Tragedies; with several other works, but  
 are all lost.

**ABELA**, a town of Spain, in Arragon.

**ABELER**, a beautiful lake of Sweden, be-  
 in Westmanland and Sudermaland.

**ABELSTROM**, a very dangerous whirlpool on  
 the west of Norway, province of Nordland, and  
 of Lofoden, near the island of Moskoe,  
 he it also has its name of MOSKOE-STROM.  
 his amazing whirlpool, Jonas Ramus gives  
 following account. "The mountain of Abel-  
 in Lofoden, lies a league from the island  
 and betwixt these two runs that large  
 cadral stream called *Moskoe-strom*, from the  
 of Moskoe, which is in the middle of it,  
 with several circumjacent isles, as An-  
 half a quarter of a league N. Heden, Hou-  
 Siedholm, Suarves, and Buckholm. Mos-  
 is about half a quarter of a mile south of  
 ed of Ver, and betwixt them these small  
 Otterholm, Fiskan, Sunnlesfen, Stock-

Betwixt Lofoden and Moskoe, the depth  
 water is between 36 and 40 fathoms; but  
 other side, towards Ver, the depth de-  
 so as not to afford a convenient passage for  
 without the risk of splitting on the rocks,  
 happens even in the calmest weather; when  
 od, the stream runs up the country be-  
 Lofoden and Moskoe with a boisterous ra-  
 but the roar of its impetuous ebb to the  
 scarce equalled by the loudest and most  
 id cataract; the noise being heard several  
 off, and the vortices or pits are of such  
 nt, and depth, that if a ship comes within  
 action, it is inevitably dashed and car-  
 wn to the bottom, and there beat to pieces  
 the rocks; and when the water returns,  
 ment thereof are thrown up again. But  
 intervals of tranquillity are only at the turn  
 ebb and flood, in calm weather; and last  
 quarter of an hour, its violence gradually  
 ng. When the stream is most boisterous,  
 fury heightened by a storm, it is danger-  
 come within a Newy mile of it; boats,  
 and yachts having been carried away, by  
 irding against it before they were within  
 sh. It likewise happens frequently, that  
 come too near the stream, and are over-  
 d by its violence; and then it is impossible  
 like their howlings and bellows in their

fruitless struggles to disengage themselves. A  
 bear once attempting to swim from Lofoden to  
 Moskoe, with a design of preying upon the sheep  
 at pasture in the island, afforded the like spectacle  
 to the people; the stream caught him, and bore  
 him down, whilst he roared terribly so as to be  
 heard on shore. Large stocks of firs and pine  
 trees, after being absorbed by the current, rise a-  
 gain, broken and torn to such a degree as if bri-  
 tles grew on them. This plainly shows the bot-  
 tom to consist of craggy rocks, among which they  
 are whirled to and fro. This stream is regulated  
 by the flux and reflux of the sea; it being con-  
 stantly high and low water every six hours. In  
 1645, early in the morning of Senapeima Sunday,  
 it raged with such noise and impetuosity, that on  
 the island of Moskoe, the very houses of the houses  
 fell to the ground." When this whirlpool is agi-  
 tated by a storm, its vortex will reach vessels 5 or  
 6 miles distant. Lon. 10. 40. E. Lat. 68. 8. N.

**MEMACTERIA**, sacrifices offered to Jupiter  
 at Athens in the winter month Mermacterion.  
 The god, furnished Memactes, was incited to  
 find mild and temperate weather, as he presided  
 over the seasons, and was the god of the air.  
**MEMACTERION** was the 4th month of the  
 Athenian year, containing 29 days, and answering  
 to the latter part of our September, and the be-  
 ginning of October; so named from the festival  
*Mermacteria*. It was called by the Bœotians *Alu-*  
*comentis*.  
**MENNA**, in zoology, a species of Sparus.  
**MENALOS**, in ancient geography, a moun-  
 tain of Arcadia sacred to Pan, and greatly fre-  
 quented by the shepherds. It received its name from  
 Menalus a son of Lycæon. It was covered with  
 pine trees, whose echo and shade have been great-  
 ly celebrated by all the ancient poets.  
**MEONIA**, or *Molonis*, a country of Asia Mi-  
 nor, forming part of Lydia; viz. the neighbour-  
 hood of mount Tmolus, and the country watered  
 by the Pactolus. The rest on the sea-coast  
 was called Lydia. See LYDIA, § 1.  
**MEONIDE**, a name given to the Muses, be-  
 cause Homer, their greatest worthiest favourite,  
 was supposed to be a native of Meonia.  
**MEONIDES**, a surname of Homer, because,  
 according to the opinion of some writers, he was  
 born in Meonia, or because his father's name was  
 Meon.  
**MEOTICA PALUS**, } Lætus, a large lake  
**MEOTICUS LÆTUS**, } or part of the sea  
**MEOTIS PALUS**, or } betwixt Europe and  
 Asia, to the N. of the Taurus, which is a com-  
 mandment by the Chinese and Bulgars. It was  
 worshipped as a deity by the Tartars. It ex-  
 tends about 100 miles from SW. to NE. and is  
 about 6 miles in circuit. It is now called  
 the sea of ASOPH or ZAIACK; and reaches from  
 Great Tartary to the mouth of the Don. See ASOPH, N° 5.  
 \* *Mækle-oda*. It is derived from the Saxon  
*ma*, mean, great, noted to *la*, here is all fa-  
 mous; *et*, hence, famous for nobility. *Giljan's*  
*Canada*.  
**MAËE**, or *Maer*. See MAUR.  
**MAËSEYK**. See MAËZYCK.  
 Y y Y **MAELAND**,

**MAESLAND**, or } a town of the Batavian  
**MAESLAND SLUYS**, } republic in the dep. of  
 Delft, and late prov. of S. Holland, 6 miles SW.  
 of Delft, and 10 W. of Rotterdam. Lon. 4. 18.  
 E. Lat. 51. 57. N.

**MÆSTLIN**, Michael, in Latin *Mæstlinus*, a  
 celebrated German astronomer, who was born in  
 the duchy of Wittemberg; but spent his youth  
 in Italy, where he brought Galilæo over from A-  
 ristotle and Ptolemy, to the belief of the Coper-  
 nican system. He afterwards returned to Ger-  
 many, and became professor of mathematics at  
 Tubingen; where, among his other scholars, he  
 taught the great Kepler, who has praised several  
 of his ingenious inventions, in his *Astronomia Op-  
 tica*. Though Tycho Brahe did not assent to Mæst-  
 lin's opinion, yet he allowed him to be an extra-  
 ordinary person, deeply skilled in astronomy.  
 Mæstlin published many mathematical and astro-  
 nomical works; and died in 1590.

**MÆSTRICHT**, an ancient large, and strong  
 town of the French republic, in the ci-devant  
 Austrian Netherlands, and late bishopric of Liege,  
 now capital of the department of the Lower  
 Meuse. It is about 4 miles in circumference, and  
 the public buildings are handsome. It is seated  
 on the Maese, which separates it from Wyck,  
 with which it communicates by a handsome  
 bridge. In 1530, the emp. Charles V. annexed  
 it to Brabant. It revolted from the Spaniards in  
 1570, but was reduced in 1579. Lewis XIV. took  
 it in 1673; but it was restored to the Dutch, by  
 the treaty of Nimègue, in 1678. On the 23d  
 Feb. 1793, it was bombarded by the French un-  
 der Gen. Miranda: but on the 1st March was re-  
 lieved by Gen. Clairfit, who defeated the re-  
 publicans, and compelled them to raise the siege,  
 with the loss of 2000 men and 9 pieces of artillery.  
 On the 23d Sept. 1794, it was again invested by  
 200,000 French troops under Gen. Kleber, but  
 stood a regular siege till the 4th of Nov. when it  
 surrendered, with its garrison of about 8000 men.  
 During the bombardment which lasted 3 days,  
 about 2000 houses were demolished and 200 per-  
 sons killed. Mæstricht lies 15 miles N. of Liege,  
 and 5 E. of Reiffers. Lon. 5. 41. E. Lat. 50. 54. N.

**MÆSTRO**, a town of Maritime Austria, in the  
 Paduana, 3 miles NW. of Venice.

**MÆSURA**, a river of Maritime Austria, in the  
 Trevisano.

**MAESYCK**, a town of the French republic, in  
 the dep. of the Ourte, and late bishopric of Liege,  
 seated on the Maese, 3 miles SW. of Ruremond,  
 and 30 NNE. of Liege. Lon. 23. 18. E. Ferro.  
 Lat. 51. 0. N.

**MÆVIUS**. See **BAVIUS**.

**MAFAREK**, a town of Egypt, 30 miles E. of  
 Kous.

**MAFFACU**, a town of France, in the dep. of  
 the Lower Pyrenees; 42 miles S. of Orthez.

(1.) **MAFFÆUS**, Bernardine, a learned card-  
 inal, who wrote a commentary on Cicero's Epist-  
 les, and a Treatise on Medals and Inscriptions.  
 He died in 1629.

(2.) **MAFFÆUS**, John Peter, a learned Jesuit,  
 born at Bergamo in 1536. He wrote a Life of  
 Ignatius Loyola; a History of the Indies, and o-  
 ther works. He died at Tivoli, in 1603.

(3.) **MAFFÆUS**, Vego, a Latin  
 Lombardy in 1407, greatly admire  
 He wrote epigrams, and a humoro  
 to Virgil, which he called *The th*  
*the Æneid*: this was as humorou  
 to English a few years ago by Mr  
 wrote also some prose works. He  
 of Rome about the end of the pont  
 tin V.; and died in 1458.

(4.) **MAFFÆUS**, or } Francis Sci  
**MAFFEI**, } ted Italian  
 illustrious family, born at Verona,  
 distinguished himself by his valou  
 of Donawert; but he was still mor  
 by his love of learning, which led  
 into France, England, and Germ  
 conversed with the literati. He  
 of the academy of the Arcadi at  
 honorary member of that of Incrip  
 He wrote many works in versè and  
 are esteemed; particularly, 1. *T*  
*Meope*: 2. *Ceremony*, a comedy  
 tion, into Italian versè, of the fir  
 mer's Iliad: 4. Many other pieces  
 collection entitled *Rhyme and Prose*,  
*na illustrata*. 6. *Istoria diplomatica*.  
*valleresca*; an excellent work ag  
 8. An edition of *Teatro Italiano*: 9  
 Cassiodorus on the Epistles, &c. 11  
*quitates quedam selectæ*; and several  
 These 6 last are in prose. He died

\* *To MAFFLE*. v. n. *To stamm*  
 \* **MAFFLER**. v. f. [from the v  
 merer. *Ain*].

**MAFFRA**, a town of Portugal,  
 ra, 5 miles N. of Lisbon; contain  
 inhabitants. K. John V. erected  
 sificant convent near it, in a barren  
 fquence of a vow, made during a

**MAGADA**, in mythology, a titl  
 Venus was worshipped in Lower S  
 she had a famous temple, whic  
 with respect even by the Huns and  
 they ravaged the country. It was  
 Charlemagne.

**MAGADINO**, a town of the It  
 in the dep. of the Lario, district o  
 late bailiwick of Locarno; seated o  
 5 miles S. of Bellinzona.

**MAGADOXO**, a kingdom of A  
 capital on the coast of Agan. The  
 near the mouth of a river of the sa  
 fenced by a citadel, and has a  
 The inhabitants are chiefly Mahet  
 45. 15. E. Lat. 3. 0. N.

**MAGALAS**, a town of France  
 of Herault, 7½ miles N. of Beziers.

**MAGAM**, a town of Ceylon, 9  
 Candy.

**MAGAS**, [from μαγική to sing  
 nison or octave;] a musical instrum  
 among the ancients. There were two  
*gadás*, the one a stringed instrument,  
 chords arranged in pairs, and tun  
 or octave, so that they yielded te  
 invention whereof is ascribed by some  
 by others, to the Lydians; and by o-  
 thers to Miletus. The other w

which at the same time yielded very high very low notes. The former kind was much loved by Timotheus of Miletus, who is said to have been impeached of a crime, because by raising the number of chords he spoiled and debilitated the ancient music.

(b.) \* **MAGAZINE.** *n. f.* [*magazine*, French; from the Arabick *machfan*, a treasure.] 1. A house, commonly an arsenal or armoury, or repository of provisions.—If it should appear fit to allow shipping in those harbours, it shall be needful that there be a *magazine* of all necessary provisions and ammunitions. *Raleigh*.—*Plain* heroic magnitude of mind; their armories and *magazines* contemptuous.

*Milton.*

Some o'er the publick *magazines* preside,  
And some are sent new forage to provide.

*Dryden.*

Useful arms in *magazines* we place,  
Rang'd in order, and dispos'd with grace.

*Pope.*

The head was so well stored a *magazine*, that nothing could be proposed which he was not master of. *Locke*. 2. Of late this word has signified a miscellaneous pamphlet, from a periodical miscellany called the *Gentleman's Magazine*, published under the name of *Sylvanus Urban*, and *Edward Cave*.

(c.) A **MAGAZINE**, in a fortified town, ought to contain stores of all kinds; *i. e.* not only arms, ammunition and provisions, but materials and tools by which smiths, carpenters, wheel-wrights, &c. may make every thing belonging to the army; as carriages, waggons, &c.

(d.) A **MAGAZINE**, on ship-board, is a close storeroom or store-house, built in the fore or aft part of the vessel, to contain the gunpowder used in the service. This apartment is strongly secured against fire, and no person is allowed to enter it with a torch or candle: it is therefore lighted, as occasion requires, by the candles or lamps in the light-rooms contiguous to it.

(e.) **MAGAZINE AIR-GUN.** See **AIR-GUN**.

(f.) **MAGAZINE, ARTILLERY.** In a siege, the magazine is made about 25 or 30 yards behind the battery, towards the parallels, and at least 10 feet under ground, to hold the powder, shot, led shells, port fires, &c. Its sides and roof must be well secured with boards to prevent the powder from falling in: a door is made to it, and a covered trench or passage is sunk from the magazine to the battery, one to go in and the other to come out at, to prevent confusion. Sometimes gratings are made in the passages to prevent direct shot from plunging into them.

(g.) **MAGAZINE, POWDER,** is that where the gunpowder is kept in very large quantities. Authors are greatly both with regard to the situation and construction; but all agree, that they ought to be arched and bomb-proof. In fortifications, they are frequently placed in the rampart; but when they have been built in different parts of a town. The first powder magazines were built with Gothic arches: but M. Vauban, finding them too weak, constructed them in a semicircular form; whose dimensions are 60 feet long

within, and 25 broad; the foundations are 8 or 9 feet thick, and 8 feet high from the foundation to the spring of the arch; the floor is two feet from the ground, which keeps it from dampness. An engineer of great experience some time ago had observed, that after the centres of semicircular arches are struck, they settle at the crown and rise up at the hanches, even with a straight horizontal extrados, and still much more so in powder magazines, whose outside at top is formed like the roof of a house, by two inclined planes joining in an angle over the top of the arch, to give a proper descent to the rain; which effects are exactly what might be expected agreeable to the true theory of arches. Now, as this shrinking of the arches must be attended with very ill consequences, by breaking the texture of the cement after it has been in some degree dried, and also by opening the joints of the voussoirs at one end, so a remedy is provided for this inconvenience with regard to bridges, by the *arch of equilibration* in Mr Hutton's book on bridges; but as the ill effect is much greater in powder magazines, the same ingenious gentleman proposed to find an arch of equilibration for them also, and to construct it when the span is 20 feet, the pitch or height 10 (which are the same dimensions as the semicircle), the inclined exterior walls at top forming an angle of 113 degrees, and the height of their angular point above the top of the arch equal to seven feet. This curious question was answered in 1775 by the rev. Mr Wildbore. See Hutton's *Miscellaneous Mathematica*.

(7.) **MAGAZINES, LITERARY;** a well known species of periodical publications, of which the first that appeared was *The Gentleman's*, set on foot by Mr Edward Cave in 1731. See **CAVE**, N° 2. This, as Dr Kippis observes, "may be considered as something of an epoch in the literary history of this country. The periodical performances before that time were almost wholly confined to political transactions, and to foreign and domestic occurrences; but the monthly magazines have opened a way for every kind of enquiry and information. The intelligence and discussion contained in them are very extensive and various; and they have been the means of diffusing a general habit of reading through the nation, which in a certain degree hath enlarged the public understanding. Many young authors, who have afterwards risen to considerable eminence in the literary world, have here made their first attempts in composition. Here too are preserved a multitude of curious and useful hints, observations, and facts, which otherwise might have never appeared; or if they had appeared in a more evanescent form, would have incurred the danger of being lost." *The Gentleman's Magazine*, amidst numerous rivals, has preserved its reputation to the present day. The original London Magazine has been long discontinued. The next oldest publication of this kind is *The Scots Magazine*; which was commenced at Edinburgh in 1739; has also survived many rivals, and still subsists.

(1.) **MAGDALEN, Mary.** See **MARY**.

(2.) **MAGDALEN,** a small town in Hants.

(3.) **MAGDALEN ASYLUM,** a retreat for peni-

tent prostitutes, similar to the MAGDALEN HOSPITAL at London, instituted at Edinburgh on the 7th of May 1801.

(4.) MAGDALEN HOSPITAL. See SOUTHWARK.  
(5.) MAGDALEN ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the Gulf of St Lawrence; 14 leagues NW. of Cape Breton. The largest lies in Lon. 61. 20. W. Lat. 47. 25. N.

(6.) MAGDALEN, RELIGIOUS OF ST., or MAGDALENETTES, a name given to divers communities of nuns, consisting generally of penitent courtizans. Such are those at Metz, established in 1452; those at Paris, in 1492; those at Naples, first established in 1324, and endowed by Queen Sancha; and those of Rouen and Bourdeaux, which had their original among those of Paris in 1618. In each of these monasteries there are 3 kinds of persons and congregations; 1st, those who are admitted to make vows, and who bear the name of *St Magdalen*; 2d, the congregation of *St Mirtha*, composed of those whom it is not judged proper to admit to vows; 3d, the congregation of *St Lazarus*, composed of such as are detained there by force. The religious of *St Magdalen* at Rome were established by Pope Leo X. Clement VIII. settled a revenue on them; and farther appointed, that the effects of all public prostitutes, dying intestate, should fall to them; and that the testaments of the rest should be invalid unless they bequeathed a portion of their effects, at least a fifth part, to them.

(1.) MAGDALENA, one of the MARQUESAS ISLANDS, about 5 leagues in circuit. Lon. 138. 40. W. Lat. 10. 25. S.

(2.) MAGDALENA, a town in the isle of Cuba. MAGDALENE'S CAVE, a cave of Germany, in Cambrilla, 10 miles E. of Gontz. It appears like a chasm in a rock, and at the entrance torches are lighted to conduct travellers. It has several divisions, with a vast number of natural pillars, as white as snow, and almost transparent, which give it a beautiful appearance. The bottom is of the same substance, so that it has been likened to the ruins of an enchanted city, surrounded with magnificent pillars, some entire and others broken.

MAGDALENETTES. See MAGDALEN, N° 6.  
MAGDALUM. See MAGDOLUM.

(1.) MAGDEBURG, a duchy of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony; bounded on the N. by that of Mecklenburgh; S. and SW. by the principality of Anhalt and Halberstadt, E. by Upper Saxony and Barchelding; and W. by the duchy of Wolfenbuttel. The Saale circle, and that of Luskewalde, are separated from the rest, and surrounded on all sides by a part of Upper Saxony. This country is, for the most part, level; but sandy, marshy, or overgrown with woods. There are salt springs in it to men, that they are unwholesome to many of the Germans with salt. The *Loos* is said to be the most fruitful part of it. In the *Saale* circle, which wood is scarce, there is plenty of iron, and in another a copper mine. The *Loos* is watered by the *Elbe*, which passes through it, and the *Saale*, *Havel*, *Alder*, *Ore*, and *Elster*, are streams of water some part of its extent. The whole duchy, exclusive of a part of the county of Mansfeld which is con-

nected with it, contains about 20 cities, 6 430 villages, and 350,000 inhabitants. It consist of the clergy, the nobility, and de the cities. Since it became subject to th of Brandenburg, no diets are held in it, the states the direction of the finances. the Reformation, it was an archbishopric in spirituals to the pope alone, and its p primate of all Germany; but embracing formation, it chose its own administrator treaty of Munster in 1648, when it was gether with the bishopric of Halberstadt, lector of Brandenburg, as an equivalent fo ther Pomerania, granted to the king of Lutheranism is the predominant religion ymists, Jews, and Roman catholics, are 1 The last have 5 convents. The Luther es, amount to 314. The Jews have a s at Halle. The manufactures are cloth, su ings, linen, oil-skins, leather, and parch which, with grain of all sorts, large qua exported. The king of Prussia has a feat as duke of Magdeburg. His matricula is 43 horse and 196 foot, or 1300 florins For the civil government there is a cou gency, with a war and domestic chambe the ecclesiastical, a consistory, and gen intendant. The revenues arising from w es, some of which are very oppressive, 800,000 rixdollars annually. Every ho is obliged to buy a certain quantity of fa self and wife; and also for every child a horse, cow, calf, and sheep, that he The principal places are Magdeburg, I Glauche.

(2.) MAGDEBURG, the capital of the chy, as well as of Lower Saxony, one of all Germany. It is a city of great tly fortified, and very ancient. Its nat the *magda* city; which, some imagine rise from an ancient temple of Venus, y here. The founder of the city is said to Otho I. or his nephew Editha, danc rived I. of England. Otho also want distric convert, which he afterwards into an archbishopric, of which the was a count palatine, and had great. The city is pleasantly situated on the o Elbe, amidst fruitful plains, on the ro High and Low Germany. It has suffe by fires and sieges; but by none so m in 1631, when count Tilly took it, plundered and burnt it, except the cat cement. Of 45,000 burghers, not ab seced. The soldiers committed the r ing barbarities; ripping up women's murdering sucking infants in sight of th and ravishing young women in the tre vout which many of them threw themse Elbe. The city is now populous, larg built, particularly the broad street and square. The principal buildings are palace, the governor's house, the ma nial, and cathedral. The last is a mpr in the antique taste, dedicated to S and has a fine organ, the chief pipe o to 15; that a man can scarce clasp it arm; it all round the tombs of Oth



e marble statue of St Maurice, a port, an altar in the choir of one stone of ours, curiously wrought, and many re- other curiosities. The chapter consists of, and twenty three canons. There r Lutheran collegiate foundations, and a convent dedicated to the Virgin, in a school. Here is also a gymnasium, academy, in which young gentlemen are in the art of war. The canons of the nil make proof of their nobility. The and dignities are all in the gift of the d the revenue of the provost is compu- 000 crowns a-year. Magdeburg has a e, and various manufactures of woollen is, silks, cottons, linens, stockings, hats, bucco, &c. It was formerly one of the imperial towns. Editha, on whom it was as a dowry, among many other privi- ured it the grant of a yearly fair. Mag- 40 miles W. of Brandenburg, and 125 mburg. Lon. 11. 45. E. Lat. 52. 11. N. GDLEBURG HEMISPHERES. See COHE-

ELLA, a town of Saxony, in Weimar. GDOLUM, or MAGDALUM, in ancient i, a town of Lower Egypt, 12 miles S. m; (*Herodotus, Antiqu.*) reckoned the *Magdol* of Jeremiah.

GDOLUM, or MIDDOL, [*i. e.* a tower or brough)] was seated near the Red Sea, far S. of the above.

*V. n. f.* [*magus, Lat.*] A magician. *Sp. n. f.* LHAENS, John Hyacinth DE, a learn- ule ecclesiastic, who was a member of egiu academies, as well as F. R. S. Lond. o London, and resided there many years, ith in 1796. He published several use- on experimental philosophy.

GELLAN, Ferdinand, a celebrated Por- ariner in the 16th century. He went vice of the emp. Charles V. and sailed le with 5 vessels in 1619, when he dis- ased through the strait to which he s, and sailed through the South Sea to ne Islands, where, according to some, sioned in 1520; though others say that id in a mutiny of his people in the Mutan, on account of his severity. His and the world was written by one on d has been often printed in English.

AGELLAN, STRAITS OF, a narrow pas- cen Terra del Fuogo and the S. extremi- ica, first discovered by MAGELLAN. ) Other navigators have passed the time as these straits are exceedingly difficult, it to storms, it has been common to sail torn, rather than through the Straits of

See LE MAIRE, and FULGO, N° 2.

LIANIA, or TERRA MAGELLANICA, e of land in S. America, extending from of Rio de la Plata to the utmost verge Continent: viz. from Lat. 50 to 54° S. ded on the N. by Chili and Cuyo; E. by ern Ocean; S. by the Straits of Magel- W. by the South Sea and Ch. Magel- ured only Cape Virgin and Desire; but naries have discovered several different

nations in this country; particularly the *Chunians* and *Julians*. The former inhabit the country and several islands N. of the latter; who dwell near MAGELLAN'S STRAITS. The Chunians are tyrannised over, hunted, and sold for slaves by the Indians. The soil is barren; the climate cold and inhospitable; the E. coasts are marshy.

MAGELLANIC CLOUDS, whitish apparances like clouds, seen in the heavens towards the south pole, and having the same apparent motion as the stars. They are three in number, two of them near each other. The largest lies far from the south pole; but the other two are not many de- grees more remote from it than the nearest conspicuous star, that is, about 11 degrees. Mr Boyle supposes, that if these clouds were seen through a good telescope, they would appear to be mul- titudes of small stars, like the milky way.

MAGCEL, a river of the French republic, in the dep. of the Dyle, and adjacent province of Austrian Flanders, which runs into the Demer, 4 miles above Diet.

(1.) MAGGI, Bartholomew, brother to the ce- lebrated Jerome Maggi, (see N° 2.) was a physi- cian at Bologna, and wrote a treatise of gun-shot wounds.

(2.) MAGGI, or MAGIUS, Jerome, one of the most learned men of the 16th century, was born at Anghiari in Tuscany. He applied himself to all the sciences, and distinguished himself so much in the art of war, that the Venetians sent him into Cyprus in quality of judge of the admiral- ty. When the Turks besieged Famagusta, he performed all the services that could be expected from the most excellent engineer: he invented mines and machines for throwing fire, by means of which he destroyed all the works of the besieger, and in an instant overthrew what had cost the Turks infinite labour. But they obtained revenge; for, taking the city in 1571, they plundered his library, carried him loaded with chains to Con- stantinople, and treated him in the most barbarous manner. He nevertheless comforted himself from the example of Zeno, Menippus, Epictetus, and other braved men; and, after passing the whole day in the meanest drudgery, spent the night in writing. He composed, from memory alone, treatises filled with quotations, which he dedicated to the Imperial and French ambassadors. These ministers, moved by compassion for this learned man, resolved to purchase him; but while they were treating for his ransom, Maggi made his escape, and got to the Imperial ambassador's house; when the Grand Vizir, enraged at his flight, seized, and caused him to be strangled in prison in 1571. His principal works are, 1. A treatise on the bells of the ancients. 2. On the destruction of the world by fire. 3. Commentaries on *Æmilius Probus's* lives of illustrious men. 4. Commentaries on the *Idistites*. 5. A Treatise on the woods a loss. These works are written in elegant Latin. He also wrote, 6. A Treatise on Fortification in Italian; and, 7. A book on the situation of ancient Tuscany.

(3.) MAGGI, Vincent, a native of Pesse, and a celebrated professor of humanity at Ferrara in Pa- dua, was the author of several works.

MAGGIORA,

MAGGIORA, } or LOCARNO, LAKE, or LAKE  
 MAGGIORE, } MAJOR, a lake of Italy, lying  
 partly in the Italian republic and partly in the  
 Helvetic, being bounded on the N. by the ci-devant  
 Swiss bailiwicks in the latter, and on the S.  
 by the dep. of Olona, (ci-devant Milanese,) in the  
 former. Geographers differ much respecting its  
 extent: Dr Brookes and Mr J. Walker make it 35  
 miles long and 6 broad; the rev. Cl. Crutwell makes  
 it 40 miles long and only 4 broad; but Dr Op-  
 penheim states its length at no less than 56 Italian  
 miles, which, being 15 miles in the 100 longer  
 than English miles, makes it above 64 miles long.  
 He also makes its greatest depth 240 feet, whereas  
 Mr Crutwell makes it only 80. The *Borromean*  
 and several other fertile islands lie in it. It ab-  
 ounds with trouts, perches, &c.

(1.) \* MAGGOT. *n. f.* [*magrod*, Welsh; *mille-  
 pedia*, Lat. *maeu*, Saxon.] 1. A small grub, which  
 turns into a fly.—Out of the sides and back of the  
 common caterpillar we have seen creep out small  
*maggots*. *Ray on the Creation*.—

From the fore although the insect flies,  
 It leaves a brood of *maggots* in disguise. *Garth*.  
 2. Whimsy; caprice; odd fancy. A low word.  
 Figures pedantical, these summer flies,  
 Have blown me full of *maggot* ostentation:  
 I do forswear them. *Shakespeare*.

To reconcile our late dissenters,  
 Our brethren though by other venters,  
 Unite them and their dissent *maggots*,  
 As long and short sticks are in faggots. *Hudibr.*  
 —She pricked his *maggot*, and touch'd him in the  
 tender point; then he broke out into a violent  
 passion. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) MAGGOT, (*s. r. d. f. r.*) or the fly-worm, is  
 bred in flesh, from the egg of the great blue flesh-  
 fly. Notwithstanding the distaste for this animal,  
 its figure and parts are worth attending to; and  
 may serve as a general history of the class of worms  
 produced from the eggs of flies. It is white and  
 fleshy; its body is composed of a number of rings,  
 like the bodies of caterpillars; and is capable, at  
 the pleasure of the animal, of assuming different  
 figures; more or less extended in length, and con-  
 sequently more or less thick. Although it has no  
 legs, it is able to move itself very swiftly; and in  
 its first attempt to move its body, is extended to  
 its greatest length, and assumes something of the  
 figure of a pointed cone. The pointed part of  
 the cone is the head of the animal, and is not se-  
 parated from the next ring by any deeper furrow  
 than the rest of the rings are from one another.  
 Sometimes two short horns are thrust out from  
 the head; but more generally two scaly hooks are  
 observable: these are, however, sometimes hid,  
 and have each a case or sheath; into which the a-  
 nimal can retract them at pleasure. These hooks  
 are bent into an arch, the concavity of which is  
 towards the plane on which the creature is placed;  
 and they are thickest at their insertion in the head,  
 and thence diminish gradually, till they terminate  
 in a fine sharp point. They are placed parallel,  
 and can never come together; and therefore can-  
 not serve in the place of teeth for grinding the  
 food; but merely to pull and sever it in pieces,  
 that it may be of a proper size for the mouth.  
 The maggot has also a kind of dart, at an equal

distance between these hooks, about of  
 their length. This also is brown and  
 them; it is quite straight, and terminates  
 point. The hooks have two scaly thorn  
 points; and this dart seems intended, by  
 its strokes, to divide and break the piece  
 these have separated from the rest into  
 parts. Immediately below the aperture  
 egress of the hooks, is placed the mouth  
 the creature does not show unless press'd  
 something like a tongue appears. This  
 supply the place both of teeth and leg  
 fastening these hooks into the substance  
 ced on, and then drawing up its body  
 pulls itself along. The back lowers itself  
 grees as it approaches the extremity of th  
 and near the place where the back begins  
 itself, are placed the two principal orga  
 spiration; which are two small roundish  
 spots: easily distinguishable by the naked  
 the rest of the body is white. Viewed th  
 microscope, each of these spots appear  
 brown circular eminence raised a little a  
 rest of the body. On each of them there  
 3 oblong oval cavities, of the shape of  
 holes, each situated in a parallel directio  
 other; and their length nearly perpend  
 that of the body of the animal. These  
 admit the air necessary to life. It has 6  
 3 on each side of its body. The great  
 rency of its body shows that it has on ea  
 large white vessel running the whole leng  
 body. These vessels are most distinct to  
 hinder part; and they terminate each in t  
 spot above mentioned: hence they seem  
 two principal tracheæ. The ramification  
 are very beautiful in this creature, espe  
 its belly: but no vessel analogous to the  
 tery in the caterpillar class can be disc  
 these. See ERUCA, § 1.

\* MAGGOTTINESS. *n. f.* [from ]  
 The state of abounding with maggots.

\* MAGGOTTY. *adj.* [from *maggot*  
 of maggots. 2. Capricious; whimsical  
 word.—To pretend to work out a neat  
 thoughts with a *maggotty* unfettered hea  
 diculous as to think to write straight in a  
 coach. *Norris*.

MAGHERAFELT, a town of Ireland  
 donderry, famous for linens; 13 m. W. c

MAGI, or } an ancient religious se

MAGIANS, } sia, and other eastern  
 who maintained that there were two;  
 one the cause of all good, the other th  
 all evil: and, abominating the adora  
 mages, they worshipped God only by  
 they looked upon as the brightest and  
 rious symbol of Oromardes, or the good  
 darkness is the trust symbol of Animan  
 evil god. This religion was reformed b  
 ASTER, who maintained that there wa  
 prime independent Being; and under  
 principles or angels, one the angel of  
 and light, and the other of evil and dark  
 there is a perpetual struggle between th  
 shall last to the end of the world; th  
 angel of darkness and his disciples shall  
 world of their own, where they shall be

ing darkness; and the angel of light and  
es shall go into a world of their own,  
y shall be rewarded in everlasting light.  
ts of the magi were the most skilful ma-  
ans and philosophers of the ages in which  
, infomuch that a learned man and a  
ecame equivalent terms. The vulgar  
their knowledge as supernatural; and  
se who practised wicked and mischief-  
, taking upon themselves the name of  
drew on it that ill signification which  
MAGICIAN now bears among us. This  
bists under the denomination of GAURS,  
s, in Persia, where they watch the fa-  
with the greatest care, and never suffer  
tinguished. See GABRES, N° 1.  
A, a river of Italy, which runs into Lake  
at Locarno.

C. See MAGICK.

MAGICAL. *adj.* [from *magick*.] Acting,  
ned by secret and invisible powers, either  
, or the agency of spirits.—  
umbly signify what, in his name,  
magical word of war, we have effected.

*Sbak.*  
beheld unveiled the *magical* shield of  
slo, which dazzled the beholders with  
brightneis. *Dryden*.—By the use of a  
lafs, and certain attire made of cam-  
on her head, she attained to an evil ar-  
eal force in the motion of her eyes.

MAGICAL DRUM, an instrument of super-  
ed in Lapland, thus described by Schef-  
is history of that country. It is made  
pine, or fir, split in the middle, and  
on the flat side where the drum is  
de. The hollow is of an oval figure;  
vered with a skin clean dressed, and  
with figures of various kinds, such as  
s and moons, animals and plants, and  
stries, lakes and rivers; and of later days,  
preaching of Christianity among them,  
nd sufferings of our Saviour and his a-  
e often added among the rest. All these  
e separated by lines into three regions  
s. There is besides these parts of the  
index and a hammer. The index is a  
beads or iron rings, the biggest of which  
e in its middle, and the smaller ones are  
t. The hammer or drumstick is made  
orn of a rein-deer; and with this they  
drum so as to make these rings move,  
g laid on the top for that purpose. In  
n of these rings about the pictures fig-  
the drum, they fancy to themselves some  
n in regard to the things they inquire  
What they principally inquire into by  
ment, are three things: 1. What sacri-  
prove most acceptable to their gods.  
success they shall have in their several  
ms, as hunting, fishing, curing diseases,  
ke; and, 3. What is doing in places re-  
n them. On these occasions they use  
cular ceremonies, and place themselves  
odd postures as they beat the drum;  
luences the rings to the one or the other

side, and to come nearer to the one or the other  
set of figures. And when they have done this,  
they have a method of calculating a discovery,  
which they keep as a great secret, but which  
seems merely the business of the imagination in  
the diviner or magician.

\* MAGICALLY. *adv.* [from *magical*.] Accord-  
ing to the rites of magick; by enchantment.—  
In the time of Valens, divers curious men, by the  
falling of a ring *magically* prepared, judged that  
oe Theodorus should succeed in the empire.  
*Camden*.

(1.) \* MAGICIAN. *n. s.* [*magicus*, Lat.] One  
skilled in magick; an enchanter; a necromancer.—

What black *magician* conjures up this fiend,  
To stop devoted charitable deeds. *Sbak.*

An old *magician*, that did keep  
Th' Hesperian fruit. *Waller.*

—There are millions of truths that a man is not  
concerned to know; as, whether Roger Bacon  
was a mathematician or a *magician*. *Locke*.

(2.) A MAGICIAN may be defined one who pre-  
tends to have the power of doing wonderful feats  
by the agency of spirits.

MAGICIAN'S MIRRORS. See CATOPTICS, *Ind*.

(1.) \* MAGICK. *u. s.* [*magia*, Lat.] 1. The art of  
putting in action the power of spirits: it was sup-  
posed that both good and bad spirits were subject  
to magick; yet magick was in general held unlaw-  
ful; sorcery; enchantment.—

She once being loost,  
The noble ruin of her *magick*, Antony,  
Claps on his sea wing. *Sbak.*

—What charm, what *magick*, can over-rule the  
force of all these motives. *Rogers*. 2. The writers  
of natural *magick* attribute much to the virtues  
that come from the parts of living creatures, as if  
they did infuse immaterial virtue into the part  
severed. *Bacon*.

(2.) \* MAGICK. *adj.* 1. Acting or doing by pow-  
ers superior to the known powers of nature; en-  
chanted; necromantick.—

Upon the corner of the moon  
There hangs a vap'rous drop, profound;  
I'll catch it ere it come to ground:  
And that distill'd by *magick* flights  
Shall raise such artificial sprights,  
As by the strength of their illusion,  
Shall draw him on to his confusion. *Macbeth*.

Like castles built by *magick* art in air,  
That vanish at approach, such thoughts appear.  
*Granville*.

2. Done or produced by magick.—

And the brute earth would lend her nerves,  
and shake

Till all thy *magick* structures rear'd so high,  
Were shatter'd into heaps. *Milton*.

(3.) MAGICK, [*MAFEIA*, Gr.] in its ancient sense, is  
the science or discipline and doctrine of the magi,  
or wise men of Persia. See MAGI. The origin of  
magic and the magi is ascribed to Zoroaster.  
Salmalius derives the very name from Zoroaster,  
who, he says, was surnamed *Mog*, whence Ma-  
gus. Others make him only the restorer and im-  
prover of the Persian philosophy, alleging, that  
many of the Persian rites in use among the magi  
were borrowed from the Zabii among the Chal-  
deans.

beans, who agreed in many things with the magi of the Persians; whence some make the name *magus* common both to the Chaldeans and Persians.

(4.) *MAGIC*, in a modern sense, is a science which teaches to perform wonderful and surprising effects. The word originally carried with it a very innocent, nay, laudable meaning; being used purely to signify the study of wisdom, and the more sublime parts of knowledge; but as the ancient magi engaged also in astrology, divination, sorcery, &c. the term *magic* in time became odious, and was only used to signify an unlawful and diabolical kind of science, depending on the assistance of the devil and departed souls. Agrippa divides magic into three kinds; viz. natural, celestial and ceremonial or superstitious.

I. *MAGIC, CELESTIAL*, borders nearly on judiciary astrology: it attributes to spirits a kind of rule or dominion over the planets, and to planets a dominion over men; and on those principles builds a ridiculous kind of system. See *ASTROLOGY*.

II. *MAGIC, NATURAL*, is the application of natural active causes to passive subjects; by means whereof many surprising, but yet natural, effects are produced. In this way many of our experiments in natural philosophy, especially those of electricity, optics, and magnetism, have a kind of magical appearance, and among the ignorant and credulous might easily pass for miracles. Such, without doubt, have been some of those miracles wrought by ancient magicians, whose knowledge of the various powers of nature, there is reason to believe, was much greater than modern vanity will sometimes allow. Baptista Porta has a treatise of natural magic, or of secrets for performing very extraordinary things by natural causes. The natural magic of the Chaldeans was nothing but the knowledge of the powers of simples and minerals.

III. *MAGIC, SUPERSTITIOUS, or GOTTIC*, consists of the invocation of devil. Its objects and effects are usually wicked, and frequently supplanting the powers of nature; supposed to be produced by virtue of some compact, either tacit or express, with evil spirits. This species of magic appears to have had its origin in Egypt, the native country of paganism. The first magicians mentioned in history were Egyptians; and that people, so famed for early wisdom, believed not only in the existence of demons, the great agents in magic (see *DEMONS*), but also that different orders of those spirits presided over the elements of earth, air, fire, and water, as well as over the persons and affairs of men. Hence they ascribed every disease which they were obstinate to the immediate agency of some evil demon. When any person was seized with a fever, for instance, they did not think it necessary to search for any natural cause of the disorder; it was immediately attributed to some demon, which had taken possession of the body of the patient, and could not be chased out by charms and incantation. Their physicians could not only cure the sick, but could likewise, and weakly as they were, by means of their superstitious demons, was universally believed. Ancient writers are full of the wonders which they performed. We shall mention one

or two of those which are best attested, and enquire whether they might not have been by other means than the interposition of devils. The first magicians on record are those of Egypt opposed Moses. When Aaron cast his rod, and it became a serpent, they cast theirs the like with their enchantments; "for down every man his rod, and they became serpents." This was a phenomenon which, if confessed, had a very miraculous appearance, and yet there seems to have been nothing which might not have been effected by hand. The Egyptians, and perhaps the inhabitants of every country where serpents have the art of depriving them of their poison, might, so that they may be handled with safety. It was easy for the magicians, if favoured by the court, to pretend to change their rods into serpents, by de substituting one of those animals in place of the rod. In like manner they might produce blood, and to produce blood, if Moses gave in these instances, as he did in others, any previous information of the nature of the miracles which were to be performed, the magicians might easily provide a quantity of blood and a number of frogs sufficient to their purpose. Beyond this, however, they could not go. It stopped where that of the magicians in *legerdemain* must have stopped—at the want of proper materials to work with. Egypt with serpents; blood could be easily procured without difficulty they might have procured from the river. But when Moses produced serpents from the dust of the ground, the magicians had it not in their power to collect a quantity of these animals, were compelled to be an effect of divine agency. The appearance of Samuel to Saul at Endor is another miracle, seemingly performed by the power of magic. It was a common pretence of the magicians that they could raise up ghosts from the dead, or make dead persons appear unto them to foretell future events. Whether the witch of Endor was an illusion of charms, or incantations, the sacred historian has not informed us; but Saul addressed her as if he believed that by some charm she could recall the soul of the prophet, who had been time dead. In the subsequent apparition of the witch, which was produced, some have thought there was nothing more than a trick, by cunning woman imposed upon Saul's credulity; but others believe that some confederate spirit was the ghost of Samuel. But hadst thou the case, the world undoubtedly have not pretended Samuel's answer as pleasing to Saul as possible, both to save her own life, while the king was in danger, and to have procured a larger reward. She would never have said, that Saul and his sons should be delivered to the hands of the Philistines. For if so many either have supposed that the spirit was really an evil angel, by whose assistance the woman was accustomed to work wonders to foretell future events. But it is quite probable, that one of the apostate spirits should have appeared, Saul her appearing to him.

ould have accosted him in such words as these: Wherefore dost thou ask of me, seeing the Lord is departed from thee, and is become thine enemy? For the Lord hath rent the kingdom out of thine hand; Because thou obeyedst not the voice of the Lord;" &c. (1. Sam, xxviii, 15—19.) What was here denounced against Saul was real-prophetic, and was soon fulfilled. Now, though there are created spirits of penetration fully superior to that of the most enlarged human understanding; yet no finite intelligence could ever find out the precise time of the two armies engaging, the success of the Philistines, the consequences of the victory, and the very persons that were to fall in battle. Saul and his sons were indeed men of tried bravery, and therefore likely to expose themselves to the greatest danger; but for the menaces which he received from the apparition, he would have been impelled, one should think, either to make peace with the enemy, or to retire from the field without exposing himself, his family, and the whole army to certain destruction. The suddenness of Samuel's appearance, too, and the effect which it had upon the forcerels of the demon, proves that the apparition was that of no demon. The apparition was not what the king expected; for when the saw Samuel, he fled out for fear. And when the king exhorted him not to be afraid, and asked what he saw, the woman said, I see gods (*elohim*) ascending of the earth." Now, had what the saw been either confident, or subservient demon, it is inconceivable, that the could have been so frightful, or have mistaken her familiar for *ELOHIM*. We are therefore inclined to think that it was Saul himself who appeared and prophesied, not led up by the wretched woman or her demons, but to her confusion, and the disgrace of her art, by God to rebuke Saul's madness in a most striking way, and to deter all others from ever flying to magicians or demons for assistance. The sudden and wonderful destruction of the army of Brennus the Gaul, has likewise been attributed to magic, or to the interposition of evil spirits whom the priests of Apollo invoked as gods. The learned Bp. Warburton has accounted in a very satisfactory manner, (but too prolix to admit of our quoting his arguments) for this event, not only from the policy of the priests of Apollo at Delphi, and partly from natural causes. As for the pretended miracles of Apollonius Tyaneus and other ancient magicians, they are evidently impostures and legerdemain tricks. Still, however it may be said, that in magic and divination events have been produced out of the ordinance of nature; and as we cannot suppose the Supreme Being to have countenanced such unlawful practices by the interposition of his agency, we must necessarily attribute those effects to the agency of demons, or evil spirits. But we are well assured, that the devil has it not in his power to reverse in a single instance the laws of nature without a divine permission; and we can give but one occasion, (See DEMONIAC, § 4.) in which such permission could be given consistent with the wisdom and the goodness of God. All such, therefore, of diabolical agency in magic and witchcraft must undoubtedly be false; for a

**PL. XIII. PART II.**

power which the devil is not himself at liberty to exert, he cannot communicate to a human creature. This has been fully proved by the failure of Pharaoh's magicians; who, though by legerdemain they imitated some of the miracles of Moses, could not form the vilest insect, or stand before the disease he inflicted upon them as well as upon others. The revival of learning, and the success with which the laws of nature have been investigated, have long ago banished this species of magic from all the enlightened nations of Europe. Among ourselves, none but persons grossly illiterate pay the least regard to magical charms; nor are they any where abroad more prevalent than among the ignorant inhabitants of Lapland and Iceland. These people, indeed, place an absolute confidence in the effects of certain idle words and actions; and ignorant sailors from other parts of the world are deceived by their assertions and their ceremonies. The famous MAGICAL DRUM of the Laplanders is still in constant use in that nation. See that article: also ORACLE, WITCH-CRAFT, &c.

(5.) MAGIC LANTERN. See CHROMATICS, and DIOPTRICS, *Index*.

(6.) MAGIC PICTURE. See ELECTRICITY, *Ind.*

(7.) MAGIC SQUARE, a square figure, formed of a series of numbers in mathematical proportion; so disposed in parallel and equal ranks, as that the sums of each row, taken either perpendicularly, horizontally, or diagonally, are equal. Let the several numbers which compose any square number (for instance, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. to 25 inclusive; the square number) be disposed, in their natural order, after each other in a square figure of 25 cells, each in its cell; if now you change the order of these numbers, and dispose them in the cells in such manner, as that the 5 numbers which fill an horizontal rank of cells, being added together, shall make the same sum with the five numbers in any other rank of cells, whether horizontal or vertical, and even the same number with the five in each of the two diagonal ranks: this disposition of numbers is called a *magic square*, in opposition to the former disposition, which is called a *natural square*: Thus:

NATURAL SQUARE:	MAGIC SQUARE:
1 2 3 4 5	16 14 8 2 25
6 7 8 9 10	3 22 20 11 9
11 12 13 14 15	15 6 4 23 17
16 17 18 19 20	24 18 12 10 1
21 22 23 24 25	7 5 21 19 13

Emanuel Mosehopulus, a Greek author of no great antiquity, is the first that appears to have spoken of magic squares: and from the age where he lived, there is reason to imagine he did not look on them merely as a mathematician. However, he has left us some rules for their construction. But as magic squares have not hitherto been found of any use in mathematics, we shall refer to the works of Messrs Bachet, Frenicle, Poignard, and De La Hire, for the various methods of constructing these curious arrangements of numbers. The latest writer, who has written upon the subject, was the celebrated Dr FRANKLIN, who constructed what he called a Magic Square of Squares

2 2 2

kinds of persons and congregations; 1st, those who are admitted to make vows, and who bear the name of *St Magdalen*; 2d, the congregation of *St Marth*; compose 1 of those whom it is not judged proper to admit to vows; 3d, the congregation of *St Lazarus*, composed of such as are detained there by force. The religious of *St Magdalen* at Rome were established by Pope Leo X. Clement VIII. settled a revenue on them; and farther appointed, that the effects of all public prostitutes, dying intestate, should fall to them; and that the testaments of the rest should be invalid unless they bequeathed a portion of their effects, at least a fifth part, to them.

(1.) **MAGDALENA**, one of the **MARQUESAS ISLANDS**, about 7 leagues in circuit. Lon. 138. 50. W. Lat. 10. 25. S.

(2.) **MAGDALENA**, a town in the isle of Cuba.

**MAGDALENE'S CAVE**, a cave of Germany, in Carinthia, 10 miles E. of Goitz. It appears like a chain in a rock, and at the entrance torches are lighted to conduct travellers. It has several divisions, with a vast number of natural pillars, as white as snow, and almost transparent, which give it a beautiful appearance. The bottom is of the same substance, so that it has been likened to the ruins of an enchanted castle, surrounded with magnificent pillars, some entire and others broken.

**MAGDALENETTES**. See **MAGDALEN**, N<sup>o</sup> 6.

**MAGDALUM**. See **MAGDOLUM**.

(1.) **MAGDEBURG**, a duchy of Germany, in the circle of Lower Saxony; bounded on the N. by that of Mecklenburgh; S. and SW. by the principality of Anhalt and Halberstadt, E. by Upper Saxony and Brandenburg; and W. by the duchy of Wolfenbüttele. The Saale circle, and that of Luskewalde, are separated from the rest, and

es, amount to 314. The Jews have a synagogue at Halle. The manufactures are cloth, stockings, linen, oil-skins, leather, and paper, which, with grain of all sorts, large quantities are exported. The king of Prussia has a lease as duke of Magdeburg. His matricular is 43 horse and 196 foot, or 1300 florin. For the civil government there is a chancery, with a war and domestic chamber, the ecclesiastical, a consistory, and general intendant. The revenues arising from the city, some of which are very oppressive, 800,000 rixdollars annually. Every house is obliged to buy a certain quantity of fire for self and wife; and also for every child a horse, cow, calf, and sheep, that he may be able to support his family. The principal places are Magdeburg, Glauche.

(2.) **MAGDEBURG**, the capital of the duchy, as well as of Lower Saxony, and of all Germany. It is a city of great trade, well fortified, and very ancient. Its name is the *maiden city*; which, some imagine, arose from an ancient temple of Venus, here. The founder of the city is said to be Otho I. or his empress Editha, daughter of Canute I. of England. Otho also founded a convent, which he afterwards converted into an archbishopric, of which the city was a count palatine, and had great trade. The city is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Elbe; amidst fruitful plains, on the borders of High and Low Germany. It has suffered by fires and sieges; but by none so much as in 1631, when count Tilly took it, plundered and burnt it, except the cathedral convent. Of 40,000 burghers, not above 10,000 remained. The soldiers committed the

a; a fine marble statue of St. Maurice, a porphyry font, an altar in the choir of one stone of seven colours, curiously wrought, and many relics and other curiosities. The chapter consists of a provost, and twenty three canons. There are 4 other Lutheran collegiate foundations, and a Lutheran convent dedicated to the Virgin, in which is a school. Here is also a gymnasium, and an academy, in which young gentlemen are instructed in the art of war. The canons of the apter must make proof of their nobility. The benefices and dignities are all in the gift of the emperor; and the revenue of the provost is computed at 12,000 crowns a-year. Magdeburg has a great trade, and various manufactures of woollen cloth, fluffs, silks, cottons, linens, stockings, hats, shoes, tobacco, &c. It was formerly one of the most important towns. Editha, on whom it was conferred as a dowry, among many other privileges, procured it the grant of a yearly fair. Magdeburg is 40 miles W. of Brandenburg, and 125 N. of Hamburg. Lon. 11. 45. E. Lat. 52. 11. N.

(3.) MAGDEBURG HEMISPHERES. See COHE-  
 ON, § 5.

MAGDELLA, a town of Saxony, in Weimar.  
 (1.) MAGDOLUM, or MAGDALUM, in ancient  
 geography, a town of Lower Egypt, 12 miles S.  
 Pelusium; (*Herodotus, Antiquities*) reckoned the  
 idol or Magdol of Jeremiah.

(2.) MAGDOLUM, or MAGDOL, [*i. e.* a tower or  
 place of strength] was seated near the Red Sea,  
*(Mofes)* far S. of the above.

\* MAGI, *n. s.* (*magus*, Lat.) A magician. *Spens.*  
 MAGELHAENS, John Hyacinth DE, a learned  
 Portuguese ecclesiastic, who was a member of  
 several foreign academies, as well as F. R. S. Lond.  
 He came to London, and resided there many years,  
 his death in 1790. He published several useful  
 tracts on experimental philosophy.

(1.) MAGELLAN, Ferdinand, a celebrated Por-  
 tuguese navigator in the 16th century. He went  
 into the service of the emp. Charles V. and sailed  
 from Seville with 5 vessels in 1519, when he dis-  
 covered and passed through the strait to which he  
 gave his name, and sailed through the South Sea to  
 the Ladrone Islands, where, according to some,  
 he was poisoned in 1520; though others say that  
 he was killed in a mutiny of his people in the  
 island of Mutan, on account of his severity. His  
 voyage round the world was written by one of  
 his attendants, and has been often printed in English.

(2.) MAGELLAN, STRAITS OF, a narrow pas-  
 sage between Terra del Fuego and the S. extremity  
 of America, first discovered by MAGELLAN.  
 (See N° 1.) Other navigators have passed the Straits  
 of Magellan; but as these straits are exceedingly difficult,  
 and subject to storms, it has been common to sail  
 round Cape Horn, rather than through the Straits of  
 Magellan. See THE MAPS, and FUEGO, N° 2.

MAGELLANIA, or TERRA MAGELLANICA,  
 a tract of land in S. America, extending from  
 the prov. of Rio de la Plata to the utmost verge  
 of the S. Continent: viz. from Lat. 37 to 54° S.  
 It is bounded on the N. by Chili and Cuyo; E. by  
 the Northern Ocean; S. by the Straits of Magel-  
 lan; and W. by the South Sea and Chile. Magel-  
 lan discovered only Cape Virrin and Desire; but  
 the Missionaries have discovered several different

nations in this country; particularly the *Chunians*  
 and *Tuhians*. The former inhabit the country  
 and several islands N. of the latter; who dwell  
 near MAGELLAN'S STRAITS. The Chunians are  
 tyrannical over, hunted, and sold for slaves by the  
 Tuhians. The soil is barren; the climate cold  
 and inhospitable; the E. coasts are marshy.

MAGELLANIC CLOUDS, whitish appearances  
 like clouds, seen in the heavens towards the south  
 pole, and having the same apparent motion as the  
 stars. They are three in number, two of them  
 near each other. The largest lies far from the  
 south pole; but the other two are not many de-  
 grees more remote from it than the nearest con-  
 spicuous star, that is, about 11 degrees. Mr Boyle  
 supposes, that if these clouds were seen through  
 a good telescope, they would appear to be mul-  
 titudes of small stars, like the milky way.

MAGGEL, a river of the French republic, in  
 the dep. of the Dyle, and adjacent province of  
 Austrian Flanders, which runs into the Demer, 4  
 miles above Diet.

(1.) MAGGI, Bartholomew, brother to the ce-  
 lebrated Jerome Maggi, (see N° 2.) was a physi-  
 cian at Bologna, and wrote a treatise of gun-shot  
 wounds.

(2.) MAGGI, or MAGIUS, Jerome, one of the  
 most learned men of the 16th century, was born  
 at Anghiari in Tuscany. He applied himself to  
 all the sciences, and distinguished himself so  
 much in the art of war, that the Venetians sent  
 him into Cyprus in quality of judge of the admiral-  
 ty. When the Turks besieged Famagusta, he  
 performed all the services that could be expected  
 from the most excellent engineer: he invented  
 mines and machines for throwing fire, by means of  
 which he destroyed all the works of the besieger,  
 and in an instant overthrew what had cost the  
 Turks infinite labour. But they obtained revenge;  
 for, taking the city in 1571, they plundered his  
 library, carried him loaded with chains to Con-  
 stantinople, and treated him in the most barbarous  
 manner. He nevertheless comforted himself  
 from the example of Zeno, Menippus, Epictetus,  
 and other famous men; and, after passing the  
 whole day in the meanest drudgery, spent the  
 night in writing. He composed, from memory al-  
 one, treatises filled with quotations, which he  
 dedicated to the Imperial and French ambassadors.  
 These ministers, moved by compassion for this  
 learned man, resolved to purchase him; but while  
 they were treating for his ransom, Maggi made  
 his escape, and got to the Imperial ambassador's  
 house; when the Grand Vizir, enraged at his  
 flight, seized, and caused him to be strangled in  
 prison in 1572. His principal works are, 1. A  
 treatise on the bells of the ancients. 2. On the  
 destruction of the world by fire. 3. Commentaries  
 on Zeno's Probans's lives of illustrious men. 4.  
 Commentaries on the Institutes. 5. A Treatise on  
 the wooden horse. These works are written in  
 elegant Latin. He also wrote, 6. A Treatise on  
 Fortification in Italian; and, 7. A book on the  
 situation of ancient Tuscany.

(3.) MAGGI, Vincent, a native of Bresse, and a  
 celebrated professor of humanity at Ferrara in Pa-  
 gua, was the author of several works.

thing; something above the common rate. Not used.—Too greedy of *magnalities*, we make but favourable experiments concerning welcome truths. *Brown.*

(1.) \* **MAGNANIMITY.** *n. f.* [*magnimité*, Fr. *magnanimous*, Lat.] Greatness of mind; bravery; elevation of soul.—

With deadly hue, an armed corse did lye,  
In whose dead face he read great *magnanimity*.

*Spenser.*

—Let but the acts of the ancient Jews be but indifferently weighed, from whose *magnanimity*, in causes of most extreme hazard, those strange and unwonted resolutions have grown, which, for all circumstances, no people under the roof of heaven did ever hitherto match. *Hooker.*—

They had enough reveng'd, having reduc'd  
Their face to misery beneath their fears,  
The rest was *magnanimity* to remit,  
If some convenient ransom was propos'd.

*Milton.*

—Exploding many things under the name of trifles, is a very false proof either of wisdom or *magnanimity*. *Swift.*

(2.) **MAGNANIMITY** appears most conspicuous in circumstances of trial and adversity. Mr Stretch well observes of it, in his *Beauties of History*, that "it is the good sense of pride, and the noblest way of acquiring applause." It renders the soul superior to the trouble, disorder, and emotion which the appearance of great danger might excite; and it is by this quality, that heroes maintain their tranquillity, and preserve the free use of their reason in the most surprising and dreadful accidents. It admires the same quality in an enemy; and fame, glory, conquests, desire of opportunities to pardon and oblige their opposers, are what glow in the minds of the brave. *Magnanimity* and courage are inseparable. Instances need not be quoted. The histories of Greece, Rome, Great Britain, &c. abound with them.

\* **MAGNANIMOUS.** *adj.* [*magnanimus*, Lat.] Great of mind; elevated in sentiment; brave.—

To give a kingdom hath been thought  
Greater and nobler done, and to lay down  
Far more *magnanimous*, than to assume. *Milton.*  
In strength

All mortals I excell'd, and great in hopes,  
With youthful courage and *magnanimous*  
thoughts

Of birth from heaven foretold, and high exploits.

*Milton.*

—*Magnanimous* industry is a resolyed assiduity and care, answerable to any weighty work. *Grew.*

\* **MAGNANIMOUSLY.** *adv.* [from *magnanimous*.] Bravely; with greatness of mind.—A complete and generous education fits a man to perform justly, skilfully, and *magnanimously*, all the offices of peace and war. *Milton.*

**MAGNANO**, a town of Italy, in Placentia, 13 miles SSE. of Placentia.

**MAGNAVACCA**, [*i. e.* the Great Cow.] a fort of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Lower P., and district of Comacchio, (late Ferrarese) on a canal, 3 miles SE. of Comacchio.

**MAGNE**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Two Seves; 3 miles WNW. of Nicort.

**MAGNES.** See **MAGNET**, § 2.

**MAGNESA**, or } in ancient geography, a  
(1.) **MAGNESIA**, } town or district of Thessaly, at the foot of mount Pelius, called by Philip V. one of the three keys of Greece. *Pausanias.*

(2.) **MAONESIA**, in ancient geography, a maritime district of Thessaly, lying between the S. part of the Sinus Thermaicus and the Pegasus on the S. and to the E. of the Pelasgiotis. *Magnus* and *Magneffus*, the epithet. *Horace.*

(3.) **MAGNESIA**, a town of Asia Minor on the Mæander, about 15 miles from Ephesus. The mistocles died there: it was one of the three towns given him by Artaxerxes, "to furnish his table with bread." It is also celebrated for a battle which was fought there, 190 years before the Christian æra, between the Romans and Antiochus king of Syria. The forces of Antiochus amounted to 70,000 men according to Appian, or 70,000 foot and 12,000 horse according to Livy, which has been exaggerated by Florus to 300,000 men: the Roman army consisted of about 28 or 30,000 men, 2000 of which were employed in guarding the camp. The Syrians lost 50,000 foot and 4000 horse; and the Romans only 300 killed, with 600 horse. It was founded by a colony from Magnesia in Thessaly; and was commonly called

**MAGNESIA AD MÆANDRUM**, to distinguish from

(4.) **MAGNESIA AD SIPYLUM**, a town of Tantalus, the residence of Tantalus, and capital of Mæonia, where now stands the lake Sale; seat at the foot of mount Sipylus, E. of the Hellespont. It was adjudged free under the Romans, but was destroyed by an earthquake in the reign of Tiberius.

(5.) **MAGNESIA**, or } in mineralogy, and chem.

**MAGNESIA ALBA**, } mistry, a kind of earth only discovered since the beginning of the 18th century. It was first known at Rome by the name of the *Count de Palma's powder*, which was there offered as a general remedy for all disorders. It was by many considered as a calcareous earth, but F. Hoffman showed it to be essentially distinct. The same was afterwards done by Black of Edinburgh and M. Magraaf of Bonn, though unknown to each other at the time. It is one of the most infusible substances in nature, neither melting, nor even hardening nor contracting, in the focus of the most powerful burning glass. (See **CHEMISTRY**, *Index*.) An experiment was made on it, in summer 1782, by M. Magellan with Mr Parker's burning-glass; when a cube of magnesia, a quarter of an inch each side, being put into its focus, was hardened, and reduced to less than  $\frac{1}{3}$  of its bulk each way, in from .25 of an inch to .08. But on applying a similar cube of magnesia, from Mr Henry's manufacture at Manchester, it neither became harder nor sensibly diminished in size. Bergman informs that magnesia, unless precipitated by the volatile alkali, or by the neat alkali tartar, always contains some siliceous or calcareous earth. Almost the same thing happens when it is separated by calcination from the remaining fixations of the nitrous and marine acids; in which case, it such a violent fire, it adheres together, and even shows a tendency to vitrify. Notwithstanding this extreme refractoriness of magnesia by fire.



it melts easily with borax, though scarce  
ed by alkalis or the calces of lead; when  
d with other earths it produces hard mass  
rious kinds; when mixed with calcareous, ar  
eous, or siliceous earths, it melts in the fire;  
f four times its weight of green glass be ad  
o it, the mass forms a kind of porcelain so  
as to strike fire with steel. But neither an  
part of the above earths, nor of ponder  
arth, glass of lead, vegetable alkali, nor vi  
ted tartar, added separately to magnesia,  
nelt in the fire: however, when mixed with  
non argillaceous earth, it melts into a hard

Magnesia differs from calcareous earth in  
g a much smaller attraction for fixed air. In  
spect it is inferior even to fixed alkaline  
so that it will not render any of these caus  
ough it will do so to the volatile alkali. It  
arts very readily with its own fixed air by  
heat; and it was by making experiments on  
stance that Dr Black made his first disco  
concerning FIXED AIR. In its calcined  
however, it does not show any of the caus  
of lime, but may be safely taken internally;  
even preferred by some to that which con  
fixed air. In this state it is much less fo  
than when combined with fixed air, and  
not effervesce with any acid. When mixed  
water, a very small degree of heat is excited,  
about 7962 times its weight of water it to  
lissolves. It also dissolves very readily in ac  
id, by which means it is frequently united  
resh water. For the same reason when we  
solution of perfectly mild alkali, either  
or volatile, with a solution of magnesia, no  
ntation follows; because the great quantity  
d air, extricated by the union of the acid  
alkali, instantly dissolves the precipitate as  
it is formed. But if we put this mixture o  
e fire, it will grow thick, and coagulate as  
s it is heated to a certain degree; because the  
fia is unable to retain, in any considerable  
as much fixed air as is necessary for its solutio  
etting magnesia into water, and afterwards  
it, it is found to retain eighteen hundredth  
of its weight of aqueous fluid; but when  
aturated with aerial acid, it will absorb and  
sixty-six hundredth parts of the same. When  
aturated with aerial acid, it is more soluble  
ld than in hot water; because the heat of  
utter dissipates part of the fixed air. Mag  
when combined with different acids, forms  
is salts. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. It is usually  
red either from the bittern of sea-salt, or  
the salt prepared from that liquid under the  
of *Epsom salt*. The magnesia prepared di  
from the bittern, however, is not so pure  
at produced from the finer kinds of Epsom  
Hence, to have pure magnesia, Bergman  
the following directions: "Let Epsom salt,  
ell-formed crystals, be dissolved in distilled  
; and from this the magnesia is to be pre  
ced by mild volatile alkali. Some of this  
that remains suspended in the solution, by  
s of aerial acid, may be easily precipitated  
simple ebullition. Of this magnesia, 100lb.  
rightly prepared, contains near 25 parts of  
air, 30 of water, and 45 of pure earth. Its

specific gravity is then 2.155. This method of  
preparation may answer very well for having a  
very pure magnesia; but when it is required to  
have it very light and spongy, which by those who  
use it, is looked upon to be the only criterion of  
its goodness, we must use the following method:  
Take any quantity of Epsom salt, dissolve it in  
boiling water, and filter the solution. Dissolve  
also half the quantity of good pearl-ash, and fil  
ter this solution. Both these solutions ought to  
be somewhat diluted; and it will be proper to  
use twice the quantity of water which would  
fairly dissolve the salts. Mix the two solutions  
when nearly cold, and stir them very well toge  
ther. Let the mixture stand for some hours, un  
til the precipitate has fallen to the bottom in form  
of a coarse gritty powder. Put the whole then  
into a clean copper kettle, under which a mode  
rate fire is made: Stir it incessantly with a large  
wooden spatula, to prevent the powder from  
sticking to the bottom. As the mixture heats,  
the powder loses its sandy appearance, and in  
creases greatly in quantity; so that, though at  
first the mixture was quite thin, with only a small  
portion of sandy matter amongst it, before it has  
attained the boiling heat it will be so thick that  
it can scarce be stirred. When the grittiness is  
quite gone, the matter must be put upon a fil  
tering cloth, and warm water poured upon it till  
it runs inspid. The magnesia is then to be put  
upon chalk stones, which will absorb the greatest  
part of the moisture; and it may at last be fully  
dried in a stove. Magnesia alba is a good absor  
bent; and undoubtedly to be preferred to crab's  
eyes, on account of its purgative quality when  
united with an acid, which the other has not. It  
has been esteemed hurtful in bilious habits where  
there is a disposition in the stomach contrary to  
acidity. This, however, according to Mr Henry  
is doubtful: and where putrid bile is to be cor  
rected, he thinks good purposes may be answered  
by taking magnesia with an acid in a state of  
effervescence; as the fixed air, thus extricated,  
will correct the putridity of the contents of the  
intestines, while they are at the same time evac  
uated downwards. He is also of opinion, that in  
cutaneous diseases it may enter the circulation in  
form of a neutral salt, and, by acting as a dia  
phoretic and diuretic, prove an excellent altera  
tive. For some medical purposes, magnesia is  
used in a calcined state; in which case it is depr  
ived of its fixed air, and then it proves nearly as  
aperient as a double quantity of magnesia in its  
uncalcined state. Mr Henry is of opinion, that  
it may be useful in distensions of the bowels ar  
ising from flatus; that it may be successfully em  
ployed as a cathartic with patients labouring un  
der the stone, who are using the lixivium saponac  
eum; and that, joined with warm aromatics, it  
may be of service in correcting the great flatulency,  
which so much afflicts people of a gouty dispo  
sition. From several experiments made by the  
same author, it also appears that magnesia has a  
considerable antiseptic power. The like virtue he  
ascribes to all kinds of testaceous powders: whence  
he concludes, that medicines of this kind are by  
no means improper in fevers of a putrescent type;  
that where bile is suspected to be the cause of a

any putrid disease, those antiseptics should be prescribed which particularly impede its corruption; that, as calcined magnesia is a more powerful antiseptic than most other absorbents, it merits a preference to these; and that where an acid cacochymy prevails, magnesia or other absorbents, taken immediately before or after meal-time, may, by increasing the putrefactive fermentation of animal food, be of very great service. He hath also found, that magnesia hath a power of promoting the solution of resinous gums in water; and thus we have an elegant and easy method of preparing aqueous tinctures from these substances. Such tinctures, however, are calculated only for extemporaneous prescription, as most of them deposit a sediment when they have been kept a week or two.

(5.) **MAGNESIA BLACK.** See **MANGANESE.**

(1.) \* **MAGNET.** *n. f.* [*magnes*, Lat.] The loadstone; the stone that attracts iron.—

Two *magnets*, heav'n and earth, allure to bliss,

The larger loadstone that, the nearer this. *Dryd.*—It may be reasonable to ask, Whether obeying the *magnet* be essential to iron? *Locke.*

(2.) *The* **MAGNET**, or **LOADSTONE**, is a sort of ferruginous stone, in weight and colour resembling iron ore, though somewhat harder and more heavy; endowed with various extraordinary properties, attractive, directive, inclinatory, &c. See **IRON**, § 9; and **MAGNETISM**. It is also called *Lapis Heracleus*, from Heraclea, a city of Magnesia, a district of ancient Lydia, where it is said to have been first found, and from which it is usually supposed to have taken its name. Others derive the word from a shepherd named **MAGNETIS**, who first discovered it with the iron of his crook on mount Ida. It is also called *Lapis Nauticus*, from its use in navigation; and *Siderites*, from its attracting iron, which the Greeks call *σίδηρος*. The magnet is usually found in iron mines, and sometimes in very large pieces half magnet half iron. Its colour is different according to the different countries it is brought from. Norman observes, that the best are those brought from China and Bengal, which are of an iron or sanguine colour; those of Arabia are reddish; those of Macedonia, blackish; and those of Hungary, Germany, England, &c. the colour of unwrought iron. Neither its figure nor bulk is determinate; it is found of all forms and sizes. The ancients reckoned five kinds of mag-

nets, different in colour and virtue; the **E Magnesian**, **Bæotic**, **Alexandrian**, and **Thessaly**. They also took it to be male and female: chief use they made of it was in medicine, especially for the cure of burns and defluxion eyes.—The moderns, more happy, employ conduct them in their voyages. See **NAVIGATION**. The most distinguishing properties of the are, That it attracts iron, and that it dips the poles of the world; and in other circles also dips or inclines to a point below the horizon, directly under the pole; and communicates these properties, by its attraction, to iron; on which foundation are built the maker's needles, both horizontal and inclinatory.

**MAGNETES**, the ancient inhabitants of Magnesia in Thessaly. See **MAGNESIA**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

\* **MAGNETICAL.** } *adj.* [from *magnet*]  
(1.) \* **MAGNETICK.** } Relating to the magnet.—

Review this whole *magnetick* scheme.—Water is 19 times lighter, and by consequence 19 times rarer, than gold; and gold is attracted very readily, and without the least opposition, transmits the *magnetick* effluvia, and admits quicksilver into its pores, and to pass through it. *Newton.* 2. Having power correspondent to those of the magnet.—The magnet acts upon iron through all dense bodies, whether cold, or red hot, without any diminution of its virtue; as through gold, silver, lead, &c. *Newton.* 3. Attractive; having the power to draw things distant.—The moon is attracted by heat, as the sun is of cold and moisture.

She, that had all *magnetick* force all round,  
To draw and fasten hundred parts in

They, as they move towards his all-attracting  
Lamp,

Turn swart their various motions, and  
By his *magnetick* beam.

4. *Magnetick* is once used by *Milton* for

As the *magnetick* hardest iron draws  
(2.) **MAGNETICK ISLAND**; an island of the South Sea, on the NE. coast of New Holland, discovered by Capt. Cook in 1770.

(3.) **MAGNETIC NEEDLE.** See **NEEDLE**.

(4.) **MAGNETIC ROCK.** See **LOCHMITE**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

To **MAGNETISE**, *v. a.* To communicate magnetic virtue.

## M A G N E T I S M.

### DEFINITIONS.

**MAGNETISM** is thus defined by Dr Johnson:

\* **MAGNETISM.** *n. f.* [from *magnet*.] 1. Power of the loadstone.—Many other *magnetisms*, and the like attractions through all the creatures of nature. *Brown.* 2. Power of attraction.—By the *magnetism* of interest our affections are irresistibly attracted. *Glanville.*

**MAGNETISM** is more accurately defined by o-

thers, that power by which the loadstone is attracted, manifesting itself by certain attractive and directive virtues; and which may be understood from the following phenomena afterwards mentioned, which are common to all magnets.

### HISTORY of MAGNETISM.

THE ATTRACTIVE POWER of the magnet was known to the ancients; and is mentioned by **PLATO** and **EURIPIDES**, who call it *μαγνητις*.

one, because it commands iron which every thing else. But the knowledge of its power, whereby it disposes its poles on the meridian of every place, and occasions pieces of iron, &c. touched with it, to fly north and south, is of a much later date than the exact time of its discovery, and the manner in which it first appeared, are not ascertained. The first account recorded of these is in 1260, when Marco Polo the Venetian is said to have introduced the compass; though not as an invention of his own, but as derived from the Chinese, who are said to have had the use of it long before. Some imagine that the Chinese derived it from the Europeans.

BEMBO, or GIOIA, a Neapolitan, who lived in the 13th century, is usually supposed to be the first to give a title to the discovery: though SIR THOMAS BREWSTER mentions, that he had seen a book written by much older, which supposed the use of the magnet, though not as applied to the uses of navigation, but of astronomy. And GUYOT, an ancient French poet, who wrote in the 12th century, makes express mention of the loadstone compass; and obliquely hints at the nature of navigation.

THE DECLINATION of the MAGNET, or its declivity from the true north pole, was first discovered by Sebastian Münster, a Dutch merchant, in 1500; and the variation of the compass, by Mr Gellibrand, an Englishman, in the year 1625. See VARIATION. See also MAGNETISM, § 7.

THE DIP or INCLINATION of the NEEDLE, or its inclination at liberty to play vertically, to a point in the horizon, was first discovered by some of our countrymen, Mr R. Norman, about the year 1670. See the article DIPPING NEEDLE, § 11.

P A R T I.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND LAWS OF MAGNETISM.

Of the PHENOMENA of the MAGNET.

Whether natural or artificial, all substances which contain iron are attracted to the magnet. The semimetallic called NICKEL, and some others are attracted by the magnet, as freely from iron as much as possible. A needle may be suspended by a thread, nicely adjusted, so that it may revolve, and constantly the same end of the needle turns towards the north pole of the earth, the other end turning towards the south. The two extremities or parts of the magnet have been called the north and south poles, and the lines which pass through the designations of north and south are called the magnetic meridian.

This property is called the *polarity* of the magnet; and when it is in the act of turning to this position, it is said to *traverse* the plane perpendicular to the horizon which passes through the poles of a magnet, after it has turned round the *magnetic meridian*; and the angle which it makes with the meridian of the place is called the *declination* of the magnet or of the needle.

When either the north or the south poles of two magnets are placed near to each other, they

repel; but a north and a south pole attract each other.

4. A magnet placed in such a manner as to be entirely at liberty, inclines one of its poles to the horizon, and of course elevates the other above it. This property is called the *inclination* or *dipping* of the magnet; and is most conspicuous in artificial magnets or needles, which may be accurately balanced before the magnetic virtue is imparted to them.

5. By proper management any magnet may be made to communicate its virtue to a piece of steel or iron, which virtue it will retain for a longer or shorter time according to circumstances.

SECT. II. Of the DIFFERENT SUBSTANCES ATTRACTED by the MAGNET.

IRON is the only substance which the magnet particularly attracts, and that too when in its metallic state. Nevertheless this metal is so universally diffused, that there are few substances which do not contain a sufficient quantity of it to be in some degree affected by the magnet. Iron itself is attracted with different degrees of force according to the state in which it is with regard to malleability. Even the purest calx or solution, that can be made, is said to be in some degree affected by the magnet; but of all substances soft iron is attracted with the greatest force when clean, and of an uniform texture. Hardened steel is attracted with much less force than iron; but the scales separated from red-hot iron, and the fused globules from flint and steel, or finery cinder, are attracted as much as iron itself. The black calx of iron is attracted but very weakly; and the red calx or rust so little, that it is generally said to be quite insensible to the magnetic attraction; though this is not found to be strictly true, even when the calx is prepared by fire, and purified in the most careful manner. Sometimes the scales and calx are capable of acquiring a polarity, though weakly. Ores of iron are attracted with greater or less force according to the state of the metal in them, and according to the quantity of it they contain; though the attraction is always manifest, even when they contain such a small quantity as scarcely to deserve the name of ores. They are generally much more attracted after calcination than before. Ores of lead, tin, and copper, are likewise attracted, as well as native cinnabar, on account of the quantity of iron they contain; and though pure lead in its metallic state is not the least attracted, its calx is so in some degree. The calx of tin is also attracted, though in a still smaller degree than that of lead. Zinc, bismuth, and cobalt, but especially the ores of these semimetals, are attracted; but not antimony, unless it be first exposed to a gentle heat; and arsenic is not attracted at all. Platina is slightly attracted, (See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.) but one kind of bismuth is said to be absolutely repelled by the magnet. Almost all other minerals are attracted, at least after having been exposed to the action of fire. Calcareous earth is attracted less than any other kind, and the siliceous earth the most frequently. Sand, especially the black kind, is generally attracted; and amber as well as other combustible substances, have the same property, after being burned. Al-

most every part of animal and vegetable bodies is affected by the magnet after being burned; but unburned animal or vegetable substances are very seldom if ever perceptibly attracted. It is also remarkable, that even soot, or the dust which falls upon any thing left exposed to the atmosphere, are sensibly attracted. Colourless precious stones, as the diamond, and crystals, are not attracted; neither the amethyst, topaz, chalcidony, nor such as are deprived of their colour by fire; but all others, as the ruby, chrysolite, and tourmalin, are attracted. The emerald, and particularly the garnet, are not only attracted, but often acquire an evident polarity. The opal is attracted but weakly.

The attraction of so many different substances shows the universal diffusion of iron throughout almost all terrestrial substances; for to this only we can ascribe the attraction by the magnet. How small a quantity of iron indeed will give a substance this property, is evident from the following experiment related by Mr CAVALLO: "Having chosen a piece of Turkey stone which weighed above an ounce, I examined it by a very sensible magnetic needle, but did not find that it was affected in the least. A piece of steel was then weighed with a pair of scales, which would turn with the 20th part of a grain, and one end of it drawn over the stone in various directions. After this operation the steel was again weighed, and found to have lost no perceptible part of its weight; yet the Turkey stone, which had acquired only this very small quantity of steel, now affected the magnetic needle very sensibly." In his observations on this experiment, he proposes the magnet as a test of iron in different substances, being capable of detecting a smaller quantity than any method that chemistry can yet afford.

Mr CAVALLO has made many experiments to investigate the magnetic properties of brass and other metals; of which the following are the chief results: 1. Hammered brass is much more generally attracted by the magnet than other kinds. 2. A piece of brass rendered magnetic by hammering, loses the property on being made red hot so as to become softened; by a second hammering it becomes again magnetic; and thus it loses its property and recovers it alternately. 3. Suspecting that the magnetic property might be occasioned by a small quantity of iron abraded from the hammer, the pieces of brass were beat between two pieces of card paper; notwithstanding which precaution, it acquired the magnetic property as before. 4. Sometimes an evident degree of magnetism was communicated by 2 or 3 strokes, and with the card paper not above 30 strokes were given to make the brass sensibly magnetic. 5. A piece of brass was hardened by heating it between two large flints, using one for the hammer and the other for the anvil; but still it acquired a magnetic property, though less than with the iron hammer. 6. By melting the brass in a crucible, it entirely lost its magnetism. 7. A piece of brass deprived of its magnetic property by fire, regained it after a few strokes of the hammer, though laid between two pieces of copper. 8. Most of the pieces of brass tried by our author became magnetic by hammering; but some, though rendered equally hard with the rest, did not affect

the needle in the least. 9. On mixing quantity of iron with 4 times its weight which could not be made magnetic by hammering, the whole was rendered powerful magnetic; but on again mixing this compound 50 times its weight of the same brass, the attraction became so weak as to be scarcely perceptible; and was neither augmented by heat nor diminished by softening.

From these and other experiments Mr draws the following conclusions: 1. Metal becomes magnetic by hammering, and it loses its property by annealing or softening in the furnace; at least its magnetism is so far weakened that it afterwards to be only discovered when floated upon quicksilver. 2. The acquired magnetism is owing to particles of iron naturally or artificially mixed with the brass. 3. The pieces of brass which have that property retain it with diminution after a great number of repetitions, but he found no method of giving magnetism to brass which had it not naturally. 4. A large piece of brass has generally a stronger magnetism than a small one; and the flat surface of a needle more powerfully than the edge of one. 5. If only one end of a piece of brass be heated, then that end alone will disturb the needle. 6. The magnetic power which acquires by hammering has a certain limit which it cannot be increased by farther hammering. This limit is different in different pieces of brass, according to their thickness or quality. In the course of his experiments, the following circumstance was twice observed: A piece of brass which had the property of becoming magnetic by hammering, and of losing that property by annealing, lost its magnetic power entirely when left in the fire till partially melted, but regained it again on being fully so. 8. A long coil of brass, which alters the texture of the metal, making it what some workmen call "spring brass," generally destroys the magnetic property; whence this property seems to be owing to a particular configuration of its parts. 9. Brass is used in magnetical instruments, either to be left entirely soft, or chosen of such a hardness as will not become magnetic by hammering. 10. There are few substances in nature when floated upon quicksilver, are not attracted in some degree by the magnet.

The result of Mr Cavallo's experiments on metals was, that though pieces of hammer would sometimes attract the needle, yet attraction was always exceedingly weak, and had no effect, either in its natural state, or hammered as much as it could bear without being, or mixed with other metals. He discovered no magnetic property in nickel; and in the magnetic properties of platina he found it very similar to those of brass.

### SECT. III. *Of the Attraction of the Magnet towards IRON in its VARIOUS STATES OF EXISTENCE.*

1. EXPERIMENTS have been made by KIRCHER and CAVALLO, to determine whether mere heat makes any change in the magnetic properties of iron, without destroying its

minishing the power of the magnet to which it is applied: But their results were quite opposite, the one of the former being in the affirmative, and the other of the latter in the negative, though by heating iron to a red, or even to a white heat, the attraction of the magnet for it is not absolutely annihilated; but it is so far diminished, that it does not affect the magnetic needle.

It was next tried what would be the effect of decomposing iron; and with this view an iron vessel, containing about 2 ounces of iron filings, was placed near the south end of the needle of the compass, by which the latter was turned a little out of its direction. On adding distilled water, and then vitriolic acid, the attraction of the needle was to be increased, and the needle came nearer the filings. This superior attraction continued till the effervescence began to cease; and at last it was found to be inferior to what it had been originally. To obviate some objections which might arise from the motion of the iron filings, the experiment was repeated with steel wire twisted in various directions, so as to present a large surface to the acid; and being placed at a proper distance from the needle, it attracted it out of its direction at  $281^{\circ}$  to  $280^{\circ}$ . After adding the diluted vitriolic acid, a strong effervescence ensued, and the needle was moved to  $279^{\circ} 47'$ ; five minutes after it stood at  $279^{\circ} 35'$ ; and in five minutes more it was at  $279^{\circ} 30'$ ; seeming even to come somewhat nearer in a little time after: but as it then appeared to have gained its maximum of attraction, the acid was removed, and the needle went back to its original station of  $281^{\circ}$ .

In repeating this experiment with different acids, it was found that the vitriolic increased the attraction more than either the nitrous or marine.

The former of these the maximum of attraction was sooner gained and sooner lost than with the other two; and with marine acid the attraction was the least of all; which, however, our author imputes to his not being able to raise a sufficient effervescence with this acid.

The degree of magnetic attraction depends on the strength of the magnet, the weight and quantity of the iron presented to it, the magnetic or ferrous state of the body, and the distance between them. A piece of clean and soft iron is attracted more powerfully, than any other ferruginous substance of the same size and shape. The attraction is strongest at the poles, diminishing according to the distance from them, and entirely ceasing at the equator or middle point betwixt the poles.

It is strongest near the surface of the magnet, diminishing as we recede from it; but the distance in which this diminution takes place has not been exactly determined. M. MÜSCHENBERG made the following experiments to determine this point:

A cylindrical magnet, two inches long, and weighing 16 drams, was suspended by an accurate scale above a cylinder of iron exactly of the same shape and dimensions, and the degree of attraction betwixt the two measured by weights put on the opposite scale; the magnet being successively placed at different distances from the iron. The results were, that at 6 inches distant, it attracted 3 grains; at 3 inches, 6 gr. at 1 inch, 18 gr.; and at no distance, or in close contact, 57 gr.

II. A spherical magnet of the same diameter with the cylindrical one, but of greater strength, was affixed to one of the scales of the balance, and the cylindrical magnet used in the former experiment placed upon the table with its south pole upwards, facing the north pole of the spherical magnet; when the attractions were at 6 inches distance, 21 gr. at 3 inches, 44; at 1, 100; and at 0, 260 grains.

III. Changing the cylindrical magnet for the iron cylinder abovementioned, the attractions were, at 6 inches distant, 7 gr. at 3 inches, 25; at 1, 92; and at 0, 340 grains.

IV. Using a globe of iron of the same diameter with the magnet instead of the cylinder, the attractions were, at 8 inches distant, 1 grain; at 6,  $3\frac{1}{2}$ ; at 3, 16; at 1 inch, 64; and at 0, 290 grains.

In the experiments with the cylinder, the magnet attracted a shorter cylinder with less force, but in the same proportion.—From the others, it appears, that one magnet attracts another with less force than a piece of iron, but that the attraction begins from a greater distance; whence it must follow a different law of decrease.

4. The attraction between the magnet and a piece of iron is subject to variation from the mere shape of the latter, there being a limit in the weight and shape of the iron, in which it will attract it more forcibly than any other; but this can only be determined by actual experiment.

5. Although magnetic attraction generally takes place only between the opposite poles of two magnets, yet it often happens, that though the north pole of one magnet be presented to the north pole of another, that they show neither attraction nor repulsion; but that when placed very near each other, they will attract. This is explained by M. Cavallo in the following manner: "When a piece of iron, or any other substance that contains iron, is brought within a certain distance of a magnet, it becomes itself a magnet, having the poles, the attractive power, and, in short, every property of a real magnet. That part of it which is nearest to the magnet acquires a contrary polarity; but it often happens that one of the magnets, being more powerful than the other, will change the pole of that other magnet in the same manner as it gives magnetism to any other piece of iron which is exposed to its influence; and then an attraction will take place between two poles apparently of the same names; though, in fact, it is an attraction between poles of different names; because one of them has actually been changed. Thus, suppose that a powerful magnet has been placed with its north pole very near the north pole of a weak magnet, it will be found, that, instead of repelling, they will attract each other, because that part of the weak magnet which before was a north pole, has been changed into a south pole by the action of the strong magnet."

6. Neither the attraction nor the repulsion of magnetism is sensibly affected by the interposition of bodies of any sort, excepting iron or ferruginous substances. Thus suppose, that, when a magnet is placed an inch distant from a piece of iron, an ounce, or any determinate weight, is required

quired to move it; the same will be required, though a plate of metal, glass, or any other substance excepting iron be interposed. Neither the absence nor presence of air has any effect upon it.

7. By heat, the power of a magnet is weakened; and when it arrives at that degree called a *white heat*, it is entirely destroyed. On the other hand, the attraction is increased considerably by adding more and more weight to the magnet; for thus it will be found that the magnet will keep suspended this day a little more weight than it did the day before; which additional weight being added to it on the following day, or some day after, it will be able to suspend a weight still greater, and so on as far as a certain limit. On the other hand, by an improper situation, or by diminishing the quantity of iron appended to it, the power will decrease very considerably.

8. The magnetic attraction is communicable to any given piece of steel only in a certain degree; and therefore if a magnet is strong enough to give the maximum of attraction to the piece, it cannot be afterwards rendered more powerful by applying another magnet, however strong. Thus, indeed, the steel may be made stronger for a few minutes; but this overplus of attraction begins to go off as soon as the strong magnet is withdrawn; and the power, continuing gradually to diminish, settles in a short time at that degree which is its limit ever after.

9. If a piece of iron be held to one of the poles of a magnet, the attractive power of the other pole will thus be augmented: Hence we may understand why a magnet will lift a greater weight from a piece of iron than from wood or any other substance, viz. that the iron appended to the magnet becomes itself a magnet while it remains in that situation; and thus, having two poles, the iron which is placed near the one increases the attractive power of the other which adheres to the magnet, and enables it to sustain a greater weight than it would otherwise do.

10. Soft iron acquires the magnetic power by being appended to a magnet; but it lasts only while the iron remains in that situation, vanishing as soon as the magnet and iron are separated from each other. With hard iron, but especially steel, the case is quite different; and the harder the iron or steel is, the more permanent is the magnetism which it acquires; though in proportion to this same hardness it is difficult to impregnate it with the virtue.

11. The smallest natural magnets generally possess the greatest proportion of attractive power; so that there have frequently been seen magnets not weighing more than 20 or 30 grains, which would take up 40 or 50 times their own weight; but the greatest proportion of attractive power, perhaps ever known, belonged to the magnet worn by SIR ISAAC NEWTON in his ring. It weighed only three grains, yet was able to take up 746 grains, or nearly 250 times its own weight; and MR CAVALLO has seen one which could not weigh more than 6 or 7 grains, and yet was capable of lifting 300. A semicircular steel magnet made by MR CANTON, weighing one ounce and 13 penny-weights, took up 90 ounces; but magnets of above two pounds seldom lift more

than 5 or 6 times their own weight, seldom so much. It frequently happens a piece cut off from a large natural magnet will lift more than the stone itself did which is to be attributed to the heterogeneous nature of the stone itself; for if part of it were pure, it is plain that this must obstruct the virtue of the remainder, which consequently act more powerfully when the obstructing part is removed.

12. As the two magnetic poles taken together are capable of lifting a much greater weight than a single one, and as they are generally situated in opposite parts of its surface, it is customary to adapt two broad pieces of iron to them, letting the pieces project on one side of the magnet; because, in that case, the pieces themselves being rendered magnetic, and the iron could be conveniently adapted to the projections so as to let both poles act together. These pieces of iron are generally held to the magnet by means of a brass or silver wire, in which case the magnet is said to be *armed*; the pieces of iron are called its *arms*. For the same purpose, and to avoid the artificial magnets have been commonly made in the shape of a horse-shoe having their pole extremities. This is by far the best shape for magnets; and the horse-shoe ones are much more powerful than straight magnetic

#### SECT. IV. Of the POLARITY of the

ALTHOUGH, properly speaking, a magnet can have more than two poles, yet it frequently has both the natural and artificial kind as if it were into several magnets; each of which likewise a north and south pole, appears to have a number of poles, in denomination and some of the other qualities of poles arises sometimes from the heterogeneous nature of the magnet itself; and with respect to which have more than two poles, the following laws have been observed: 1. That the poles adjacent to one pole are endowed with contrary polarity. 2. That the poles of one magnet are not always equal in number, but may never differ by more than one; thus a magnet has 4 south poles, it will either have 5 north poles. Good and properly adapted magnets, however, have only two poles opposite to one another; though in some ways one half, or at least a great part of it, that possess one kind of polarity having the contrary kind; the two poles we call the *poles*, being only those where the attractive virtue is strongest. Those two good magnets, are joined by a line passing through the centre, which line is called the *axis* of the magnet; and a circle, whose plane is parallel to the axis encompassing the magnet, is called its *equator*; and to express the supposed similarity between the terrestrial and magnetical bodies, the latter have been formed of a spherical shape, with the poles and equator marked upon their surface in case they have got the name of *terrestrial*

On breaking a magnet into two or three  
 h one becomes a perfect magnet, though  
 ne not always an equal number of poles  
 me denomination. The poles of the  
 pieces generally answer to those of the  
 gnet which were nearest them, though  
 not always hold good.

net with two poles will very readily  
 f in the magnetic meridian, if suspend-  
 ne thread, or otherwise left at liberty  
 out when there are more than two poles,  
 ppen that their opposite tendencies will  
 t each other in such a manner that the  
 annot traverse; though it will still at-  
 repel as if it had only two. Thus, sup-  
 an oblong magnet has a N. polarity at  
 and a S. polarity in the middle; if the  
 ire both equally strong, then it is plain,  
 er of them can point towards that quar-  
 erence to the other; but if a magnet  
 ind be broken in the middle, the two  
 traverse very readily. It seldom hap-  
 ever, that both poles are equally strong;  
 case one of them will always get the bet-  
 e other, and the magnet will traverse  
 nding its having more than two poles.  
 rity of the magnet is its most valuable  
 as upon it depends the construction of  
 etic needle, or mariner's compass, so use-  
 vigation; for an account of which, see  
 , N° V, § 1—5; and NEEDLE.

variation of the needle, or its declina-  
 the true N. and S. direction, see VA-  
 For an account of the inclination or  
 of the magnetic needle, see DIPPING  
 § II, 1—6.

rective, or polar power of a magnet, ex-  
 her than its attractive power: thus if a  
 reely suspended, be placed in the neigh-  
 of another, it will be found that they  
 each other's direction when their attrac-  
 rds iron or towards each other cannot  
 ed. This may be easily tried by placing  
 em in a scale of a balance and the other  
 see below it.

P A R T. II.

THEORIES OF MAGNETISM.

phenomena of magnetism, like those of  
 r, depend on a cause so little subject to  
 gitation of our senses, that any regular  
 supported theory can as yet scarcely be

The subject indeed is still more diffi-  
 that of electricity; for in the latter the  
 ten made visible and otherwise percep-  
 our senses; but no experiment could ever  
 e cause of magnetism perceptible other-  
 1 by its effects. The idea of its being  
 d by a fluid entering in at one pole and  
 at at another, took its rise, and became  
 neral, from the following experiment:  
 ut a small artificial magnet among some  
 gs laid upon a piece of paper, give the  
 w gentle knocks with your hand, so as  
 the filings a little, and they will dispose  
 lves as represented in *fig. 1. Plate CCVI.*

B and C D represent the two poles of

the magnet, and the dotted lines the disposition  
 of the filings. Mr Cavallo observes, that  
 this experiment cannot be any proof of the fluid's  
 circulation; "Because if the fluid, of whatever  
 nature it may be, did really circulate from one  
 pole to the other, and had any action on the  
 filings, these would be all driven towards that  
 pole to which the fluid directed its course. The  
 true cause of the disposition of the filings is their  
 becoming actually magnetic, and their two ex-  
 tremities being possessed of contrary polarities.  
 Now, when there are many particles of iron near  
 the magnet, those which touch its surface are  
 rendered magnetic; consequently they attract other  
 particles, and these being also rendered magnetic,  
 attract others, and so on, forming strings of small  
 magnets, which gradually increase in power as  
 they recede from the magnetic poles, by a little  
 consideration it will appear, that the farthest ends  
 of these strings or lines which proceed from the  
 parts adjacent to one of the poles of the magnet,  
 for instance the N. are likewise possessed of the  
 N. polarity; and the farthest extremities of those  
 which proceed from the parts adjacent to the S.  
 pole of the magnet, are possessed of the S. polar-  
 ity: hence, when they come sufficiently near,  
 they attract the extremities of the former strings,  
 and consequently form the curves delineated on  
 the figure. The shaking of the table in this ex-  
 periment serves to stir the filings, by making them  
 jump up a little way, and thus place themselves  
 in the proper situation; otherwise the action of  
 the magnet will not have power sufficient to dis-  
 pose properly those particles which stand at a  
 considerable distance."

The late discoveries in electricity have suggest-  
 ed another theory, viz. that the magnetic pheno-  
 mena may be occasioned by a fluid analogous to  
 the electric, or perhaps by the very same. To  
 ascertain this theory, the phenomena of magnet-  
 ism and electricity have been compared, and the  
 analogy between them marked. This analogy  
 consists principally in the following particulars:  
 1. Electricity is of two kinds, positive and ne-  
 gative, each of which repels its own kind, and  
 attracts the opposite. In magnetism, the N. and  
 S. poles do the same; each being repulsive of its  
 own kind of magnetism, and attracting the op-  
 posite.

2. In electricity, whenever a body in its natu-  
 ral state is brought near an electrified one, it be-  
 comes itself electrified, and possessed of the con-  
 trary electricity; after which an attraction takes  
 place. In like manner, when a piece of iron or  
 steel is brought within the influence of a magnet,  
 it becomes itself possessed of a magnetism contra-  
 ry to that which the magnet possesses, and is of  
 course attracted.

3. One sort of electricity cannot be produced  
 without the other, neither is it possible to produce  
 one kind of magnetism without the other also.

4. The electric power may be retained by cer-  
 tain substances, as amber, glass, &c. but easily  
 pervades other substances, which are therefore  
 called *conductors*. Magnetism has a similar con-  
 ductor in soft iron; for by means of it the virtue  
 may be extended farther than can be done with-  
 out it; at the same time that the iron itself loses

all magnetic power the moment it is separated from the magnet. Hardened iron, cast iron, and steel, perform a part analogous to that of electric; for the virtue does not easily pervade them, but is retained, and may be communicated by them to other unmagnetic pieces, as the electric virtue is to bodies by an excited electric. As to other substances, they seem not to be conductors of magnetism, because the fluid pervades them as if nothing were present, and they cannot transmit the virtue farther than it would go without them. With soft iron it is otherwise. Thus, if to one of the poles of a magnet we append a piece of iron of considerable length, the end furthest from the magnet will likewise attract iron with much more force than the magnet could do at that distance without it, while at the same time this attractive power is plainly that of the magnet itself, and not inherent in the iron, as it vanishes the moment we separate them. If a piece of hard steel of an equal length with the iron be appended to the magnet by one of its ends, the distant end will not show any attraction, and it will be a considerable time before the magnetic virtue can diffuse itself for any distance along it; but when the separation is made, the steel will be found to be magnetic, and will preserve its virtue for a long time.

5. The electric virtue exerts itself most powerfully on points, which carry it off or receive it in vast quantities. In like manner a magnet will hold a piece of iron more powerfully by a corner, or blunt point, than by a flat surface. On sharp points indeed the magnet has but little hold by reason of the deficiency of surface.

6. From some experiments related under ELECTRICITY, it appears possible to superinduce the negative and positive electricities upon one another; and in magnetics it is possible to do the same. Thus, if we place a wire of some length upon a pivot, so that it can turn very easily, by touching both ends of it upon the poles of a magnet it will acquire a polarity; one end being repelled by one pole and attracted by the other. If now we give the N. end, for instance, a very slight touch with the N. pole of the magnet, we will find that it has a small degree of S. magnetism superinduced upon it, so that on approaching the S. pole of the magnet it will be repelled; but by approaching the magnet nearer, or holding the wire for a little from flying away, the S. magnetism of the wire will be entirely destroyed, and the N. magnetism appear as before. This experiment is not very easily made; its success depends on having the first magnetism as strong and the second as weak as possible.

These are the most remarkable particulars in which magnetism and electricity agree; but the differences between them are no less remarkable. The magnetic power affects none of our senses, and perceptibly attracts only iron; while electricity attracts and repels bodies of every kind indiscriminately. The electric virtue resides on the surface, but that of the magnet pervades the whole substance. A magnet loses nothing of its power by communicating its virtue to other bodies, but electricity always does; and, lastly, the magnetic virtue is permanent; whereas that of e-

lectricity, without the greatest care, is exceedingly perishable, and easily dissipated.

Notwithstanding these disagreements, however, the analogies betwixt magnetism and electricity are so great, that the hypothesis of a magnetic as well as of an electric fluid has now gained general credit; and upon this hypothesis Prof. ERSTED has attempted to solve the phenomena of magnetism in the following manner:

1. This fluid is sufficiently subtle to penetrate the substance of all terrestrial bodies, and like the electric fluid is supposed to be repulsive of itself.

2. There is a mutual attraction between the magnetic fluid and iron, but an indifference betwixt it and all other bodies.

3. There is a great resemblance betwixt ferruginous bodies and electric, as the magnetic fluid passes with difficulty through the former.

4. Iron and all ferruginous substances contain a quantity of magnetic fluid equally dispersed through their substance when those bodies are unmagnetic. In this state they show neither attraction nor repulsion, because the repulsion between the particles of magnetic fluid is balanced by the attraction between the matter of those bodies and the fluid; in which case these bodies are said to be in a natural state: but when in a ferruginous body the quantity of magnetic fluid is drawn to one, then the body becomes magnetic; one extremity of it being now overcharged with magnetic fluid and the other undercharged. Bodies thus rendered magnetic, exert a repulsion between their overcharged extremities in virtue of the repulsion between the particles of that excess of magnetic fluid, which is more than overbalanced by the attraction of their matter. There is an attraction exerted between the overcharged extremity of one magnetic body and the undercharged extremity of the other, on account of the attraction between that fluid and the matter of the body; but to explain the repulsion which takes place betwixt their undercharged extremities, we must either imagine that iron when deprived of the magnetic fluid is repulsive of itself, or that the undercharged extremities appear to repel each other only because either of them attracts the opposite overcharged extremities.

A ferruginous body, therefore, according to this hypothesis, is rendered magnetic by having the equable diffusion of magnetic fluid through the substance disturbed, so as to have an overplus in it in one or more parts and a deficiency in others; its magnetism remaining as long as its impermeability prevents the restoration of the balance between the overcharged and undercharged parts.

A piece of iron is rendered magnetic by the vicinity of a magnet; because when the overcharged part, or pole of the magnet is presented to it, the overplus of the magnetic fluid in that pole repels the fluid from the nearest extremity of the iron, which therefore becomes undercharged, or possessed of the contrary polarity, to the most remote part of the iron, which consequently becomes overcharged, or possessed of the same polarity as the present pole of the magnet. When the piece of iron is rendered magnetic by presenting it to the undercharged extremity or pole of the magnet, then the part of the iron which is



est to it becomes overcharged, &c. because part of the magnet, being deprived of its ætæic fluid, attracts the magnetic fluid of the rest to that extremity of the iron which lies near it itself.

ence, to give magnetism to a piece of steel, strength of the magnet employed must be such to overcome the resistance which the substance of steel makes against the free passage of the ætæic fluid: hence a piece of soft steel is rendered magnetic more easily than a hard one, and a strong magnet will render magnetic such bodies which a weak one cannot affect. When two magnets of equal power have their opposite poles presented to each other, they mutually preserve and strengthen the powers of each other; but when poles of the same denomination are forced together, the powers are equal, they mutually weaken each other; or if unequal, the weaker will have its powers altered, or perhaps its attractive power entirely destroyed in a short time.

This theory seems not to be tenable. It is impossible to show why the mere turning of a bar of iron should accumulate the fluid, unless it were supposed to be a *gravitating fluid*, towards the earth; and even on this extravagant supposition it would still be impossible to account for the same fluid being repelled by the earth in the northern hemisphere; for if the N. magnetism be accumulation, the S. must be a deficiency, and *versu*.

Another hypothesis is advanced by Mr CAVALLO who considers it as so well established, "that it can hardly be a philosopher sceptical enough to doubt of its truth." This is, that "the EARTH is a magnet;" a hypothesis advanced above thirty years ago, by Dr GILBERT of Colchester. Mr Cavallo says, is proved almost to a demonstration in the following manner:

Almost all the phenomena which may be exhibited with a common magnet may also be exhibited with the earth, as far as it can be tried.

Vast masses of iron or ferruginous matter actually magnetic are dug out of the earth almost in every part of it.

In support of the above position, he adduces the phenomena of the compass, dipping needle, and magnetism which soft iron receives when properly situated. (See Part III. S. 2. I.) All these may be imitated by a common magnet. An objection, however, occurs, that the most remarkable phenomenon of all, viz. the attraction of iron is wanting. No experiment has yet shown that this metal is attracted more powerfully near the poles than at the equator itself; yet this is not to be the case in such a large magnetic body.

The dipping of the needle may indeed show, in this hemisphere there is a superiority of attraction between one end of the needle and the earth; but it remains to be proved, whether this superiority resides in the needle or in the earth itself.

The following consideration seems to show the power, whatever it is, resides in the needle; namely, that at the equator, the needle does not remain in an E. and W. direction, if so it were; because of the equal attraction of the N. and S. poles. Were the needle carried to the

poles itself, we can only suppose that it would point perpendicularly downwards; in every other case, the attraction will not be perpendicular, but oblique: and supposing us to recede from the point of perpendicular attraction only a few miles, the obliquity would become so great, that no attraction or repulsion towards that point would be distinguishable from an horizontal direction. The inclination of the needle therefore shows, that it is not actuated by the influence of a distant point in the earth; but by some power in the atmosphere immediately acting upon the needle, and directing its course either to the earth, or from it, in a certain position.

Those who maintain the magnetism of the earth, have been considerably embarrassed with some of the natural phenomena. The variation of the compass first showed that the needle was not influenced by those points on which the earth turns round in its diurnal course. This was attempted to be solved by another hypothesis, viz. that the earth had two magnetical poles by which the needle is influenced, and two others round which it turns on its axis. This hypothesis was likewise embarrassed by the continual shifting of the variation either to the E. or W. Another supposition was made by Dr HALLEY; viz. that there is a large magnet in the body of the earth, which not being fixed to the external part, moved with respect to it, and of consequence occasioned the variation. This was likewise overthrown, by observing that the variation of the compass was irregular; and differed so much in different parts of the world, that it could not be owing to any regular cause diffused over the whole. Four magnetic poles were then supposed to lie within the earth, and to be moveable with respect to each other; and that therefore the variation, whose theory would now be very intricate, ought to be derived from all their actions conjointly; but, notwithstanding all this complication of poles, it might still be objected, that some kind of regularity, not observed in the variation of the magnetic compass, ought to have taken place. The celebrated EULER adopted the theory of GILBERT and CAVALLO, but supposes only two poles; and upon this principle, has reduced the computation of the variations of the needle to a wonderful simplicity. (See VARIATION.) Mr CHURCHMAN has also adopted the opinion of a *magnetic nucleus* within the earth, with only two poles; whereby he accounts for all the VARIATIONS of the needle.

But notwithstanding these great names, and plausible theories, many are still of opinion, that the earth neither is nor contains, a magnet, but is surrounded by a fluid whose motion is productive of magnetism in iron. This fluid they suppose to be the ELECTRIC FLUID. Under the articles AURORA BOREALIS, EARTH QUAKE, ELECTRICITY, &c. it is shown, that the solar light, absorbed by the equatorial regions of the earth, becomes subject to new laws of motion, acting in short as if it were another fluid, in which state we call it *electricity*, or the *ætæic fluid*. In this state it passes through the substance of the earth from the equator towards the polar regions, getting out again in the vicinity of the poles, ascending into the high atmospherical regions, and then returning

turning to the equatorial parts from whence it came. On this supposition, which appears to be confirmed by various natural phenomena, it is easy to see, why in the northern and southern parts the direction of the currents issuing from the earth should always become more and more perpendicular to the earth as we approach the poles, and on the contrary why their direction must be horizontal or nearly so in the equatorial parts. The discovery of this general cause therefore seems to be the nearest approach we can as yet make to the knowledge of the origin of magnetical phenomena. In what manner iron more than other metals is influenced by this fluid, or why the direction of a current of electric matter either to or from the earth, should cause such strong attraction as magnetical bodies are sometimes endowed with, we have as yet no data for understanding.

## PART III.

## PRACTICE OF MAGNETISM.

THIS consists in communicating the magnetic virtue from one body to another; making artificial magnets, compasses, dipping-needles, &c.; and investigating the various phenomena resulting from bodies placed in different situations.

SECT. I. *How to COMMUNICATE MAGNETISM by the LOADSTONE.*

MAGNETISM is communicated merely by presenting a piece of iron or steel to one of the poles of a magnet or loadstone, even without touching it; though a strong and permanent power cannot be given without contact, or even stroking the one upon the other for a number of times. In this operation, that part of the ferruginous body which touches the pole of the magnet acquires the contrary magnetism; that is, if it touches the north pole, it will turn towards the south, *et vice versa*. The power acquired is strongest when soft iron is applied, weaker with hardened iron, and weakest of all with hard steel; but the permanency of it follows just the reverse of this rule; for steel or hardened iron will preserve its virtue for many years, but soft iron loses it the moment we withdraw the magnet. When we desire a strong and permanent virtue, therefore, it is best to use the hardest steel, and to impregnate it by means of one or more powerful magnets; taking care that the north pole of the magnet which gives the virtue be applied to that end of the steel which is to be made the south pole. The same method may be employed in rendering a weak magnet more powerful than before, or in restoring the virtue to one which has lost it.

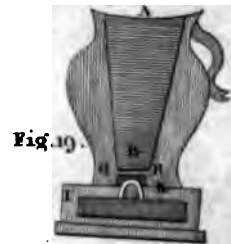
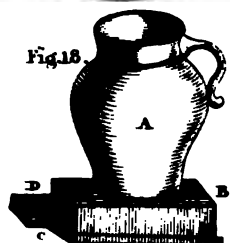
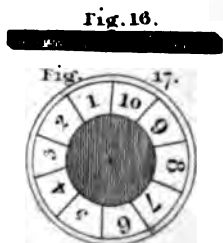
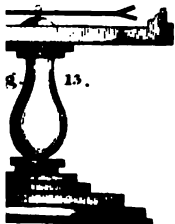
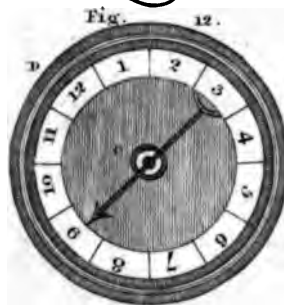
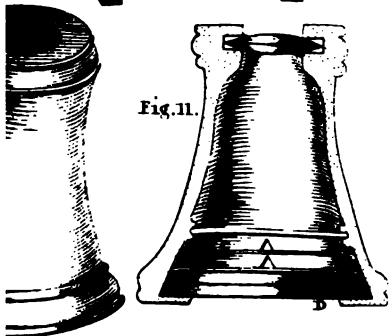
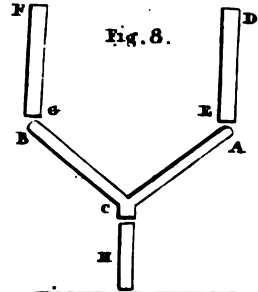
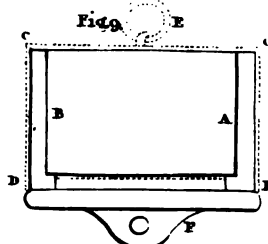
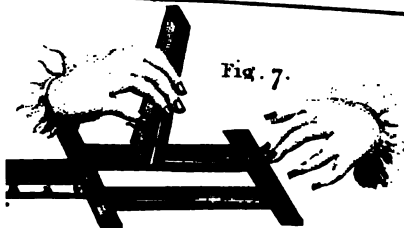
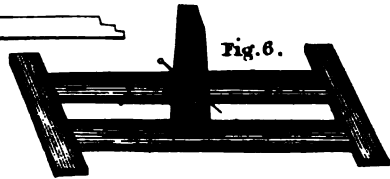
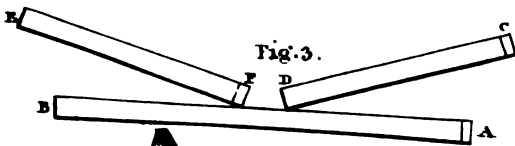
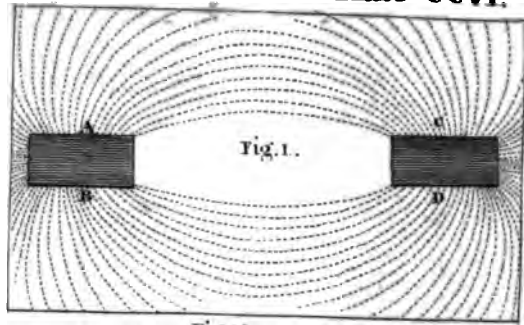
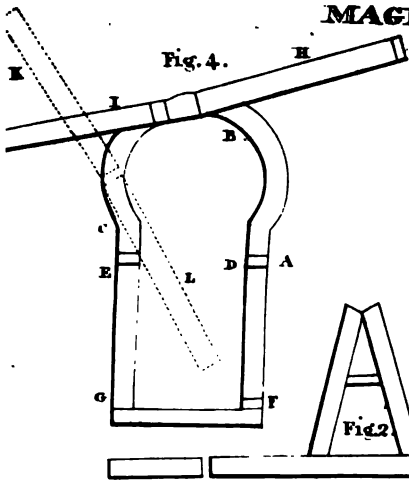
The operation of communicating magnetism to pieces of steel or iron, is called *touching* them; and as this is of the utmost utility in navigation, for the purpose of giving polarity to needles, very considerable pains have been bestowed upon the subject, in order to discover the methods of giving them the magnetic virtue in the most effectual and permanent manner. When only one magnetic bar is to be made use of, one of its poles must be applied to the end of the needle or steel bar to be impregnated; and drawn along the surface of it, to the other extremity several times. By this me-

thod, that other extremity of the needle when the magnet touched last acquires the magnetism. This method, however, is to be equally effectual with that in magnets, or both poles of one magnet use of.

To communicate magnetism by magnetic bars, place the bar or needle on a table; then set the two magnetic bars right upon it at a little distance, equidistant from the middle of the needle in such a manner that the south pole of one of them be next that end of the needle which is the north pole, &c. These two bars be slid gradually towards one another, keeping them constantly at the same distance from each other; and when one has arrived at the one end, then they must be drawn in the contrary way, till the other arrives at the same end; and thus the needle must be rubbed a greater or smaller number of times, till it be found to have acquired a considerable power. The best magnetic bars are powerful, and the best made of very good steel, and not very large, and the strokes are fully sufficient.

To communicate the greatest magnetism possible, we may proceed in the following manner: 1. The magnetic bars may be joined together by interposing a piece of wood or other substance excepting iron; for the like poles, being contiguous in the wood, strengthen each other, and of consequence the lower ones are also strengthened. 2. The bars may be rendered magnetic by being placed in contact with bars of soft iron, as shown by the figures. 3. The magnetic bars may be inclined in any contrary way, as recommended by Mr. Canton, making an angle of about 15 degrees with the horizontal line AB. See fig. 3. In the same manner a piece of soft iron may be rendered magnetic by an armed or horseshoe magnet. In any of the methods hitherto mentioned, however, the bar to be rendered magnetic must be stroked on every side; and to let the magnet's centre fall just in its middle, care must be taken to stroke one half of the bar just as much as the other. Whenever a steel bar, or, in general, a ferruginous matter, is rendered magnetic by the application of two bars, or by the two poles of one magnet, the operation is called *touching*; but the single touch when only one bar is used is called *stroking*.

Artificial magnets of a semicircular or horse-shoe shape, have the magnetism communicated to them in the same manner as straight bars, which are straight, only the magnetism for this purpose must follow the curve of the bar to be impregnated. Thus, supposed a piece of crooked iron ABC, fig. 4. lay it flat on a table, and at the extremities apply the magnets DE, EG, joined together at their extremities FG with the conductor of soft iron FG. Apply then the magnets to the middle of the piece ABC, and draw them from end to end, following the curve of the bent steel, so that on one side of it the magnetic bars may stand as represented by the lines LK. When the piece of steel has been rubbed a sufficient number of times, it is then to be turned, and rubbed in the





the other, until it has acquired a sufficient degree of magnetism.

Mr Cavallo, by repeated experiments found, that if magnetism be communicated to a piece of steel while softened by heat, and the metal then hardened by pouring cold water upon it while in the act of receiving the magnetism, though it does not receive any extraordinary degree of magnetism, it is yet very useful in constructing artificial magnets. For thus they will acquire a considerable degree of power, without any additional trouble to the workman, and may then be fully impregnated in the usual way, which cannot be done without a great deal of labour when the operation is begun upon bars which have no virtue at all.

§ II. *How to COMMUNICATE the MAGNETIC VIRTUE without any MAGNET either NATURAL or ARTIFICIAL.*

This may be done with a soft iron bar in the manner already related, viz. by turning it in a position perpendicular to the surface of the earth, or other excepting a line directly perpendicular to the dipping needle. The magnetism thus acquired, however, is always weak, and is instantaneously lost; while a steel bar will not receive any perceptible degree of magnetism by this method.

If an iron bar be made red hot, and left to cool in the magnetic line, or if it be repeatedly struck with a hammer while in that line, it will acquire a small degree of permanent magnetism; though this also will soon vanish by leaving the bar in an improper position, or by inverting and turning it again. The magnetism lasts longer in proportion to the hardness of the iron; but a great time will be required to give it the degree of virtue it is capable of receiving by this method. An iron bar be left for a long time in the direction

of the magnetic line, or even in a perpendicular posture, it will sometimes acquire a great degree of power. Mr Boyle mentions an iron rod 10 feet long, which had acquired so much virtue by standing in this posture, that it exceeded a loadstone of 34 lb. weight, and would turn a needle 8 or 10 feet distant. Even tongs, axes, and other kitchen utensils, by being often heated, and set to cool again in an erect posture, frequently observed to gain a magnetic virtue. Sometimes iron bars, which were not capable of receiving permanent magnetism on account of their softness, have, merely by exposure to the atmosphere for a great length of time, acquired a considerable degree of power; at the same time it has been remarked, that these bars became much weaker by this exposure; the cause of which has yet been discovered.

Iron or steel acquires a very perceptible degree of magnetism by drilling, hammering, or other methods by which they are put into violent action. The cause of this magnetism Mr Cavallo ascribes for in the earth itself, the changeable nature of the metal by heat or cold, and the vibratory motion into which its parts are accidentally put. For the same reasons (says he) it seems that magnetism, in certain cases, is produced by electricity; the particulars observed concerning which are the following:—When the bar or needle is

laid horizontally in the magnetic meridian, whichever way the shock of an electric jar or battery enters, the end of the needle which lies towards the N. acquires the N. polarity, viz. the power of turning towards the N. when freely suspended, the other end acquiring the S. polarity. If the bar before it receives the shock has some polarity, and is placed with its poles contrary to the usual direction, then its original polarity is always diminished, and sometimes reversed. When the needle is struck standing perpendicularly in this hemisphere, the lower end becomes the N. pole, even when it had some magnetism before, and receives the shock while standing with its S. pole downwards. When all other circumstances are alike, the degree of magnetism received seems to be the same, whether the needles are struck while standing horizontally in the magnetic meridian or perpendicular to the horizon. When a needle is placed in the magnetic equator, a shock through its length very seldom renders it magnetic; but if the shock be passed through its breadth, it acquires the virtue, the extremity which lay towards the W. generally becoming the N. pole. If a needle or bar strongly magnetic, or a natural magnet, be struck by the electric shock, its power is thereby diminished. When the shock is too strong, so that the needle is thereby rendered considerably hot, it acquires either no magnetism at all or a very small degree of it. Hence a stroke of lightning often renders pieces of iron or steel magnetic, as well as those bodies which naturally contain iron, as some bricks, &c."

There are various methods of communicating a permanent magnetism to ferruginous bodies, by a bar rendered magnetic by the earth; of which the most simple is that described by Mr MARCEL. Being employed in 1726, in making some observations on the magnetic power which he found in great pieces of iron, he took a large vice weighing 90 lb. in which he fixed a small anvil weighing 12 lb. The steel to which he wished to give the magnetic virtue was laid upon the anvil in a N. and S. position, which happened to be the diagonal of the square surface of the latter. He then took a piece of iron 22 inch square, and 33 inches long, weighing about 8 lb. having one end rounded and bluntly pointed, the other tapered. Holding the steel fast upon the anvil with one hand, he took the iron bar in the other; and holding it perpendicularly, he rubbed the steel hard with the rounded part towards him from N. to S. always carrying the bar far enough round about to begin again at the N. Having thus given 10 or 12 strokes, the steel was turned upside down, and rubbed as much on the other side. Proceeding in this manner till it had been rubbed 400 times, the steel was as strongly magnetic as if it had been touched by a powerful loadstone. The place where he began to rub was always the N. pole. In these experiments it sometimes happened that the virtue was imparted by a few strokes; nay, by a single one, a small needle was made to receive a very considerable power. Thus he imparted to two compass needles such a degree of magnetic power, that one took up 2½ times another a whole ounce of iron; and though these needles were anointed with mixed oil to keep them

them from rusting, and a hard coat was thus formed upon them, they nevertheless retained their virtue. Thus also a knife was made so strongly magnetical, that it would take up an ounce and three quarters of iron. Four small pieces of steel, each an inch long and one twelfth of an inch broad, as thin as the spring of a watch, were thus impregnated with the magnetic virtue, and then joined into a small artificial magnet; which at its first formation took up 8 times its own weight of iron; and after being six years kept in the most careless manner, was found to have rather gained than lost any thing of its virtue. In the course of his experiments, Mr MARCEL found, that the end at which he began to rub was always the N. pole, whatever position the steel was laid in. On rubbing a piece of steel from one end to the middle, and then from the other end to the middle, it acquired two N. poles, one at each end, the middle being a south pole. Beginning to rub from the middle towards each end, he found a N. pole in the middle and a S. pole at each extremity.

Magnetism may be communicated to a small piece of soft steel in the following manner. Take two iron bars about an inch square, and upwards of 3 feet long, keep them in the magnetical line, or in a perpendicular posture, as represented *fig. 5.* Let the piece of steel BC be either fastened to the edge of a table or held by an assistant; and placing the lower extremity of the bar AB, and the upper extremity of the bar CD, on opposite sides, and in the middle of the steel, stroke the latter from the middle towards its extremities, moving both bars at the same time. When both are arrived at the extremities of the steel, remove them from it, and apply them again to the middle. Do so 40 or 50 times, and the steel will be found to have a considerable degree of magnetic power. Care, however, must be taken, in removing the bars, not to draw them along the surface of the steel, or the experiment will not succeed, because the magnetism is destroyed by the contrary strokes.

The late Dr GODWIN KNIGHT possessed a surprising skill in magnetism, being able to communicate an extraordinary degree of attractive or repulsive virtue, and to alter or reverse the poles at pleasure; but as he refused to discover his methods upon any terms whatever (even, as he said, though he should receive in return as many guineas as he could carry), these curious and valuable secrets have died with him. In the 69th vol. of the *Philos. Trans.* however, Mr B. WILSON hath given a process which at least discovers one of the leading principles of Dr Knight's art. Having provided himself with a great quantity of clean iron filings, he put them into a large tub that was more than one third filled with clean water; he then, with great labour, worked the tub to and fro for many hours together, that the friction between the grains of iron by this treatment might break off such smaller parts as would remain suspended in the water. The water being thus rendered very muddy, he poured it into a clean iron vessel, leaving the filings behind; and when the water had stood long enough to become clear, he poured it out carefully, without disturb-

ing such of the sediment as still remained, which now appeared reduced almost to impalpable powder. This powder was afterwards removed into another vessel to dry it; but as he had not obtained a proper quantity thereof by this step, he was obliged to repeat the process many times. Having at last procured enough of this very fine powder, the next thing was to make a paste of it with linseed oil. With these two ingredients only he made a stiff paste, and took care to knead it well before he moulded it into convenient shapes. Sometimes, while the paste continued in its soft state he would put the impression of a seal upon the several pieces; one of which is in the British Museum. This paste was then put upon wood, and sometimes on tiles, to bake or dry it before a moderate fire, at about the distance of a foot or so. The time required in drying this paste was generally about 5 or 6 hours before it attained a sufficient degree of hardness. When that was done, and the several baked pieces were become cold, he gave them their magnetic virtue in any direction he pleased, by placing them between the extreme ends of his large magazine of artificial magnets for a few seconds more as he saw occasion. By this method the virtue they acquired was such, that, when any of those pieces were held between two of his ten-guinea bars, with its poles purposely inverted, it immediately of itself turned about to reverse its natural direction, which the force of the very powerful bars was not sufficient to counteract. In the 66th vol. of the *Philos. Trans.* Fothergill had previously mentioned this subject. From these accounts it appears, that the basis of Dr Knight's artificial loadstones was black powder to which iron filings are reduced by water, called MARTIAL ÆTHIOPS: which Mr CAVALLO gives the following receipt for imitating the natural magnets.—“Take some martial æthiops, or which is more easily procured, reduce into very fine powder the scales which fall from red-hot iron when hammered, and about in smiths shops. Mix this powder with dry linseed oil, so as to form it into a very stiff paste and shape it in a mould so as to give it any form you require; whether of a terrilla, a button head, or any other. This done, put it into a warm place for some weeks, and it will dry so to become very hard; then render it magnetic by the application of powerful magnets, and it will acquire a considerable power.”

In making artificial magnets of steel, none has succeeded better than Mr CANTON, whose process is as follows: Take 12 bars; six of soft steel each 3 inches long, one quarter of an inch broad and one twentieth of an inch thick; with two pieces of iron, each half the length of one of the bars, but of the same breadth and thickness: also six pieces of hard steel, each five inches and a half long, half an inch broad, and three twentieths of an inch thick; with two pieces of iron half the length, but the whole breadth and thickness of one of the hard bars; and let all the bars be marked with a line quite round them at one end. Then take an iron poker and tongs, or two bars of iron, (the larger and the longer used, the better) and fixing the poker upright between the

es, hold to it, near the top, one of the soft  
s, having its marked end downwards, by a  
ce of sewing silk, which must be pulled tight  
the left hand, that the bar may not slide: then  
sping the tongs with the right hand, a little  
ow the middle, and holding them neatly in a  
tical position, let the bar be stroked by the  
ver end from the bottom to the top, about ten  
es on each side, which will give it a magnetic  
ver sufficient to lift a small key at the marked  
e: which end, if the bar was suspended on a  
ant, would turn towards the N. and is there-  
e called the *north pole*; and the unmarked end  
for the same reason, called the *south pole*. Four  
the soft bars being impregnated after this man-  
n lay the two (*fig. 6.*) parallel to each other,  
the distance of one fourth of an inch between  
two pieces of iron belonging to them, a N.  
S. pole against each piece of iron: then take  
of the 4 bars already made magnetical and  
ec them together so as to make a double bar  
thickness, the N. pole of one even with the S.  
e of the other: and the remaining two being  
e to these, one on each side, so as to have 2 N.  
e 2 S. poles together; separate the N. from  
S. pole at one end by a large pin, and place  
m perpendicularly with that end downward  
the middle of one of the parallel bars, the two N.  
e towards its S. and the two S. poles towards  
N. end: slide them backward and forward 3  
times the whole length of the bar, and re-  
ing them from the middle of this, place them  
the middle of the other bar as before directed,  
go over that in the same manner; then turn  
the bars the other side upwards, and repeat  
former operation: this done, take the two  
a between the pieces of iron; and, placing  
two outermost of the touching bars in the  
e, let the other two be the outermost of  
four to touch these with; and this process  
e repeated till each pair of bars have been  
ed 3 or 4 times over, put the 6 together  
the manner of the 4 (*fig. 6.*), and touch them  
two pair of the hard bars placed between  
irons, about half an inch from each other;  
lay the soft bars aside; and with the 4 hard  
e let the other two be impregnated (*fig. 7.*),  
ing the touching bars apart at the lower end  
two 10ths of an inch; to which distance let  
a be separated after they are set on the parallel  
e and brought together again before they are  
en off: then proceed according to the method  
cribed above, till each pair have been touched 2  
times over. But as this vertical way of  
ching a bar will not give it quite so much of  
magnetic virtue as it will receive, let each  
e now touched once or twice over in their  
lled position between the irons, with two of  
bars held horizontally, or nearly so, by draw-  
at the same time the N. pole of one from the  
dle over the S. end, and the S. of the other  
the middle over the N. end of a parallel  
e: then bringing them to the middle again,  
hout touching the parallel bar, give 3 or 4 of  
horizontal strokes to each side. The hori-  
ntal touch, after the vertical, will make the  
as strong as they possibly can be made, as  
ars by their not receiving any additional

strength, when the vertical touch is given by a  
great number of bars, and the horizontal by those  
of a superior magnetic power. The whole pro-  
cess may be gone through in about half an hour;  
and each of the large bars, if well hardened, may  
be made to lift 28 Troy ounces, and sometimes  
more. And when these bars are thus impregna-  
ted, they will give to an hard bar of the same size  
its full virtue in less than two minutes; and there-  
fore will answer all the purposes of magnetism in  
navigation and experimental philosophy much  
better than the loadstone, which is known not to  
have a sufficient power to impregnate hard bars.  
The 6 being put into a case in such a manner as  
that two poles of the same denomination may not  
be together, and their irons with them as one  
bar, they will retain the virtues they have recei-  
ved; but if their power should, by making experi-  
ments, be ever so far impaired, it may be restored  
without any foreign assistance in a few minutes.  
And if a much larger set of bars should be requi-  
red, these will communicate to them a sufficient  
power to proceed with: and they may, in a short  
time, by the same method, be brought to their  
full strength.

To expedite the process of making magnets,  
the bars should be fixed in a groove, or between  
brass pins, to prevent them from sliding; or they  
may be kept steady by a weight and ruler, as in  
*fig. 7.*

#### SECT. III. APPARATUS for making EXPERI- MENTS in MAGNETISM.

THE apparatus necessary in magnetics is but  
small, consisting only of a few magnets or mag-  
netic bars, a magnetic horizontal needle or com-  
pass, and a dipping needle. For those who do  
not intend to be very accurate, a common arti-  
ficial horse-shoe magnet and a few sewing needles  
may be sufficient; but where greater accuracy is  
required, it will be necessary to have a good set  
of magnetic bars, commonly six; a few small  
magnetic needles, a larger needle in a box with a  
graduated circle, and a dipping needle; to which  
may be added some pieces of steel wire, a few  
bars of soft iron, &c.

The magnetic bars ought to be made of the  
best steel, and tempered quite hard. There is  
not, however, any method yet known by which  
we can distinguish the kind of steel which is best  
for magnetical purposes. It will be proper, there-  
fore, previous to the construction of the bars, to  
try the quality of the metal in the following man-  
ner: Take a piece of it about 3 inches long and  
 $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch thick; make it red-hot, and plunge it  
into cold water, which hardens it so that a file will  
not touch it. Apply then two powerful magne-  
tic bars; holding the N. pole of one to one ex-  
tremity of the steel, and the S. pole of the other  
magnet to the other extremity of the steel. Ha-  
ving kept them in this position for about a mi-  
nute, separate them from the steel, and then try  
whether it will keep suspended a key or other  
piece of iron. By treating in this manner pieces  
of different steel, it will easily be perceived which  
is capable of lifting the greatest weight, and con-  
sequently the most proper for the construction of  
the bars.

ving determined the quality of the material, the next thing to be considered is the shape of the bars; for unless the length and breadth of them bear a certain proportion to each other, they will not be capable of receiving their utmost power. The best shape, according to Mr Cavallo, is when the length is ten times the breadth and 20 times the thickness. The usual dimensions are  $\frac{5}{8}$  inches in length, half an inch in breadth, and  $\frac{1}{8}$  of an inch in thickness. Cylindrical bars are less convenient.—It is not absolutely necessary to polish these bars; though in this state they are much less liable to rust. The N. pole is generally marked with a line all round, to distinguish it from the S. pole. When kept together, the magnetic bars must be placed alternately with the marked end of one contiguous to the unmarked end of the other. Two pieces of soft iron called *supports* always belong to each set of bars. Each of these is equal in size to the half of one of the bars; so that when placed contiguous to one another in one direction, they may equal one of the bars. These are useful when other bodies are to be rendered magnetic. For the construction of the COMPASS and DIPPING NEEDLE, see COMPASS, N° V, § 2, 5, 6; and DIPPING, § II, 6.

#### SECT. IV. EXPERIMENTS with the above described APPARATUS.

1. To DETERMINE whether any SUBSTANCE IS ATTRACTED by the MAGNET or NOT.—If the substance to be examined contains iron, the attraction will evidently shew itself on bringing near it one of the magnetic bars. The quantity of attraction will always be known by the force requisite to separate them, and its proportion is estimated by the degree of that force. If the attraction be so small that it cannot be thus perceived, it must be put to swim upon water in an earthen or wooden vessel, by means of a piece of wood or cork. In this way the attraction will be much more easily manifested by the body coming towards the magnet when approached to it. It will sometimes be necessary to bring the magnet within one  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch of the body to be attracted; and as the latter advances, care must be taken to withdraw the magnet; for if they be suffered to strike against each other, the body, if hard, will generally recede; and it will likewise be proper to prevent the magnet to the body when the latter is at rest.

By setting the substances to be attracted swim upon quicksilver, a still smaller degree of attraction can be perceived. In using this fluid, the following particulars must be attended to. 1. The aperture of the vessel in which the quicksilver is kept must be at least six inches in diameter. The reason is, that, as the surface of the quicksilver descends near the side of the vessel, the curvature of surface formed by that descent is proportionably greater in the narrow vessels than larger ones. If the vessel is only 3 or 4 inches in diameter, the body to be attracted will perpetually run from one side to another; a common soup plate, however, will be found a very convenient vessel for this purpose. 2. It will be necessary to have the quicksilver very pure; and as it is difficult to preserve it in that state, it must be

frequently passed through a piece of paper rolled up conically, and having a ture of about one 40th of an inch diameter lower part. 3. The neighbouring air must be disturbed, that the body may be kept in motion; and, while in this state, one end of the magnet is to be presented to it in manner as when the experiment is tried. It was thus that Mr Cavallo made the experiments above described, *Part I; Sect.*

If it be suspected that the given body contains magnetism already, the same process is only observing to present a piece of soft iron to the body when swimming upon quicksilver. A piece of iron about half weight, and an inch in length, will be sufficient for this purpose.

2. To FIND the POLES of a MAGNET.—Present the various parts of the body successively to one of the poles of a magnetic needle; it will soon be discovered which parts of the body are possessed of a contrary polarity. One of the poles being thus discovered, the opposite pole of the magnetic needle to it will soon find out its own. When the magnetism of the body to be tested is very weak, there will be danger of receiving a contrary polarity by bringing the needle too near; distance at which this effect will take place will be determined, it will always be proper to keep it so far distant, that it can only feel the needle. Where there are only iron filings upon the body; for these will be attracted to the poles. They may be distinguished by setting the body to float in water, by tying it to a thread and letting it hang so that one may turn towards the N. and the other towards the S. This method, however, is not so exact when there are more than two parts directly opposite to one another.

3. EFFECTS of the MAGNET on a NEEDLE.—Having placed a magnetic needle upon a bar of soft iron about 8 inches long, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch thick, so near that it may draw the needle a little out of the way, and then approach gradually the N. pole of the magnet to the other extremity of the bar, and the N. end of the needle will recede from the bar more, in proportion as the magnet is brought nearer the bar. In the experiment by repeating the experiment by repeating the experiment, the N. end of the needle will be attracted by the bar. This shews, that when we bring the N. pole of a magnet towards one end of the bar, the other end acquires a S. polarity, and the other end a N. polarity. Hence the needle is not attracted to either magnetic pole of the same kind; but when the S. pole is brought near the end of the bar, that end which it receives the N. polarity, and the other end the S.; whence the needle, instead of being repelled, is now attracted. By approaching the magnetic needle to different parts of the bar, it will be found that one half of it possesses a contrary polarity, and the other the contrary



tic centre, however, or the limit betwixt two polarities, is not always in the middle of the bar; but is generally nearer that end which is nearest to the magnet. The difference increases as the bar is lengthened; and when the latter has a certain length, it acquires several poles. It depends on the strength of the magnet; and it happens, the first magnetic centre comes nearest to the end of the bar which stands next to the magnet, and the successive centres are formed at every two poles. Thus, supposing the north end of a magnet to be brought to the end of the bar, the end it touches becomes a S. pole; and when it recedes further a N. polarity takes place, after which it becomes a S. polarity, and so on. The poles become weaker as they recede from the end to which the magnet touches; so that if the bar be of considerable length, they totally vanish long before they come to the other end. Hence, by bringing a magnet to one end of a long bar, we thereby give any magnetism to the other; and this will happen when a magnet capable of lifting 1 lb. of iron is applied to a bar of about an inch and 5 feet long.

*The ACTION of MAGNETISM SHOWN by the REPEL- LION of two pieces of WIRE.*—Tie two pieces of wire each to a separate thread, and hang them close by each other, bring the poles of a magnet under them, and they will immediately repel; the divergency being greater as the magnet is brought nearer to a certain limit, and decreasing as the magnet is removed. If steel wires or common sewing-needles be used, the repulsion will continue a considerable time after the magnet is removed; this divergency will even be greater after the removal of the magnet, as its attraction does not draw them nearer each other; and, if they are too near, no repulsion will be shown by the magnet. The experiment may be agreeably diversified by using 4 or more needles, and presenting them to one pair, and a S. to another, &c.

*What circumstances a MAGNET can lift the HEAVIEST WEIGHT.*—By a crooked wire we may see at the power of a magnet varies according to the length of the wire. Thus, let a piece of wire about 1 inch in diameter, and 4 or 5 inches long, in the form represented by ACB, fig. 8. be held by a crooked corner at C. Tie it fast to a cross-bar at DE. Then apply either pole of the magnet to one of its extremities; and if in addition a small piece of iron, as II, be put on the other corner C, it will remain suspended. On the contrary pole of another magnet to the other extremity of the wire, the piece of iron immediately fall off; but if a pole of the same magnet be applied, it will not only be still kept sus-

but be more strongly attracted than before. In this experiment, the 1st magnet is assisted by the action of the 2d, but to strengthen a magnet in this manner, it does not appear necessary to use a magnet at all. Thus, having found how much a magnetic bar can lift, a long oblong piece of iron about 4 inches long, and somewhat heavier than the bar can bear. Append this to the pole of the bar holding

it with your hand till you place under the other end a larger piece of iron. It will then be found that the magnet will support the piece of iron which it could not do before. The lower piece of iron is to be placed between an half and three quarters of an inch below the under part of the oblong piece which hangs at the magnet. The same effect will be produced by the opposite pole of another magnet; but a pole of the same kind would weaken the attraction.

6. *The GENERATION of POLES, and of MAGNETIC CENTRES in the parts of a broken magnet.*—Take a magnetic bar about 6 or 8 inches long and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch diameter, whose magnetic centre will be in the middle, or near it. Break off about  $\frac{1}{2}$  part by a smart stroke of a hammer, and it will be found that the broken part, though in the magnet it had but one polarity, will now have acquired a N. and S. pole, with a magnetic centre, as if it were a distinct magnet. The experiment may be diversified as follows: Having made a steel bar about 6 inches long and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of an inch thick quite hard, break it into two unequal parts. Join these, and press them hard together, giving it the magnetic virtue at the same time by two powerful magnets; while the parts remain in this position, so that the bar looks as if it had not been broke, it will have only two poles; but as soon as they are separated, each part will be found to become a distinct magnet, having a N. and S. pole proper to itself.

7. *To REMOVE the MAGNETIC CENTRE in a MAGNET.*—This may be done in various ways; as, by striking a magnetic bar repeatedly, heating it, hard rubbing, &c.; but in all these methods the magnetism of the bar is diminished at the same time that the centre is removed; so that they ought not to be continued beyond what is necessary to produce a sensible removal of the magnetic centre.

8. *The DISADVANTAGES of using MAGNETS of UNEQUAL POWER, and of STEEL NOT PROPERLY HARDENED.*—Having communicated the magnetic virtue to a steel bar by a magnet of any given power, then rub it with a weaker magnet, and it will be found, that the power of the bar, instead of being augmented, will be diminished; being no stronger than if it had been rubbed only with the weak magnet. The impropriety of using soft steel in making artificial magnets may be understood from the following example: Take two wires about 14 inches long, and  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch in thickness; let one be of very hard steel, the other of soft steel or iron, though not of the softest sort; then, by means of magnetic bars, give the virtue to those wires, treating them both in the same manner, and it will be generally found that the hard wire will have only two poles, but the other a greater number.

9. *To WEAKEN or DESTROY the MAGNETISM of a WIRE by BENDING.*—Having communicated the magnetic virtue to an iron or soft steel wire of about 4 or 5 inches long and one 20th of an inch in diameter, roll it round a stick so as to make 4 or 5 revolutions. When taken off the stick it will have its virtue quite destroyed, or at least very much weakened by the bending. This effect cannot be produced but when the texture of the wire is strained by bending; for if it be of such an elas-

straightness after being  
 k, little change is made  
 When only the middle  
 or no change takes place  
 If a piece of magnetic  
 athwise, the parts will  
 e poles, and sometimes  
 one part is much thinner  
 r part will generally have

URAL MAGNETS.—This  
 methods which are used  
 e to steel bars or to iron  
 gnets being generally ve-  
 lo more than place them  
 9 magnetic bars: However,  
 sufficient length, they must be  
 10 bars besides those between  
 ; using the same precautions  
 ial magnets. When fi  
 t will always be propo-  
 : from them.

URAL OF ARTIFICIAL MAGNETS.  
 he poles of the magnet; then shape  
 ad of a parallelepipedon; care must be  
 t the poles fall about the middle of two  
 rfaces; in this direction the magnet  
 be the greatest length possible: for a  
 t is weakened much more by hav-  
 g from its length than its break-  
 Provide two plates of soft iron, equi-  
 t those surfaces where the poles stand,  
 ng a little on one side of the stone, as  
 9. The projections marked DD

be much narrower than the breadth of the plates, from a quarter to half an inch being sufficient for the larger magnets, and about one sixth of an inch for small ones, for the purpose of applying to them the surface of the iron F. The thickness of the plates CD CD must be proportional to the strength of the magnet AB; and this proportion cannot easily be determined without an actual experiment. The best method, therefore, is to make them somewhat thick at first, and then keep filing them down as long as the power of the magnet increases; after which the filing is to be discontinued. The armature may be kept on, either by tying or by a box; which last is preferable. The armature of spherical magnets must be adapted to their shape, and each large enough to cover a quarter of it. In like manner may artificial magnets be armed, and thus a compound magnet may be produced much more powerful than any single one. Thus Dr Knight constructed two very powerful artificial magnets, or magazines of magnetic bars, which are now in the repository of the Royal Society. Each of these consists of 240 bars disposed in 4 lengths, so as to form a parallelepipedon, each length containing 60 bars. They are all kept together by iron braces, and the whole suspended on pivots, with a wooden wheel or carriage, by which they may be easily placed in any required position. If the artificial magnets be made in the shape of a hemisphere or a lens, they have no occasion for an armature, being sufficient to join them either by one top or by means of a box; and indeed every when straight bars are used, a compound

magnet may be made without armature; but then as the poles cannot act in the same plain, it is necessary to have two magazines in order to give magnetism the more conveniently to other bodies. The power of a magnet is rather augmented by being armed, for the same reason that it is increased by a piece of iron affixed to it. E is a brass ring, by which it may be suspended with the iron adhering to it, which is the best method for preserving its virtue.

12. *Of the TIME required by MAGNETISM to PENETRATE through IRON.* Having placed a bulky piece of iron, suppose one weighing 40 or 50 lb. so near a magnetic needle as to draw it a little out of its direction, apply one of the poles of a strong magnet to the other extremity of the iron, and it will require some seconds before the needle can be affected by it. The interval is great or less according to the size of the iron and the strength of the magnet.

ART. V. ENTERTAINING EXPERIMENT.

CONSTRUCTION of the MAGNETIC PERISCOPE-GLASS. Provide an ivory tube, about two inches and a half long, and of the form in fig. 10. The sides of this tube must be thin enough to admit a considerable quantity of light. It must be closed at one end with a screw; at that end there must be placed an eye-glass of about two inches diameter, and at the other end any glass. Have a magnetic needle, like that placed on a common compass.

It must be strongly touched, and so placed at the bottom of the tube that it may turn round. It is to be fixed on the centre of a

small ivory circle C, fig. 11. of the thickness of a counter, which is placed on the object-glass D, and painted black on the side next it. This circle must be kept fast by a circular rim of paste-board, that the needle may not rise off its pivot, after the same manner as in the compass. This tube will thus become a compass, sufficiently transparent to show the motions of the needle. The eye-glass serves more clearly to distinguish the direction of the needle; and the glass at the other end, merely to give the tube the appearance of a common perspective. The needle in this tube, when placed over, and at a small distance from, a magnet, or any machine in which it is contained, will necessarily place itself in a position directed by that magnet, and consequently show where the N. and S. pole of it are placed; the N. end of the needle constantly pointing to the S. end of the magnet. This effect will take place, though the magnet be enclosed in a case of wood, or even metal. But the attracting magnet must not be far distant from the needle, especially if it be small. This tube may be differently constructed, by placing the needle in a perpendicular direction, on a small axis of iron, on which it must turn quite freely, between two small plates of brass placed on each side the tube; the two ends of the needle should be so placed as to act in equilibrium. The N. and S. ends of this needle will, in like manner, be attracted by the S. and N. ends of the magnetic bar. The former construction, however, appears preferable.

EXP. 1. THE COMMUNICATIVE CROWN. Take a crown piece, and bore a hole in the middle of it.

in which place a piece of wire, or a large le, well polished, and strongly touched with magnet. Then close the hole with a small piece of paper, that it may not be perceived. Now hold the needle in the magnetic perspective before described, when it is brought near to this piece of paper, will fix itself in a direction correspondent to the wire or needle in that piece. Desire any person to lend you a crown piece, which you may easily change for one that you have prepared above. Then give the latter piece to another person, and leave him at liberty either to put it privately in a snuff-box, or not; he is then to take the box on a table, and you are to tell him, by means of your glass, if the crown is or is not in the box. Then bringing your perspective close to the box, you will know, by the motion of the needle, whether it be there or not; for as the needle in the perspective will always keep to the position of itself, if you do not perceive it has any motion, you conclude the crown is not in the box. It may happen, however, that the wire in the snuff-box may be placed to the N. end in which case you may be deceived. Therefore, to be sure of success, when you find the needle in the perspective remain stationary, you may make some motion to desire the person to move the box into another position, by which you will certainly know if the crown piece be there or not. The needle in the perspective must be very sensible as the wire in the crown cannot have any attractive power.

**EXP. 2. The MAGNETIC TABLE.** Under the top of a common table place a magnet that turns on a pivot; and fix a board under it, that nothing may appear. There may also be a drawer under the table, which you pull out to show that there is nothing concealed. At one end of the table there must be a pin that communicates with the magnet, and by which it may be placed in different positions: this pin must be so placed as not to be visible to the spectators. Strew some steel filings or very small nails over that part of the table where the magnet is. Then ask any one to lend you a knife, or a key, which will then attract part of the nails or filings. Then placing your hand in a careless manner on the pin at the end of the table, you alter the position of the magnet; and when you give the key to any person, you desire him to do the experiment, which he will then not be able to perform. You then give the key to another person; at the same time placing the magnet in the former position, by means of the pin, in the first position, so that that person will immediately perform the experiment.

**EXP. 3. The MYSTERIOUS WATCH.** Desire any person to lend you his watch, and ask him if it will go when it is laid on a table. If he say it will, you place it over the N. end of the magnet, and it will presently stop. Then mark with chalk, or a pencil, the point where you placed the watch; and when you change the position of the magnet, as in the former experiment, you give the watch to another person, and desire him to make the experiment; which he not succeeding, you give it to a third person, at the same time replacing the magnet,

and he will immediately perform the experiment. In this experiment the balance of the watch must be of steel.

**EXP. 4. The MAGNETIC DIAL.** Provide a circle of wood or ivory, of about 5 or 6 inches diameter, as *fig. 12*, which must turn quite free on the stand B (*fig. 13*.) in the circular border A: on the circle must be placed the dial of pasteboard C, (*fig. 12*.) whose circumference is to be divided into 12 equal parts, in which must be inscribed the numbers from 1 to 12, as on a common dial. There must be a small groove in the circular frame D, to receive the pasteboard circle. Between this last and the bottom of the frame, place a small artificial magnet E, (*fig. 14*.) that has a hole in its middle, or a small protuberance. On the outside of the frame place a small pin P, which serves to show where the magnetic needle I, that is placed on a pivot at the centre of the dial, is to stop. This needle must turn quite free on its pivot, and its two sides should be in exact equilibrium. Then provide a small bag, that has 5 or 6 divisions, like a lady's work-bag, but smaller. In one of these divisions put small square pieces of pasteboard, on which are wrote the numbers from 1 to 12, and you may put several of each number. In each of the other divisions you must put twelve or more like pieces; observing, that all the pieces in each division must be marked with the same number. Now the needle being placed upon its pivot, and turned quickly about, it will stop at that point where the N. end of the magnetic bar is placed, and which you previously know by the situation of the small pin in the circular border. Present to any person that division of the bag which contains the several pieces on which is wrote the number opposite to the N. end of the bar, and tell him to draw any one of them he pleases. Then placing the needle on the pivot, turn it quickly about, and it will stop at that particular number. Another experiment may be made with the same dial, by desiring two persons to draw each of them one number out of two different divisions of the bag; and if their numbers, when added together, exceed 12, the needle or index will stop at the number they exceed it; but if they do not amount to 12, the index will stop at the sum of those two numbers. To perform this experiment, place the pin against the number 5, if the two numbers to be drawn from the bag be 10 and 7; or against 9 if they be 7 and 2.—If this experiment be made immediately after the former, as it easily may, by dexterously moving the pin, it will appear the more extraordinary.

**EXP. 5. The CYLINDRIC ORACLE.** Provide a hollow cylinder about 6 inches high and 3 wide, as AB, *fig. 15*. Its cover CD must be made to fit on any way. On one side of this cylinder let there be a groove, nearly of the same length with that side; in which place a small steel bar, (*fig. 16*.) strongly impregnated, with the N. pole next the bottom of the cylinder. On the upper side of the cover describe a circle; and divide it into ten equal parts, in which are to be wrote the numbers from 1 to 10, as is expressed in *fig. 17*. Place a pivot at the centre of this circle, and have ready a magnetic needle. Then provide a bag, in which

there

are several divisions, like that described in 4. In each of these divisions put a number, on which the same or similar questions are to be asked. In the cylinder put several different questions to each question, and seal them up in the top of small letters. On each of these letters there is to be wrote one of the numbers of a circle at the top of the box. You are to know the number of the answers to each question. Then offer one of the divisions of the bag, observing which division it is, to any person and desire him to draw one of the papers, and put the top on the cylinder, with that number which is wrote on the answer directly over the bar. Then placing the needle on the pivot, it briskly about, and it will stop at the number of the bar. Then desire the person who asks the question to observe the number at which the needle stands, and to search in the box for a paper which has the same number, which he will find the answer.—You may repeat the experiment by offering another division of the bag to the same or another person; and placing the needle on the magnetic bar, proceed as before. Various answers may be given to the same question. *E. g.* suppose the question to be, Is it proper to marry? *Ans.* 1. While you are young, not yet; when you are old, not at all. 2. Marry in haste, and repent at leisure. 3. Yes, if you can get a good fortune; for something has some favour, but nothing has no flavour. 4. No, if you are apt to be out of humour with yourself; for then you will have two persons to quarrel with. 5. Yes, if you are sure to get a good husband (wife); for that is the greatest blessing of life. 6. No, if the person you should marry is an angel; unless you will be content to live with the devil: &c.

**FIG. 6. THE ENCHANTED EWER.** Fix a conical ewer, as A, (fig. 18) of about 12 inches high, upon a square stand B; in one side of which there must be a drawer D, of about 4 inches square and half an inch deep. In the ewer place a hollow tin cone, inverted, as AB, fig. 19, of about 4½ inches diameter at top, and 2 inches at bottom; and at the bottom of the ewer there must likewise be a hole of two inches diameter. Upon the stand, at about an inch distance from the bottom of the ewer, and directly under the hole, place a small convex mirror H, of such convexity that a person's visage, when viewed in it, at about 15 inches distance, may not appear above

two inches and a half long. Upon the stand, at the point I, place a pivot of half an inch high, on which must be fixed a thin pasteboard circle, enclosed in a circle of very thin pasteboard OS, fig. 20, of five inches diameter. Divide the pasteboard into 4 parts, in each of which is to be painted a small circle; and in 3 of these circles paint, as 1, 2, 3, the dress of each of which is to be different, one, for example, having a turban, another a hat, and the other a woman's cap. Cut out that part which contains the face in each of the circles, and let the 4th circle be entire; as it is expressed in the figure. The dresses of the needle are to be disposed in the same manner as in the plate. Next provide a small square of wood or pasteboard, fig. 21, 22, 23, 24, of the same size with the inside of the drawer. On these frames must be painted the same dresses as on the circular pasteboard; with this difference, that there must be no part of them cut out behind each of these pictures place a magnet in the same direction as is expressed in the figure, and cover them over with paper, that they may not be visible. Matters being thus prepared in the drawer the frame, fig. 24, on which the dresses are nothing painted. Then pour a small quantity of water into the ewer, and desire the person to look into it, asking them if they see the dresses as they are. Then take out the frame, fig. 24, and give the 3 others to any one, and let him choose in which of those dresses he will appear. Then put the frame with the dresses in the drawer; and a moment after a person looking into the ewer will see his own face surrounded with the dresses of that picture. The pasteboard circle, divided, as above, into 4 parts, in 3 of which are painted the dresses as on 3 of the boards, and the 4th blank, containing a magnetic needle, as above, boards having each a concealed magnet. Therefore, when one of them is put in the drawer the ewer, the circle will correspond to the position of that magnet, and consequently the person looking into the top of the ewer will see his own face surrounded with the head dress figure in the drawer.—This experiment, when formed, is highly agreeable. As the pasteboard circle can contain only three heads, you may form several such circles, but you must then use several other frames: and the ewer must be taken off from the stand.

## MAG

**MAGNETISM, ANIMAL**, a sympathy lately supposed by some persons to exist between the magnet and the human body; by means of which the former became capable of curing many diseases in an unknown way, something resembling the performances of the old magicians. The fanciful system, to call it by no worse name, of animal magnetism, appears to have originated, in 1774, from a German philosopher named *Fausermann*, who greatly recommended the use of the magnet in medicine. M. Mesmer, a physician of

## MAG

the same country, by adopting the principles of Fausermann, became the direct founder of the sect; but, afterwards deviating from the tenets of his instructor, he lost his patronage, as well as the favour of Dr Ingenhouthz, which he had formerly enjoyed. Mesmer had already distinguished his system by a dissertation on the influence of the fluid in the human body, which he publicly delivered at the university of Vienna; but he was so unable to stand before the opposition of Mesmer and Ingenhouthz, that his system fell

ntly into disrepute. Mesmer appealed to the  
 lemy of sciences at Berlin; but they rejected  
 principles as destitute of foundation, and un-  
 worthy of the smallest attention. He then made  
 ur through Germany, publishing every where  
 great cures he performed by means of his  
 al magnetism, while his opponents every  
 re pursued him with detestations of the false-  
 of his assertions. Mesmer still undaunted  
 for many defeats, returned to Vienna; but  
 ting there with no better success than before,  
 retired to Paris in the beginning of 1778. Here  
 met with a very different reception. He was  
 patronized by the author of the *Dictionnaire*  
*Mercurielles de la Nature*; in which work a great  
 ber of his cures were published, Mesmer him-  
 receiving likewise an ample testimony of his  
 our and solid reasoning. He soon collected  
 ents, and, in April 1778, retired with them  
 eteil, whence he in a short time returned  
 them perfectly cured. His success was now  
 great as his disappointment had been before.  
 ents increased so rapidly that he was soon o-  
 ed to take in pupils to assist him in his opera-  
 e. These pupils succeeded as well as Mesmer  
 self; and so well did they take care of their  
 emolument, that one of them, named M.  
 on, realized upwards of 100,000 l. Sterling.  
 779, Mesmer published a *Memoir on Animal*  
*magnetism*, promising afterwards a complete work  
 n the subject, which should make as great a  
 lution in philosophy as it had already done in  
 icine. The new system now gained ground  
 y; and soon became so fashionable, that the  
 ay of the faculty was thoroughly awakened,  
 an application concerning it was made to go-  
 vment. In consequence of this a committee  
 appointed to inquire into the matter, con-  
 ing partly of physicians and partly of members  
 le royal academy of sciences, with Dr Benja-  
 Franklin at their head. This was a thunder-  
 bolt to the supporters of the new doctrine.—  
 Mesmer himself refused to have any communica-  
 . with the committee; but his most celebra-  
 pupil D. Flouin was less scrupulous, and explained  
 principles of his art in the following manner:  
 Animal magnetism is an universal fluid, con-  
 stituting an absolute plenum in nature, and the  
 sum of all mutual influence between the celest-  
 bodies, and betwixt the earth and animal bo-  
 . 2. It is the most subtle fluid in nature; ca-  
 ble of a flux and reflux, and of receiving, pro-  
 ducing, and continuing all kinds of motion. 3.  
 animal body is subjected to the influences of  
 fluid by means of the nerves, which are im-  
 mediately affected by it. 4. The human body has  
 s and other properties analogous to the mag-  
 . 5. The action and virtue of animal magne-  
 . may be communicated from one body to  
 ther, whether animate or inanimate. 6. It o-  
 ces at a great distance without the interven-  
 of any body. 7. It is increased and reflected  
 mirrors; communicates, propagates, and in-  
 creases by sound; and may be accumulated, con-  
 centrated, and transported. 8. Notwithstanding  
 universality of this fluid, all animal bodies are  
 equally affected by it; on the other hand,  
 e are some, though but few in number, the

presence of which destroys all the effects of ani-  
 mal magnetism. 9. By means of this fluid ner-  
 vous disorders are cured immediately, and others  
 mediately; and its virtues, in short, extend to  
 the universal cure and preservation of mankind.  
 From this extraordinary theory, Mesmer or M.  
 Defflon, had fabricated a paper, in which he stat-  
 ed that there was in nature but one disease and  
 one cure, and that this cure was animal magne-  
 tism. To ascertain the truth of these assertions,  
 the committee attended M. Defflon, in the room  
 where his patients underwent his magnetical ope-  
 rations. The apparatus consisted of a circular  
 plat-form made of oak, 12 feet high; with a num-  
 ber of holes at the top, in which were iron rods  
 with moveable joints, for the purpose of applying  
 them to any part of the body. The patients were  
 placed in a circle around it, each touching one  
 of these rods, and joined to one another, by a  
 cord passing round their bodies. Each of them  
 held an iron rod in his hand 10 or 12 feet long,  
 to concentrate the magnetism. M. Defflon al-  
 called in the aid of music, from a piano forte; on  
 which some airs were played, accompanied with  
 songs; alleging that music is a conductor of ani-  
 mal magnetism, which is transmitted to the pa-  
 tients by the sounds. The internal part of the  
 platform was said to concentrate the magnetism,  
 and was the reservoir whence the virtue was dis-  
 fused among the patients. The committee sat-  
 isfied themselves, by means of a needle and electro-  
 meter, that neither common magnetism nor elec-  
 tricity was concerned. Dr Defflon also commu-  
 nicated the magnetism by his finger, and a rod  
 which he held in his hand, and which he carried  
 about the face, head, or such parts of the patient  
 as were diseased. His principal application, how-  
 ever, was by pressure of his hands or fingers on  
 the lower regions of the stomach. The effects of  
 these operations upon his patients were very dif-  
 ferent. Some felt nothing; others spit, coughed,  
 sweat, and felt, or pretended to feel, extraordi-  
 nary heats in different parts of the body. Many  
 women, but very few men, had convulsions, which  
 Defflon called their crisis, &c. The commis-  
 sioners at last finding they could come to no satis-  
 factory conclusion, while they attended in this pu-  
 blic way, determined to try the experiments them-  
 selves privately. Accordingly they 1. Tried the  
 effects of animal magnetism upon themselves, and  
 felt nothing. 2. Seven of Defflon's patients were  
 magnetized at Dr Franklin's house, of whom 4  
 felt nothing; 3 felt, or affected to feel something.  
 3. Several persons in a higher sphere of life were  
 magnetized, and felt nothing. 4. The commis-  
 sioners, now determined to discover what none  
 imagination had in this business, blindfolded a  
 great number of the common people, and made them  
 sometimes think that they were magnetized, at other  
 times they magnetized them without letting them  
 know that they did so; the consequence was, that  
 when they supposed themselves magnetized, they  
 likewise thought they felt something, and else-  
 wise they felt nothing. 5. A mulctree tree was said to produce  
 convulsions; a young man, blindfolded, fell into  
 convulsions, when he imagined himself near the  
 tree, though he was really at a considerable dis-  
 tance from it. Defflon accounted for this on the

principle of all trees being magnetic: but in this case, every one, susceptible of magnetism, would be seized with convulsions when he approached a tree. The same influence of imagination was observed in a woman accustomed to have convulsions when magnetised. They came on when nothing was done to her, on being told, when blinded, that she was magnetised. Other instances were given, from which it was evident, either that the patients were impostors, or in such a wretched state of debility both of mind and body, that the most trifling effects of the former had the most powerful effects on the latter. The commissioners therefore entirely disapproved of the whole. The touch, imitation, and imagination, they concluded, were the great causes of the effects produced by Mr Deslon's operations; and by means of these they supposed that convulsions, which in themselves are a very violent disorder, might be spread much farther than could be wished, even through a whole city. It was observed that the operator sometimes pressed strongly, and for a long time, upon the hypochondria and pit of the stomach; and it is well known that a strong pressure on these parts will produce disagreeable sensations in those who enjoy perfect health. Mesmer complained of the report of the commissioners, petitioned parliament, and was by them commanded to discover the mysteries of his doctrine; which is now universally exploded. The conclusion of the academicians concerning it was, that it is not entirely useless to philosophy; as it affords one *fait* more to be added to the history of the errors and illusions of the human mind, and a signal instance of the power of imagination.

MAGNICOURT, a town of France, in the dep. of the Strate of Cahors; 6 m. S.W. of St. Pol.

MAGNIZ, Nicolas, a learned and laborious ecclesiastic, who died in 1749 at an advanced age. He composed an excellent Latin dictionary, entitled *Nomen*, printed at Paris 1721 and 1722; 2 vols 4to. This dictionary, besides the words in the classics, contains all those which occur in the Bible, the breviary, and ecclesiastical authors, the terms of art, the names of great men, bishops, councils, heresies, &c.; in short, more than 60,000 words which are not to be found in the common dictionaries.

\* MAGNIFIABLE, *adj.* [from *magnus*.] Worthy to be extolled or praised. Unchangeable—Noble, though wonderful in itself, and unchangeably *magnifiable* from its demonstrable perfection, hath yet received objections from the multiplying conceits of men. *Bacon*.

\* MECHANICAL MAGNETIC, *adj.* [from *magnus*, I. (ind.)] Attractive; grand; great; noble. Proper, but little used.—The iron that is to be pulled for the Lord must be exceeding *magnetically* of fine and of glory. 1 *Chro.* xxii. 3.

T'rence, domination; pre-eminence, virtue, power.

If there *magnific* titles yet remain,  
Not merely vulgar. *Alston*.

O parent! there are thy *magnific* deeds;  
Thy triumphs! *Milton*.

\* MAGNIFICENCE, *n. f.* [from *magnus*, Latin.] Grandeur of appearance; splendour.—

Nor want we skill or art, from whence  
*Magnificence*.

No Babylon,  
Nor great Alcairo, such *magnificence*  
Equal'd in all her glories.

—One may observe more splendour and  
*cence* in particular persons houses in Gene  
in those that belong to the publick. *Add*

\* MAGNIFICENT, *adj.* [from *magnificus*.]  
1. Grand in appearance; splendid; pompous.  
Man he made, and for him built  
*Magnificent* this world.

—It is suitable to the *magnificent* harmon  
universe, that the species of creatures sh  
gentle degrees, ascend upward from us  
his perfection, as we see they gradually  
from us downwards. *Locke*—

When Rome's exalted beauties I de  
*Magnificent* in piles of ruin lie.

2. Fond of splendor; setting greatness  
—If he were *magnificent*, he spent with  
ring intent: if he spared, he heaped with  
ring intent. *Sidney*.

\* MAGNIFICENTLY, *adv.* [from *magnificus*.]  
Pompously; splendidly.—

Beauty a monarch is,  
Which kingly power *magnificently* pro  
By crowds of slaves and peopled empire

—We can never conceive too highly of  
neither too *magnificently* of nature, h  
work. *Greco*.

\* MAGNIFICO, *n. f.* [Italian.] A gr  
Venice.—

The duke himself, and the *magnifico*  
Of greater port, have all proceeded w

\* MAGNIFIER, *n. f.* from *magnifico*.  
that praises; an encomiast; an extoll  
praise *magnifier* of this star were t  
the, who notwithstanding chiefly regard  
relation to their river Nilus. *Bacon*:  
that exceeds the bulk of any object.

\* To MAGNIFY, *v. a.* [from *magnifico*.] 1.  
To make great; to exaggerate; to  
to exalt.—The ambassador, making his  
did to *magnify* the king and queen, as w  
to glut the flatterers. *Bacon*. 2. To exal  
vate; to raise in estimation.—

Thus that day  
Thy thunders *magnify* him.

3. To raise in public opinion or pretension.—He  
all his *magnify* himself above every  
—If ye will *magnify* yourselves against  
now that God will overthrow you. *J*  
—He shall *magnify* himself in his heart.

4. To enlarge the bulk of any ob  
eye.—How thick red globules would  
gules could be found that could *mag*  
a thousand times more, is uncertain. *J*

By true reflection I would see my  
Way being the best *magnifying* way  
—The greatest *magnifying* glasses make  
a man's eyes when they look upon an  
atom. *Plut*—

As things seem large which we thro  
defery,  
Dullness is ever apt to *magnify*.

word for to *have effect*.—My governers father I had wanted for nothing; that oft eaten up with the green sickness: *agnifed* but little with my father. *Spef.*IFYING, *part.* in optics, the making obar larger than they would otherwise do; convex lenses, which do this, are called *glaffes*. See OPTICS.  
ISA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Narently called MAGNESIA; 60 miles N.

ISI, a peninsula of Sicily, in the valley 6 miles N. of Syracuse.

MAGNITUDE. *n. f.* [*magnitudo*, Latin.] *is*; grandeur.—

ith plain heroic *magnitude* of mind, estial vigour arm'd, rmories and magazines contemns. *Milt.* rative bulk.—This tree hath no exy *magnitude*, touching the trunk or s hard to find any one bigger than the *gb's History of the World*.—Never repose pon any man's single council, fidelity ion, in managing affairs of the first *mag-* to create in yourself, or others, a diffi- our own judgment. *K. Charles*.— I behold this goodly frame, this world, en and earth consisting; and compute *magnitudes*; this earth, a spot, a grain, n, with the firmament compar'd. *Milt.* ince the world that you're devout and e;

er be your birth, you're sure to be of the first *magnitude* to me. *Dryden*. e these particles of bodies to be so dis- ongst themselves, that the intervals of ces between them may be equal in *mag-* hem all; and that these particles may sed of other particles much smal- have as much empty space between uals all the *magnitudes* of these smal- es. *Newton*.

MAGNITUDE is applied to any thing made s locally extended, or having several di- as a line, surface, solid, &c.

MAGNOLIA, the LAURFL-LAIVED TULIP botany, a genus of the polygynia order, to the polyandria class of plants; and aral method ranking under the 52d or- *az.* The calyx is triphyllous; there etals; the capules bivalved and imbri- e seeds pendulous, and in the form of There are 4 species: viz.

MAGNOLIA ACUMINATA, with oval, spear- pointed leaves, is a native of the inland orth America. The leaves are near 8 g, and 5 broad; ending in a point. The me out early in spring, and are com- a white petals; the wood is of a fine an orange colour.

MAGNOLIA GLAUCA, the small magnolia, of Virginia, Carolina, and other parts America. In moist places it rises from 15 or 16 feet high, with a slender stem. is white and spongy, the bark smooth greenish white colour; the branches with thick smooth leaves, of an oval both on their edges, and white under- **III. PAR II.**

neath. The flowers are produced at the extre- mities of the branches, are white, composed of six concave petals, and have an agreeable scent. The fruit increases in size till it becomes as large as a walnut with its cover; but of a conical shape, having many cells round the outside, in each of which is a flat seed about the size of a small kidney-bean, and of a brown colour. The seeds are discharged from their cells, and hang by a slender thread. This species generally grows in a poor swampy soil, or on wet meadows. The English and Swedes in Pennsylvania and New Jersey call it *beaver tree*, because the root of it is the food of beavers, which are caught by its means. It drops its leaves early in autumn, though some of the young trees keep them all winter. It is seldom found N. of Pennsylvania, where it begins to flower about the end of May. The scent of its blossoms are exquisite, can be perceived at the distance of 3 quarters of an English mile, provided the wind be not against it. It is extremely agreeable to travel in the woods about that time. They retain their flowers for 3 weeks, or longer, according to the soil, spreading their odoriferous exhalations. The berries likewise look very fine, having a rich red colour, and hanging in bunches on slender stalks. The cough and other pectoral diseases are cured by putting the berries into rum or brandy, and taking a draught of this tincture every morning. The virtues of this remedy are greatly extolled for their salutary effects in consumptions. The bark put into brandy, or boiled in any liquor, is said to ease pectoral diseases and to be of service against all internal pains and heat: and it was thought that a decoction of it could stop the dysentery. Even the branches of the tree boiled in water, gives great relief in cases of cold. *Kalm*.

3. MAGNOLIA GRANDIFLORA, the *great magnolia*, is a native of Florida and S. Carolina. It rises to 80 feet or more, with a straight trunk above 2 feet in diameter, and a regular head. The leaves resemble those of the laurel, but are larger, and continue green throughout the year. The flowers are produced at the ends of the branches, and are of a purplish white colour.

4. MAGNOLIA TRIPETALA, the *umbrella tree*, is a native of Carolina. It rises, with a slender trunk, to 16 or 20 feet; the wood is soft and spongy; the leaves very large, and produced in horizontal circles, somewhat resembling an umbrella; whence the inhabitants of those countries have given it this name. The flowers are composed of 10 or 11 white petals, hanging down without order. The leaves drop off at the beginning of winter.—All these species are propagated by seeds, which must be procured from the places where they grow naturally. They should be put up in sand, and sent over as soon as possible; for they seldom grow if kept long out of the ground.

(1.) MAGNUS, Albertus, a Dominican friar, afterwards Bp. of Ratibon, was one of the most learned men and most famous doctors of the 13th century. He is said to have acted as a man-midwife. A book entitled *De Natura Rerum*, of which he was reputed the author, gave rise to this report. In this treatise there are several instructions for midwives, and so much skill shown

in their art, that the author could not have arrived at it without having himself practised; but the advocates for Albert say he was not the writer thereof, nor of another piece entitled *Alberti Magni De Secretis Mullerum*; in which there are many expressions unavoidable on such a subject, which raised a great clamour against the supposed author. It must be confessed, that there are in his *Comment upon the Master of Sentences*, some questions concerning conjugal duty, in which he has used some words rather too gross for chaste ears: but he used to say in his vindication, that he came to the knowledge of so many monstrous things at confession, that it was impossible to avoid touching upon such questions. Albertus Magnus was certainly a man of a most inquisitive turn of mind, which gave rise to other accusations; such as, that he laboured to find out the philosopher's stone; that he was a magician; and that he made a machine in the shape of a man, which was an oracle to him, and explained all the difficulties he proposed. He had great knowledge in the mathematics, and by his skill in that science might probably have formed a head with springs capable of articulate sounds. (See AUTOMATON, § 2.) John Matheus de Luna, in his treatise *De Rebus Inventoribus*, has attributed the invention of fire-arms to Albert; but in this he is confuted by Naude, in his *Apologie des Grands Hommes*. Many fables are told of him by Bayle and others; such as that the virgin Mary appeared to him, and offered him his choice of excelling in philosophy or divinity, &c. He died at Cologne, Nov. 15. 1280. His works were printed at Lyons, in 1651, in 21 volumes in folio.

(2.) MAGNUS, JOHN, Abp. of Upsal, was born at Linköping in 1172. Being made apostolical nuncio, he used his utmost endeavours to prevent Gustavus Vasa from becoming king of Sweden, and the introduction of Lutheranism into his dominions. He died at Rome in 1545. He wrote a history of Sweden, and a history of the archbishops and bishops of Upsal.

(3.) MAGNUS, OLAV, Abp. of Upsal, succeeded his brother (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) in 1544. He appeared with great credit at the council of Trent in 1546, and finished his journey for the Catholic religion. He wrote A History of the Manners, Customs, and Wars of the Northern Nations of Europe.

(4.) MAGNUS CASTRUS, in ancient geography, a tract lying towards Scythopolis, or Bethshan in Galilee, beyond which it extends into Samaria; and is supposed the common boundary between these two parts in the Camp of Magus. It was the name of a *Tabula* (Table); 30 miles long, and 13 broad, lying Samaria with mount Ephraim on the S. the Genezareth on the E. mount Carmel on the W. and Lebanon on the N.

(5.) MAGNUS PORTUS, in ancient geography, a part of the B. Sea, in Britain, on the Channel; and thought to be PORTSMOUTH.

(6.) MAGNUS PORTUS, a town of Hispania Bætica, in Africa.

(7.) MAGNY, a town of France, in the dep. of Yonne, 8 miles S. of Nevers, and 6 N. of St. Etienne.

(2.) MAGNY, a town of France, in the the Seine and Oise, 30 miles NW. of Paris.

(1.) MAGO, the name of several Cartl generals. See CARTHAGE, § 4.

(2.) MAGO, in ancient geography, a cit town of Balearis Minor or Minorca; sov MAHON. Lon. 4. 6. E. Lat. 39. 5. N.

(3.) MAGO, a town of Ceylon, 98 m of Candi.

MAGOAR, a town of France, in the North Coasts; 10 miles S. of Guingamp.

MAGONTIACUM, MOGONTIACUM, GONTIACUS, shortened by the poets to M TIA, MAGUNTIA, and MOGUNTIA; a t Gallia Belgica; now called Mentz. See t

MAGOPHONIA, (from *μαγοφονία*, mago *φόνος*, slaughter,) a festival among the Persians, held in memory of the expulsi massacre of the Magians. See MAGI, and I

(1.) \* MAGPIE. (from *n. f. pie, pica*, I mag, contracted from *Margaret*, as *philis u* sparrow, and *poll* to a parrot.) A bird son taught to talk.—

Augurs, that understood relations, h By magpies and by choughs, and rooks l forth

The secret'st man of blood.—  
—Disimulation is expressed by a lady w vizard of two faces, in her right hand a which Spenser described looking through a Peacham.—

So have I seen in black and white,  
A prating thing, a magpie height,  
Majestically talk;

A stately worthless animal,  
That plies the tongue, and wags the tail.  
All butter, pride, and talk.

(2.) MAGPIE. See CUCKOO, N<sup>o</sup> 12.

(1.) MAGRA, or MAGORA, a river which rises in the Apennines, near M through the valley (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) and falls into the Mediterranean, 3 miles S. of Sarzana, in I

(2.) MAGRA, THE VALLEY OF, in S. Eruca, 25 miles long and 15 broad.

MAGUILLONE, a lake in France, in t of Herault, and the prov. of Linguene; 102 to Dr Bouché, near a town in the east of the Mediterranean, into w lake runs by the eastern coast of I See CLAVI, § 6. His Clavien places a de part of the Coast.

\* MAGYDARE, *n. f.* [*magydans*, I. herb. *h. b.*]

MAGYDARE, a considerable town of central Asia, famous for its trade in cotton, silkens, &c. Lon 51. 31. E. 52. N.

MAGY, a town and fort of Indes, east of Madag. 6 miles SE. of Tanca 30 NW. of Cicut. It was taken by the French, Decem. Aug. 1773.

MAGY, in botany, a genus of t aquatic order, belonging to the penant of plants.

MAGY, the name given by the Ind O. to the root of a tree, the fruit of which bread-fruit, when, in consequence of



zone a fermentation, will keep a considerable time, and supply them with food when no ripe fruit is to be had. See *ARTOCARUS*, § 4. **MALIC**. See *HIBISCUS*, N<sup>o</sup> 6. **MALIOCAN**. See *SWEETENIA*. **(I.) MAHOMET**, or **MOHAMMED**, the *Impostor*, Emperor of Persia, A. D. 571. He came into the world under some disadvantages. His father **Abdallah** was a younger son of **Abdalmotaleb**; and being very young, left his widow and infant son very mean circumstances, his whole substance consisting but of 5 camels and one Ethiopian female slave. **Abdalmotaleb** was therefore obliged to take care of his grandchild, which he not only did during his life, but at his death enjoined it on his son **Abu Taleb**, who was full brother **Abdallah**, to provide for him afterwards. This very affectionately did, and instructed him in the business of a merchant, for which purpose he took him to Syria when he was only 13. He afterwards recommended him to **Khadijah**, a rich dowry, for her factor; in whose service he behaved so well, that she married and raised him to equality with the richest in Mecca. After this advantageous match he formed the scheme of establishing a new religion, or, as he expressed it, restoring the only true and ancient one professed by Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, &c. all the prophets; by destroying the gross idolatry into which the generality of his countrymen had fallen, and weeding out the corruptions and superstitions which the latter Jews and Christians had, as he thought, introduced into their religion, and reducing it to its original purity, which consisted chiefly in the worship of one God. But before he made any attempt abroad, he resolved to begin with the conversion of his own household, and therefore retired with his family, as he had done several times before, to a cave in ancient times, he there opened the secret of his mission to his wife; and acquainted her, that the angel Gabriel had appeared to him, and told him that **was appointed** the apostle of God; he also related to her a passage which he pretended had been revealed to him by the angel, with those other circumstances of this first appearance, which are related by the Mahometan writers. **Khadijah** received the news with great joy; swearing by Allah in whose hands her soul was, that the truth he would be the prophet of his nation; and immediately communicated what she had heard to her cousin **Warakah Ebn Nawfal**, who, being a Christian, could write in the Hebrew character, and was tolerably well versed in the scriptures; he as readily came into her opinion, assuring her that the same angel who had formerly appeared unto Moses was now sent to Mahomet. The next overture the prophet made was in the month Ramadan, in the 40th year of his age, which is before usually called the year of his mission. He encouraged, he resolved to proceed, and for some time what he could do by private suggestion, not daring to hazard the whole affair by exposing it too suddenly to the public. He soon made proselytes of those under his own roof; viz. his servant **Zaid Ebn Haretha**, to whom

he gave his freedom on that occasion, (which afterwards became a rule to his followers), and his cousin and pupil **Ali**, the son of **Abu Taleb**, tho' then very young; but this last, making no account of the other two, used to style himself the *first of believers*. The next person Mahomet applied to was **Abdallah Ebn Abu Kehala**, surnamed **Abu-Bekr**, a man of great authority among the Koreish, and one whose interest he knew would be of great service, as it soon appeared: for **Abu Bekr** being gained over, prevailed on **Othman Ebn Affan**, **Abdallah Ebn Awf**, **Saad Ebn Abbi Wakkas**, **al Zobeir Ebn al Awwam**, and **Talha Ebn Obaidallah**, all principal men of Mecca, to follow his example. These men were the six chief companions, who, with a few more, were converted in 3 years: at the end of which, Mahomet having, as he hoped, a sufficient interest to support him, made his mission no longer a secret, but gave out that God had commanded him to admonish his near relations; and to do it with more convenience and prospect of success, he directed **Ali** to prepare an entertainment, and invite the sons and descendants of **Abdalmotaleb**, intending then to open his mind to them. This was done, and about 40 of them came; but **Abu Laheeb**, one of his uncles, making the company break up before Mahomet had an opportunity of speaking, obliged him to give them a second invitation the next day; and when they were come, he made them the following speech: "I know no man in all Arabia who can offer his kindred a more excellent thing than I now do you: I offer you happiness both in this life, and in that which is to come; God Almighty hath commanded me to call you unto him: Who, therefore, among you will be assiduous to me here, and become my brother and my vicegerent?" All of them listening, **Ali** rose up, and declared, that he would be his assistant; and vehemently threatened those who should oppose him. Mahomet upon this embraced **Ali**, and desired all who were present to obey him as his deputy; at which the company broke out into a fit of laughter, and told **Abu Taleb** that he must now pay obedience to his son. This repulse, however, was so far from discouraging Mahomet, that he began to preach in public to the people; who heard him with patience till he began to upbraid them with their idolatry, obstinacy, and perverseness; which highly provoked them. The chief of the Koreish warmly solicited **Abu Taleb** to desert his nephew, remonstrated against the innovations he was attempting; and threatened him with an open rupture, if he did not prevail on Mahomet to desist. On this **Abu Taleb** earnestly dissuaded his nephew from pursuing the affair any further, representing the great danger he and his friends must otherwise run. But Mahomet told his uncle plainly, that if they set the face against him on his right hand, and the moon on his left, he would not leave his enterprise; and **Abu Taleb**, seeing him so firmly resolved to proceed, promised to stand by him against all opposition. The Koreish, then tried what they could do by force, using Mahomet's followers to very injudiciously, that it was not safe for them to continue at Mecca: whereupon Mahomet gave leave to such of them as had not

friends to protect them to seek for refuge elsewhere. And accordingly in the 5th year of his mission, 12 men and 4 women fled into Ethiopia; among whom were Othman Ebn Affan and his wife Rakiab, Mahomet's daughter. This was the first flight; but afterwards they were followed by 83 men and 18 women, besides children. These refugees were kindly received by the Najashi, or king of Ethiopia; who refused to deliver them up to the Koreish; and, as the Arab writers unanimously attest, even professed the Mahometan religion. In the 6th year of his mission, Mahomet had the pleasure of seeing his party strengthened by the conversion of his uncle Hamza, a man of great valour and merit; and of Omar Ebn al Kattab, a person highly esteemed, and once a violent opposer of the prophet. Islamism now made so great a progress among the Arab tribes, that the Koreish, to suppress it effectually, in the 7th year of Mahomet's mission, made a solemn league against the Hashemites and the family of Abdalmotaleb, engaging themselves to contract no marriages with any of them, and to have no communication with them; and, to give it the greater sanction, reduced it into writing, and laid it up in the Caaba. Upon this the tribe became divided into two factions: and the family of Hashem all repaired to Abu Taleb as their head: except only Abdal Uzza, surnamed *Abu Labeb*, who, out of hatred to his nephew and his doctrine, went over to the opposite party, whose chief was Abu Sofian Ebn Harb, of the family of Ommeya. The families continued thus at variance for 3 years: but in the 10th year of his mission, Mahomet told Abu Taleb, that God had manifestly showed his disapprobation of the league which the Koreish had made against them, by sending a worm to eat out every word of the instrument except the name of *God*. Of this accident Mahomet had probably some private notice; for Abu Taleb went immediately to the Koreish, and acquainted them with it; offering, if it proved false, to deliver his nephew up to them; but in case it were true, he insisted that they ought to lay aside their animosity, and annul the league they had made against the Hashemites. To this they acquiesced; and going to inspect the writing, to their great astonishment found it to be as Abu Taleb had said: and the league was thereupon declared void. In the same year Abu Taleb died, aged above 80; and many writers say, he died an infidel: though others say, that when he was at the point of death he embraced Mahometanism; and in proof of this produce some passages out of his poetical compositions. About a month, or as some write, 3 days after his uncle's death, Mahomet had the additional mortification to lose his wife Khadijah; whence this year is called *the year of mourning*. The Koreish began now to be more troublesome than ever to the prophet, and especially some who had formerly been his intimate friends; insomuch that he found himself obliged to seek for shelter elsewhere, and first pitched upon Tayef, about 60 miles E. of Mecca, for the place of his retreat. Thither therefore he went, accompanied by his servant Zaid, and applied himself to two of the chief of the tribe of Thaklan who were the inhabitants of that place; but they received him very coldly.

However, he staid there a month; and some of the more considerate treated him with respect; but the slaves and inferior people rose against him, and obliged him to return to Mecca, where he put himself under the protection of Al Motan Ebn Adi. This repulse greatly discouraged his followers. However, Mahomet boldly continued to preach to the public assemblies at the pilgrimage, and gained several proselytes; and among them six of the inhabitants of Yathreb of the Jewish tribe of Khazraj; who, on their return home, failed not to speak much in commendation of their new religion, and exhorted their fellow-citizens to embrace it. In the 12th year of his mission, Mahomet gave out that he had made his miraculous night journey from Mecca to Jerusalem, and thence to heaven. Dr Pridaux thinks he invented it, either to answer the expectations of those who demanded some miracle as a proof of his mission; or else, by pretending to have conversed with God, to establish the authority of way of oral tradition, and make his sayings to serve the same purpose as the oral law of the Jews. But it does not appear that Mahomet himself ever expected so great a regard should be paid to his sayings, as his followers have since done: and seeing he all along disclaimed any power of performing miracles, it seems rather to have been a fetch of policy to raise his reputation, by pretending to have actually conversed with God in heaven, as Moses had heretofore done in the mount, and to have received several institutions immediately from him, whereas before he contented himself with pretending them, that he had all by the ministry of Gabriel. However, this story seemed so absurd and incredible, that several of his followers left him upon it; and had probably ruined the whole design, had not Abu Beer vouched for his veracity, and declared, that, if Mahomet affirmed it to be true, he verily believed the whole. This not only retrieved the prophet's credit, but increased it to such a degree, that he might now make his disciples swallow whatever he pleased. And this fiction, notwithstanding its extravagance, was one of the most artful contrivances Mahomet ever put in practice, and what chiefly contributed to raise his reputation to that great height to which it afterwards arrived. In this year, called by the Mahometans *the accepted year*, 12 men of Yathreb or Medina, of whom 10 were of the tribe of Khazraj, and two of that of Aws, came to Mecca, and took an oath of fidelity to Mahomet at Akaba, a hill on the N. of that city. The oath was called *the women's oath*; not that any women were present at this time, but because it was the same oath that was afterwards exacted of the women, the form of which is in the Koran, and runs to this effect: That they should renounce all idolatry; and they should not steal, nor commit fornication, nor kill their children (as the Pagan Arabs used to do when they apprehended they should not be able to maintain them), nor forge calumnies; and that they should obey the prophet in all things that were reasonable. When they had solemnly engaged to all this, Mahomet sent one of his disciples, named *Masab Ebn Omair*, home with them.

instruct them more fully in his new religion. He being arrived at Medina, by the assistance of those who had been formerly converted, gained several proselytes, particularly Osaïd Ebn Horra, a chief man of the city, and Saad Ebn Sâd, prince of the tribe of Aws; Mahometan spreading so fast, that there was scarce a household in there were not some who had embraced it.

In the 12th year of Mahomet's mission, he returned to Mecca, accompanied by 73 men and two women of Medina who had professed Islam, besides some others who were as yet unconverted. On their arrival, they immediately sent Mahomet, and offered him their assistance, of which he was now in great need; for his adversaries were by this time grown so powerful in Mecca, that he could not stay there much longer without imminent danger. Wherefore he accepted their proposal, and met them one night, by appointment, at Akaba, attended by his uncle Abbas; who, though he was not then a believer, wished his nephew well, and made speech to those of Medina; wherein he told them, that as Mahomet was obliged to quit his native city, and seek an asylum elsewhere, and if he had offered him their protection, they would well not to deceive him; that if they were not fully resolved to defend, and not betray him, they had better declare their minds, and let him provide for his safety in some other manner. Upon their protesting their sincerity, Mahomet swore to be faithful to them, on condition that they should protect him against all insults as readily as they would their own wives and families. They then asked him what recompence they were to expect if they should happen to be killed in his quarrel; he answered, Paradise. Whereupon they pledged their faith to him, and returned home; after Mahomet had chosen 12 of their number, who were to have the same authority among them as the 12 apostles of Christ among his disciples. Hitherto Mahomet had propagated his religion by fair means; so that the great success of his enterprise, before his flight to Medina, must be attributed to persuasion only, and not to compulsion. For before this solemn oath taken at Akaba, he had no permission to use any force at all; and in several verses of the Koran, which he pretended were revealed during his stay at Mecca, he declares his mission was only to preach and admonish; that he had no authority to compel any person to embrace his religion; and that, whether people believed or not, was none of his concern, but belonged solely unto God. And he was so far from allowing his followers to use force, that he exhorted them to bear patiently those injuries which he offered them on account of their faith; and, when persecuted himself, chose rather to quit the city of his birth and retire to Medina, than to offer any resistance. But this great passiveness and moderation seem entirely owing to his want of power, and the great superiority of his opposers; for the first 12 years of his mission; for no power was he enabled, by the assistance of those of Medina, to make head against his enemies, and he gave out, that God had allowed him and his followers to defend themselves against the in-

fidels; and at length, as his forces increased, he pretended to have the divine leave to attack them, to destroy idolatry, and set up the true faith by the sword. That Mahomet had a right to take up arms for his own defence against his unjust persecutors, must doubtless be allowed; but this gave him no right to use them for establishing his religion. It is certainly one of the most convincing proofs that Mahometanism was no other than a human invention, that it owed its progress and establishment almost entirely to the sword; and it is one of the strongest demonstrations of the divine original of Christianity, that it prevailed against all the opposition, and power of the Pagan world by the mere force of its own truth, after having stood the assaults of all manner of persecution for 300 years together. Mahomet, having provided for the security of his companions as well as his own, by the league offensive and defensive which he concluded with those of Medina, directed them to repair thither, which they accordingly did; but himself with Abu Beer and Ali staid behind. The Koreish fearing the consequence of this new alliance, began to think it absolutely necessary to prevent Mahomet's escape to Medina; and having held a council thereon, they came to a resolution that he should be killed; and agreed that a man should be chosen out of every tribe for the execution of this design; and that each man should have a blow at him with his sword, that the guilt of his blood might fall equally on all the tribes, to whose united power the Hashemites were much inferior, and therefore durst not attempt to revenge their kinsman's death. This conspiracy was scarce formed, when the news of it reached Mahomet, who gave out that it was revealed to him by the angel Gabriel, who ordered him to retire to Medina. Whereupon, in order to amuse his enemies, he directed Ali to lie down in his place, and wrap himself up in his green cloak, which he did; and Mahomet escaped to Abu Beer's house, unperceived by the conspirators, who had already assembled at the prophet's door. They, in the mean time, looking through the crevice, and seeing Ali, whom they took to be Mahomet himself, asleep, continued watching there till morning, when Ali awoke, and they found themselves deceived. From Abu Beer's house Mahomet and he went to a cave in mount Thur, SE. of Mecca, accompanied only by Amer Ebn Foheirah, Abu Beer's servant, and Abdallah Ebn Oreitah, an idolater whom they had hired for a guide. In this cave they lay hid 3 days, to avoid their enemies, whom they very narrowly escaped, and not without the assistance of more miracles than one: for some say that the Koreish were struck with blindness, so that they could not find the cave; others, that after Mahomet and his companions were got in, two pigeons laid their eggs at the entrance, and a spider covered the mouth of the cave with her web, which made them look no farther. Their enemies being retired, they left the cave, and set out for Medina, by a by-road; and having fortunately escaped some who were sent to pursue them, arrived safely at that city; whither Ali followed them in 3 days. The first thing Mahomet did after his arrival at Medina, was to build a temple for his religious

ligious worship, and a house for himself, which he did on a parcel of ground which belonged to Sahal and Soheil the orphan sons of Amru. This action Dr Prideaux exclaims against, as a flagrant act of injustice, to these poor orphans; and says he thus founded the first fabric of his worship with the like wickedness as he did his religion. But the Mahometan writers set this affair in a quite different light; one saying, that the young men insisted he would accept the ground as a present; while others affirm that he actually bought it, and that the money was paid by Abu Beer. Mahomet, being thus settled at Medina, began to send out small parties to make reprisals on the Koreish; the first consisting of only 9 men, who plundered a caravan belonging to that tribe, and took two prisoners. But what established his reputation, and laid the foundation of all his succeeding greatness, was the gaining of the battle of Bedr, fought in the 2d year of the Hegira. Some reckon no less than 27 expeditions wherein Mahomet was personally present, in 9 of which he gave battle, besides several others, in which he was not present. His forces he maintained partly by the contributions of his followers, which he called *sacat* or *alms*, and the paying of which he very artfully made an article of his religion; and partly by ordering one 5th of the plunder to be brought into the public treasury for that purpose. In a few years, by the success of his arms, (though he was sometimes defeated,) he considerably raised his credit and power. In the 6th year of the Hegira he set out with 12000 men to visit the temple of Mecca, not with any intent of committing hostilities, but in a peaceable manner. However, when he came to Bakkilidya, which is partly within and partly without the sacred territory, the Koreish sent to let him know that they would not permit him to enter Mecca; whereupon he resolved to attack the city; but the people of Mecca sending Arwa Ebn Masud, prince of the tribe of Thakuf, as their ambassador, to desire peace, a truce was concluded for ten years, by which any person was allowed to enter into league either with Mahomet, or with the Koreish, as he thought fit. To show the inconceivable veneration the Mahometans by this time had for their prophet, we may mention the account which the above-mentioned ambassador gave the Koreish, of their behaviour. He said he had been at the courts both of the Roman emperor and of the king of Persia, but never saw any prince so highly respected by his subjects as Mahomet was by his companions: for, when he made the ablution, before prayers, they ran and caught the water that he had used; when he spit, they licked it up; and superstitiously gathered every hair that fell from him. In the 7th year of the Hegira, Mahomet began to think of propagating his religion beyond the bounds of Arabia; and sent messengers to the neighbouring princes, with letters inviting them to embrace his doctrine. Nor was this project without some success. Khoiru Parviz, then king of Persia, received his letter with great disdain, and tore it in a passion, sending away the messenger very abruptly; which when Mahomet heard, he said *God shall tear his kingdom*. And soon after a messenger came to Mahomet from Bakhra

king of Yaman, who was a dependent on the Persians, to acquaint him that he had received orders to send him to Khoiru. Mahomet put off his answer till the next morning, and then told the messenger it had been revealed to him that night that Khoiru was slain by his son Shiruyeh; adding, that he was well assured his new religion and empire should rise to as great a height as that of Khoiru; and therefore bid him advise his master to embrace Mahometanism. The messenger being returned, Bakhra in a few days received a letter from Shiruyeh, informing him of his father's death, and ordering him to give the prophet no further disturbance. Whereupon Bakhra and the Persians with him turned Mahometans. The emperor Heraclius, as the Arabian historians affirm, received Mahomet's letter with great respect, laying it on his pillow, and dismissed the messenger honourably. Mahomet wrote to the same effect to the king of Ethiopia, though he had been converted before, according to the Arab writers; and to Mokawkas, governor of Egypt, who gave the messenger a very favourable reception, and sent several valuable presents to Mahomet, and among the rest two girls, one of whom, named Mary, became a great favourite with him. He also sent letters of the like purport to several Arab princes; particularly one to al Hareth Ebn Abi Sumer king of Ghassian, who returning for answer that he would go to Mahomet himself, the prophet said, *May his kingdom perish*: another to Hordia Ebn Ali, king of Yamama, who was a Christian, and, having some time before professed Islamism, had lately returned to his former faith; this prince sent back a very rough answer, upon which Mahomet cursing him, he died soon after; and a third to al Mondar Ebn Sawa, king of Bahra, who embraced Mahometanism, and all the Arabs of that country followed his example. The 8th year of the Hegira was a very fortunate year to Mahomet. In the beginning of it, Khaled Ebn al Walid and Amru Ebn al As, both excellent soldiers, the first of whom afterwards conquered Syria and other countries, and the latter Egypt, became proselytes to Mahometanism. And soon after the prophet sent 3000 men against the Grecian forces, to revenge the death of one of his ambassadors, who, being sent to the governor of Bofra on the same errand as those who went to the abovementioned princes, were slain by al Arab, of the tribe of Ghassian, at Muta, a town in the territory of Baika in Syria, about three days journey E. of Jerusalem, near which town they encountered. The Grecians being vastly superior in number (for, including the auxiliary Arabs, they had an army of 100,000 men), the Mahometans were repulsed in the first attack, and lost successively three of their generals, viz. Zeid Ebn Harethia Mahomet's Freed man, Jaafar the son of Abu Taleb, and Abdallah Ebn Rawziah; but Khaled Ebn al Walid succeeding to the command, overthrew the Greeks with a great slaughter, and brought away abundance of rich spoil; on occasion of which action Mahomet gave him the title of *Sif mine sword of Allah*, "one of the swords of God." In this year also Mahomet took the city of Mecca, the inhabitants whereof had broken the truce. For the tribe of Beer, who were con-

rates with the Korcish, attacking those of Azrah, who were allies of Mahomet, killed several of them, being supported in the action by a party of the Korcish themselves. The consequence of his violation was soon apprehended; and Arabian himself made a journey to Medina on purpose to head the breach and renew the truce; but in vain; for Mahomet refused to see him; whereon he applied to Abu Bcer and Ali; but they giving him no answer, he was obliged to return to Mecca as he came. Mahomet immediately ordered preparations to be made, that he might receive the Meccans while they were unprovided to receive him: in a little time he began his march thither; and by the time he came near the city, his forces were increased to 10,000 men. Those of Mecca, being unable to defend themselves against so formidable an army, surrendered at discretion; and Abu Sofian saved his life by turning Mahometan. About 28 of the idolaters were killed by a party under the command of Khaled; this happened contrary to Mahomet's orders, so, when he entered the town, pardoned all the Korcish on their submission; except 6 men and 4 women, who had apostatised, and were solemnly proscribed by the prophet himself; but of these only 3 men and 1 woman were put to death, the rest being pardoned on their embracing Mahometanism, and one of the women making her peace. The remainder of this year Mahomet employed in destroying the idols in and around Mecca, sending several of his generals on expeditions for that purpose, and to invite the Arabs to Mahometanism: wherein it is no wonder if they now were with success. The next year, being the 9th of Hegira, the Mahometans call *the year of embassies*: the Arabs had been hitherto expecting the issue of the war between Mahomet and the Korcish; so soon as that tribe, the principal of the Meccans, and the genuine descendants of Ishmael, their prerogatives none offered to dispute, had submitted, they were satisfied that it was not in their power to oppose Mahomet; and therefore they came in to him in great numbers, and sent embassies to make their submissions to him, to Mecca, while he still there, and also to Medina, whither he returned this year. Among the rest, five kings of the tribe of Hemyar professing Mahometanism, and sent ambassadors to no other name. In the 10th year, Ali was sent in person to propagate the Mahometan faith in the city of Hamdan in one day. Their example was immediately followed by all the inhabitants of that country, except only those of Najran, who, being Christians, chose rather to pay tribute. Thus Mahometanism established, and idolatry root and branch destroyed in Mahomet's life time (for he died the next year), throughout all Arabia, except only in Sanaa, where Mokilana, who set up also as a prophet as Mahomet's competitor, had a party, and was not reduced till the Khalif Abu Bcer; and the Arabs being then united in one faith, and under one prince, found themselves in a condition of making those conquests which extended the Mahometan faith over so great a part of the world.

(2—6 MAHOMET, the name of 5 emperors of the Turks, viz.

MAHOMET I. emperor of the Turks, son of Bajazet I. succeeded his brother Moses in 1413; restored the glory of the empire, which had been ravaged by Tamerlane, and made Adrianople his capital. He died in 1421, aged 47.

MAHOMET II. surnamed *the GREAT*, the 7th emperor, was born at Adrianople, the 24th March 1420; and succeeded his father Amurath II, in 1451. He took Constantinople in 1453, and thereby drove many learned Greeks into the West, which was a great cause of the restoration of learning in Europe, as the Greek literature was then introduced here. He was one of the greatest men upon record, considered merely as a conqueror; for he conquered two empires, 12 kingdoms, and 200 considerable cities. He was very ambitious of the title of *Great*, which both Turks and Christians have given him. And he was the first of the Ottoman emperors whom the Western nations dignified with the title of *Grand Signior*, or Great Turk, which posterity has preserved to his descendants. Italy had suffered greater calamities, but had never felt a terror equal to that which this sultan's victories imprinted. The inhabitants seemed already condemned to wear the turban; and Pope Sixtus IV. dreading the fate of Constantinople, thought of escaping into Provence, and transferring the holy see to Avignon. Hence, the news of Mahomet's death, which happened the 3d May 1481, was received at Rome with the greatest demonstrations of joy. Mahomet appears to have been the first sultan who was a lover of arts and sciences; and even cultivated polite letters. He often read the history of Augustus, and the other Caesars; and he perused those of Alexander, Constantine, and Theodosius, with more than ordinary pleasure, because these had reigned in the same country with himself. He was fond of painting, music, sculpture, and agriculture. He was much addicted to astrology; and used to encourage his troops by giving out, that the influence of the heavenly bodies promised him the empire of the world. Contrary to the genius of his country, he delighted so much in foreign languages that he not only spoke the Arabian, but also the Persian, Greek, and French, or corrupted Italian. Isidore, a knight of Rhodes, collected several of his letters, written in Syriac, Greek, and Turkish, and translated them into Latin. Where the originals are is unknown, but the translation has been published at Lyons 1520, in 4to; at Bonn 1725, 12mo; in a collection by Oporinus, at Marburg 1624, in 8vo; and at Leipzig, in 1753, 12mo. Prof. Melchior Junger, published at Middelburg, 1597, a collection of letters, in which there are 3 written by Mahomet II. to Suleyber. These letters have neither of Turkish freedom in that they are written in such terms, and as of a manner, as the most polite prince in Christendom could have written.

MAHOMET III. succeeded his father Amurath III. in 1596. He was a bold conqueror, and 19 of his battles to be distinguished, and 10 of his fathers wives to be drowned. He took Agria by capitulation,

capitulation, yet massacred the whole garrison. He died in 1603.

**MAHOMET IV.** was born in 1642, and succeeded in 1649, on the murder of his father Ibrahim I. He was unsuccessful in most of his enterprises. He took Caudia from the Venetians in 1669, but lost 100,000 men in the siege. He took several towns in Poland, but was repeatedly defeated by K. John Sobieski. In 1683, he besieged Vienna, but was completely routed by the Poles and Austrians. In 1687 he was deposed by the Janizaries, and succeeded by Solyman III. He died in prison in 1693.

**MAHOMET V.** the son of Mustapha II. was born in 1696, and succeeded his uncle Achmet III. on his deposition in 1730. Kouli Khan took from him Georgia and Armenia. He died in 1754.

**MAHOMETANISM, or MAHOMETISM,** the system of religion broached by Mahomet, and still adhered to by his followers. See **MAHOMET, N<sup>o</sup> 1,** and **ALCORAN.** Mahometanism is professed by the Turks, Persians, and several nations among the Africans, and many in the E. Indies. The Mahometans divide their religion into two general parts, faith and practice: of which the first is divided into six distinct branches; Belief in God, in his angels, his scriptures, his prophets, in the resurrection and final judgment, and in God's absolute decrees. The points relating to practice are, prayer, with washings, &c. alms, fasting, pilgrimage to Mecca, and circumcision.

**I. MAHOMETANISM, ARTICLES OF FAITH IN.**

1. The Mahometans, at least those who are reckoned orthodox, profess to believe in and worship the true God, the God of the Jews and Christians. 2. The existence and purity of ANGELS, are required to be believed in the Koran; and he is reckoned an infidel who denies there are such beings, or hates any of them, or asserts any distinction of sexes among them. They believe them to have pure and subtle bodies, created of fire; that they neither eat nor drink, nor propagate their species; that they have various forms and offices, some adoring God in different postures, others singing praises to him, or interceding for mankind. They hold, that some of them are employed in writing down the actions of men; others in carrying the throne of God, and other services. The four angels, whom they look on as more eminently in God's favour, are, Gabriel, to whom they give several titles, particularly those of the *holy spirit*, and the *angel of revelations*, supposing him to be honoured by God with a greater confidence than any other, and to be employed in writing down the divine decrees; Michael; the friend and protector of the Jews; Azrael, the *angel of death*, who separates mens souls from their bodies; and Israfil, whose office it will be to sound the trumpet at the resurrection. They also believe, that two guardian angels attend on every man, to observe and write down his actions, being changed every day, and therefore called *al Moakkibat*, or "the angels who continually succeed one another." The **DEVIL**, whom Mahomet names *Eblis*, from his *despair*, was once one of those angels who are nearest to God's presence, called *Azazel*; and fell, for refusing to pay homage to Adam at the command

of God. Besides angels and devils, the Mahometans believe in an intermediate order of creatures, which they call *jinn* or **GENII**, created also of fire, but of a grosser fabric than angels, as they eat and drink, and propagate their species, and are subject to death. Some of these are supposed to be good and others bad, and capable of salvation or damnation, as men are; whence Mahomet pretended to be sent for the conversion of gentes as well as men. 3. As to the **SCRIPTURES**, the Koran, teaches, that God, in divers ages of the world, gave revelations of his will in writing to several prophets, the whole and every one of which is absolutely necessary for a good Moslem to believe. The number of these sacred books were, according to them, 104: of which 10 were given to Adam, 50 to Seth, 30 to Edris or Enoch, 10 to Abraham; and the other four, being the Pentateuch, the Psalms, the Gospel, and the Koran, were successively delivered to Moses, David, Jesus, and Mahomet; which last being the last of the prophets, those revelations are now closed, and no more are to be expected. All these divine books, except the 4 last, they agree to be now entirely lost, and their contents unknown; though the Sabians have several books which they attribute to the antediluvian prophets. And of those four, the Pentateuch, Psalms, and Gospel, they say, have undergone so many alterations and corruptions, that, though there may possibly be some part of the true word of God therein, yet no credit is to be given to the present copies in the hands of the Jews and Christians. The Mahometans have also a gospel in Arabic, attributed to St Barnabas. (See **BARNABAS**, § 4.) Of this gospel the Moriscos in Africa have a translation in Spanish. It appears to be no original forgery of the Mahometans; that they have, no doubt, altered it since, e. g. instead of the *Paraclete*, or *Comforter*, they have in this apocryphal gospel inserted the word *Perichlytis*, the *famous* or *illustrious*; by which they pretend their prophet was foretold by name, that being the signification of *Mohammed* in Arabic; and that they lay to justify that passage of the Koran, when Jesus Christ is formally asserted to have foretold his coming, under his other name of *Abmed*, which is derived from the same root as *Mohammed*, and of the same import. From these, or some other forgeries of the same stamp, the Mahometans quote several passages, of which there are not the least vestige in the New Testament. The number of the **PROPHETS**, from time to time sent by God into the world, amounts to no less than 224,000, according to one Mahometan tradition; or 124,000, according to another: among whom 10 were apostles, sent with special commissions to reclaim mankind from infidelity and superstition, and six of them brought new laws or dispensations, which successively abrogated the preceding: these were Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, Jesus, and Mahomet. All the prophets in general, the Mahometans believe to have been free from great sins, and professors of the same religion, viz. ISLAM, notwithstanding the different laws and institutions which they observed. They hold some of them to be more excellent and honourable than others. The first place they give to the revealers of new dispensations,

persons, and the next to the apostles. In this great number of prophets, they not only reckon the patriarchs and persons named in scripture, but not recorded to have been prophets, as Adam, Seth, Lot, Ishmael, Nun, Joshua, &c. and introduce some of them under different names, as *Eber, Heber, and Jethro*, who are called, in the *Quran*, *Edris, Hud, and Shacib*; but several others whose names do not appear in scripture, as *Leh, Khedr, Dkulkest, &c.* They believe in a general resurrection and a future judgment. When a corpse is laid in the grave, they say he is reviewed by an angel, who gives him notice of the coming of the two examiners; who are two black livid angels, of a terrible appearance, named *Mouker* and *Nahir*. These order the dead person to sit upright, and examine him concerning his faith, as to the unity of God, and the mission of Mahomet: if he answer rightly, they order the body to rest in peace, and it is refreshed by the air of paradise; but, if not, they beat him on the temples, with iron maces, till he roars for anguish so loud, that he is heard by all east to west, except men and genii. They press the earth on the corpse, which is gnawed and stung till the resurrection by 99 dragons, each 7 heads each; or, as others say, their fangs become venomous beasts, the grievous ones stinging like dragons, the smaller like scorpions, and others like serpents: circumstances which some understand in a figurative sense. As to the soul they hold, that, when it is separated from the body by the angel of death, who performs his office with ease and gentleness towards the good, and with violence towards the wicked, it enters into that which they call *al berzakb*, or the interval between death and the resurrection. If the departed person was a believer, they say two angels meet it, who convey it to heaven, that its place there may be assigned, according to its merit and degree. For they distinguish the souls of the faithful into three classes: viz. 1st. prophets, whose souls are admitted into paradise immediately; 2d. martyrs, whose spirits, according to a tradition of Mahomet, rest in the crops of ten birds, which eat of the fruits and drink of the rivers of paradise; and 3d. other believers, concerning the state of whose souls before the resurrection there are various opinions. Though the Mahometans have thought that the resurrection will be merely spiritual, and no more than the returning of the soul to the place whence it first came (an opinion defended by Ebn Sina, and followed by some the opinion of the *philosophers*); and others, who allow man to consist of body only, think it will be merely corporeal; the received opinion is, that both body and soul will be raised: and their doctors argue strenuously for the possibility of the resurrection of the body, and dispute with great subtilty concerning the manner of it. But Mahomet has taken care to prepare one part of the body, whatever becomes of it, to serve for a basis of the future edifice, rather a haven for the mass which is to be added to it. For he taught, that a man's body is entirely consumed by the earth, except only a bone called *al aji*, which we name the *os coxalis*, or rump-bone; and that, as it was the first

formed in the human body, it will also remain uncorrupted till the last day, as a seed from whence the whole is to be renewed; and this, he said, would be effected by a 40 years rain, which God should send, and which would cover the earth to the height of 12 cubits, and cause the bodies to sprout forth like plants. Herein, also, is Mahomet beholden to the Jews; who say the same things of the bone *Luz*, excepting that what he attributes to a grain, will be effected, according to them, by a dew, impregnating the dust of the earth. The time of the resurrection the Mahometans allow to be a perfect secret to all but God alone; the angel Gabriel himself acknowledging his ignorance in this point, when Mahomet asked him about it. However, they say, the approach of that day may be known from certain signs which are to precede it. These signs they distinguish into two sorts, the lesser and the greater. The lesser signs are, 1. The decay of faith among men. 2. The advancing of the meanest persons to eminent dignity. 3. That a maid-servant shall become the mother of her mistress (or master); by which is meant, either that towards the end of the world men shall be much given to sensuality, or that the Mahometans shall then take many captives. 4. Tumults and seditions. 5. A war with the Turks. 6. Great distresses in the world, so that a man, when he passes by another's grave shall say would to God I were in his place. 7. That the provinces of Iraq and Syria shall refuse to pay their tribute. And, 8. That the buildings of Median shall reach to Ahab, or Yabab. The greater signs are, 1. The sun's rising in the west; which some have imagined it originally did. 2. The appearance of the beast, which shall rise out of the earth, in the temple of Mecca, or on mount Safa, or in the territory of Tayet, or some other place. This beast, they say, is to be 60 cubits high; though others, not satisfied with so small a size, will have her reach to the clouds and to heaven; and that she will appear for three days, but show only a third part of her body. They describe this monster as to her form, to be a compound of various species; having the head of a bull, the eyes of a hog, the ears of an elephant, the horns of a stag, the neck of an ostrich, the breast of a lion, the colour of a tiger, the back of a cat, the tail of a ram, the legs of a camel, and the voice of an ass. Some say this beast is to appear three times in several places, and that she will bring with her the rod of Moses and the seal of Solomon; and, being so swift that none can overtake or escape her, will with the first strike all the believers on the face, and mark them with the word *Muhammed*, i. e. believer; and with the latter will mark the unbelievers on the face likewise, with the word *Kafir*, i. e. infidel, that every person may be known for what he really is. They add, that the same beast is to demonstrate the vanity of all religions, except Islam, and to speak Arabic. All this stuff seems to be the result of a confused idea of the beast in the Revelations. 1. War with the Greeks, and the taking of Constantinople by 70,000 of the posterity of Isaac, who shall not win that city by force of arms, but the walls shall fall down while they cry out, *There is no God but God; God is most great!* As they are dividing the spoils,

news will come to them of the appearance of Antichrist; whereupon they shall leave all and return back. 4. The coming of Antichrist, whom the Mahometans call *Mafab al Dajjal*, i. e. the false or lying Christ, and simply *al Dajjal*. He is to be one eyed, and marked on the forehead with the letters C. F. R. signifying *Cafir*, or infidel. They say that the Jews gave him the name of *Messiah Ben David*; and pretend he is to come in the last days, and to be lord both of land and sea, and that he will restore the kingdom to them. 5. The descent of Jesus on earth. They pretend that he is to descend near the white tower to the east of Damascus, when the people are returned from the taking of Constantinople: that he is to embrace the Mahometan religion, marry a wife, get children, kill Antichrist; and at length die after 40 years, or, according to others, 24 years continuance on earth. Under him, they say, there will be great security and plenty in the world, all hatred and malice being laid aside; when lions and camels, bears and sheep, shall live in peace, and a child shall play with serpents unhurt. 6. War with the Jews; of whom the Mahometans are to make a dreadful slaughter, the very trees and stones discovering such of them as hide themselves, except only the tree called *gharkad*, which is the tree of the Jews. 7. The eruption of Gog and Magog, or, as they are called in the east, *Yajuj* and *Majuj*; of whom many things are related in the Koran and the traditions of Mahomet. These barbarians, they tell us, having passed the lake of Tiberias, which the vanguard of their vast army will drink dry, will come to Jerusalem, and there greatly distress Jesus and his companions; till, at his request, God will destroy them, and fill the earth with their carcases, which, after some time, God will send birds to carry away, at the prayers of Jesus and his followers. Their bows, arrows, and quivers, the Moslems will burn for 7 years together; and at last, God will send a rain to cleanse the earth and make it fertile. 8. A smoke which shall fill the whole earth. 9. An eclipse of the moon. Mahomet is reported to have said, that there would be three eclipses before the last hour; one to be seen in the east, another in the west, and the third in Arabia. 10. The returning of the Arabs to the worship of Allat and al Uzza, and the rest of their ancient idols, after the decease of every one in whose heart there was faith equal to a grain of mustard seed, none but the very worst of men being left alive. For God, they say, will send a cold odoriferous wind, blowing from Syria Damaſcena, which shall sweep away the souls of all the faithful, and the Koran itself, so that men will remain in the grossest ignorance for 100 years. 11. The discovery of a vast heap of gold and silver by the retreating of the Euphrates, which will be the destruction of many. 12. The demolition of the Caaba, or temple of Mecca, by the Ethiopians. 13. The speaking of beasts and inanimate things. 14. The breaking out of fire in the province of Hejaz; or, according to others, in Yaman. 15. The appearance of a man of the descendants of Kahtan, who shall drive men before him with his staff. 16. The coming of the *Messiah*, or director; concerning whom Mahomet prophesied, that the world should not

have an end, till one of his own family should govern the Arabians, whose name should be the same with his own name, and whose father's name should also be the same with his father's name, and who should fill the earth with righteousness. This person the Shiites believe to be now alive, concealed in some secret place till the time of manifestation; for they suppose him no other than the last of the 12 Imams, named *Mahomet al kafeem*, as their prophet was; and the son of *fan al Askeri*, the 11th of that succession. He was born at Sermanrai, in the 255th year of the Hegira. From this tradition, it is to be presumed, opinion pretty current among the Christians, that the Mahometans are in expectation of their prophet's return. 17. A wind shall sweep away the souls of all who have not a grain of faith in their hearts, as has been mentioned under the tenth sign. These are the signs, which, according to their doctrine, precede the resurrection, but still leave the time of it uncertain; for the immediate sign of its coming will be the first blast of the trumpet, which they believe will be sounded three times. The first they call the *blast of consternation*; hearing of which all creatures in heaven and earth shall be struck with terror, except whom God shall please to exempt from it. The effects attributed to this first sound of the trumpet are very wonderful: for they say, the earth shall be shaken, and not only all buildings, but the very mountains levelled; that the heavens shall be darkened, the stars fall, on the command of the angels, who, as some imagine, hold suspended between heaven and earth; and the sun shall be troubled and dried up, or, according to others, turned into flames, the sun, moon, and stars being thrown into it: the Koran, and the greatness of the terror of that day, add women who give suck shall abandon their infants, and even the she camels which have gone 10 months with young (a most valuable commodity of the substance of that nation) shall be neglected. A farther effect of this blast will be the concurrence of beasts mentioned in the Koran, some doubt whether it be to precede the resurrection or not. They who suppose it will precede think that all kinds of animals, forgetting their respective natural fierceness and timidity, will be gathered together into one place, being terrified by the sound of the trumpet and the sudden shock of the trumpet. The Mahometans believe that this first blast will be followed by a second, which they call the *blast of exinanition*; by which all creatures in heaven and earth shall die or be annihilated, except those which God shall please to exempt from the common fate; and this, they say, shall happen in the twinkling of an eye, nay in a moment; nothing surviving except God alone, paradise and hell, and the inhabitants of those places, and the throne of glory. The last blast shall die will be the angel of death. Forthwith after this will be heard the *blast of return*, when the trumpet shall be sounded the second time by Israfil, who, together with Gabriel and Michael, will be previously restored to life, and, standing on the rock of the temple of Jerusalem, at God's command, call together all the dry



ten bones, and other dispersed parts of the body, and the very hairs to judgment. This angel, having, by the divine order, set the trumpet to his mouth, and called together all the spirits from all parts, will throw them into his trumpet, from whence, on his giving the last command, at the command of God, they will fly like bees, and fill the whole space between heaven and earth, and then repair to their respective bodies, which the opening earth will suffer to receive; and the first who shall so arise, according to the tradition of Mahomet, shall be himself. For the birth the earth will be prepared by the rain we mentioned, which is to fall continually for seven years, and will resemble the seed of a man, and be applied from the water under the throne of God, which is called the *living water*; by the efficacy of which the dead bodies shall spring forth from their graves, as they did in their mother's womb, or as corn sprouts forth by common rain, they become perfect after which breath will be breathed into them, and they will sleep in their niches till they are raised to life at the last trumpet. When those who have risen shall have received the limited time, the Mahometans believe it will at length appear to judge them; Mahomet undertaking the office of intercessor, after it has been declined by Adam, Noah, Abraham, and Jesus, who shall beg deliverance only for their own souls. They say, that on this solemn occasion God will come in the clouds, surrounded by angels, and will produce the books where in the actions of every person are recorded by their guardian angels, and will command the prophets to bear witness against those to whom they have been respectively sent. Then every one will be examined concerning all his words and actions uttered and done by him in this life; not as if God needed any satisfaction in these respects, but to oblige the sinner to make public confession and acknowledgment of God's justice. The particulars, of which they shall give an account, as Mahomet himself enumerated them, are, of their time, how they spent it; of their wealth, by what means they acquired it, and how they employed it; of their bodies, wherein they exercised them; of their knowledge and learning, what use they made of them. To the questions we have mentioned every person shall answer, and make his defence in the best manner he can, endeavouring to excuse himself by casting the blame of his evil deeds on his soul and the body, to which of them their guilt ought to be imputed: the soul saying, *O Lord, my body I received from thee; for thou createdst me without a hand to lay hold with, a foot to stand with; an eye to see with, or an understanding to apprehend with, till I came and entered into this body; therefore punish it eternally, but deliver me. My body on the other side, will make this apology: O Lord, thou createdst me like a flock of sheep, having neither hand that I could lay hold with, nor foot that I could walk with, till this soul was my eye of sight, entered into me, and my tongue was to speak, my eye to see, and my foot to walk; therefore punish it eternally, but deliver me. But God will propound to them the following parable of the blind man and the lame man, which,*

as well as the preceding discourse, was borrowed by the Mahometans from the Jews. A certain king, having a pleasant garden, in which were ripe fruits, set two persons to keep it, one of whom was blind, and the other lame; the former not being able to see the fruit, nor the latter to gather it: the lame man, however, seeing the fruit, persuaded the blind man to take him upon his shoulders, and by that means he easily gathered the fruit; which they divided between them. The lord of the garden coming some time after, and inquiring after his fruit, each began to excuse himself: the blind man said he had no eyes to see with; and the lame man, that he had no feet to approach the trees. But the king, ordering the lame man to be set on the blind, passed sentence on and punished them both. And in the same manner will God deal with the body and the soul. As these apologies will not avail on that day, so it will be in vain for any one to deny his evil actions; since men and angels, and his own members, nay, the very earth itself, will be ready to bear witness against him. At this examination, they also believe, that each person will have the book wherein all the actions of his life are written delivered to him; which books the righteous will receive into their right hand, and read with great pleasure and satisfaction; but the ungodly will be obliged to take them, against their wills, in their left, which will be bound behind their backs, their right hand being tied up to their necks. To show the exact justice which will be observed on this great day of trial, the next thing they describe is the balance, wherein all things shall be weighed. They say it will be held by Gabriel; and that it is of so vast a size, that its two scales, one of which hangs over paradise, and the other over hell, are capacious enough to contain both heaven and hell. Though some are willing to understand what is said in the Koran concerning this balance allegorically, and only as a figurative representation of God's equity; yet the more ancient and orthodox opinion is, that they are to be taken literally; and since words and actions, being mere accidents, are not capable of being themselves weighed, they say that the books wherein they are written will be thrown into the scales, and according as those wherein the good or evil actions are recorded shall preponderate, sentence will be given: those whose balances laden with good works shall be heavy, will be saved; but those whose balances are light, will be condemned. Nor will any one have cause to complain that God suffers any good action to pass unrewarded, because the wicked for the good they do have their reward in this life, and therefore can expect no favour in the next. This examination being past, that mutual retaliation will follow, according to which every creature will take vengeance one of another, or have satisfaction made them for the injuries which they have suffered. And, since there will then be no other way of returning like for like, the manner of giving this satisfaction will be by taking away a proportional part of the good works of him who offered the injury, and adding it to those of him who suffered it. Which being done, if the angels (by whose ministry this is to be performed)

news will come to them of the appearance of Antichrist; whereupon they shall leave all and return back. 4. The coming of Antichrist, whom the Mahometans call *Masih al Dajjal*, i. e. the false or lying Christ, and simply *al Dajjal*. He is to be one eyed, and marked on the forehead with the letters C. F. R. signifying *Cafir*, or infidel. They say that the Jews gave him the name of *Messiah Ben David*; and pretend he is to come in the last days, and to be lord both of land and sea, and that he will restore the kingdom to them. 5. The descent of Jesus on earth. They pretend that he is to descend near the white tower to the east of Damascus, when the people are returned from the taking of Constantinople: that he is to embrace the Mahometan religion, marry a wife, get children, kill Antichrist; and at length die after 40 years, or, according to others, 24 years continuance on earth. Under him, they say, there will be great security and plenty in the world, all hatred and malice being laid aside; when lions and camels, bears and sheep, shall live in peace, and a child shall play with serpents unhurt. 6. War with the Jews; of whom the Mahometans are to make a dreadful slaughter, the very trees and stones discovering such of them as hide themselves, except only the tree called *gharhad*, which is the tree of the Jews. 7. The eruption of Gog and Magog, or, as they are called in the east, *Tajuj* and *Majuj*; of whom many things are related in the Koran and the traditions of Mahomet. These barbarians, they tell us, having passed the lake of Tiberias, which the vanguard of their vast army will drink dry, will come to Jerusalem, and there greatly distress Jesus and his companions; till, at his request, God will destroy them, and fill the earth with their carcases, which, after some time, God will send birds to carry away, at the prayers of Jesus and his followers. Their bows, arrows, and quivers, the Moslems will burn for 7 years together; and at last, God will send a rain to cleanse the earth and make it fertile. 8. A smoke which shall fill the whole earth. 9. An eclipse of the moon. Mahomet is reported to have said, that there would be three eclipses before the last hour; one to be seen in the east, another in the west, and the third in Arabia. 10. The returning of the Antis to the worship of Allah and of Uzza, and the cast of their ancient idols, after the decease of everyone in whose heart there was faith equal to a grain of mustard seed, none but the very worst of men being left alive. For God, they say, will send a cold odoriferous wind, blowing from Syria Damascus, which shall sweep away the faith of all the faithful, and the Koran itself, so that men will remain in the grossest ignorance for one year. 11. The discovery of a vast heap of gold and silver by the retreating of the Euphrates, which will be the destruction of many. 12. The demolition of the Castle, or temple of Mecca, by the Ethiopians. 13. The speaking of beasts and inanimate things. 14. The breaking out of fire in the province of Hejaz; or, according to others, in Yemen. 15. The appearance of a man, the descendant of Kahtan, who shall drive me before him with his staff. 16. The coming of *M. al*, or director; concerning whom Mahomet prophesied, that the world should not

have an end, till one of his own family should govern the Arabians, whose name should be the same with his own name, and whose father's name should also be the same with his father's name; and who should fill the earth with righteousness. This person the Shiites believe to be now alive, and concealed in some secret place till the time of his manifestation; for they suppose him no other than the last of the 12 Imams, named *Mahomet al-kafem*, as their prophet was; and the son of Isfan al Alkeri, the 11th of that succession. He was born at Sermanrai, in the 255th year of the Hegira. From this tradition, it is to be presumed, in opinion pretty current among the Christians, that its rise, that the Mahometans are in expectation of their prophet's return. 17. A wind which shall sweep away the souls of all who have but a grain of faith in their hearts, as has been mentioned under the tenth sign. These are the greater signs, which, according to their doctrine, are to precede the resurrection, but still leave the hour of it uncertain; for the immediate sign of its being come will be the first blast of the trumpet, which they believe will be sounded three times. The first they call the *blast of consternation*; at the hearing of which all creatures in heaven and earth shall be struck with terror, except those whom God shall please to exempt from it. The effects attributed to this first sound of the trumpet are very wonderful; for they say, the earth will be shaken, and not only all buildings, but the very mountains leveled; that the heavens shall melt, the sun be darkened, the stars fall, on the death of the angels, who, as some imagine, hold them suspended between heaven and earth; and the sea shall be troubled and dried up, or, according to others, turned into flames, the sun, moon, and stars being thrown into it; the Koran, to express the greatness of the terror of that day, adds, that women who give suck shall abandon the care of their infants, and even the she camels which have gone 10 months with young (a most valuable part of the substance of that nation) shall be utterly neglected. A farther effect of this blast will be that concourse of beasts mentioned in the Koran, tho' some doubt whether it be to precede the resurrection or not. They who suppose it will precede, think that all kinds of animals, forgetting their respective natural fierceness and timidity, will run together into one place, being terrified by the sound of the trumpet and the sudden shock of nature. The Mahometans believe that this first blast will be followed by a second, which they call the *blast of examination*; by which all creatures both in heaven and earth shall die or be annihilated, except those which God shall please to exempt from the common fate; and this, they say, shall happen in the twinkling of an eye, nay in an instant; nothing surviving except God alone, with paradise and hell, and the inhabitants of those two places, and the throne of glory. The last which shall die will be the angel of death. Forty years after this will be heard the *blast of resurrection*, when the trumpet shall be sounded the 3d time by Israfil, who, together with Gabriel and Michael, will be previously restored to life, and, standing on the rock of the temple of Jerusalem, shall, at God's command, call together all the dead, and

en bones, and other dispersed parts of the body, and the very hairs to judgment. This having, by the divine order, set the trumpet to his mouth, and called together all the spirits from all parts, will throw them into his lap, from whence, on his giving the last command, at the command of God, they will fly like bees, and fill the whole space between heaven and earth, and then repair to their respective bodies, which the opening earth will suffer to receive; and the first who shall so arise, according to the tradition of Mahomet, shall be himself. For at the birth the earth will be prepared by the rain mentioned, which is to fall continually for seven years, and will resemble the seed of a man, and be supplied from the water under the throne of God, which is called the *living water*; by the efficacy of which the dead bodies shall spring forth from their graves, as they did in their mother's womb, or as corn sprouts forth by common rain, they become perfect after which breath will be breathed into them, and they will sleep in their niches till they are raised to life at the last trumpet. When those who have risen shall have passed the limited time, the Mahometans believe the angels will at length appear to judge them; Mahomet undertaking the office of intercessor, after it shall have been declined by Adam, Noah, Abraham, and Jesus, who shall beg deliverance only for their own souls. They say, that on this solemn occasion God will come in the clouds, surrounded by his angels, and will produce the books where in the actions of every person are recorded by their guardian angels, and will command the prophets to bear witness against those to whom they have been respectively sent. Then every one will be examined concerning all his words and actions uttered and done by him in this life; not as if God needed any satisfaction in their respects, but to oblige the person to make public confession and acknowledgment of God's justice. The particulars, of which they shall give an account, as Mahomet has enumerated them, are, of their time, how they spent it; of their wealth, by what means they acquired it, and how they employed it; of their families, wherein they exercised them; of their knowledge and learning, what use they made of it. To the questions we have mentioned every person shall answer, and make his defence in the best manner he can, endeavouring to excuse himself by casting the blame of his evil deeds on his parents; so that a dispute shall arise even between heaven and the body, to which of them their fault ought to be imputed: the soul saying, *O Lord, my body I received from thee; for thou createdst me without a hand to lay hold with, a foot to stand with, an eye to see with, or an understanding to bend with, till I came and entered into this body; therefore punish it eternally, but deliver me from this body* on the other side, will make this apology, *O Lord, thou createdst me like a flock of sheep, having neither hand that I could lay hold with, nor foot that I could walk with, till this soul gave me my sight, entered into me, and my tongue to speak, my eye to see, and my foot to walk: therefore punish it eternally, but deliver me.* But the angels will propound to them the following parable of the blind man and the lame man, which,

as well as the preceding dialogue, was borrowed by the Mahometans from the Jews. A certain king, having a pleasant garden, in which were many ripe fruits, set two persons to keep it, one of whom was blind, and the other lame; the former not being able to see the fruit, nor the latter to gather it: the lame man, however, seeing the fruit, persuaded the blind man to take him upon his shoulders, and by that means he easily gathered the fruit; which they divided between them. The lord of the garden coming some time after, and inquiring after his fruit, each began to excuse himself: the blind man said he had no eyes to see with; and the lame man, that he had no feet to approach the trees. But the king, ordering the lame man to be set on the blind, passed sentence on and punished them both. And in the same manner will God deal with the body and the soul. As these apologies will not avail on that day, so it will be in vain for any one to deny his evil actions; since men and angels, and his own members, nay, the very earth itself, will be ready to bear witness against him. At this examination, they also believe, that each person will have the book wherein all the actions of his life are written delivered to him; which books the righteous will receive into their right hand, and read with great pleasure and satisfaction; but the ungodly will be obliged to take them, against their wills, in their left, which will be bound behind their backs, their right hand being tied up to their necks. To show the exact justice which will be observed on this great day of trial, the next thing they describe is the balance, wherein all things shall be weighed. They say it will be held by Gabriel; and that it is of so vast a size, that its two scales, one of which hangs over paradise, and the other over hell, are spacious enough to contain both heaven and hell. Though some are willing to understand what is said in the Koran concerning this balance allegorically, and only as a figurative representation of God's equity; yet the more ancient and orthodox opinion is, that they are to be taken literally; and since words and actions, being mere accidents, are not capable of being themselves weighed, they say that the books wherein they are written will be thrown into the scales, and according as those wherein the good or evil actions are recorded shall preponderate, sentence will be given: those whose balances laden with good works shall be heavy, will be saved; but those whose balances are light, will be condemned. Nor will any one have cause to complain that God suffers any good action to pass unrewarded, because the wicked for the good they do have their reward in this life, and therefore can expect no favour in the next. This examination being past, and mutual retaliation will follow, according to which every creature will take vengeance out of another, or have satisfaction made them for the injuries which they have suffered. And, since there will then be no other way of returning like for like, the manner of giving this satisfaction will be by taking away a proportional part of the good works of him who offered the injury, and adding it to those of him who suffered it. Which being done, if the angels (by whose ministrations this is to be performed)

as *no God but God*; Mahomet is the *apostle of God*. They generally perform the operation between 6 and 16. Prayer was by Mahomet thought so necessary a duty, that he used to call it *the pillar of religion, and the key of paradise*; and when the Thakufites, who dwelt at Tayef, sending, in the 49th year of the Hegira, to make their submission to the prophet, after the keeping of their favourite idol had been denied them, begged at least, that they might be dispensed with as to their saying of their appointed prayers, he answered, *That there could be no good in that religion wherein was no prayer*. That so important a duty, therefore, might not be neglected, Mahomet obliged his followers to pray 5 times every 24 hours, at certain stated times; viz. 1. In the morning before sunrise: 2. When noon is past, and the sun begins to decline from the meridian: 3. In the afternoon, before sun-set: 4. In the evening, after sun-set, and before day be shut in; and, 5. After the day is shut in, and before the first watch of the night. At these times, of which public notice is given by the *Muezzins, or Criers*, from the steeples of their mosques (for they use no bells), every conscientious Muslim prepares himself for prayer, which he performs either in the mosque or any other place, provided it be clean, after a prescribed form, and with a certain number of praises or ejaculations (which the more scrupulous count by a string of beads), and using certain postures of worship; all which have been particularly set down and described, and must not be abridged, unless on a journey, or preparing for battle, &c. It is also requisite that they turn their faces, while they pray, towards the temple of Mecca; the quarter where the same is situated, being, for that reason, pointed out within their mosques by a niche, which they call *al Mchrab*; and without, by the situation of the doors opening into the galleries of the steeples: there are also tables calculated for the ready finding out their Kebab, or part towards which they ought to pray, in places where they have no other direction. 2. *ALMS* are of two sorts, *legal and voluntary*. The *legal alms* are of indispensable obligation, being commanded by the law, which directs and determines both the portion which is to be given, and of what things it ought to be given; but the *voluntary alms* are left to every one's liberty, to give more or less, as he shall see fit. The former kind are called *zaca*, either because they *increase* a man's store by drawing down a blessing thereon, or because they purify the remaining part of one's substance from pollution, and the soul from the filth of avarice: The latter *sadakats*, because they are a proof of a man's sincerity in the worship of God. 3. *FASTING* is a duty of so great moment, that Mahomet used to say it was *the gate of religion*, and that the *odour of the mouth of him who fasts is more grateful to God than that of musk*; and Ghazali reckons fasting *one fourth part of the faith*. According to the Mahometan divines, there are 3 degrees of fasting; 1. The restraining the belly and other parts of the body fit in satisfying their lusts: 2. The restraining the ears, eyes, tongue, hands, feet, and other members, from sin; and, 3. The fasting of the heart from worldly cares, and restraining the thoughts from every thing be-

lides God. The Mahometans are obliged, by the Koran, to fast the whole month of *RAMADAN*, from the new moon till the next new moon; during which they must abstain from eating, drinking, and women, from day-break till night or sun-set. And this injunction they observe so strictly, that, while they fast, they suffer nothing to enter their mouths, or other parts of their body, or steaming the fast broken, and null, if they smell perfumes, take a clyster or injection, bathe, or even purposely swallow their spittle; some being so cautious, that they will not open their mouths to speak lest they should breathe the air too freely: the fast is also deemed void, if a man kiss touch a woman; or if he vomit designedly. But after sun-set they are allowed to refresh themselves, and to eat and drink, and enjoy the company of their wives till day-break; though the more rigid begin the fast again at midnight. The fast is extremely rigorous and mortifying when the month of Ramadan happens to fall in summer (for the Arabian year being lunar, each month runs through all the different seasons in the course of 33 years), the length and heat of the day making the observance of it much more difficult and uneasy than in winter. The reason given why the month Ramadan was pitched on for this purpose is, that on that month the Koran was sent down from heaven. Some pretend, that Abraham, Moses, and Jesus, received their respective revelations in the same month. 4. The pilgrimage to *MECCA* is so necessary a point of practice, that, according to a tradition of Mahomet, he who dies without performing it may as well die a Jew or a Christian; and it is expressly commanded in the Koran. The temple of Mecca stands in the midst of the city, and is honoured with the title of *Masjad al elcharam*, i. e. *the sacred or inviolable temple*. What is principally revered in this place, and gives sanctity to the whole, is a square stone building, called the *CASBA*. (See that article.) To this temple every Mahometan, who has health and means sufficient, ought, once at least in his life, to go on pilgrimage; nor are women excused from the performance of this duty. The pilgrims meet at different places near Mecca, according to the different parts from whence they come, during the months of Shawwal and Dhulkaada; being obliged to be there by the beginning of Dhulhajja; which month is peculiarly set apart for the celebration of this solemnity. At these places the pilgrims properly commence such; when the men put on the *libram* or sacred habit, which consists of two woollen wrappers, one wrapped about their middle, and the other thrown over their shoulders, having their heads bare, and a kind of slippers which cover neither the heel nor the instep, and so enter the sacred territory in their way to Mecca. While they have this habit on, they must neither hunt nor fowl, (though they are allowed to fish); which precept is so punctually observed, that they will not kill even a louse or flea on their bodies: there are some noxious animals, however, which they have permission to kill during the pilgrimage, as kites, ravens, scorpions, mice, and dogs given to bite. During the pilgrimage, it behoves a man to have a constant guard over his words and actions;

quarrelling, all converse with women, and discourse; and to apply his whole to the good work he is engaged in. The being arrived at Mecca, immediately kneeling; and then enter on the performance of prescribed ceremonies, which consist in going in procession round the CAABA, between the mounts Safa and Merwa, the station on mount Arafat, and slayings, and shaving their heads in the valley. In compassing the Caaba, which times, beginning at the corner where the stone is fixed, they use a short quick three first times they go round it, and a slow pace the 4 last. But the aforesaid they are not obliged to use every time in this piece of devotion, but only at certain times. So often as they pass by the stone, they either kiss it, or touch it with hand and kiss that. The running between Merwa is also performed 7 times, at a slow pace and partly running: for gravely till they come to a place beset with pillars; and there they run, and afterwards again; sometimes looking back, and stopping, like one who had lost some present Hagar seeking water for her the 9th of Dhulhajja, after morning the pilgrims leave the valley of Mina, and come the day before; and proceed in a slow and rushing manner to mount where they perform their devotions till when they go to Mozdalifa, an oratory beset with fat and Mina; and there spend the night in reading the Koran. The next morning they break they visit *al Masjar al Karam*, and *al moniment*; and, departing thence beset, pass by Batn Mohasser to the valley where they throw 7 stones at 3 marks or imitation of Abraham, who, imitating in that place, and, being by him disturbed in devotion, or tempted to disobedience was going to sacrifice his son, was com- manded by God to drive him away by throwing stones; though others pretend this rite to be in honour of Adam, who also put the devil to flight in the place, and by the same means. This being over, on the same day, the 10th of the pilgrims slay their victims in the valley of Mina; of which they and their wives eat part, and the rest is given to the poor. The victims must be either sheep, goats, kine, or camels; if of either of the two former they must be either of either of the latter; and if of the latter they must be either of the former. The sacrifices being over, they shave their heads and cut their nails, burying them in the valley; after which the pilgrimage is considered as completed: though they again visit the Caaba, to take their leave of that sacred build-

**MAHOMETANISM, SUCCESS OF, ACCOUNT OF.** The rapid success, which attended the introduction of this new religion, was owing to its being plain and evident, and must rather prevent, our surprize, when they are very considered. The terror of Mahomet, and the repeated victories which were

gained by him and his successors, were, no doubt, the irresistible arguments that persuaded such multitudes to embrace his religion and submit to his dominion. Besides, his law was artfully and marvellously adapted to the corrupt nature of man; and, in a more particular manner, to the manners and opinions of the eastern nations, and the vices to which they were naturally addicted: for the articles of faith which it proposed were few in number, and extremely simple; and the duties it required were neither many nor difficult, nor such as were incompatible with the empire of appetites and passions. It is to be observed farther, that the gross ignorance, under which the Arabians, Syrians, Persians, and the greatest part of the eastern nations, laboured at this time, rendered many an easy prey to the artifice and eloquence of this bold adventurer. To these causes of the progress of Mahometanism, we may add the bitter dissensions and cruel animosities that reigned among the Christian sects, particularly the Greeks, Nestorians, Eutychians, and Monophysites; dissensions that filled a great part of the East with carnage, assassination, and such detestable enormities, as rendered the very name of Christianity odious to many. We might add, that the Monophysites and Nestorians, full of resentment against the Greeks, from whom they had suffered the most injurious treatment, assisted the Arabians in the conquest of several provinces, into which, of consequence, the religion of Mahomet was afterwards introduced. Other causes of the sudden progress of that religion will naturally occur to such as consider attentively its spirit and genius, and the state of the world at that time.

**MAHOMETANS**, those who believe in the religion and divine mission of Mahomet. See ALKORAN, MAHOMET, and MAHOMETANISM.

**MAHOMETISM**. See MAHOMETANISM.

(1.) MAHON, a town of MINORCA, founded by MAGO, the Carthaginian general, situated on a pretty steep eminence on the W. side of the harbour. See MINORCA.

(2.) MAHON, a termeno, or county of MINORCA.

(3.) MAHON, PORT. See PORT MAHON.

**MAHRA'TTAS**. See MARHATTAS.

**MAHWAH**, or MAWEE, in botany; an East Indian tree, so called by the natives of Bihar and the neighbouring countries, but of which the Shanscrit name is *Mahwa* or *Mehudhruwa*. According to Lieut. C. Hamilton, by whom a very particular account of this tree is given in the *Asiatic Researches*, (Vol. I. art. xiv.) it is of the class of the polyandra monogynia of Linnæus, but of a genus not described by him. The calyx is monophyllous, quadriid, half divided, and imbricated in its divided part; the two opposite and outer parts covering partially the two opposite and inner. The corolla is monopetalous, having an inflated tube for its lower part, of near an inch long, thick, fleshy, and of a cream colour: from this arise 9 small leaves, like petals from a calyx, imbricated and twisted one over the other, from right to left, clasping the lower part of the style in a point; by which they seem to serve, in some respects like a creeps, to detach the whole corolla at the season of its dropping. There are no fr-

laments; but the anthers, which are commonly 26, long, scabrous, and spear-headed, are inserted in rows, on the inside and upper part of the tube of the corolla. The style is long, round, and tapering, and projects about an inch beyond the corolla; it is succeeded by a drupe, with a thick pericarpium, bilocular, containing 2 or 3 seeds, covered with a dark-brown skin, in separate divisions. The flowers rise in bunches, from the extremities of the smaller branches; and have each a pedicle of about an inch and a half long, mostly turned downwards, whence the corollas more easily drop off. The tree, when full grown, is about the size of a Mango tree, with a bushy head and oval leaves a little pointed; its roots spreading horizontally, are sunk but little in the earth; the trunk, which is often of a considerable thickness, rises seldom to any great height, without giving off branches; it is, however, not uncommon to see it shoot up clear 8 or 10 feet: the wood is moderately hard, fine grained, and of a reddish colour. By incision it affords a resinous gum from the bark. The flowers "differ essentially (says Mr Hamilton) from those of any other plant with which I am acquainted, as they have not, in any respect, the usual appearance of such, but rather resemble berries; and I, like many others, had long conceived them to be the fruit." The leaves fall in Feb. and early in March: these flowers begin to come out in clusters of 30, 40, or 50, from the extremity of every small branch. From this period to the end of April, as the flowers come to maturity (for they never open), they continue falling off, with their anthers, in the mornings, a little after sun-rise; when they are gathered, and dried by exposure in the sun. Thus prepared, they resemble a dried grape, both in taste and flavour. Immediately after the flowers drop off, fresh shoots are made for the new leaves, which soon appear, coming quickly to their full growth. The fruit is of two sorts; the one resembling a small walnut, the other somewhat larger and pointed: it is ripe towards the middle of May; and continues dripping from the tree till the whole fall, which is generally towards the middle of June. The outer covering, or *pericarpium*, which is of a soft texture, commonly bursts in the fall, so that the seeds are very easily squeezed out of it: the seeds are somewhat of the shape, but longer than an olive. These seeds are replete with a thick oil, of the consistence of butter, which is obtained by expression. This tree and its productions are of singular and general use, in those barren countries, which are not calculated for producing the necessaries of life. The flowers, after being dried, are eaten by the natives raw or dressed with their *curries*; and, when even simply boiled with rice, they afford a strengthening and wholesome nourishment. They are also often fermented, and yield by distillation a strong spirit, which the people here sell so very cheap, that for one *pie* (about a halfpenny) may be purchased no less than a *cutelafur* (above a pint English) with which any man may get completely drunk. These flowers make an article of trade; being exported to Patna and elsewhere in considerable quantities, as well as the oil yielded by the fruit. This oil resembles *ghee* so much, that, being cheaper, the

natives often mix it with that common use it as *ghee* in their victuals, and in position of some sweetmeats; and burn lamps. It is also regarded as a saluta applied externally to wounds and cutations. It is at first of the consistence oil, but soon coagulates: after being kept some time it acquires a bitterish taste and ra which renders it somewhat less agreeable ticle of food: but this inconvenience, being properly clarified, might perhaps ed. The gum is not applied to an though it might be collected in large q March and April. The wood cannot had in beams of any considerable les to make it so useful in buildings as therwise be, from its not being liable en by the white ants. Mr Kier, how our author, that when he was at Cho lage upon the Caramassa near Buxa beams of it above 20 feet long; but ther respects it is a most useful wood; tough, and of a strong texture, it mig be employed to advantage in ship-b which case, if properly cultivated in ma that seem well adapted for it, and fit fo it might in time become a valuable ar branch at Calcutta, whither it coul transported during the rainy season fr any part of these countries, by var The tree will grow in the most bar even amongst stones and gravel, w is the least appearance of a soil; an to destroy all the smaller trees a wood about it. It does not require n ture, producing nearly as well in the o most favourable years, and in every fi is therefore admirably fitted for the c of the inhabitants of these hilly coun: are peculiarly subject to long and fever during the hot months. "Yet, notw its utility, (says our author,) and th quantity of ground that seems so well the growth of it, both here and in the ing provinces of Catak, Pacheet, Ro have myself never observed, nor can who ever have remarked, one single trant state. We can see, every where, trees in great abundance; but, never m any young plants, both I and all wh spoken to on the subject, are at some l ceive how they should have come he can the country people themselves, c have inquired, give any rational accou although it appears pretty evident, bers of them must have been cultiv time or other, every village having mar growing about it. This is a circumst sufficiently marks the true character o er order of natives in their most supbe and sloth; owing chiefly to the igne stupid rapacity of their Rajahs, Zam other landholders, and their total t to the welfare of those dejected wret whom they derive their consequence. Of their base indifference to the i those whom they thus affect to hel



When I am dead, strew me o'er  
With maiden flowers, that all the world may know  
I was a chaste wife to my grave. *Shak. H. VIII.*  
By this maiden blossom in my hand  
I scorn thee and thy fashion. *Shak. Hen. VI.*

(2.) MAIDEN, *n. f.* See MAID, N° 1.  
(3.) MAIDEN, or MAYDEN, an instrument anciently used in Scotland for beheading criminals, similar to the Guillotine. See GUILLOTINE. Of the use and form of this instrument Mr Pennant gives a particular account, which we have anticipated under the article HALIFAX, N° 2. He adds, that it "was very freely used during the reign of Elizabeth: the records before that time were lost: 25 suffered in her reign, and at least 12 from 1623 to 1650; after which I believe the privilege was no more exerted. This machine of death is now destroyed; but I saw one of the same kind in a room under the parliament house at Edinburgh, where it was introduced by the regent Morton, who took a model of it as he passed through Halifax, and at length suffered by it himself. It is in form of a painter's easel, and about 10 feet high: at 4 feet from the bottom is a cross bar, on which the felon lays his head, which is kept down by another placed above. In the inner edges of the frame are grooves; in these is placed a sharp ax, with a vast weight of lead, supported at the very summit with a peg; to that peg is fastened a cord, which the executioner cutting, the ax falls, and does the affair effectually, without suffering the unhappy criminal to undergo a repetition of strokes, as has been the case in the common method."

(4.) MAIDEN is also a name of a machine first used in Yorkshire, and since introduced into other places, for washing linen; consisting of a tub 19 inches high, and 27 in diameter at the top, in which the linen is put, with hot water and soap, to which is adapted a cover, fitting it very closely, and fastened to the tub by two wedges; through a hole in the middle of the cover passes an upright piece of wood, kept at a proper height by a peg above, and furnished with two handles, by which it is turned backward and forward: to the lower end of this upright piece is fastened a round piece of wood, in which are fixed several pieces, the core of a wheel. The operation of this machine makes the linen pass and repass quick through the water.

(5.) MAIDEN RENTS, in old English writers, a noble paid by the tenants of some manors on their marriage. This was found to be given to the lord for his outting the custom of *maritagium*, (See MARCHETA) whereby he was to have the first night's lodging with his tenant's wife; but it seems more probably to have been a fine for a licence to carry a daughter.

(6.) \* MAIDENHAIR *n. f.* [*maiden* and *hair*; *azilum* &c.] This plant is a native of the south-parts of France and in the Mediterranean, where it grows on rocks and old ruins, from whence it is brought for medicinal use.—June is drawn in a mantle of dark grass green, upon his head a garland of bent's king's caps, and *maidenhair*. *Fuchus*.

(7.) MAIDENHAIR. See ADYANTHUM.

(8.) MAIDENHAIR, GOLDEN. See POLYTRICHUM.

(9.) MAIDENHEAD, a town 20 miles from London, with 2 for Thames. It is governed by a mayor, a steward, and 10 aldermen; last two bridgemaisters are chosen town stands partly in the parishly in that of Cookham; and halliar to the corporation, the m chosen by the inhabitants, and tend the bishop's visitation. It several almshouses and charity now so considerable, did not be its bridge was built. The bar maintained by the corporation are allowed the tolls over and unple have a great trade in malt, which they carry in their barge; this is the great thoroughfare Bath, Bristol, &c. the adjacent noted for robberies. It has a nedday, 3 fairs, and frequent ho

(10.) \* MAIDENHEAD. } *n. f.* [  
\* MAIDENHODE. } Virgi  
\* MAIDENHOOD. } rity; ]

tamination.—  
And, for the modest *lore* of  
Bids me not sojourn with these  
She hated chambers, closet  
And in broad fields preserv'd

—Example, that so terrible shu  
of *maidenhood*, cannot for all thi  
sion, but that they are lined wi  
threaten them. *Shakespeare*.—

*Maidenhood* she loves, and  
To aid a virgin.

2. Newness; freshness; unex  
This is now become a low word

The devil and mischance  
Upon the *maidenhead* of our a  
—Some who attended with ma  
their fall appearing have stain  
of their credit with some negli  
*Watson*.—

Hope's chaste kiss wrongs ro  
When spousal rites prejudge t

\* MAIDENLIP. *n. f.* [*slap* & *lip*].

\* MAIDENLY. *adj.* [*maiden* and  
maid; gentle, modest, timorous.

'Tis not *maidenly*;  
Our sex as well as I, may chide.  
—You virtuous arts, and harmful  
le blushing? what a *maidenly* n  
you become? *Shak.*

MAIDEN-PAP, a high mountain  
Caithness-shire, in the parish of L

MAIDEN-PAPS, a mountain in  
miles from Hawick.

MAIDEN PLUM. See CHRYSO

\* MAIDHOOD. *n. f.* [*from* *maide*]

By *maidenhood*, honour, and ev

I love thee. *Shak. Hamlet*

\* MAIDMARIAN. *n. f.* [*maid* and *mar*]

kind of dance, so called from a  
like a woman, who plays tricks;

—A set of morrice-dancers danc  
with a tabour and pipe. *T. my*



**PALE.** *adj.* [*maid and pale.*] Pale like a

1.—  
ge the complexion of her *maidpale* peace  
'let indignation. *Sbak.*

**SERVANT.** *n. f.* A female servant.—It  
y right what you say of the indifference  
n friends, whether we are sick or well;  
*maid-servants* in a family have the same  
*wife*.

**TONE,** a town of Kent, 36 miles from  
seated on the Medway, a branch of  
is through it. It is a corporation, and  
members to parliament. Its chief trade  
thread, which is made to great perfec-  
n hops; of which there are many planta-  
t the town, as well as orchards of cher-  
: tide flows up to the town, and brings  
, &c. of 50 or 60 tons. It has a fine  
3c. One of the public gaols is kept in  
; and the custody of weights and mea-  
wed by the standard of Henry VII. was  
l to it by parliament. The knights of  
re always elected, and the courts of jus-  
here, and generally the affizes. The  
nterbury is parson of this parish, which  
liar, and served by his curate. It has  
hools, in which are above 100 boys  
London is supplied with more com-  
om hence than from any market town  
; particularly with large bullocks from  
l of Kent; with timber, wheat, hops,  
l cherries; with a sort of paving stones,  
hes square, exceedingly durable; and  
ne white sand for glass-houses and sta-  
here are many gentlemen's seats within  
o that the town is not more noted for  
for gentry. The market on Thursday  
in the country; it has another on the  
y of every month, and fairs on Feb.  
12th, June 20th (called *Garlic fair*),  
7th. It is 20 miles W. of Canterbury,  
by E. of London. Lon. o. 38. E. Lat.

**NE.** See **MAINE**, and **MAYENNE**.  
**ESTICALLY.** *adv.* [from *majestical.*]  
ty; with grandeur.—  
From Italy a wand'ring ray  
ng light illuminates the day;  
urd the bands, *majestically* bright,  
e she fixes her imperial light. *Granv.*  
re I seen in black and white  
ng thing, a magpie height,  
*icallly* stalk;  
, worthless animal.  
s the tongue, and wags the tail,  
tter, pride, and talk. *Swift.*

**STICAL.** } *adj.* [from *majesty.*] 1.  
**STICK.** } August; having dignity;  
erial; regal; great of appearance.—

They made a doubt  
*majestical* would put him out: *Sbak.*  
e start of the *majestick* world,  
r the palm alone. *Sbak.*  
o it wrong, being so *majestical*,  
it the show of violence. *Sbak.*

In his face  
knelt, heighten'd with *majestic* grace.  
*Dunbam.*

And forth he mov'd, *majestick* as a god. *Pope.*

2. Stately; pompous; splendid.—It was no mean  
thing which he purposed; to perform a work so *ma-*  
*jestical* and stately was no small charge. *Hooker.* 3.

Sublime; elevated; lofty.—Which passage doth  
not only argue an infinite abundance, both of ar-  
tizans and materials, but likewise of magnificent  
and *majestical* desires in every common person.  
*Wotton.*—The least portions must be of the e-  
epick kind; all must be grave, *majestical* and  
sublime.

(1.) \* **MAJESTY.** *n. f.* [*majestas*, Lat.] 1. Digi-  
nity; grandeur; greatness of appearance; an ap-  
pearance awful and solemn.—The voice of the  
Lord is full of *majesty*. *Psal.* xxix. 4.—The Lord  
reigneth; he is clothed with *majesty*. *Psal.* xciii.—  
Amidst

Thick clouds and dark, doth Heav'n's all-rul-  
ing Sire

Chuse to reside, his glory unobscur'd,  
And with the *majesty* of darkness round  
Covers his throne. *Milton.*

Great, without pride, in sober *majesty*. *Pope.*

2. Power; sovereignty.—Thine, O Lord, is the  
power and *majesty*. 1 *Chron.* xxix.—To the only  
wife God be glory and *majesty*. *Jude*, 25.—He  
gave Nebuchadnezzar thy father *majesty*. *Dan.* v.  
18. 3. Dignity; elevation of manner.—

The first in loftiness of thought' surpass'd,  
The next in *majesty*. *Dryden.*

4. The title of kings and queens.—

Most royal *majesty*,  
I crave no more than what your highness offer'd,  
Nor will you tender less. *Sbak.*

I have a garden opens to the sea,  
From whence I can your *majesty* convey  
To some nigh friend. *Walker.*

—He, who had been always believed a creature  
of the queen, visited her *majesty* but once in six  
weeks. *Clarendon.*—

I walk in awful state above  
The *majesty* of heaven. *Dryden.*

(2.) **MAJESTY** (§ 1, *def.* 4.) is derived from *ma-*  
*yor*, Lat. greater, and *status*, state. The emperor  
is called *Sacred Majesty*, *Imperial Majesty*, and *Cæ-*  
*sarean Majesty*; The king of Hungary, *His Aposto-*  
*lic Majesty*. The king of Spain, *His most Catho-*  
*lic Majesty*; and the king of Portugal, *His most*  
*Faithful Majesty*. The king of France was called  
*His most Christian Majesty*; and when he treated  
with the emperor, the word *Sacred* was added.  
As to other kings, the name of the kingdom is  
prefixed; as *His Britannic Majesty*, *His Sardinian*  
*Majesty*, &c. Formerly princes were more sparing  
in giving titles, and more modest in claiming  
them; before the reign of Charles V. the king of  
Spain had only the title of *Highness*; and before  
that of Henry VIII. the kings of England were only  
address'd under the titles of *Grace* and *Highness*.  
Under the Roman republic, the title *Majesty* (*ma-*  
*jestas*) belonged to the whole body of the people,  
and to the principal magistrates; so that to dimi-  
nish or wound the *majesty* of the commonwealth,  
was to be wanting in respect to the state or to its  
ministers. But the power afterwards passing into  
the hands of a single person, the appellation of  
*Majesty* was transferred to the emperor and the  
imperial family. Pliny compliments Trajan on his



ces, Lewis XIV. bestowed upon him the title of Leghorn. Being appointed in 1715 the sea-ports in the Levant and on the Barbary, he was so successful, that he was permitted to retire with a considerable pension settled at Marseilles; where he died in the 79th year of his age. He was a man of great imagination, gentle manners, and the most probity. He paid particular attention to natural history, and was anxious to investigate every part of our globe. On this important subject he made some curious observations, which have been published in 8vo under the title of *Tellamed*, his name written backwards. The editor, the Abbé Mascrier, has given to this work the title of dialogue. An Indian philosopher is introduced as explaining to a French missionary his notions concerning the nature of the globe, and the origin of mankind. His great object is to show that all the strata of which this globe is composed, even to the tops of the highest mountains, have come from the bosom of the waters. He dedicated his book to the illustrious Cyrano de Bergerac, author of *Travels to the sun and moon*; numerous epistle, wherein he says, that dialogues are nothing but a collection of ideas and fancies. Of the 6 dialogues which compose this work, the 4 first contain many important philosophical observations; in the other two he finds nothing but conjectures, fancies, and tales, sometimes amusing, but always absurd. *Description of Egypt*, was collected from the observations by Mascrier, in 1743, 4to, or in 2 vols.

MEZAIS, a town of France in the department of Vendée, situated in an island formed by the sea and Autize, 6 miles S. of Fontenay, and 10 miles of Rochelle. Lon. o. 40. W. Lat. 46.

MAILLY, the name of 4 towns of France, viz. 1. in the dep. of Aube, 9 miles N. of Troyes; 2. in that of Saone and Loire, 4 miles S. of Mâcon; 3. in that of Douens; and 4. MAILLY LE CHATEAUX, a town in the dep. of Yonne, 12 miles NW. of Avallon, and 12 miles from Auxerre.

MAIMI, a river of Abyssinia, in Sarnen, rises near a village built on a precipice, flows through a wood, where it divides into 2 rivers running N. and S. after which they unite and running  $\frac{1}{2}$  of a mile farther, the united stream is precipitated down a cataract 150 feet high.

MAIM, *n. f.* [from the verb.] 1. Privation of an essential part; lameness, produced by loss of a limb, or amputation.—Surely there is more reason to fear, lest the want thereof be a *maim*, than to use a blamish. *Hooker*.—The duke of Gloucester, scarce himself, bears so shrewd a *maim*. *Scots*. 2. Mischievousness.

Not to deep a *maim*, to be cast forth in the common air. *Shakspere*. Lat. defect.—A noble author esteems it to be in history, that the acts of parliament are to be cited. *Hayward*.

MAIM, MAHLEM, or MAYHEM, in law, is a writ by which a person loses the use of a

member that might have been a defence to him; as when a bone is broken, a foot, hand, or other member cut off, or an eye put out; though the cutting off an ear or nose, or breaking the hinder-teeth, was formerly held to be no maim. A maim by castration was anciently punished with death, and other maims with loss of member for a member; but afterwards they were only punished by fine and imprisonment. It is now enacted by the statute 22 and 23 Car. II. that if any person, from malice aforethought, shall disable any limb or member of any of the king's subjects, with an intent to disfigure him, the offender, with his aiders and abettors, shall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy, but shall not corrupt the blood, or occasion forfeiture of lands, &c.

\* To MAIM, *v. a.* [*maitan*, Gothick, to cut off; *mebaigner*, to maim, old French; *mebaina*, Armorick; *mancus*, Lat.] To deprive of any necessary part; to cripple by loss of a limb: originally written from the French *maybem*.—

You wrought to be a legate; by which power you *maim'd* the jurisdiction of all bishops. *Shakspere*.—The multitude wondered when they saw the dumb to speak, the *maimed* to be whole, and the lame to walk. *Matth. xv. 31*.

(1.) MAIMBOURG, Lewis, a celebrated French Jesuit, born in 1610. He joined the Jesuits in 1626; and acquired great reputation both as a teacher, and a historian. He published *Histories* 1. of *Arianism*; 2. of the *Iconoclastes*; 3. of *Calvinism*; 4. of *Lutheranism*, and 5. of the *Crosses*. The Jansenists criticized the two first of these, and the 3d was violently opposed; but he made no replies. In 1682, he was, by order of Pope Innocent XI, expelled the Society of Jesuits, for his zeal in defending the liberty of the Gallican church against the Ultramontans; but Lewis XIV. made him amends by a genteel pension. He retired into the abbey of St. Victor, where he died in 1686.

(2.) MAIMBOURG, Theodore, cousin to the preceding, embraced Calvinism, afterwards returned to the Romish church, returned back to the reformed religion, embraced Socinianism, and died at London about 1693, after having published some works.

MAIMONIDES, Moses, or MOSES THE SON OF MAIMON, a celebrated rabbi, called by the Jews *the eagle of the doctors*, was born of an illustrious family at Cordova in Spain, in 1135. He is also called MOSES ÆGYPTIUS, because he settled in Egypt, where he spent his life as physician to the Sultan. He also opened a school, which was soon filled with pupils from Alexandria, Damascus, &c. who spread his fame all over the world. He was no less eminent in philosophy, mathematics, and divinity, than in medicine. Casaubon says of him, that "he was the first of his tribe who ceased to be a trifler." It would be tedious to enumerate all his works; some were written originally in Arabic, but are now extant only in Hebrew translations. "Those (says Collier) who desire to learn the doctrine and the canon law contained in the Talmud, may read Maimonides's compendium of it in his book entitled *Yad*; wherein they will find great part of the tables in the Talmud discarded. But the

*More Newchin* is the most valued of all his works; designed to explain the obscure words, phrases, metaphors, &c. in scripture." He died in Egypt, aged 70, and was buried in Upper Galilee.

(1.) \* MAIN. *adj.* [*magnus*, old Fr. *magnus*, Lat.] 1. Principal; chief leading.—Every grand of *main* publick duty which God requireth of his church.—

A man may prophesy,  
With a near aim, of the *main* chance of things  
As yet not come to life. *Shak.*

He is superstitious grown of late,  
Quite from the *main* opinion he had once  
Of fantasy, of dreams, and ceremonies. *Shak.*  
—There arose three notorious and *main* rebellions,  
which drew several out of England. *Davies.*—

The nether flood,  
Which now divided into four *main* streams,  
Runs diverse. *Milton.*

I should be much for open war, O peers,  
If what was urg'd  
*Main* reason to persuade immediate war,  
Did not dissuade me most. *Milt.*

—All creatures look to the *main* chance, that is  
Food and propagation. *L'Estrange.*—Our *main*  
interest is to be as happy as we can, and as long  
as possible. *Tillotson.*—

Be careful still of the *main* chance. *Dryd.*  
—Whilst they have buified themselves in various  
learning, they have been wanting in the one *main*  
thing. *Baker.*—Nor is it only in the *main* design,  
but they have followed him in every episode. *Pope.*  
2. Mighty; huge; overpowering; vast.—

You may as well go stand upon the beach,  
And bid the *main* flood bate his usual height. *Shak.*

Seest thou what rage  
The spirit of our liberty, whom no bounds,  
Nor yet the *main* seas,  
Will limit, can contain? *Milton.*  
2. *adj.* concerning the chief part.—  
We ourself will follow  
In the *main* battle. *Shak.*

All already  
Clang'd our *main* battle's front. *Shak.*  
2. Important; possible.—This young prince, with  
a train of young noblemen and gentlemen, but  
not with any *main* army, came over to take pos-  
session of his new patrimony. *Davies.*—

That, which thou might  
Believ'st so *main* to our success, I bring. *Milton.*

(2.) MAIN (2) *1. def. 1.* is usually applied by  
writers to whatever is principal, as opposed to  
whatever is secondary. Thus the MAIN LAND is  
used in contradistinction to an island or peninsula;  
and the main mast, the main wale, the main keel,  
and the main hatchway, are distinguished from  
fore and after masts, the channel wales, the  
fore keel, and the fore and after hatchways, &c.

(3.) \* MAIN. *1. def. 2.* The gross; the bulk; the  
greater part.—The *main* of the iron may be reduced  
to language and an iron oxymoron in wisdom, by  
repetition. *Locke.* 2. To name the whole; the  
part.—They allowed the clergy and government  
of the church of England to be the *main*.  
*The Church.*—The *main* of the country consists  
of the *main* hills, but the *main* hills are above

twelve months. *Locke.* 3. The ocean;  
sea, as distinguished from bays or rivers.

His state  
Empties itself, as doth an inland brook  
Into the *main* of waters.

Bids the wind blow the earth into  
Or swell the curled water 'bove the  
That things might change.

He fell, and struggling in the *main*,  
Cry'd out for help, but cry'd in vain.  
Say, why should the collected *main*  
Itself within itself contain?

4. Violence; force.—  
He 'gan to advance  
With huge force, and importable *mai*  
With might and *main*

He hasted to get up again.  
With might and *main* they chac'd  
d'rous fox,

With brazen trumpets, and inflated b  
5. [From *manus*, Latin.] A hand at dice  
All at one cast, to set so rich a *main*  
In the nice hazard of one doubtful ho  
To pass our tedious hours away,  
We throw a merry *main*. *Karl Desj*

Writing is but just like dice,  
And lucky *main*s make people wife.

6. The continent.—In 1589 we turned  
lengers, and invaded the *main* of Spain  
7. A hamper. *Am'worth.*

(4.) MAIN, in Geography. See MAIN

(1.) MAINA, a country of European  
in the Morea, between two chains of m  
which, with the bravery of the people, l  
served them from the yoke of the Tur  
have never been able to subdue them.

(2.) MAINS, the capital of the above  
with a harbour on the W. coast of the S  
MAINBURG, a town of Bavaria, of  
mos, 18 miles ESE. of Ingoldstadt, and  
of Munich.

(3.) MAINE, or MAW, one of the 1  
States of N. America; bounded on the  
mountains which separate it from Lou  
da; E. by the river St Croix, and Ne  
wick; SE. and S. by the Atlantic Oee  
W. by the Piscataqua, and New Hampsh  
graphers differ greatly as to its extent. Dr  
and Mr Walker make it 300 miles long  
broad; others make its length and bread  
200 miles each; Mr Joseph Scott, and  
*States Gazetteer* makes its greatest li  
miles, and its breadth along the coast 22

rev. Dr Jedidiah Monk, in his *American*  
*Geography*, (Boston, 1793) reduces its l  
170 miles and its breadth to 125; while  
Clement Cruttwell makes it 195 miles l  
only 110 broad. These differences seem  
partly arisen from confounding the *I*  
*Main*, with the old *Province of Main*,  
which forms only a part of it. The te  
to its of the District, now the State of M  
estimated at 40,000 square miles, or 15  
acres; those of the old province were  
square miles. The climate, soil, and pe  
of the country are much the same with  
New Hampshire; (see HAMPSHIRE, N<sup>o</sup>

tempt to settle it was made in 1607; on the side of the Kennebeck; and attempts were variously made between 1620 and 1630, when it had a settlement at the place now called *Wassallo*. But no permanent settlement was effected till 1635, when Sir Ferdinand Gorges secured a grant from the council of Plymouth country between the Piscataqua and the Kennebeck, forming a square of 120 miles: and he obtained a charter from K. Charles I, the most unlimited privileges; which enabled him to institute a government in the province.

In 1647 he died, on which the people re-elected their own governors annually; they did till 1652, when the inhabitants of Massachusetts claiming a right of jurisdiction over the province by their charter, the people of Maine revolted; the district was named *Yorkshire*; 7 courts were held as in Massachusetts, and 7 magistrates sent deputies to the general court at Boston. In 1677, the citizens of Massachusetts rescinded Gorges's patent for 1200. But in 1684, a charter was vacated, and in 1691, by a new charter from William and Mary, the province of Maine and the large territory eastward to Nova Scotia were incorporated with MASSACHUSETTS; which time it has been governed as that both before and since the revolution. At that period it was divided into two districts, called *Acadia* and *Maine*. From its first settlement, 1600, this country has been dreadfully harassed by the Indians. In 1675, almost all the settlements were destroyed. From 1692 till 1702, it was a continued scene of murder, burning, and depredation. The inhabitants also suffered much in 1720 and 1727: and even so late as 1744 and 1748, many of them were killed and carried off by the Indians from the towns on the coast. During these last 50 years, they have lived in peace and have increased rapidly. At that period the population did not exceed 50,000 souls. In 1802 it is estimated at above 120,000. The principal religious sects are Congregationalists and Baptists; but there are also Presbyterians, Quakers, Methodists, Episcopalians, and Papists. The only Indians who reside in this state are the Penobscotians.

This extensive country was, in 1761, divided into 3 counties, containing 4½ millions of acres each; but now consists of 5, viz. York, Cumberland, Lincoln, Hancock, and Washington, which are subdivided into 94 townships. The chief towns are Portland, the capital, York, Bangor, Hallowell, Waldoborough, Penikese, and Machias. The principal rivers are the Kennebeck, Union, Penobscot, Kennebec, Sheepfoot, Androscoggin, Moose, Nonotuck, Saco, and Sebacoek. The chief cities are Bangor and Sebacoek. The coast is everywhere a bay. The only mountain is *Agassiz*, a noted lead mine, in York county and rises 8 miles from the shore. Iron ore abounds, some coppers and sulphur; and several iron mines are carried on. Wool and flax are raised for home consumption; but the trade till lately was in lumber. Dried fish is a capital article of exportation; and shipping is carried on to a considerable extent.

The constitution is the same with that of MASSACHUSETTS. The citizens are industrious, enterprising, brave, hardy, and hospitable. Maine lies between 4° and 9° Lon. E. of Philadelphia; and between 68° and 72° Lon. W. of London: in Lat. from 43° to 48° N.

(2.) MAINE, a ci-devant prov. of France, now forming the department. (See N° 3.) It was bounded on the N. by Normandy; E. by Perche; S. by Touraine and Vendomois; and W. by Anjou and Bretagne. It was divided into *Upper and Lower Maine*. MANS was the capital.

(3.) MAINE, or MAYENNE, a department of France, which includes the above province; so named from the river (N° 5.) It is bounded on the N. by the departments of the Channel and Orne; E. by that of the Sarthe; S. by that of Maine and Loire; and W. by that of Ille and Vilaine. It is 45 miles long from N. to S. and 30 broad. LAVAL is the capital.

(4.) MAINE, MAIENNE, or MAYENNE, the capital of the above department, seated on the river (N° 5.) with a castle on a rock; containing about 6000 citizens. Lon. 0. 35. W. Lat. 48. 18. N.

(5.) MAINE, or MAYENNE, a river of France, which rises near Linieres, in the dep. of Charente; passes by Ambrier, Maine, (N° 4.) Laval, Chateau, Gontier, &c. and joining the Sarthe 3 miles N. of Angers, forms the MAYNE.

(6.) MAINE, a river of Germany, which rises in the circle of Franconia, runs by Bamberg, Wurtzburg, Alschaffenburg, Hauna, and Francfort, and falls into the Rhine at Mentz.

(7.) MAINE AND LOIRE. See MAYNE, N° 3.

(8.) MAINE, DISTRICT OF. See N° 1.

(9.) MAINE, PROVINCE OF, a considerable part of the district of Maine, formerly called *Yorkshire*, about 120 miles square. It was bounded on the N. and NE. by the land called *Sagadahock*; S. by the Atlantic, and W. by New Hampshire. See N° 1.

MAINEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Eure, 8 miles ESE. of Rouen.

(1.) \* MAINLAND. *n. f. (main and land.)* Continent. *Spenser* and *Dryden* seem to accept this word differently.

None was it island then,  
But was all desolate, and of some thought,  
By sea to have been from the *Cornick mainland*  
brought. *Spenser.*  
Those whom Tyber's holy forests hide,  
Or Circe's hills from the *mainland* divide. *Dryden.*

(2.) MAINLAND, or POMONA, the largest of the Orkney Islands. According to Dr Brookes and J. Walker, it is 24 miles long and 9 broad; but others make its length 33 miles. It contains 9 parishes, and 4 excellent harbours. See ORKNEY and POMONA. KIRKWALL is the capital.

(3.) MAIN-LAND, the largest of the Shetland, or Zetland Islands. It is about 60 miles long from N. to S. and in some places 20 broad, but in others not much above two. Its mountains are cavernous and abound with game, and its coast with fish. It has a mine of copper and another of iron, both very productive. Its sheep and horses are uncommonly small; but the latter are remarkable

ably strong and handsome, and the former are famous for the finest of wool. LEAWICK is the capital. See SHETLAND.

\* MAINLY, *adv.* [from *main*.] 1. Chiefly; principally.—

A brutish vice,

Inductive *mainly* to the sin of Eve. *Par. Lost.*  
—They are *mainly* reducible to three. *More.*—  
The metallic matter now found in the perpendicular intervals of the strata; being interspersed amongst the matter, whereof the said strata *mainly* consist. *Woodward.* 2. Greatly; hugely.—It was observed by one, that himself came hardly to a little riches, and very easily to great riches: for when a man's stock is come to that, that he can expect the prime of markets, and overcome those bargains, which, for their greatness, are few mens money, and be partner in the industries of younger men, he cannot but increase *mainly*. *Bacon.*

\* MAINMAST, *n. s.* [*main* and *mast*.] The chief or middle mast.—

One dire shot,

Clof by the board the prince's *mainmast* bore.

*Dryden.*

—A Dutchman, upon breaking his leg by a fall from the *mainmast*, told the standers-by, it was a mercy it was not his neck. *Spektor.*

MAINOUR, MANOUR, or *Meinour* (from the French *mainier*, i. e. *mainu vultare*), in a legal sense denotes the thing that a thief taketh away or stealth: *To be taken with the mainour* is to be taken with the thing stolen about him; and again it was presented, that a thief was delivered to the sheriff or viscount, together with the mainour. If a man be indicted, that he feloniously stole the goods of another, where, in truth, they are his own goods; and the goods be brought into the court as the mainour; and if it be demanded of him, what he saith to the goods; and he disclaim them; though he be acquitted of the felony, he shall lose the goods. If the goods were taken with the manour, and the manour be carried to the court, they, in such cases, would arraign him upon the manour, without any appeal or indictment. *Covent. Black. Comment. Vol. III. 71. Vol. IV. 305.*

\* MAINPURNABLE, *adj.* Bailable; that may be admitted to give surety.

(1.) \* MAINPURNOR, *n. s.* Surety; bail.—He enforced the clergy himself to fly, till 26 noblemen became *mainpurnors* for his appearance. *Darwin.*

(2.) MAINPURNORS differ from bail, in that a man's bail may impound, or surrender him up before the appointed day of appearance; mainpurnors can do neither, but are merely sureties for his appearance at the day: but mean only sureties, that the parties be answerable for the special matter for which they stipulate; mainpurnors are bound to produce him to answer all charges whatsoever. See HABEAS CORPUS.

\* MAINPRISE, *n. s.* T. bail.

(1.) \* MAINPRISE, *n. s.* [*main* and *pris*, French.] Delivery by a the custody of a friend, upon security given for appearance at bail.—The earl of Devonland used to *mainprise* his brother.—  
By the way of *mainprise*, said  
Downy from this base restraint. *Hallifax.*

(2.) MAINPRISE, or } See IMPRISONMENT,  
MAINPRISE, } 3. The writ of main-

prise, *maincapio*, is a writ directed to the sheriff (either generally, when any man is imprisoned for a bailable offence, and bail hath been refused; or specially, when the offence or cause of commitment is not properly bailable below), commanding him to take sureties for the prisoner's appearance, usually called MAINPURNORS, and to let him at large.

MAINS, or MAINS OF FINTRY, a parish of Scotland, in Angus-shire, 4 miles long and 3 broad. The soil is a deep loam, very fertile, producing excellent crops of all kinds; husbandry being much improved. The population, in 1790, was 813; increase 169 since 1755; number of horses 1200 and black cattle 300. There are 33 mills in the parish, all turned by the *Dighty*; which runs through it; and 9 bleachfields, 3 of them very extensive.

MAINSAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Creuse, 101 miles NE. of Aubusson, and 72 SW. of Evux.

\* MAINSAIL, *n. s.* [*main* and *sail*.] The sail of the main-mast.—They committed themselves into the sea, and hoisted up the *main-sail* to the wind, and made toward shore. *Ag.*

\* MAINMATE, *n. s.* [*main* and *mate*.] The boat or sail of the mainmast.—

Strike, strike the top-sail; let the *main-mate*,  
And furl your sails. *Dryden.*

(1.) \* TO MAINTAIN, *v. a.* [*maintenir*, Fr.]

1. To preserve; to keep; not to suffer to change.—The ingredients being prescribed in their proportion, *maintain* the blood in a gentle fermentation. *Harvey.* 2. To defend; to hold out; to make good; not to resign.—

This place, these pledges of your love *maintain*.

—God values no man more or less, in placing his high or low, but every one as he *maintains* his post. *Govul's Cujus.* 3. To vindicate; to justify; to support.—If any man of quality will *maintain* upon Edward earl of Gloucester, that he is a most bold traitor, let him appear. *Shak.*—I have possessions being unlawfully gotten, could not be *maintain'd* by the just and honourable law of England.

*Boyer.*—Lord Roberts was full of contradictions in his temper, and of parts so much superior to any in the company, that he could too well *maintain* and justify those contradictions. *Clarke's*—  
*Maintain*

My right, nor think the name of mother vain.

4. To continue; to keep up; not to suffer to cease.—*Maintain* talk with the duke, that my chaff be not of him perceived. *Shak. King Lear.*

Some did the tongue, and some the choir *maintain*.

Beneath a haughty shade.

5. To keep up; to support the expense of.—  
Sufficeth, that I have *maintain'd* my estate,  
And feeds the poor well pleased from my gifts.

—What concerns it you if I wear pearl and rubie?  
I thank my good father I am able to *maintain* the

same. 6. To support with the continuance of  
etc.—Was St. Paul's choice to *maintain* himself

by

his own labour. *Hooker*.—If a woman *maintain* husband, she is full of anger and much reproach. *E. cluf.* xxv. 22.—It is hard to maintain truth, but much harder to be *maintained* by *fools*. 7. To preserve from failure.—Here ten thousand images remain without confusion, and their rank *maintain*.

*Blackmore.*

.) \* To MAINTAIN. *v. n.* To support by argument; to assert as a tenet.—In tragedy and *satire* *maintain* against some of our modern critics, this age and the last have excelled the ancients. *Dryden's Fies.*

MAINTAINABLE. *adj.* [from *maintain*.] Defensible; justifiable.—Being made lord lieutenant of *Loire*, the walls sore beaten and shaken, and he *maintainable*, he defended the place against *Dauphin*. *Harvour*.

MAINTAINER. *n. f.* [from *maintain*.] Supporter; cherisher.—He dedicated the work to *Sir Sidney*, a special *maintainer* of all learning. *Er's Post*.—The *maintainers* and cherishers of *ular* devotion, a true and decent piety. *South*.

.) \* MAINTENANCE. *n. f.* [from *maintenant*, *Fr.*] Supply of the necessaries of life; sustenance; provision.—It was *St Paul's* choice to maintain himself, whereas in living by the churches *maintenances*, as others did, there had been no offence committed. *Hooker*.—God assigned *Adam* maintenance of life, and then appointed him a law to use. *Hooker*.—Those of better fortune not learning their *maintenance*, take degrees little improvement. *Swift*. 2. Support; defence.—They knew that no man in reason take upon him to determine his right, and according to his own determination proceed in *maintenance* thereof. *Hooker*.—The origin and cause of this ordinance amongst the *was* for the defence and *maintenance* of their in their posterity. *Speiser*. 3. Continuance; stay from failure.—Whatever is granted to church for God's honour, and the *maintenance* of service, is granted to God. *South*.

.) MAINTENANCE, in law, bears a near relation to *BARRETRY*; being an officious intermeddling in a suit that does not belong to one, by aiding or assisting either party with money *betwixt*, to prosecute or defend it: a practice greatly encouraged by the first introduction of *money*. This is an offence against public justice, keeps alive strife and contention, and perverts the remedial process of the law into an end of oppression. By the Roman law, it was a crime of the *crimen falsi*, to enter into any conspiracy, or do any act to support another's law by money, gifts, or patronage. A man *awfully*, however, maintain the suit of his *sinister*, *friend*, or poor neighbour, out of pity and compassion. Otherwise the punishment by common law is fine and imprisonment; by stat. 2 Hen. VIII. c. 9. a forfeiture of 10 l. *APATRY*, § 2.

.) MAINENON, Madame DE, a French lady of extraordinary fortune, descended of an ancient family, and whose proper name was *F. are s bigne*, was born in 1635. She was born in *Paris*, where her father had been indicted for some gross offence; and her mother

being unable to support her, she fell to the charge of her father's sister, Mad. Vilette. To escape this state of dependence, she married that famous old buffoon, the Abbe SCARRON, who himself subsisted on a pension allowed him by the court. She lived with him many years, which *Voltaire* calls the happiest of her life; but when he died in 1660, she found herself as indigent as before her marriage. Her friends endeavoured to get her husband's pension continued to her, and presented to many petitions to the king about it, all beginning with "The widow Scarron most humbly prays your majesty, &c." that he was quite weary of them, and would exclaim, "Must I always be pestered with the widow Scarron?" At last, however, through the recommendation of Mad. de Montespan, he settled a much larger pension on her, with a genteel apology for making her wait so long; and afterward appointed her to take care of the education of the young duke of Maine, his son by Mad. de Montespan. The letters she wrote on this occasion charmed the king, and were the origin of her advancement; her personal merit effected all the rest. He bought her the lands of MAINTENON, (see N° 2.) the only estate she ever had, and called her publicly *Madam de Maintenon*; which was of great service to her, by releasing her from the ridicule attending that of *Scarron*. Her elevation was to her only a retreat; the king came to her apartment every day after dinner, before and after supper, and continued there till midnight; here he did business with his ministers, while she, engaged in reading or needlework, never showed any desire to talk of state affairs. She did not even make use of her power to dignify her own relations. About the end of 1685, Lewis XIV. married her, he being then in his 48th and she in her 50th year. She prevailed on him to found a religious community for the education of 300 young ladies of quality at St Cyr, where she frequently retired from that melancholy, of which she complains so pathetically in one of her letters, and which few will suppose she should have been liable to in such an elevated situation. But, as M. *Voltaire* says, if any thing could show the vanity of ambition, it would certainly be this letter. She could have no other uneasiness than the uniformity of her manner of living with a great king; and this made her once say to the Count D'Aubigne her brother, "I can bear it no longer; I wish I were dead!" Lewis, however, died before her in 1715; when she retired wholly to St Cyr, and spent the rest of her days in acts of devotion. What is most surprising is, that her husband left no certain provision for her, only recommending her to the duke of Orleans. She would accept no more than a pension of 80,000 livres, which was punctually paid her till she died in 1719. A collection of her letters has been published, and translated into English; from which her character will be best known.

(2.) MAINTENON, a town of France, in the Dept. of Eure and Loire, and late prov. of *Beauce*; seated on the Eure, in a valley betw. on two mountains, on the ground given to Mad. Maintenon. It has a church and castle, and lies 9 miles N. of Chartres, and 12 SW. of Dreux. Lon. 1. 36. E. Lat. 48. 31. N.

\* **MAINTOP**. *n. f.* [*main and top*.] The top of the mainmast.—

From their *maintop* joyful news they hear  
Of ships. *Dryden.*  
Dictys could the *maintop* mast bestride,  
And down the ropes with active vigour slide. *Addison.*

**MAINUNGEN**, a town and district of Franconia, 8 miles N. of Henneberg. Lon. 10. 39. E. Lat. 50. 46. N.

\* **MAINYARD**. *n. f.* [*main and yard*.] The yard of the mainmast.—With sharp hooks they took hold of the tackling which held the *mainyard* to the mast, then rowing they cut the tackling, and brought the *mainyard* by the board. *Arbutnot.*

**MAJO BAMBIA**, a town of Peru, in Chacopoya.  
(1.) \* **MAJOR**. *adj.* [*major*, Latin.] 1. Greater in number, quantity, or extent.—They bind none, tho' not though they be many, saving only when they are the *major* part of a general assembly. *Hooker.*—The true meridian is a *major* circle passing through the poles of the world and the zenith of any place, exactly dividing the east from the west. *Brown's Vulgar Err.*—In common discourse we denominate persons and things according to the *major* part of their character. *Watt's Logic.* 2. Greater in dignity.—

Fall Greek, fall fame, honour, or go, or stay,  
My *major* vow lies here. *Troil. and Cressida.*

(2.) \* **MAJOR**. *n. f.* 1. The officer above the captain; the lowest field officer. 2. A mayor or head officer of a town Obsolete. 3. The first proposition of a syllogism, containing some generality.—The *major* of our author's argument is to be understood of the material ingredients of bodies. *Boyle.*

(3.) **MAJOR**, in geography. See **MAGGIORE**.

(4.) **MAJOR**, in law, a person who is of age to manage his own affairs. By the civil law a man is not a *major* till the age of 25 years; in England, he is a *major* at 21; in Normandy at 20, &c.

(5.) **MAJOR**, in logic, is understood of the first proposition of a regular syllogism. It is called *major*, because it has a more extensive sense than the minor proposition, as containing the principal term. See *Logic. Part III; Sect. I, § VI.*

(6.) **MAJOR** and **MINOR**, in music, are applied to concerts which differ from each other by a semitone. See *CONCERT*, § IV. *Major tone* is the difference between the fifth and fourth; and *minor semitone* the difference between the major fourth and the third. The *major* tone surpasses the minor by a comma.

(7.) **MAJOR**, John, a Scottish divine and historian, born at Crichton, near Haddington, in 1469. He studied both at Oxford and Cambridge. He went to Paris in 1493, and studied in the college of St Barthe, under John Boulic. Thence he removed to that of Montacute, where he studied divinity under Standouk. In 1498, he was entered of the college of Navarre. In 1525, he was created D. D.; returned to Scotland in 1519, and taught theology several years in the university of St Andrew's. But being disgusted with the quarrels of his countrymen, he returned to Paris, and resumed his lectures in the college of Montacute, where he had several pupils, who afterwards became eminent. About 1539, he returned once

more to Scotland, and was chosen professor of theology at St Andrew's, of which he afterwards became provost; and there died in 1547. His logical treatises, his commentary on Aristotle's *physics*, and his theological works, to several volumes large folio; which, now disregarded, were admired by his contemporaries. A work, less prized in his own age, made him known to posterity. His book *titus Sutorum* was first published at Paris by Julius Ascenius, in 1521. He rejects in it the fictions of former historians. He intermingles the history of England with that of Scotland, showing his impartiality, by admitting the superiority of English writers often in preference to those of his own country. Bede, Caxton, and Froissart were much consulted by him. The freedom which he has censured the rapacity and insolence of ecclesiastics, and the strain of ridicule which he treats the pope's supremacy, do honour to his judgment. But Bp. Spotiswood has styled his style *Sorbonnic* and *barbarous*.

(8.) **MAJOR**, (§ 2, def. 1.) in the art of war, the title of several officers of very different ranks and functions: as,

i. **Aid-MAJOR**, an officer on sundry occasions appointed to act as major, who has a precedence above others of the same denomination. Our horse and foot-guards have their guidons and 3d. majors

ii. **Drum-MAJOR**. See **DRUM-MAJOR**. He has the same authority over his drummers as a corporal has over his squad. He instructs them in their different beats; is daily at orders with the sergeants, to know the number of drummers in duty; and marches at their head when they are in a body. In the day of battle, or at a review, he must be very attentive to the orders given that he may regulate his beats according to the movements ordered.

iii. **Fife-MAJOR**, he that plays best on the fife. He has the same authority over the fife-drum-major has over the drummers. He instructs them in their duty, appoints them for guard.

iv. **Town-MAJOR**, the 3d officer in an army or garrison, and next to the deputy governor should understand fortification, and his particular charge of the guards, regiments, and companies of foot.

v. \* **MAJOR-GENERAL**. The general officer of the second rank.—*Major-general* Raviart was named with the French king's answer. *Turenne.*

vi. **The MAJOR-GENERAL** is the next officer to the lieutenant-general. His chief business is to receive orders from the general, or in his absence from the lieutenant-general of the day; and to distribute to the brigade-majors, with which he is to regulate the guards, convoys, and regiments, &c. On him rests the whole satisfaction of duty of the army roll. He is to be with the encampment of the army; place himself at the head of it when they march; mark the ground of the camp to the quarters-majors; and places the new guards for the night of the camp. When the army is to march, he dictates to the field-officers the order of the march, which he has received from the general; and on other days gives them the parole. In a



charged with the foraging, with reconnoitring the ground for it, and posting the escorts, if there are two separate attacks, the duty belongs to him; but if there is but one, he is either from the right or left of the attack, which the lieutenant-general has not chosen. When the army is under arms, he assists the lieutenant-general, whose orders he executes. If the army marches to an engagement, his post is at the head of the guards of the army, until they are enough to the enemy to rejoin their different regiments; after which he retires to his own proper post: for the major-generals are disposed in the front of battle as the lieutenant-generals are; to the rear, however, they are subordinate, for the command of their divisions. The major-general receives the aid-de-camp paid for executing his orders.

**MAJOR OF A REGIMENT OF FOOT**, the second officer to the lieutenant-colonel, generally promoted from the eldest captain. He is to take care that the regiment be well exercised, to see it kept in good order, and to rally it in case of being broke in action: he is the only officer among the infantry that is allowed to be on horseback in the field of action, that he may the more readily execute the colonel's orders.

**MAJOR OF A REGIMENT OF HORSE**, as well as foot, ought to be a man of honour, intelligence, understanding, courage, activity, experience, and address: he should be master of arithmetic, and keep a detail of the regiment in every particular: he should be skilled in horsemanship, and attentive to his business: one of his principal duties is, to keep an exact roster of the officers and privates: he should have a perfect knowledge in the military evolutions, as he is obliged by his duty to instruct others, &c.

**MAJOR OF ARTILLERY**, is the next officer to the lieutenant-colonel. His post is very laborious, as the whole detail of the corps rests with him; and therefore all the non-commissioned officers are subordinate to him, as his title of **SERJEANT-MAJOR** imports: in this quality they must obey him an exact account of every thing which comes to their knowledge, either regarding the orders or wants of the artillery and soldiers. He should possess a perfect knowledge of the power of artillery, together with all its evolutions. In the field he goes daily to receive orders from the lieutenant-major, and communicates them with the lieutenant to his superiors, and then dictates them to the adjutant. He should be a very good mathematician, and be well acquainted with every thing relating to the train of artillery, &c.

**MAJOR OF BRIGADE**. See **BRIGADE-MAJOR**. He is appointed only in camp: he goes every day to the head quarters to receive orders from the adjutant-general: there he writes exactly what is dictated to him; thence he goes to give the orders, at the place appointed, to the different majors or adjutants of the regiments, which compose the brigade, and regulates with them the number of officers and men which each are to furnish for the service of the army; taking care to keep an exact roster, that one may not give more than another; and that each march in their tour. In short, the adjutant of brigade is charged with the particular

detail in his own brigade, in much the same way as the adjutant-general is charged with the general detail of the duty of the army. He sends every morning to the adjutant-general an exact return, by battalion and company, of the men of his brigade missing at the retreat, or a report expressing that none are absent: he also mentions the officers absent with or without leave. As all orders pass through the hands of the majors of brigade, they have numberless occasions of showing their talents and exactness.

**xi. MAJOR OF ENGINEERS**, commonly called **SUB-DIRECTOR**, should be well skilled in military architecture, fortification, gunnery, and mining. He should know how to fortify in the field, to attack and defend all sorts of posts, and to conduct the works in a siege, &c. See **ENGINEER**.

**xii. MAJOR, SERGEANT**. See **SERGEANT-MAJOR**; and § ix.

**\* MAJORATION**. *n. f.* [from *major*.] Encrease; enlargement.—There be five ways of *majoration* of sounds: enclosure simple; enclosure with dilation; communication; reflection concurrent; and approach to the senfory. *Escon.*

**(1.) MAJORCA**, an island of the Mediterranean, lying between Yvica on the W. and Minorca on the E. These 3 islands were anciently called *Balæars*, (See **BALEARES**) and originally belonged to the Carthaginians; but during the wars of that people with the Romans, they regained their liberty. In 122 B. C. they were subdued by Metellus, who treated the inhabitants with such cruelty, that out of 30,000 he scarce left 1000 alive. He then built two cities on Majorca; one on the E. called **PALMA**, now *Majorca*: the other on the W. named **POLLENTIA**, now no longer existing. The island continued subject to the Romans, and to the nations who over-ran the western empire, for many ages. At last it was subdued by the Moors about A. D. 800. By them it was put in a much better condition than it ever was before or since. The Moors, being numerous and industrious, surrounded the coast with towers and lines; cultivated every spot capable of cultivation; and built no fewer than 15 great towns, whereas now there are not above three. The Moorish monarch could then bring into the field an army superior in number to the whole of the inhabitants now upon it, of all ranks, sexes, and ages. In 1229, the island was subdued by the king of Arragon, who established in it a new kingdom, feudatory to that of Arragon, which was destroyed in 1341 by the same monarchs; and ever since, the island hath been subject to Spain, and hath entirely lost its importance. It is about 60 miles long, and 45 broad. The air is clear and temperate, and the heat in summer is so qualified by the breezes, that it is by far the most pleasant of all the islands in the Mediterranean. There are some mountains; but the country is generally flat, and the soil very fertile, producing great quantities of excellent corn. Oil, wine, and salt, are very plentiful, as also black cattle, and sheep; but deer, rabbits, and wild fowl, abound so much, that they alone are sufficient for the subsistence of the inhabitants. There are no rivers, but many springs and wells, with several good

harbours. The inhabitants are robust, active, and good fishermen.

(2.) MAJORCA, a handsome, large, and strong town, in the SW. part of the above island, with a garrison and bishop's see. It contains about 6000 houses, and 20 churches, besides the cathedral. The squares, cathedral, and royal palace, are magnificent. A captain-general resides there, who commands the whole island. It was taken by the English in 1706; but was retaken in 1715. It has a good harbour, 70 miles NE. of Yvica, 120 SE. of Barcelona, 120 E. of Valencia, and 300 from Madrid. Lon. 2. 55. E. Lat. 39. 36. N.

(1.) \* MAJOR-DOMO. *n. f.* [*majeur-dome*, French.] One who holds occasionally the place of master of the house.

(2.) MAJOR-DOMO is an Italian term, often used for master of the *household*. The title was formerly given, in the courts of princes, to three different kinds of officers. 1. To him who took care of what related to the prince's table, or eating; otherwise called *ELKATER*, *praefectus mensae*, *archibutlinus*, *dapifer*, and *princeps coquorum*.—2. It was also applied to the steward of the household.—3. It was also given to the chief minister, or him to whom the prince deputed the administration of his affairs, foreign and domestic, relating to war and peace. Instances of major-domos in the two first senses are frequent in the English, French, and Norman histories.

\* MAJORITY. *n. f.* [from *major*.] 1. The state of being greater.—It is not the plurality of parts without *majority* of parts that maketh the total greater. *Grav.* 2. The greater number. [*majorité*, French.] It was highly probable the *majority* would be so wise as to censure that candidate which was most agreeable to the publick. *Milly*.

As in a state, so in schools,  
*Majority* of votes rules. *Prior*.  
 —Different opinions keep the world in awe; for read in the *majority* of mankind ought to be in general every year. *Zacharias*. 3. [From *maiores*, Lat.] Ancestry.—Of old parents an evil generation, a posterity not unlike their *maiores*. *Brown*. 2. Full age; end of minority.—During the infancy of Henry the III. the barons were troubled in expelling the French; but this prince was no sooner come to his *majority*, but the barons raised a civil war against him. *Lives*. 5. First rank. Obsolete.—

Douglas, whose high deeds,  
 Whose hot incursions, and great name in arms,  
 Holds from all soldiers chief *majority*,  
 And military title capital. *S'ak*.  
 6. The office of a major.

MAIRAN, John-James D'Ortois DE, an eminent French writer, descended of a noble family at Beliers, and born in that city in 1678. He was one of the most illustrious members of the academy of sciences, and of the French academy. In 1641, he succeeded Fontenelle as secretary to the former. This station he filled with the most distinguished success till 1744. He possessed the faculty of placing the most abstract subjects in the clearest light; a rare talent which appears conspicuous in all his works. The chief of them are 1. *Le traitte sur la Glace*; 1709, 12mo, twice translated into German and Italian. 2. *Dissertation*

*sur la cause de la lumiere des Phosphores*, 1711. 3. *Traite historique & physique de l'Air*, 12mo, 1733; afterwards much enlarged 1754. 4. *Lettre au Pere Pannin, sur diverses questions sur la Chine*, 12mo. 5. A number of papers in the memoirs of the academies (since 1719), of which he published volumes. 6. Several Dissertations, which are small pamphlets. 7. The *Eloges* of the Academics of the Academy of Sciences, who 1741, 1742, 1743, in 12mo, 1747. With Fontenelle, the author attained almost excellence by his talent of discriminating characters, appreciating their merits, and them due praise, without concealing their His reputation extended into foreign parts. He was a member of the imperial academy of Peterburgh, of the royal academy of Liège, the institution at Bologna, of the royal of Edinburgh and Upsal, &c. The gentleman's manners made him be considered as model of the social virtues. The chance guesseau, observing in him great original thought, appointed him president of the *des Savans*; a station which he filled to the satisfaction of the public. His of an honest man is equal to that of the honestest man (said he) is one whose blood is ed with the recital of a good action." *Fdy* at *repartes*. He died at Paris of a of the lungs, Feb. 20, 1771, aged 93.

MAIRE, STRAITS OF LE, a passage Horn, situated between Terra del Fueg ten island: discovered by Le Maire.

however, less used than formerly, surround Staten Island as well as Terra del

MAIRNS, a town of Scotland in 6 miles SE. of Paisley.

MAISONS, a town of France, in 12 miles of Paris, 4 miles SE. of Paris.

MAISSÉ, a town of France, in 12 miles of Oise; 9 miles E. of Etampes.

(1.) MAISTRE, Anthony LE, a French barrister at Paris in 1668, and bred He afterwards joined the Society of St. Bernard, and other works. He published a translation of Christy Life of St. Bernard, and other works. Paris Royal in 1678.

(2.) MAISTRE, Lewis Isaac LE, called was born at Paris in 1613. His genius very early. After an excellent course he was made priest in 1648, and soon afterwards director of the religious of Per Champagne. As these were accused of their enemies persecuted them. In 1670 he was obliged to conceal himself; and in 1671 committed to the Bastille. During his confinement, he is said to have composed the *gures de la Bible*, in which, amidst the most bitter sufferings endured by the justifications more probable, that it was composed by Fontaine his fellow prisoner. To his confinement the public are indebted for the translation of the Bible, finished in 1688 being before the seat of all Courts; who valued his liberty, after an imprisonment of years and a half. He was presented to and the muses, and all the favour

as, that they would send several to examine the state of the prisoners.

He continued at Paris till 1675, and went to Port-Royal, which he was in from 1679. He then settled at Pontreuil, died Jan. 4th, 1684, aged 71.

1. *La Traduction de la Bible*, with the spiritual and literal meanings; which were chiefly done by Du Jours and Tourneux. This is the best French Bible that has yet appeared, and the best of Paris in 32 vols 8vo, 1682, &c. 2. *Traduction des Psaumes selon l'Hebreu & le Grec*, 2mo. 3. *Une Version des Homelies de St Matthieu*; 3 vols 8vo. 4. *de l'Imitation de Jesus Christ (sous le nom de P. prieur de St Val)*, Paris 1663, 8vo. 5. *Les vies de St Amand, &c.* 12mo. (*sous le nom de St Amand Com. de Terence* in 12mo. 6. *de Bongars (sous le nom de Brian) Pome de St Prosper sur les ingrates, &c. en prose.* 9. *Les Enluminures de des Jesuites*, 1694, 12mo, and *de Port-Royal*, in 12mo. 11. *de St Amand*, Paris 1690, 2 vols 8vo.

own of France, in the dep. of Calvados, N. of Higny, and 27 NW. of Caen. See OSNABURG, N° 3.

MALAND, the name of an ancient island, originally called *Mautalant*. The founder of the house was Sir Richard, famous for his valour, who in the middle of the 13th century. In 1312, his son William Maitland married Agnes Patrick, daughter of George Lord Scaton, at Fleiden in 1513.

MALAND, Sir Richard, a Scottish poet of a noble character, born in 1496. He was the son of William above mentioned (N° 3.) at St Andrew's; and went to study the laws. Upon his return, says he became a favourite of James V.

an extraordinary lord of session in the latter part of James VI. it appears that he had served his grandfire, goodfire, mother, and himself, faithfully, in the times of the regents. He became blind before he was 40 years of age; but notwithstanding, he was made a member of the college of justice, by James VI. 1561, 15th Nov. 1561; and he was one of the council and privy council; which office he held till 1657, and it was in favour of John his son, who continued a lord of session during all the times of the regents in the reign of James VI. till 1624, when he resigned; and he died in 1625. By Mary his wife, Thomas Countess of Carly, he had three sons: 1. William, the first; 2. Sir John, afterwards Lord Chancellor; and, 3. Thomas, who afterwards with Buchanan in his treatise

*De Jure Regni*.—Sir Richard is never mentioned by writers but with respect, as a man of great talents and virtue. Knox indeed blames him for taking a bribe, to let Cardinal Beaton escape when imprisoned at Seaton. But Mr Pinkerton vindicates him. One poem of Sir Richard's was published in the Evergreen; but no more of his works appeared till they were inserted in *Pinkerton's Collection*. He wrote also, "The Chronicle and History of the House and Surname of Seaton, unto November 1558. MS. Mackenzie gives an account of it.—Mr Forbes, in the preface to his *Decisions*, tells us there is still a MS. of the decisions, from 15th December 1550 till 30th July 1565, by our author, fol. in the advocate's library.

(5.) MAITLAND, John, Lord Thirlstane, and lord high chancellor of Scotland, 2d son of Sir Richard, was born in 1537, educated in Scotland, and afterwards sent to France to study the law. On his return, he commenced advocate; in which profession his abilities became conspicuous. In 1567, his father resigned the privy seal in his favour. This office he kept till 1570; when, for his loyalty to the queen, he lost the seal, which was given to George Buchanan. He was made a lord of session, in 1581; secretary of state in 1584; and lord chancellor in 1586. His power and influence created him many enemies among the Scottish nobility, who made several attempts to destroy him, but without success. In 1589, he attended king James on his voyage to Norway, where his bride, the princess of Denmark, was detained by contrary winds. The marriage was immediately consummated; and they returned with the queen to Copenhagen, where they spent the winter. During their residence in Denmark, the chancellor became intimately acquainted with the celebrated Tycho Brahe. In 1590 he was created Lord Maitland of Thirlstane. He died in 1597, much regretted by the king. He bears a high character both for talents and integrity. Melville, who writes the *Memoirs*, (says Mr Pinkerton,) was his personal enemy, so must not receive much credit in his censures of him. Besides his Scottish poetry in the *Maitland Collection*, he wrote several Latin epigrams, &c. to be found in the *Delicie Poetarum Sæculorum*, vol. ii.

(6, 7.) MAITLAND, John, lord Thirlstane, the chancellor's only son, was first made viscount and then earl of Lauderdale, by James VI. 1624. The earl's son was John, the only duke of Lauderdale, born in 1626 at Lathington.

(8.) MAITLAND, William, F. R. S. an eminent Scottish antiquarian, born in Brechin, in 1691. He was of the family of Pitricheie, a branch of the Lauderdale family, and was originally bred a hair merchant, but gave up business, and went to London, where he published an extensive *history* of that metropolis, in one volume folio, which was reprinted after his death, with additions, in 2 volumes. The rev. John Birket, late minister of Brechin says, that "he had studied the history of his own country with the utmost care, and as he had occasion to travel through a great part of it, he describes all its antiquities, which fell under his observation, with an uncommon degree of accuracy and precision." (Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* vol. xxi. 125.) His other works were, *The History*

of Edinburgh, in one vol. folio, and a treatise on the History and Antiquities of Scotland, in one vol. folio. A 2d volume of this work was afterwards published by Dr Granger. Mr Maitland travelled into some of the northern countries of Europe, and died at Montrose in 1757, unmarried.

MAITTAIRE, Michael, A. M. an eminently learned writer, born in 1668. Dr South canon of Christ Church, made him a student of that house, where he took the degree of M. A. March 23, 1696. From 1695 till 1699 he was 2d master of Westminster school. In 1706, he published *Græcæ Linguae Dialecti, in usum Scholæ Westmonasteriensis*, 1706, 8vo; reprinted at the Hague in 1738; and in 1713, "The English Grammar, applied to, and exemplified in the English Tongue," 8vo. In 1711, he published "Remarks on Mr Whiston's Account of the Convocation's proceedings with relation to himself," 8vo.; and "An Essay against Arianism, and some other Heresies; or a Reply to Mr W. Whiston's Historical Preface," &c. 8vo. In 1709 he gave the first specimen of his great skill in typographical antiquities, by publishing *Stephanorum Historia, vitas ipsorum ac libros complectens*, 8vo. This was followed in 1717, by *Historia Typographorum aliquot Parisiensium, vitas et libros complectens*, 8vo. In 1719, *Annales Typographici, ab artis inventæ origine, ad annum MD. 4to.*

The 2d vol. continued to 1536, was published at the Hague in 1720; with an introductory letter of John Toland *de prima Typographiæ inventione* &c. as was also the 3d. continued to 1557, and, by an Appendix, to 1664, in 1721. In 1733 was published at Amsterdam, the 4th volume, continued to 1664. In 1741 the work was completed at London, by the publication of the 5th and 6th vols. with an index to the whole. These 4 last vols were in 2 parts each. In the intermediate years he was employed on various useful works. In 1713 he published by subscription *Opera et Fragmenta Veterum Poetarum*; in 2 vols. folio. In 1714, he published a Greek Testament, in 2 vols. The Classics, which he published separately, with indexes, came out in the following order: In 1713, *Christus Patiens; Justin; Lucretius; Phædrus; Sallust; Terence.* In 1715, *Catullus; Tibullus; Propertius; C. Nepos; Florus; Horace; Juvenal; Ovid; Virgil.* In 1717, *Cæsar; Martial; Q. Curtius.* In 1718 and 1725, *Velleius Paterculus.* In 1719, *Lucan.* In 1720, *Bonifonii Carmina.* In 1721, *Batrachomyomachia Græcæ ad veterum exemplarium fidem recusa; Glossæ Græcæ; var. lict. vers. Lat. &c. illustrata*, 8vo. In 1722, *Miscellanea Græcorum aliquot Scriptorum Carmina, cum vers. Lat. et Notis*, 4to. In 1725 and 1741, *Asæreon* in 4to. In 1724 he compiled, at the request of Dr Freind, an Index to the splendid folio edition of *Aretæus*, in 1723. In 1726, he published *Pevi Petiti Medici Parisiensis in tres priores Aretæi Cappadocens Libros Commentarii; nunc primum editi*, 4to; a work found among the papers of Grævius. From 1728 to 1733 he published *Mormorum A-malibæarum, Sædænavorum, aliorumque A-malibæarum, donatarum, una cum Comædiarum et Indicis, editio 2da*, fol. with an Appendix. His *Epistola ad D. P. Des Maizeaux, in qua Indici in Annale Typographice methodus explicatur*, &c. is printed in

*The Present State of the Republic of Lett* 1733, p. 142. His life of R. Stephens with a complete list of his works, is in the improved edition of R. Stephens's *rus*; 4 vols fol. in 1734. In 1736 *appetitæ Inscriptiones duæ*, folio; being a copy on two large copper tables discovered in Elea, in the Bay of Tarentum. In 1735 dressed to Anne empress of Russia a fine poem, entitled *Carmen Epinicion Augustissimum Imperatrici sacrum.* In 1741, he published anonymously Plutarch's *Apophthegmata*, his last publication was *Senilia, sive Pœctia argumentis varii generis tentamina*; in 4to. He died in 1747, aged 79. His valuable collection which had been 50 years collecting, was sold at auction, in 1747 and 1748, taking up 100 nights. He was patronised by the first earls of Oxford; and was also Latin tutor to Stanhope, Chesterfield's favourite son.

MAIUS. See MAY, N° 1 and 3.

MAIXANT, or MAIXENT, a town of the T. res, and late prov. of Poitou. It has a good soil, in corn, stockings and woollen stuffs; and is situated on the Sevre, 26 miles SW. of Poitou, W. of Paris. Lon. o. 7. W. Lat. 46. 24.

(1.) \* MAIZE, or Indian Wheat. The whole maize plant has the appearance of wheat. This plant is propagated in England with curiosity, but in America it is the principal support of the inhabitants, and consequently cultivated with great care. *Miller.*—Maize is very strong nourishment, but more viscid than wheat. *Schubner.*

(2.) MAIZE, or INDIAN CORN. See MAIZIERES, a town of France, in the prov. of the Upper Maine; 4½ miles NW. of Paris.

(1.) \* MAKE. *n. f.* [from the verb *facere*]; nature.—Those mercurial spirits were only lent the earth to shew men in admiring it, possess delights of a nature and nature, which antedate immortality.—Upon the decease of a lion the beards of a king: several put up, but one wanted brains for a king; another wanted brains of *L'Esperance.*—

Is our perfection of so frail a make,  
As ev'ry plot can undermine and shake.  
—Several lies are produced in the loyal Portoken of so feeble a make, as not bear to the Royal Exchange. *Addison.*—It makes superior souls as with gigantick, while the due proportion of parts, and like heroes of that make, commit something of extravagance. *Pope.*

(2.) \* MAKE. *maca, gemaca, Sax.* a nation; favourite friend.—

The elf therewith astoned,  
Upstarted lightly from his looser make  
Every one that misseth then her maid  
Shall be by him amercé with penance

The maids and their makes,  
At dances and wakes,

Had their napkins and posies,  
And wipers for their noses.

Re-  
"To MAKE, &c. a. [Lazarus, Suetonius]

*make*, Dutch.] 1. To create.—Let an in our image. *Gen.* i. 26.—The Lord all things for himself. *Prov.* xvi. 4.—

Remember'ft thou  
ting, while the Maker gave thee being?

*Milton.*  
n of materials.—He fashioned it with a  
l, after he had *made* it a molten calf.  
i. 4.—God hath *made* of one blood all  
men. *Acts.*—We have no other mea-  
one of the moon, but are artificially  
f these by compounding or dividing  
*ter on Time.* 3. To compose: as, parts,  
r ingredients.—

if my fellows had the speed of him;  
almost dead for breath, had scarcely  
re  
ould *make* up his message. *Macbeth.*  
leav'n, the air, the earth, and bound-  
sea,  
it one temple for the deity. *Waller.*  
f salt of tartar, exposed unto a moist  
*ake* more liquor than the former mea-  
contain. *Brown.* 4. To form by art  
t natural.—

lavish nature, in her best attire,  
rth sweet odours, and alluring sights;  
with her contending, doth aspire  
l the natural with *made* delights. *Spenser.*  
duce or effect as the agent.—If I suf-  
out cause, why then *make* sport at me;  
ne be your jest. *Shak.*—When their  
e merry they said, Call for Sampson,  
y *make* us sport. *Judg.* xvi. 25.—Give  
non a perfect heart to build the palace  
hich I have *made* provision. 1 *Chron.*

-Thou hast set signs and wonders in the  
ypt, and hast *made* thee a name. *Jer.*  
-Joshua *made* peace, and *made* a league  
.  
*Job.*—

Both combine  
e their greatness by the fall of man.

*Dryden.*  
t, mad with superstition grown,  
ods of monsters. *Tate's Juvenal.*

duce as a cause.—Wealth *maketh* many  
ut the poor is separated from his neigh-  
r. xix. 4.—A man's gift *maketh* room  
and bringeth him before great men.  
i. 16.—The child taught to believe any  
e to be a good or evil omen, or any  
week lucky, hath a wide inroad *made*  
foundness of his understanding. *Watts.*  
; to perform; to practise; to use in ac-  
ough the appear honest to me, yet in o-  
s she enlargeth her mirth so far, that  
rewd construction *made* of her. *Shak.*—  
haste, and let down her pitcher. *Gen.*  
-We *made* prayer unto our God. *Neb.*

shall *make* a speedy riddance of all in  
*Zeeph.*—They all began to *make* excuse.

18.—It hath pleased them of Macedo-  
chaia to *make* a certain contribution for  
*Rom.* xv. 26.—The Venetians, provoked  
rks with divers injuries, both by sea  
resolved, without delay, to *make* war  
pon him. *Knolles.*—  
musick as before was never *made*,

But when of old the sons of morning sung.

*Milton.*  
—All the actions of his life were ripped up and  
surveyed, and all malicious glosses *made* upon all  
he had said, and all he had done. *Clarendon.*—  
Says Carneades, since neither you nor I love  
repetitions, I shall not now *make* any of what else  
was urged against Themistius. *Boyle.*—The Phœ-  
nicians *made* claim to this man as theirs, and at-  
tributed to him the invention of letters. *Hale.*—

What hope, O Pantheus! whether can we  
run!

Where *make* a stand? *Dryden.*

While merchants *make* long voyages by sea

To get estates, he cuts a shorter way. *Dryden.*

—To what end did Ulysses *make* that journey?  
*Dryden.*—He that will *make* a good use of any  
part of his life, must allow a large portion of it  
to recreation. *Locke.*—

*Make* some request, and I,

Whate'er it be, with that request comply.

*Addison.*  
—Were it permitted, he should *make* the tour of  
the whole system of the sun. *Mart. Scrib.* 8. To  
cause to have any quality.—She may give so much  
credit to her own laws, as to *make* their sentence  
weightier than any bare and naked conceit to the  
contrary. *Hooker.*—I will *make* your cities waste.

*Lev.* xxvi. 31.—Her husband hath utterly  
made them void on the day he heard them. *Numb.* xxx.  
—When he had made a convenient room, he set it  
in a wall, and *made* it fast with iron. *Wis.* xiii. 15.

—He *made* the water wine. *John.* iv. 46.—He  
was the more inflamed with the desire of battle  
with Waller to *make* even all accounts. *Clarendon.*

I bred you up to arms, rais'd you to power,  
Permitted you to fight for this usurper;

All to *make* sure the vengeance of this day,  
Which even this day has ruin'd.

*Dryden.*  
—In respect of actions within the reach of such a  
power in him, a man seems as free as it is possible  
for freedom to *make* him. *Locke.* 9. To bring in-  
to any state or condition.—I have *made* thee a god  
to Pharaoh. *Exod.* vii. 1.—Joseph *made* ready his  
chariot, and went up to meet Israel. *Gen.* xlvii.  
29.—Who *made* thee a prince and a judge over  
us? *Exod.* ii.—Ye have troubled me to *make* me  
to stink among the inhabitants. *Gen.* xxxiv. 30.—  
He *made* himself of no reputation. *Phil.* ii. 7.—He  
should be *made* manifest to Israel. *John.* i. 31.—  
Though I be free from all men, yet have I *made*  
myself servant unto all. 1 *Cor.* ix. 19.—He hath  
*made* me a by-word of the people. *Job.* xvii. 6.—  
*Make* ye him drunken. *Jer.* xlvi. 26.—Joseph  
was not willing to *make* her a public example,  
*Matth.* i. 19.—By the assistance of this faculty we  
have all those ideas in our understandings, which,  
though we do not actually contemplate, yet we  
can bring in sight, and *make* appear again, and  
be the objects of our thoughts. *Locke.*—The La-  
cedemonians trained up their children to hate  
drunkenness by bringing a drunken man into their  
company, and shewing them what a beast he  
*made* of himself. *Watts.* 10. To form; to settle;  
to establish.—

Those who are wise in courts  
*Make* friendships with the ministers of state,  
Nor seek the ruin of a wretched exile. *Roque.*

21. To hold; to keep.—

Deep in a cave the fybil *makes* abode. *Dryd.*  
22. To secure from distress; to establish in riches or happiness.—He hath given her this monumental ring, and thinks himself *made* in the unchange composition. *Shak.*

This is the night,  
That either *makes* me, or foredoes me quite.

*Shak.*  
Each element his dread command obeys,  
Who *makes* or ruins with a smile or frown.

23. To suffer; to incur.—

The loss was private that I *made*;  
'Twas but myself I lost. *Dryden.*  
—He accuseth Neptune unjustly, who *makes* shipwreck a second time. *Bacon.* 14. To commit.—I will neither plead my age nor sickness in excuse of the faults which I have *made*. *Dryden.* 15. To compel; to force; to constrain.—That the soul in a sleeping man should be this moment busy a thinking, and the next moment in a waking man not remember those thoughts, would need some better proof than bare assertion to *make* it be believed. *Locke.*—They should be *made* to rise at their early hour. *Locke.* 16. To do; in this sense it is used only in interrogation.—

He may ask this civil question, friend!  
What dost thou *make* a shipboard? to what end? *Dryden.*

—Gomez, what *mak'st* thou here with a whole brotherhood of city bailiffs? *Dryden.* 17. To raise as profit from any thing.—He's in for a commodity of brown pepper; of which he *made* five marks ready money. *Shak.*—Did I *make* a gain of you by any of them I sent? *Cor.*—If Aulus, a negligent prince, *made* so much, what must now the Romans *make*, who govern it so wisely? *Arbutnot.*—If it is meant of the value of the purchase, it was very high; it being hardly possible to *make* so much of land, unless it was reckoned at a very low price. *Arbutnot.* 18. To reach; to tend to; to arrive at; a kind of sea term.—A costa recordeth, they that sail in the middle can *make* no land of either side. *Bacon's Vulg. Err.*—I've *made* the port already. *Dryden.*

They ply their flatter'd oars  
To nearest land, and *make* the Libyan shores. *Dryden.*

Did I but purpose to embark with thee,  
While gentle zephyrs play in prosp'rous gales;  
But would forsake the ship, and *make* the shore,  
When the winds whistle, and the tempests roar? *Prior.*

19. To gain.—The wind came about, and settled in the west for many days, so as we could *make* little or no way. *Bacon.*—

I have *made* way  
To some Phillip in lords. *Milton.*  
—Now mark a little why Virgil is so much concerned to make this marriage, it was to *make* way for the divorce which he intended afterwards. *Dryd. Ene.* 20. To force; to gain by force.—

Rugged rocks are enterpris'd in vain;  
He *makes* his way o'er mountains. *Dryd. Virg.*  
—The rope wall, which divides China from Tartary, is reckoned 900 miles long, running over rocks, and *making* way for rivers through mighty

arches. *Temple.* 21. To exhibit.—When they *makest* a dinner, call not thy friends but the poor. *Luke,* xiv. 12. 22. To pay; to give.—He shall *make* amends for the harm that he hath done. *Lev.* 24. To put; to place.—You must *make* a great difference between Hercules's labours by land, and Jason's voyage by sea for the golden Broom. *Bacon.* 24. To turn to some use.

Whate'er they catch,  
Their fury *mak's* an instrument of war. *Dryden.*  
25. To incline to; to dispose to.—It is not requisite they should destroy our reason, that we *make* us rely on the strength of nature, when he is least able to relieve us. *Brown's Vulg. Err.* 26. To effect as an argument.—Seeing they judge this to *make* nothing in the world for them. *Bacon.*—You conceive you have no more to do than having found the principal word in a concordance introduce as much of the verse as will serve your turn, though in reality it *makes* nothing for you. *Swift.* 27. To present; to show.—He is set that goose and ass that Valla would *make* him. *Baker on Learning.* 28. To constitute.—Our desires carry the mind out to absent good, according to the necessity which we think there is of to the *making* or increase of our happiness. *Locke.* 29. To amount to.—Whatsoever they were, *maketh* no matter to me. *Gal. ii.* 16. 30. To mould; to form.—Lye not erect but hollow, which is in the making of the bed. *Bacon.*

Some undeterred fault  
I'll find about the *making* of the bed. *Shak.*  
—They mow fern green, and burning of them to ashes, *make* the ashes up into balls with a little water. *Mariner.* 31. To MAKE away. To kill; to destroy.—He will not let slip an advantage to *make away* him whose just title, may one day shake the seat of a never-secure tyranny. *Sidney.*—Corruption was, by practice of evil persons about the king his brother, called thence away, and fasten'd, by sinister means, was clean *made away*. *Spencer on Ireland.*

He may have a likely guest,  
How these were they that *made away* his brother. *Shak.*

—Trajan would say of the vain jealousy of princes that seek to *make away* those that aspire to their succession, that there was never king that did put to death his successor. *Bacon.*—My mother flew at my very birth, and soce have *made away* two of her brothers. *Hayward.*

Give poets leave to *make* themselves wags. *Restormon.*  
—What multitude of infants have been *made away* by those who brought them into the world. *Addison.* 32. To MAKE away. To transfer.—Debtors,

When they never mean to pay,  
To some friend *make* all away. *Waller.*  
33. To MAKE account. To reckon; to believe.—They *make* no account but that the navy should be absolutely master of the seas. *Bacon's Hist. Spain.* 34. To MAKE account of. To esteem; to regard. 25. To MAKE free with. To treat without ceremony.—The same who have *made free with* the greatest names in church and state. *Daniel.* 36. To MAKE good. To maintain; to defend; to justify.—The grand master, guarded with

company of most valiant knights, drove them again by force, and *make good* the place. *Waller's History of the Turks*.—When he comes to *see good* his confident undertaking, he is rain to things that agree very little with one another.

I'll either die, or I'll *make good* the place. *Dryd.* with an example he could bring from them. *Ed. mak. it good. Dryd. on Dramatic Po. ff.*—I will what the same author subjoins to *make good*

**Foregoing remark. Locke on Education. 37. To *make good.*** To fulfil; to accomplish.—This let both *make good* the friar's words. *Shaks. 28. MAKE light of.* To consider as of no consequence.—They *made light of* it, and went their way. *Matth. xxii. 29. To MAKE love.* To court; to lay the gallant.—How happy each of the sex would be, if there was a window in the breast of every one that *makes or receives love.* *Guardian.*

**To MAKE merry.** To feast; to partake of entertainment.—A hundred pound or two *make merry* withal! *Shak.*—The king went *amatham, to make merry* with his mother and the queen. *Bacon's Hen. VII.*—A gentleman and his wife ride to *make merry* with his neighbour, and in a day they two go to a third. *Carow's Survey. 41. To MAKE much of.* To cherish; to esteem.—The king, hearing of their adventure, *scarcely fails to take pride in making much of* them. *Sidney.*

The bird is dead  
That we have *made too much of!* *Sivak. Cymb.*  
It is good discretion not to *make too much of* a man at the first. *Bacon's Essays*.—The easy the lazy *make much of* the goat; and yet *bring much of* themselves too, they take care to *carry it* presently to bed, and keep it warm. *Temple. 42. To MAKE of.* What to *make of,* how to understand.—That they should have knowledge of the languages and affairs of those countries, as if such a distance from them, was a thing could not tell what to *make of.* *Bacon.*—I can't feel a pain I knew not what to *make of,* the same joint of my other foot. *Temple.*—There is another statue in brass of Apollo, with a monstrous inscription on the pedestal, which I know what to *make of.* *Addison on Italy.*—I desired would let me see his book: he did so, smiling: could not *make any thing of* it. *Taylor.*—Upon the side were huge pieces of iron, cut into strange shapes, which we knew not what to *make of.* *Swift.*

**To MAKE of.** To produce from; to effect. I am afraid, that at those who have appeared in this paper have *made* very little of it. *Johnson. 43. To MAKE of.* To consider; to account; to esteem.—*Makes* the no more of me than a slave? *Dryden. 44. To MAKE of.* To cherish; to esteem. Not used.—Kerens was wonderfully beloved, and *made of,* by the Turkish merchants, whose language he had learned. *Emilia.*

**To MAKE over.** To settle in the hands of another.—Widows, who have tried one lover, will not *make over* again till they have *made over.* *Hudibras.*—The wife betimes *made over* their estate: *Quare* for my honour by a deed of trust. *Dryd.*

**Vol. XIII. PART II.**  
Dr JOHNSON might have added, as he often does in similar cases, that the verb is still used in use in Scotland.

**To MAKE over.** To transfer.—The second mercy *made over* to us by the second covenant, is the promise of pardon. *Hammond.*—Age and youth cannot be *made over*: nothing but time can take away years; or give them. *Collins.*—My waist is reduced to the depth of four inches by what I have already *made over* to my neck. *Guardian.*—Moor, to whom that patent was *made over,* was forced to leave off coining. *Swift. 48. To MAKE out.* To clear; to explain; to clear to one's self.

**Make out** the rest.—I am disorder'd so, I know not farther what to say or do. *Dryden.*—Antiquaries *make out* the most ancient medals from a letter with great difficulty to be discerned. *Ishton.*—It may seem somewhat difficult to *make out* the bills of fare for some suppers. *Arbutnot. 49. To MAKE out.* To prove; to evince.—There is no truth which a man may more evidently *make out* to himself, than the existence of a God. *Locke.*—What may be *made out* from them by a way deduction, may be depended on as certain and infallible truths. *Locke.*—Men of wit and parts, but of short thoughts and little meditation, distrust every thing for fiction that is not the dictate of sense, or *made out* immediately to their senses. *Burton.*—We are to vindicate the just providence of God in the government of the world, and to endeavour, as well as we can, upon an imperfect view of things, to *make out* the beauty and harmony of all the seeming discords and irregularities of the divine administration. *Tillotson.*—Scaliger hath *made out,* that the history of Troy was no more the invention of Homer than of Virgil. *Dryden.*—In the passages from divines, most of the reasonings which *make out* both my propositions are already suggest'd. *Arbutnot.*—I dare engage to *make it out,* that they will have their full principal and interest at six per cent. *Swift. 50. To MAKE sure of.* To consider as certain.—They *made as sure* of health and life, as if both of them were at their disposal. *Dryden. 51. To MAKE sure of.* To secure to one's possession.—

But whether marriage bring joy or sorrow, *Make sure* of this day, and hang to-morrow. *London.*  
**To MAKE up.** To get together.—How will the farmer be able to *make up* his rent at quarter-day? *Locke. 52. To MAKE up.* To reconcile; to compose.—I know when seven justices could not *make up* a quarrel. *Shak. 53. To MAKE up.* To repair.—I lookt for a man among them that should *make up* the bedstead. *Shak. 54. To MAKE up.* To compose, as in words.—These are the ingredients of flattery, which do together *make up* a sort of most extreme deformity. *Carte of the Town.*—He is to me under an enemy *made up* of wiles and stratagems: an old serpent, a long experienced deceiver. *Shak.*—Zeal should be *made up* of the largest measure of spiritual love, desire, hope, love, and self-denial. *Spratt.*

Oh! it was all *made up* of love and charms;—  
Whatever had *made up* the child's  
—Had queen's part *made up* of blunders and absurdities. *Add.*—Vines, figs, oranges, apples, olives, rayth, and a d'boys of corn, *make up* the most delightful little landscape. *Add.*

G y g g O H

Old mould'ring urns, racks, daggers, and distress,

*Make up* the frightful horror of the place *Garth*.—The parties among us are *made up* on one side of moderate whigs, and on the other of presbyterians. *Swift*. 56. *To MAKE up*. To shape.—A catapotium is a medicine swallowed solid, and most commonly *made up* in pills. *Arbutn. on Coins*. 57. *To MAKE up*. To supply; to make less deficient.—Whatsoever, to *make up* the doctrine of man's salvation, is added as in supply of the scripture's insufficiency, we reject it. *Hooker*.—I borrowed that celebrated name for an evidence to my subject, that so what was wanting in my proof might be *made up* in the example. *Glanville*.—

Thus think the crowd,  
Who ne'er consider, but without a pause  
*Make up* in passion what they want in cause.

*Dryden*.—If his romantick disposition transport him so far as to expect little or nothing from this, he might however hope, that the principals would *make it up* in dignity and respect. *Swift*. 58. *To MAKE up*. To compensate; to balance.—If they retrench any the smaller particulars in their ordinary experience, it will easily *make up* the halfpenny a-day which we have now under consideration. *Speltz*.—

Thus wisely she *makes up* her time,  
Mis-spent when youth was in its prime. *Granv*.  
—There must needs be another state to *make up* the inequalities of this, and to salve all irregular appearances. *Atterbury*. 59. *To MAKE up*. To settle; to adjust.—

The reasons you allege, do more conduce  
To the hot passion of distemper'd blood,  
Than to *make up* a free determination  
'Twixt right and wrong. *Shak. Troil. and Cress*.  
Yet I can *make* my audit *up*, that all,  
From me do back receive the flow'r of all,  
And leave me but the bran. *Shak. Coriolanus*.  
—He was to *make up* his accounts with his lord. *Egerton*. 60. *To MAKE up*. To accomplish; to conclude; to complete.—There is doubt how far we are to proceed by collection before the full and complete measure of things necessary be *made up*. *Hooker*.—

I know she is not; for this match *made up*,  
Her presence would have interrupted much.

*Shak*.  
—On Wednesday the general account is *made up* and printed. *Granv*.—This life is a scene of vanity, that soon passes away, and affords no solid satisfaction but in the consciousness of doing well, and in the hopes of another life: this is what I can say upon experience, and what you will find to be true when you come to *make up* the account. *Locke*. 61. This is one of the words so frequently occurring, and used with so much latitude, that its whole extent is not easily comprehended, nor are its attenuated and fugitive meanings easily caught and restrained. The original sense, including either *production* or *formation*, may be traced through all the varieties of application.

(2.) \* *To MAKE*. v. n. 1. To tend; to travel; to go any way.—

What villains have done this?  
—I think, that one of them is hereabouts,  
And cannot *make* away. *Shak. Othello*.

I do beseech your majesty *make* up  
Lest your retirement do amaze you

—The earl of Lincoln resolved to *make* up the king was, to give him battle. *Bacon* *made* forth to us a small boat, with persons in it. *Bacon*.—Warily provide we *make* forth to that which is better not with that which is worse. *Bacon*.—ful erroneous observation that *makes* commonly received contrary to experience.

*Make* on, upon the heels  
Of men, struck down like piles, to *make*  
Of those remain and stand.

—The Moors, terrified with the hide  
The soldiers *making* towards land, &  
beaten from the shore. *Knolles*.—Wh  
out from mount Singi they *made* north  
*Rishmah. Brown's Vulg. Errors*.—

*Make* to the city by the postern gate  
The bull

His easier conquest proudly did fore;  
And *making* at him with a furious bore  
From his bent forehead aim'd a doul

Too late young Turnus the delus'd  
Far on the sea, still *making* from the

—A man of a disturbed brain seeing in  
one of those lads that used to vex him  
into a cutler's shop, and seizing on a name  
*made* after the boy. *Locke*.—Seeing a col  
tleman trotting before me with a sp  
horse's side, I *made up* to him. *Add*  
French king *makes* at us directly, and br  
by him to set over us. *Addison*.—

A monstrous boar rush't forth; at n  
Whetting his tusks. *Smith's Phiz*.  
2. To contribute; to have effect.—*V*  
*makes* nothing to your subject, and is in  
it, admit not unto your work. *Dryden*  
he is, to believe that the right is wrong,  
is right, when it *makes* for his own  
*Swift*. 3. To operate; to act as a pre  
ment, or cause.—Where neither the c  
any law divine, nor any notable public  
nience doth *make* against that which ou  
ecclesiastical have instituted. *Hooker*.—I  
should *make* for them must prove, that  
not to make laws for church regiment.  
It is very needful to be known, and is  
the right of the war against him. *Spon*  
follow after the things which *make* for pe  
—Perkin Warbeck finding that time a  
rizing, which, whilst his practices we  
*made* for him, did now, when they wen  
ed, rather *make* against him, resolv'd to  
exploit upon England. *Bacon*.—A thing  
to my present purpose. *Boyle*.—It *ma*  
purpose, that the light conserving sp  
must be set in the sun before they re  
*Digby*.—Even my own confession *ma*  
me. *Dryd. Ded. to An*. 4. To shew; t  
to carry appearance.—Joshua and all h  
as if they were beaten before them, and f  
viii. 15.—It is the unanimous opinion  
friends, that you *make* as if you hang'd  
and they will give it out that you are q



*1b. John Bull.* 5. To MAKE away with. To destroy; to kill; to make away. This phrase is proper.—The women of Greece were seized on an unaccountable melancholy, which disposed several of them to make away with themselves.

6. To MAKE for. To advantage; to favour.—Compare these disparities of times, and we plainly perceive, that they make for the advantage of England. Bacon.—None deny there is God, but those for whom it maketh that there is no God. Bacon.—

That made for me; I knew that liberty would draw thee forth. Milton.

MAKE up for. To compensate; to be indebted.—Have you got a supply of friends to make up those who are gone? Swift. 8. To MAKE

To concur.—Antiquity, custom, and consent in the church of God, making with that a law doth establish, are themselves most potent reasons to uphold the same. Hooker.

MAKEBATE. *n. f.* [*make and debate.*] Breeder of quarrels.—Love in her passions, like a right whistler, whispered to both sides arguments of war. Sidney.—Outrageous party-writers are a couple of makebates, who inflame small wars by a thousand stories. Swift.

MAKEDA, Q. of Sheba. See ETHIOPIA, § 10.

MAKEPEACE. *n. f.* [*make and peace.*] Peacemaker; reconciler.—

To be a makepeace shall become my age. Shak.

MAKER. *n. f.* [*from make.*] 1. The Creator.—

God in him, in all things, as is met,

is universal Maker we may praise. Milton.

His the divine Cecilia found,

to her Maker's praise confin'd the sound. Pope.

Each plain roof as piety could raise,

is only vocal with the Maker's praise. Pope.

is power of reasoning was given us by our

is to pursue truths. Watts. 2. One who

is any thing.—Every man in Turkey is of

is made; Sultan Achmet was a maker of ivory

is Notes on the *Odyssey*.—I dare promise her

is what few of her makers of visits and com-

is dare to do. Pope. 3. One who sets any

is in its proper state.—You be indeed makers

is vers of all mens manners within the realm.

MAKERSTON, a parish of Scotland, in

is northshire, on the banks of the Tweed, near-

is Des long from E. to W. and  $4\frac{1}{2}$  broad, in

is an oblong square. The surface is flat;

is dry, and the soil fertile. Of 3,300 acres,

is 200 are in pasture; and feed 1000 sheep,

is 100 and 180 black cattle. The population,

is in 1755; increase 90 since 1755.

MAKERSTON, [*i. e. Mac-Ker's Town.*] a vil-

is llage above parish, containing near 60 people.

MAKEWEIGHT. *n. f.* [*make and weight.*] A

is thing thrown in to make up weight.—

is is lonely sitting, nor the glimmering light,

is make-weight candle, nor the joyous talk

is being friend delights. Philips.

MAK. See LEMUR.

MAKRAN. See MACKERAN.

MESZIN, a town of Turkey in Bulgaria, on

is the Danube, 60 miles WSW. of Ismacel. It was

is taken by the Russians in 1771.

MALABAR, the name given to a great part of the W. coast of Indostan, from the kingdom of Baglala, or from the N. extremity of that of Canara, to Cape Comorin. It is bounded on the E. by the mountains of Ballagate; on the S. and W. by the Indian sea; and on the N. by the Deccan.

MALACA, in ancient geography, a maritime town of Hispania Bætica, surnamed *Federatorum* by Pliny: A Carthaginian colony according to Strabo; so called from *Malach, salt*; a place noted for pickled or salted meat: Now called MALAGA.

(1.) MALACCA, the most southerly part of the great peninsula beyond the Ganges, is about 600 miles long, and from 60 to 150 broad. It is bounded by the kingdom of Siam on the N. by the bay of Siam and the Indian ocean on the E. and by the straits of Malacca, which separate it from the island of Sumatra, on the SW. It lies more to the S. than any other country in the East Indies; and comprehends the towns and kingdoms of Patan, Pahan, Igohor, Pera, Queda, Borkelon, Ligor; and on the N. the town and kingdom of Tanassery, where the Portuguese formerly carried on a great trade.

(2.) MALACCA, a kingdom in the above country. The people are in general subject to the Dutch, who possess all the fringed places on the coast, and compel them to trade on their own terms, excluding all other nations of Europe from having any commerce with them. The MALAYS are governed by feudal laws. A chief, who has the title of *king* or *sultan*, issues his commands to his great vassals, who have other vassals in subjection to them. A small part of the nation live independent, under the title of *oranicai* or *nobles*, and sell their services to those who pay them best; while the rest are slaves, and live in perpetual servitude. Most of these people are restless, fond of navigation, war, plunder, emigrations, desperate enterprises, adventures, and gallantry. They talk incessantly of their honour and their bravery; whilst they are universally considered by those with whom they have intercourse, as the most treacherous, ferocious people on earth. This ferocity, which the Malays style *raourage*, is so well known to the European companies in the Indies, that they have universally prohibited the captains of their ships who may put into the Malay islands, from taking on board any seamen from that nation, except in the greatest distress, and then on no account to exceed 2 or 3. It is not uncommon for a few of these horrid savages suddenly to embark, attack a vessel by surprise, take her and massacre the people. Malay batteaux, with 24 or 30 men, have sometimes boarded European ships of 30 or 40 guns, and murdered with their pignards great part of the crew. Those who are not slaves go always armed; they would think themselves disgraced if they went abroad without their *criss* or pignards. They cannot endure the long flowing garment in use among the other Asiatics. Their habits are exactly adapted to their shapes, and loaded with a multitude of buttons, which fasten them close to their bodies. The country is very fertile. It abounds with odoriferous woods, such as aloe, sandal, and Cassia.

The ground is covered with flowers of the greatest fragrance, of which there is a perpetual succession throughout the year. There are many mines of the most precious metals, said to be richer than those of Brazil or Peru, and in some places are mines of diamonds. The sea abounds with excellent fish, ambergris, pearls, &c. and the rocks with those delicate bird's nests so much in request in China; which are of such an exquisite flavour, that the Chinese for a long time purchased them for their weight in gold. See BIRDS NEST, § 4; and HIRUNDO, N° 7. Notwithstanding all this plenty, the Malays are miserable. The culture of the lands, abandoned to slaves, is fallen into contempt. These wretched labourers, dragged incessantly from their rustic employments by their restless masters, who delight in war and maritime enterprises, have never time or resolution to give the necessary attention to the labouring of their grounds; of consequence the lands for the most part are uncultivated, and produce no kind of grain for the subsistence of the inhabitants. The sago tree indeed supplies in part the defect of grain. See CYCAS, N° 2; and SAGO, § 2.

(3.) MALACCA, the capital of the above kingdom, is situated in a flat country close to the sea. The walls and fortifications are founded on a solid rock, and are carried up to a great height; the lower part of them is washed by the sea at every tide, and on the land side is a wide canal, ut from the sea to the river, which makes it an island. In 1641 it was taken from the Portuguese by the Dutch, since which time it has continued in their possession. In this city there are many broad streets; but they are badly paved. The houses are tolerably well built, and some of them have gardens adjacent. The inhabitants consist of a few Dutch, many Malaysians, Moors, Chinese, and other Indians; who are kept in awe by a fortress, which is separated from the city by a river; and by good walls and bastions, as well as by strong gates, and a draw-bridge on the E. side. The city is well situated for trade and navigation. It was taken by the British in Nov. 1795; but restored in 1802. Lon. 102. 2. E. Lat. 2. 12. N.

(4.) MALACCA, STRAITS OF, a narrow sea between MALACCA (N. 1.) and the island of Sumatra, extending from the Equinoctial to Lat. 5. 0. N.

MALACESENE, or MALSesine, a populous town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Minicio, and district (late duchy) of Verona; at the foot of Mount Baldo, 8 miles E. of Verona.

(1.) MALACHI, מלאכי, Heb. i. e. my messenger. the last of the 12 lesser prophets. He prophesied about 300 years before Christ, reproving the Jews for their wickedness after their return from Babylon, and condemning the priests for being careless in their ministry: at the same time encouraging the few, who maintained their integrity. He distinctly points at the Messiah, as well as his forerunner John the Baptist, who should come in the spirit and power of Elijah.

(2.) MALACHI, THE PROPHECY OF, the last canonical book of the Old Testament.

(3.) \* MALACHITE. n. f. — This stone is sometimes intirely green, but lighter than that of the pephritick stone, so as in colour to resemble the

leaf of the mallow, μαλαχίτη, from which name; though sometimes it is veined w or spotted with blue or black. *Woodw.*

(2.) MALACHITE is not a stone, but of copper ore, in a state of oxydation.

MISTRY, *Index.*

MALACIA, in medicine. See Lox. MALACOPTERYGEOUS, *adj.* a thyologists, an appellation given to fish have the rays of their fins bony, but not sharp at the extremities, like those of terygeous fishes.

MALACOTOMOUS, *adj.* a term fishes destitute of teeth in the jaws, called *tober-moutbed*, as the tench, carp, brea

MALACHRA, in botany, a genus andria order, belonging to the monad of plants.

\* MALADY. n. f. [*maladie*, Fr.] a distemper; a disorder of body; sickness it is to be private in sorrow's torry'd to the pomp of a palace, nurse in dies. *Sidney.*—Physicians first require *malady* be known thoroughly, alter how to cure and redress it. *Spenser.*— Say, can you fast? your stomach young:

And abstinence engenders *maladies*. —An accidental violence of motion, that *malady* that has baffled the skill of *Soub.*—

Love's a *malady* without a cure.

MALAGA, an ancient, rich and 1 of Spain, in Grenada, with two castles, and a good harbour, which rende of considerable commerce. This according to M. Bourgoanne, is entire of Spain; though with little advantage; for of 842 vessels which an port in 1782, from almost every com tion, scarcely 100 were Spanish, eve the ships of war. The English, who session of the greatest part of the thither woollens and great quantities ware; the Dutch carry spice, cutlery ribbons, thread, &c. These nation the north, and Italy, export to the two millions and a half of piastres in v carry thither amounts only to abcu and a half. The streets of Malaga but there are some good squares; and dral church is a superb building, f large as St Paul's. The bishop's palace edifice, but looks insignificant from it the other. Its prelate enjoys a L. 16,000 Sterling. Malaga is seated diterranean, at the foot of a craggy Lon. 4. 36. E. Lat. 36. 44. N.

MALAGRIDA, Gabriel, an Italian in 1686. He was appointed to condu into Portugal. To great eloquence h most ardent zeal for the interest of He soon became the fashionable dir was respected as a saint, and consulted racle. When a conspiracy was form duke of Aveiro against the king of Por said that he and other two Jesuits wen

cerning the measure, and gave it as their opinion, that it was only a venial crime to kill a king who persecuted the saints. About that time the king of Portugal banished the Jesuits from his kingdom; and 3 of them were apprehended, Malagrida, Alexander, and Mitnos, who were accused of having approved his murder. At either the trial could not be proceeded in without the consent of the pope, or no proof could be got sufficient to condemn Malagrida; therefore he was delivered to the inquisition, having formerly advanced some propositions concerning on heresy. Two publications which acknowledged, and which give the fullest indications of complete insanity, were the foundations of these suspicions. The one was written in Latin, entitled *Traſatus de vita et imperio Antichriſti*; the other in Portuguese, entitled, "The life of St Anne, composed with the assistance of the Holy Virgin Mary and her most holy Son." They are full of extravagance and absurdity.—This enthusiast pretended to have the gift of miracles. He was tried by the judges of the Inquisition, that God himself had declared him his ambassador, apostle, prophet; that he was united to God by a perpetual union; and that the Virgin Mary, with the consent of Jesus Christ and of the whole Trinity, had declared him to be her son. In short, he confessed, that he felt in the prison, at the age of 22, some emotions very uncommon at that period of life, which at first gave him great uneasiness, but that it had been revealed to him by a vision that these emotions were only the natural effects of an involuntary agitation, wherein there was the same merit as in prayer. For such extravagancies this unfortunate wretch was condemned by the Inquisition; but his death was hastened by a vision which he eagerly revealed. Upon the death of the marquis of Tancourt, commander of Estremadura, mournful discharges were sent in honour of him by the castle of Lisbon, and by all the forts on the banks of the Tagus. Music being heard by Malagrida in his dungeon, supposed, from their happening during the execution, that the king was dead. Next day he demanded an audience from the members of the inquisition, when he told them that he had been revealed by God to show the minister of the holy see that he was not a hypocrite, for the king's death had been revealed to him, and he had seen a vision the torments to which his majesty was condemned for having persecuted the religious of his order. This was sufficient to accelerate his punishment; he was burnt on the 21st Sept. 1761, in his 75th year, not as a conspirator, but as a false prophet, for which he deserved only to have been confined in bedlam. The acts of impiety where he was accused were nothing more than extravagancies, proceeding from a mistaken devotion and an overheated brain.

**MALAGUETTA**, the GRAIN COAST, or the UPPER COAST, a country of Guinea, bounded by Sierra Leona on the W. and the Ivory coast on the SE. extending about 100 miles along the Atlantic. It abounds with lemons, oranges, tea, pain wine, and a peculiarly delicious kind of nuts; but its chief article of commerce is pepper. The people are governed by a king, whom

they hold in great veneration; but they are fond of the Europeans. The Portuguese formerly monopolized the trade of this country, but now share it with the British and Dutch. From their intercourse with the women has sprung a numerous race of mulattoes, whom the Portuguese style *Hidalgos*, or gentlemen, and some of whom have acquired so much education as to have actually commenced clergymen, and preached among their pagan kinsmen.

**MALALEUCA**. See MELALFUCA.

(1.) **MALAMOCCO**, an island and district of Maritime Austria, in the Dogado of Venice, 5 miles long, but not one broad.

(2.) **MALAMOCCO**, a seaport town in the above district, anciently the capital of the Venetians, 5 miles S. of Venice. In 809, it was destroyed by the Franks: in 1105 by fire; and in 1111, by an earthquake. The harbour is very safe, and has two forts strongly garrisoned.

(1.) \* **MALANDERS**. *n. s.* [from *mal andare*, Italian, to go ill.] A dry scab on the pasteron of horses.

(2.) **MALANDERS**, or **MALLENDERS**: See FARRIERY, PART IV. Sect. XI.

\* **MALAPERT**. *adj.* [*mal* and *pert*.] Saucy; quick with impudence; sprightly without respect or decency.—

Peace, master marquis, you are *malapert*.

*Sicak.*

—If thou dar'st tempt me further, draw thy sword. What, what? nay, then I must have an ounce or two of this *malapert* blood from you. *Sbak.*—Are you growing *malapert*? Will you force me make use of my authority? *Dryden.*

\* **MALAPERTLY**. *adv.* [from *malapert*.] Impudently; saucily.

\* **MALAPERTNESS**. *n. s.* [from *malapert*.] Liveliness of reply without decency; quick impudence; sauciness.

**MALATE**, a salt formed by the combination of the MALIC ACID with various bases. See CHEMISTRY, *Vocab.* II.

**MALATHIA**, or } an ancient town of Asiatic  
**MALATIA**, } Turkey, capital of Armenia Minor, on the W. side of the Euphrates, near its source; with an archbishop's see. It was the birth-place of ABULFARAGIUS. Lon. 43. 25. E. Lat. 30. 8. N.

**MALAVISTA**, a town in the isle of Cuba.

\* To **MALAXATE**. *v. a.* [*malaxo*.] To soften, or knead to softness, any body.

\* **MALAXATION**. *n. s.* [from *malaxate*.] The act of softening.

**MALAYANS**, or } the people of Malacca. See  
**MALAYS**, } COOK, N° III; and MALACCA, N° 2.

**MALBY**, the name of 3 towns of Sweden, in W. Gothland: 1st, 21 miles S. of Christianstadt: 2d, 26 miles SE. of Uddevalla; and 3d, 35 miles NE. of it.

**MALCHIN**, a town of Mecklenburg, on the Peene, 10 miles N. of Wahren. Lon. 13. 12. E. Lat. 53. 0. N.

**MALCOLM**, the name of 4 kings of the Scots. See SCOTLAND.

**MALCOLME**, the rev. David, F. A. S. London, a late learned clergyman of the church of Scotland;

Scotland; who was minister of Duddingston, near Edinburgh, prior to 1741. He had paid particular attention to the study of languages and antiquities; in consequence of which he was admitted a member of the London Antiquarian Society. He published *Essays and Letters*, at Edinburgh, in 1739, which display great knowledge of the Celtic and Hebrew languages. These were intended as an introduction to his great work of a *Celtic Dictionary*, but which, it is to be regretted, he did not finish. They are commended by Mr Pinkerton, and quoted with respect by M. Gebelin, in his *Monde Primitif*, and by M. Bulet, in his *Memoirs Celtiques*.

**MALCONTENTA**, a town of Maritime Austria, in the Dogado, W. of Venice.

**MALDEGHEM**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Lys; 10 miles E. of Bruges.

(1.) **MALDEN**, a town of the Batavian republic, in the dep. of the Rhine, and late prov. of Gelders and county of Zutphen; 7 miles E. of Berkeloe.

(2.) **MALDEN**, or **MALDON**, a town of Essex, seated on an eminence at the conflux of the Chelmer and Blackwater, where they enter the sea. It was the first Roman colony in Britain, and the seat of some of the ancient British kings. It was besieged, plundered, and burnt by queen Boadicea; but the Romans repaired it. It was again ruined by the Danes, but rebuilt by the Saxons. It is governed by 2 bailiffs, 6 aldermen, 18 capital burgesses, a steward, recorder, and above 400 commoners, who all vote for its members of parliament. It has a convenient haven for vessels of 400 tons; and drives a good trade in coals, iron, corn, and deals. It has 2 parish churches, and a large library for the use of the minister and the neighbouring clergy. Here is a grammar school, a charity workhouse, a market on Saturday, and a fair on the 18th Sept. **MALDEN WATER** is navigable up to the town, which lies 10 miles E. of Chelmsford, and 27 N.E. of London. Lon. o. 41. E. Lat. 51. 46. N.

(3.) **MALDEN WATER**. See **BLACKWATER**.

**MALDIVE**, or } **ISLANDS**, a cluster of small  
**MALDIVA**, } islands in the Indian ocean,  
100 miles SW. of Ceylon. They are about 1000 in number, and extend from Lat. 2° S. to 7° N. They are generally black low lands, surrounded by rocks and sands. The natives are of the same complexion with the Arabians, profess the Mahometan religion, and are subject to one sovereign. The channels between the islands, are very narrow, and some of them are fordable. They produce neither rice, corn, nor herbage; but the natives live upon cocoa-nuts, and other fruits, roots, and fish. They have little or nothing to barter with, except the shells called *cowries*, with which they abound.

**MALDON**. See **MALDEN**, N° 2.

**MALDONAT**, John, a Spanish Jesuit, born in 1524. He was accused of heresy, and of procuring a fraudulent will, in seducing the president St Andre at Paris to bequeath his estate to the Jesuits. Peter Gondi acquitted him of the first charge, and the parliament of Paris of the other. He retired after these troubles to Bourges, but went to Rome by order of pope Gregory XIV.

to take care of the publication of the Septuagint, and there, after finishing his commentary on the Gospels in 1582, he died in the beginning of 1584. He also wrote Commentaries on Jeremiah, Ezechiel, and Daniel; a treatise on the Sacraments, on grace, on original sin; and several other pieces printed at Paris in 1677, in folio. His style is clear, lively, and easy. He does not feebly follow the scholastic divines; but is pretty free, and sometimes singular, in his sentiments.

(1.) \* **MALE**. *n. s.* [*male*, Fr. *males*, Latin] Of the sex that begets, not bears young; not to male.—Which shall be heir of the two *male twins*, who, by the dissection of the mother, were laid open to the world? *Locke*.—You have no *male child*; your daughters are all married to wealthy patricians. *Swift*.

(2.) \* **MALE**. *n. s.* The he of any species—in most the *male* is the greater, and in some few the female. *Bacon*.—There be more *males* than females, but in different proportions. *Graunt's Bill of Mortality*.

(3.) **MALE**, by zoologists, is defined that sex of animals which has the parts of generation situated externally. See **GENERATION**, and **SEX**.

(4.) **MALE** is also, from some resemblance, often applied to inanimate things; as a *male flower*, a *male screw*, &c. See **BOTANY**, *Index*; *Flor.* § 1, N° 2; **MAS PLANTA**, and **SCREW**.

(5.) \* **MALE**, in composition, signifies *ill*; from *male*, Latin; *male*, old French.

(6.) **MALS**, in geography, the principal of the **MALDIVE ISLANDS**. It is 4½ miles in circumference, and has a town, where the king resides.

(6.) \* **MALEADMINISTRATION**. *n. s.* Bad management of affairs.—From the practice of the wisest nations, when a prince was laid aside for *maladministration*, the nobles and people did resume the administration of the supreme power. *Swift*.—A subject denounces his superior for *maladministration*. *Asiatic*.

**MALEBRANCHE**, Nicholas, an eminent French metaphysician, the son of Nicholas Malebranche, secretary to the French king, was born in 1638, and admitted into the congregation of the oratory in 1660. He at first studied languages and history; but afterwards meeting with Des Cartes's *Treatise of Man*, he applied himself entirely to philosophy. In 1699, he was admitted an honorary member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris. Although of a delicate constitution, he enjoyed a pretty good state of health till he died in 1715, aged 77. He read little, but thought a great deal. He despised that kind of philosophy which consists only in knowing the opinions of other men. He could never read two verses together without disgust. He meditated with his windows shut, to keep out the light, which disturbed him. His conversation turned upon the same subjects as his books; but was mixed with so much modesty and deference to the judgment of others, that it was universally desired. His books are famous; particularly his *Recherche de la Verite*, i. e. *Search after truth*; his design in which is, to point out the errors into which we are daily led by our senses, imagination, and passions; and to prescribe a method for discovering the truth, which he does by starting

*seeing all things in God.* And hence speak of human knowledge, compared with which displays itself from the ideal by attending to which, with pure and ideas, he supposes knowledge to be most These sentiments, with his fine man-ling them, made many admire his ge-ilities; but he is at best a visionary

Mr Locke, in his examination of's opinion of seeing all things in God, "acute and ingenious author;" and there are "many very fine thoughts, reasonings, and uncommon reflections, &c.," yet he refutes the chief prin-ciple of his system. Malebranche wrote many works to confirm his doctrine, and to clear up objections.

DISCONTENTED. } *adj.* [*male and con-*  
CONTENTED. } *tent.*] Discontented.

Clarence, how like you our choice, stand penfive, as half *malecontent*.

Discontent! Is it for a wife's sake to part *malecontent*? *Shak.* for securing his state against muti-*malecontented* subjects, who might have a share in the crown, sent a solemn ambassa-ge to France. *Bacon.*—They cannot signalize themselves by *malecontent*-ments, without breaking thro' their virtues. *Addison.*—The usual way in govern-ments is to confine the *malecon-*tent. *Addison.*

DISCONTENTS, *n. f. plur.* Seditious per-sons disaffected to the government. *Try.* It is surprizing that Dr *Johnson* omitted a substantive noun so fre-quent in history.

DISCONTENTEDLY. *adv.* [from *male-*contented.]

DISCONTENTEDNESS. *n. f.* [from *male-*contentedness.] want of affection to the government. They would ascribe the laying down of the crown to a spirit of *malecontentedness*. *Spektor.*

MALEDICTED. *adj.* [*maledictus*, Lat.] *Ac-*curse.

MALEDICTION. *n. f.* [*malediction*, French; Latin.] Curse; execration; denuncia-tion.

Let my life long time on earth main-tened be, the last, worst *malediction*. *Sydney.*

Original cause, divine *malediction*, laid upon these creatures which God made for the use of man, was above the natural capacity. *Hooker.*—In Spain they spent months, during which Bucking-ham received millions of *maledictions*; which, on the prince's arrival in the west, did vanish. *Wotton.*

MALEFACIOUS. *n. f.* [*male facio*, Lat.] A villain.

Maleficious creatures at a play, the very cunning of the scene, are so to the foul, that presently they proclaim'd their *maleficious*. *Shak.*

MALEFACTOR. *n. f.* [*male and facio*, Lat.]

An offender against law; a criminal; a guilty per-son.—

A jailor to bring forth  
Some monstrous *malefactor*. *Shak. Ant. & Cleop.*  
Fear his word,

As much as *malefactors* do your sword. *Rosc.*  
—It is a sad thing when men shall repair to the ministry, not for preferment but refuge; like *male-*factores flying to the altar, only to save their lives. *South.*

If their barking dog disturb her ease,  
Th' unmanner'd *malefactor* is arraign'd. *Dryd.*

The *malefactor* goat was laid  
On Bacchus's altar, and his forfeit paid. *Dryd.*

\* MALEFICK. } *adj.* [*maleficus*, Latin.] Mis-  
\* MALEFIQUE. }chievous; hurtful. *Di&*

MALEMORT, a town of France in the dep. of the mouths of the Rhone; 6 m. S. of Salon.

MALENE, a town of France, in the dep. of Lozere, on the Tarn, 15 miles SW. of Mende.

\* MALEPRACTICE. *n. f.* [*male and practice*.] Practice contrary to rules.

MALESHERBES, a town of France, in the dep. of the Loiret, 13½ miles S. of Estampes.

MALESTROIT, a town of France, in the dep. of Morbihan, 16½ miles ENE. of Vannes.

MALEVAL, a town of France, in the dep. of Rhone and Loire; 15 miles S. of St Etienne.

MALEVILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Aveiron; 21 miles W. of Rhodéz.

\* MALEVOLENCE. *n. f.* [*malevolentia*, Lat.] Ill will; inclination to hurt others; malignity.—

The son of Duncan  
Lives in the English court; and is receiv'd  
Of the most pious Edward with such grace,  
That the *malevolence* of fortune nothing

Takes from his high respect. *Shak. Macbeth.*

\* MALEVOLENT. *adj.* [*malevolus*, Latin.] Ill-disposed towards others; unfavourable; ma-  
lignant.—

I have thee in my arms  
Though our *malevolent* stars have struggled hard,  
And held us long asunder. *Dryd. K. Arthur.*

\* MALEVOLENTLY. *adv.* [from *malevolence*.] Malignly; malignantly; with ill-will.—The oak did not only resent his fall, but vindicate him from aspersions *malevolently* cast upon him. *Howel.*

MALEXANDER, a town of Sweden in E. Gothland; 25 miles S. of Linkioping.

MALGRATO, a town of the Italian republic, in the department of the Lario, and district of Como; 10 miles NE. of Como.

MALGUENAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Morbihan, 3 miles W. of Pontivy.

MALHERBE, Francis DE, the best French poet of his time, was born at Caen about 1556, of a noble family. He quitted Normandy at 17 years of age; and went into Provence, where he attached himself to the family of Henry Angouleme, the natural son of king Henry II. and was in the service of that prince till he was killed in 1586. Card. de Perron, being informed of his merit and abilities, introduced him to Henry IV. who took him into his service. After that monarch's death, Q. Mary de Medicis settled a pen-sion of 500 crowns upon our poet, who died at Paris in 1628. The best and most complete edi-tion

tion of his works is that of 1666, with Menage's remarks. Boileau considers him as the father of French poetry; but he composed with great difficulty. He was a man of a singular humour and blunt in his behaviour, but without religion. He often said that "the religion of gentlemen was that of their prince." In his last moments he corrected his landlady for speaking bad French.

**MALIC ACID**, an acid abounding in the juice of unripe fruits, particularly in apples; so named from *malum*, Latin, an apple. See **CHEMISTRY**. *Index*; and *Vocab. II.*

(1.) \* **MALICE**, *n. f.* [*malice*, French; *malitia*, Latin.] 1. Badness of design; deliberate mischief. —God hath forgiven me many sins of *malice*, and therefore surely he will pity my infirmities. *Taylor*. 2. Ill intention to any one; desire of hurting. —

Duncan is in his grave;

*Malice* domestick, foreign levy, nothing  
Can touch him further!

*Shak.*

Satan, who late fled before the threats  
Of Gabriel out of Eden, now improv'd  
In meditated fraud and *malice*.

*Milton.*

(2.) **MALICE**, in ethics and law, is a formed design of doing mischief to another; it differs from hatred. In murder, it is malice makes the crime; and if a man, having a malicious intent to kill another, in the execution of his malice kills a person not intended, the malice shall be connected to his person, and he shall be adjudged a murderer. The words *ex malitia premeditata* are necessary to an indictment of murder, &c. And this *malitia premeditata*, or *malice prepenita*, may be either express or implied. Express malice is, when one, with a sedate, deliberate mind, and formed design, kills another; which formed design is evidenced by external circumstances discovering that intention; as lying in wait, antecedent menace, former grudges, and concerted schemes to do him some bodily harm. Besides, where no malice is expressed, the law will imply it; as where a man wilfully poisons another, in such a deliberate act the law presumes malice, though no particular animosity can be proved. And if a man kills another suddenly, without any, or without a considerable provocation, the law implies malice; for no person, unless of an abandoned heart, would be guilty of such an act upon a slight or no count.

\* **To MALICE**, *v. a.* [from the noun.] To regard with ill will. —Obdurate.—

The cause why he is thus ill to *malice*,

Was that his mother which him bore and bred,  
The most unimagined wouldest on the ground,  
Arches by his means, was vanquish'd. *Spens.*

\* **MALICIOUS**, *adj.* [*malicious*, French; *maliciosus*, Latin.] Ill-disposed to any one; intending ill; malicious.—

We must not flit

Our necessary actions in the fear  
To cope *malicious* enmity. —*Shak. Hen. VIII.*  
I grant him honesty,

Sudden, *malicious*, fawning, or ev'ry sin  
That has a name. —*Shak.*

Thou know'st what *malicious* men,  
Eugen, our happy, and of his own  
Deftness, seek to work us woe and shame.

*Milton.*

—The ill appearing to *malicious* in this motto

conspiracy, exacts a more particular regard  
*see on Consumptions.*

\* **MALICIOUSLY**, *adv.* [from *malicious*] malignity; with intention of mischief; intrigue between his majesty and a junco of *maliciously* bent against me, broke out, like to have ended in my utter destruction

\* **MALICIOUSNESS**, *n. f.* [from a Malice; intention of mischief to another  
Not out of envy or *maliciousness*,

Do I forbear to crave your special aid.

**MALICOLLO**. See **MALICOLLO**.

**MALICORNE**, a town of France, in of Sarthe, on the Sarthe; 6 miles N. of Fl

\* **MALIGN**, *adj.* [*maligne*, French; Latin: the *y* is mute or liquefcent.] 1. U able; ill-disposed to any one; maliciouscraft may be by operation of *malign* spirit

If in the constellations war were spr

Two planets, rushing from aspect ma

Of fiercest opposition, in mid sky,

Should combat, and their jarring sph

found.

—Of contempt, and the *malign* hostile it has upon government; every man's e will inform him. *Soub.* 2. Infectious; the body; pestilential.—He that turnet mours back, and maketh the wound bleed endangereth *malign* ulcers and pernici humations. *Baron.*

\* **To MALIGN**, *v. a.* [from the adjective] To regard with envy or malice.—Th practise what mischiefs and villainies the gainst private men, whom they *malign*, b their goods, or murdering them. *Spey*, hardly to be thought that any governo *malign* his successor, as to suffer an evil up which he might timely have kept na strangers conspired together against him *malign* him in the wilderness. *Earl*, it is a pleasure to be envied and b be *malign* standing, and to be desp then is it a pleasure to be great. *Sa* mischief; to hurt; to harm.

\* **MALIGNANCY**, *n. f.* [from *malign*] Malvolence; malice, unfavourableness; some darky over me; the *malignancy* might, perhaps, dissembler yours, and fructive, tendency.—The infection dot a blood, which according to the degree *malicious*, either proves easily curable, proceed in it venial. *Hippocr.*

(1.) \* **MALIGNANT**, *adj.* [*malignans*] 1. Malign; envious; unpropitious; i merciless; intending or effecting ill. *O malignant* and ill-boarding that.

Now art thou come unto a festival

Not trended by his wish to your

son,

His will is most *malignant*, and it fit

Beyond you to your friends.

To word *malignancy*, to bad men br —They have been in other notes to

own represented in a note and *malign* *Bar.* 2. Hostile to life; as, *malign*

—They say, that the cause of the *malignant* vapour that falls upon the peo

Let the learned be

'h' enquiry, where disease could enter in;  
low those *malignant* atoms forc'd their way?

*Dryden.*

1.) **MALIGNANT**, among physicians, (§ 1, *def.*) applied to diseases of a very dangerous nature, generally infectious; such are the dysentery, fever, &c. in their worst stages.

2.) \* **MALIGNANT**. *n. f.* 1. A man of ill intention; malevolently disposed.—Occasion was taken, several *malignants*, secretly to undermine his authority in the church of Christ. *Hooker.* It was a word used of the defenders of the arch and monarchy by the rebel sectaries in the wars.

**MALIGNANTLY**. *adj.* [from *malignant*.] In ill intention; maliciously; mischievously.—  
If he should still *malignantly* remain  
Not foe to the Plebeians, your voices might  
Be curses to yourselves. *Shak.*

**MALIGNER**. *n. f.* [from *malign*.] 1. One regards another with ill will.—I thought it necessary to justify my character in point of cleanliness, which my *maligners* call in question. *Swift.* 2. A scolding censurer.—Such as these are phalot's *maligners*, who pronounce the most general contemplations, needless unprofitable subtleties. *Glanville.*

3.) \* **MALIGNITY**. *n. f.* [*malignité*, French.] Malice; maliciousness.—  
Had not their guilt the lawless soldiers  
Known,  
They made the whole *malignity* their own.

*Tickl.*

4.) **MALIGNITY**, among physicians, signifies the same with contagion. See **CONTAGION**.  
**MALIGNLY**. *adv.* [from *malign*.] Enviously with ill will; mischievously.—  
Wish you think I rally more than teach,  
I praise *malignly* arts I cannot reach;  
I let me for once presume to instruct the times.

*Pope.*

**ALIJAI**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Alps; 9 miles SW. of Digne.

**ALILLA**, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.

**ALIN**, a town of Ireland, in Donegal.

**ALINES**. See **MECHLIN**.

**ALIN-HEAD**, a cape of Ireland, and the most northern point of the island; 23 miles N. of Londerry.

**ALIUOTO**, a town of Calabria Citra.

**ALKAR**, a town of Indostan, in Golconda.

**MALKIN**. *n. f.* [from *mal* or *Mary*, and *kin*, diminutive termination.] A kind of mop of clouts for sweeping ovens; thence a useful figure of clouts dressed up; thence a dirty scoundrel. *Hanmer.*

The kitchen *malkin* pins  
Her richest lockram 'bout her reachy neck,  
Lambing the walls to eye him. *Shak.*

(1.) \* **MALL**. *n. f.* [*malleus*, Latin, a hammer.] 1. A kind of beater or hammer.—He took a *mali*, and after having hollowed the handle, and that part which strikes the ball, he enclosed in them several drugs. *Jiddion.* 2. A stroke; a blow. Not in use.—

With mighty *mali*,

The monster merciless him made to fall.

*Fairy Queen.*

Give that rev'rend head a *mali*

Or two, or three, against a wall. *Hudib.*

2. A walk where they formerly played with malls and balls.—*Moll* is, in Islandick, an arca or walk spread with shells.—

This the beau monde shall from the *mali* survey,

And hail with musick its propitious ray. *Pope.*

(2.) **MALL**, or SEA **MALL**. See **LARUS**, N° 2. \* **To MALL**. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To beat or strike with a mall.

**MALLAPILLY**, a town of Indostan, in Mysore.

(1.) \* **MALLARD**. *n. f.* [*mallart*, Fr.] The drake of the wild duck.—

Antony claps on his sea-wings, like a doating mallard,

Leaving the fight in height. *Shak.*

—The birds that are most easy to be drawn are mallard, shoveler, and goose. *Pearson.*—Arm your hook with the line, and cut, so much of a brown mallard's feather as will make the wings. *Walton.*

(2.) **MALLARD**. See **ANAS**, N° 6.

\* **MALLEABILITY**. *n. f.* [from *malleable*.] Quality of enduring the hammer; quality of spreading under the hammer.—Supposing the nominal essence of gold to be a body of such a peculiar colour and weight, with the *malleability* and fusibility, the real essence is that constitution on which these qualities and their union depend. *Locke.*

\* **MALLEABLE**. *adj.* [*malleable*, Fr. from *malleus*, Lat. a hammer.] Capable of being spread by beating: this is a quality possessed in the most eminent degree by gold, it being more ductile than any other metal; and is opposite to friability or brittleness. *Quincy.*—Make it more strong for falls, though it come not to the degree to be *malleable*. *Bacon.*

The beaten soldier proves most manful,

That like his sword endures the anvil;

And justly's held more formidable,

The more his valour's *malleable*. *Hudibras.*

—If the body is compact, and bends or yields inward to pressure without any sliding of its parts, it is hard and elastic; if the parts slide upon one another, the body is *malleable* or soft. *Newton.*

\* **MALLEABLENESS**. *n. f.* [from *malleable*.] Quality of enduring the hammer; malleability; ductility.—The bodies of most use that are sought for out of the earth are the metals, which are distinguished from other bodies by their weight, fusibility, and malleableness. *Locke.*

\* **To MALLEATE**. *v. a.* [from *malleus*, Lat.] To hammer; to forge or shape by the hammer.—He first found out the art of melting and malleating metals, and making them useful for tools. *Derham.*

**MALLENDERS**. See **FARRIERY**, Part IV, S. S. XI.

(1.) MALLEOLI, or PYROBOLI, in the ancient art of war, were bundles of combustible materials, set on fire to give light in the night, or to annoy the enemy; when they were employed for the latter purpose they were shot out of a bow, or fixed to a javelin, and thus thrown into the enemy's engines, ships, &c. in order to burn them. Pitch was always a principal ingredient in the composition.

(2.) MALLEOLI, in anatomy, the ancle bones. See ANATOMY, § 158.

MALLERE, a town of the French republic, in the dept. of MARENGO, and late duchy of Monterrat; 9 m. NW. of Savona, and 25 S. of Acqui.

(1.) MALLETT, or MALLOCH, David, an English poet, but a Scotman by birth, born about 1700. By the penury of his parents, he was compelled to be janitor of the high school at Edinburgh; but he surmounted the disadvantages of his birth and fortune; for when the Duke of Montrose applied to the college of Edinburgh for a tutor to educate his sons, Malloch was recommended. When his pupils went abroad, they were entrusted to his care; and having conducted them through their travels, he returned with them to London. While residing in their family, he began to give specimens of his poetical talents. In 1733, he published a poem on *Verbal Criticism*; in 1740, he wrote a Life of Lord Bacon, which was prefixed to an edition of his works; but forgot to mention that Bacon was a philosopher. The old duchess of Marlborough assigned in her will the task of writing the Duke's life, to Glover and Mallet, with a reward of 1000*l.* and a prohibition to insert any verses. Glover is said to have rejected the legacy with disdain, so that the work devolved upon Mallet; who had also a pension from the duke's son to promote his industry, and was continually talking of the discoveries he had made, but left not when he died any historical labours behind him. When Frederick prince of Wales was driven from the palace, and kept a separate court by way of opposition, to increase his popularity by patronizing literature, he made Mallet his under secretary, with a salary of 200*l.* a year. Thomson likewise had a pension; and they were associated in the composition of the masque of *Alfred*, which, in its original state, was played at Cusden in 1740. It was afterwards almost wholly changed by Mallet, and brought upon the stage of Drury Lane in 1751, but with no great success. He had before published two tragedies; *Furydice*, acted at Drury Lane in 1731; and *Mylapba*, acted in 1739. It was dedicated to the prince, and well received, but never revived. His next work was *Amyntor and Theodora* (1747), a long story in blank verse; in which there is elegance of language and vigour of sentiment. In 1753, his masque of *Britannia* was acted at Drury Lane, and his tragedy of *Eleira* in 1763; when he was appointed keeper of the book of entries for ships in the port of London. In the beginning of the French war, in 1756, when the nation was exasperated by ill success, he was employed to turn the public vengeance upon Adm. Byng, and wrote a letter of accusation under the character of a *Plain Man*. This paper was with great industry dispersed, and Mallet was reward-

ed with a considerable pension, which he continued to his death. Towards the end of 1763, he went with his wife to France; but, his health declining, he returned alone to England, and died in April 1765. He was twice married, and by his first wife had several children; his second wife was the daughter of a nobleman's who had a considerable fortune, which she took care to retain in her own hands. His stature was diminutive, but being regularly formed, he had a pleasing appearance, till he grew corpulent, was agreeable in his conversation elegant and easy.

(2.) MALLET, Miss, a daughter of the Duke of Devonshire, who married an Italian of rank, named Maffei, and wrote a tragedy, called *Almira*, which was acted at Drury-Lane.

(3.) MALLET, Edmund, was born at London in 1713, and enjoyed a curacy near it, till 1740, when he went to Paris to be professor of French in the college of Navarre, of which he was elected D. D. Boyer, Bp. of Mirepoix had been at first much prejudiced against him for his doctrine and morals. Jansenism was imputed to him by his enemies, and the name of *Ecclesiastical* was given to him, which went by the name of *Ecclesiastical*, and was imputed to him of impiety; both imputations equally false. He died at Paris in 1755, at the age of 42. The principal of his works are, 1. *Principes de la lecture des Poëtes*, 1745, 2 vols, 12mo. 2. *Sur l'Etude des Belles Lettres*, 1747, 12mo. 3. *Sur les bienséances oratoires*, 1753, 12mo. 4. *Discours pour la lecture des Orateurs*, 1755, 3 vols, 12mo. 5. *Histoire des Guerres civiles de France sous le Règne de Francois II. Charles IX. Henri III.* &c. translated from the Italian of D'Avila.—Mallet was like his mind and manners, was easy and moderate; and his attachment to his friends, his moderation, gentleness, and modesty, rendered him truly amiable. He was employed to write the articles on theology and the bell in the *Encyclopédie*; and these were well received. He was preparing two important works, *Histoire generale de nos Guerres depuis le commencement de la Monarchie*; and *Une Histoire de la Guerre de Trente*, in opposition to that of Father Paucan; he died at Paris, in 1755.

(4.) \* MALLET, *n. f.* (*mallevus*, Lat.) A hammer.—The vessel soddered up with iron was struck with a wooden mallet, and then pressed. *Boyle*.—

Their left-hand does the calking iron.  
The rattling mallet with the right they use.

(5.) MALLETS are much used by artificers in work with chisels, as sculptors, maçons, a cutters, whose mallet is ordinarily round; carpenters, joiners, &c. who use it square. There are several sorts of mallets used for different purposes on ship-board. The caulking mallet is employed to drive the oakum into the joints of a ship, where the edges of the planks are driven to each other in the sides, deck, or bottom. The head of this mallet is long and cylindrical, and is hooped with iron to prevent it from splitting in the exercise of caulking. There is also the hammer mallet, used in serving the rigging, by being spun yarn more firmly about it than could be done by hand, which is performed



lowing manner: the spun yarn being previously rolled up in a large ball or clue, 2 or 3 turns it are passed about the rope, and about the dy of the mallet, which for that purpose is furnished with a round channel in its surface, that conforms to the convexity of the rope intended to be served. The turns of the spun yarn being wound round the mallet, so as to confine it firmly to the rope, which is extended above the deck, the man passes the ball continually about the rope, whilst the other, at the same time, winds the spun yarn by means of the mallet, whose handle acting as a lever strains every turn about the rope as firm as possible.

1.) MALLEVILLE, Claud DE, a French poet, born at Paris, and one of the first members of the French academy. He gained a prize from Voiture and other ingenious men. He became secretary to M. de Bassompierre, to whom he performed some very important services while he was in prison; and with the rewards he received purchased the place of secretary to the king. He was likewise secretary to the French academy, and died in 1647. He wrote sonnets, stanzas, elegies, epigrams, songs, madrigals, and a paraphrase on some of the Psalms. His sonnets were most esteemed.

2.) MALLEVILLE, a town of France, in the department of Lower Loire, 15 miles NW. of Nantes.

MALLEUS. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

MALLICOLLO, one of the New Hebrides, the most considerable of them next to *Espiritu*. It is 18 leagues long from SE. to NW. Its greatest breadth, which is at the SE. end, is 24 leagues; the NW. end is  $\frac{1}{2}$  its breadth, and narrower towards the middle. This contraction is occasioned by a wide and deep bay on the SW. side. It is very fertile, and well inhabited; the land on the sea side is rather low, and lies with a slope from the sea. The natives call it *Mallicollo*, which nearly resembles *Manicollo*, the name which Quiros reported for it 160 years before. The S. coast, which was most attentively examined by captain Cook, is luxuriantly clothed with wood and other vegetables, from the sea-shore to the very summits of the hills. On the NW. it is less woody, and more agreeably intersected by lawns, some of which appeared to be cultivated. Vegetable productions abound in great variety; cocoa nuts, bread-fruit, bananas, sugar canes, yams, eddoes, turmeric; but the fruits are not so good as the Society and Friendly Isles. Hogs and poultry are their domestic animals; the former numerous. A brace of Tahitian puppies was sent them, with a view to stock the country with that species of animal: these they received with strong signs of satisfaction. The woods are frequented by many species of birds. A shark, 9 feet in length, on which the ship's company feasted with great relish: when cut open, it was found to have the bony point of an arrow sticking in its head, having been shot quite through the skull. The wound was healed so speedily, that not the smallest vestige of it appeared on the outside: a piece of the wood still remained sticking to the bony point, but so rotten, as to crumble into dust at the touch. Two red reddish fish of the sea-bream kind were like-

wife caught, on which most of the officers dined. The night following all who had eaten of them were seized with violent pains in the head and bones, attended with a scorching heat all over the skin, and numbness in the joints; even such hogs and dogs as had partaken of these fish gave strong symptoms of being poisoned: one hog, who had eaten of the garbage, swelled to a great size and died at night: several dogs were affected in the same manner; they groaned most pitifully, had violent reachings, and could hardly drag their limbs along. These fish were supposed to have been of the same sort with those which Quiros mentions to have produced similar effects on board his ship. The effects of this poison on the officers continued for near a fortnight, during which time their pains returned every night, their teeth were loose, and their gums and palate excoriated. The natives of Mallicollo are described as the most ugly, ill-proportioned people imaginable, and in every respect different from the other islanders in the South Sea. They are of a very dark colour, and diminutive size; with long heads, flat faces, and monkey countenances; their hair in general black or brown, short and curly, but not so soft and woolly as that of a negro. Their beards are very strong, crisp and bushy, and generally black and short. But what serves to increase their natural deformity is a custom which they have of wearing a belt, or cord round their waist: this rope is as thick as a man's finger, and is tied so tight round their belly, that it would be fatal to a person unaccustomed from infancy to such an unnatural ligature; for it cuts such a deep notch across the navel, that the belly seems in a manner divided, one part being above and the other below the rope. The men go quite naked except a piece of cloth or leaf used as a wrapper. Most other nations invent some kind of covering from motives of shame; but here a roll of cloth, continually fastened to the belt, rather displays than conceals the parts. Besides having the flat broad nose and projecting cheek-bones of a negro, and a very short forehead, many increased their natural ugliness by painting their faces and breasts black. Some few had a small cap on the head made of matted work. They wear bracelets of white and black shells, which press the upper arm so closely, that they seem to have been put on when the wearer was very young: this tends, as well as the belt, to reduce the Mallicolles to that slender shape which characterises them. The depression of their foreheads is supposed to be artificial, as the heads of infants may be squeezed into any kind of form. The first natives that were seen, carried clubs in their hands, and waded into the water, carrying green boughs, the universal sign of peace. They ventured to come within a few yards of the ship's boat, which was sent out; when they dipped their hands into the sea, and gathering some water in their palms, poured it on their heads. The officers in the boat did the same, with which the Indians appeared to be much pleased. They repeated the word *tomarr*, or *tomarro*, continually. The greater part were armed with bows and arrows, and a few with spears. At length they ventured near the ship, and received a few presents of Tahitian

cloth, which they eagerly accepted, and handed up their arrows in exchange, some of which were pointed with wood and some with bone, and daubed with a black gummy stuff which was supposed to be poisoned; but its effects were tried on a dog, without producing any dangerous symptoms. They continued about the ship, talking with great vociferation, but at the same time in such a good-humoured manner as was very entertaining. On looking stedfastly at one of them, he began to chatter with great fluency. Some continued about the ship till midnight; finding, however, at length, that they were but little noticed, for the captain wanted to get rid of them, they returned on shore, where the sound of singing and beating their drums was heard all night. Mr Forster supposes there may be 50,000 inhabitants on this extensive island, which contains above 600 square miles, and appears to be one extensive forest. The natives appear to be a race totally distinct from those of the Friendly and Society Islands; their form, language, and manners, strongly mark this difference. The natives, of some parts of New Guinea and Papua, correspond, in many particulars, with what has been observed of the Mallicollese. They differ likewise very widely from the light-coloured inhabitants of the South Sea, by keeping their bodies entirely free of punctures. Whatever these people saw, they coveted; but they never repined at a refusal. The looking-glasses which were given them were highly esteemed, and they took great pleasure in viewing themselves; so that these ugly people seemed to have more conceit than the beautiful inhabitants of Otaheite and the Society Islands. Early the next morning they came off to the ship in their canoes, and 4 or 5 of them went on board without any arms. They soon became familiar, and, with the greatest ease, climbed up the rigging to the mast-head; when they came down, the captain took them into his cabin, and gave them medals, ribbons, nails, and pieces of red baize. They appeared the most intelligent of any nation that had been seen in the South Sea; they readily understood signs and gestures; and in a few minutes taught the gentlemen of the ship several words in their language, which appeared to be wholly distinct from that general language of which so many dialects are spoken at the Society Islands, the Marquesas, Friendly Isles, Easter Island, and New-Zealand. Their language was not difficult to pronounce, but contained more consonants than any of them. Mr Forster, and some other gentlemen, went on shore, and conversed with the natives, who with great goodwill sat down on the stump of a tree to teach them their language. They were surprised at the readiness of their guests to remember, and seemed to wonder how it was possible to preserve the sound by such means as pencils and paper. They were not only assiduous in teaching, but seemed anxious to learn the language of the strangers, which they pronounced with such accuracy, as led their instructors to admire their extensive faculties and quick apprehension. Observing their organs of speech to be so flexible, they tried the most difficult sounds in the European languages, and had recourse to the com-

mon Russian *stch*, all of which they did at the first hearing without the least error. They learned the English numerals, and repeated rapidly on their fingers; so they wanted in personal beauty was attested in acuteness of understanding express their admiration by kissing hands. Their music is not remarkable for harmony, but seemed to be more lively than the Friendly Islands. Their behaviour to the visitors was, in general, harmless, but they gave them no invitation to stay, and for they seemed not to relish the proximity of powerful people, being probably accus- tomed to acts of violence and outrage from their neighbours. Very few women were seen, but those I saw were no less ugly than the men; they were of a short stature, and their heads, faces, and limbs were painted red. Those who were seen had short pieces of a kind of cloth, or mat, round their waists, reaching nearly to the knees; the rest had only a string round the middle, and a wisp of straw; and the younger ones, I saw, to the age of 10 years, went stark naked like the boys of the same age. The women wore no ornaments in their ears or round the neck and arms, it being fashionable for them to adorn themselves; and wherever this custom prevails, the other sex is commonly despised, and in a state of servility. Here men were seen with bundles on their backs, which contained their children; the men seemed to have little regard for them. None came off to the ship, and they generally kept at a distance when any party landed from the ship. They perforate the cartilage of the nose with the point of a stone, and thrust therein a piece of bone about an inch and a half long, which is fixed like the curvature of a bow. The nostrils are then low, and covered with a palm-leaf, which is enclosed or walled round with bone, the entrance to these was by a square hole at the end. Their weapons are bows and arrows, and clubs about two feet and a half long, made of casuarina wood, commonly knobbed at the ends, and well polished. This weapon they carry on their right shoulder, from a thick rope, which is a kind of gaiter. It appeared to be peculiarly adapted for close engagements, after having emptied the bow. On the left wrist they wear a circular plate, neatly covered, and joined with a string about 5 inches diameter; upon which the violence of the recoiling bow-string serves their arm unhurt. Their arrows are made of a sort of reed; and are sometimes armed with a long sharp point made of the same wood, sometimes with a very hard point made of stone. Some of these are armed with 2 or 3 points, with small prickles on the edge to prevent the arrow from being drawn out of the wound. Their food seems to be principally vegetables, which they apply themselves to husbandry. The number of canoes that were seen along the coast of the ship at one time did not exceed 10, or 12, and Mr Forster, 14, with only 4 or 5 in each; they were small, of indifferent workmanship, and without ornament; but provided with a *outrigger*. After some slight manœuvres

on on the part of the natives, which  
 on in their canoes whilst about the  
 Cook, with a party of marines in  
 ned in the face of 400 or 500 Indi-  
 assembled on the shore. Tho' they  
 ed with bows and arrows, clubs and  
 made not the least opposition; on the  
 ing the captain advance alone, un-  
 only a green branch in his hand, one  
 o seemed to be a chief, giving his  
 ows to another, met him in the wa-  
 llo a green branch. When they met,  
 were exchanged; and the chief led  
 y the hand up to the crowd, to whom  
 ly distributed presents: in the mean  
 iners were landed, and drawn up up-  
 . The captain then made signs that  
 ood, and they by signs gave him per-  
 t down the trees. A small pig was  
 ught and presented to the captain,  
 n gave the bearer a piece of cloth. It  
 l from this instance, that an exchange  
 for various articles of merchandize  
 place; but these expectations proved  
 so more pigs were procured, and on-  
 f a dozen cocoa nuts, and a small  
 fish water. As these islanders were  
 hogs as well as fowls, their backward-  
 with either might be owing to the lit-  
 n in which they held such articles as  
 ed in barter; for they set no value on  
 other kind of iron tools, and held all  
 s of finery equally cheap. They would  
 in exchange an arrow for a piece of  
 ery feldom would part with a bow.  
 g on board what wood had been cut,  
 embarked, and the natives dispersed.  
 ip was about to leave the island, the  
 reumstances took place: "When the  
 us under sail, (says Capt. Cook,) they  
 canoes, making exchanges with more  
 han before, and giving such extraor-  
 ds of their honesty as surpris'd us. As  
 irst had fresh water through the water,  
 e canoes dropt astern after they had  
 eds, and before they had time to deli-  
 return: Instead of taking advantage  
 ur friends at the Society Islands would  
 they used their utmost efforts to get  
 , and deliver what they had already  
 or. One man in particular followed  
 nsiderable time, and did not reach us  
 alin, and the thing was forgotten. As  
 ame along-side, he held up the article,  
 al on board were ready to buy: but  
 o part with it till he saw the person to  
 ud before sold it; and to him he gave it,  
 , not knowing the man again, offered  
 ing in return, which he refused; and  
 what had been given before, at length  
 sensible of the nice sense of honour  
 etuated this Indian." SANDWICH HAR-  
 which Capt. Cook's ship anchored, lies  
 middle of this island on the NE. side; in  
 17° 53' E. Lat. 16° 25' 20" S.  
 CH. See MALLETT, N° 1.  
 T, a town of France, in the dept. of  
 3 miles S. of Caen.

(1.) MALLOW, a manor, and borough town  
 of Ireland, in Cork, above 118 miles from Dub-  
 lin. It was incorporated by charter in 1688, and  
 sends one member to the imperial parliament. It  
 is pleasantly situated on the N. bank of the Black-  
 water, over which there is an excellent stone  
 bridge. It has a good church, a market house,  
 and barracks for a troop of horse. Not far dis-  
 tant is a fine spring of moderately tepid water,  
 which bursts out of the bottom of a fine limestone  
 rock, and approaches very near in all its qualities  
 to the hot-well waters of Bristol; which brings a  
 resort of good company in summer, and has caus-  
 ed it to be called the *High Bath*. Mallow is a post  
 town, and has 5 fairs. It is 14 miles N. of Cork.  
 Lon. 8. 39. W. Lat. 52. 8. N.

- (2.) MALLOW, in botany. See MALVA.
- (3.) MALLOW, BASTARD. See MALLOW.
- (4.) MALLOW, JEWS. See CORCHORUS.
- (5.) MALLOW, INDIAN. See SIDA and URFNA.
- (6.) MALLOW, MARSH. See ALTHÆA, N° 1.
- (7.) MALLOW, ROSE. See ALCEA, N° 2.
- (8.) \* MALLOWs. *n. f.* [*malva*, Latin; *milawz*,  
 Saxon.] A plant.—  
 Shards or *mallozes* for the pot,  
 That keep the loosen'd body found. *Dryden*.
- (9.) MALLOW, SYRIAN. See HIBISCUS.
- (10.) MALLOW TREE. See LAVATFRA.
- (11.) MALLOW, VENETIAN. See HIBISCUS,  
 N° 7.
- (12.) MALLOW, YELLOW. See SIDA.

MALMAISON, or CHATEAU DE MAISON, the  
 country seat of the First Consul of France, is seat-  
 ed on the Seine, 9 miles from Paris, and 3 from  
 St Germain. At the revolution it belonged to  
 Count Artois. It is elegantly ornamented with  
 columns, pilasters, and other ornaments of archi-  
 tecture, in the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian or-  
 ders; and finely embellished with pictures, statues,  
 gardens, cascades, fruit-trees, &c. The castle is sur-  
 rounded by a dry fosse and bordered by a terrace.

MALMEDY, a town of the French republic,  
 in the dep. of Curte, and late bishopric of Liege.  
 It was taken by the French, Oct. 19, 1794. It is  
 seated on the Recht, 9 miles S. of Limburg, and  
 40 N. of Luxemburg. Lon. 6. 2. E. Lat. 50. 18.  
 N.

(1.) MALMSBURY, a town of Wiltshire, 95  
 miles from London. It stands on a hill, with six  
 bridge over the river Avon at the bottom; with  
 which, and a brook that runs into it, it is in a  
 manner encompassed. It formerly had walls and a  
 castle, which were pulled down to enlarge the ab-  
 bey, whose abbots sat in parliament. The Saxon  
 King Athelstan granted the town large immunities,  
 and was buried under the high altar of the church,  
 and his monument still remains in the nave of it.  
 The memory of Aldhelm, its first abbot, who was  
 the king's great favourite, and whom he got to be  
 canonized after his death, is still kept up by a  
 meadow near this town, called Aldhelm's Mead.  
 By charter of K. William III. the corporation  
 consists of an alderman, chosen yearly, 12 capital  
 burgesses, and 4 assistants. There is an alms-house  
 for 4 men and 4 women, and near the bridge an  
 hospital for lepers, where it is supposed there was  
 formerly a nunnery. This town drives a conside-  
 rable trade in woollen manufactures, has a mar-  
 ket

justly malted and well ground. When the grain is not sufficiently malted, it is apt to prove hard, so that the water can have but very little power to dissolve its substance; and if it be too much malted, a part of the fermentable matter is lost in that operation. The harder and more stinty the malt is, the finer it ought to be ground; and in all cases, when intended for distillation, it is advisable to reduce it to a kind of finer or coarser meal. When the malt is thus ground, it is found by experience that great part of the time, trouble, and expence of the brewing is saved by it, and yet as large a quantity of spirit will be produced; for thus the whole substance of the malt may remain mixed among the tincture, and be fermented and distilled among it. This is a particular that very well deserves the attention of the malt distiller as that trade is at present carried on; for the dispatch of the business, and the quantity of spirit procured, is more attended to than the purity or perfection of it. The secret of this matter depends upon the thoroughly mixing or briskly agitating and throwing the meal about, first in cold and then in hot water; and repeating this agitation after the fermentation is over, when the thick turbid wash being immediately committed to the still already hot and dewy with working, there is no danger of burning, unless by accident, even without the farther trouble of stirring, which in this case is found needless, though the quantity be ever so large, provided that requisite care and cleanliness be used; and thus the business of brewing and fermenting may very commodiously be performed together, and reduced to one single operation. Whatever water is made choice of, it must stand in a hot state upon the prepared malt, especially if a clear tincture be desired; but a known and very great inconvenience attends its being applied too hot, or too near to a state of boiling, or even scalding with regard to the hand. To save time in this case, and to prevent the malt running into lumps and clods, the best way is to put a certain measured quantity of cold water to the malt first; the malt is then to be stirred very well with this, so as to form a sort of thin uniform paste or pudding; after which the remaining quantity of water required may be added in a state of boiling, without the least danger of making what, in the distillers language, is called a *pudden*. In this manner the due and necessary degree of heat in water, for the extracting all the virtues of the malt, may be hit upon very expeditiously, and with a great deal of exactness, as the heat of boiling water is a fixed standard which may be let down to any degree by a proportionate mixture of cold water, due allowances being made for the season of the year, and for the temperature of the air. This little obvious improvement, added to the method just above hinted for the reducing brewing and fermentation to one operation, will render it practicable to very considerable advantage, and the spirit improved in quality as well as quantity. A much more profitable method, than that usually practised for the fermenting malt for distillation, in order to get its spirit, is the following: take ten pounds of malt reduced to a fine meal, and three pounds of common wheat-meal; add to these two gallons of cold water, and stir

them well together; then add five gallons of water boiling hot, and stir altogether again. Let the whole stand two hours, and then stir it again; and when grown cold, add to it two ounces of solid yeast, and set it by loosely covered in a warmish place to ferment. This is the Dutch method of preparing what they call the *wasch for malt spirit*, whereby they save much trouble and procure a large quantity of spirit: thus commodiously reducing the two businesses of brewing and fermenting to one single operation. In England the method is to draw and mash for spirit as they ordinarily do for beer, only instead of boiling the wort, they pump it into large coolers, and afterwards run it into their fermenting backs, to be there fermented with yeast. Thus they bestow twice as much labour as is necessary, and lose a large quantity of their spirit by leaving the gross bottoms out of the still for fear of burning. All simple spirits may be considered in the three different states of low wines, proof spirit, and alcohol, the intermediate degrees of strength being of less general use; and they are to be judged of only according as they approach to or recede from these. Low wines at a medium contain a sixth part of pure inflammable spirit, five times as much water as spirit necessarily arising in the operation with a boiling heat. Proof goods contain about one half of the same totally inflammable spirit; and alcohol entirely consists of it. Malt low wines, prepared in the common way, are exceeding rank; they have, however, a natural vinosity or pungent agreeable acidity, which would render the spirit agreeable to the palate were it not for the large quantity of the gross oil of the malt that is bound in it. When this oil is detained in some measure from mixing itself among the low wines, the stretching a coarse flannel over the neck of the still or at the orifice of the worm, the spirit becomes much purer in all respects; it is less fulsome to the taste, less offensive to the smell, and less milky to the eye. When these low wines, in the rectification into proof-spirits, are distilled gently, they leave a considerable quantity of this gross fetid oil behind them in the still along with the phlegm; but if the fire be made fierce, this oil is again raised and brought over with the spirit; and being now broken somewhat more fine, it impregnates it in a more nauseous manner than at first. This is the common fault both of the malt distiller and of the rectifier; the latter, instead of separating the spirit from this nasty oil, which is the principal intent of his process, attends only to drawing the phlegm in such quantity behind, that the spirit may be of a due strength as proof or marketable goods, and brings over the oil in a worse state than before. To this inattention to the proper business of the process, it is owing, that the spirit, after its several rectifications, as they are miscalled, is often found more stinking than when delivered out of the hands of the malt distiller. All this may be prevented by the taking more time in the subsequent distillations, and keeping the fire low and regular; the sudden stirring of the fire, and the hasty way of throwing on the fresh fuel, being the general occasion of throwing up the oil by spurts, where the fire is green during the process, has not been so large as to be

ntier in pefence of the old doctor. The academican was afraid to meet his looks ; fooner was the reading finished, than Mawent up to him, and embracing him, faid give my refpects ; you have feen farther into bject than I did."

**LPARTIDO**, a town of Spain, in *Extremadura* 14 miles S. of *Placentia*.

**MALPAS**, a town of *Cheshire*, 166 miles London. It ftands on a high hill, not far he river *Dec*, on the borders of *Shropshire* ; grammar fchool, and an hofpital, and had a caftle. It is called in Latin *Mala Placentia Ill Street*, and was, for the fame reafon, Normans, called *Mal Pas* ; but its three of which it chiefly confifts, are now well ; and it has two reftors, who officiate aldy in its ftately church. It has a good market Monday and 3 annual fairs.

**MALPAS**, a mountain of France, which was rough for the canal of *LANGUEDOC*.

**MALPICA**, a town of Portugal, in *Beira*.

**MALPICA**, a town of Spain in *Galicia*.

**LPIGHI**, *Marcellus*, an eminent Italian anatomift in the 17th century. He l under *Maflari* and *Mariano*. The D. of ny invited him to *Pifa*, to be profeflor of there. In this city he contracted an intacquaintance with *Borelli*, to whom he afall the difcoveries he had made. He went to *Bologna*, the air of *Pifa* not agreeing im. Cardinal *Antony Pignatelli*, who had him while he was legate at *Bologna*, before pope in 1691, under the name of *IN-IT XII*. immediately fent for him to *Rome*, appointed him his phyfician. He died in and his works, with his life, written by f, prefixed, were firft collected and printed don, in fol. in 1667. See *ANATOMY, Index*.

**LPIGHIA**, *BARBADOS CHERRY*, a general trigynia order, belonging to the decanafs of plants ; and in the natural method g under the 23d order, *Tribilate*. The calantaphyllous, with melliferous pores on the at the bafe. There are 5 petals, roundifh, quiculated: the berry unilocular trispermous. are 10 fpecies, all shrubby evergreens of the parts of *America*, rifing with branchy ftems or 10, to 15 or 20 feet high, ornamented oval and lanceolate entire leaves, and large etalous flowers, fucceeded by red cherry-eatable berries, of an acid and palatable. Three of thefe fpecies are reared in our s, and make a fine variety in the ftove. retain their leaves all the year round ; and o flower about the end of autumn, con- in constant fucceffion till the fpring ; afch they frequently produce and ripen their which equals the fize of a fmall cherry. The are of a pale red or purple colour. Thefe are propagated by feeds, which muft be a fpring, in pots of rich earth : then plung- a hot bed ; and when 3 or 4 inches high, feperate fmall pots, watered and plunged in k-bed of the ftove ; where after they have ed a year or two, they may be placed in rt of it. They may even be placed in the air during a month or two of the hotteft

weather in fummer ; but muft be carefully fupplied with water during the whole year.

**MALPLAQUET**, a village of the French republic, in the department of *Gemappes*, and late province of *Auftrian Hainault*, famous for a moft bloody battle fought on the 11th September, 1709, between the French under marfhall *Villars*, and the allies under prince *Eugene* and the D. of *Marlborough*. (See *ENGLAND, § 75*.) The French army amounted to 120,000 men ; and were pofted behind the woods of *La Marte* and *Taniers*, in the neighbourhood of *Malplaquet*. They had fortified their fituation in fuch a manner with lines, hedges, and trees laid acrofs, that they feemed to be quite inacceffible. In this fituation they expected certain victory ; and even the foldiers were fo eager to engage, that they flung away the bread which had been juft given them, though they had taken no fufenance for a whole day before. The allied army began the attack early in the morning, favoured by a thick fog. Their chief impreffion was made upon the left of the enemy ; and with fuch fuccefs, that, notwithstanding their lines and barricadoes, the French were in lefs than an hour driven from their entrenchments. But on the right the combat was fufained with much greater obftinacy. The Dutch, who carried on the attack, drove them from their firft line ; but were repulfed from the 2d with great flaughter. The prince of *Orange*, who headed that attack, perfifted in his efforts with incredible perfeverance and intrepidity, though two horfes had been killed under him, and the greater part of his officers flain and difabled. At laft, however, the French were obliged to yield, *Villars* being dangerously wounded ; but they made an excellent retreat under *Bouffers*, and took poft near *Guefnoy* and *Valenciennes*.

**MALSESINE**. See *MALACESENE*.

(1.) \* **MALT**. *n. f.* [*malt*, *Saxon* ; *mout*, *Dutch*.] Grain fteeped in water and fermented, then dried on a kiln.—Beer hath *malt* firft infufed into the liquor, and is afterwards boiled with the hop. *Bacon*.

(2.) **MALT** denotes barley cured, or prepared to fit it for making a pot-able liquor, under the denomination of *beer* or *ale*. See *BREWING*.

(3.) **MALT, DISTILLERY OF**, is an extenfive article of trade, by which very large fortunes are made. The art is to convert fermented malt liquors into a clear inflammable fpirit, which may be either fold for ufe in the common ftate of a proof ftrength, that is, the fame ftrength with French brandy ; or is rectified into that purer fpirit ufually fold under the name of *spirit of wine* ; or made into compound cordial waters, by being diftilled again from herds and other ingredients. See *BREWING* and *WASH*. To brew with malt in the moft advantageous manner, it is neceffary, 1. That fubject be well prepared ; 2. That the water be fuitable and duly applied ; and, 3. That fome certain additions be ufed, or alterations made, according to the feafon of the year, and the intention of the operator : and by a proper regulation in thefe refpects, all the fermentable parts of the fubject will thus be brought into the tincture, and become fit for fermentation. The due preparation of the fubject confifts in its being juftly

A mixture of both these makes an amber colour; whence several of these liquors take their name. Now, it is certain, the pale malt has most of the natural grain in it, and is therefore the most nourishing; but, for the same reason, it requires a stronger constitution to digest it. Those, who drink much of it, are usually fat and sleek in their bloom, but are often cut off by sudden fevers; or, if they avoid these, they fall early into a disordered old age. The brown malt makes a drink much less viscid, and fitter to pass the several strainers of the body; but, if very strong, it may lead on to the same inconveniences with the pale; though a single debauch wears off much more easily in the brown. Dr Quincy observes, that the best pale malt liquors are those brewed with hard waters, as those of springs and wells, because the mineral particles, wherewith these waters are impregnated, help to prevent the cohesions of those drawn from the grain, and enable them to pass the proper secretions the better; as the viscid particles of the grain do likewise defend these from doing the mischief they might otherwise occasion. But softer waters seem best suited to draw out the substance of high-dried malts, which retain many fiery particles in their contexture, and are therefore best lost in a smooth vehicle. For the differences in the preparation of malt liquors, they chiefly consist in the use of hops, as in beer; or in the more sparing use of them, as in ale. The difference made by hops is best discovered from the nature and quality of the hops themselves: these are known to be a subtle grateful bitter; in their composition, therefore, with this liquor, they add somewhat of an alkaline nature, i. e. particles that are sublime, active, and rapid. By which means, the rosy viscid part of the malt is more divided and subtilized; and are therefore not only rendered more easy of digestion and secretion, but also, while in the liquor, they prevent it from running into such excrements as would make it ripy, vapid, and sour. For want of this, in unhopped drinks, that eluminate sweetness, which they retain after working, soon turns them acid and unfit for use; which happens sooner or later in proportion to the strength they receive from the malt, and the continuation that it has undergone by fermentation. It is a common opinion, that ale is more diuretic than beer; that is, liquor less hopped more than that with a greater quantity of hops in it; which may hold in some constitutions; because ale being more smooth, softening, and relaxing, where urine is to be promoted by enlarging the passage, as in thin, dry constitutions, this is the most likely to effect it. But, where the promoting of urine is to be done by attenuating and breaking the juices, and rendering them more fluid, it is certainly best answered by those drinks which are well hopped. As to the dispute, whether hops tend to breed the stone, Quincy is of opinion, there is but little reason for the affirmative; and, in general, says, that, for *one* constitution damaged by beer, there are *many* spoiled by ale. This last manifestly foils the glands, stiffens the vessels with slime and viscidness, makes the body unwieldy and corpulent, and paves the way for cachexias, jaundice, asthma, and incurable dropsies. The urinary pass-

ges, also, which it is supposed to clog, will, in time, be filled by it with dough and matter of an ill consequence as gravel. The different strength of malt liquors also makes their effects different. The stronger they are, the more viscid parts they carry into the blood; and though the spirituous parts make these imperceptible at first; yet when these are evaporated, which they will be in a few hours, the other will be sensibly felt by pains in the head, nauuseousness at the stomach, and lassitude or listlessness. This those are the most sensible of, who have experienced the extremes of drinking these liquors and wines; for a debauch of wine they find much sooner worn off, and they are much more lively and brisk afterwards, than after drinking malt liquors, whose viscid remains will be long before they be shaken off. Malt liquors are, therefore, in general, the more wholesome for being small; i. e. of such a strength as is liable to convey a small degree of warmth into the stomach, but not so great as to prevent their being proper diet of the necessary food. Indeed, in robust people, or those who labour hard, the viscidities of the drink may be broken into convenient nourishment; but in persons of another habit and way of living, they serve rather to occasion obstructions and distempers. The wholesomeness of malt liquors also depends much upon their age. Age seems to do nearly the same thing as hops; for those liquors which are longest kept are certainly the least viscid; age breaking the viscid parts, and by degrees rendering them smaller, and fit for secretion. But this is always determined according to their strength; in proportion to which they sooner or later come to their full period, as well as decay; for, when ale or beer is kept, all its particles are broken and comminuted as far as they are capable, then they are best; and beyond this, they will be continually on the decay till the finer spirits are entirely escaped, and the remainder becomes vapid and sour.

(1.) MALT, TAX ON. See MALT-TAX.

To MALT, *v. n.* 1. To make malt. 2. To be made malt.—To house it green it will never burn, which will make it *malt* worse. *Macaulay's History.*

(1, 1.) MALTA, a celebrated island of the Mediterranean, situated between Lon. 15° and 19° E. and between Lat. 35° and 36° N. It is about 19 or 20 leagues in length, 9 or 10 in breadth, and 60 in Circumference.

(2.) MALTA, ANCIENT NAMES, PRODUCTIONS AND HISTORY OF. This island was anciently called MELITA; and is supposed by Cluverius, from its situation and other particulars, to be either OENOGIA, or HYPERIA, mentioned by Homer, which last is most probable, as the poet places the mountain Melita in that island. See HYPERIA. The most ancient possessors of Malta, of whom we have any certain account, were the Carthaginians from whom it was taken by the Romans; and yet during the whole time that it continued under the power of these nations, it was almost entirely barren. The soil was partly sandy and partly rocky, having scarcely any depth of earth; and without fertility, that it was hardly capable of producing corn or any other grain except cummin, and Cassia seeds. Its chief products were figs, —

honey, cotton, and some few other fruits or commodities which the inhabitants exchanged for; and in this barren state it seems to have remained till it came into the possession of the knights. It laboured also under great scarcity of water and fuel: upon all which accounts it was till that time but thinly inhabited,

being only about 30 or 40 scattered villages, no city except the capital, called also MALTA and the town and fort of St Angelo, which added the harbour: so that the whole number of inhabitants, of all ages, did not exceed 20, the greatest part of whom were very ignorant. According to an ancient tradition, Malta was first possessed by an African prince named MATHIAS, an enemy to queen Dida; from whom it was taken by the Carthaginians, as may be inferred from several Punic inscriptions to be seen on stones and other monuments yet standing. From the Carthaginians it passed to the Romans, who themselves masters of it at the same time they subdued Sicily. These were driven out by the Arabs in 828; who were driven out of it in their turn by Roger the Norman, earl of Sicily, who took possession of it in 1190; from which it continued under the dominion of the Sicilians till the time of Charles V. when it fell into his power, along with Naples and Sicily. Charles afterwards gave the island of Sicily from the Turks, and gave the island to the knights of Rhodes.

**MALTA, HISTORY, CONSTITUTION, AND GOVERNMENT OF THE KNIGHTS OF.** The knights of Rhodes, afterwards of Malta, originated from a religious military order, called HOSPITALLERS of JOHN OF JERUSALEM. These knights, famous for defending Christendom, had their rise as follows: Some time before the journey of Godfrey of Bouillon into the Holy Land, some Neapolitan merchants, who traded in the Levant, obliged the caliph of Egypt, to build a hospital for those of their nation who came thither on pilgrimage, upon paying an annual tribute. Towards this they built two churches, and received the pilgrims with great zeal and charity. This example being followed by others, they founded a hospital in honour of St John, and an hospital for the sick; whence they took the name of Hospitaliers. A little after Godfrey had taken Jerusalem in 1099, they began to be distinguished by a habit and a cross with 8 points; and, being the ordinary vow, they took another, to defend the pilgrims against the insults of the infidels. This foundation was completed in 1104, in the reign of Baldwin; and so their order became more illustrious.

Many persons of quality entered into it, and the name of hospitaliers into that of knights. When Jerusalem was taken, and the Christians lost their power in the East, the knights retired to ACRE or Ptolemais, which they defended bravely in 1290. Then they followed the king of Cyprus, who gave them permission in his reign, where they staid till 1300. That same year they took Rhodes, under the grand master PHILIPPE DE VILLET, a Frenchman; and next year they fought against an army of Saracens: since the grand masters have used the 4 letters, L. T. i. e. *Fortitudo ejus Rhodum tenet*; and their order was thence called knights of Rhodes.

In 1522, Soliman II. having taken Rhodes, the knights retired into Candia, and thence into Sicily. In 1530, Charles V. gave them the island of Malta; which in 1566, was besieged by Soliman, but gallantly defended by the grand master JOHN DE VALETTE Parisot, and the Turks obliged to quit it with great loss. (See § 5.) The knights consisted of 8 different languages or nations, of which the English were formerly the 6th; but at present there are but 7, the English having withdrawn. The 1st is that of Provence, whose chief is grand commendator of religion: the 2d, of Auvergne; whose chief is marshal of the order: the 3d, of France, whose chief is grand hospitaller: the 4th, of Italy, and their chief, admiral: the 5th, of Arragon, and their chief, grand conservator: the 6th, of Germany, and their chief, grand bailiff of the order: the 7th, of Castile, and their chief, grand chancellor. The chief of the English was grand commander of the cavalry. None are admitted into this order but such as are of noble birth both by father and mother's side for 4 generations, excepting the natural sons of kings and princes. The knights are of two sorts; those who have a right to be candidates for the dignity of grand master, called *grand crosses*; and those who are only *knights assistants*, who are taken from good families. They never marry; yet have continued from 1090 to the present time. The order consists of 3 estates: the knights, chaplains, and servants at arms. There are also priests who officiate in the churches; friar servants, who assist at the offices; and *donnes*, or *de-mi-crosses*; but these are not reckoned constituent parts of the body. This division was made in 1120, by the grand master Raimond du Puy. The government of the order is mixed, being partly monarchical, and partly aristocratical. The grand master is sovereign, coins money, pardons criminals, and gives the places of grand priors, bailiffs, knights, &c. The ordinary council is composed of the grand master and the grand crosses. Every language has several grand priories, and every priory a certain number of commanderies. The knights are received into this order, either by undergoing the trials prescribed by the statutes, or by dispensation. The dispensations are obtained either by the pope's brief, or by a general chapter of the order; and are granted in case of some defect as to the nobility of their pedigree, especially on the mother's side. The knights are received, either as of age, under minority, or pages to the grand master. They must be 16 years old complete before they are received: they enter into the novitiate at 17, and are professed at 18. They sometimes admit infants of one year old; but the expence is about 4000 livres. The grand master has 16 pages who serve him, from 12 to 16 years of age. The knights wear on the left side of their cloak or waistcoat a cross of white waxed cloth, with 8 points, which is their true badge; that of gold being only for ornament. When they go to war against the Turks, they wear a red cloak, with a great white cross before and behind, without points, which are the arms of the religion. The ordinary habit of the grand master is a sort of caftock of tobby cloth, tied about with a girdle, at which hangs a great purse, to denote the charitable institution of the order.





Of 159 large galleys, and carrying above 6000 effective men besides slaves, under Mustapha, an experienced but cruel officer, and directed to the Christians. This formidable armed force, who, falling unexpectedly on detachments, cut off 1500 Turks with the loss of 80 men. Mean time Mustapha, dreading the arrival of the Spanish reinforcement, and desirous to get possession of a harbour where his troops could place themselves in a better posture of defence, attacked the port of St ELME, which was a harbour large enough to contain the whole Turkish fleet. The garrison was soon reduced to the extremity of distress, that the knights sent the grand master for permission to evacuate the place. This he would by no means consent to, and sent them every night fresh supplies of men and ammunition to make up for the dreadful want that was daily made. The Turks, however, whose numbers were increased by the arrival of galleys, with above 2500 troops on board, besides seamen and slaves, under Dragut and Ulanli, two noted corsairs of the most ferocious rage, raised new batteries in the most advantageous situations, and kept up a continual fire on the fort. The besieged, on the other hand, had their courage renewed and excited to the highest pitch, by the arrival of the most zealous and reliable volunteers from the town, under Constantine Prios, a Greek prince, descended from the celebrated SCANDERBEG, who possessed all the heroism of his ancestor, and who voluntarily undertook the defence of the fort, which La Valette accordingly entrusted to him. He also supplied the fort with a new kind of fire-works, called *burn-boops*, consisting of wooden hoops, covered with wool and steeped in oil mixed with nitre and gunpowder; which, when set on fire and thrown among the besiegers, did dreadful execution by striking several Turks and scorching them to death, which occasioned the utmost confusion among the enemy wherever they fell. In spite of these new and dreadful engines of destruction, however, the Turks cast a bridge over the ditch and began to undermine the wall. From the 17th day to the 14th July not a day passed without a rencounter, but the Turks were repeatedly repulsed with the loss of several thousands. At length, by the advice of Dragut, Mustapha adopted the desperate measure of extending his trenches and batteries on the side next the town, though thus exposed his troops to the double fire of the Maltese, both from fort St Elme and St Angelo. And, though Dragut himself was killed in this enterprise, Mustapha succeeded in his great project of cutting off all communication between the fort and the town. On the 21st he made 4 frequent assaults, but was as often repulsed by the redoubtable valour of the knights; but at last on the 28th he took the fort, though not till every man of the Maltese, capable of bearing arms, had perished at his post. The few sick and wounded who remained were barbarously massacred by the Osman victor, who caused them to be ript up and their hearts torn out, and, as an insult to their

religion, their bodies gashed in the form of crosses. In retaliation for this barbarity, La Valette massacred his Turkish prisoners, and putting their heads into his largest cannon, shot them into the Turkish camp. In this siege the order lost about 1500 men, including 130 of their bravest knights; but the loss of the Turks is incalculable. Mustapha, however, being reinforced by Hassem, the son of Barbarossa, with 2500 select soldiers, called the *Braves of Algiers*, resolved to attack fort St Angelo, and entrusted the assault of fort St Michael to Hassem, and his lieutenant Candelissa, an old corsair, who attacked it by sea, while Hassem made his assault by land. But the Christians defended the fort with such determined resolution, that, though equal valour was displayed by the Turks, the latter were everywhere repulsed with immense slaughter, so that of 4000 men scarcely 500 remained. Nor was Mustapha himself more successful in the siege of St Angelo, although at one period a majority of the knights were of opinion, that the town was not tenible, and proposed that the inhabitants should retire into the fort, with the troops and the sacred relics, &c. But this was opposed by La Valette, to whose determined courage and resolution, (though in his seventy first year) the preservation of the town and island was owing. For although Mustapha's troops fought with the most steady bravery, and employed every stratagem that could be devised, and although Philip II. had hitherto delayed to send his promised troops, yet such was the almost incredible heroism of the Knights of Malta, that they withstood all their efforts, and reduced their army from 45,000 to 15 or 16,000. At this crisis, Don Garcia sent over a body of Spaniards, on the report of whose arrival the Turks immediately raised the siege, and embarked. Learning, however, after going on board, that the number of the Spaniards was only 6000, they again disembarked; and gave them battle; but were driven to their ships with the loss of 2000 men, while only 14 were killed on the side of the Spaniards. Such, after 4 months continuance, was the conclusion of the siege of Malta, which will be for ever memorable on account of that extraordinary display of the most heroic valour by which the knights, so few in number, were enabled to baffle the most vigorous efforts which could be made to subdue them by the most powerful monarch in the world. The news of their deliverance gave universal joy to the Christian powers; and the name of the grand master excited every where the highest admiration and applause. Congratulations were sent him from every quarter; and in many states public rejoicings were celebrated on account of his success.

(6.) MALTA, HISTORY OF, TO THE PRESENT PERIOD. After the raising of the above memorable siege, the power of the Turks began to decline, and at last was so much reduced, that they ceased to be formidable to the Christian nations. The knights of Malta had, therefore, no opportunity of displaying their valour, but continued in quiet possession of the island, till the 9th of June 1798; when the French fleet and army, under Adm. Bonyes and Gen. Bonaparte, appeared

before

before Malta, and demanded permission to enter the port. But the knights, having no *La Vallette* at their head, instead of a spirited refusal, sent a jocular kind of answer, granting permission, provided only *two* vessels should enter at a time. But the French, having no time to trifle, and anxious to get forward to EGYPT, made a general landing on different parts of the island, which they quickly over-ran; invested the capital in the evening, and repulsed the besieged, who endeavoured to prevent their approach by a constant fire. Next day, the French landed their artillery, and prepared for a regular siege; but the grand master, after asking and obtaining a suspension of hostilities for 24 hours; surrendered, upon conditions which were thought very favourable: viz. 1st. That he should receive an annual pension of 300,000 livres: 2. That the republic should endeavour to procure him a principality of equal value: 3. That such of the knights as were natives of France might either return to their country, or continue in Malta, where their residence should be considered as residing in the republic: 4. That a pension of 700 livres should be granted them for life: and, 5. That they and the other inhabitants should retain their private property, privileges, and the exercise of their religion: On these terms, Bonaparte took possession of the island on the 12th May, and found in the port and fortrefs, 2 ships of the line, a frigate, 4 galleys, 1200 cannons, 200,000 lb. of powder, and 40,000 muskets; besides other warlike stores; with an immense treasure in gold and jewels, accumulated by superstition, and 4,500 Turkish prisoners, whom he set at liberty. After leaving a garrison of 3,000 troops in it, the French fleet set sail for Egypt, and were only two days gone, when the British fleet under Admiral Nelson arrived in search of them. But not withstanding the total destruction of the French fleet on the coast of Egypt, (See EGYPT, § 34.) the French garrison in Malta stood a tedious siege and blockade by the British fleet under Admiral Nelson, Trowbridge, &c. for about 22 months; but was at last surrendered by capitulation in May 1801, and taken possession of by the British troops. By the treaty of Peace, which followed, in 1801—2, it was agreed to be restored to the Knights of Malta. And in May 1802, Count Tommasi was appointed grand master by Pope Pius VII; but seems not to have accepted of the office: for in Sept. 1802, the Knights of Malta met at Naples, and elected Count Ruspoli grand master, who was then on a tour through Scotland, and has since declined the honour. Malta is at present (Nov. 1802.) still retained by the British on account of some misunderstanding, not yet completely settled, between the British Court and the First Consul of France.

(7.) MALTA, IMPREGNABILITY OF. "The approach of the island (says Dr Brydon) is very easy, although the shore is rather low and rocky. It is every-where made inaccessible to an enemy by a vast number of fortifications. The rock, in many places, has been sloped into the form of a glacis, with strong parapets and intrenchments running behind it. The fortifications are indeed a most stupendous work. All the boasted catacombs of

Rome and Naples are a trifle to the immensities that have been made in this island. Ditches, of a vast size, are all cut out of rock. These extend many miles, and afford astonishment to think that so small a state ever been able to make them. One the island is so completely fortified by nature there was nothing left for art. The rock is of a great height, and absolutely perpendicular to the sea for several miles. On this side there still vestiges of several ancient roads, & tracks of carriages worn deep in the rocks. The roads are now terminated by the precipice the sea beneath; and show, that this island formerly been of a much larger size than at present. It has been often observed, standing the very great distance of mountain that this island has generally been more affected by its eruptions; and it is probable on some of these occasions a great part of it have been shaken into the sea. One half of Ætna is clearly discovered from Malta. I reckon the distance near 200 Italian miles: the people of Malta affirm, that, in great eruptions of the mountain, their whole island is minutely, and from the reflection in the sea there appears a great track of fire all the way from Malta to Sicily. The thundering mountain is likewise distinctly heard. Tombs, not far from the ancient city of Malta are a great work: they are said to extend many miles under ground. Many people have lost in them by advancing too far; the great number of branches making it next to impossible to find the way out again. The great spring of water that supplies the city of Valetta rises near this place; and there is an arch composed of some thousand arches, that it thence to the city. The whole of this work was finished at the private expence of the grand masters."

(8.) MALTA, LAWS OF, RESPECTING DUELLING. "Perhaps (says Dr Brydon) Malta is the only country in the world where duelling is permitted by law. As their whole establishment is founded on the wild and romantic principles of chivalry, they have ever found it too consistent with those principles to abolish duelling; they have laid it under such restrictions only to lessen its danger. These are curious laws. The duellists are obliged to decide their dispute in one particular street of the city; and presume to fight any where else, they are punished by the rigour of the law. But, what is not singular, but much more in their favour, they are obliged, under the most severe penalties, to give up their swords when ordered to do so by the grand master, a *priest*, or a *knight*. Under these limitations, in the midst of a great city, one would think it almost impossible that a duel could be fought in blood; however, this is not the case: it is always painted opposite to the spot where a knight has been killed, in commemoration of his fall. We counted about 20 of these crosses in Malta. Malta is an epitome of all Europe, and sembler of the younger brothers, who are commonly the best, of its first families. It is one of the best academies for politicians

of the globe; besides, where every one is enabled by law as well as custom to demand satisfaction for the least breach of it, people are under necessity of being very exact and circumspect, with regard to their words and actions."

(10.) MALTA, MANUFACTURES OF. The people of Malta manufacture their cotton into a great variety of stuffs. Their stockings are exceedingly fine and have sometimes been sold for ten sequins a pair. Their coverlets and blankets are esteemed all over Europe. Of these the principal manufactures are established in the island of GOZZO.

(11.) MALTA, POWER OF THE GRAND MASTER. "The grand-master (says Dr Brydon,) is absolute, and possesses more power, than sovereign princes. His titles are, *serenissimo high and eminent*; and his household attendance court are all very princely. As he has the disposal of all lucrative offices, he makes of his will what he pleases; besides, in all the courts that compose the jurisdiction of this little nation he himself presides, and has two votes. He is the disposal of 21 commanderies, and one privilege every 5 years; and as there is always a number of expectants, he is very much courted. He is chosen by a committee of 21; which committee is nominated by the 7 nations, three out of each nation. The election must be over within 3 days after the death of the former grand-master; and during these three days, there is scarce a soul that is at Malta: all is cabal and intrigue; and every knight is masked, to prevent their regular attachments and connections from being known: the moment the election is over, the thing returns to its former channel."

(12.) MALTA, PUEBIC BUILDINGS, STATUES, &c. OF. "Not far from the city there is a small church dedicated to St Andrew and just by the church a statue of the saint, with a viper on his hand; said to be placed on the spot, where the house stood, in which he was killed after his shipwreck on the island, and when he shook the viper off his hand into the fire, the viper being hurt by it: at which time, the Maltese us, he cursed all the venomous animals in the island, and banished them for ever. They are certain that there are no venomous animals in Malta. It is even said, that vipers have been brought from Sicily, and died almost immediately after their arrival. Adjoining to the church is a celebrated grotto in which St Paul was imprisoned. It is looked upon with the utmost reverence and veneration. It is exceedingly damp, and produces (I believe by a kind of petrification of water) a whitish kind of stone, which, when reduced to powder, is a sovereign remedy in many cases, and saves the lives of thousands every year."

There is not a house in the island that is provided with it: and there are many boxes sent annually, not only to Sicily and Italy, but likewise to the Levant, and to the East Indies; notwithstanding this perpetual consumption, it never been exhausted, nor even sensibly diminished. It tastes like Epsom magnesia, and has the same effects. They give about a tea-spoonful of it to children in the small-pox and in the measles. It produces a copious sweat about an hour after it is taken. It is esteemed a certain remedy against

the bite of all venomous animals. There is a very fine statue of St Paul, in the middle of this grotto, to which the Maltese ascribe great power. Notwithstanding the supposed bigotry of the Maltese, (says Dr Brydon,) the spirit of toleration is so strong, that a mosque has been lately built for their sworn enemies the Turks. Here the poor slaves are allowed to enjoy their religion in peace. It happened lately that some idle boys disturbed them during their service; they were immediately sent to prison, and severely punished. The police indeed is much better regulated than in the neighbouring countries, and assassinations and robberies are very uncommon; the last of which crimes the grand master punishes with the utmost severity. He is said to be much more relaxed with regard to the first."

(13.) MALTA, RACES IN. "The horse races of Malta (says Dr Brydon) are of a very uncommon kind. They are performed without either saddle, bridle, whip, or spur; and yet the horses are said to run full speed, and to afford a great deal of diversion. They are accustomed to the ground for some weeks before; and although it is entirely covered with rock and pavement, there are very seldom any accidents. They have races of aries and mules performed in the same manner four times every year. The rider is only furnished with a machine like a shoemaker's awl, to prick on his courser if he is lazy."

(14.) MALTA, SURFACE, SOIL, CULTIVATION, AND PRODUCE OF. The aspect of the country is far from being pleasing; the whole island is a great rock of very white free stone; and the soil that covers this rock is, in most places, not above 5 or 6 inches deep; yet, the crop in general is exceedingly abundant, from the copious dews that fall during spring and summer. The whole island produces corn only sufficient to supply its inhabitants for about 5 months; but the crop they most depend upon is the cotton. They begin to sow it about the middle of May, and continue till the middle of June; and the time of reaping is in the month of October and beginning of November. They pretend that the cotton produced from this plant, which is sown and reaped in 4 months, is of a much superior quality to that of the cotton tree: but Dr Brydon, upon comparison, found, that, though this is indeed the finest, that of the cotton tree is by much the strongest texture. The plant rises a foot and an half; and is covered with a number of pods full of cotton: These, when ripe, they cut off every morning before sunrise; for the heat of the sun immediately turns the cotton yellow. The Maltese oranges are reckoned the finest in the world. The season continues for above 7 months, from Nov. till the middle of June; during which time those beautiful trees are always covered with abundance of delicious fruit. Many of them are of the red kind, and much superior to the others, which are rather too luscious. They are produced from the common orange bud, ingrafted on the pomegranate stock. The juice of this fruit is as red as blood, and of a fine flavour. The greatest part of their crop is sent in presents to the different courts of Europe, and to the relations of the chevaliers. The industry of the Maltese in cultivating their island

island is inconceivable. There is not an inch of ground lost in any part of it; and where there was not soil enough, they have brought over shiploads of it from Sicily. The whole island is full of inclosures of free-stone, which give the country a very uncouth and barren aspect; and in summer reflects such a light and heat, that it is exceedingly offensive to the eyes. The inclosures are small and irregular, according to the inclination of the ground; which they are obliged to observe, otherwise the floods would soon carry off their soil.

(14.) MALTA, TOWNS, VILLAGES, HARBOURS, &c. OF. "The island (says Dr Brydon) is covered with country houses and villages, besides 7 cities, as they term them; but there are only two, viz. Valetta, and Citta Vecchia, that deserve that appellation. Every little village has a church, elegantly finished, and adorned with statues of marble, rich tapestry, and a large quantity of silver plate. The city of VALETTA has certainly the happiest situation that can be imagined. It stands upon a peninsula between two of the finest ports in the world, which are defended by almost impregnable fortifications. That on the S. side is the largest. It runs about 2 miles into the heart of the island; and is so very deep, and surrounded by such high grounds and fortifications, that the largest ships of war might ride here in the most stormy weather, almost without a cable. This beautiful basin is divided into 5 distinct harbours, all equally safe, and each capable of containing an immense number of shipping. The mouth of the harbour is scarcely a quarter of a mile broad, and is commanded on each side by batteries that would tear the strongest ship to pieces before she could enter. Besides this, it is fronted by a quadruple battery, one above the other, the largest of which is a *fleur d'eau*, or on a level with the water. These are mounted with about 80 of their heaviest artillery. The harbour on the N. side, although they only use it for fishing, and as a place of quarantine, would, in any other part of the world, be considered as inestimable. It is likewise defended by very strong works; and in the centre of the basin is an island on which they have built a castle and a lazaret. The streets of Valetta are crowded with well dressed people, who have all the appearance of health and affluence. The principal inn is like a palace; the principal villas, particularly those of the grand master and the general of the galleys, which lie contiguous, are nothing great or magnificent; but are admirably contrived for a hot climate, where, of all things, shade is the most desirable. The orange groves are indeed very fine, and the fruit they bear superior to any thing of the kind in Spain or Portugal." See § 13.

(15.) MALTA, TROOPS, POPULATION, SHIPPING, &c. OF. "The land force of Malta is equal to the number of men in the island fit to bear arms. They have about 500 regulars belonging to the ships of war; and 150 compose the guard of the prince. Malta and Gozzo contain about 150,000 inhabitants. The men are exceeding robust and hardy. They will row for 10 or 12 hours without intermission, and without even appearing to be fatigued. Their sea force consists of 4 galleys, 3 galliots, 4 ships of 60 guns, and a

frigate of 36, besides a number of quick little vessels called *scampavias*, literally *rs*. Their ships, galleys, and fortifications, only well supplied with excellent artillerie they have likewise invented a kind of ord their own, unknown to all the world. For the rocks are not only cut into fortifi but likewise into artillery, to defend the cations, being hollowed out, in many pla to the form of immense mortars. The c said to be about a barrel of gunpowd which they place a large piece of wood, n actly to fit the mouth of the chamber. they heap a great quantity of cannon ball or other deadly materials; and when an ship approaches the harbour, they fire th into the air: and they say it produces a v effect; making a shower for 200 or 30 round, that would sink any vessel."

(II.) MALTA, the capital of the abov now called Valetta. See § 14, and VAL  
MALT-BRUISER, or BRUISING-MILL, been found by repeated experiments, th ing malt is a more advantageous method old one of grinding and flouring. By there is not only less waste, but the mal better fitted for giving out all its virtues. lately, therefore, become a practice to malt between rollers, by means of a p paratus, of which various constructions h invented. As the best contrivance of th said to be the bruising mill of Mr Wit have given a figure of it on Plate CC where AAAA is the frame; B, the large or roller; C, the small one; D, the b the shoe; F, the frame that supports the G, a fly-wheel; H, the windlas. To engine, it is directed to screw the large: to the small one, and not to feed 100 t the shoe, which is regulated by pins t strings fixed to them. It is evident, th two smooth surfaces are opposed to eac a distance which can be regulated a neither grain nor any other similar sub pass between them without being bruise being the principle on which the bru acts, the meally substance, which is the part of malt, is entirely removed from th husk which contains it, and all the virtu malt are with ease extracted by the w manner superior to what is effected v grain is only cut by grinding. The ope at the same time so expeditiously perfor two men can with ease bruise a bushel of a minute.—By the same engine may also ed oats and beans for horses. A great pa corn given these animals, it is well b swallowed whole, and often passes thro in the same state; in which case, they ca ceive any nourishment from the grains unbroken: but when bruised in this c eases mastication; and every grain being p for nutrition, a much less quantity will of be found to be sufficient. For bruising b two regulating screws must be unscrewed and the fly-wheel requires to be then set in with the hand, on account that the mill

a little space apart, and will not turn each before the beans come between them.

**MALDRINK.** *n. f.* [*malt and drink.*] All *brinks* may be boiled into the consistence of *sy* syrup. *Floyer.*

**MALTDUST.** *n. f.* [*malt and dust.*]—*Malt-dust* enricher of barren land, and a great improver of barley. *Mortimer.*

**ALTESE,** the people of Malta. See **MALTA.**

**MALTFLOOR.** *n. f.* [*malt and floor.*] A floor of malt.—Empty the corn from the cistern into *malt-floor.* *Mort.*

**MALTHORSE.** *n. f.* [*malt and horse.*] It seems we been, in *Shakespeare's* time, a term of reproach for a dull dolt.—You peasant swain, you fellow, you *malthorse* drudge. *Shak.*—Mome, *orse,* capon, coxcomb, idiot, patch. *Shak.*

**MALTHUS,** Daniel, Esq. a late admired English writer; who translated, 1. *The Sorrows of Werter.* 2. *Essay on Landscape;* and, 3. *Paul and Virginia.* He died at Atbury, in Feb. 1800.

**MALTMAN.** **MALTYSTER.** *n. f.* [*from malt.*] who makes malt.—

Mr Arthur the *maltster!* how fine it will be found. *Swift.*

He came home in the chariot by his lady's side, but he unfortunately taught her to drink wine, of which she died; and Tom is now a *tyman maltster.* *Swift.*

**MALTON,** a town of Yorkshire, in the north, seated on the Derwent, over which there is a good stone bridge. It is composed of two parts, the New and the Old; and is well inhabited, accommodated with good inns, and sends members to parliament. Lon. o. 30. W. 4. 8. N.

**MALTOY,** a town of Indostan, in Berar.

**MALT-TAX,** is the sum of 750,000*l.* raised yearly by parliament since 1697, by a duty of 10*s.* the bushel of malt, and a proportionable tax on certain liquors, such as cyder and perry, which might otherwise prevent the consumption of them. This is under the management of the commissioners of the excise. In 1760, an additional perpetual excise of 3*d.* per bushel was put upon malt; and in 1763, a proportional excise laid upon cyder and perry, but new-moulded in 1766. See **EXCISE,** § 2.

**MALVA,** the **MALLOW,** a genus of the polyandrous order, belonging to the monadelphica class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 37th order, *Columniferae.* The calyx is five-lobed; the exterior one triphyllous; the arilliferous and monospermous. There are 24 species; consisting of herbaceous perennials, biennial and annuals, for medical, economical, and ornamental uses; rising with erect stalks from a half a yard to 10 or 12 feet high, garnished with large, roundish, lobed leaves, and quintuple flowers. They are all raised from seed.

**MALVA COMMUNIS,** the *common mallow.* The ancients reckoned the first of the 4 emollient herbs; they were formerly in some esteem as being good for loosening the belly; at present, decoctions of them are sometimes employed in dysentery, heat, and sharpness of urine; and, in general, for obtunding acrimonious humours: their principal use is in emollient glysters, cataplasms, &c. **VOL. XIII. PART II.**

and fomentations. The leaves enter the official decoction for glysters, and a conserve is prepared from the flowers.

2. **MALVA CRISPA,**

3. **MALVA MAURISIANA,** and } when macerated like HEMP,

4. **MALVA PERUVIANA,** } afford a thread

superior to hemp for spinning, and which is said to make more beautiful cloths and stuffs than even flax. From the *crispa*, which affords stronger and longer fibres, cords and twine have also been made. From these species, likewise, a new sort of paper has been fabricated by M. de l'Isle. On this invention, Mess. Lavoisier, Sage, and Berthollet, in name of the *Academie de Sciences* observe, That "it is not probable the paper made by M. de l'Isle will be substituted for that made from rags, either for the purpose of printing or writing. Yet paper from the mallows may be used for these purposes, if we can judge from a volume printed on it presented to the academy. The great utility of M. de l'Isle's invention is for furniture, which consumes a great quantity of rags; and his papers have a natural hue, much more solid than can be given by colouring matter, and this hue may serve as a ground for other drawings."

\* **MALVACIOUS.** *adj.* [*malva*, Latin.] Relating to mallows.

**MALVANA,** a town of Ceylon, 12 miles E. of Colombo.

**MALVASIA,** an island of European Turkey, on the E. coast, famous for **MALMSEY** and other wines: 50 miles S.E. of Misitra, and 75 S. of Athens. **NAPOLI** is the capital.

**MALVENTRE,** an island on the W. coast of Sardinia, 5 miles S. of Cosia.

**MALVERN,** the name of a district, 2 towns, and several hills, chiefly in Worcestershire: viz.

1. **MALVERN CHACE,** an extensive district of England, containing 7115 acres in Worcestershire, (besides 241 acres called the Prior's Land,) 619 in Herefordshire, and 103 in Gloucestershire.

2. **MALVERN GREAT,** a town of Worcestershire, in which was formerly an abbey, whereof nothing remains but the gateway, and church, now parochial. Part of it was a religious cell for hermits before the Conquest; and the greatest part, with the tower, built in the reign of William I. Its outward appearance is very striking. It is 171 feet in length, 63 in breadth, and 63 in height. In it are ten stalls; and it is supposed to have been rebuilt in 1171. The nave only remains in part, the side aisles being in ruins. The windows have been beautifully enriched with painted glass, and in it are remains of some very ancient monuments.

3. **MALVERN HILLS,** lofty mountains in the SW. part of Worcestershire, rising like stairs, one above another, for about 7 miles, and dividing that county from Herefordshire. On these hills are two medicinal springs, called *holy wells*, one good for the eyes, and the other for cancers. They run from N. to S. the highest point 111 feet above the surface of the Severn at Hanley, and appear to be of lime-stone and quartz. On the summit of these hills is a camp with a treble ditch, supposed to be Roman, and situated on the Herefordshire side of the hills.

4. MALVERN, LITTLE, a town of Worcestershire, seated in a cavity of the above hills, 3 miles from Great Malvern. It had an elegant abbey and church. Henry VII. his queen, and his two sons, were so delighted with this place, that they beautified the church and windows, part of which remain, though mutilated. In the lofty S. windows of the church are historical passages of the Old Testament; and in the N. windows are pictures of the principal events of our Saviour's life, from his birth to his ascension. Our Saviour's passion is painted in the E. window of the choir, at the expense of Henry VII. who is often represented, with his queen. In the W. window is a noble piece of the day of judgment, not inferior to the paintings of Michael Angelo.

\* MALVERSATION. *n. f.* [Fr.] Bad shifts: mean artifices; wicked and fraudulent tricks.

MALVEZZI, Virgil, marquis of Malvezzi, was born at Bologna, in 1599, and became LL. D. in 1619. He was well versed in literature, music, law, physic, and mathematics. He served also in a distinguished post in the army of Philip IV. of Spain, and was employed by him in some important negotiations. He died at Bologna, in 1654, leaving several works in Spanish and Italian. His *Discourses on the First Book of Tacitus* have been translated into English.

MALUS, in botany. See PYRUS, N° 3.

MALWA, an extensive province of Hindoostan, belonging to the Marhattas; bounded on the N. by Agimere and Agra; E. by Allahabad; S. by Candeeih; and W. by Guzerat. Ougein and Indore are the capitals of two Marhatta chiefs, between whom and the paishwah of the W. Marhattas it is divided.

MALZIEU, a town of France, in the dep. of Lozere; 4½ miles NE. of St Chely, and 21 NW. of Mende.

\* MAM. MAMMA. *n. f.* [*mamma*, Latin; this word is said to be found for the compellation of *mother* in all languages; and is therefore supposed to be the first syllable that a child pronounces.] The fond word for mother.—

Poor Cupid sobbing scarce could speak;

Indeed, *mamma*, I did not know ye;

Alas! how easy my mistake!

I took you for your Sister's Chloë. *Pris.*

—Little mothers and nurses are great impediments to servants: the remedy is to bribe them, that they may not tell tales to papa and *mamma*. *Scott.*

MAMALICHES, a dynasty that reigned in Egypt. See that article, § 19, 20, 21, and 25, III.

MAMARAGHTY MOUNTAIN, mountains of Ireland, in Mayo; 12 miles WNW. of Castlebar.

MAMERS, an ancient town of France, in the dep. of Sarthe, seated on the Dive, 14 miles W. of Belême, and 16 SE. of Alençon. Lon. 0. 26. E. Lat. 48. 22. N.

MAMBRUN, Peter, a learned French Jesuit, born in Clermont, in 1727. He was one of the most perfect imitators of Virgil in Latin poetry, and his poems are of the same species: Thus he wrote *Eclogues*; *Georgics*, or 4 books on the culture of the soil and the understanding; together with a heroic poem intitled *Constantine, or Ulpianus overthrown*. He showed also great critical abili-

ties in a Latin *Peripatetical dissertation on try*. He died in 1661.

MAMERS. See MAMARS.

MAMERTINI, a mercenary band of who passed from Campania into Sicily at quest of Agathocles. When they were in vice of Agathocles, they claimed the privilege of voting at the election of magistrates at 8 and had recourse to arms to support demands. The sedition was appeased by forcing men, and the Campanians were to leave Sicily. In their way to the coast they received with great kindness by the people, and soon returned perfidly for he. They conspired against the inhabitants, and all the males in the city, married the daughters, and rendered themselves of the place. After this violence they assumed the name of Mamertini, and called their city TUM, or MAMERTIUM, from a province which in their language signified *martial*. The Mamertines were afterwards defeated by Hiero, and totally disabled to repair the affairs.

MAMERTIUM. See last article.

MAMMA. See MAM.

MAMMÆ. See ANATOMY, *Index*.

MAMMÆA. See ALEXANDER SEV

MAMMALIA, in natural history, the of animals in the Linnæan system, divided into orders. See ZOOLOGY.

(1.) MAMMÆA, or the } a genus of

(2.) MAMMEE TREE, } gynia orde

ing to the polyandria class of plants; a natural method ranking with those of 5 order is doubtful. The corolla is tetra; the calyx diphyllous; the berry very intransperous. There are two species; evergreen trees of the hot parts of Asia, and both adorned with large, ovate leaves, and large quadripetalous flocceded by large round edible fruit of a quietly rich flavour. They are propagated, sowed in small pots of light earth in the bark bed, where they will grow up; give gentle waterings, and about August plant them into separate pots a size bringing them into the bark bed, and giving water till fresh-rooted. In this country never be taken out of the stove.

(2.) \* MAMMEE TREE. *n. f.* The plant hath a rofaceous flower, which afterwards comes an almost spherical fleshy fruit, of two or three seeds inclosed in hard rind. *Miller*.

\* MAMMET. *n. f.* [from *mam* or *mammet*, a figure dressed up. *Harris*.—

Kate, this is no wench

To play with *mammets*, and to tisk with

\* MAMMEFORM. *n. f.* [*mamma*, from *mamma* and *forma*, Latin.] Having the shape or ducts.

\* MAMMILLARY. *n. f.* [*mammilla*, from *mammilla*, Latin.] Belonging to the paps.

\* MAMMOCK. *n. f.* A large thick ice. The ice was broken into large *mammock* flojage.

To MAMMOCK. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To break; to pull to pieces.—I saw him run like a gilded butterfly; and he did so for his life, and did tear it! Oh, I warrant, how he mammoct it! *S. v.*

(\*) MAMMON. *n. f.* [Syriack.] Riches.

(\*) MAMMON, the god of riches, according to the authors; though others say that the word is for such a deity. Our Saviour says, We will not serve God and mammon; that is, be religious and worldly minded at the same time. Milton, by poetic licence, makes Mammon one of the fallen angels.

(\*) MAMMOTH, } OF AMERICAN ELEPHANT,  
(\*) MAMMUTH, } a huge animal now unknown, but extinct, to which have belonged those bones, and skeletons of vast magnitude, which have been often found in different parts of Asia, Russia, Germany, and North America. Specimens of them may be seen in the Imperial cabinet at Petersburg; in the British, Dresden, and the Leverian museums, and in that of the Royal Society. A description of the mammoth is given by Muller, in the *Recueil des Voyages Tart.* "This animal, he says, is 4 or 5 yards long and about 30 feet high. His colour is grey."

His head is very long, and his front very small. On each side, precisely under the eyes, there are two horns, which he can move and cross at pleasure. In walking he has the power of extending and contracting his body to a great degree."

Isbrandes Ides gives a similar account, and acknowledges that he never knew any person who had seen the mammoth alive. Mr Pennant, however, thinks it "more than probable, that it still exists in some of those remote parts of the vast new continent, impenetrated yet by Europeans." The Ohio Indians have the most absurd and ridiculous traditions respecting these animals, and pretend that it required an exertion of omnipotent power to extirpate them. Sir Isaac Sloane, Gmelin, Daubenton, Buffon, and eminent naturalists are of opinion that these gigantic bones and tusks have really belonged to elephants; and many modern philosophers have held the mammoth to be as fabulous as the unicorn. The great difference in size they endeavour to account for as arising from difference of sex, and climate; and the cause of their being found in those northern parts of the world where elephants are no longer natives, nor can they long exist, they attribute to the great revolutions which have happened in the earth, by earthquakes and inundations. In 1767, Dr Hunter, with the assistance of his brother Mr James Hunter, investigated more particularly this part of natural history, and proved, that these fossil bones and tusks are not only larger than the greatest of elephants, but that these tusks are twisted, or have more of the spiral curve, than elephants teeth; and that the thigh and jaw bones differ in several respects from those of the elephant; but what put the matter beyond all doubt was the shape of the grinders, which appeared to belong to a carnivorous animal, or to an animal of the mixed kind; and to be very different from those of the elephant, which is known to be of the graminivorous kind.

Some have supposed these fossil bones to belong to the HIPPOPOTAMUS, but there are many reasons against this supposition, as the hippopotamus is even much smaller than the elephant, and has such remarkably short legs, that his belly reaches within 3 or 4 inches of the ground. North America seems to be the quarter where the remains abound most. On the Ohio, and in many parts farther north, tusks, grinders, and skeletons of unparalleled magnitude, which can admit of no comparison with any animal at present known, are found in vast numbers, some lying on the surface of the earth, and some a little below it. (See LICKS, § 2.) A Mr Stanley, taken prisoner by the Indians near the mouth of the Tennessee, relates, as Mr Jefferson informs us, that after being transferred through several tribes, from one to another, he was at length carried over the mountains W. of Missouri to a river which runs W.; that these bones abounded there; and that the natives described to him the animal to which they belonged as still existing in the northern parts of their country; from which description he judged it to be an elephant. Bones of the same kind have been found some feet below the surface of the earth, in salines on the North Holston, a branch of the Tennessee, about Lat. 36½° N. It appears to be generally acknowledged, that the tusks and skeletons are much larger than those of the elephant, and the grinders many times greater than those of the hippopotamus, and essentially different in form. Wherever these grinders are found, there also we find the tusks and skeleton; but no skeleton of the hippopotamus nor grinders of the elephant. Mr Jefferson urges the following among other decisive arguments, that the mammoth is quite a different animal: 1. "The skeleton of the mammoth bespeaks an animal of 5 or 6 times the cubic volume of the elephant, as M. de Buffon has admitted. 2. The grinders are 5 times as large, are square, and the grinding surface fluted with 4 or 5 rows of blunt points: whereas those of the elephant are broad and thin, and their grinding surface flat. 3. I have never heard an instance of the grinder of an elephant being found in America. 4. From the known temperature and constitution of the elephant, he could never have existed in those regions where the remains of the mammoth have been found. The elephant is a native only of the torrid zone and its vicinities; if, with the assistance of warm apartments and warm clothing, he has been preserved in life in the temperate climates of Europe, it has only been for a small portion of what would have been his natural period, and no instance of his multiplication in them has ever been known. But no bones of the mammoth have been ever found farther S. than the salines of the Holston, and they have been found as far N. as the Arctic circle." Mr Jefferson concludes, that "To whatever animal we ascribe these remains, it is certain such a one has existed in America, and that it was the largest of all the terrestrial beings of which any traces have ever appeared." *Notes on the State of Virginia*, p. 65.

MAMOSA, a town of Naples, in the prov. of Basilicata, 19 miles SW. of Turin.

MAMRE, an Amorite, brother of Aker and Eschol.

phol, and friend of Abraham. (Gen. xiv. 13.) See ANZA. Mamre dwelt near Hebron, and communicated his name to great part of the country round about. Hence we read (ch. xiii. 18. xxxii. 17, &c.) that Abraham dwelt in Mamre, and in the plain of Mamre. But it is observed, that what we translate the *plain*, should be rendered the *oak*, of Mamre, because the word *elon* signifies an *oak* or *tree of long duration*. Sozomen says, that this tree was still extant, and famous for pilgrimages and annual feasts, even in Constantine's time; that it was about six miles from Hebron; that some of the cottages which Abraham built were still standing near it; and that there was a well likewise of his digging, whereunto both Jews, Christians and Heathens did at certain seasons resort, either out of devotion or for trade, because there was held a great mart. To these superstitious Constantine the Great put a stop.

MAM-TOR, a mountain of Derby, on the Peak, near Castleton, with lead mines in it.

MAMTRASNA, mountains of Ireland, in Galway, 15 miles S. of Castlebar.

(1, 1.) \* MAN. *n. f.* [*man, man*, Saxon.] 1. Human being.—The king is but a *man* as I am; the violet smells to him as it doth to me. *Shak.*—All the west bank of Nilus is possessed by an idolatrous *man-eating* † nation. *Brerewood.*—

Then was *man* design'd,

Conscious of thought. *Dryden.*

Nature in *man* capacious souls hath wrought,  
And given them voice expressive of their thought;

In *man* the God descends, and joys to find

The narrow image of his greater mind. *Creech.*  
—A combination of the ideas of a certain figure, with the powers of motion, and reasoning joined to substance, make the ordinary idea of a *man*. *Locke.*

On human actions reason though you can,  
It may be reason, but it is not *man*. *Pope.*

2. Not a woman.—

Bring forth *men* † children only!  
For thy undaunted metal should compose  
Nothing but males. *Shak.*

I had not so much of *man* in me,  
But all my mother came into mine eyes,  
And gave me up to tears. *Shak.*

—Every *man* † child shall be circumcised. *Gen.*  
xvii. 10.—

Ceneus, a woman once, and once a *man*,  
But ending in the sex she first began. *Dryd.*

—A long time since the custom began, among  
people of quality, to keep *men* † cooks of the  
French nation. *Swift.* 3. Not a boy.—

The nurse's legends are for truths receiv'd,  
And the *man* dreams but what the boy be-  
hev'd. *Dryden.*

3. A servant; an attendant; a dependant.—

Thank'd be I that keep a *man*,  
Who ended hath this bloody strife:

For if my *man* must praises have,  
What then must I that keep the knave?  
My brother's servants  
Were then my fellows, now they are m

—Such gentlemen as are his majesty's own  
servants should be preferred to the charge  
majesty's ships; choice being made of me-  
lour and capacity rather than to employ  
men's *men*. *Raleigh.*—

I and my *man* will presently go ride  
Far as the Cornish mount.

5. A word of familiar address, bordering  
tempt.—

You may partake of any thing we do  
We speak no treason, *man*. *Shak. Rich.*

6. It is used in a loose signification like the  
*on*, one, any one.—The same young slob-  
ed boy doth not love me, nor a *man* can  
him laugh. *Shak. Hen. IV.*—A *man* in at  
may discover the assertion to be impossible  
*Div. Dial.*—He is a good-natured *man*,  
give as much as a *man* would desire. *Sir*

—By ten thousand of them a *man* shall  
ble to advance one step in knowledge.

—Our thoughts will not be directed wha-  
to pursue, nor be taken off from those t-  
once fixed on; but run away with a *man*  
suit of those ideas they have in view. I  
*man* would expect to find some antiqui-  
all they have to show of this nature is at  
trum of a Roman ship. *Addison.*—A *man*  
make a pretty landscape of his own pl-

*Addison.* 7. One of uncommon quality  
Manners maketh *man*. *William of Wicth*

I dare do all that may become a *man*.  
Who dares do more is none,

When you durst do it, then you were  
And, to be more than what you were,  
Be so much more the *man*. *Shak.*

He tript me behind, being down,  
rail'd,

And put upon him such a deal of *man*  
That worthied him. *Shak. I.*

—Will reckon he should not have been  
he is, had he not broke windows, and  
down constables, when he was a your  
*Spectator.* 8. A human being qualified in  
ticular manner.—Thou art but a youth  
*man* of war from his youth. 1 *Sam.* xv

Individual.—In matters of equity betw  
and *man*, our Saviour has taught us a  
neighbour in the place of myself, and  
the place of my neighbour. *Watts's Le*  
Not a beast.—

Thy face, bright Centaur, autumn's  
tain,

The softer season suiting to the *man*.

11. Wealthy or independant person: to  
some refer the following passage of *Sa*  
others to the sense next foregoing.—The

† In this, and in numberless other instances throughout his Dictionary, Dr Johnson has denied all lexicographical propriety, by adducing compound words as authorities and examples of the primitive. Scarcely the word MAN does not occur in seldom in the English language, to have quoted Man-eating, as an example. It is a distinct word, as he himself has stated Man-e

†† In these three quotations, the words man and men are evidently used as adjectives, not as MALE. Dr JOHNSON should therefore have made a distinct article of MAN, adj. as in the MALE.



monster make a man; any strange beast there  
 is a man. *Shaksp. Tempest*.—What poor man  
 could not carry a great burthen of gold to be made  
 man for ever. *Tillotson*. 12. When a person is not  
 in senses, we say, he is not his own man. *Ains-*  
*worth*. 13. A moveable piece at chess or draughts.

MAN of war. A ship of war.—A Flemish  
 man of war lighted upon them, and overmastered  
 them. *Carrew's Survey of Cornwall*.

1.) MAN, the head of the animal creation, is a  
 being who feels, reflects, thinks, contrives, and  
 acts; who has the power of changing his place  
 on the earth at pleasure; who possesses the fa-  
 culty of communicating his thoughts by speech;  
 who has dominion over all other creatures on  
 the face of the globe. Animated and enlighten-  
 ed by a ray from the Divinity, he surpasses in dig-  
 nity every material being. He spends less of his  
 life in solitude than in society, and in obedience  
 to those laws which he himself has framed.

2.) MAN, in zoology. See HOMO.

3.) MAN, CONSTITUTION AND ANIMAL FUNC-  
 TIONS OF. See ANATOMY.

4.) MAN, DESCRIPTION OF, BY LINNÆUS.

The body, which seldom reaches six feet in  
 height, is erect, and almost naked, having only  
 a few scattered hairs, except in some small spots  
 afterwards noticed, and when first born is  
 wholly naked. The head is shaped like an egg:

the scalp being long, and covered with hair; the  
 forehead broad; the top of the head flat; and  
 the hind head protuberant. The face is naked,  
 the brow or fore head flattened and qua-  
 drangular; the temples are compressed, with  
 the angles pointing upwards and backwards  
 towards the hairy scalp. The eye-brows are pro-  
 nounced, and covered with hairs which, shed-  
 ding downwards, cover each other like tiles; and be-  
 tween the inner extremities of the two eye-brows  
 there is a smooth, shallow furrow or depression,  
 a line with the nose. The upper eye-lid is  
 weak, but the lower one hardly moves, and  
 they are planted at their edges with a row of stiff  
 curved hairs, named *eyelashes*. The eye-balls

are round, having no suspending muscle as in  
 those of most quadrupeds; the pupil, or opening  
 to the sight, is circular; and the eye has no  
*membrana nictitans*. The upper parts of the cheeks  
 are prominent, softish, and coloured with a red  
 tinge; their outer parts are flattened; the lower  
 parts are hollowed, lax, and expansile. The nose  
 is prominent, and compressed at the sides; its ex-  
 tremity or point is higher than the rest, and blunt;  
 the nostrils are oval, open downwards, with thick-  
 ened edges, and are hairy on their insides. The  
 upper lip is almost perpendicular, and is furrowed  
 in the middle, from the division between the nos-  
 trils to the edge of the lip; the under lip is erect,  
 thicker and more prominent than that above;  
 they have a smooth red protuberance, surround-  
 ing the mouth at their edges. The chin is pro-  
 nounced, blunt and gibbous. In males, the face  
 round the mouth is covered with hair, called  
 a beard, which first appears about puberty in  
 curls on the chin. The teeth in both jaws  
 are distinguished into 3 orders; the *incisors*  
 are erect, parallel, and wedge-like, of the kind  
 called *incisors*, or *cutting teeth*; they stand close

to each other, and are more equal and rounder  
 than in other animals; the *tusks*, called in man  
*eye-teeth* and *corner-teeth*, of which there is only  
 one on each side of the fore teeth in each jaw, are  
 a little longer than the fore teeth, but much less  
 so than in other animals, and they are placed  
 close to the other teeth; the *grinders*, of which  
 there are 5 on each side in both jaws, are blunt,  
 and divided on their upper surface into pointed  
 eminences; but these are not so remarkable as in  
 other animals. The ears are placed on the sides  
 of the head; are of an oblong rounded figure,  
 with a semicircular bend on their anterior edges;  
 they lie flat to the head, are naked, arched at the  
 margin on their upper and posterior edges, and  
 are thicker and soft at the under extremities. The  
 trunk of the body consists of the neck, breast,  
 back, and belly. The neck is roundish, and shorter  
 than the head; its vertebrae, or chine bones,  
 are not, as in most animals, connected by a sus-  
 pensory ligament; the nape is hollowed; the  
 throat, immediately below the chin, is hollowed  
 at its upper part, and protuberant in the middle  
 a little lower down. The breast is somewhat  
 flattened both before and behind; on the fore  
 part there is a cavity or depression where it joins  
 with the neck; the arm-pits are hollow and hairy;  
 the pit of the stomach is flat: on the breast are  
 two distant, round, protuberant mammae, or  
 dugs, each having a cylindrical obtuse wrinkly  
 projecting nipple, which is surrounded by a dark-  
 er coloured circle called the *areola*. The back is  
 flat, having protuberances on each side at the  
 shoulder-blades, with a furrow or depression be-  
 tween them. The abdomen or belly is large and  
 protuberant, with a hollow at the navel; the epi-  
 gastric region, or situation of the stomach, is flat;  
 the hypogastric regions, or sides of the belly, are  
 protuberant; the groin flatish and hollowed.  
 The pubes is hairy; the pelvis, or basin, is wider  
 above, and grows narrower below. The male  
 parts are external and loose; the penis cylindri-  
 cal; the scrotum roundish, lax, and wrinkled,  
 being divided in the middle by a longitudinal  
 ridge or smooth line, which extends along the  
 whole perineum: The female parts are compre-  
 ssed and protuberant, having labia, nymphæ, cly-  
 toris, and hymen; and, in adults, secreting the  
 catamenia. There is no external tail. The limbs  
 consist of arms and hands instead of fore legs; and  
 of thighs, legs, and feet. The arms are placed  
 at a distance from each other; they are round,  
 and about a foot in length from the joint of the  
 shoulder to the elbow; the fore arm, or cubit,  
 contains two bones, and is obtusely prominent;  
 the *ulna*, which forms the principal thickness of  
 the member, is round, and somewhat flattened  
 on the inside. The hands are broad, flat, and  
 rounded; convex on the outside or back of the  
 hand, and concave on the inside or palm. Each  
 hand has five fingers, one of which, named the  
*thumb*, is shorter and thicker than the rest, and is  
 placed at some distance from them; the others  
 are near each other, and placed parallel, the outer  
 or *little finger* being the smallest; the 2d, named  
*index* or *fore finger*, and the 4th, called the *ring*  
*finger*, is next in length and in size; and the 3d,  
 or *middle finger*, is the longest; the point of this

last, when the arm and hand hang down, reaches to the middle of the thigh. The nails are rounded and oval, being flatly arched, or convex upwards; and each has a femiunar whitish mark at the root or lower extremity. The lower limbs are placed close together, having brawny muscular haunches and swelling fleshy hips; the knees are obtuse, bend forwards, and have hollow hams behind. The legs, which are nearly of the same length with the thighs, are of a muscular make behind, where they swell out into what is called the *calf*: they are lean, and free of flesh on the shins or fore parts, and taper downwards to the ankle, which have hard hemispherical projections on each side, named the *ankle-bones* or *malleoli*. The heel is thick, prominent, and gibbous, being longer and broader than in other animals, for giving a firm support to the body; it joins immediately with the sole of the foot. The feet are oblong, convex above, and flattened on the soles, which have a transverse hollow about the middle. Each foot has 5 toes, somewhat bent downwards, and gibbous or swelled underneath at their extremities; they are all placed close together, the inner or great toe being thicker and somewhat shorter than the rest; the 2d and 3d are nearly of equal length; and the 4th and 5th are shorter than the others, the last mentioned or little toe being the shortest and smallest. The toe nails resemble those on the fingers, which are already described. Thus man differs from the other animals in his erect posture and naked skin, having a hairy scalp, being furnished with hair on the eye-brows and eyelashes, and having, when arrived at puberty, the pubes, breast, arm-pits, and the chin of the males, covered with hair. His brain is larger than that of any other animal, even the most enormous; he is provided with an *uvula*, and has organs of speech. His face is placed in the same parallel line with his body; he has a projecting compressed nose, and a prominent chin. His feet in walking rest on the heel. He has no tail; and, lastly, the species is distinguished from other animals by some peculiarities of the female constitution."

(6.) MAN, DIGNITY AND SUPERIORITY OF, ABOVE ALL OTHER ANIMALS. Anatomists have employed much pains in the study of the material part of man, and of that organization which determines his place in the animal creation. From tracing and combining his different external parts; from observing that his body is in some places covered with hair; that he can walk upon his hands and his feet at the same time, in the manner of quadrupeds; that, like certain animals which hold their food in their paws, he has two clavicles; that the female brings forth her young alive, and that her breasts are supplied with milk; from these circumstances we might be led to assign man a place in the class of viviparous quadrupeds. But such an arrangement would be defective, arbitrary, and absurd. Man is not a quadruped: of all the animals, he alone can support himself, continually and without rest, in an erect posture. In this majestic and dignified attitude, he can change his place, survey this earth which he inhabits, and turn his eyes towards the vault of heaven. By a whole and

easy gait he preserves an equilibrium in several parts of his body, and transports himself from one place to another with different degrees of celerity. To man alone nature has denied wings; but still he is her master-piece, the work which came from the hands of the Almighty, the sovereign and the chief of an universe in miniature, the centre which unites the universe together. The form of his organs whercof are constructed in such a manner as to produce a much greater effect than of other animals, announces his power. Nothing demonstrates the excellence of his mind and the immense distance placed by the Creator between man and beast. Man is a reasonable being; brutes are deprived of every noble faculty. The weakest and most ignorant of the human race is able to manage the most sagacious quadruped; he commands it, and it is subservient to his use. The operations of his mind are purely the effect of mechanical impressions, and continue always the same; human work is not tired without end, and infinitely diversified in manner of execution. The soul of man is independent, and immortal. He is fitted for the study of science, and the cultivation of art, the exclusive privilege of examining events which have existence, and of holding conversation with his fellow-creatures by language, particular motions of the body, and characters mutually agreed upon. It arises that physical pre-eminence which he possesses over all animals; and hence that power which he exercises over the elements, and so to govern nature itself. Man, therefore, is superior in his kind; but the individuals differ greatly from one another in figure, stature, colour, manners, and dispositions. The work which man inhabits is covered with the productions of his industry and the work of his hands; it is his labour, in short, which gives a value to the whole terrestrial mass.

(7.) MAN, INFANTILE STATE OF. (says M. Buffon) exhibits such a striking image of our weakness, as the condition of an infant immediately after birth. Incapable of using its organs, it needs assistance of every kind in the first moments of our existence, we are in a state of pain and misery, and are more helpless than the young of any other animal. Immediately after birth, the infant passes from one element to another: When it leaves the gentle warm tranquil fluid by which it was completely surrounded in the womb of the mother, it is exposed to the impressions of the air, and immediately feels the effects of that active element. The air acting upon the olfactory nerves, and the organs of respiration, produces a shock like sneezing, by which the breast is opened, and the air admitted into the lungs. In the first time, the agitation of the diaphragm upon the viscera of the abdomen, and the movements are thus for the first time discharged, the intestines, and the urine from the bladder. The air dilates the vessels of the lungs, and the blood is carried to a certain degree, is coagulated by the spasm of the dilated fibres, and the blood is converted into a solid fluid. The infant now respires

culates sounds, or cries. Most animals are blind for some days after birth. Infants open their eyes to the light the moment they come into the world; but they are dull, fixed, and commonly blue. The new-born child cannot distinguish objects, because he is incapable of fixing his eyes upon them. The organ of vision is yet imperfect; the cornea is wrinkled; and perhaps the retina is too soft for receiving the images of external objects, and for communicating the notion of distinct vision. At the end of forty days, the infant begins to hear and to smile. At the same time it begins to look at bright objects, and frequently to turn its eyes towards the fire, a candle, or any light. Now likewise begins to weep; for its former cries and groans are not accompanied with tears. Smiles and tears are the effect of two internal sensations, one of which depend on the action of the mind, and the other is peculiar to the human race, and is used to express mental pain or pleasure; while sobs, motions, and other marks of bodily pain or pleasure, are common to man and most of the quadrupeds. The size of an infant born at the time is commonly 21 inches; and that *fœtus*, which nine months before was an imperceptible point, now weighs 10 or 12 lb. and sometimes 15. The head is large in proportion to the body; and this disproportion, which is still greater in the first stage of the *fœtus*, continues during the period of infancy. The skin of a new born child is of a reddish colour, because it is so fine and transparent as to allow a slight tint of the colour of the blood to shine through. The form of the body and members is by no means perfect at birth; all the parts appear swollen. At the end of three days, a kind of diarrhoea generally comes on, and at the same time milk is to be found in the breasts of the infant, which may be squeezed out by the fingers. The swelling decreases as the child grows up. The young of quadrupeds can of themselves find their way to the teat of the mother: it is not so with man. The breast is not given to infants till 12 hours after birth, when the mother, to nurse her child, must raise it to her breasts: and, in its feeble period of life, the infant can express its wants only by its cries. New born children have a need of frequent nourishment. See LACTATION, and NURSING. The teeth usually begin to appear about the age of 7 months. The cutting of the teeth, although a natural operation, does not follow the common laws of nature, which acts continually on the human body without occasioning the smallest pain or even producing any sensation. Here a violent and painful effort is made, accompanied with cries and tears. Children at this time lose their sprightliness and gaiety; they become fretful, restless, and fretful. The gums are red and swelled; but they afterwards become firm, when the pressure of the teeth is so great as to stop the circulation of the blood. Children often put their fingers to their mouths, that they may relieve the irritation which they feel there. Some give them, by putting into their hand a bit of wood or of coral, or of some other hard and smooth body, with which they rub the gums at the affected part. This pressure, being opposed

to that of the teeth, calms the pain for a moment, contributes to make the membrane of the gum thinner, and facilitates its rupture. Nature here seems to act in opposition to herself; and an incision of the gum must sometimes take place, to allow a passage to the tooth. For the period of dentition, number of teeth, &c. see ANATOMY, *Ind.* Till 3 years of age, the life of a child is very precarious. In the two or three following years it becomes more certain, and at 6 or 7 years of age, a child has a better chance of living than at any other period of life. From the bills of mortality published at London, it appears, that of a certain number of children born at the same time, one half die within the three first years: according to which, one half of the human race are cut off before they are 3 years of age. But the mortality among children is not nearly so great every where as in London. *M. Dupre de Saint Maur*, from a great number of observations made in France, has shown that half of the children born at the same time are not extinct till 7 or 8 years have elapsed. Children begin learning to speak about the age of 12 or 15 months. Some children at two years of age articulate distinctly, and repeat whatever is said to them; but most children do not speak till the age of 2½ or 3 years, and often later. The life of man and of other animals is measured only from the moment of birth: they enjoy existence, however, previous to that period, and begin to live in the state of a *FŒTUS*. This state is described and explained under the article ANATOMY.

(8.) MAN, LENGTH OF THE LIFE OF. *Man*, says Haller in his *Physiology*, has no right to complain of the shortness of life. Throughout the whole of living beings, there are few who unite in a greater degree all the internal causes which tend to prolong its different periods. The term of gestation is very considerable; the rudiments of the teeth are very late in unfolding; his growth is slow, and is not completed before about 20 years have elapsed.—The age of puberty, also, is much later in man than in any other animal. In short, the parts of his body being composed of a softer and more flexible substance, are not so soon hardened as those of inferior animals. *Man*, therefore, seems to receive at his birth the seeds of a long life: if he reaches not the distant period which nature seemed to promise him, it must be owing to accidental causes foreign to himself. Instead of saying that he has finished his life, we ought rather to say that he has not completed it. The natural and total duration of life is in some measure proportioned to the period of growth. A tree or an animal which soon acquires its full size, decays much sooner than another which continues to grow for a longer time. If it is true that the life of animals is 8 times longer than the period of their growth, we might conclude that the boundaries of human life might be extended to a century and a half. It does not appear that the life of man becomes shorter in proportion to the length of time the world has existed. In the days of the *Patriarchs*, the ordinary life of a human being did not exceed 70 or 80 years. Nothing of Jewish lived beyond that period. When the *Romans*, however, were attacked by *Nephtalim*, there

were found in the empire, in that age of effeminacy, ten men aged 120 and upwards. Among the princes of modern times, the late Frederick the Great of Prussia lived to the age of 74. George II. of Britain lived to that of 77. Louis XIV. lived to the same age. Stanislaus king of Poland and duke of Lorraine exceeded that age. Pope Clement XII. lived to the age of 80. George I. of Britain attained the age of 83. M. Boniare has collected divers instances of persons who lived to the age of 110 and upwards. See LONGEVITY, 9 4, 5.

(9.) MAN, MOTIONS PRODUCED IN THE FEATURES OF, BY THE PASSIONS. In the looks of no animal are the expressions of passion painted with such energy and rapidity, and with such gentle gradations and shades, as in those of man. In certain emotions of the mind, the blood rises to the face, and produces blushing; and in some others, the countenance turns pale. These two symptoms, the appearance of which depends on the structure and the transparency of the reticulum, especially redness, constitute a peculiar beauty. In our climates, the natural colour of the face of a man in good health is white, with a lively red suffused upon the cheeks. Paleness of the countenance is always a symptom of deficient health. Notwithstanding the general similitude of countenance in nations and families, there is a wonderful diversity of features. No one, however, is at a loss to recollect the person to whom he intends to speak, provided he has once fully seen him. One man has liveliness and gaiety painted in his countenance, and announces beforehand, by the cheerfulness of his appearance, the character which he is to support in society. The tears which bedew the cheeks of another man would excite compassion in the most unfeeling heart. Thus the face of man is the rendezvous of the symptoms both of his moral and physical affections: tranquillity, anger, threatening, joy, smiles, laughter, malice, love, envy, jealousy, pride, contempt, disdain, indignation, irony, arrogance, tears, terror, astonishment, horror, fear, shame or humiliation, sorrow and affliction, compassion, meditation, particular convulsions, sleep, death, &c. &c. The difference of these characters, and the various impressions made by them, form the principles of the science of PHYSIOGNOMY. (See that article.) When the mind is at ease, all the features of the face are in a state of profound tranquillity. Their proportion, harmony, and union, point out the serenity of the thoughts. But when the soul is agitated, the human face becomes a living canvas, whereon the passions are represented with equal delicacy and energy, where every emotion of the soul is expressed by some feature, and every action by some mark; the lively impression of which anticipates the will, and reveals by pathetic signs our secret agitation, and those intentions which we are anxious to conceal. It is particularly in the eyes that the soul is painted in the strongest colours and with the most delicate shades. The different colours of the eyes are, dark hazel, light hazel, green, blue, gray, and whitish gray. The most common of these colours are hazel and blue, both of which are often found in the same eye. Eyes

which are commonly called black, are only dark hazel; they appear black in consequence of being contrasted with the white of the eye. Whenever there is a tint of blue, however slight, it becomes the prevailing colour, and outshines the hazel, with which it is intermixed, to such a degree, that the mixture cannot be perceived without a very narrow examination. The most beautiful eyes are those which appear black or blue. In the former, there is more expression and vivacity; in the latter, more sweetness and perhaps delicacy. Next to the eyes, the parts of the face by which the physiognomy is most strongly marked, are the eye-brows. Being of a different nature from the other parts, their effect is increased by contrast. They are like a shade in a picture, which gives relief to the other colours and forms. The forehead is one of the largest parts of the face, and contributes most to its beauty. Every body knows of how great importance the hair is in the physiognomy, and that baldness is a very great defect. When old age begins to make its approach, the hair which first falls off is that which covers the crown of the head and the parts above the temples. The hair of the lower part of the temples, or of the back of the head, seldom completely falls off. Baldness is peculiar to men: women do not naturally lose their hair, though it becomes white as well as that of men at the approach of old age. The nose is the most prominent feature of the face. But as it has very little motion, and that only in the most violent passions, it contributes less to the expression than to the beauty of the countenance. The nose is seldom perpendicular to the middle of the face, but for the most part is turned to one side or the other. The cause of this irregularity, which, according to the writers, is perfectly consistent with beauty, and which even the want would be a deformity, appears to be frequent pressure on one side of the cartilage of the child's nose against the breast of the mother when it receives suck. At this early period of life, the cartilages and bones have acquired very little solidity, and are easily bent, as may be observed in the legs and thighs of some individuals, who have been injured by the folds of the swaddling clothes. Next to the eyes, the mouth and lips have the greatest motion and expression. These motions are under the influence of the passions. The mouth, which is set off by the vermilion of the lips and the enamel of the teeth, marks, by the various forms which it assumes, their different characters. The organs of the voice likewise gives animation to this feature, and communicates to it more life and expression than is possessed by any of the rest. The cheeks are uniform features, and have no motion or expression excepting from that involuntary redness or paleness with which they are covered in different passions, such as shame, anger, pride, and joy, on the one hand; and fear, terror, and sorrow, on the other. In different passions, the whole head assumes different positions, and is affected with different motions. It hangs forward during shame, humility, and sorrow; it hangs to one side in languor and compassion; it is elevated in pride, and fixed in obstinacy and self-conceit; in astonishment it is thrown backwards; and

ves from side to side in contempt, ridicule, and indignation. The particular effects of the great passions on the features have been already quoted from M. Le Brun's accurate description of them. See DRAWING, and *Figures EX.* and *CXX.*

10.) MAN, MOTIONS PRODUCED IN THE LIMBS BY THE PASSIONS. The arms, hands, and every part of the body, contribute to the expression of the passions. In joy, for instance, all the members of the body are agitated with quick and easy motions. In languor and sorrow, the arms hang down, and the whole body remains still and immoveable. In admiration and surprise, this total suspension of motion is likewise observed. In love, desire, and hope, the head and arms are raised to heaven, and seem to solicit the reward for good; the body leans forward as if to reach it; the arms are stretched out, and seem to embrace before-hand the beloved object. On the contrary, in fear, hatred, and horror, the arms seem to push backward and repel the object of aversion; we turn away our head and eyes as if to avoid the sight of it; we recoil in order to quit it.

11.) MAN, PERIOD OF ADOLESCENCE AND PUBERTY OF. The period of infancy, (see § 7.) which extends from the moment of birth to about 12 years of age, is followed by that of adolescence. This begins, together with puberty, at the age of 12 or 14, and commonly ends in girls at 15, and in boys at 18, but sometimes not till 23, or 25 years of age. According to its etymology from the Latin *adolescens*, it is commonly understood when the body has attained its full height. The age of puberty is announced by several marks. The first symptom is a kind of numbness and stiffness in the groins, accompanied with a new and peculiar sensation in these parts which distinguishes it from the rest. There, as well as in the armpits, small tubercles of a whitish colour appear, which are the germs of a new production of a kind of hair, by which these parts are afterwards to be distinguished. The voice, for a considerable time is hoarse and unequal; after which it becomes fuller, deeper, and graver, than it was before. This change may easily be distinguished in boys; but not so in girls, because their voices are naturally hoarse. These marks of puberty are common to both sexes; but there are marks peculiar to each, such as the discharge of the menses, and the swelling of the breasts, in girls; the beard, and the emission of semen, in boys; in short, the feeling of sexual desire, and the appetite which unites the sexes. Among all races of mankind, the signs arrive at puberty sooner than the males; and the age of puberty is different in different nations, and seems partly to depend on the temperature of the climate and the quality of the food. In all the southern countries of Europe, and in almost the greatest part of the girls arrive at puberty about 12, and the boys about 14 years of age.

But in the northern parts, and in the countries girls scarcely arrive at puberty till they are 15, and boys not till they are 16 or 17. In all climates, girls, for the greatest part, have attained complete maturity at 15, and boys at 20

years of age. At the age of adolescence and of puberty, the body commonly attains its full height. About that time, young people shoot out several inches almost at once. But no part of the human body increases more quickly and more perceptibly than the organs of generation in both sexes. In males, this growth is nothing but an unfolding of the parts, an augmentation in size; but in females, it often occasions a shrinking and contraction, which have received different names from those who have treated of virginity. See VIRGINITY. Marriage is a state suitable to man, where he may lawfully and virtuously make use of those new faculties which he has acquired by puberty. At this period of life, the desire of producing a being like himself, that irresistible attraction which unites the sexes and perpetuates the race, is strongly felt. By connecting pleasure with the propagation of the species, our Creator has provided most effectually for the continuance of his work. *Increase and multiply*, is his express command, and one of the natural functions of life. See MARRIAGE. According to the ordinary course of nature, women are not fit for conception till after the first appearance of the menses. When these stop, which generally happens between 40 and 50 years of age, they are barren ever after. Their breasts then shrink and decay, and the voice then becomes feebler. Some, however, have become mothers before they have experienced any menstrual discharge; and others have conceived at the age of 60, and sometimes at a more advanced age. Such examples, though not infrequent, must be considered as exceptions to the general rule; but they are sufficient to show that the menstrual discharge is not essential to generation. The age at which man acquires the faculty of procreating is not so distinctly marked. In order to the production of semen, the body must have attained a certain growth, which generally happens between 12 and 18 years of age. At 60 or 70, when the body begins to be enervated by old age, the voice becomes weaker, the semen is secreted in smaller quantities, and it is often unproductive. There are instances, however, of old men who have procreated at the age of 80 or 90. Boys have been found who had the faculty of generating at 9, 10, or 11 years of age; and young girls who have become pregnant at the age of 7, 8, or 9. But such facts, which are very rare, ought to be considered as extraordinary phenomena in the course of nature. PREGNANCY is the time during which a woman carries in her womb the fruit of conception. It begins from the moment the prolific faculty has been reduced into act, and all the conditions requisite in both sexes have concurred to form the rudiments of a male or female foetus; and it ends with delivery. See ANATOMY, *Index*; and MIDWIFERY. At the age of puberty, or a few years after, the body attains its full stature. Some young men grow no taller after 15 or 16, and others continue to grow till the age of 20 or 25. At this period they are very slender: but by degrees the members swell and begin to assume their proper shape; and before the age of 30, the body in men has attained its greatest perfection with regard to strength, constit-

ence, and symmetry. Adolescence ends at the age of 20 or 25; and at this period (according to the division which has been made of the years of man's life into different ages) MANHOOD begins. It continues till the age of 30 or 35.

(12.) MAN, PERIOD OF MATURITY, AND PROPER FORM OF. The body having acquired its full height during the period of adolescence, and its full dimensions in youth, remains for some years in the same state before it begins to decay. This is the period of MANHOOD, which extends from the age of 30 or 35 to that of 40 or 45 years. During this stage, the powers of the body continue in full vigour, and the principal change which takes place in the human figure arises from the formation of fat in different parts. Excessive fatness disfigures the body, and becomes a very cumbersome and inconvenient load. The body of a well-shaped man ought to be square, the muscles strongly marked, the contour of the members boldly delineated, and the features well defined. In women, all the parts are more rounded and softer, the features are more delicate, and the complexion brighter. To man belong strength and majesty; gracefulness and beauty are the portion of the other sex. For the structure essential to each, see ANATOMY.

(13.) MAN, PROBABILITIES OF THE DURATION OF THE LIFE OF. Of these, M. Daubenton has given, in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, a table, constructed from that in the 7th vol. of the *Supplément à l'Histoire Naturelle de M. de Buffon*. The following is an abridgment of it: Of 23,994 children born at the same time,

	there will probably DIE,	and REMAIN,
In one year	- 7998	$\frac{1}{3}$ or 15,996.
In 8 years	- 11,997	$\frac{1}{2}$ or 11,997.
In 38 years	- 15,996	$\frac{1}{4}$ or 7,998.
In 50 years	- 17,995	$\frac{1}{5}$ or 5,998.
In 61 years	- 19,995	$\frac{1}{6}$ or 3,999.
In 70 years	- 21,595	$\frac{1}{7}$ or 2,399.
In 80 years	- 22,395	$\frac{1}{8}$ or 599.
In 90 years	- 23,914	$\frac{1}{9}$ or 79.
In 100 years	- 23,992	$\frac{1}{10}$ or 2.

(14.) MAN, PROGRESSIVE DECAY OF, FROM MANHOOD, TO OLD AGE AND DEATH. From the above table it appears, that a very small number of men pass through all the periods of life, and arrive at the natural goal. Innumerable causes accelerate our dissolution. No sooner has the body attained its utmost perfection, than it begins to decline. Its decay is at first imperceptible; but in progress of time the membranes become cartilaginous, the cartilages acquire the consistence of bone; the bones become more solid, and all the fibres are hardened. The first traces of this decay begin about the age of 40, and sometimes sooner; this is the *age of decline*. It extends from 40, or 45, to 60, or 65 years of age. At this time of life, the diminution of the fat is the cause of those wrinkles which begin to appear in the face and some other parts of the body. The skin not being supported by the same quantity of fat, and being incapable from want of elasticity, of contracting, sinks down and forms folds. A remarkable change takes place also in vision. In the vigour of our days, the crystalline lens, being thicker and more diaphanous than the humours of the

eye, enables us to read letters of a very racter at the distance of 8 or 10 inches. the age of decline comes on, the quar humours of the eye diminishes, they clearness, and the transparent cornea be convex. To remedy this inconvenience what we wish to read at a greater dist the eye: but vision is thereby not much because the image of the object becom and more obscure. Another mark of t of life is a weakness of the stomach, at tion, in most people who do not take exercise in proportion to the quantity of their food. At 60, 63, or 65 years c signs of decline become more and m and indicate *old age*. This period com tends to the age of 70, sometimes to . When the body is extenuated and bent l man becomes *crazy*. Craziness therefore but an *infirm old age*. The eyes and st become weaker and weaker; leanness the number of the wrinkles; the bear hair become white; the strength and th begin to fail. After 70, or at most 8 age, the life of man is nothing but laborow; Such was the language of Mo 3000 years ago. (Psal. xc, 10.) Son strong constitutions, and in good health age for a long time without decrepitud the age of 100 or upwards; but such in not very common. The signs of decrep a striking picture of weakness, and an approaching dissolution of the body. T ry totally fails; the nerves become hard ed; deafness and blindness take place; of smell, of touch, and of taste, are; the appetite fails; the necessity of e more frequently that of drinking, are; after the teeth fall out, mastication is i performed, and digestion is very bad: t inwards; the edges of the jaws can no proach one another; the muscles of the become so weak, that they are unable support it; the body sinks down; the sp outward; and the vertebræ grow toget anterior part; the body becomes extre the strength fails: the decrepid wretch to support himself; he is obliged to re seat, or stretched in his bed: the bladde paralytic: the intestines lose their spri; culation of the blood becomes slower; t of the pulse no longer amount to the 70 or 80 in a minute as in the vigour a are reduced to 24 and sometimes fewe tion is slower; the body loses its heat; lation of the blood ceases; death follow drama of life is at an end. As in women the cartilages, the muscles, and every of the body, are softer and less solid th men, they require more time in harden degree which is supposed to occasion de men of course ought to live longer t This reasoning seems to be confirmed l ence; for, by consulting the bills of m appears, that after women have passed age they in general live longer than men arrived at the same age. After death t ration of the body begins to be dissolv

: parts relax, corrupt and separate. This is induced by an intestine fermentation, which occasions PUTREFACTION, and reduces the body to atile alkali, fetid oil, and earth.

15.) MAN, RATIONAL, MORAL, SOCIAL, AND RELIGIOUS, PRINCIPLES OF. See EDUCATION, LANGUAGE, LAW, LOGIC, METAPHYSICS, MORAL PHILOSOPHY, RELIGION, THEOLOGY, &c.

16.) MAN, RESTORATION OF THE POWERS OF SLEEP.

M. Daubenton observes (*Nouv. Encyc.*) that a cessation from exercise is not alone sufficient to restore the powers of the body when

they are exhausted by fatigue. The springs, though in action, are still wound up while we are asleep, even when every movement is suspended.

Deep nature finds that repose which is suited to wants, and the different organs enjoy a temporary relaxation. This is that wonderful state

which man, unconscious of his own existence, sunk in apparent death, repairs the loss which faculties has sustained, and seems to assume a new existence.

In this state of drowsiness and repose, the senses cease to act, the functions of the mind are suspended, and the body seems abandoned to itself.

The external symptoms of sleep, such alone are the object of our attention, are easily distinguished. At the approach of sleep, the eyes begin to wink, the eye-lids fall down, the head nods and hangs down: its fall astonishes the sleeper; he starts up, and makes an effort to

we away sleep, but in vain; a new inclination, stronger than the former, deprives him of the power of raising his head, his chin rests upon his breast, and in this position he enjoys a tranquil sleep. See SLEEP; also DREAMS, § 7.

17.) MAN, SENSES OF. See ANATOMY, Ind.

18.) MAN, STATURE OF. The common stature of man is about 5 feet and 3, 4, 5, 6 or 7 inches; that of women about 5 feet and 2, 3, or 4 inches. Men below 5 feet are of a small stature. The Laplanders do not exceed 4 feet and a half; and the natives of some other countries are still shorter.

Women attain their full height sooner than men. Hercom computes, that in the temperate climates of Europe, the medium stature of men is about 5 feet and 3 or 4 inches. He adds, that in Switzerland the inhabitants of the plains are taller than those of the mountains. It is difficult to ascertain with precision the actual limits of the human stature. In surveying the inhabited earth, we find greater differences in the statures of individuals than in those of nations. In the same climate, among the same people, and sometimes in the same family, there are men whose stature is either too tall or too diminutive. See GIANT and DWARF.

19.) MAN, STRENGTH AND AGILITY OF. Although the human body is externally much more delicate than that of any other animal, yet it is very nervous, and perhaps stronger in proportion to its size than that of the strongest animals. We are assured that the porters at Constantinople carry burdens of 900 pounds weight. A thousand wonderful stories are related of the Hottentots and other savages concerning their agility in running. Civilized man knows not the full extent of his powers, nor how much he loses by the effeminacy and inactivity by which they are

weakened and destroyed. He is contented even to be ignorant of the strength and vigour which his members are capable of acquiring by motion, and by being accustomed to severe exercises, as is observed in runners, tumblers, and rope-dancers.

The conclusion is therefore, founded on the most just and indisputable induction and analogy. The attitude of walking is less fatiguing to man than that in which he is placed when he is stopped in running. Every time he sets his foot upon the ground, he passes over a more considerable space; the body leans forwards, and the arms follow the same direction; the respiration increases, and breathing becomes difficult. Leaping begins with great inflections of the members; the body is then much shortened, but immediately stretches itself out with a great effort. The motions which accompany leaping making it very fatiguing.

(20.) MAN, VARIETIES IN THE COLOUR, FORM, AND CHARACTER OF. See COMPLEXION, § 2—7; and HOMO, § I, and II.

(II, i.) MAN, or the ISLE OF MAN, an island in the Irish sea, lying about 21 miles N. of Anglesey, as far W. of Lancashire, nearly equidistant from Galloway on the SE. and 27 miles E. of Ireland.

Its form is long and narrow, stretching from the NE. of Ayr Point to the Calf of Man on the SE. at least 30 miles. Its breadth in some places is more than 9 miles, in most places 8, but in some not above 5, containing about 160 square miles.

(ii.) MAN, ANCIENT NAMES OF. The first author who mentions this island is Cæsar; for there can be as little doubt, that, by the MONA, in his *Commentaries*, as lying in the midst between Britain and Ireland, we are to understand Man; as that the MONA of Tacitus, which had a fordable strait between it and the continent, can be applied only to ANGLESEY. Pliny has set down both islands; MONA, by which he intends Anglesey, and MONABIA, which is Man. In Ptolemy we find MONAÆDA, or MONAIDA, i. e. the farther or more remote Mona. Orosius styles it MENAVIA; tells us, that it was not extremely fertile; and that this, as well as Ireland, was then possessed by the Scots. Bede, who distinguishes clearly two Menavian islands, names this the northern *Mendavia*, and Anglesey the southern. In some copies of Nennius, this isle is denominated *Eubonia*; in others *Manavia*; but both mean *Man*. Alured of Beverley also speaks of it as one of the Menavian islands. The Britons, in their own language, called it *Menaw*, more properly *Main aw*, i. e. a little island, which seems to be latinized into *Manavia*. There are clear proofs that this small isle was early inhabited, and as well known to the rest of the world as either Britain or Ireland.

(iii.) MAN, CLIMATE, MOUNTAINS, MINERALS, SOIL, AND PRODUCE OF. This island, from its situation in the mouth of the channel, is very beneficial to Britain, by lessening the force of the tides, which would otherwise break with far greater violence than they do at present. It is frequently exposed to very high winds; and at other times to mists, which, however, are not at all unwholesome. The air is sharp and cold in winter; the frosts short; and the snow, especially on the coast, seldom lies long on the ground. There is a ridge of mountains runs almost the length of the

island, which afford good water from the rivulets and springs; the highest rises about 280 yards. There are quarries of good stone, and red free-stone, with some mines of lead, copper, and iron. The soil towards the N. is dry and sandy; of consequence unfruitful, but not unimprovable; the mountains, which may include near two thirds of the island, are bleak and barren; yet afford excellent peat, and contain several kinds of metals. In the valleys there is as good pasture, hay, and corn, as in any of the northern counties; and the S. part of the island is as fine soil as can be wished. They have marl and lime-stone sufficient to render even their poorest lands fertile; excellent slate, rag-stone, black marble, and some other kinds for building. They have vegetables of all sorts, and in the utmost perfection; potatoes in immense quantities, and tolerable fruit. They have also hemp, flax, large crops of oats and barley, and some wheat.

(iv.) MAN, DIVISIONS, AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT OF. The most general division of this island is into N. and S. and it contains 17 parishes, of which five have market towns, the rest villages. Its division with regard to its civil government, is into six shirelings, every one having its proper coroner, who is in the nature of a sheriff, is intrusted with the peace of his district, secures criminals, brings them to justice, &c. The lord chief justice Coke says, "their laws were such as are scarce to be found any where else." In July 1786, a copper coinage for the use of the island was issued from the Tower of London.

(v.) MAN, ECCLESIASTICAL GOVERNMENT OF. The inhabitants of this isle are of the church of England; and the bishop is styled *Bishop of Sodor and Man*. This bishoprick was first erected by Pope Gregory IV. and for its diocese had this isle and all the Hebrides, or Western Islands of Scotland; but which were called *Sodor* by the Danes, who went to them by the north, from the Swedish *Sodor, Sall or Chor Islands*, from which the title of the bishop of Sodor is supposed to originate. The bishop's seat was at Rushin, or Castletown, in the isle of Man, and in Latin is entitled *Sodorensis*. But when this island became dependent upon England, the Western Islands withdrew themselves from the obedience of their bishop, and had a bishop of their own, whom they entitled also *Sodorensis*, but commonly *Bishop of the Isles*. The patronage of the bishopric was given, together with the island, to the Stanleys by King Edward IV. and came by an heiress to the family of Athol; and, on a vacancy thereof, they nominated their designed bishop to the king, who dismissed him to the Abp. of York for consecration.—By act 33d of Hen. VIII. this bishoprick is declared in the province of York.

(vi.) MAN, HISTORY OF. In the close of the first century the Druids were expelled by Julius Agricola from the southern Mona, and took shelter in the northern. This island they found well planted with firs, but they introduced oaks. No histories record this, but we learn it from more certain authority, great woods of fir having been discovered interred in the bowels of the earth, and here and there small groves of oaks; but as these trees are never met with intermixed, it is

plain they never grew together; and as the firmer are by far the most numerous, we may presume that they were the natural produce of the country. The Druids gave the people a gross government, and wile laws, but withal a very superstitious religion. It is also very likely that they hindered them, as much as they could, from having any correspondence with their neighbours; which is the reason that, though the island is mentioned by so many writers, not one of them, before Orofius, says a word about the inhabitants. A little before his time, that is, in the beginning of the 3rd century, the Scots had transported themselves thither from Ireland. The traditionary history of the natives of Man begins at this period. They stile this first discoverer *Mannan Mac Lur*; and they say that he was a magician, who kept the country covered with mists, so that the inhabitants of other places could never find it. But the ancient chronicle of Ireland informs us, that the true name of this adventurer was *Oghinhuu*, the son of Alladius, a prince in their island; and that he was surnamed *Mannanan*, from his having first entered the island of Man, and *Mac Lur*, i. e. *the son of the sea*, from his great skill in navigation. He promoted commerce; and is said to have given a good reception to St Patrick, by whom the natives were converted to Christianity. The princes who ruled after him seem to have been of the same line with the kings of Scotland, with which they had great intercourse, assisting their monarchs in their wars, and having the education of their princes confided to them in times of peace. (In the beginning of the 7th century, Edwin, king of Northumberland, invaded the Manxian islands, ravaged Man, and kept it for some time, when, Beda assures us, there were not about 300 families; which was less than a third part of the people in Anglesey, though Man was but a third of the size of that island. The whole line of their princes they derive from Ori, who, they say, was the son of the king of Norway; and that there were 12 princes of this house who reigned in Man. The old constitution, settled by the Druids, while they swayed the scepter, was perfectly restored; the country was well cultivated and well peopled; their subjects were equally versed in the exercise of arms and in the knowledge of the arts of peace: in a word, they had a considerable naval force, an extensive commerce, and were a great nation, though inhabiting only a little isle. Guttred the son of Ori built the castle of Ruffyn, A. D. 950, which is a strong place, has a large palace, and has subsisted now above 200 years. Macao was the 9th of these kings, and maintained an unsuccessful struggle against Edgar, who reduced all the little sovereignties of the different parts of Britain to own him for their lord; and, upon the submission of Macao, made him his high-admiral, by which title (*Archiepiscopus*, in the Latin of that age) he succeeded that monarch's charter to the abbey of Gloucestershire. After the death of Edward the Confessor, when Harold II. had defeated the Norwegians at the battle of Stamford, there was amongst the fugitives one Goddard Crownan, the son of Harold the Black, of Iceland, who took shelter in the isle of Man. This isle was then governed by a



ard, who was a descendant from Macao, gave him a very kind and friendly recep-

Goddard Crownan, during the short stay he made in the island, perceived that his name was universally hated by his subjects; which he thought him with hopes that he might expel the king and become master of the island. This he accomplished, after having defeated and killed the son of Goddard, who had succeeded his father. Upon this he assigned the North of the island to the natives, and the South to his people; becoming thus the founder of the reign of princes. However unjustly he acquired the kingdom, he governed it with spirit and prudence; made war with success in Ireland; gained several victories over the Scots in the Isles; and, making a tour through his dominions, died in the island of Islay. He left behind him 3 sons. The eldest was breaking out between the two eldest, both dying in a few years, Magnus king of Norway came with a powerful fleet, possessed himself of Man and the isles, and held them as he lived; but, being slain in Ireland, the king invited home Olave, the youngest son of Goddard Crownan, who had fled to the court of England, and had been honourably treated by the king.

II. There were in all 9 princes of this island who were feudatories to the kings of England, and often resorted to their court, were received, and had pensions bestowed upon them. Henry III. in particular, charged Olave, king of Man, with the defence of the coasts of Ireland; and granted him annually for that service 40 marks, 100 measures of wheat, and 100 pipes of wine. Upon the demise of Magnus the last king of this isle, without heirs male, Alexander III. king of Scots, who had conquered the other isles, seized likewise upon this; which the king of that kingdom came into the hands of Edward I. who directed William Huntercumbe, a knight of that isle for him, to restore it to John Balliol, who had done homage to him for the kingdom of Scotland. But there still remained a lady of the name of *Aspirica*, who claimed this sovereignty, as the nearest of kin to the deceased Magnus, and able to obtain nothing from John Balliol, she pleaded to King Edward, as the superior lord. Upon this application, by his writ, which is still extant, commanded both parties, in order to determine their right, to appear in the king's court.

The progress of this suit does not appear; but this lady, by a deed of gift, conveyed the island to Sir Simon de Montacute; and, after disputes, invasions by the Scots, and other accidents, the title was examined in parliament, the 7th of Edward III. and solemnly adjudged to William de Montacute; to whom, by letters patent, dated the same year, that monarch recalled his claim what he ever. In the succeeding reign of William de Montacute, earl of Salisbury, the island was given to Sir William Sereop, afterwards earl of Hereford; and, upon his losing his head, it was given by Henry IV. to Henry Percy, earl of Northumberland; who, being attainted, had, by the king of that name, all his lands restored, except the isle of Man; which the same monarch granted to Sir John Stanley, to be held by him of the king, his heirs and successors, by homage; and

a cast of falcons to be presented at every coronation. Thus it was possessed by this noble family, who were created earls of Derby, till the reign of queen Elizabeth; when upon the demise of earl Ferdinand, who left 3 daughters, it was, as lord Coke tells us, adjudged to those ladies, and from them purchased by William earl of Derby, the brother of Ferdinand, from whom it was claimed by descent, and adjudged to the duke of Athol. See § vii.

(vii.) MAN, INHABITANTS, LANGUAGE, POPULATION, AND REVENUE OF. The inhabitants of Man, though far from being unmix'd, were, perhaps, till within the course of the last century, more so than any other under the dominion of the crown of Great Britain: to which they are very proud of being subjects, though, like the inhabitants of Jersey and Guernsey, they have a constitution of their own, and a peculiarity of manners naturally resulting from a long enjoyment of it.—The Manks tongue is the only one spoken by the common people. It is the old British, mingled with Norse, or the Norwegian Language, and the modern language. The clergy preach, and read the common prayer in it. In ancient times they were distinguished by their stature, courage, and great skill in maritime affairs. They are at this day a brisk, lively, hardy, industrious, and well-meaning people. Their frugality defends them from want: and though there are few that abound, there are as few in distress; and those who are, meet with a cheerful unfeigned relief. On the other hand, they are choleric, loquacious, and, as the law till lately was cheap, and unincumbered with solicitors and attorneys, not a little litigious. The revenue, in the earl of Derby's time, amounted to about 2,500*l.* a-year; from which, deducting his civil list, which was about 700*l.* the clear income amounted to 1800*l.* At this time, the number of his subjects was computed at 20,000.—The sovereign of Man, though he has long ago waived the title of *king*, was still invested with regal rights and prerogatives; but the distinct jurisdiction of this little subordinate royalty, being found inconvenient for the purposes of public justice, and for the revenue (it affording a commodious asylum for debtors, outlaws, and smugglers), authority was given to the treasury, by stat. 12 Geo. I. c. 25. to purchase the interest of the then proprietors for the use of the crown: which purchase was at length completed in 1765, and confirmed by stat. 5. Geo. III. c. 26. and 39.; whereby the whole island and all its dependencies (except the landed property of the Athol family), their manorial rights and emoluments, and the patronage of the bishopric and other ecclesiastical benefices, are unalienably vested in the crown, and subjected to the regulations of the British excise and customs.

(viii.) MAN, QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, AND FISH OF. Hogs, sheep, goats, black cattle, and horses, are numerous; and though small in size, yet if the country was thoroughly cultivated, the breeds might be improved. The rabbits and hares are very fat and fine; tame and wild fowls are in great plenty; and in the high mountains are antics of eagles and hawks. They also feed a small species of swine, called *putts*, whose flesh is esteemed excellent.

excellent pork. The rivulets afford salmon, trouts, eels, and other fresh-water fish; on the coasts are caught cod, turbot, ling, halibut, all sorts of shell-fish, and herrings, of which the natives made anciently great profit, though this fishery is of late much declined.

(ix.) MAN, TRADE OF. The trade of this island was very great before 1726; but lord Derby farming out his customs to foreigners, the insolence of those farmers drew on them the resentment of the government of England, who, by an act of parliament, deprived the inhabitants of an open trade with this kingdom. This naturally introduced a clandestine commerce, which they carried on with England and Ireland with prodigious success, and an immense quantity of foreign goods was run into both kingdoms, till the government, in 1765, thought proper to put an entire stop to it, by purchasing the island of the duke of Athol, and permitting a free trade with England.

(III.) MAN, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, Lon. 151. 25. E. Lat. 4. 0. S.

(IV.) MAN, a river in Nottinghamshire.

(V.) MAN OF WAR. See § 1. def. 14; SHIP, and SHIP-BUILDING.

(VI.) MAN OF WAR BIRD. See PELICANUS, N° 1.

\* To MAN. v. a. [from the noun.] 1. To furnish with men.—

Your ships are not well *mann'd*;

Your mariners are muleteers, or reapers. *Shak.*

There stands the castle by yon tuft of trees,

*Mann'd* with three hundred men. *Shak.*

A navy, to secure the seas, is *mann'd*;

And forces sent. *Daniel.*

—It hath been agreed, that either of them should send certain ships to sea well *mann'd*. *Hayward.*

—Their ships go as long voyages as any; and are for their burdens as well *manned*. *Raleigh.*—He had

*manned* it with a great number of tall soldiers. *Bacon.*

—They *man* their boats, and all young men arm.

*Waller.*—The Venetians could set out 30 men of

war, 100 gallies, and ten galeasses; though I cannot

conceive how they could *man* a fleet of half

the number. *Addison.*—Timoleon forced the Car-

thaginians out, though they had *manned* out a fleet

of 200 men of war. *Arbutnot.* 2. To guard

with men.—

See, how the surly Warwick *mans* the wall.

*Shakesp.*

The summons take of the same trumpet's call,

To fall from one port, or *man* one publick

wall. *Tate.*

3. To fortify; to strengthen.—

Advise how war may be best upheld,

*Mann'd* by her two main nerves, iron and gold,

In all her equipage. *Milton.*

—Theodosius having *mann'd* his soul with proper

reflexions, exerted himself in the best manner he

could, to animate his penitent. *Spektator.* 4. To

tame a hawk.—

Another way I have to *man* my haggard,

To make her come, and know her keeper's

call;

That is, to watch her. *Shak.*

5. To attend; to serve; to wait on as a *man* or

servant.—Thou whore'son mandrake, thou art fitter

to be worn in my cap than to wait at my

heels: I was never *manned* with ag  
*Shak.*—

They distil their husbands land

In decoctions, and are *mann'd*

With ten empiricks in their cham

Lying for the spirit of amber.

6. To direct in hostility; to point;

obsolete word.—

*Man* but a rush against Othello

And he retires.

MANACHIA, a town and fort

in Natolia, anciently called MAGNES

49. E. Lat. 38. 45. N.

MANACIZO, a town of Naples,

\* To MANACLE. v. a. [from the

chain the hands; to shackle.—

We'll bait thy bears to

And *manacle* the bearward in their

I'll *manacle* thy neck and feet to

—Is it thus you use this monarch, to

shackle him hand and foot! *Arbutnot.*

\* MANACLES. n. f. [manacles, Fr.

from *Manus*, Lat.] Chain for the han

For my sake wear this glove;

It is a *manacle* of love.

Thou

Must, as a foreign recreant, be le

With *manacles* along our street.

—Doctrine unto fools is as fetters

and like *manacles* on the right-hand. *J.*

—The law good men count their o

protection; others, their *manacles* an

*K. Charles.*

MANADO, an isle and town near

(1.) \* MANAGE. n. f. [manage,

1. Conduct; administration.—

To him put

The *manage* of my state.

This might have been prevented

With very easy arguments of love

Which now the *manage* of two ki

With fearful, bloody issue arbitra

For the rebels which stand out.

Expedient *manage* must be made.

—Young men, in the conduct and n

tions, embrace more than they can

—The plea of a good intention will

justify the worst actions; the proof of

too manifest from that scandalous de

Jesuits concerning the direction of t

and likewise from the whole *manag*

rebellion. *Soutb.* 2. Use; instrume

think to make gold of quicksilver

hoped; for quicksilver will not endure

of the fire. *Bacon.* 3. Government

In thy slumbers

I heard thee murmur tales of iron

Speak terms of *manage* to the bow

—The horse you must draw in his c

*manage* and turn, doing the curvett

4. Discipline; governance.—When

a strange bias, it is not out of a mo

to do better, but for want of a ca

and discipline to set us right at first.

(2.) MANAGE, § 1. def. 3. See M.

(1.) \* To MANAGE. 2. a. [manag

act; to carry on.—The fathers had *manage* of idolatry against the heathens.

1.—  
All the nations in no vulgar strain,  
I manage, and what wreaths I gain.

*Prior.*  
in a horse to graceful action.—He rode  
lown gallantly mounted, *managing* his  
d charging and discharging his lance.

vault from hunters to the *manag'd* steed.

*Young.*  
vern; to make tractable.—Let us stick  
nt, and we will *manage* Bull I'll warrant  
*ut nos*. 4. To wield; to move or use  
ong tubes are cumbersome, and scarce  
ly *managed*. *Newton*. 5. To husband;  
he object of caution.—

is no more to *manage*! If I fall,  
be like myself.

*Dryden.*  
less he had to lose, the less he car'd,  
*manage* loathsome life, when love was the  
ward.

*Dryden.*  
at with caution or decency: this is a  
rely Gallick; not to be imitated.—Not-  
ing it was so much his interest to *ma-*  
protestant subjects in the country, he  
r his principality to France. *Addison*.

To *MANAGE*. *v. n.* To superintend  
transact.—

them to *manage* for thee, and to grant  
heir unerring wisdom sees thee want.

*Dryden.*  
**VAGEABLE.** *adj.* [from *manage*.] 1.  
he use; not difficult to be wielded or  
The conditions of weapons and their  
ient are, that they may serve in all weid-  
that the carriage may be light and  
*le*. *Bacon*.—Very long tubes are, by  
their length, apt to bend, and shake by  
o as to cause a continual trembling in  
ts, whereas by contrivance the glasses  
7 *managable*. *Newton*. 2. Governable;

**VAGEABLENESS.** *n. f.* [from *manage*.]  
Accommodation to easy use.—This dis-  
t may be imputed to the greater or less  
or *manageableness* of the instruments  
*Boyle*. 2. Tractableness; easiness to be

**VAGEMENT.** *n. f.* [*menagement*, Fr.]  
act; administration.—An ill argument  
d with deference, will procure more  
n the profoundest science with a rough,  
and noisy *management*. *Locke*.—The  
*management* of the earl of Godolphin was  
ause of the union. *Swift*. 2. Prudence;  
ractice.—

with what *management* their tribes di-  
c;  
ick to you, and some to t'other side.

*Dryden.*  
e; transaction; dealing.—He had great  
nt with ecclesiastics in the view of be-  
red to the pontificate. *Addison*.

**VAGER.** *n. f.* [from *manage*.] 1. One  
he conduct or direction of any thing.—  
*manager* of the rabble, so long as they

have but ears to hear, needs never enquire whe-  
ther they have any understanding. *Soub.*—The  
*manager* opens his sluice every night, and distri-  
butes the water into the town. *Addison*.—

An artful *manager*, that crept between  
His friend and shame.

*Pope.*  
2. A man of frugality; a good husband.—A prince  
of great aspiring thoughts: in the main, a *ma-*  
*nager* of his treasure. *Templ.*—The most severe  
censor cannot but be pleased with the prodigality  
of Ovid's wit; though he could have wished, that  
the master of it had been a better *manager*. *Dryd.*

\* **MANAGERY.** *n. f.* [*menagerie*, French.]  
1. Conduct; direction; administration.—They  
who most exactly describe that battle, give so ill  
an account of any conduct or discretion in the  
*managery* of that affair, that posterity would re-  
ceive little benefit in the most particular relation  
of it. *Clarendon*. 2. Husbandry; frugality.—The  
court of Rome has, in other instances, so well  
attested its good *managery*, that it is not credible  
crowns are conferred gratis. *Decay of Piety*. 3.  
Manner of using.—No expert general will bring a  
company of raw, untrained men into the field,  
but will, by little bloody skirmishes, instruct them  
in the manner of the fight, and teach them the  
ready *managery* of their weapons. *Decay of Piety*.

MANAN, an island of the United States, on  
the coast of Maine, 30 miles in circumference.

MANANGHERA, a river in Madagascar.

MANAR, an island on the NW. coast of Cey-  
lon; first settled by the Portuguese in 1560, and  
taken by the Dutch in 1658. It gives name to  
the Gulf.

(1.) MANASSEH, [מנשה, Heb. *i. e.* not for-  
gotten.] the eldest son of Joseph, and grandson of  
the patriarch Jacob, (Gen. xli. 50, 51.) was born  
A. M. 2290, and A. A. C. 1744.

(2.) MANASSEH, the 15th king of Judah, the  
son and successor of Hezekiah. His acts are re-  
corded in 2 Kings xx. xxi. and a Chr. xxxiii.

(3.) MANASSEH, THE TRIBE OF, the descen-  
dants of the patriarch. They came out of Egypt,  
in number 32,200 men, fit for battle, upwards of  
20 years old, under the conduct of Gamaliel son  
of Pedahzur. *Numb.* ii. 20, 21. This tribe was  
divided at their entrance into the land of Canaan.  
One half had its portion beyond the Jordan,  
and the other half on this side of it. The half tribe  
of Manasseh which settled beyond the river pos-  
sessed the country of Bashan, from the river Jab-  
bok to mount Libanus, (*Numb.* xxii. 33, 34, &c.)  
and the other half tribe of Manasseh on this side  
Jordan, obtained for its inheritance the country  
between the tribe of Ephraim on the S. and the  
tribe of Issachar on the N. having the river Jordan  
on the E. and the M-diterranean sea on the  
W. *Josh.* xvii. xvii.

MANATI, in zoology. See TRICHEGUS, N° 2.

\* **MANATION.** *n. f.* [*manatio*, Latin.] The  
act of issuing from something else.

MANAFOULIN, an island of N. America in  
lake Huron, 100 miles long, and 8 broad.

MAN-BOTE, in the Anglo-Saxon laws, com-  
pensation for killing a man. In King Ina's laws  
rates are fixed for the expiation of this crime, ac-  
cording to the quality of the person slain.

MANCA, in English antiquity, was a square  
piece

site of the present *Castlefield*, at MANCHESTER. Relics of the castle wall and ditch are still visible. *Knock Castle* was the seat of the Roman *Castrum*. See MANCHESTER, N° 1.

MANCHESTER, a village in Warwickshire, anciently a Roman Station on Watling-Street, where ancient Roman coins are still found. It lies near Atherstone.

(1.) MANCHA, a mountainous province of Spain, in New Castile, between the Guadana and Andalusia. The natives are remarkable for cheerfulness, and excel in music and dancing.

(2.) MANCHA, a town of Spain, in Jaen.

(1.) \* MANCHE. *n. f.* [French.] A Beete.

(2.) MANCHE, I.A. See CHANNEL, N° 1.

(1.) MANCHESTER, a large, populous, and flourishing town of Lancashire, seated on a hill, near a navigable canal, at the conflux of the Irk and the Irwell, 3 miles from the Mersey. Mr Whitaker thinks, that the station was first occupied by the Britons about A. A. C. 500, but that it first received any thing like the form of a town 450 years after, when the Britons of Cheshire made an irruption into the territories of their southern neighbours, and alarmed the Sefuantii,

or inhabitants of Lancashire, so much, that they built forts to defend their country. Its British name was MANCENION; which was changed by the Romans, who conquered it under Agricola, A. D. 79, into MANCUNIUM; whence the present name. It is adorned with many fine buildings and 600 streets. It has a spacious market place, a college; and an exchange. The fustain manufactory, called *Manchester cottons*, for which it has been famous for 200 years, has been much improved by some recent discoveries in dyeing and printing. These with the great variety of other manufactures, called *Manchester goods*, of which

less than 60 mills upon it. tion with the Mersey, Dec, 1 gation extends above 500 mile counties. See MERSEY.

The that work 24 laces at a time, tion. The market is on Satur are on Whit-Monday, Sept. 2

is a manor with courts leet an ket place, surrounded with ol called the *Old Town*; and r The *Literary and Philosophical*

ter was instituted in 1781. Its published in several vols. 8vo the members. They have ailt to the German language. Mar

WSW. of York, and 182 N Lon. 2. 42. W. Lat. 53. 27. N

(2.) MANCHESTER, a town of Essex county, 30 miles NE. of above 1000 citizens.

(3.) MANCHESTER, a town miles NE. of Cape Canso.

(4.) MANCHESTER, a town York county.

(5.) MANCHESTER, a town of nington county, 320 miles f containing 1276 citizens, in 1

(6.) MANCHESTER, a town S. side of James' river. It sul nold's expedition.

(1.) \* MANCHET. *n. f.* [m A small loaf of fine bread.—T *manchet*, dipped in oil of sweet —I love to entertain my friend lation; a cup of wine, a dii *manchet*. *More's Dial*.

(2.) MANCHET. See BAKIN

(1.) \* MANCHINEEL TREE

made; yet goats eat this fruit without in-  
Miller.

MANCHINEEL TREE. See HIPPOMANE.

MANCIET, a town of France, in the dep. of  
4½ miles NE. of Nogaro, and 16½ SW. of  
m.

MANCIPATE. *v. a.* [*mancipio*, Lat.] To  
; to bind; to tie.—Although the regular  
nature is seldom varied, yet the meteors,  
are in themselves more unstable, and less  
ated to stated motions, are oftentimes em-  
to various ends. *Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

MANCIPATIO, a term used in the ancient  
law, which may be thus explained: Every  
and such a regal authority over his son, that  
the son could be released from his subjec-  
d made free, he must be three times over  
d bought, his natural father being the ven-  
The vendee was called *pater fiduciarius*. Af-  
fictitious bargain, the *pater fiduciarius* sold  
ain to the natural father, who could then,  
till then, *manumit* or make him free. The  
ary sale was called *mancipatio*; and the act  
g liberty or setting him free after this was  
*mancipatio*.

MANCIPATIO also signifies the selling or a-  
g of certain lands by the balance, or money  
y weight, and five witnesses. This mode  
ation took place only among Roman citi-  
d that only in respect to certain estates  
d in Italy, which were called MANCIPIA.

MANCIPATION. *n. f.* [from *mancipate*.] Sla-  
involuntary obligation.

\* MANCIPLE. *n. f.* [*manceps*, Lat.] The  
d of a community; the purveyor; it is par-  
ly used of the purveyor of a college.—  
heir *manciple* fell dangerously ill,  
d must be had. *Miller of Trompington.*

MANCIPLE means also a clerk of the kit-  
An officer in the inner temple was ancient-  
alled, of whom Chaucer, the ancient Eng-  
et, some time a student of that house, thus

: anciple there was within the temple,  
which all caterers might take ensample.

MANCORA, a town of Peru, in Piura.

MANCUNIAM, in ancient geography, a town  
BRIGANTES in Britain; now called MAN-  
ER.

MANCUS, [from *manu custus*,] in antiquity, an  
Saxon gold coin, equal in value to 2½ solidi,  
ence; and in weight to 55 Troy grains.  
ft account of this coin, that occurs in the  
history, is about the close of the 8th cen-  
an embassy of Kenwulf king of Mercia to  
l. requesting the restoration of the jurisdic-  
the see of Canterbury: this embassy was  
d by a present of 120 mancuses. Ethel-  
so sent yearly to Rome 300 mancuses: and  
oins are said to have continued in some  
r other, till towards the conclusion of the  
government. The heriots of the nobility  
essy estimated by this standard in Canute's  
It came originally from Italy, where it was  
*ducat*: and is supposed to have been the  
with the drachma or *millarenfis* current in  
zantine empire.

MANCUSA. See MANGA.

.. XIII. PART II.

MANDAL, a town and river of Norway;

(1.) \* MANDAMUS. *n. f.* [Lat.] A writ grants  
ed by the king, so called from the initial word.

(2.) A MANDAMUS issues out of the court of  
king's bench, and is sent to a corporation, com-  
manding them to admit or restore a person to his  
office. This writ also lies where justices of the  
peace refuse to admit a person to take the oaths,  
to qualify himself for any post or office; or where  
a bishop or archdeacon refuses to grant a probate  
of a will, to admit an executor to prove it, or to  
swear a church warden, &c.

MANDANE, the mother of Cyrus. See PERSIA.

MANDANES, an Indian prince and philoso-  
pher, who for the renown of his wisdom was in-  
vited by the ambassadors of Alexander the Great  
to the banquet of the son of Jupiter. A reward  
was promised him if he obeyed, but he was threat-  
ened with punishment in case of a refusal. Equal-  
ly unmoved by both, the philosopher disdained  
them with observing, that though Alexander ruled  
over a great part of the universe, he was not  
the son of Jupiter; and that he gave himself no  
trouble about the presents of a man who possessed  
not wherewithal to content himself. "I despise  
his threats (added he); if I live, India is sufficient  
for my subsistence; and to me death has no ter-  
rors, for it will only be an exchange of old age  
and infirmity for the happiness of a better life."

MANDAR, a town of Celebes.

(1.) \* MANDARIN. *n. f.* A Chinese noble-  
man or magistrate.

(2.) MANDARINS, a name given to the magis-  
trates and governors of provinces in China, who  
are chosen out of the most learned men, and  
whose government is always at a great distance  
from the place of their birth. See CHINA, § 17.

(3.) MANDARIN TONGUE, the learned language  
of the Chinese. Besides the language peculiar to  
every province, this is common to all the learned  
in the empire, and is in China what Latin is in  
Europe. It is the language of the court. See  
CHINESE, § 16.

MANDAT. See MANDATS.

\* MANDATARY. *n. f.* [*mandataire*, Fr. from  
*mando*, Latin.] He to whom the pope has, by  
his prerogative, and proper right, given a man-  
date for his benefice. *Asliffe*.

(1.) \* MANDATE. *n. f.* [*mandatum*, Lat.] 1.  
Command.—Her force is not any where so appa-  
rent as in express *mandates* or prohibitions, espe-  
cially upon advice and consultation going before.  
*Hooker*.—The necessity of the times cast the pow-  
er of the three estates upon himself, that his *man-  
dates* should pass for laws, whereby he laid what  
taxes he pleased. *Howell's Vocal Forest*. 2. Pre-  
cept; charge; commission, sent or transmitted.—

Who knows,

If the scarce bearded Cæsar have not sent  
His powerful *mandate* to you. *Shak.*

This Moor,

Your special *mandate*, for the state affairs,  
Hath hither brought. *Shak. Othello*.

He thought the *mandate* forg'd. *Dryd.*

This dream all powerful Juno sends, I bear  
Her mighty *mandate*. *Dryden*.

(2.) MANDATE, in law, is a judicial command-  
ment to do something. See MANDAMUS.

M m m m

(2.) MANE

their credit on the *whole* national property, as the assignats had been, they were bottomed upon so much of it, as was equivalent in value to the amount of the mandats issued. A list of the lands thus appropriated, which could be immediately acquired by the holders of mandats, was printed, and copies dispersed through the republic. The mandats thus operated a temporary restoration of the credit of the republic. See REPUBLIC.

MANDATUM, in Roman antiquity, was a fee or retainer given the *procuratores* and *advocati*. It was a necessary condition, without which they had not the liberty of pleading.

(1.) MANDEL, a river of the French republic, in the late prov. of Flanders, running into the Lys, 3 miles above Deinse.

(2.) MANDEL, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of Escout, 6 miles S. of Courtray.

MANDELLO, a town of the Italian republic, in the dept. of the Lario, on the E. bank of lake Como.

(1.) MANDERSCHEIT, a ci-devant county of Germany, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and electorate of Triers, between the diocese of Triers and the duchy of Juliers. It is now included in the dep. of the Rhine and Moselle.

(2.) MANDERSCHEIT, a town of the French republic, in the dep. of the Rhine and Moselle, and ci-devant electorate of Triers; late capital of the above county. Lon. 6. 32. E. Lat. 50. 20. N.

(1.) MANDEVILLE, Bernard DE, M. D. an eminent writer of the 18th century, born in Holland, where he studied physic, and took his degree. He afterwards came over into England, and in 1714 published a poem, entitled, *The Grumbling Hive, or Knaves turned Honest*; upon which he afterwards wrote remarks, and published the whole at London, 1722, in 8vo. under the title

the capital of the Mandubii; 5 n. beliard; now in the dep. of Mari

\* MANDIBLE. *n. f.* [*mandibu*] jaw; the instrument of manduc only the crocodile moveth the upper *mandible* did make an the cranium. *Grew's Museum.*

\* MANDIBULAR. *adj.* [from B. belonging to the jaw.

\* MANDILION. *n. f.* [*man*] A soldier's coat. *Skinner.* A lleveless jacket. *Ainsworth.*

MANDINGO, an inland and dom of Africa, about 200 miles the Atlantic, near the Gambia.

MANDINGOES, the inhabitants kingdom, "the most numerous of them are dispersed over all

Being the most rigid Mahometan groes, they drink neither wine

are p. siter than the other negroe the trade goes through their ha

industrious and laborious, keepi well cultivated, and breeding a g

tle. Every town has an alkadi, power; for most of them havir

fields of clear ground, one for co for rice, the alkadi appoints the

people. The men work the co the women and girls the rice gro

all equally labour, so he equally amongst them; and in case any others supply them. This alkadi

rels, and has the first voice in al town affairs." Some of these M are fittled at Galam, far up the S and write Arabic tolerably; and

res, hatchets, reaping hooks, spades, shears, and dyers, &c.

LANDOLA, a sea port town of Maritime

ANDRAGORA, in botany. See ATROPA.

ANDRAGORITIS, a surname of Venus.

ATROPA, N<sup>o</sup> 4.

\*) MANDRAKE. *n. f.* [*mandragoras*, Latin; *fragore*, Fr.] The flower of the *mandrake* con-

sists of one leaf in the shape of a bell, and is divid-

ed at the top into several parts; the root is said to

resemble a dog to the human form. The re-

ason of tying a dog to this plant, in order to root

it, and prevent the certain death of the per-

son who dares to attempt such a deed, and of the

poison emitted by it when the violence is offered,

is equally fabulous. *Miller*.—Among other vir-

tues the *mandrake* has been falsely celebrated for

bringing barren women fruitful: it has a sopor-

ific quality, and the ancients used it when they

would cure a narcotick of the most powerful kind.

— Would curses kill, as doth the *mandrake's*

groan,

could invent as bitter searching terms,

curst, as harsh, and horrible to bear. *Shak.*

Not poppy, not *mandrake*,

nor all the drowsy syrups in the world,

shall ever med'cine thee to that sweet sleep. *Shak.*

And shrieks like *mandrakes*, torn out of the

earth,

that living mortals, hearing them; run mad. *Shak.*

Go, and catch a falling star,

and with child a *mandrake* root. *Donne.*

\*) MANDRAKE, in botany. See ATROPA and

ATROPA.

\*) MANDRE, a town of France, in the dep-

artment of Meuse; 12 miles S. of Vancouleurs.

\*) MANDRE SOUS VAIRIF, a town of France,

in the dep. of Vosges, 10 miles N. of Marche.

\*) MANDRILL. *n. f.* [*mandrin*, French.] An

instrument to hold in the lathe the substance to be

turned.—This *mandrel* is a shank, or *pin-mandrel*.

\*) A MANDREL is a kind of wooden pulley,

member of the turner's lathe. Of these there

are several kinds; as *Flat Mandrels*, which have

one or more little pegs or points near the verge,

are used for turning flat boards on. *Pin Man-*

*drils*, which have a long wooden shank to fit stiff

into a round hole made in the work to be turned.

*Screw Mandrels*, which are hollow of themselves,

are used for turning hollow work. *Screw Man-*

*drils*, for turning screws, &c.

\*) MANDRILL, and } Two villages of Maritime

ANDRIOLA, } Austria, near Padua.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

bit the country afterwards called BURGUNDY.

\*) MANDUBII, a people of Gaul, who inha-

\*) MANDUCATION. *n. f.* [*manducatio*, Lat.]

Eating.—*Manducation* is the action of the lower

jaw in chewing the food, and preparing it in the

mouth before it is received into the stomach.

Quincy.—Our *manducation* must be spiritual, and

so must the food, and consequently it cannot be

natural flesh. *Taylor*.

(1.) \* MANE. *n. f.* [*maene*, Dutch.] The hair

which hangs down on the neck of horses, or o-

ther animals.—*Dametas* was tossed from the sad-

dle to the *mane* of the horse, and thence to the

ground. *Sidney*.—A currie comb, *maine* comb, and

whip for a jade. *Tusser*.—

The weak wanton Cupid

Shall from your neck unclose his am'rous fold;

And, like a dew-drop from the lion's *mane*.

Be shook to air. *Shak.*

—The horses breaking loose, ran up and down

with their tails and *manes* on a light-fire, *Knolles's*

*History of the Turks*.—

A lion shakes his dreadful *mane*,

And angry grows. *Wallis*.

For quitting both their swords and reins,

They grasp'd with all their strength the *manes*. *Hudibras*.

(2.) The MANE of a horse should be long, thin,

and fine; and if frizzled, so much the better.

(1.) \* MANEATER. *n. f.* [*man* and *eat*.] A can-

nibal; an anthropophagite; one that feeds upon

human flesh.

(2.) MAN-EATER. See ANTHROPOPHAGI, and

CANNIBAL.

\* MANED. *adj.* [from the noun.] Having a

mane.

MANEGE, or MENAGE, *n. f.* the exercise of

riding the great horse; or the ground set apart

for that purpose; which is sometimes covered,

for continuing the exercise in bad weather; and

sometimes open, to give more freedom both to the

horseman and horse. See HORSEMANSHIP. The

word is borrowed from the Italian *maneggio*; or,

a *manu agendo*, i. e. *acting with the hand*.

MANERBIO, a town and territory of the Italian

republic, in the dep. of Mella, and late prov.

of Bresciano, on the Mella. The town contained

3000 souls in 1797; the district 5000, with 4 pa-

rishtes.

MANERIUM. See MANOR.

(1.) MANES, or MANICHÆUS, one of the Per-

sian Magi, who having embraced Christianity,

mingled his own philosophical opinions with its

doctrines, and thus became the founder of the

Manichæan system. See MANICHEES. *Manes*

flourished about A. D. 277. St Epiphanius says,

his original name was *Cubricus*, and that he chan-

ged it for *Manes*, which, in the Persian or Baby-

lonish language, signifies *wealth*. A rich widow,

whose servant he had been, dying without issue,

left him a great deal of wealth; after which he

assumed the title of the *apostle* or *envoy of Jesus*

*Christ*. He next assumed that of the PARACLETE,

whom Christ had promised to send; which Au-

gustine explains by saying, that *Manes* endeavoured

to persuade men, that the Holy Ghost did per-

sonally dwell in him with full authority. He left

several disciples, and among others Addas, Tho-

mas, and Hermas. These he sent in his lifetime

into several provinces to preach his doctrine.

Manes.

M m m m

**Manes**, having undertaken to cure the son of Sapor king of Persia, and not succeeding, was put in prison upon the young prince's death, whence he made his escape; but was apprehended soon after, and slayed alive. However, the oriental writers, cited by D'Herbelot and Hyde, tell us, that Manes, after having been protected in a singular manner by K. Hormizdas, who succeeded Sapor, but who was not able to defend him against the united persecutions of the Christians, the Magi, the Jews, and the Pagans, was shut up in a strong castle to preserve him from his enemies. They add, that after the death of Hormizdas, Varanes I. his successor, first protected Manes, but afterwards gave him up to the fury of the Magi, whose resentment against him was owing to his having adopted the Sadducean principles, as some say; while others attribute it to his having mingled the tenets of the Magi with the doctrines of Christianity. However, it is certain that the Manicheans celebrated the day of their master's death. It has been a subject of much controversy whether Manes was an impostor. The learned Dr Lardner has examined the arguments on both sides; and though he does not incline to deny that he was an impostor, he does not discern evident proofs of it. He acknowledges, that he was an arrogant philosopher and a great schemist; that he was much too fond of philosophical notions, which he endeavoured to bring into religion; nevertheless, he observes, that every bold dogmatist is not an impostor. St Epiphanius gives a catalogue of several pieces published by Manes, and adds extracts out of some of them. These are the *Mysteries, Chapters, Gospel, and Treasury*.

(2.) **MANES**, the 1st K. of Lydia. See *LYDIA*, § 2.

(3.) \* **MANES**. *n. f.* [Latin.] Ghost; shade; that which remains of man after death.—

Hail, O ye holy *manes*! hail again,  
Paternal asses! *Dryden*.

(4.) **MANES**, is a poetical term, signifying the shades or souls of the deceased. The heathens used a variety of ceremonies and sacrifices to appease the manes of those who were deprived of burial. See *LEMURES* and *LEMURIA*.

(5.) **MANES DII** were the same with *INFERI*, or the infernal gods, who tormented men; and to these the heathens offered sacrifices to alluage their indignation. The heathen theology is a little obscure with regard to these gods Manes. Some hold, that they were the souls of the dead; others, that they were the *GENII* of men; which last opinion suits best with the etymology of the word. The heathens, in fact, used the word in several senses; sometimes for ghosts of the departed, sometimes for the infernal or subterraneous deities; and in general for all divinities that presided over tombs. The evocation of the manes of the dead seems to have been very frequent among the Thessalians; but it was expressly prohibited by the Romans. See *LARES*.

**MANETHO**, an ancient Egyptian historian, who pretended to take all his accounts from the sacred inscriptions on the pillars of Hermes Trismegistus. He was high priest of Heliopolis under Ptolemy Philadelphus, at whose request he wrote his history in Greek; beginning from their

gods, and continued it down to near th Darius Coddomanus. His history of I celebrated work, often quoted by Jot other ancient authors. Julius African abridgement of it in his *Chronology*. I works is however lost; and there onl some fragments extracted from Julius I which are to be found in Eusebius *Cbro*

**MANFALOUT**, or } a town of Egi  
**MANFLOT**, } W. bank of ti  
**MANFRED**. See **MANFREDONIA**,  
**PLES**.

**MANFREDI**, Euface, a celebrated n cian, born at Bologna in 1674, where l lected mathematical professor in 1698. made a member of several academies, i red great reputation by his *Ephemerid* 4to, as well as by other works. He die

**MANFREDONIA**, a port town of 2 the Gulph of Venice, built on the ruins ciant Sipontum. See *SIPONTUM*. It re name from its founder King **MANFR** transplanted hither the few inhabitant mained at Sipontum, and attracted oth to it by various privileges and exemp order to found it under the most favour ces, he called together all the famous of astrology (a science in which both h father placed great confidence), and ca to calculate the happiest hour and minu ing the first stone. He himself drew traced the walls and streets, superint works, and by his presence and largesit the workmen to finish them in a t time. The port was secured from sic pier, the ramparts were built of the materials, and in the great tower was bell of so large a size, as to be heard or plain of Capitanata, in order to alarm th in case of an invasion. Charles of An wards removed the bell to Bari, and of the shrine of St Nicholas, as a thankf the recovery of one of his children. In all the precautions taken by Manfred to brilliant fortune to his new city, neithe ertions nor the horoscopes of his astrolo been able to render it opulent or powe present, (Mr Swinburn says,) it scarce inhabitants, though most of the corn from the province is shipped off here, an trade carried on with Venice and Gr which reason there is a lazaretto establi 1620, the Turks landed and pillaged Mar All sorts of vegetables abound here, fo and succulency vastly superior to those continual waterings in the cineritious soi ples. Fish are plentiful and cheap. It is NE. of Naples, and 150 SE. of Ancona. 12. E. Lat. 41. 36. N.

\* **MANFUL**. *adj.* [man and ful.] Bol daring.—

A handful

It had devour'd, it was so *manful*.

\* **MANFULLY**. *adv.* [from *manful*.] stoutly.—Artemisia behaved herself *man* great fight at sea, when Xerxes stood by ard. *Abbot*.—



I flew him *manfully* in fight,  
Without false 'vantage. *Shak.*  
He that with this Christian armour *manfully*  
fights against, and repels, the temptations and  
assaults of his spiritual enemies; he that keeps  
conscience void of offence, shall enjoy peace  
here, and for ever. *Ray on Creation.*

\* **MANFULNESS.** *n. f.* [from *manful*, Stout-  
ness; boldness.

**MANGALORE**, a town of Indostan, in Cana-  
on the coast of Malabar, where a treaty of  
peace was signed between the British and Tip-  
o Sultan, in 1784. It has a good harbour and  
is a trade. The Portuguese have a factory in it,  
and a warehouse for rice, &c. The people are  
Malabars and partly Mahometans. It is 124 m.  
NW. of Seringapatam. Lon. 72. 42. E. Lat.  
5. 50. N.

1.) \* **MANGANESE.** *n. f.* [*manganēsa*, low-  
tin.] *Manganese* is a name the glassmen use for  
many different substances, that have the same ef-  
fect in clearing the foul colour of their glass: it  
is properly an iron ore of a poorer sort. *Hill.*—  
*Manganese* is rarely found but in an iron vein.  
*Woodward.*

2.) \* **MANGANESE, MAGNESIA NIGRA, OR  
BLACK MAGNESIA**, is a dark coloured mineral, or  
kind of Pseudo-Loadstone, dug up in Germany,  
Italy, and in Mendip hills, in Somersetshire. It  
is employed in glass-works for purifying glass, by  
taking away the colour it has already, or by sur-  
adding a new colour to it. It is also used in  
making earthen ware to which it communicates a  
black colour. It has sometimes been called *the  
soul of glass*. See **CHEMISTRY, Index**, and **GLASS-  
MAKING, Sect. III**, and **XIV**.

3.) **MANGANESE, COMBINATIONS OF.** See  
**CHEMISTRY, Index**.

4.) **MANGANESE, DISCOVERY, PROPERTIES,  
AND PHENOMENA OF.** This substance, called  
*the glass-maker's manganese*, is the calx of a new  
metal, whose properties were first investiga-  
ted by Mr Scheele in the *Stockholm Memoirs* for  
1774; and afterwards more fully by Dr Gahn,  
and several other chemists. Its colour is of a dusky  
white; and its surface uneven and irregular,  
owing to its imperfect fusion. It is bright and  
shining when first broken, but tarnishes by expo-  
sure to air much sooner than any other metallic  
calx. Its specific gravity is 6.850: it equals,  
in weight, does not exceed, iron in hardness, as well as  
in ductility of fusion. When reduced to powder,  
it becomes maguetical, though large pieces of it  
are not so. When exposed to the air, it soon  
changes into a blackish brown powder, some-  
times heavier than the regulus itself; and this ef-  
fect is sooner produced in a moist than a dry air.  
When united with manganese is very malleable,  
and scarce any traces of the red colour are to be  
seen on the surface when polished, but the mix-  
ture sometimes has a green efflorescence by age.  
Its decomposition by air is very remarkable. A  
piece of it newly made, when put into a dry bot-  
tle well corked, remained perfect for six months;  
afterwards, when exposed only for two days  
to the open air of a chamber, contracted a brown  
colour on the surface, and became so friable as to  
fall into powder between the fingers, the

internal parts only retaining an obscure metallic  
splendour, which also disappeared in a few hours.  
See **CHEMISTRY, Index**. Mr Scheele laboured ex-  
ceedingly to decompose this substance, and to  
discover its component parts; but he candidly  
acknowledges, that he did not succeed in this in-  
vestigation according to his wish. And as the whole  
of his experiments and conclusions were made up-  
on the exploded hypothesis of **PHLOGISTON**, it  
is unnecessary to recapitulate them.

5.) **MANGANESE, EXPERIMENTS WITH, AND  
EFFECTS OF, ON GLASS FLUXES, &c.** Mr Scheele  
enumerates the effects of Manganese on glass fluxes  
as follows: 1. A colourless glass flux becomes  
constantly more or less red on addition of manga-  
nese, according to the quantity. 2. If the flux  
be a little alkaline, the colour will approach to  
violet. 3. Arsenic, gypsum, and calx of tin, de-  
stroy the red colour in these glasses, and thus ren-  
der them clear. 4. If glass coloured red by manga-  
nese be fused in a crucible with powdered char-  
coal, the colour disappears during the efferve-  
scence without the addition of gypsum or calx of  
tin; but on keeping the glass a long time in fu-  
sion upon charcoal, by means of the blow-pipe,  
the colour does not disappear. Nay, if the col-  
ourless glass be kept in this state for a short time  
upon charcoal, it grows red again. 5. By add-  
ing a little sulphur, the colour disappears; and  
the same thing takes place on the addition of any  
metallic calx or any neutral salt containing the  
vitriolic acid. But all metals whose calces colour  
glass, while they deprive it of that which it has  
received from the manganese, communicate their  
own peculiar colour to it. If to such a colour-  
less glass globule, nitre, even in the smallest quan-  
tity, be added, it presently grows red again; and  
the same thing happens if such a colourless glass  
globule be kept in fusion for a few minutes upon  
an iron plate; and thus the red colour may be  
made to appear and disappear as often as we  
please. Mr Scheele also made the following ex-  
periment, to determine whether the green colour  
of bottle glass proceeds from iron or not. Having  
melted green glass by the blow-pipe on a piece of  
the same substance, left, in using a crucible, he  
should have been deceived by the iron it contain-  
ed, he poured upon it a large quantity of mu-  
stic acid; and having extracted a tincture, and  
poured into it a few drops of the solution of Prus-  
sian alkali, it assumed a bluish colour. Hence  
he concludes, that iron, nearly in its metallic  
form, is present in common green glass; for its  
calx always gives a yellowish colour to glass,  
and manganese added to a solution of iron in ac-  
ids destroys the green colour, substituting a yel-  
low one in its room; and in like manner, when  
added to green glass in fusion takes away its col-  
our. The same effect is produced by manganese,  
if added in proper quantity; though, according  
to the experiments of Mr Scheele, somewhat of a  
yellowish colour ought to have been communi-  
cated by it; and he is of opinion that it was really  
so, though the quantity of iron was too small to  
render it distinctly visible. It is also remarkable,  
that the rays of light passing through glass of this  
kind, when nearly red hot, appear of a yellowish  
colour. Mr Engstrom's experiments on this sub-

ject are somewhat different from those of Mr Scheele. Having melted manganese and borax together upon a piece of charcoal, the glass at first assumed the common colour of manganese; but this was repeatedly destroyed, and made to appear without adding any thing. During the operation he took notice of the following phenomena: 1. When a small quantity of manganese was taken, the colour was light, but with a larger it became nearly black; and whatever colour it assumed on the first fusion was manifested also at the second, when it was made to reappear. 2. Manganese, on being melted with borax, effervesces violently; which ceases, however, as soon as the manganese is dissolved. 3. To make the colour of the glass disappear, it was necessary only to direct the blue flame of the candle upon the glass, and that equally and constantly, but not very violently. On blowing more faintly, and allowing the brown flame to touch the place, the colour returned. 4. About the time that the glass becomes colourless, a kind of section or partition is observed in it; and as soon as the colour disappears, the blowing must be immediately discontinued, so that the brown flame shall not afterwards touch the glass. When it is taken out with the forceps, it appears perfectly colourless. 5. This destruction of the colour seems not to happen suddenly, but by degrees; for when the blowing was now and then discontinued before the true mark had appeared, the glass was generally lighter than before, though not quite colourless. Though our author had been able to discharge the colour thus from glass, and to make it reappear, it seemed doubtful whether this could be done frequently; for having blown the blue flame violently against some glass, the colour of which he had already twice discharged and made to reappear, he found that it could not again be discharged even by constant blowing for an hour. In another experiment, having added a large quantity of manganese, he found that the glass retained its colour even in the utmost heat he could give it, though it always became colourless when warm, but regained its colour in the cool. In both these experiments the violence of the flame had dispersed and driven off some small globules, which always remained colourless: the reason of this he thinks is, that manganese, or its colouring part, has a strong attraction for a small part only of borax; and that, by means of a violent heat, the superfluous part may be separated, and the rest unite more closely with the earthy particles. The same thing happened likewise with the small globules, which sometimes remained after the mass was taken away, fixed to the charcoal by the violence of the flame. "If this is really the case (says he), it would follow, that, by repeating the experiment, some of these particles would always separate if a sufficiently strong flame was applied, and it would be impossible to expel the red colour afterwards. I dare not, however, advance this conjecture, though it is grounded on some experiments as a matter of certainty." Cronstedt observes, that manganese communicates a colour both to glasses and saline solutions. Borax, which has dissolved it, becomes transparent, and assumes a reddish brown

or hyacinthine colour; the microcosmic salt becomes transparent, of a crimson colour, and mottles in the air. In compositions for glass it becomes violet with the fixed alkali; but if a great quantity of manganese be added, the glass is in thick lumps and looks black; by scorification with lead the glass obtains a reddish brown colour. Manganese deflagrates with nitre; and the residuum, when thus deflagrated, communicates a deep red colour to its lixivium. The calx, when reckoned to be light, weighs as much as an iron ore of the same texture. It ferments with vitreous compositions, and still more when melted with the microcosmic salt. The colours communicated by manganese to glasses are easily destroyed by the calx of tin or arsenic, and likewise vanish of themselves in the air. According to Dr Brunnich, manganese, when melted with zinc, assumes a green colour. Tin unites very readily with manganese; but zinc not without great difficulty, perhaps on account of its volatility and inflammable nature. White arsenic adheres to it, and reduces it to a metallic form. By simple calcination a blackish powder is produced; but if the ignition be continued for 12 days, it acquires a dark green colour; producing also, sometimes, one of a white or reddish colour. All these various calces, by means of a sufficient degree of heat in a common crucible, run into a yellowish red glass, which is pellucid, unless from too great thickness.

(6.) MANGANESE, NATIVE. The surprising facility of decomposition of manganese, (see § 4.) might lead us to suppose that no such thing as native manganese could exist in the earth. In the *Journal de Physique* for Jan. 1786, however, M. de Peyrouse gives an account of a native regulus of manganese, the properties of which are as follow: 1. In appearance it very much resembles the artificial regulus. (See CHEMISTRY, § 826.) 2. It dirties the fingers by handling. 3. None of its particles are in the least affected by the magnet. 4. It is composed of laminæ having a kind of divergence among themselves. 5. Its metallic brilliancy is the same with that of the artificial regulus, and it has a partial malleability. 6. When repeatedly hammered, it exhibits a kind of exfoliation, forming itself into very thin leaves. 7. Its opacity and density are so completely similar to the artificial regulus, that were it not for the matrix in which the latter is imbedded, it would be in a manner impossible to distinguish them. This regulus is not found in large masses, or in any solid continuous body, but only in clots or lumps inclosed and intermixed with the powdery or calciform ore. These lumps are somewhat flattened or compressed in their form like the artificial ones, though for the most part they are of a larger size. This powdery magnesian ore, in which the reguline lumps are imbedded, has an argentine lustre, as if the materials had been subjected to some violent heat upon the spot. This regulus was found among the iron mines of Sem, in the valley of Fardos, in the late county of Foix, (now in the department of the Ariège,) near the Pyrenean mountains.

(7.) MANGANESE, ORES OF. See CHEMISTRY, § 828. Manganese is found in a calciform form

colours. M. de Magellan observes, that acid is the only mineralizer of this femi-dry slate. The black manganese seems decayed particles of that which is indurated; the latter is met with either pure, or in lumps seemingly composed of concentric strata, but very rarely, it is met with colour. Cronstedt informs us, that he found this from Norway. He found it derived from the common kind by giving colour to borax in the fire. By calcination it assumes a reddish brown colour. The ore, above mentioned, contains but a very small portion of iron. Rinman found it both white crystals and in round masses in the quartz, and adhering to glauz-blende: it is rather less than limestone, the texture, and the substance scarcely magnetic; it affords a colourless solution in acid, from which mild alkalis throw its precipitate turning black with heat and its itself. The white ore has also been stated on the surface of some iron ores, and hæmatites. Mr Rinman also met the form of calcareous spar of the common, somewhat shining, and covered over with a sooty powder. It is found in pieces, transparent at the edges, but enough to strike fire. This consists of bedded in zeolite. It melts *per se* with a blow-pipe into a whitish grey porous with the addition of calcined borax net colour to glass. According to Kirwan, some of the white sparry iron ores may be composed of manganese, as they contain less semimetal than of iron. Red man-uid to be found in Piedmont; but Cronstedt saw it. He was credibly informed variety is free from iron, and gives rather violet colour to glass. Mr Kirwan has this kind has less fixed air and more white kind. It is also joined with earth, calcareous earth, ponderous spar. It is found either loose or semi-indurated matrix of calcareous spar, on talc, or hæmatites or other iron ores. It is likewise in heavy hard masses of lamellar, or equable texture, or crystallized in rhomboids, or short brittle needles. It is also met with in a state of union.

This is black, with a metallic splen-our, is the kind commonly employed in earthenware and potteries. There are several varieties of this stone in the mountains round Bath and Mendip hills, of which the Bristol potters use great quantities. The black ores of manganese are little from the brown ones. They are found either crystallized as the red ores, in masses, some of which have a metallic lustre; but others are dull, earthy, and mixed in quartz, or in a loose earthy matrix. Its specific gravity is about 4000. The black ore is met with either solid and of a crystalline, steel-grained, radiated, or crystalline: Perigord stone belongs to this species. See PERIGORD, § 2. BLACK WADDER is a dark brown colour, partly in powder,

and partly indurated and brittle. If  $\frac{1}{2}$  lb. of it be dried before the fire, and then suffered to cool for an hour, and 2 oz. of linseed oil afterwards added, mixing the whole loosely like barm with flour, little clots will be formed, and, in something more than half an hour the whole will grow hot, and at last burst into flame. The heat of the room in which this experiment was tried might be about 30° of Fahrenheit, and the heat to which it was exposed in drying about 130°. According to Wedgwood's Analysis, this ore contains 43 parts of manganese, as much iron,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  of lead, and near 5 of micaceous earth. Mr Scheele found manganese existing in the ashes of vegetables: (See CHEMISTRY, § 825;) but not equally in all; for he found that wood ashes contain much more than those of the THYMUS SERPILLUM.

(8.) MANGANESE, OXYDES OF. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*.

\* MANGCORN. *n. f.* [*mengen*, Dutch, to mingle.] Corn of several kinds mixed: as, wheat and rye. It is generally pronounced *mungcorn*.

(1.) \* MANGE. *n. f.* [*démangeaison*, Fr.] The itch or scab in cattle.—The sheep died of the rot, and the swine of the *mange*. *Ben Jonson*.—

Tell what crisis does divine

The rot in sheep, or *mange* in swine? *Hudibras*.

(2.) MANGE. Dogs are subject to the mange from being fed too high, and allowed no exercise or any opportunity of refreshing themselves with dog-grass; or by being starved at home, which will cause them to eat the vilest stuff abroad, such as carrion, or even human excrement; or by want of water, and sometimes by not being kept clean in their kennel, or by foundering and melting in their grease. Any of these will heat the blood to a great degree, and make them mangy. The cure may be effected by giving brimstone powdered fine, either in milk or mixed up with butter, and rubbing them well every day for a week with an ointment made up of some of the brimstone and pork lard, to which add a small quantity of oil of turpentine. Or, boil 4 ounces of quicksilver in two quarts of water to half the quantity; bathe them every day with this water, and let them have some of it to lick till the cure is perfected. Or, a small quantity of trooper's ointment rubbed on the parts on its first appearance will cure it. It will also free lousy puppies from their lice. Or, take 2 oz. of euphorbium; flour of sulphur, Flanders oil of bays, and soft soap, each 4 oz. Anoint and rub the dog with it every other day; give him warm milk, and no water. The cure will be performed in about a week. Or, take two handfuls of wild cresses, and as much elecampene, and also of the leaves and roots of roerb and sorrel, and 2 lb. of the roots of foderles: boil these well together in lee and vinegar; strain the decoction, and put into it 2 lb. of grey soap, and when it is melted, rub the dog with it 4 or 5 days, and it will cure him.

(3.) MANGE, in horses. See FARRIERY, Part III, Sect. XIV, § III.

MANGEART, Thomas, a Benedictine of the congregation of St Vanne and St Hippolyte, whose learning was an ornament to his order, and procured him the offices of antiquarian, librarian, and counsellor, to Charles duke of Lorraine. He was

preparat

preparing a very considerable work when he died, A. D. 1763, before he had quite finished his book; which was published by Abbé Jacquin, in 1763, in folio, entitled, *Introduction à la science des Médailles, pour servir à la connoissance des Dieux, de la Religion, des Sciences, des Arts, et de tout ce qui appartient à l'Histoire ancienne, avec les preuves tirées des Médailles*. The elementary treatises on the numismatic science were not sufficiently extensive, and the particular dissertations were by far too prolix. This learned Benedictine has collected into a single volume all the principles contained in the former, and all the ideas of any consequence, which are to be found scattered through the latter. His work may serve as a supplement to Montfaucon's *Antiquity explained*. He likewise wrote a volume of *sermons*; and a *Treatise on Purgatory*; Nancy, 1739, 2 vols 12mo.

MANGEEA, or MANGYA, a populous island in the South Sea, discovered by Capt. Cook, in 1777. Lon. 201. 53. E. Lat. 21. 57. S.

MANGEL-WURZEL, or the ROOT OF SCARCITY, a root much celebrated as food for both men and cattle. It is a species of *Beta*. See BETA, § II, N<sup>o</sup> 1. It is a biennial plant; the root is large and fleshy, sometimes a foot in diameter. It rises above ground several inches, and is thickest at the top, tapering gradually downward. The colours of the roots vary; being white, yellow, and red. It is good fodder for cows, and produces great plenty of leaves, which are very palatable and wholesome for cattle. It is chiefly cultivated in Germany.

MANGENOT, Lewis, a canon of the temple at Paris, where he was born A. D. 1694, and died in 1768, aged 74. He was a social poet, and an amiable man. But though lively and agreeable in his conversation, his character leaned somewhat towards civilised misanthropy. His Poems were published at Amsterdam in 1776, and contain two eclogues, natural, simple, and elegant; tables, some of which are well composed; tales, which are by no means licentious; moral reflections, sentences, madrigals, &c. &c.

(1.) \* MANGER. *n. f.* [*manger*, French.] The place or vessel in which animals are fed with corn.—A chubbil cur got into a *manger*, and there lay growling to keep the horses from their provender. *L'Étrange*.

(2.) A MANGER is a raised trough under the rack in a stall, for receiving the grain that a horse eats.

(3.) MANGER, in a ship of war, is a small apartment, extended athwart the lower deck immediately within the haufeholes, and fenced on the after-part by a partition, which separates it from the other part of the deck behind it. This partition serves as a fence against the water, which occasionally gushes in at the haufeholes, or falls from the wet cable whilst it is heaved in by the capstan. The water, thus prevented from running off, is immediately returned into the sea by several small channels, called *scuppers*, cut through the ship's side within the manger. The manger is therefore particularly useful in giving a contrary direction to the water that enters at the haufeholes, which would otherwise run aft in great streams upon the lower deck, and render it

extremely wet and uncomfortable, tempestuous weather, to the men sleep in different parts thereof.

MANGERTON, mountains of Iry; 6 miles S. of Killarney.

MANGET, John James, an emigrant, born at Geneva, in 1652. The Brandenburg made him his first physician in which post he continued till he died in 1742. He wrote many works known of which are, 1. *Æ collecti Pharmacopœias*, in folio. 2. *Bibliotheca cutico-medica*. 3. *Bibliotheca anatomica chemica*. 5. *Bibliotheca chirurgicalis* of all the authors who had medicine, in 4 vols folio. All these Latin. Daniel le Clerc, the author of *Physic*, assisted him in writing them.

MANGHAGE, a mountain in AN

MANGHASIA, a river of ANOSSI

MANGIFERA, the MANGO TREE

a genus of the monogynia order, of the pentandria class of plants, and of the natural method ranking with those of which is doubtful. The corolla is pentapetalous kidney-shaped. There is but one native of many parts of the East Indies has been transplanted to Brazil and parts of America. It grows to a large tree, the wood is brittle, the bark rough which leaves are 7 or 8 inches long, and 2 inches broad. The flowers are produced in panicles at the ends of the branches, and are supported by large oblong kidney-shaped pedicels, when fully ripe, is greatly esteemed in countries where it grows; but in Europe only the unripe fruit brought over in attempts to propagate the plant have proved ineffectual; and Mr Miller is of opinion the stones will not vegetate unless they are sown soon after they are ripe. He thinks that the young plants ought to be boxed with earth; after which they may be transplanted to the stove.

\* MANGINESS. *n. f.* [from *mangle* and *ness*; infection with the mangle.]

To MANGLE. *v. a.* [*mangle*, French, I wanting; *manus*, Latin.] To lacerate or tear piece-meal; to butcher.—

—Ours may you suspect  
Who they should be, that thus kill  
you?

Your dishonour  
*Mangle* true judgment.

Thoughts my tormentors arm'd  
with flings,

*Mangle* my apprehensive tenderness  
The triple porter of the Stygian hell  
With lolling tongue, lay sawing at  
And seiz'd with fear, forgot his  
meat.

What could swords or poisons,  
flame,

But *mangle* and disappoint this British  
More fatal Henry's words; they were  
my's fame.

—It is hard, that not one gentleman  
should read her tongue; as any one

them when they are disposed to or a novel, where the least word out of road disconcerts them. *Swift*.—ned the most obdurate consonants intervening vowel, only to shorten that most of the books we see now—of those *manglings* and abbrevia—Inextricable difficulties occur by ente, and curtailing authors. *Baker*. **ER.** *n. f.* [from *mangle*.] A hacker; oys bunglingly.—

r thee may rise an impious line, lers of the human face divine. *Tichel*. **GO.** *n. f.* [*mangostan*.] A fruit of ; brought to Europe pickled. The husk, when very young, makes a and is used to pickle like *mangoes*. d of old would bid his cook prepare rtargo, champignons, cavare. *King*.

. See MANGIFERA. **ΓΑΝΑ,** or } See GARCINIA. **ΓΕΙΝ.** } **ROVE.** See RHIZOPHORA. **OVE,** in geography, a river of New ch runs into Mercury Bay. See , § 7.

**ILAK,** a town of Turcomania, . *adj.* [from *mange*.] Infected with lbbly.—

ou issue of a *mangy* dog !  
ec thee.

*Sbak*. **IZBERG,** the N. Part of Austria. **TER.** *n. f.* [*man* and *bater*.] Mis- that hates mankind.

**EIM,** a beautiful city of Germany, e of the Rhine, with a very strong palace; seated at the confluence of d Rhine. The streets are all straight ach other at right angles. The pop- ut 24,000. It is almost surround- ne and the Neckar; and has 3 grand ted with basso-relievos finely execut- ed there is a collection of pictures uriosities. It has a strong fort op- W. bank of Rhine, which was invest- in Nov. 1794, but being garrison- n, did not surrender till the 24th of y was taken on the 20th Oct. 1795. NE. of Spire, and 10 W. of Heidel- . 33. E. Lat. 49. 25. N.

**IM,** a town of Maine, in Lincoln. **HEIM,** 2 towns of Pennsylvania: 1. in ty, 11 miles NW. of Lancaster: 2. y.

**IM GOLD.** See CHEMISTRY, *Ind*. **HOOD.** *n. f.* [from *man*.] 1. Hu- In Seth was the church of God esta- whom Christ descended, as touching *Raleigh*.—

Not therefore joins the son Godhead, with more strength to foil

. *Milton*.  
t womanhood.—

y pow'r to be a sovereign now,  
ng more, to make, his *manhood* bow.  
t childhood.—

of *manhood* daring, bold and ventu-  
*Sbak*.

PART II.

By fraud or force the suitor train destroy,  
And starting into *manhood*, scorn the boy. *Pope*.  
4. Courage; bravery; resolution; fortitude.— Nothing so hard but his valour overcame; which he so guided with virtue, that although no man was spoken of but he for *manhood*, he was called the courteous Amphialus. *Sidney*.

(2.) **MANHOOD** is that stage of life which succeeds puberty or adolescence. See **MAN.** § 1, 12.

**MANIA,** or **MADNESS.** See **MEDICINE,** *Ind*.

\* **MANIAC.** } *adj.* [*maniacus*, Lat.] Raging  
\* **MANIACAL.** } with madness; mad to rage.  
—Epilepsics and *maniacal* lunacies usually conform to the age of the moon. *Greav*.

**MANICAMP,** a town of France, in the dept. of Oise; 5 miles E. of Noyon.

**MANICHEÏ,** } a sect of ancient heretics,  
**MANICHEANS,** or } who asserted two prin-  
**MANICHEES,** } ciples; so called from

their author *Manes* or *Manicheus*. See **MANES**, N° 1. This heresy had its first rise about A. D. 277, and spread principally in Arabia, Egypt, and Africa. St Epiphanius treats of it at great length. It was a motley mixture of the tenets of Christianity with the ancient philosophy of the Persians, in which Manes had been instructed during his youth. He combined these two systems, and applied and accommodated to Jesus Christ the characters and actions which the Persians attributed to the God MITHRAS. He established two principles, a good and an evil one: the first a most pure and subtle matter, which he called *light*, did nothing but good; and the second a gross and corrupt substance, which he called *darkness*, nothing but evil. This philosophy is very ancient; and Plutarch treats of it at large in his *Isis and Osiris*. Our souls, according to Manes, were made by the good principle, and our bodies by the evil one; these two principles being, according to him, coeternal, and independent of each other. Each of these is subject to the dominion of a superintendent being, whose existence is from all eternity. The being who presides over the *light* is called *God*; he that rules the land of *darkness* bears the title of *hyie* or *demon*. The ruler of the *light* is supremely happy, and in consequence thereof benevolent and good: the prince of *darkness* is unhappy in himself, and desirous of rendering others partakers of his misery, and is evil and malignant. These two beings have produced an immense number of creatures, resembling themselves, and distributed them through their respective provinces. After a contest between the ruler of *light* and the prince of *darkness*, in which the latter was defeated, this prince of *darkness* produced the first parents of the human race. The beings engendered from this original stock, consist of a body formed out of the corrupt matter of the kingdom of darkness, and of two souls; one of which is sensitive and lustful, and owes its existence to the evil principle; the other rational and immortal, a particle of that divine light which had been carried away in the contest by the army of darkness, and immersed into the mass of malignant matter. The earth was created by God out of this corrupt mass of matter, in order to be a dwelling for the human race, that their captive souls might by degrees be delivered from their

N a n a corporeal

were accomplished, he returned to his throne in the sun, appointing apostles to propagate his religion, and leaving his followers the promise of the Paraclete or Comforter, who is Manes the Persian. Those souls who believe Jesus Christ to be the son of God, renounce the worship of the god of the Jews, who is the prince of darkness, and obey the laws delivered by Christ, and illustrated by Manes the comforter, are gradually purified from the contagion of matter; and their purification being completed, after having passed through two states of trial, by water and fire, first in the moon and then in the sun, their bodies return to the original mass (for the Manicheans denied the resurrection of bodies), and their souls ascend to the regions of light. But the souls of those who have neglected the salutary work of purification, pass after death into the bodies of other animals or natures, where they remain till they have accomplished their probation. Some, however, more perverse and obstinate, are consigned to a severer course of trial, being delivered over for a time to the power of malignant aerial spirits, who torment them in various ways. After this, a fire shall break forth and consume the frame of the world; and the prince and powers of darkness shall return to their primitive seats of anguish and misery, in which they shall dwell for ever. These mansions shall be surrounded by an invincible guard, to prevent their ever renewing a war in the regions of light. Manes borrowed many things from the ancient Gnostics; on which account many authors consider the Manicheans as a branch of the Gnostics. In truth, the Manichean doctrine was a system of philosophy rather than of religion. They made use of amulets, in imitation of the Basilidians; and are said to have made profession of astronomy and astrology. They denied

pass for apostolical writings, and are suspected to have forged several to maintain their errors. The rascals, which Manes prescribed most extravagantly rigorous austerities, he divided his disciples into two orders, which comprehended the perfect and feeble, under the names of the *elect*; and the *bearers*. The elect were obliged to observe entire abstinence from flesh, and all intoxicating drink, wedlock, and gratifications; and to live in a state of penury, nourishing their bodies with bread, herbs, pulse, and meagre meats. The bearers themselves of all the comforts of life, with moderate indulgence of nature, were to beget children from a variety of innocent and honest marriages. The auditors were allowed to possess lands, and wealth, to feed the poor, and to be free of the bonds of conjugal tenderness. The general assembly was granted them with many other conditions of penance. The general assembly was headed by a president, Jesus Christ. There were joined to them 12 apostles, and these were followed by 72 disciples. The images of the 72 disciples were placed in the churches, and the bishops had presbyters or deacons, and all the members of these orders were chosen out of the class of the elect. Their dress was simple and plain; and they were to be seen reading the scriptures, and performing the offices of piety, at which both the auditors and bearers were to be present. They observed baptism; and kept the Lord's day as a fast. They likewise kept the

menian, and an adherer to it; who took upon him to suppress the reading of all other books but the Evangelists and the Epistles of St Paul, and he explained in such a manner as to make contain a new system of Manicheism. He by discarded all the writings of his predecessors, rejecting the chimeras of the Valentiniens, their 30 sons; the fable of Manes, with respect to the origin of rain and other dreams; but retained the impurities of Basilides. In this he reformed Manicheism, inasmuch that Followers made no scruple of anathematizing Man, Buddas, called also *Addas* and *Tere-* the contemporaries and disciples, as some and, according to others, the predecessors masters of Manes; and even Manes himself,antine being now their great apostle. After seduced an infinite number of people, he at last stoned by order of the emperor. This prevailed in Bosnia and the adjacent provinces at the close of the 15th century; propagated doctrines with confidence, and held their religious assemblies with impunity.

**MANICORD,** or } a musical instrument in MANICORDON, } form of a spinet; with 50 stops, and 70 strings; which, like those in CLARICHORD, are covered with little pieces of cloth, to deaden as well as to soften their sound, and it is also called the *dumb spinet*. The strings bear on 5 bridges.

\*) \* **MANIFEST.** *adj.* [*manifestus*, Lat.] 1. open; open; not concealed; not doubtful; apparent.—They all concur as principles, they all their forcible operations thereon, although not a like apparent and *manifest* manner. *Hooker*. but which may be known of God is *manifest* them; for God hath shewed it unto them. *Rom.* —He was fore ordained before the foundation of the world, but was *manifest* in these last days for you. 1 *Pet.* i. 20.—

He full  
resplendent all his father *manifest*  
express'd. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.  
Thus *manifest* to fight the God appear'd. *Dryd.*  
I saw, I saw him *manifest* in view,  
his voice, his figure, and his gesture knew. *Dryd.*  
Detected: with *of*.—  
Calisto there stood *manifest* of shame,  
and, turn'd a bear, the northern star became. *Dryden*.

..) \* **MANIFEST.** *n. f.* [*manifeste*, Fr. *manifesto*, an.] Declaration; or publick protestation.—  
You authentick witnesses I bring,  
If this my *manifest*: that never more  
his hand shall combat on the crooked shore. *Dryden*.

To **MANIFEST.** *v. a.* [*manifestis*, Fr. *manifest-* Lat.] To make appear; to make publick; to explain; to discover.—  
Thy life did *manifest*; thou lov'dst me not;  
and thou wilt have me die assured of it. *Shak.*  
He that loveth me I will love, and *manifest* my-  
to him. *Job*, xiv. 21.—He was pleased himself  
to shame, and *manifest* his will in our flesh. *Wood-*

This perverse commotion  
If *manifest* thee worthwhile 'no be heir  
all things. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

Were he not by law withstood,  
He'd *manifest* his own inhuman blood. *Dryden*.  
—It may be part of our employment in eternity,  
to contemplate the works of God, and give him  
the glory of his wisdom *manifested* in the creation. *Ray on Creation*.

\* **MANIFESTATION.** *n. f.* [*manifestation*, Fr. from *manifest*.] Discovery; publication; clear evidence.—Though there be a kind of natural right in the noble, wise and virtuous, to govern them which are of servile disposition; nevertheless, for *manifestation* of this their right, the assent of them who are to be governed seemeth necessary. *Hooker*.—As the nature of God is excellent, so likewise is it to know him in those glorious *manifestations* of himself in the works of creation and providence. *Tillotson*.—The secret manner in which acts of mercy ought to be performed, requires this publick *manifestation* of them at the great day. *Asterb.*

\* **MANIFESTIBLE.** *adj.* [properly *manifestable*.] Easy to be made evident.—This is *manifestible* in long and thin plates of steel perforated in the middle, and equilibrated. *Brown*.

\* **MANIFESTLY.** *adv.* [from *manifest*.] Clearly; evidently; plainly.—We see *manifestly*, that sounds are carried with wind. *Bacon*.—Sects, in a state, seem to be tolerated, because they are already spread, while they do not *manifestly* endanger the constitution. *Swift*.

\* **MANIFESTNESS.** *n. f.* [from *manifest*.] Perspicuity; clear evidence.

(1.) \* **MANIFESTO.** *n. f.* [Italian.] Publick protestation; declaration.—It was proposed to draw up a *manifesto*, setting forth the grounds and motives of our taking arms. *Addison*.

(2.) A **MANIFESTO** is a publick declaration made by a prince in writing, showing his intentions to begin a war or other enterprise, with the motives that induce him to it, and the reasons on which he founds his rights and pretensions.

\* **MANIFOLD.** *adj.* [*many and fold*.] 1. Of different kinds; many in number; multiplied; complicated.—

When his eyes did her behold,  
Her heart did seem to melt in pleasures *manifold*. *Spenser*.

Terror of the torments *manifold*,  
In which the damned souls he did behold. *Spenser*.  
If that the king

Have any way your good deserts forgot,  
Which he confesseth to be *manifold*,  
He bids you name your griefs. *Shak. H. IV.*  
—If any man of quality will maintain upon Edward earl of Glo'ster, that he is a *manifold* traitor, let him appear. *Shak.*—They receive *manifold* more in this present time, and in the world to come life everlasting. *Luke*. xviii. 30.—To represent to the life the *manifold* use of friendship, see how many things a man cannot do himself. *Bacon's Essays*.—My scope in this experiment is *manifold*. *Boyle*.—We are not got further than the borders of the mineral kingdom, so very ample is it, so various and *manifold* its productions. *Woodward's Nat. Hist.* 2. *Milton* has an uncommon use of it.—

They not obeying  
Incurr'd, what cou'd they less? the penalty;  
And *manifold* in sin deserv'd to fall. *Milton*,  
N n n n a \* **MANI-**

MANILLA. SEE MANILLA, IN 1, 2.

MANILHA, a town of Spain, in Grenada.

MANILIUS, Marcus, a Latin poet, whose poem lay buried in some German libraries, and was not heard of until Poggius, about 1580, published it from some old MSS. he found there. There is no account to be found of him but what can be drawn from his poem, which is called *Astronomicum*; and contains a system of the ancient astronomy and astrology, together with the philosophy of the Stoics. It consists of 5 books; but there was a 6th, which has not been recovered. From the style, and no mention of the author being found in ancient writers, it is probable he died young. It is collected, however, that he was a Roman of illustrious extraction, and lived under the reign of Augustus, whom he invokes, though not by name, yet by circumstances and character that suit no other emperor. The best editions of Manilius are, that of Joseph Scaliger in 1600, and that of Bently at London in 1738.

MANILLA, MANILA, LUCONIA, or LUZON, the largest of the PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, in the East Indies, subject to Spain. It had the name of *Lucon* from a custom that prevailed among the natives of beating, or bruizing their rice in wooden mortars, before they either boiled or baked it; *Lucon*, in their language signifying a mortar. Its situation is remarkably happy, lying between the E. and W. continents, and having China on the N. at the distance of 60 leagues; the islands of Japan on the NE. about 250 leagues from the nearest of them; the ocean on the E. the other islands on the S. and on the W. Malacca, Patana, Sam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, and other provinces of India, the nearest at the distance of 300 leagues. The middle of this island is in Lat. 15° N. the E. point in 15° 38', and the most northern

rice grows even on the tops without being watered; and th so plentiful, that the Indians v as not to pick it up, though it where under their feet. Their ing mountains, but the face c from being disfigured by their are 40 different sorts of pain t cellent cocoas, wild cinnamon, some say wild cloves also; ebo the best cassia, and in such plen their hogs with its fruit; all ki prodigious quantities of gold, a grise. There are several forts island beside, the Spaniards, at Tagaleze, the Pintadoes, or pai Ilayas or Tinglianos, and the N GALIANS, who are thought to descent, are a modest, tractal poised people. The PINTADOES strong, active, and of an excellen TINGIANI, TINGLIANOS, or mo some suppose to be descended f are brave and humane. The I are held to be the Aborigines o barbarous and brutal to the la they kill a Spaniard, they make and drink out of it. This isla several provinces, containing d chief of which are MANILLA, govia, Bondo, Passacao, Ibaio con, or Bagatao, Lampon, Fer Playahonda, Cavite, Mindora, layan.

(2.) MANILLA, the capital of lies on the SE. side of it, where into the sea, and forms a noble in compass, which the Spania



It is inhabited by the Chinese merchants, called *neglers*. In proportion to the size of the place, the number of churches and religious houses is very great. Only small vessels can come up to Manila; but 9 miles S. of it is the town and port Cavite, defended by the castle of St Philip, and capable of receiving the largest ships. Here stands the arsenal where the galleons are built, which there are from 300 to 600 or 800 men constantly employed, who are relieved every month, and while on duty are maintained at the king's expence. By an earthquake, in 1745, a third part of the city was destroyed, and 3000 people perished in the ruins. In the German war, Spain having entered into an engagement with France, in consequence of the family compact, it was found expedient by Britain to declare war also against Spain. Whereupon a force was sent out from our India settlements, particularly Madras, for conquest of the Philippine Islands, under General Draper and Admiral Cornish; who, after a siege of 12 days, took Manila on the 6th Oct. 1762 by storm; but, to save so fine a city from destruction, agreed to accept a million Sterl. as a ransom, a part of which, it is said, was never paid. A Spanish viceroy resides in this city, and lives as a sovereign prince. The government is said to be one of the best under the king of Spain. When the city was taken, the archbishop, who is a legate of pope in this part of the world, was also destroyed. Five large ships, loaded with the riches of the east, as diamonds from Golconda, cinnamon from Ceylon, pepper from Sumatra and Java, cloves and nutmegs from the Moluccas and Banda Islands, camphire from Borneo, benjamin and cloves from Cambodia, silks, tea, and china ware from China, &c. sail from this port annually to Acapulco in Mexico, and return freighted with silver, making 400 per cent profit. This city is governed by two alcaldes: the rest of the cities and great towns have each an alcaide, and in every village there is a corregidore. Appeals from their sentences are made to the royal court at Manila, in which there are 4 judges, and a fiscal; each of these judges has a salary of 3300 dollars per annum. The viceroy is resident; and has a salary of 4000 dollars, but no vote; yet if the judges are equally divided, the president names a doctor of the civil law, who, in virtue of his appointment, has a decisive voice. The fiscal in right of his office is protector of the people, in consideration of which he receives 6000 dollars a-year. The Indians, who are in subjection, pay tribute in the following proportions: single men from 18, (if they continue single,) 50, pay five rials by way of capitation; as single women from 2, to 30: married men pay 10 rials. There are 250,000 Indians, subject to the king of Spain, of whom two thirds hold immediately from the king, and the rest from lords or proprietors, who pay 4 rials each. The royal revenue is computed at about half a million of dollars. The garrison consists of about 800 or 900 men, and there are about 3000 more in the city of the Philippines. The viceroy is captain general, with a salary of about 4000 dollars.

**MANILLE**, *n. f.* in commerce, a large brass in the form of a bracciet, either plain or en-

graven, flat or round. Manilles are the principal commodities which the Europeans carry to the coast of Africa, and exchange with the natives for slaves. These people wear them as ornaments on the small of the leg, and on the thick part of the arm above the elbow. The great men wear manilles of gold and silver; but these are made in the country by the natives.

**MANILLON**, a township of Pennsylvania, in Fayette county.

**MANINGCABO**, a kingdom of Sumatra, with its capital, on the SW. coast of the island.

**MANINGTREE**, a market town of Essex, on the Stour; 11 miles W. of Harwich, and 60 NE. of London. Lon. 1. 12. E. Lat. 52. 0. N.

**MANIOC**, **MANIHOT**. See **JATROPHA**, N° 5.

\* **MANIPLE**. *n. f.* [*manipulus*, Lat.] 1. A handful. 2. A small band of soldiers.

(2.) **MANIPLE**. See **MANIPULE**.

\* **MANIPULAR**. *adj.* [*manipulus*, Latin.] Relative to a manipule.

**MANIPULARII**. See next article.

(1.) **MANIPULE**, } among the Romans, was  
(1.) **MANIPULUS**, } a small body of infantry, which in the time of Romulus consisted of 100 men; and in the time of the consuls, and first Cæsars, of 200. The word properly signifies a *bandful*; (See **MANIPLE**;) and according to some, was first given to the bandful of hay which they bore at the end of a pole, to distinguish themselves, before the custom was introduced of bearing an eagle for their ensign; and hence also the phrase, a *bandful of men*. But Vegetius, Modestus, and Varro, gave other etymologies of the word: the last derives it from *manus*, a little body of men following the same standard. According to the former, this corps was called *manipulus*, because they fought hand, in hand or all together. Each manipule had two centuries or captains, called **MANIPULARII**, to command it; one whereof was lieutenant to the other. Each cohort was divided into three manipules, and each manipule into two centuries. Aulus Gellius quotes Cincius, an old author, who lived in the time of Hannibal (whose prisoner he was), and who, writing on the art of war, observes, that then each legion consisted of 60 centuries, of 30 manipules, and of 10 cohorts. Varro and Vegetius mention it as the least division in the army, only consisting of the 10th part of a century; and Spartan adds, that it contained only 10 men. This shows that it was not always the same.

(2.) **MANIPULUS**, in ecclesiastical affairs, an ornament worn by the priests, deacons, and subdeacons in the Romish church. It consists of a little fillet in form of a stole, 2 or 4 inches broad, and made of the same stuff with the chasuble; representing a handkerchief, which the priests in the primitive church wore on the arm, to wipe off their tears for the sins of the people. There still remains a mark of this usage in a prayer rehearsed by those who wear it; *Miserere, Domine, portare manipulum sicut S. dicitis*. The Greeks and Maronites wear two manipules, one on each arm.

(3.) **MANIPULUS**, among physicians, is used to signify a handful of herbs or leaves, or so much as a man can grasp in his hand at once; and is often denoted by the abbreviature, **M**, or **m**.

**MANIS**, the **SCALY LIZARD**, in zoology; a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of bruta, the characters of which are these: They have no fore teeth; the tongue is long and cylindrical; the snout is long and narrow; and the body is covered with hard scales. There are two species. See *Plate CCV. fig. 6 and 7.*

1. **MANIS PENTADACTYLA**, the *five-toed or short-tailed manis*, with 5 toes on each foot. The head is smaller than the neck; the eyes are very small; the length of the body, including the tail, is from 6 to 8 feet. The whole body is covered with hard scales, excepting the under part of the head and neck, the breast, the belly, and the internal side of each leg. Betwixt the scales of this animal there are some hairs like the bristles of a hog, brownish at the points. The scales are of a reddish colour, very hard, convex above, and concave below. All the parts which want scales are naked. The scales are unconnected; and the animal can raise or lower them at pleasure, like the quills of the porcupine. When irritated, he erects his scales, and rolls himself up like a hedgehog. In this situation, neither the lion, tiger, nor any other animal can hurt him. It is said to destroy the elephant by twisting itself round his trunk, and compressing that tender organ with its hard scales. It feeds on lizards and insects; turns up the ground with its nose; walks with its claws bent under its feet; grows very fat; and is esteemed delicate eating; and makes a noise like a kind of snorting. It is a mild inoffensive creature, is slow of motion, and has no other method of escaping the pursuit of man, but by concealing itself in crannies of rocks, and in holes which they dig in the ground, and where they bring forth their young. It is a native of the East Indies, and is very rare. Mr Pennant conjectures that it may be a native of Guinea; the **QUOULLI** of the Negroes, which, Des Marchais says, grows to the length of 8 feet, of which the tail is 4. It lives in woods and marshy places; feeds on ants, which it takes by laying its long tongue across their paths, which is covered with a viscous saliva, so that the insects which attempt to pass over it cannot extricate themselves.

2. **MANIS TETRADACTYLA**, the *four-toed or long-tailed manis*, with 4 toes on each foot. This species is very similar to the former; only the tail is much longer in proportion; and such parts as want scales, instead of being naked, are covered with a soft hair. It inhabits Guinea, and is also found in the East Indies.

**MANIVA**, a populous mountain of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio, and district of Verona. See **GIULEMO**.

\* **MANKILLER**. *n. f.* [*man and killer.*] Murderer.—

To kill *mankillers* man has lawful pow'r,  
But not th' extended licence to devour. *Dryd.*

(1.) \* **MANKIND**. *n. f.* [*man and kind.*] 1.

The race or species of human beings.—  
From them I will not hide

My judgments, how with *mankind* I proceed. *Milton.*

Ere while perplex'd with thoughts what  
would become

Of me and all *mankind.* *Milton.*

—Plato witnesseth, that soon after *mankind* began to increase, they built many cities. *Raleigh.*

All *mankind* alike require their grace,  
All born to want; a miserable race. *Ps.*

2. Resembling man not woman in form or stature.—

A *mankind* witch! hence with her, out  
door:

A most intelligency bawd!

(2.) **MANKIND**. See **HOMO**, and **MAN**, N<sup>o</sup> 1.

**MANKS**, the inhabitants of the Isle of Man. See **MAN**, N<sup>o</sup> II.

\* **MANLESS**. *adj.* [*man and less.*] Without men; not manned.—Sir Walter Raleigh was wont to say, the Spaniards were suddenly done away with squibs; for it was no more but a tagem of fire-boats *manless*, and sent upon the Armada at Calais by the favour of the wind in the night, that put them in such terror, as they cut their cables. *Bacon.*

**MANLEY**, Mrs, the celebrated writer of the *Atalantis*, was the daughter of Sir Roger Manley, the reputed author of the first volume of the *Fish Spy*, and born in Guernsey. She lost her parents very early; and having been deluded into a false marriage by her guardian, who was her cousin, and afterwards deserted her, she was patronized by the duchess of Cleveland, mistress of Charles II. But the duchess, being a woman of a very fickle temper, grew tired of Mrs Manley in 6 months; and discharged her upon a suspicion, that she intrigued with her son. After this she wrote her first tragedy, called *Royal Mischief*, which was acted with great applause in 1698; and her apartment being frequented by men of wit and gaiety, she soon engaged in amours, and was taken into keeping. She now became as licentious in her writings as in her morals; for, she wrote 4 vols, entitled *Memoirs of the New Atalantis*; in which she was not only very free in her wretched tales of love adventures, but satirized the characters of many distinguished personages, who had had a principal concern in the Revolution. A prosecution was commenced against her for this work; but those in power being ashamed to bring a woman to trial for a few amorous trifles, she was discharged; and, a total change of ministry ensuing, Mrs Manley lived in high reputation and society, amusing herself with the conversation of wits and writing plays, poems, and letters. After this she wrote *Lucius K. of Britain*, a tragedy; *Letters*, and other works. She died in 1714.

**MANLIEU**, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome; 7 miles E. of Issoire.

\* **MANLIKE**. *adj.* [*man and like.*] Having the complexion and proper qualities of man.—Such a right *manlike* man, as nature, often errs, yet shows she would fain make. *Sidney.*

\* **MANLINESS**. *adj.* [*from many.*] Dignity; bravery; stoutness.—Young master, willing to shew himself a man, lets himself loose to all irregularities; and thus courts credit and *manliness* in the casting off the modesty he has till then been kept in. *Locke.*

(1.) **MANLIUS**, a township of New York in Onondago county.

(2.) **MANLIUS CAPITOLINUS**, Titus, the renowned Roman consul and general, who lived

the capitol when it was attacked by the Gauls in the night; being alarmed by the cries of geese, which were ever after held sacred. But being afterwards accused of aspiring at the sovereignty, he was thrown from the Tarpeian rock. See ROME.

(3.) MANLIUS TORQUATUS, Titus, a celebrated consul and Roman general; had great wit, but a difficulty in expressing himself, which induced Manlius Imperiosus, his father, to keep him almost by force in the country. Pompey, tribune of the people, enraged at this instance of severity, formed a design of accusing Manlius the father before the judges; but young Manlius being informed of it, went to that tribune, and, with a poniard in his hand, made him swear that he would not proceed in that accusation against him to whom he owed his life. At length Manlius was made military tribune, and killed a soldier of the Gauls in single combat, from whose neck he took a gold chain, whence he was surnamed *Torquatus*. He was consul in the war against the Latins; when he barbarously ordered his own son to be beheaded, for fighting contrary to his orders, though he had gained the victory. He conquered the enemies of the republic, and was several times made consul; but at last refused the consulship, saying, That it was no more possible for him to bear with the vices of the people, than it was for the people to bear with his severity.

(1.) \* MANLY, *adj.* [from *man*.] 1. Manlike; becoming a man; firm; brave; stout; undaunted; undismayed.—

As did Æneas old Anchises bear,

So I bear thee upon my *manly* shoulders. *Shak.*

Let's briefly put on *manly* readiness,

And meet it th' hall together. *Shak.*

Serene and *manly*, harden'd to sustain.

The load of life, and exercis'd in pain. *Dryd.*

See great Marcellus! how inur'd in toils,

He moves with *manly* grace. *Dryd.*

2. Not womanish; not childish.—

I'll speak between the change of man and boy

With a reed voice; and turn two mincing steps

Into a *manly* stride. *Shak.*

(2.) \* MANLY, *adv.* [from *man*.] With courage like a man.

(1.) MANNA, in sacred history, a miraculous kind of food which fell from heaven for the support of the Israelites in their passage through the wilderness, being in form of coriander seeds, its colour like that of bdellium, and its taste like honey. Asaph styles it, the *bread of heaven*, and the *food of angels*, Psal. lxxviii. 24, whether to insinuate that the angels fed and prepared this food, or that angels themselves, if they had need of any food, could not have any more agreeable than manna. The author of the *Book of Wisdom* says, *Wis.* 20. 21. that manna so accommodated itself to every one's taste, that every one found it pleasing to him; and that it included every thing that was agreeable to the palate and fit for good nourishment; which expression some have taken in the literal sense, though others understand them figuratively. Critics are divided about the original of the word *manna*. Some think that *man* is put instead of the Hebrew word *mab*, which signifies

“What is this?” and that the Hebrews, then first seeing that new food which God had sent them, cried to one another, *מַה בָּנוּ* *man-bu*, instead of *mab-bu*, *What is this?* Mr Saumaïse and others maintain, that the Hebrews very well knew what manna was; and that, seeing it in great abundance about their camp, they said one to another, *מַה בָּנוּ*, *This is manna*. They imagine that the manna which God sent the Israelites was nothing else but that fat and thick dew which still falls in Arabia, which presently condensed, and served for food to the people; that this is the same thing as the wild honey, mentioned *Matth.* iii. 4. wherewith John the Baptist was fed; and that the miracle did not consist in the production of any new substance, but in the exact and uniform manner in which the manna was dispensed for the maintenance of such a great multitude. But the Hebrews and Orientals believe, that the fall of the manna was wholly miraculous. The Arabians call it the *sugar-plums of the Almighty*; and the Jews pronounce a curse against all who deny the interposition of a miraculous power. Our translation, and some others, make Moses fall into a contradiction in relating this miracle, by rendering it thus: And when the children of Israel saw it, they said one to another, *It is manna*; for they *knew not what it was*: *Exodus* xvi. 15. Whereas the Septuagint, and several authors, ancient and modern, have translated the text according to the original: “The Israelites seeing this, said one to another, *What is this?* for they knew not what it was.” The word by which they asked, *what is this?* was in Hebrew *man*, which signifies likewise *meat ready provided*; and therefore it was always afterwards called *man* or *manna*. Whether this manna had those extraordinary qualities in it or not, which some imagine, it was truly miraculous; because, 1. It fell but six days in the week. 2. It fell in such a prodigious quantity, as sustained nearly three millions of souls. 3. There fell a double quantity every Friday, to leave them the next day, being sabbath. 4. What was gathered on the first 5 days stunk and bred worms if kept above one day; but that which was gathered on Friday kept sweet for two days. And, lastly, It continued falling while the Israelites abode in the wilderness, but ceased as soon as they came out of it, and had got corn to eat in the land of Canaan.

(2.) \* MANNA, *n. f.* *Manna* is properly a gum, and is honey-like juice concreted into a solid form, seldom so dry but it adheres to the fingers: its colour is whitish, or brownish, and it has sweetness, and with it a sharpness that renders it agreeable: *manna* is the product of two different trees, both varieties of the ash: when the heats are free from rain, these trees exude a white honey juice, which concretes into what we call *manna*. It is but lately that the world were convinced of the mistake of *manna* being an aerial produce, by an experiment being made by covering a tree with sheets in the *manna* season, and the finding as much *manna* on it afterwards as on those which were open to the air and dew. *III.*—It would be well inquired, whether *manna* doth fall but upon certain herbs, or leaves only. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*—

The *manna* in heaven will suit every man's palate.  
*Locke.*

(3.) MANNA, in geography, a town in the isle of Sumatra, on the SW. coast, 300 miles SE. of Indrapour.

(4.) MANNA, in the materia medica, the juice of certain trees, of the ash kind, (see N° 2 and 5,) either naturally concreted on the plants, or exsiccated and purified by art. There are several sorts of manna in the shops. The larger pieces, called *flake manna*, are usually preferred; though the smaller grains are equally good, provided they are white, or of a pale yellow colour; very light, of a sweet, not unpleasant taste, and free from any visible impurities. Some injudiciously prefer the fat honey-like manna, but this has either been exposed to a moist air, or damaged by sea or other water. This kind of manna is said to be sometimes counterfeited by a composition of sugar and honey mixed with a little scammony; there is also a factitious manna, which is white and dry, said to be composed of sugar, manna, and some purgative ingredient, boiled to a proper consistence. This may be distinguished by its weight, solidity, untransparent whiteness, and by its taste, which is different from that of manna. Manna is a mild, agreeable laxative; and may be given with safety to children and pregnant women; though in some constitutions, it produces flatulencies and distensions of the viscera; but these inconveniences may be prevented by the addition of any grateful warm aromatic. It operates so weakly, that it does not produce the full effect of a cathartic, unless taken in large doses; and hence it is rarely given in this intention by itself. It may be commodiously dissolved in the purging mineral waters, or joined to the cathartic salts, fenna, rhuubarb, or the like. Geoffroy recommends, acuating it with a few grains of emetic tartar; by this management, he says, bilious ferum will be plentifully evacuated, without any nausea, gripe, or other inconvenience. Vallisnièni says, that the efficacy of this drug is greatly promoted by a substance which is itself very slow of operation, *diversella*. See CAUSTIC, p. III, N° 2.

(5.) MANNA TREE, a species of the ash, and a native of Calabria. See PRAXINUS. The shoots of this tree are much shorter, and the joints closer together, than those of the common ash; the small leaves are shorter, deeper sawed on their edges, and of a lighter green. The flowers come out from the side of the branches, which are of a purple colour, and appear in the spring before the leaves come out. This tree is of humble growth, seldom rising more than 15 or 16 feet high in this country. A great quantity of fine manna is gathered at Carini in Sicily, oozing from a kind of ash tree with a bark similar to that of the ebony, and a leaf somewhat like the acer. M. de Mon, who, in his *Travels in Sicily*, gives an account of this manna, says, it is produced from young trees about 7 or 8 years old, when only about 3 feet high. Incisions are then made horizontally in the bark, and from these the manna flows. These are made from the earth to the top of the tree, and are repeated every two days from the end of July till the circulation is stopped in the course of the year, or till the manna becomes

worse in quality. It exudes first as a liquor extremely light, pleasant to the taste, of an agreeable flavour, which is cooled by the heat of the sun, and assumes a somewhat resembling stalactites. This kind, and by the people of that country *labyrinthary* or *cane manna*. The other is a thicker, more glutinous, and less agreeable coloured liquor, which is received on the Indian fig, placed for that purpose on the tree. This also congeals by the heat of the sun, though it is more heavy, purgative, and of less value, than the former. It is called *manna*: in this part only resides the disagreeable flavour observable in manna; manna is of an agreeable flavour, and is not so violent to the stomach. It is got off from the tree by bending and shaking it. In some countries it must be gathered every day, which by the quantity and renders it of inferior value. When the stem of the tree is entirely cut down with incisions, they cut it down close to the ground; after which it pushes out new or two stems of which are preserved, and in proper age produce manna as before. Manna is propagated by seeds, and afterwards it is gathered by shaking it. The wood is hard and heavy, of a bitter taste, and recommended in the dropsy, only in hot climates, and requires to be dried to the north winds to make it productive. De Non is of opinion, that it might be introduced into France, and would produce manna in Provence. The Sicilian manna is dearer, and is more generally known and cultivated, than that of Calabria, though it does not grow in any other part of the country excepting about Carini, where it is a small tree.

(1.) MANNER, *n. f.* (*maniere*, Fr.) A way; method.

Find thou the *manner*, and the man; Possession, more than conquest, is man's.

2. Custom; habit; fashion.—As the custom is, *New Test.* 3. Certain degree of excellence. It is in a *manner* done already.

—The bread is in a *manner* common. 1. 5.—If the envy be general in a *manner*, the ministers of an estate, it is truly upon itself. *Bacon.*

This universe we have possess'd, and In a *manner* at our will.

—Augustinus does in a *manner* consist. *Baker.* 4. Sort; kind.—All *manner* of fowls here in arms against God's peacemaker's. *Shakspeare.*

A love that makes breath poor, and unable:

Beyond all *manner* of so much I love you.—What *manner* of men were they when *Judges.*—The city may flourish in trade *manner* of outward advantages. *Shakspeare.*—Mien; cast of the look.—Air and countenance more expressive than words. *Chrysostom.*—We have a native dignity in their *manner* of procuring them more regard by a look, than can obtain by the most impudens or *Rich. Chryso.* 6. Peculiar way; custom; pretence.—It can hardly be imagined how

ference was in the humour, disposition, and *mour*, of the army under Essex, and the other of our lordship, which I have endeavoured to express after your *manner*, have made whole poems mine to pass with approbation. *Dryd. Jew.*—A man is known by his company, so a man's company may be known by his *manner* of expressing himself. *Swift.* 7. Way; mode: of things. The temptations of prosperity insinuate themselves after a gentle, but very powerful, *manner*. *Verbury.* 8. *Manners* in the plural: character by the mind.—His princes are as much distinguished by their *manners* as by their dominions. *Adm.* 9. General way of life; morals; habits.—A kind of music have most operation upon *mners*; as, to make them warlike; to make them soft and effeminate. *Bacon.*—Every fool carries more or less in his face the signature of his *mners*, more legible in some than others. *L'Espe.*

We bring our *manners* to the best abodes, and think what pleases us must please the gods. *Dryden.*

In the plural.] Ceremonious behaviour; stulticity.—

The time will not allow the compliment, which very *manners* urge. *Shak.*

These bloody accidents must excuse my *manners*,

that so neglected you. *Shak.*

Our griefs and not our *manners* reason now. *Shak.*

Ungracious wretch, that for the mountains and the barbarous caves, where *manners* ne'er were preach'd. *Shak.*

Dear Kate, you and I cannot be confined with the weak lit of a country's fashion: we are the *ers* of *manners*, Kate. *Shak.*—

Good *manners* bound her to invite the stranger dame to be her guest that night. *Dryden.*

Some but the careless and the confident would rudely into the presence of a great man: and we, in our applications to the great God, that to be religion, which the common reason of mankind will not allow to be *manners*? *b.*—

Your passion bends force against your nearest friends; which *manners*, decency, and pride, have taught you from the world to hide. *Swift.* To take in the MANNER. To catch in actual commission of a crime.—If I melt into melancholy while I write, I shall be taken in the manner; I fit by one too tender to these impressions. *Mad's Letters.*

(-) MANNER, in painting, a habitude that a painter acquires in the 3 principal parts of painting, management of colours, lights, and shadows; which is either good or bad according as the painter is practised more or less after the truth, with judgment and study. But the best painter is he who has no manner at all. The good or bad which he makes is called *goute*.

(-) MANNER, (j 1, def. 10.) or GOOD MANNERS, according to Swift, is the art of making people easy with whom we converse. "Who-

ever makes the fewest persons uneasy; is the best bred person in the company. As the best law is founded upon reason, so are the best manners. And as some lawyers have introduced unreasonable things into common law; so likewise many teachers have introduced absurd things into good manners. One principal point of this art is to suit our behaviour to the 3 several degrees of men; our superiors, our equals, and inferiors. For instance, to press either of the two former to eat or drink is a breach of manners; but inferiors must be thus treated, else it will be difficult to persuade them that they are welcome. Pride, ill-nature, and want of sense, are the 3 great sources of ill manners; without some one of these defects, no man will behave himself ill for want of experience; or of what, in the language of fools, is called *knowing the world*."

"I dety (proceeds our author) any one to assign an incident, whercin reason will not direct us what we are to say or to do in company, if we are not misled by pride or ill-nature. Therefore, I insist that good sense is the principal foundation of good manners; but because the former is a gift which very few among mankind are possessed of, therefore all the civilized nations of the world have agreed upon fixing some rules for common behaviour, best suited to their general customs, or fancies, as a kind of artificial good sense to supply the defects of reason." After descending at some length, with his usual satirical humour, on "the impertinencies of the ceremonial behaviour," that is often affected among ladies of rank, as well as by "young travellers just arrived from abroad;" and showing that "there is a *pedantry in manners*, as well as in arts and sciences," Dean Swift adds, "I make a difference between GOOD MANNERS and GOOD BREEDING; although, in order to vary my expression, I am sometimes forced to confound them. By the first, I only understand the art of remembering and applying, certain settled forms of general behaviour. But *good breeding* is of a much larger extent: for besides an uncommon degree of literature, sufficient to qualify a gentleman for reading a play, or a political pamphlet, it taketh in a great compass of knowledge; no less than that of dancing, fighting, gaming, making the circle of Italy, riding the great horse, and speaking French; not to mention some other secondary or subaltern accomplishments, which are more easily acquired. So that the difference between good breeding and good manners lieth in this, That the former cannot be attained to by the best understandings without study and labour; whereas a tolerable degree of reason will instruct us in every part of good manners without other assistance." See BREEDING, § 2.

\* MANNERLINESS. *n. s.* [from *manner's*.] Civility; ceremonious complaisance.—Others out of *mannerliness* and respect to God, though they deny this universal suit of the universe, yet have devised several systems of the universe. *Hud.* (1.) \* MANNERLY. *adj.* [from *manner*.] Civil; ceremonious; complaisant.— Tut; tut; here's a *mannerly* forbearance. *Shak.*

Let me have What thou think'st meet, and I will *mannerly*. *Shak.*

—Fools make a mock at sin, affront the God whom we serve, and vilify religion; not to oppose them, by whatever *wannery* names we may palliate the offence, is not modesty but cowardice, and a traitorous desertion of our allegiance to Christ. *Rogers.*

(2.) \* **MANNERLY**. *adv.* Civilly; without rudeness.—

When we've supp'd,  
We'll *mannerly* demand thee of thy story. *Shak.*

\* **MANNIKIN**. *n. f.* [*man* and *ikin*, German]. A little man; a dwarf.

**MANNINGTREE**. See **MANINGTREE**.

\* **MANNISH**. *adj.* [from *man*.] Having the appearance of a man; bold; masculine; impudent.—Nature had proportioned her without any fault; yet altogether seem'd not to make up that harmony that Cupid delights in; the reason whereof might seem a *manness* countenance, which overthrew that lovely sweetness, the noblest power of womankind, far fitter to prevail by parley than by battle. *Sidney.*—

A woman, impudent and *manness* grown,  
Is not more loath'd than an effeminate man.

*Shak.*  
When *manness* Nevis, that two-handed whore,  
Astride on horse back hunts the Tuscan boar.

*Drjden.*  
**MANNORY**, Lewis, advocate of the parliament of Paris, was born in that city in 1696, and published 18 vols 12mo of *Pleadings and Memoirs*. A great number of singular cases occur in this collection; and they are rendered the more striking by the agreeable manner in which they are stated. He was Travenol's counsel in his process against **VOLTAIRES**, and was very satirical against that poet; who took revenge by describing him as a mercenary babler, who sold his pen and his abuse to the highest bidder. Mannory, would certainly have been more esteemed both as an advocate and as a writer, if he had paid more attention to his style and had been less prolix; if he had thought more deeply, and been more sparing of his pleader's art, in causes where nothing was required but knowledge and sound reasoning. He published also a translation into French of F. Puce's *Exercice de la plume en Louis XIV*; and very judicious *Observations on the Sentiments of Voltaire*. In company he was full of wit and spirit, but sometimes too saucy and severe. He died in 1777.

**MANOELET**, a town of France, in the dep. of Oise, 3 miles N. of St. Hippolite.

**MANOEUVRE**, *n. f.* in a military sense, consists solely in distributing equal motion to every part of a body of troops, to enable the whole to form, or change their position, in the most expeditious and best method, to answer the purposes required of a battalion, brigade, or line, of cavalry, artillery, or infantry. It has always been lamented, that men have been brought on service without being informed of the uses of the different manoeuvres they have been practising; and, having no idea of anything but the uniformity of the parade, instantly fall into disorder and confusion when they lose the step, or see a deviation from the straight line they have been accustomed to at exercise. It is a pity to see so much attention given to show, and so little to instruct the

troops in what may be of use to them vice. No manoeuvre should be executed in the presence of the enemy, unless protected by a division of the troops.

**MANOMETER**, *n. f.* [from *manos*, and *metros*, to measure,] or **MANOSCOPIUM** instrument to show or measure the alterability or density of the air. The manometer differs from the **BAROMETRE** in this, The only serves to measure the weight of a sphere, or of the column of air over it; former, the density of the air in which which density depends not only on the state of the atmosphere, but also on the heat and cold, &c. Authors, however, generally found the two together; and Mr Boy gives a very good manometer, under the name of a *statical barometer*. See **BAROMETRE**, of this kind of manometers were made by Col. Roy, in his attempts to correct the defect of the barometer, and are described in the *Trans.* Vol. LXXVII. p. 489. They were of various lengths, from 4 to upwards of 10 feet; they consisted of straight tubes, which were commonly from one 1/8th to one 1/4th inch diameter. The capacity of the tube was carefully measured, by making a column of silver, about 3 or 4 inches long, move from one end to the other. These spaces were severally marked, with a fine-edged file; and transferred from them to long pasteboard, for the subsequent construction of scales respectively belonging to each. The tube attached to one end of the manometer glass-house, was of the form of a pear point being occasionally open, dry or could be readily admitted, and the bulb gain, without any sensible alteration in the quantity of air. The air was confined by a column of silver, long or short, and with the bulb upward or upwards, according to the nature proposed experiment. Here it might be observed, that, from the adhesion of the quicksilver tube, the instrument will not act truly, if it be in a vertical position; and even the bulb necessary to give it a small degree of motion, will remain in equilibrium, between the pressure of the atmosphere on one side, and the elastic force of the confined air on the other. Pounded sea and water were used to fix the point on the tube; and by means of the bulb the air was further condensed, perena sometimes 10 or 12 degrees below zero. The manometer and manometer were then put into a vessel among water, which was heated or cooled, till the bulb was having sufficient time, and motion being given to the manometer, a boiling point was marked there; this the fire was removed, and the pressure of the tube of quicksilver, care to every 10 degrees of temperature, and the manometer, were successively marked and applied to the manometer. It is to be observed that both instruments, while in the water, in circumstances perfectly similar, the bulb and bulb were at the bottom of the vessel. In order to be certain that no air had

side of the quicksilver during the operation, manometer was frequently placed a second time in melting ice. If the barometer had not altered between the beginning and end of the experiment, the quicksilver always became stationary at or near the first mark. If any sudden change had taken place in the weight of the atmosphere during that interval, the same was noted, allowance made for it in afterwards proportioning the spaces. Long tubes, with bores truly cylindrical, or of any uniform figure, are scarcely to be met with. Such however as were used in these experiments, generally tapered in a pretty regular manner from one end to the other. When the bulb was downwards, and the tube narrowed at that way, the column of quicksilver confining the air lengthened in the lower half of the scale, and diminished the pressure above the mean. In the other half, the column being shortened, the pressure was diminished below the mean. In this case the observed spaces both ways from the mean were diminished in the inverse ratio of the heights of the barometer at each space, compared with its mean height. If the bore widened towards the bulb when downwards, the observed spaces, each way from the centre, were augmented in the same inverse ratio; but in the experiments on air less dense than the atmosphere, the same being upwards, the same equation was applicable with contrary signs: and if any extraordinary irregularity took place in the tube, the corresponding spaces were proportioned both ways at that point, whether high or low, that answered to the mean. The observed and equated geometrical spaces being thus laid down on the board containing the measures of the tube; and  $212^{\circ}$  of the thermometer, in exact proportion to the sections of the bore, were constructed along of them: hence the coincidences with each other were easily seen; and the number of thermometer degrees answering to each manometer space readily transferred into a table prepared for the purpose."

\*) MANOR. *n. f.* [*manoir*, old French; *manor*, low Latin; *maner*, Armorick.] *Manor* signifies, in common law, a rule or government which an lord hath over such as hold land within his fee. In the beginning, there was a certain commodity of ground granted by the king to some man worth, for him and his heirs to dwell upon, and to exercise some jurisdiction. But whosoever possesses these manors, the liberty belonging to them is real and predial, and therefore remains, though the owners be changed. In these days, manor rather signifies the jurisdiction and royal incorporeal, than the land or site: for a man may have a manor in gross, as the law terms it, which is the right and interest of a court-baron, and the perquisites thereto belonging. *Cowel.*—My parks, my walks, my manors that I had, when now forsake me; and of all my lands nothing left me?

*Shak. Henry VI.*

Some say they broke their backs with laying manors on them  
 And this great journey.

*Shak. Rich. II.*

(2.) MANOR, [from *maneo*, to stay, as being the usual residence of the owner,] seems to have been a district of ground held by lords or great persons; who kept in their own hands so much land as was necessary for the use of their families. These lands were called *terre dominicales*, or *demesne lands*; being occupied by the lord, or *dominus manerii*, and his servants. The other, or *tenemental* lands, they distributed among their tenants; which, from the different modes of tenure, were called and distinguished by two different names.—First *book land*, or charter land, which was held by deed under certain rents and free services, and in effect differed nothing from free socage lands: and hence have arisen most of the free-hold tenants who hold of particular manors, and owe suit and service to the same. The other species was called *folk lands*, which was held by no assurance in writing, but distributed among the common folk at the pleasure of the lord, and resumed at his discretion; being indeed land held in villeinage. See VILLENAGE. The residua of the manor, being uncultivated, was termed the *lord's waste*, and served for public roads, and for common of pasture to the lord and his tenants. Manors were formerly called BARONIES, as they still are *lordships*; and each lord or baron was empowered to hold a domestic court, called the COURT BARON, for redressing misdemeanors and offences within the manor, and for settling disputes of property among the tenants. This court is an inseparable ingredient of every manor; and if the number of suitors should so fall, as not to leave sufficient to make a jury or homage, that is, two tenants at the least, the manor is said to be left. (See COURT, § 4.) In early times, the king's greater barons, who had a large extent of territory held under the crown, granted out frequently smaller manors to inferior persons to be held of themselves; which therefore now continue to be held under a superior lord, who is called in such cases the *lord paramount* over all these manors; and his feignory is frequently termed an *honour*, not a manor; especially if it hath belonged to an ancient feudal baron, or hath been at any time in the hands of the crown. In imitation whereof, these inferior lords began to carve out and grant to others still more minute estates, to be held as of themselves, and were so proceeding downwards *in infinitum*, till the superior lords observed, that, by this method of subinfeudation, they lost all their feudal profits of wardships, marriages, and chevages, which fell into the hands of these mesne or middle lords, who were the immediate superiors of the *terre tenant*, or him who occupied the land; and also that the mesne lords themselves were so impoverished thereby, that they were disabled from performing their services to their own superiors. This occasioned, first, that provision in the 32d chapter of *magna charta*, 9 Hen. III. that no man should either give or sell his land without reserving sufficient to answer the demands of his lord; and, afterwards, the statute of Westminster, 3. or *quia emptores*, 18 Edw. I. c. 1. which directs, that, upon all sales, or feoffments of land, the fee should hold the same, not of his immediate feoffor, but of the chief lord of the fee, of whom

such feoffer himself held it. But these provisions not extending to the king's own tenants *in capite*, the like law concerning them is declared by the statutes of *prærogativa regis*, 17 Edw. II. c. 6. and of 34 Edw. III. c. 15. by which last all subinfeudations, previous to the reign of Edward I. were confirmed; but all subsequent to that period were left open to the king's prerogative. Hence it is clear, that all manors existing at this day, must have existed as early as Edward I. for it is essential to a manor, that there be tenants who hold of the lord; and, by the operation of these statutes, no tenant *in capite* since the accession of that prince, and no tenant of a common lord since the statute of *quia emptores*, could create any new tenants to hold of himself. See **VILLENAGE**.

(3.) **MANOR**, in geography, a mountainous parish of Scotland, in Peebles-shire, 9 miles long from SW. to NE. and 3 broad; containing 18,110 acres. The soil in the low ground is excellent, and produces good crops of oats, barley, pease, potatoes and turnips. The air is pure. The population, in 1791, was 229; decrease 91, since 1755: the number of sheep was 8,700; horses 90; and black cattle 190.

(4.) **MANOR**, a river in the above parish.

**MANOS**, a town of Cuba, 20 miles E. of Havannah.

**MANOSCOPE**. See **MANOMETER**.

**MANOSQUE**, a populous town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Alps, and ci-devant prov. of Provence; with a castle, on the Durance; 10 miles S. of Forcalquier, 15 W. of Apt, and 350 S. by E. of P. Lon. 5. 55. E. Lat. 43. 51. N.

**MANOT**, a town of France, in the dep. of Charente, 3 miles S. of Confolent.

**MANOU**, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure and Loire, 12 miles S. of Verneuil.

**MANPURY**, a town of Indostan in Doob.

\* **MANQUELLER**. *n. f.* [*man* and *exceller*, Saxon.] A murderer; a mankiller; a manslayer. —This was not Kayne the *manqueller*, but one of a gentler spirit and milder sex, to wit a woman. *Cæsar*.

**MANQUELLING**. *n. f. Obs.* Homicide; man-killing. See **HOMICIDE**, § 1; and **MANSLAUGHTER**.

**MANRESA**, or **MANRES**, an ancient town of Spain, in Catalonia, 15 miles SE. of Cardona, and 25 NW. of Barcelona. Lon. 1. 56. E. Lat. 41. 36. N.

**MANS**, or **Le Mans**, an ancient and rich town of France, capital of the dep. of the Sarthe, as it was formerly of the ci-devant county of Maine. It contains a cathedral, 15 churches, and about 14,000 citizens, but was formerly much more populous. Its poultry, wax, and stuffs are famous. It is seated on a high hill near the confluence of the Sarthe and the Huisne, 25 miles S. of Angoum, and 75 W. by N. of Orleans. Lon. 0. 18. E. Lat. 47. 58. N.

**MANSA**, or **MANSUS**. See **MANSER**, § 2.

**MANSARGAR**, a large lake of Asia, in Thibet, from which the southernmost head of the Ganges issues. It is 115 miles in circumference. Lon. 79. 25. E. Lat. 23. 15. N.

**MANSBURG**, a town of Germany, in Carinthia, 3 miles SSW. of S. m.

(1.) \* **MANSE**. *n. f.* [*mansio*, Lat.] land. 2. A parsonage-house.

(2.) **MANSE**, **MANSUS**, **MANSA**, or in ancient law-books, denotes an *emphyteuticon*, either with or without land. 3. **MANOR**, and **MANSION**.

(3.) **MANSE**, **CAPITAL**, *Mansum* *C. manor-bouff*, or lord's court. See **MA**

(1, 2.) **MANSFELD**, a city of Ger capital of a county of the same name, in of Upper Saxony. Lon. 12. 55. E. Lat.

(3.) **MANSFELD**, Peter Ernest, count descended from one of the most illustrious families in Germany. In 1552, he was taken at Ivoy, where he commanded. He was afterwards of great service to the Catholics in the battle of Montcontour, and was employed in the most delicate and important affairs of the utmost delicacy and importance made governor of Luxembourg, he secured tranquillity in that province, while the Netherlands was a prey to the horrors of the war. He was afterwards appointed to the command of the Netherlands, and made 27 the Empire. He died at Luxembourg, 21, 1604, aged 87. His mausoleum in the chapel bearing his name, at Luxer is an admirable work. To his military talents united a taste for the sciences; but, like most heroes ancient and modern, he was greedy and lavish of blood. Abbe Schannat writes his life in Latin; Luxembourg, 1707.

(4.) **MANSFELD**, Charles, prince of, lived the above, signalized himself in the wars of the Netherlands and Hungary; and died without issue, after having beaten the Turks who had besieged the city of Gran, which he saved.

(5.) **MANSFELD**, Ernest DE, the illegitimate son of the count (Nº 3.) by a lady of Malines, educated at Brussels in the Roman Catholic religion. He was employed in the service of Spain in the Netherlands, and in the emperor's army in Hungary, together with his brother Charles count of Mansfeld. He was promoted on account of his bravery by Rodolphus to his father's posts and possessions in the Spanish Netherlands having been refused him on promise, he, in 1610, joined the Protestants. Being now become a most dangerous enemy of the house of Austria, who called *Antichristianity*, he set himself in the head of the rebels in Bohemia, and his rebellion of Pilsen in 1619. Though he and his army were defeated in several battles, he persisted in the palatinate, took several places, Alsace, made himself master of Hague, defeated the Bavarians. At length he was defeated by Wallstein, at Dassow, in April. He gave his remaining troops to the duke of Prussia, intending to pass into the Venetian territories, but died in a village between Zara and Trieste, A. D. 1626, aged 46. Nani thus describes him: "He was bold, intrepid in danger, and a skilful negotiator of his age. He possessed natural eloquence, and knew how to insinuate himself into the hearts of those whom he wished to gain. He was greedy of others' wealth, and careless of his own. He was full of val-



ither lands nor money at his death." die in his bed, he dressed himself in his domestic, and in this position. But of all his actions, the most extraordinary: having got at Cazal, in whom he placed the Chief, he gave him 300 rix dollars to count Buquoy, with a letter, "Cazal being attached to you I send him to you, that you may it of his services." Ernest is de- ed one of the greatest generals of

ELD, Henry Francis, count of, was use with the former, and signalized wars for the Spanish succession. He on the 8th June 1715, aged 74, rince of the Empire, a grandee of rthral general of the emperor's ar- of artillery, ambassador to France eflident of the Aulic council, and ain to the emperor.

IELD, a town of Nottinghamshire, f Sherwood, 140 miles from Lon- nciently a royal demefne. It has a urfdlay, and two fairs. By an an- f this manor, the heirs were declar- on born. It is a well built town, reat trade in malt. Its market is with corn, cattle, &c. It has a cha- 36 boys.

IELD, Earl of. See MURRAY.  
E, a town of France, in the dep- miles W. of La Fieche.

A, a town of Spain in Leon, 15 con. Lon. 4. 55. W. Lat. 42. 30. N. O, a term often mentioned in iting ins on the public roads to e distance of 18 miles from each o- us.) In the lower ages, it came to amment for one night. Lumpri-

), or MANSUS, was sometimes also ne sense with *bide*; that is, for as one plough could till in a year.

SION. *n. f.* [*manfo*, Latin.] 1. The a manor. 2. Place of residence; —All these are but ornaments of ark within you, which being de- heaven, could not elsewhere pick a *manfon*. *Sidney*.—A fault no less be it were true, than if some king his *manfon* house by the model of ace. *Hooker*.—

his wife, to leave his babes,  
and his titles in a place,  
ce himself does fly. *Shak.*  
fun wants thee, Adam; rise. *Milton.*  
his provided thee. *Dryden.*  
abode:—  
ets near our princes sleep,  
grave their *manfions* keep. *D-nham.*  
IN (§ 1. *def.* 1.) is otherwise call'd *hage*, or *manse*, or chief *manor*; *hage*.

(3.) MANSION is also used for a dwelling house in the country. See MANSE.

(1.) \* MANSLAUGHTER. *n. f.* [*man* and *slaughter*.] 1. Murder; destruction of the human species.—The whole pleasure of that book standeth in open *manflaughter* and bold bawdry. *Afcbam's Schoolmajter*.—

To overcome in battle, and subdue Nations, and bring home spoils with infinite *Manflaughter*, shall be held the highest pitch Of human glory. *Milton.*

2. [In law.] The act of killing a man not wholly without fault, though without malice; punished by forfeiture.—When a man, throwing at a cock, killed a bystander, I ruled it *manflaughter*. *Foster*.

(II.) MANSLAUGHTER, (§ 1, *def.* 2.) may be either voluntarily, upon a sudden heat; or involuntarily, but in the commission of some unlawful act. These were called, in the Gothic constitutions, *bo- micidia vulgaris*; *que aut casu, aut etiam sponte committuntur, sed in subitaneo quodam iracundie calore et impetu*. Hence, in *manflaughter* there can be no accessories before the fact; because it must be done without premeditation.

1. MANSLAUGHTER, INVOLUNTARY, differs from homicide excusable by misadventure, in this: That misadventure always happens in consequence of a lawful act, but this species of *manflaughter* in consequence of an unlawful one. As if two persons play at sword and buckler, unless by the king's command, and one of them kills the other: this is *manflaughter*, because the original act was unlawful; but it is not murder, for the one had no intent to do the other any personal mischief. So where a person does an act, lawful in itself but in an unlawful manner, and without due caution and circumspection; as when a workman flings down a stone or piece of timber into the street, and kills a man; this may be either misadventure, *manflaughter*, or murder according to the circumstances under which the original act was done. If it were in a country village, where few passengers are, and he calls out to all people to have a care, it is misadventure only: but if it were in London, or other populous towns, where people are continually passing, it is *manflaughter*, though he gives loud warning; and murder, if he knows of their passing and gives no warning at all, for then it is malice against all mankind. In general, when an involuntary killing happens in consequence of an unlawful act, it will be either murder or *manflaughter* according to the nature of the act which occasioned it. If it be in prosecution of a felonious intent, or in its consequences naturally tending in bloodshed, it will be murder; but if no more was intended than a mere civil trespass, it will only amount to *manflaughter*.

2. MANSLAUGHTER, VOLUNTARY:—If upon a sudden quarrel two persons fight, and one of them kills the other, this is *manflaughter*: and so it is, if they upon such an occasion go out and fight in a field; for this is one continued act of passion: and the law pays that regard to human frailty, as not to put a hasty and deliberate act upon the same footing with regard to guilt. So also if a man be greatly provoked, as by pulling his

his nose, or other great indignity, and immediately kills the aggressor; though this is not excusable *se defendendo*, since there is no absolute necessity for doing it to preserve himself; yet neither is it murder, for there is no previous malice; but it is manslaughter. But in this, and in every other case of homicide upon provocation, if there be a sufficient cooling-time for passion to subside and reason to interpose, and the person so provoked afterwards kills the other, this is deliberate revenge, and not heat of blood; and accordingly amounts to murder. So if a man takes another in the act of adultery with his wife, and kills him directly upon the spot; though this was allowed by the law of Solon, as likewise by the Roman civil law (if the adulterer was found in the husband's own house), and also among the ancient Goths; yet in England it is not absolutely ranked in the class of justifiable homicide, as in case of a forcible rape, but it is manslaughter. It is, however, the lowest degree of it; and therefore in such a case the court directed the burning in the hand to be gently inflicted, because there could not be a greater provocation. Manslaughter, therefore, on a sudden provocation, differs from excusable homicide *se defendendo* in this: That in one case there is apparent necessity, for self-preservation, to kill the aggressor; in the other no necessity at all, being only a sudden act of revenge.

(III.) MANSLAUGHTER, PUNISHMENT OF. As to the punishment of this degree of homicide: The crime of manslaughter amounts to felony, but within the benefit of clergy; and the offender shall be burnt in the hand, and forfeit all his goods and chattels. But there is one species of manslaughter, which is punished as murder, the benefit of clergy being taken away from it by statute; namely, the offence of mortally stabbing another, though done upon sudden provocation. See SPARRING.

\* MANSAYER. *n. f.* [*man* and *slay*.] One that has killed another.—Cites for refuge for the *maniliv. r. Numb. xxxv. 6.*

MANSLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Charante, 12 miles N. of Angouleme.

MANSORA, or } a town of Egypt, on the E.

MANSOURA, } bank of the Nile. The Syrian Christians, settled in it, are the chief traders, and export rice, salammouac, &c. The ovens for hatching chickens are numerous. See HATCHING, § 1.

MANSTEIN, Christopher Herman DE, was born at Petersburg, Sept. 1, 1711, and served long with great distinction as a colonel in the Russian armies. In 1745, he went into the service of the king of Prussia; was appointed major-general of infantry in 1754; and distinguished himself on all occasions by his bravery and military knowledge. He was wounded at the battle of Kolin, and soon after killed near Lauteritz, in 1758. He devoted his leisure moments to study, and was acquainted with almost all the languages of Europe. He wrote *Historical, Political, and Military Memoirs of Russia*, in French; published at Lyons, 1772, in 2 vols, 8vo. with plans and charts. These memoirs commence with the death of Catherine I. 1725, and end in 1744. His

was an eye-witness, or had a very intellige, of all the events contained supplement is added, which goes times of the ancient Czars, treats able length on Peter I. and gives an military and naval force, trade, &c. tentive empire. Mr Humme caused th to be translated into English, and London; and soon after a German was published at Hamburgh; a Fr was published by M. Huber at Leipl and a new and enlarged edition in 17

\* MANSUETE. *adj.* [*mansuetus*, I.] gentle; not ferocious; not wild.—Tl only in domestick and *mansueti* birds; might be thought the effect of ricum situation, but also in the wild. *Ray on 2*

\* MANSUETUDE. *n. f.* [*mansuetus* *factus*, Lat. Tameness; gentleness. The angry lion did present his paw Which by consent was given to man

(1.) MANSUS. See MANSE.

(2.) MANSUS PRESBYTERI, is a par vicarage house for the incumbent to. This was originally, and still remains, a part of the endowment of a parish chur ther with the glebe and tithes. It is c called *Presbyterium*. See PRESBYTERY.

MANT, a town of France, in the Landes, 12 miles S. of St Sever, and Pau.

(1.) MANTA, a town of the French in the department of the Po, ci-devant pi of Piedmont, and marquissate of Saluzzo, the Maritime and Cottian Alps. It th on an eminence, and had anciently its own. It lies 2 miles S. of Saluzzo.

(2.) MANTA, in ichthyology; a fat itioned by Ulloa and others, as exceedi ful to the pearl-fishers, and which seems same with that which Pliay has desig the name of *nubes* or *nebula*: *Ipsi fiant res) et nubem quandam crassissimam super or norum piscium similem, prementem eos, an a reciprocando et ob filios praxucatos lineis au ber: sese; quia nisi percussa ita, non recedunt et parvoris, ut arbitror, opere. Nub sine nebulam (cujus nomine id malum inter animalia baul ullam reperit ququam Nat. lib. ix. cap. 46.) This account is same with that which the divers in the seas give of the manta, and the name or the cloud, is perfectly applicable to really seems to be a cloud to those who water below it: the swimmers likewise knives, or sharp sticks, to defend them gainst these fish. The strength of this great, that it will not only strangle a ma it embraces or winds itself about, but it been seen to take the cable of an anchor; it from the place where it had been cal been called *manta*, because, when it leat upon the sea, it seems like a fleece of w ing upon the water.*

(3.) MANTA BAY, a bay of Peru, at of the equator, formerly famous for



narrow and long. The head is small, flat, with two filiform short antennæ. On the sides of the head are situated two large polished eyes. The thorax is subciliated, long, narrow, margined, with a longitudinal rising in the middle, and a transverse depression at one third of its length. The elytra, which cover two thirds of the insect, are veined, reticulated, crossed one over the other, and cover the wings, which are veined, and diaphanous. The hinder legs are very long, the middle ones shorter; and the foremost pair of thighs are terminated with spines, the rest winged, as it were, with membranaceous lobes. The top of the head has the shape of an awl; is membranaceous, often split in two at the extremity. It is a native of China.

(1.) \* MANTLE. *n. f.* [*mantell*, Welsh.] A kind of cloak or garment thrown over the rest of the dress.—

We, well-cover'd with the night's black mantle,

At unawares may beat down Edward's guard,  
And seize himself. *Shak.*

—Poor Tom drinks the green mantle of the standing pool. *Shak.*—

The day begins to break, and night is fled,  
Whose pitchy mantle over-veil'd the earth. *Shak.*

—Their actions were disguised with mantles of religion, and justice. *Hayward.*—The herald and children are clothed with mantles of fatten; but the herald's mantle is streamed with gold. *Bacon.*

By which the beauty of the earth appears,  
The divers-colour'd mantle which she wears.

Before the heav'ns thou wert, and at the voice  
Of God, as with a mantle didst invest  
The rising world of waters dark and deep. *Milt.*  
—Upon loosening of his mantle the eggs fell from him at unawares, and the eagle was a third time defeated. *L'Esfrange.*—

Gently has he laid  
The mantle o'er thy sad distress. *Prior.*

A spacious veil from his broad shoulders flew,  
That set th' unhappy Phaeton to view;  
The flaming chariot and the steeds it shew'd,  
And the whole fable in the mantle glow'd. *Addis.*

(2.) MANTLE. See MANTEL, § 1 and 2.

(3.) MANTLE, or MANTLING, in heraldry, that appearance of folding of cloth, flourishing, or drapery, which in any achievement is drawn about a coat of arms. See HERALDRY, Ch. IV. Sect. V.

(1.) \* To MANTLE. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To cloke; to cover; to disguise.—

As the morning steals upon the night,  
Melting the darkness; so the rising senses  
Begin to chace the ignorant fumes, that mantle  
Their clearer reason. *Shak.*

I left them  
I' th' filthy mantled pool beyond your cell,  
There dancing up to th' chins. *Shak.*

(2.) \* To MANTLE. *v. n.* [The original of the signification of this word is not plain. *Skinner* considers it as relative to the expansion of a mantle: as, the hawk mantles; she spreads her wings like a mantle.] 1. To spread the wings as a hawk in pleasure.—

The swan with arch'd neck,

Between her white wings mantling,  
Her state with oary feet.

2. To joy; to revel.—

My frail fancy fed with full delight  
Doth bathe in bliss, and mantleth me

3. To be expanded; to spread luxuriant  
The pair that clad  
Each shoulder broad, came mantling  
breast  
With regal ornament.

The mantling vine  
Lays forth her purple grape. *Mih.*

I saw them under a green mantling:  
You'll sometimes meet a top, of which  
Whose mantling peruke veils his emj

And where his mazy waters flow,  
He gave the mantling vine to grow.

4. To gather any thing on the surface;  
There are a sort of men, whose vi  
Do cream and mantle like a standing p  
—It drinketh fresh, flowereth, and m  
ceedingly. *Bacon.*—

From plate to plate your eye-balls  
And the brain dances to the mantling;  
5. To ferment; to be in sprightly agit  
When mantling blood  
Flow'd in his lovely cheeks.

MANTLE-PIECE, or } *a. f.* See MA  
MANTLE TREE, } and 2.

MANTLING, *n. f.* See MANTLE;  
MANTO, in fabulous history, the  
Tiresias, and like her father strongly inq  
prophecy. She was in so great est  
the Argives pillaged Thebes, they th  
could not acquit their vow to Apollo,  
crating to him the most precious thi  
plunder, without offering to them thi  
man. She was therefore sent to the  
Delphi. But this did not engage her i  
of continency; or, if it did, she observ  
ill: for she bore a son called *Amphion*  
meon, who had been generalissimo of  
which took Thebes; and a daughter a  
*spibone*. These children were the fruits  
mour carried on during the madness o  
seized Alcmeon, after he had put his  
death. Virgil says she went into Italy;  
son who built MANTUA.

MANTOIS, a late county of France,  
cluded in the dep. of the Seine and Oise.

MANTOUA, or } in ancient and mo  
(1.) MANTUA, } graphy, a city of th

republic, capital of the dep. of the Mi  
was anciently a town of GALLIA TRANS  
and situated on the Mincius, a river run  
the lake Benacus. It is said to have been  
about 300 years before Rome, by Bianor o  
the son of MANTO; and was the ancient  
of Etruria. When Cremona, which had  
ed the interest of Brutus, was given to th  
of Octavius, Mantua also, which wa  
neighbourhood, shared the common cal  
many of the inhabitants were tyrannical  
ved of their possessions. Virgil, who wa  
them and a native of the town, applied th  
to Augustus, and obtained it on account

al talents. It is still called MANTUA, and is the capital of the late duchy, N° 4. It is a large city, having 8 gates and about 20,000 inhabitants. The streets are broad and straight, and the houses well built. It is very strong by situation as well as by art; lying in the middle of the lake, N° 4. There is no access to the city but by two causeways which cross this lake, and which are strongly fortified: so that the city is supposed to be one of the strongest fortresses in Italy; and the allies in 1745, though their army was in the duchy, durst not undertake the siege.

It was besieged, however, by the French in 1796 and 97. It was first invested by order of Napoleon Bonaparte on the 4th June, 1796. On the 17th July the garrison made a sortie, but were obliged to retreat with the loss of 600 men. On the 25th the French opened their trenches, and on the 29th Gen. Wurmsler attacked the French, destroyed their trenches, relieved the garrison, the siege, and took 140 pieces of cannon, 1000 provisions, &c. But on the 24th of August the French under general Scherzer, blockaded the town; and on the 15th Sept. the Austrians retired into it, with a loss of 500 men, 20 cannons, &c. and took fort St. George. (See GEORGIO, ST, N° 7.) On the 23d Gen. Wurmsler made a 3d sortie, with the loss of 200 men; and at last after having been reduced to such straits, that 5000 horses were killed and eaten during the siege, he surrendered the town by capitulation, on the 2d Feb. 1797, with 559 cannons, 17,115 small arms, a vast quantity of other military stores, and the whole remainder of his army. In July 1799, Mantua was besieged by the Austrians under Gen. Kray, whom it at last surrendered; and was retained by the emperor till the peace, in 1802. It was famous for its silk manufactures, which are now much decayed. The air in summer is unwholesome. It lies 22 miles SW. of Verona; 35 of Parma; 70 WSW. of Venice, and 70 ESE. of Milan. Lon. 10. 47. E. Lat. 45. 10. N.

MANTUA, or the MANTUAN, a country in the north-west part of Italy, lying along the Po, and divided into two parts. It was bounded N. by the Veronese; on the S. by the dukes of Reggio, Modena, and Mirandola; on the E. by Ferrara; and W. by the Cremonese. It is 50 miles long, and 25 broad; is fruitful in corn, pastures, flux, fruits, and excellent wine. In 1707 the last duke of Mantua, being a vassal of the empire, took part with the French in the war relating to the succession of Spain; for which reason he was put under the ban of the empire, and died at Venice in 1728. He having no issue, the emperor kept the Mantuan in his hands, and the duke of Savoy had Montferrat confirmed to them by subsequent treaties. After the death of the emperor in 1740, the emperor's daughter, Mary Theresa, late empress, kept possession of the Mantuan; and the emperor's son, Francis, who had the administration of the empire. The Mantuan comprehended the duchies of Mantua, Guastalla, and Sabbioneta; the counties of Castiglione, Solferino, and Belfiore; and the county of Novellara. The principal

rivers are the Po, the Oglio, and the Mincio; and the principal town is Mantua. This country now forms part of the department of the Mincio in the Italian republic.

(3.) MANTUA, a district of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio, comprehending part of the late duchy; (N° 23) and containing 83,002 citizens in May 1801. Mantua (N° 1.) is the capital.

(4.) MANTUA, LAZZO DI, or the LAKE OF MANTUA, a lake of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio, and formed by the river Mincio. It is 26 miles in circumference, and 2 broad. It has 4 different ramifications, called the Lakes of MEZO, FAVOLO, SOPRA, and SOTTO. It was of great importance during the siege of Mantua, (which it surrounds,) both to the French and Austrians; but in summer, when the water is low, its exhalations are noxious.

(5.) \* MANTUA, *n. f.* [this is perhaps corrupted from *mantua*, Fr.] A lady's gown.—

Not Cynthia, when her *mantua's* pin'd a-wry,

E'er felt such rage, resentment, and despair,  
As thou, sad virgin! for thy ravish'd hair. *Pope.*  
—How naturally do you apply your hands to each other's lappets, ruffles, and *mantuas*. *Swift.*

\* MANTUAMAKER, *n. f.* [*mantua* and *maker*.] One who makes gowns for women:—by profession a *mantuamaker*: I am employed by the most fashionable ladies. *Addison.*

(1.) MANTUAN, Raptist, a famous Italian poet, born at Mantua in 1448. He took his name from the town, being a natural son. In his youth, he applied to Latin poetry, which he cultivated all his life. He entered among the Carmelites, and became general of the order; though he quitted that dignity upon some disgust in 1515, and died the year following. The duk of Mantua, some years after, erected a marble statue to his memory crowned with laurel, and placed it next to Virgil. His works were collected and published at Paris, in 3 vols. folio in 1713, with the commentaries of St. Marthe, S. Brant, and I. Badius.

(2.) MANTUAN. See MANTUA, N° 1.

(3.) \* MANUAL, *adj.* [*manu*, Latin; and *manus*, French.] 1. Performed by the hand.—The speculative part of painting, without the assistance of *manus* operation, can never attain to that perfection which is its object. *Dryden's Description.* 2. Used by the hand.—The treasurer obliged himself to procure some declaration under his majesty's sign *manual*. *Clarke.*

(4.) \* MANUAL, *n. f.* A small book, such as may be carried in the hand.—This *manua* of laws, filed the common law contains but few heads. *Hall.*—In those prayers which are recommended to the use of the devout persons of your church, in the *manua* and offices allowed them in our own language, they would be careful to have nothing they thought scandalous. *Stillingfleet.*

(5.) MANSUAL, *n. f.* is a service book used in the church of Rome, containing the rites, directions to the priests, and prayers used in the administration of the sacrament; the form of blessing holy water, and the service used in processions.

(6.) MANUAL EXERCISE, in the army, consists in the observance of certain words, or commands

*Arms.* The equal squareness of the shoulders, and body, to the front, is the first, and great principle of the position of the soldier:—The heels must be in a line, and closed:—The knees straight without stiffness:—The toes turned out, so that the feet may form an angle of about 60 degrees: The arms hang near the body, but not stiff; the flat of the hand, and little finger, touching the thigh, and the thumbs as far back as the seams of the breeches:—The elbows and shoulders are to be kept back:—The belly rather drawn in; and the breast advanced, but without constraint;—The body to be upright, but inclining rather forwards, so that the weight of it may bear chiefly on the fore part of the feet;—The head to be erect; and neither turned to the right nor to the left; the eyes alone will be glanced to the right. The body of the soldier being in this position, the firelock is to be placed in his left hand, against the shoulder; his wrist to be a little turned out, the thumb alone to appear in front; the 4 fingers to be under the butt; and the left elbow to be rather bent inwards, so as not to be separated from the body, or to be more backward or forward than the right one:—The firelock must rest on the hand, not on the end of the fingers; and be carried in such a manner as not to raise, advance, or keep back one shoulder more than the other; the butt must therefore be forward, and as low as can be permitted without constraint; the fore part a very little before the front of the thigh; and the hind part of it pressed by the wrist against the thigh:—It must be kept steady, and firm before the hollow of the shoulder; should it be drawn back or carried too high, the one shoulder would be advanced, the other kept back, and the upper part of the body would be distorted, and not square with respect to the limbs

along the sling, the wrist upon the point of the left thumb of the eyes. 3d. Bring down the quick motion, as low as the right foot at the same instant, so that may touch the left heel.—The position is to be totally supported.—the body to rest entirely on the knees to be straight. V. *Shoulder* By a turn of the right wrist, bring its proper position on the shoulder above, the left hand grasping the right hand, bringing it back by the side. VI. *Charge* 1 motion throw the firelock from across the body, to a low diagonal *Port Arms.* 1. Turn the lock upwards, so that the barrel meets the point of the left shoulder, and proportionally depressed: the right small of the butt, and the left the swell, close to the lower pipe both hands pointing towards the muzzle. Make a half-face to the right, the firelock to nearly a horizontal the muzzle inclining an inch from the right wrist resting against the hollow just below the hip.—N. B. The *charge* is the position which the soldier takes from the shoulder, or after firing to advance on an enemy, whom he attacks with fixed bayonets; a command for that purpose is, *Charge*. 2d. The position of the charge is taken by the front rank, when arrived at a certain distance from the body to be

he small of the butt under the lock with the hand, bringing the butt in front of the groin, keeping the lock somewhat turned out: at which they bring the left arm under the lock at the third they quit the right hand. In *rig arms* from the *support*, the motions are easily reversed.—The motions in the manoeuvre will, in future, be performed slowly in heretofore, leaving three seconds between each motion, except that of *fixed bayonets*, which a longer time must be given. The manoeuvre is not to be executed by one word, or signal, each separate word of command is to be given by the officer who commands the body performing it. In regard to the motions of *securing*, *fixing*, and *trailing*, as well as those of *piling*, will be sufficient for the soldiers to be ordered to perform them in the most convenient, and swiftest method. *Returning bayonets* is to be done in the *order*, in the same manner as *fixing*.

The *manual* and *platoon exercise* will not make a regular part of a review, but will be gone through, when particularly called for by the reviewing General. (See *PLATOON*.) Companies posted with shouldered arms, are permitted to *support*, but not to slope them. At the approach of an officer, they immediately *fix* their arms; and put themselves into their proper position, which is not to be done at the time he passes, but by the time he is within the ranks of their post, so that they may be perfectly ready before he comes up. Corporals commanding with reliefs, or commanding detachments or divisions, will carry their arms *advanced* which purpose a soldier, when promoted to a higher rank, must be taught the position of *advanced*. There are some peculiar words of command for the manual exercise of the grenadiers, and also for the *artillery*.

**NUBALISTA.** See *BALLISTARI*, and *BALISTA*.

**NUBIAL.** *adj.* [*manubie*, Lat.] Belonging to *spoils*; taken in war. *Dict.*

**NUBLES**, a river of Spain, in Arragon, runs into the *Xalon*, at *Areca*.

**NUBRIUM.** *n. f.* [Latin.] A handle.—In the *sucker* move easily enough up and down the cylinder by the help of the *manubrium*, the *manubrium* be taken off, it will require considerable strength to move it. *Boyle*.

**NUDUCTION.** *n. f.* [*manuductio*, Latin.] Done by the hand.—We find no open tract, but *manuduction*, in this labyrinth. *Brown's Errors*.—That they are carried by the *manuduction* of a rule, is evident from the constant *direction* of their motion. *Glanville*.—This is a *manuduction* to all kind of sin. *South*.

**NUDUCTOR**, [from *manus*, Lat. hand, and *duco*, I lead,] an ancient officer in the Latin Church, who, from the middle of the choir, gave the *direction* for the choiristers to sing, and marked the *measure*, beat time, and regulated the music. The Greeks called him *MESACHOROS*, because he was in the middle of the choir.

**NUFACTORY**, *n. f.* a place where *manuductions* are carried on to a considerable extent.

**MANUFACTURE.** *n. f.* [*manus* and *facio*,

Lat. *manufacture*, Fr.] 1. The practice of making any piece of workmanship. 2. Any thing made by art.—

Heav'n's pow'r is infinite: earth, air, and sea,  
The *manufacture* mass, the making pow'r obey.

*Dryden*.

—The peasants are clothed in a coarse kind of canvas, the *manufacture* of the country. *Addison*.

(2.) A MANUFACTURE is a commodity produced from raw or natural materials, either by the work of the hand or by machinery; though the word literally means only work made by the hand.

\* To MANUFACTURE, *v. a.* [*manufacturer*, Fr.] 1. To make by art and labour; to form by workmanship. 2. To employ in work; to work up: as, we manufacture our wool.

\* MANUFACTURER, *n. f.* [*manufacturier*, Fr. *manufacturus*, Lat.] A workman; an artificer.—In the practices of artificers and the *manufacturers* of various kinds, the end being proposed, we find out ways of composing things for the several uses of human life. *Watts*.

\* To MANUMISE, *v. a.* [*manumitto*, Lat.] To set free; to dismiss from slavery.—A constant report of a danger so imminent run through the whole castle, even into the deep dungeons, by the compassion of certain *manumised* slaves. *Knolles*.—  
He presents

To thee, renown'd for piety and force,

Poor captives *manumis'd*.

*Waller*.

(1.) \* MANUMISSION, *n. f.* [*manumission*, Fr. *manumissio*, Latin.] The act of giving liberty to slaves.—Slaves wore iron rings until their *manumission* or preferment. *Brown's Vulg. Errors*.—The pileus was somewhat like a night-cap, as the symbol of liberty, given to slaves at their *manumission*. *Arbutnot*.

(2.) MANUMISSION is derived from the Latin, *manus*, hand, and *mittere*, to send; *quia servus mittebatur extra manum seu potestatem domini sui*. Some authors define manumission an act by which a lord enfranchises his tenants, who till that time had been his vassals, and in a state of slavery inconsistent with the sanctity of the Christian faith. Among the Romans, the manumission of slaves was performed 3 ways: 1. When, with his master's consent, a slave had his name entered in the census or public register of the citizens. 2. When the slave was led before the praetor, and that magistrate laid his wand, called *vindicta*, on his head. 3. When the master gave the slave his freedom by his testament. *Servius Tullus* is said to have set on foot the first manner; and *P. Valerius Publicola* the 2d. A particular account is given of the 3d, in *Justinian's Institutes*. It was not necessary that the praetor should be on his tribunal to perform the ceremony of manumission: he did it any where, in his house, in the street, &c. He laid the rod on the slave's head, pronouncing these words, *Dico eum liberum esse more Quiritum*, "I declare him a freeman, after the manner of the Romans." This done, he gave the rod to the licitor, who struck the slave with it on the head, and afterwards with his hand on his face and back; and the notary or scribe entered the name of the new freed man in the register, with the reasons of his manumission. The slave had likewise his head shaved.

\* To MANUMIT. *v. a.* [*manumitto*, Lat.] To release from slavery.—*Manumit* and release him from those drudgeries to vice, under which those remain who live without God. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

Thou wilt beneath the burthen bow,  
And glad receive the *manumitting* blow,

On thy thrif'd flavin' head. *Dryd. Jew.*

MANUPPELLA, a town of Naples, in Abuzzo Citra, 8 miles S. of Civita.

\* MANURABLE. *adj.* (from *manure*.) Capable of cultivation.—This book gives an account of the *manurable* lands in every manor. *Hale's Orig.*

\* MANURANCE. *n. f.* (from *manure*.) Agriculture; cultivation. An obsolete word, worthy of revival.—Although there should none of them fall by the sword, yet they being kept from *manurances*, and their cattle from running abroad, by this hard restraint they would quickly devour one another. *Spenser on Ireland.*

(1.) \* MANURE. *v. f.* (from the verb.) Soil to be laid on lands; dung or compost to fatten land.

When the Nile from Pharian fields is fled,

The fat *manure* with heav'nly fire is warm'd.

*Dryden.*

—Mud makes an extraordinary *manure* for land that is findy. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

(2.) MANURE. See RURAL OECONOMY.

\* To MANURE. *v. a.* [*manourer*, Fr.] 1. To cultivate by manual labour.—

They mock our scant *manuring*. *Milton.*

2. To dung; to fatten with composts.—Fragments of shells, reduced by the agitation of the sea to powder, are used for the *manuring* of land. *Woodward.*

3. To fatten as a compost.—

The corps of half her senate

*Manure* the fields of Theffaly, while we

Sit here, delib'rating in cold debates. *Cato.*

\* MANUREMENT. *n. f.* (from *manure*.) Cul-

use in the sciences. As the ancient codes now remain on Egyptian paper, or on wood only to consider those that are made of vellum, *membranes* written on our paper, *chairs* are in most esteem. With respect to these codes are written in capital letters, or in half small letters. Those of the ancients. There are no inscriptions, no letters different from the beginning of any word, no letters that are half square, no letters that are Gothic characters, as the form of the letters. Some round letters are not so ancient as are not older than the 9th or 10th century. They are likewise in the preceding, and are frequent in the country, into Lombardy, Franco-Gaulic, Saxon, and the ancient Greek books, the letters are divided into the periods of a discourse, by lines; and called, in Latin, *versus*, from the reason these lines are still more *versus* than *lines*. At the end of the number of verses put down the number of verses listed; that the copies might be listed; and it is in this sense used by Trebonius, when he says, that he has written 100,000 *verse versus*. likewise *vel probæ vel determi-* nate perfect, not only with reg-



UTIUS, Aldus, the first of the celebrated printers, who were as illustrious as for uncommon skill in their art. He was born at Bassano in Italy a little before the middle of the 15th century; and hence he is called *Bassanus*, though generally by the name of *Aldus*. He was the first Greek neatly and correctly; and much reputation by it, that what he printed was proverbially said to come from the press of Aldus." He published a grammar; with Notes upon Horace, &c. He died at Venice, in 1516.

PAULUS, Paul, the son of Aldus, (N<sup>o</sup> 2) a printer, but was more learned than his father, and acquired, by continual reading, a purity in writing Latin, that no other allows a Roman could not exceed. He placed him at the head of the apostrophe, and gave him the charge of the Vatican. His Epistles are highly laboured, and correct; but contain more words than he had however a very profound knowledge of antiquity; and he published, in his father's works, with Commentaries, &c. Venice, 1523. He also published a book, *De Lexibus Romanorum*; which is his master-piece. He died in 1574.

ALDUS, Aldus, the Younger, the son of the first, esteemed one of the greatest geniuses of his time. Clement VII. directed in the direction of the Vatican print-works, probably the profits of that place were all, as Manutius was obliged, to acknowledge, to his father, his uncle, and he collected with extraordinary industry which contained 80,000 volumes. He died in 1577, without any other reputation due to his merit. He published Commentaries on Cicero. 2. A treatise on the Latin and Italian, which are es-

Of or belonging to the Isle of Manx language, &c. See MAN,

See MANRESA.

NY. *adv.* comp. *more*, superl. *most*. n.] 1. Consisting of a great number; more than few.—Our enemy, the conquerors of our country, slew many of them. 2. 24.—When many atoms descend in the same cause which makes them be light in proportion to their weight on the Soul.—

That thy prayers are heard, and

of his seizure many days of grace, wherein thou may'st repent, and act with many deeds well done.

Milton. *et.* never give the least directions to appeal to the bishop of Rome for a decision of the many differences which, in his time, happened among them. Tillotson. number indefinite, or comparative.—

Both men and women, as many as were willing-hearted, brought bracelets. *Exod.* xxxv. 22.—

This yet I apprehend not, why to those Among whom God will deign to dwell on earth,

So many and so various laws are given; So many laws argue so many sins. *Milton.*

3. Powerful: with *too*, in low language.—They come to vie power and expence with those that are too high and too many for them. *L'Estrange.*

(2.) \* MANY. *n. f.* [This word is remarkable in the Saxon for its frequent use, being written with twenty variations: *mannegeo, mannego, mannegeo, manigo, manigo, manigo, manio, maniu, mannygo, mannegeo, manigu, manige, manigo, mannegeo, manigo, manegu, menigo, menigo, manigu, manio, maniu, Lye.*] 1. A multitude; a company; a great number; people.—

After him the rascal many ran, Heaped together in rude rabblement. *Spenser.*

O thou fond many! with what loud applause

Did'st thou beat heav'n with blessing Bolingbroke. *Shak.*

I had a purpose now To lead our many to the holy land;

Lest rest and lying still might make them look Too near into my state. *Shak.*

A care-craz'd mother of a many children. *Shak.*

—The vulgar and the many are fit only to be led or driven, but by no means fit to guide themselves. *South.*—

There parting from the king, the chiefs divide, And wheeling East and West, before their many ride. *Dryden.*

—He is liable to a great many inconveniencies every moment of his life. *Tillotson.*—Seeing a great many in rich gowns, he was amazed to find that persons of quality were up so early. *Addison.* 2. Many, when it is used before a singular noun, seem to be a substantive. In conversation, for many a man they say a many men.—

Thou art a collop of my flesh, And for thy sake have I shed many a tear. *Shak.*

—He is beset with enemies, the meanest of which is not without many and many a way to the wreaking of a malice. *L'Estrange.*—

Broad were their collars too, and every one Was set about with many a costly stone. *Dryden.*

Many a child can have the distinct clear ideas of two and three long before he has any idea of infinite. *Locke.* 3. Many is used much in composition.

(3.) MANY. We have formerly noticed, under the article, DICTIONARY, § 4, at the word GREAT, a most anomalous, if not ungrammatical, though common, use of the word many, which seems to set at defiance all the rules of syntax to construe it. Examples of this anomalous use occur frequently in the best English authors, in such expressions as these—"a great many persons,"—"a good many people," &c. That this word, as well as numberless others in all languages, is very properly and grammatically used, sometimes as a substantive noun, as in the above quotations from Spenser, Shakspere and Dryden, (§ 2. def.

2.) and sometimes as an *adjective*, we readily admit; but the anomaly, we complain of, is the use of it as *both an adjective and a substantive*, in one and the same clause, as in the above examples, and in Dr Johnson's quotation from Tillotson; (§ 2. *def.* 1.) where, at the same instant that it is used as a substantive to *great* or *good*, it is also used as an adjective to *persons*, *people* and *inconveniences*. Dr Ash ranks it as an *ellipsis*, but this cannot be admitted, as it is impossible by any *supplement* to render these expressions grammatical, and the Dr does not attempt it. The absurdity, too, of using the *singular* article *a* along with their *plural nouns*, is self-evident. These anomalies might be easily avoided, either by omitting the article and adjective *a great* before *many*, as in most cases *many* will express the whole idea sufficiently; or, if *greatness* is necessary to be expressed, by using *number of* or *multitude of*, instead of *many* after *great*. While numerous innovations are daily making by modern writers, tending to corrupt and debase our Language, (See ENGLISH LANGUAGE, *Pref.* and LANGUAGE, *Sec.* VIII.) Some attempts might surely be made by our Literati, to get rid of a few anomalous and ungrammatical expressions unparalleled in any other language.

MANYAN, a river of Wales, in Denbighshire.

\* MANYCOLOURED. *adj.* [*many* and *colour*.] Having various colours.—

Hail *manycoloured* messenger, that ne'er  
Do'st disobey the voice of Jupiter! *Shak.*

He hears not me, but on the other side,  
A *manycolours'd* peacock having spy'd,  
Leaves him and me. *Donne.*

The hoary majesty of spades appears;  
Puts forth one manly leg, to fight reveal'd,  
The rest his *manycolour'd* robe conceal'd. *Pope.*

\* MANYCORNERED. *adj.* [*many* and *corner*.] Polygonal; having corners more than twelve; the geometricians have particular names for angular figures up to those of twelve corners.—

Search those *many-corner'd* minds,  
Where woman's crooked fancy turns and winds. *Dryden.*

MANYFOLD, a river of Staffordshire, which runs into the Dove, 3 miles N. of Ashbourn.

\* MANYHEADED. *adj.* [*many* and *head*.] Having many heads.—Some of the wiser, seeing that a popular licence is indeed the *manyheaded* tyranny, prevailed with the rest to make Musidorus their chief. *Sidney.*—

The proud Dueffa came  
High mounted on her *manyheaded* beast. *F. Q.*

The *manyheaded* beast hath broke,  
Or shaken from his head, the royal yoke. *Denham.*

That form'd his manhood to subdue  
The hydra of the *manyheaded* hissing crew. *Dryden.*

\* MANYLANGUED. *adj.* [*many* and *language*.] Having many languages.—

He, wand'ring long, a wider circle made,  
And *manylanguage'd* nations has survey'd. *Pope.*

\* MANYPEOPLED. *adj.* [*many* and *people*.] Numerously populous.—

He from the *many-peopl'd* city flies. *Sundys.*

\* MANYTIMES, an adverbial phrase. Often;

frequently.—They are Roman catholick in the device and legend, which are both *manytimes* taken out of the Scriptures. *Addison.*—

MANZALE, or MENZALEH, a town and lake of Egypt, 20 miles SSE. of Damietta.

(1.) MANZANARES, a river of Spain, in New Castile, which runs into the Henares, 8 miles below Madrid. See MADRID, N° 1.

(2, 3.) MANZANARES, two towns of Spain, in New Castile, the one 21 miles N. of Madrid; the other 21 E. of Ciudad Real.

MANZANEDA, a town of Spain, in Galicia.

MANZANELLO, a town of Spain, in Leon.

MANZAT, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome, 9 miles NW. of Riom.

MAON, in ancient geography, a town of the tribe of Judah, on the SE. towards the Dead Sea. It gave name to the *wilderness of Maon*, 1 Sam. xxii.

(1.) \* MAP. *n. f.* [*mappa*, low Latin.] A geographical picture on which lands and seas are delineated according to the longitude and latitude.

—Zelmane earnestly entreated Dorus, that he would bestow a *map* of this little world upon her. *Sidney.*—I will take a *map* of Ireland, and lay it before me, and make mine eyes my schoolmaster, to give my understanding to judge of your plot. *Spenser.*—Old coins are like so many *maps* for explaining the ancient geography. *Addison.*—

O'er the *map* my finger taught to stray,  
Cross many a region marks the winding way;  
From sea to sea, from realm to realm I rove,  
And grow a mere geographer by love. *Titch.*

(2.) MAP. See GEOGRAPHY, *Sec.* IX.

\* To MAP. *v. a.* [*from* the noun.] To delineate; to set down.—I am near to the place where they should meet if Pisanio have *map'd* it right. *Shak.*

(1.) MAPLE. See ACER.

(2.) MAPLE SUGAR. See SUGAR.

(3.) \* MAPLE TREE. *n. f.* [*acer*.] The *maple-tree* hath jagged or angular leaves; the seeds grow two together in hard-winged vessels: there are several species; the greater *maple* is falsely called the lycamore tree: the common *maple* is frequent in hedge-rows. *Miller.*—

The plantane round,  
The carved holme, the *maple* seldom inward found. *Spear.*

—Of the rottenest *maple* wood burnt to ashes they make a strong lye. *Mortimer.*

MAPLETOFT, Dr John, descended from a good family in Huntingdonshire, was born in 1631. He studied physic; was educated in Trinity college, Cambridge; and in 1675 was chosen professor of medicine at Gresham college. He translated Dr Sydenham's *Observationes Medicæ circa morborum acutorum historiam et curacionem* into Latin, and Sydenham dedicated them to him. He married in 1679, and soon after studied civinity; took orders; obtained the vicarage of St Lawrence Jewry, with the lectureship of St Christopher's in London; and having been a benefactor to Sion college, was, in 1707, elected president. He continued to preach till he was above 80 years of age; and in 1710, published *The principles and duties of the Christian religion* &c. 8vo. and sent a copy to every house in

s other pieces on moral and  
s, there are in the *Appendix* to  
his Latin lectures on the origin  
icine.

: public games of the Roman  
in hung out at the prætor's or  
rate's feat. as a signal for the  
rfions to begin. The mappa  
e MAPPARIUS, from the con-  
er great officer. Notice was  
found of trumpet; but Nero  
roduced the mappa, by throw-  
t of the window to satisfy the  
noisy at the delay of the sports  
nner.

in Roman antiquity, the officer  
nal to the gladiators to begin  
ing a handkerchief that he had  
emperor or other magistrate.

.f. [from *map.*] The art of plan-  
t. *Hannner.*—

ill and mental parts,  
e how many hands shall strike  
lls them on;  
edwork, *mapp'ry*, closet war.

*Sbak.*  
town of Spain, in New Castile.  
Æ-MAR, and MARR.

. [amyrrian, Saxon.] To injure;  
to mischief; to damage. Ob-

me, nor to be less than foe,  
than himself, doth *mar*  
t, and victor's praise also. *F. Q.*  
y here only stumble, and per-  
hing, to the *marring* and maim-  
in learning. *Afcham.*—

are more in words than matter,  
*marr* their malt with water.

*Sbak.*  
r no more trees with writing  
s.—I pray you *mar* no more of  
ading them ill-favour'dly. *Sbak.*  
honour, be not then disgrac'd,  
*mar* not when thou think'st to

*Fairfax.*  
me the man that all did *mar*,  
gh indiscretion, chance, or worse.

*Dani. l.*  
o prevail in great things is less  
other, to appear in every thing;  
confusion, and *marrs* business,  
sendencies. *Bacon.*—

see how cause from cause doth

they link'd and folded are:  
w oft one disagreeing string  
loth rather make than *marr*!

*Davies.*  
y, and despair,  
s borrow'd visage. *Milton.*

there, untimely joy through all  
fus'd, had *marr'd* the funeral.  
*Walker.*

provoke him to your cost  
*mar'd*, and the good cleric is lost.  
*Dryden.*

A, in ancient geography, the ca-

pital of Sogdiana; now thought to be *Samarcand*,  
a city of Ubec Tartary, the royal residence of  
Tamerlane. See SAMARCAND.

MARACAPA, a district of S. America, in Ter-  
ra Firma, and in the province of Cumana.

(1.) MARACAYBO, a rich and considerable  
town of South America, and capital of the pro-  
vince of Venezuela, seated near a lake of the same  
name. It carries on a great trade in skins, and  
chocolate, which is the best in America; and they  
have likewise very fine tobacco. It was taken by  
the French buccaneers in 1666 and 1678. Lon.  
70. 45. W. Lat. 10. 0. N.

(2.) MARACAYBO, a lake in South America,  
200 miles long and 100 broad, which discharges  
itself by a river into the North Sea. It is well  
defended by strong forts; which, however, did  
not hinder Sir Henry Morgan, a buccaneer, from  
entering it, and plundering several Spanish towns  
on the coast, after defeating a squadron sent out  
against him.

MARACCI, Lewis, a learned Italian, born at  
Lucca, in 1612. He was a priest, and acquired  
great reputation by publishing an edition of the  
Koran, at Padua, in Arabic and Latin, in 2 vols  
fol. He also assisted in publishing the Bible in A-  
rabic, at Rome, in 3 vols fol. He died in 1700.

MARAGNAN, a province of Brazil, in South  
America, which comprehends a fertile populous  
island, 112 miles in circumference. The French  
settled here in 1612, and built a town; but they  
were soon driven from thence by the Portuguese,  
who have possessed it ever since. The town is  
little, but strong; and has a castle, a harbour, and  
a bishop's see. The climate is very agreeable and  
wholesome, and the soil produces plenty of all the  
necessaries of life. Lon. 54. 35. W. Lat. 2. 0. S.

MARAGNON, a name of the river AMAZON.

MARALDI, James Philip, a learned mathema-  
tician and astronomer, of the academy of sciences  
at Paris, born in the county of Nice, in 1665.  
He was the son of Francis Maraldi and Angela  
Catharine Cassini, the sister of the famous astron-  
omer. His uncle Cassini sent him to France in 1687,  
where he acquired great reputation by his learn-  
ing and observations. He made a catalogue of  
the fixed stars, which is more exact than Bayer's;  
and has given a great number of interesting obser-  
vations in the *Memoirs of the Academy*; particu-  
larly on bees and petrifications. He also assisted his  
uncle in constructing the great meridian through  
France. He died in 1729.

MARANA, John Paul, an ingenious writer of  
the 17th century, of a distinguished family, born  
at Genoa; where he was educated, and made great  
progress in the sciences. Having been engaged in  
the conspiracy of Raphael della Terra, to deliver  
up Genoa to the duke of Savoy, he was in 1670,  
when 28 years of age, imprisoned in the tower of  
that city. Being liberated in 1674, he was order-  
ed to write the history of that conspiracy; but,  
when finished, it was prevented from being pub-  
lished. When the republic of Genoa was at var-  
iance with the court of France, Marana, who had  
always an inclination for that court, was afraid  
of being imprisoned a 2d time; and retired to  
Monaco, where he again wrote the history of the  
conspiracy in Italian; and, in 1682, went to Lon-

ons to get it printed. From Lyons he went to Paris, where his merit soon acquired him powerful friends. He spent the rest of his life in a tranquil mediocrity, devoted to study and the society of men of learning; and died in 1693. His history of the conspiracy contains many interesting anecdotes, no where else to be found. He also wrote several other works; the best known of which is *the Turkish Spy*, in 6 vols 12mo, which was in 1742 augmented to 7. Of this ingenious work there is an excellent English translation.

(1.) \* MARANATHA. *n. f.* [Syriack.] It signifies, the Lord comes, or, the Lord is come: it was a form of the denouncing or anathematizing among the Jews. St Paul pronounces, If any love not the Lord Jesus Christ, let him be *anathema maranatha*, which is as much as to say, May'st thou be devoted to the greatest of evils, and to the utmost severity of God's judgments; may the Lord come quickly to take vengeance of thy crimes. *Calver.*

(2.) MARANATHA. See ANATHEMA.

(1.) MARANHÃO, or MARANNON, a fertile island of Brasil, at the mouth of 3 rivers, on the coast of the province, (N<sup>o</sup> 2.) about 14 leagues in circumference, with a strong fort. It was taken by the French from the Portuguese in 1712, but soon recovered by the latter. St Louis is the capital; besides which it has about 27 hamlets, containing about 250 people each; or 6750 souls in all.

(2.) MARANHÃO, } a province of Brasil, fo  
MARANHON, or } named from the above  
MARANNON, } island, belonging to the  
Portuguese, who first settled in it, in 1599. The climate is mild and serene. The natives go naked, and are long-lived. St Philip is the capital.

(1.) MARANO, a town and fort of Maritime Austria, in the prov. of Friuli, with a strong citadel; seated in a marsh at the bottom of the Gulf of Venice, which renders it difficult of access.

(2.) MARANO, a town of Naples, in Lavora.

MARANS, a rich town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente, and late territory of Aunis; seated among salt marshes, near the Sevre, 3 miles from the sea. It carries on a great trade in corn. Lon. o. 57. W. Lat 46. 20. N.

MARANT, or *Amarant*, a town of Persia, in Adirbeitzan, containing about 2500 houses, each with a garden, 50 miles N. of Tauris. The natives say that Noah was buried in it.

MARANTA, INDIAN ARROW-ROOT, a genus of the monogynia order, belonging to the monandria class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 8th order, *Scitamineæ*. The corolla is ringent and quinquefid, with two segments alternately patent. There are 3 species, viz.

1. MARANTA ARUNDINACEA, } all herbaceous
2. MARANTA COMOSA, and } perennial exo-
3. MARANTA GALANGA, } tics of the Indies,

kept here in hot-houses for curiosity: they have thick, knotty, creeping roots, crowned with long, broad, arundinaceous leaves, ending in points, and upright stalks, half a yard high, terminated by bunches of monopetalous, ringent, five-parted flowers. They are propagated by parting the roots in spring, and planting them in pots of light, rich earth, and then plunging them

in the bark-bed. The root of the *G.* used by the Indians to extract the virulence by their poisoned arrows; for it has its name of *arrow-root*. The *A. CEA*, or *starch plant*, rises to two feet, pointed leaves, small white flowers, and it is cultivated in gardens and in provins in the West Indies; and the starch is from it by the following process described by Wright: "The roots when a year old well washed in water, and then beat deep wooden mortars to a pulp. This into a large tub of clean water. Then well stirred, and the fibrous part by the hands, and thrown away. The n being passed through a hair sieve, or co is suffered to settle, and the clear water off. At the bottom of the vessel is a w which is again mixed with clean water ed: lastly, the mass is dried on sheets, and is pure starch."—A decoction of roots (the Doctor informs us) makes ar ptifin in acute diseases.

MARANZANO, a town of Maritim in the late republic of Venice; 4 miles' nice.

MARASCA, a town of the Italian in the dep. of Upper Po, and diocesis of (late Cremonese) seated on a canal of the

(1.) \* MARASMUS. *n. f.* [*μαρασμος*], from A consumption, in which persons waste their substance. *Quincy.*—

—A *marasmus* imports a consumption of a fever; a consumption or withering of t by reason of a natural extinction of the na Pining atrophy,

*Marasmus*, and wide-wasting pestilence and an extenuation of the body, caused an immoderate heat. *Harvey.*

(2.) MARASMUS is an atrophy in its la MARASONA, a town of European in Livadia, anciently called MARATHO consisting only of a few houses and gate MARATHON.

MARAT, John Paul, one of these b gents in the French revolution, whose and ferocious zeal for liberty, led them to its best friends, when their political sentim not agree in every punctilio with their who, by thus disgracing and ruining the liberty, and cutting off its most zealous d in France, laid the foundation for that w and enormous despotic power, since after now (1802) exercised by Gen. Bonaparte REVOLUTION, FRENCH.) If any man ca assassination, this bloody deputy to the N Convention was deservedly assassinated in h house, while bathing, by Charlotte Corday, evening of the 13th July, 1793. See C Marat was a most violent enemy to the Bill and on the 12th April 1793, proposed "to minate the conspirators." As a man of lett was the conductor of an inflammatory J, which increased the discontents of the peop contributed much to the bloody scenes th lowed. His character is thus drawn by the piler of the *New Annual Register*, for 17 "Whatever might have been the amb: 1801

ere is ample reason to conclude, that avas-  
 as not among his vices, since he is univer-  
 elieved to have died poor. If this is the  
 irat will appear in the character of an en-  
 e; and it will probably be no unfair con-  
 to say that his enthusiasm approached to  
 y. As to his talents, he seems to have been  
 a man of activity than of genius; rather  
 than profound, and possessing more pene-  
 than judgment.—To reject religion is too  
 only to throw off humanity. The gentle  
 miable affections are admirably cherised  
 proved by pure Christianity: had the lead-  
 riots of France been Christians, their cause  
 have been less sullied with human blood.  
 was among the most savage and inexorable  
 in; and whatever his pretensions to repub-  
 lictue, it is impossible to respect the memo-  
 man, who appears, in so many instances,  
 e been callous to the dictates of humanity.”  
 MARAT, or MARAT LE GRAND, a town of  
 in the dep. of the Meuse, 7 miles N. of  
 Duc.

RATHON, in ancient geography, one of  
 ni or hamlets of Attica; about 12 miles  
 f Athens, towards Boeotia, near the sea.  
 ain of Marathon, famous for Miltiades's  
 over the Persians, by which the liberties  
 ens and other cities of Greece were saved,  
 ; and narrow, but consists chiefly of level  
 l, and therefore admits the operations of ca-  
 which formed the main strength of the bar-  
 army, and with which the Greeks were ve-  
 rily provided. Here the Persians, under  
 pitched their camp, by the advice of Hip-  
 e banished king of Athens, who had fol-  
 he expedition, and had a perfect knowledge  
 country. The Persian army consisted of  
 o infantry, and 10,000 horse. The Athe-  
 were in the utmost consternation. They  
 pon the first appearance of the Persian fleet,  
 implore assistance from the other nations  
 ee; but some had submitted to Darius,  
 hers trembled at the very name of the Per-  
 The Lacedæmonians alone promised troops;  
 rious obstacles prevented them from inar-  
 forming a junction with those of Athens.  
 ity therefore could only rely on its own  
 h, but it possessed 3 brave generals, viz.  
 les, Aristides, and Themistocles, who, by  
 etric exertions, kindled the flame of the  
 heroism in the minds of the Athenians.  
 were immediately made. Each of the ten  
 furnished 1000 foot soldiers with a coun-  
 e. No sooner were the troops assembled  
 y marched into the plain of Marathon,  
 the inhabitants of Platæa in Boeotia sent  
 reinforcement of 1000 infantry. Scarcely  
 re two armies in sight of each other, when  
 les proposed to attack the enemy. Aristi-  
 l several others warmly supported this mea-  
 ut the rest, terrified at the excessive dis-  
 tion of the armies, were for waiting for the  
 ra from Lacedæmon. Opinions being dis-  
 they had recourse to that of the polemarch,  
 f of the militia, to decide the matter. Mil-  
 idressed him, with the ardour of a man  
 impressed with the importance of the ex-  
 . XIII. PART II.

isting circumstances: “ Athens (said he) is on the  
 point of experiencing the greatest of vicissitudes:  
 Ready to become the first power of Greece, or  
 subjected to the tyranny and fury of Hippias.  
 From you alone, Callimachus, the now awaits  
 her destiny. If we suffer the ardour of the troops  
 to cool, they will shamefully bow beneath the  
 Persian yoke; but if we lead them on to battle,  
 the gods and victory will favour us. A word  
 from your mouth must now precipitate your coun-  
 try into slavery or preserve her liberty.” Calli-  
 machus gave his suffrage, and the battle was re-  
 solved on. To ensure success, Aristides, and the  
 other generals after his example, yielded to Mil-  
 tiades the honour of the command which belong-  
 ed to them in rotation. Miltiades drew up his  
 troops at the foot of a mountain, on a spot of  
 ground scattered over with trees to impede the  
 Persian cavalry. The Platæans were placed on  
 the left wing; Callimachus commanded the right;  
 Aristides and Themistocles were in the centre,  
 and Miltiades every where. An interval of nearly  
 a mile separated the Grecian army from that of  
 the Persians. At the first signal the Greeks ad-  
 vanced over this space running. The Persians,  
 astonished at a mode of attack so new, for a mo-  
 ment remained motionless; but to the impetuous  
 fury of the enemy they soon opposed a more fe-  
 date and not less formidable fury. After an ob-  
 stinate conflict of some hours, victory began to de-  
 clare for the Grecian army. The right wing dis-  
 persed the enemy in the plain, while the left drove  
 them back on a morass that had the appearance of  
 a meadow, in which they stuck fast and were lost.  
 Both these bodies of troops now flew to the suc-  
 cour of Aristides and Themistocles, ready to give  
 way before the slower of the Persian troops in  
 the centre. From this moment the rout became  
 general. The Persians, repulsed on all sides, found  
 their only asylum in the fleet. The conquerors  
 pursued them with fire and sword, and took,  
 burnt, or sunk the greater part of their vessels:  
 the rest escaped by dint of rowing. The Persians  
 lost about 6400 men; the Athenians only 192.  
 Miltiades was wounded; Hippias was left dead  
 on the field, as were Steisus and Callimachus,  
 two of the Athenian generals. Scarcely was the  
 battle over, when a soldier, worn out with fatigue,  
 resolved to carry the first news of the victory to  
 the magistrates of Athens, and without quitting  
 his arms, he runs, flies, arrives, announces the  
 victory, and falls dead at their feet. This battle  
 was fought on the 6th of Boædromion, in the 48  
 year of the 72d Olympiad, or 25th Sept. A. A. C.  
 490. The next day 1000 Spartans arrived, who,  
 in 3 days and nights, had marched 1200 stadia.  
 The Athenians neglected nothing to eternise the  
 memory of those who fell in the battle. It had  
 been usual to inter the citizens who perished in  
 war, at the public expence, in the Ceramicus;  
 without the city; but these were deemed uncom-  
 monly meritorious. They were buried, and a  
 barrow was created on the spot where their brave-  
 ry had been manifested. Their names were en-  
 graven on half columns erected on the plain of  
 Marathon. In the intervals between them were  
 erected trophies bearing the arms of the Persians.  
 An artist of eminence painted all the circumstan-

ees of the battle in one of the most frequented porticoes of the city: Miltiades was there represented at the head of the generals, exhorting the troops to fight for their country. Pausanias examined the field of battle about 600 years after this event; and found, on the barrow of the Athenians, pillars containing the names of the dead under those of the tribes to which they belonged; another for the Plataeans and slaves; and a distinct monument of Miltiades, who survived the battle. The Marathonians worshipped those who were slain in the battle. Many centuries have elapsed since the age of Pausanias; but the principal barrow still towers above the level of the plain. It is of light fine earth, and has a bush or two growing on it. Dr Chandler informs us, that he enjoyed a pleasing and satisfactory view from the summit; and looked, but in vain, for the pillars on which the names were recorded, lamenting that such memorials should ever be removed. At a small distance northward is a square basement of white marble, perhaps part of the trophy.

MARATIA, INFERIOR and SUPERIOR, 2 towns of Naples, in the prov. of Basilicata; the latter 7 and the former 8 miles WSW. of Lauria.

MARATISTS, a name given to those furious and sanguinary political zealots, who, like MARAT, during the FRENCH REVOLUTION, expected to establish the liberty of France, by extirpating all who differed from them in their political opinions; and who thus disgraced the cause of freedom, as much as a similar sanguinary spirit formerly disgraced that of religion.

MARATTAS. See MARHATTAS.

MARATTI, Charles, a celebrated painter, born at Camorano, near Ancona, in 1625. He came a poor boy to Rome, when only 11 years old; and at 12 recommended himself to Andrew Sacchi, by his drawings after Raphael in the Vatican. Sacchi took him into his school, where he continued 25 years till his master's death. His fine ideas of beauty and grace occasioned his being generally employed in painting madonas and female saints. From the finest statues and pictures, he made himself master of the most perfect forms, and the most charming airs. He produced a noble variety of draperies, more artfully managed, more richly ornamented, and with greater propriety than even the best of the moderns. He was inimitable in adorning the head, in the disposal of the hair, and the elegance of the hands and feet. In his younger days he etched a few prints, with equal spirit and correctness. It would be tedious to enumerate the celebrated paintings done by him. He made several admirable portraits of kings, popes, and cardinals, from whom he received the highest testimonies of esteem. Innocent XI. appointed him keeper of the paintings in his chapel and the Vatican. Maratti erected two noble monuments for Raphael and Hannibal, at his own expence, in the pantheon. To his abilities in painting he added many virtues, particularly extensive charity. He died at Rome in 1713, aged 83.

MARAUDERS, *n. f.* in a military sense, means a party of soldiers, who, without any order, go into the neighbouring houses and villages, when the army is either in camp or garrison, to plunder and destroy, &c. Marauders are a disgrace to the

camp, to the military profession, and do better quarter from their officers than to the poor peasants, &c.

MARAUDING, *part.* See last article.

MARAVEDI, a little Spanish copper worthsome what more than a French denier half a farthing English. The Spaniards count by maravedis, both in commerce and finances, though the coin itself is no longer among them. Sixty-three maravedis are equal to a rial of silver; so that the rial, or eight rials, contains 504; and the pistole of pieces of eight, 2016 maravedis. This fineness of the coin produces vast numbers in the accounts and calculation; inasmuch that a stranger or correspondent would think himself indebted several millions for a commodity that cost a few pounds. In the laws of Spain, we find several kinds of maravedis; Alphonso's maravedis, white maravedis, maravedis of good maravedis Combrenos, black maravedis, &c. maravedis. When we find maravedis alone without any addition, it is to be understood those mentioned above. The rest are different value, fineness of metal, time, &c. Maraferts, that this coin is older than the rial, that it came from the Goths; that it was formerly equal to a third part of the rial, and frequently of 12 times the value of the present maravedi. Under Alphonso XI. the maravedis were ten times, under Henry II. ten times, under John III. five times, and under John II. two times an half, the value of the present maravedi.

MARAWAR, a province of Indostan, lying on the coast opposite Ceylon; 60 miles long and 40 broad; in alliance with Britain. adporum is the chief city.

MARAZION. See MERRAZION.

(1.) MARBACH, a river in Suabia.

(2-4.) MARBACH, three towns of Austria on the Danube, 3 miles W. of Aggsbach: 1. NE. of Steyregg; 3. 2 miles W. of Zwettl.

(5.) MARBACH, a town of Upper Saxony, Erzgebürg, 3 miles SW. of Noisen.

MARBELLA, a town of Spain, in Andalusia, at the mouth of the Verde, 30 miles NE. of Malaga, and 28 SW. of Malaga. Lon. 5. Lat. 36. 25. N.

MARBEUF, a town of Corsica.

(1.) \* MARBLE. *n. f.* *lapis bre.* Fr. *marbre*. 1. Stone used in statues and elegant buildings, capable of a bright polish, and in a manner calcing into lime.—

He plies her hard, and much rain weathers marble.

Thou marble hew'ft, ere long to part withal  
And houses rear't it, unmindful of thy fall.

Some dry their corn infected with the  
Then grind with marbles, and prepare to

—The two flat sides of two pieces of marble more easily approach each other, when there is nothing but water or air, than if there is a diamond between them; not that the pieces of the diamond are more solid, but because the water, being more easily separable, gives less resistance to the approach of the two pieces of marble.

e balls supposed to be of marble, with children play.—*Marbles* taught them per and the laws of motion; nut-crackers the he leaver. *Arbutus* and *Pope*. 3. A stone able for the sculpture or inscription; as, *ford marbles*.

**MARBLE**, *adj.* 1. Made of marble.—*Johnson's* fate revert is mine, *Marble* love took flesh and blood, that I worshipping'd as divins, beauty, now 'tis understood, ears to have no more of life, that whereof he fram'd his wife. *Waller*. egrated, or stained like marble.—Shall I see h'd inventions? shall I labour to lay *marbours* over my ruinous thoughts? or rather, the pureness of my virgin mind be stain-me keep the true simplicity of my word.—The appendix shall be printed by itself, 1, and with a *marble* cover. *Swift*.

**MARBLE**, in natural history, a genus of being bright and beautiful stones com- of small separate concretions, moderately not giving fire with steel, fermenting with dible in acid menstrua, and calcining in t fire.—The Latin word *marmor*, is deri- om the Greek *μαρμαριον*, to *shine*, or *glit-* the colours by which marbles are disti- nd are almost innumerable; but the most re- ble are, 1. The black marble of Flanders. n yellow. 3. Yellow with some white veins. low with black dendrites. 5. Yellow with figures resembling ruins. 6. Black and yel- 7. Black and white. 8. Pale yellow, with a blackish grey colour. 9. Yellow, white, 1. 10. Pale yellow. 11. Olive colour, with coloured cross lines, and dendrites. 12. ish red. 13. Flesh-coloured and yellow. mmon red marble. 15. Crimson, white, y. 16. Reddish brown lumps, on a whitish . 17. Bluish grey. 18. Snowy white.— rieties of marble, numerous as they are, een improperly augmented by virtuosos, me people who collect specimens for the gain. The Italians are particularly curi- this way; and most of the names imposed arbles are given by them. Every marble t from an unknown place is called by them when distinguished by a number of bright s, it is called *BROCATELLO*, or *brocattellato*. they want some of the originals to com- whole set of marbles, they either substitute which have the nearest resemblance to or, lastly, they stain white marbles accord- their own fancy, and impose them on the as natural. The finest solid modern mar- e those of Italy, Blankenburg, France, and rs. Very fine marble is also found in some Western Islands of Scotland. Those of ny, Norway, and Sweden, are of an infe- nd, being mixed with a kind of scaly lime- and even several of those above mentioned rty mixed with this substance, though in rior degree. Cronstedt, however, men- a new quarry of white marble in Sweden, from the specimens he had seen, appeared xcellent. The specific gravity of marble is 700 to 2800; that of *Carriera*, a very fine

Italian marble, is 2717.—Black marble owes its colour to a slight mixture of iron. Mr Bayen found some which contained 5 per cent of the metal; notwithstanding which, the lime prepared from it was white, but in time it acquired an ochry or reddish yellow colour. Marble, when chemically examined, appears to consist of calca- reous earth united with much fixed air; and is, like limestone or chalk, capable of being convert- ed into a strong quicklime.—Dr Black derives the origin of marbles, as well as limestone and mar- le, from the same source, *viz.* from the calcareous matter of shells and lithophyta. In one kind of limestone known by the name of *Portland stone*, and consisting of round grains united together, it was supposed to be composed of the spawn of fish; but comparisons of other phenomena have explained it. It is plain that it has been produced from a calcareous sand, which is found on the shore of some of the islands in the southern cli- mates. By the constant agitation the softer parts are worn off, and the harder parts remain in the form of particles that are highly polished, and which are afterwards gradually made to concrete together by causes of which we have yet no know- ledge.—There are indeed some few of the lime- stones and marbles in which we cannot discover any of the relics of the shells; but there are many signs of their having been in a dissolved or liqui- fied state; so we cannot expect to see the remains of the form of the shells: but even in many of the marbles that have the greatest appearance of a complete mixture, we still find often the confu- sed remains of the shells of which they have been originally composed. We should still find it dif- ficult to conceive how such masses should have derived their origin from shells; but, considering the many collections that we have an opportunity of seeing in their steps towards this process, and a little concreted together, so that by their going a step farther they might form limestone and mar- bles, we may see the possibility of their being all produced in the same manner. Thus vast quan- tities of shells have been found in the ci-devant province of Turin in France; and indeed there is no place where they have not been found. The lithophyta likewise seem to be a very fruitful source of this kind of earth. In the cold climates, where the moderate degree of heat is not so pro- ductive of animal life, we have not such an oppor- tunity of observing this: but in the hot climates, the sea, as well as the land, swarms with innume- rable animals; and, at the bottom, with those that produce the corals and madripores. We learn from the history of a ship that was sunk in a storm in the Gulf of Mexico, the vast growth there is of these bodies. About 30 years after, they attempted to dive into it to get out a quan- tity of silver; but they found great difficulty in getting it, from the ship being overgrown with coral. Sir Hans Sloan, in the *Philosophical Trans- actions*, and in his history of Jamaica, observes, that the ship's timber, the iron, and money, were all concreted by the growth of the calcareous matter. So in a tract of many thousands of years the quantity of it should be very great; and as this is going on through a very great extent of the bottom of the sea, it will produce very extensive

as well as massy collections of calcareous matter. According to Sir William Hamilton, many variegated marbles and precious stones are the produce of volcanoes. See *Phil. Trans.* vol. lviii, 12.

(4.) MARBLE, ARTIFICIAL. The fluids, whereof they make statues, busts, basso-relievos, and other ornaments of architecture, ought to be marble pulverized, mixed in a certain proportion with plaster; the whole well sifted, worked up with water, and used like common plaster. See *Stucco*.

A kind of artificial marble is also made of the flaky felsites, or a transparent stone resembling plaster; which becomes very hard, receives a tolerable polish, and may deceive a good eye. This kind of felsites resembles Muscovy talc. Another kind is formed by corrosive tinctures, which, penetrating into white marble to the depth of a line or more, imitate the various colours of dearer marble. There is also a preparation of brimstone in imitation of marble. To do this, provide a flat and smooth piece of marble; on this make a border or wall, to encompass either a square or oval table, which may be done either with wax or clay. Then having several sorts of colours, as white lead, vermilion, lake, orpiment, masticot, finalt, Prussian blue, &c. melt on a slow fire some brimstone in several glazed pipkins; put one particular sort of colour into each, and stir it well together; then having before oiled the marble all over within the wall, with one colour quickly drop spots upon it of larger and less size; after this, take another colour and do as before, and so on till the stone is covered with spots of all the colours you design to use. When this is done, consider what colour the mass or ground of the table is to be; if of a grey colour, then take fine sifted ashes, and mix it up with melted brimstone; or if red, with English red ochre; if white, with white lead; if black, with lamp or ivory black. The brimstone for the ground must be pretty hot, that the coloured drops on the stone may unite and incorporate with it. When the ground is poured even all over, put a thin wafered board upon it, while the brimstone is hot, making also the board hot, which ought to be thoroughly dry, to cause the brimstone to stick the better to it. When the whole is cold, take it up, and polish it with a cloth and oil, and it will look very beautiful.

(5.) MARBLE, COLOURING OF. This is a nice art; and, to succeed in it, the pieces of marble on which the experiments are tried, must be well polished, and free from the least spot or vein. The harder the marble is, the better will it bear the heat necessary in the operation; therefore alabaster and the common soft white marble are very improper for performing these operations upon. Heat is always necessary for opening the pores of marble, so as to render it fit to receive the colours; but the marble must never be made red hot; for when the texture of it is injured, and the colours are burnt, and lose their beauty. Too small a degree of heat is as bad as one too great; for, in this case, though the marble receives the colour, it will not be fixed in it, nor strike deep enough. Some colours will strike even cold; but they never sink in so well as when a just degree of heat is used. The proper degree is that which, without making the marble red, makes the liquor boil

upon its surface. The menstruums used to fix in the colours must be varied according to the nature of the colour to be used. A linum sale with horse's or dog's urine, with four parts of quick lime and one of pot ashes, is excellent for some colours; common ley of wood ashes is very good for others; for some, spirit of wine is best; and lastly, for others, oily liquors, or common white wine. The colours which succeed best with the peculiar menstruums, are these: blue dissolved in six times the quantity of spirit of wine, or of the urinous lixivium, and limes, dissolved in common ley of wood ashes. A decoction of saffron, and that colour made of buckthorn berries, called by painters *sap green*, both fix well when dissolved in urine and quick lime; red tolerably well when dissolved in spirit of wine. Vermilion, and a very fine powder of cochineal, also succeed very well in the same liquor. Bezoar's blood succeeds in spirit of wine, as does also a tincture of logwood in the same spirit. Alkanet root gives a fine colour; but the only menstruum to be used for it is oil of turpentine; for neither spirit of wine, nor any lixivium, will do well. There is another kind of *sanguis draconis*, commonly called *dragon's blood in tears*, which mixed with urine, gives a very elegant colour. There are other colours which must be laid on dry and unmixed. These are, dragon's blood of the pink kind, for a red; gamboge for a yellow; gess wax, for a green; common brimstone, pitch, and turpentine, for a brown colour. The matter in these experiments must be made considerably hot, and then the colours are to be rubbed on, or in the lump. Some of these colours, when once given, remain immutable, others are easily changed or destroyed. Thus, the red colour given by dragon's blood, or by a decoction of logwood, will be wholly taken away by oil of turpentine, and the polish of the marble not hurt by it. A fine gold colour is given in the following manner: take crude sal armoniac, vitriol, and vespergrise, of each equal quantities. White vitriol succeeds best; and all must be thoroughly mixed in fine powder. The staining of marble to all the degrees of red or yellow, by solutions of dragon's blood or gamboge, may be done by reducing these gums to powder, and grinding them with the spirit of wine in a glass mortar. But, for finer attempts, no method is so good as mixing a little of either of these powders with spirit of wine in a silver spoon, and holding it over burning charcoal. A fine tincture may thus be extracted, and, with a pencil dipped in this, the finest traces may be made on the marble while cold, which on heating it afterwards, either on a fire, or in a baker's oven, will sink very deep, and remain distinct on the stone. It is very easy to make the ground colour of the marble red or yellow, and leave white veins in it. This is to be done by covering the pieces where the whiteness is to remain with some white paint, or even with a or 2 thick sheets of paper; either of which will prevent the colour from penetrating. All the degrees of red are to be given to marble by this gum; and a slight tincture of it, without the assistance of heat to the marble, gives only a pale pink colour; but the stronger tinctures give it deep red; to make



ince of heat adds greatly. The addition of le pitch to the tincture, gives it a tendency ackness, or any degree of deep red that may eared. A blue colour may be given also to ie by dissolving turnfol in lixivium, in lime urine, or in the volatile spirit of urine; but has always a tendency to purple, made in r of these ways. A better blue is furnished he Canary turnfol, which needs only to be lved in water, and drawn on with a pencil: netrates very deeply into the marble, and the ar may be increased, by drawing the pencil ed afresh several times over the same lines. colour is apt to diffuse itself irregularly, but e kept in regular bounds, by circumfcribing ies with beds of wax, or any such substance. ould always be laid on cold, and no heat even afterwards to the marble. One great tage of this colour is, that it is easily added rbles already stained with other colours, is beautiful tinge, and lasts a long time.

MARBLE, ELASTIC, an extraordinary spe- rossil which has surprised all the naturalists ave seen it. There are several tables of it ved in the house of Prince Borghese at Rome, own to the curious. F. Jaquer, a cele- d mathematician, has given a description in *Encyclopædie* of Paris. There are 5 or 6 s of it; their length is about 2½ feet, the h about 10 inches, and the thickness a little an three. They were dug up, says Abbe s, in the food of Mondragone; the grain is of Carrarese marble, or of the finest Greek. seem to have suffered some attack of fire. are very dry, do not yield to external im- on, rebound to the hammer, like other com- us marble, and are perhaps susceptible of a e. Being set on end, they bend, oscillating ward and forward; when laid horizontally, aised at one end, they form a curve, beginning ds the middle; if placed on a table, and a of wood, or any thing else is laid under y they make a salient curve, and touch the with both ends. Notwithstanding this flexi- y they are liable to be broken if indiscretely led; and therefore one table only, and that he best, is shown to the curious. Formerly were altogether in the prince's apartment on round floor.

MARBLES, ARUNDEL, marbles with a chro- of the city of Athens, inscribed on them (as supposed) many years before our Saviour's ; presented to the university of Oxford by as earl of Arundel, whence the name. See DELIAN MARBLES.

MARBLES FOR PLAYING, or MARBLE ES, are mostly imported from Holland; where said they are made by breaking the stone after, or other substance, into pieces or chips suitable size; these are put into an iron mill h turns by water: there are several parti- s with rasps within, cut sloatways, not with s, which turn constantly round with great eels; the friction against the rasps makes rround, and as they are formed, they fall out rrent holes, into which size or chance throws s. They are brought from Nuremberg to

Rotterdam down the Rhine, and from thence dis- perked over Europe.

\* To MARBLE, *v. a.* [*marbrer*, French, from the noun. To variegate, or vein like marble.— Very well flecked *marbled* paper did not cast any of its distinct colours upon the wall with an equal diffusion. *Boyle*.—

Marian

*Marbled* with sage the hard'ning cheese the profess'd,

And yellow butter Marian's skill profess'd. *Gay*.

(1.) MARBLED, *adj.* veined or clouded, re- ssembling marble. See MARBLING.

(2.) MARBLED CHINA WARE, a species of por- celain or china ware, which seems to be full of cemented flaws. It is called by the Chinese, who who are very fond of it, *shoo tebi*. It is generally plain white, some-times blue, and has exactly the appearance of a piece of China, which had been first broken, and then had all the pieces cemented in their places again, and covered with the origi- nal varnish. The manner of preparing it is easy. Instead of the common varnish of the China ware, which is made of what they call *oil of stone* and *oil of fern* mixed together, they cover this with a simple thing made of a sort of coarse agates, calcined to a white powder, and separated from the grosser parts by water, after long grinding in mortars. When the powder has been thus pre- pared it is left moist, or in form of a sort of cream, with the last water that is suffered to remain in it, and this is used as the varnish. Our crystal would serve full as well as those coarse agates. The oc- casion of the singular appearance of this sort of porcelain is, that the varnish never spreads evenly, but runs into ridges and veins. Those often run naturally into a sort of mosaic work, which can scarce be taken for the effect of chance. If the marbled China be desired blue, they first give it a general coat of this colour by dipping the vessel into a blue varnish; and when this is thoroughly dry, they add another coat of this agate oil.

(3.) MARBLED PAPER. See MARBLING, § 1.

\* MARBLEHEARTED, *adj.* [*marble* and *heart*.] Cruel; insensible hard hearted.—

Ingratitude! thou *marblehearted* fiend,

More hideous, when thou shew'st thee in a child

Than the sea monster.

*Shak.*

(1.) MARBLING, *n. s.* the art of preparing and colouring marbled paper. There are several kinds of marbled paper; but the principal difference of them lies in the forms in which the colours are laid on the ground: some being disposed in whirls or circumvolutions; some in jagged lengths; and others only in spots of a roundish or oval figure. The general manner of managing each kind is, nevertheless, the same; being the dipping the paper in a solution of gum-tragacanth, or, as it is commonly called, *gum-dragon*; over which the colours, previously prepared with ox- gall and spirit of wine, are first spread. The pec- uliar apparatus necessary for this purpose, is a trough for containing the gum-tragacanth and the colours; a comb for disposing them in the figure usually chosen; and a burnishing stone for polishing the paper. The trough may be of any kind of wood;

woody, and must be somewhat larger than the sheets of paper for marbling which it is to be employed; but the sides of it need only rise about two inches above the bottom; for by making it thus shallow, the less quantity of the solution of the gum will serve to fill it. The comb may be also of wood, and 5 inches long, but should have brass teeth, which may be about two inches long, and placed at about a quarter of an inch from each other. The burnishing stone may be of jasper or agate; but as those stones are very dear when of sufficient largeness, marble or glass may be used, provided their surface be polished to a great degree of smoothness. The solution of gum tragacanth must be made, by putting a sufficient proportion of the gum, which should be white and clear from all foulnesses, into clean water, and letting it remain a day or two, frequently breaking the lumps and stirring it till the whole appear dissolved and equally mixed with the water. The consistence of the solution should be nearly that of strong gum water used in miniature painting; and if it appear thicker, water must be added; or if thinner, more of the gum. When the solution is thus brought to a due state, it must be passed through a linnen cloth; and being then put into the trough, it will be ready to receive the colours. The colours employed for red are carmine, lake, rose-pink, and vermilion; but the two last are too glaring, unless they be mixed with rose-pink or lake, to bring them to a softer cast; and carmine and lake are too dear for common purposes. For yellow, Dutch pink and yellow ochre may be employed: for blue, Prussian blue and verditer: for green, verdigrise, a mixture of Dutch pink and Prussian blue, or verditer, in different proportions: for orange, the orange lake, or a mixture of vermilion, or red lead, with Dutch pink:—for purple, rose-pink and Prussian blue. These colours should be ground with spirit of wine till they be of a proper fineness; and then, at the time of using them, a little fish-gall, or the gall of a beast, should be added, by grinding them over again with it. The proper proportion of the gall must be found by trying them; for there must be just so much as will suffer the spots of colour, when sprinkled on the solution of the gum-tragacanth, to join together, without intermixing or running into each other. The solution of the gum tragacanth must then be poured into the trough; and the colours, being in a separate pot, with a pencil appropriated to each, must be sprinkled on the surface of the solution, by shaking the pencil, charged with its proper colour, over it; and this must be done with the several kinds of colour desired, till the surface be wholly covered. When the marbling is proposed to be in spots of a simple form, nothing more is necessary: but where the whirls or snail-shell figures are wanted, they must be made by a quill; which must be put among the spots to turn them about, till the effect be produced. The jagged lengths must be made by the comb, which must be passed through the colours from one end of the trough to the other, and will give them that appearance; but if they be desired to be pointed both ways, the comb must be again passed through the trough in a contrary direction

or if some of the whirls or snail shell figures be required to be added, they may be yet made by the means before directed. The paper should be previously prepared for receiving the colours, by dipping it over-night in water; and laying the sheets on each other with a weight over them. The whole being thus ready, the paper must be held by two corners, and laid in the most gentle and even manner on the solution covered with the colours; and there softly pressed with the hand, that it may bear every-where on the solution: after which it must be raised and taken off with the same care, and then hung to dry across a proper cord, subtended near at hand for that purpose; and in that state it must continue till it be perfectly dry. It then remains only to give the paper a proper polish: in order to which, it is first rubbed with a little soap; and then must be thoroughly smoothed by the glass polishers, such as are used for linen, and called the *calender glass*. After which it should be again rubbed by a linnisher of jasper or agate; or, of glass highly polished, for on the perfect polish of the paper depends in a great measure its beauty and value. Gold or silver powders may be used, where desired, along with the colours, and require only the same treatment as them, except that they must be first tempered with gum-water.

(2.) MARBLING OF BOOKS, or PAPERS, is performed thus: Dissolve 4 oz. of gum arabic into two quarts of fair water; then provide several colours mixed with water in pots or shells; and, with pencils peculiar to each colour, sprinkle them by way of intermixture upon the gum-water, which must be put into a trough or some broad vessel; then with a stick curl them, or draw them out in streaks, to as much variety as may be done. Having done this, hold the book or books close together, and only dip the edges in, on the top of the water and colours, very lightly; which done, take them off, and the plain impression of the colours in mixture, will be upon the leaves; doing the ends and the front of the book in the same manner.

(3.) MARBLING THE COVERS OF BOOKS is performed by forming clouds with aqua-fortis or spirit of vitriol mixed with ink, and afterwards glazing the covers. See BOOK-BINDING.

MARBOEUF, a town of France, in the dep. of Eure, 12 miles N. of Conches.

MARBURG. See MARBURG.

MARC ANTONY. See ANTONIUS, N° 5.

(1.) MARCA, Peter DE, one of the greatest ornaments of the Gallican church, was born in Bearn, of an ancient family, in 1594. He first studied the law, was made president of the parliament of Bearn, and, going to Paris in 1639, was made a counsellor of state. His literary merits appear from his *History of Bearn*. By the king's order he published a work, *De concordia sacrorum et imperii, sive de libertatibus ecclesie Gallie*, a refutation of a book that appeared under the title of *Optatus Gallus*; and on this account, when, on the death of his wife, he was nominated Bishop of Conferans, the pope refused the bulls in his favour, until by another book he explained all he had said on behalf of the state, to the satisfaction of the papal power. He obtained his

mation, after 7 years suspenſe, in 1648; tranſlated to the archbiſhopric of Toulouſe; and was made miniſter of ſtate in 1658. He made Abp. of Paris in 1662; and died ſoon after. His *Poſthumous works*, with pre- notes, &c. were publiſhed by M. Baluze. cenſured for accommodat- ing his learning to his views of intereſt and ambition.

MARCA, an iſland in the Adriatic, 5 miles Ragufa.

MARCARIA, a town of the Italian republic, dep. of the Mincio, and diſtrict of Mantua, 20 miles S.W. of Mantua. Two years from this town a battle was fought between the French and Auſtrians on the 5th Dec. 1800, in the latter were defeated with the loſs of 10,000 men killed and wounded, 360 priſoners, and 1000 carts. The loſs of the French was only 33 men and wounded.

\* MARCASITE. *n. f.* The term *marcaſite* is very improperly uſed by ſome for biſ- muth and by others for zink: the more accurate name however always expreſs a ſubſtance diſtinct from either of theſe by it, ſulphureous and black. The *marcaſite* is a ſolid hard foſſil, commonly found among the veins of ores, or in ſtrata of ſtone: the variety of forms this mi- neral is in almoſt endless. There are how- ever three diſtinct ſpecies of it; one of a gold colour, another of a bright ſilver, and a third of a dead white: the ſilvery one ſeems to be ſometimes meant by the writers on the *Materia Medica*. *Marcaſite* is very frequent in the mines of Saxony, where the workmen call it mundick, and in Germany, where they extract vitriol from it. *Hill*.—The writers on mine- ralogy give the name pyrites and *marcaſites* indiffe- rently to the ſame ſort of body. I reſtrain the name of pyrites wholly to the nodules, or thoſe found lodged in ſtrata that are ſeparate: *marcaſite* is part of the matter that either con- ſtitutes the ſtratum, or is lodged in the perpendi- cular ſiſures. *Woodward*.—The acid ſalt diſſolved in water is the ſame with oil of ſulphur per cam- phora, and abounding much in the bowels of the earth and particularly in *marcaſites*, unites itſelf with other ingredients of the *marcaſite*, which are ſometimes iron, copper, and earth, and with ſometimes alſo alum, vitriol, and ſulphur: the earth alone it compounds alum; with vitriol alone, and metal and earth together, it compounds vitriol; and with the bitumen and ſulphur it compounds ſulphur: whence it comes to paſs that *marcaſites* abound with thoſe three ſalts. *Newton*.—

*Marcaſites* in various figures wait, and ripen to a true metallick ſtate. *Garth*.

MARCASITE, in mineralogy, is a name which has long been given indifferently to all ſorts of ores, pyrites, and ſemimetals. It ſeems to be confined to pyrites, and ſometimes propoſes to confine it to ſuch pyrites regularly formed. See PYRITES.

MARCAÛ, a town of France, in the dep. of Vendee; 7½ miles S. of Poitiers.

MARCELL, G. advocate to the Parliament of Paris. French chronological writer of the 17th century. He publiſhed, 1. *Tablettes chronologiques*

*contenant avec ordre, l'etat de l'Eglife en Orient et en Occident*. Amſt. 1696, 16mo. 2. *Tablettes chronologiques contenant la ſuite des Papes, empereurs et rois, qui ont regné depuis la naiſſance de Jeſus Chriſt en Europe, juſq au preſent: 2410*. Paris, 1699; elegantly engraved, on copper: both dedicated to Lewis XIV.

MARCELLAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Herault, 5 miles NE. of Agde.

MARCELLIANISM, the doctrines and opinions of the

MARCELLIANS, a ſect of ancient heretics, who flouriſhed about the end of the 2d century, ſo called from MARCELLUS of Ancyra, their leader, who was accuſed of reviving the errors of Sabellius. Some, however, are of opinion that Marcellus was orthodox, and that his enemies, the Arians, fathered their errors upon him. St Epiphanius obſerves, that there was a great deal of diſpute with regard to the real tenets of Marcellus; but that, as to his followers, it is evident they did not own the three hypoſtaſes: for Marcellus conſidered the Son and Holy Ghoſt as two emanations from the divine nature, which, after performing their reſpective offices, were to return again into the ſubſtance of the Father; an opinion altogether incompatible with the belief of three diſtinct perſons in the Godhead.

MARCELLINO, a town of Naples in Calabria Citra, 5 miles E. of Scalea.

MARCELLINUS. See AMMIANUS.

MARCELLO, Benediſt, a celebrated muſician, deſcended from one of the moſt illuſtrious families in Venice. He lived in the beginning of the 18th century, and compoſed anthems, cantatas, and other works, which the connoiſſeurs rank as high as any of the muſical compositions which the Italian ſchool has produced. "He is the Pin- dar of muſic, ſays M. de la Borde. In boldneſs and regularity of deſign, he is the Michael Angelo of it. In analyzing his works, we diſcover a profound knowledge and great addreſs; but there is a difficulty attending the execution of them which is almoſt inſurmountable. It requires a voice poſſeſſed of great powers, and accuſtomed to the moſt extraordinary intervals." The chief of the family was the amballaſſador of Venice to the Porte in 1770.

(1.) MARCELLUS, Marcus Claudius, a famous Roman general, who, after the firſt Punic war, conducted an expedition againſt the Gauls. Here he obtained the *Spolia Opima*, by killing with his own hand Viridomarus the king of the Gauls. This ſucceſs rendered him popular, and ſoon after he was entrusted to oppoſe Hannibal in Italy. He was the firſt Roman who obtained ſome advantage over this celebrated Carthaginian, and ſhewed his countrymen that Hannibal was not invincible. The troubles which were raiſed in Sicily by the Carthaginians at the death of Hieronymus, alarmed the Romans; and Marcellus, in his 3d conſulſhip, was ſent with a powerful force againſt Syracuſe. He attacked it by ſea and land; but his operations proved long ineffectual, and the invention and induſtry of Archimedes baffled all the efforts, and deſtroyed all the tremendous machines and military engines of the Romans during three ſucceſſive years. The perseverance of Mar-

cellus.

cellus at last obtained the victory. After this conquest, Marcellus was called to oppose Hannibal a 2d time. In this campaign he behaved with greater vigour than before; the greatest part of the towns of the Samnites, which had revolted, were recovered by force of arms, and 3000 of the soldiers of Hannibal made prisoners. Some time after, in an engagement with the Carthaginians, Marcellus had the disadvantage; but on the next day a more successful skirmish vindicated his military character and the honour of the Roman soldiers. Marcellus, however, was not sufficiently vigilant against the snares of his adversary. He imprudently separated himself from his camp, and was killed in an ambuscade, in the 60th year of his age, in his 5th consulship, A. U. C. 544. His body was honoured with a magnificent funeral by the conqueror, and his ashes were conveyed in a silver urn to his son. Marcellus claims respect for his private as well as public virtues; and his humanity will ever be remembered, when at the surrender of Syracuse, he wept that multitudes were to be exposed to the barbarity and rapacity of an incensed soldiery, which the policy of Rome and the laws of war rendered inevitable.

(2.) MARCELLUS. See MARCELLIANS.

MARCGRAVE. See MARGRAVE.

(1.) \* MARCH, *n. f.* [from *Mars*.] The third month of the year.—*March* is drawn in tawny, with a fierce aspect, a helmet upon his head, to show this month was dedicated to Mars. *Peacocks*

(2.) MARCH, MARTIUS, § 1. See MONTH, and YEAR. Among the Romans, March was the first month; and in some ecclesiastical computations, that order is still preserved; particularly in reckoning the number of years from the incarnation of our Saviour, from the 25th of March. Romulus divided the year into months; to the first of which he gave the name of his supposed father *Mars*. Ovid, however, observes, that the people of Italy had the month of March before Romulus's time; but that they placed it very differently, some making it the 3d, others the 4th, some the 5th, and others the 10th month of the year. In this month the Romans sacrificed to ANNA PERENNA; began their comitia; adjudged their public farms and leases; the mistresses served the slaves and servants at table, as the masters did in the Saturnalia; and the vestals renewed the sacred fire. This month was always under the protection of Minerva, and consisted of 31 days. The ancients held it, as well as May, an unhappy month for marriage.

(3.) \* MARCH, *n. f.* [*marcher*, Fr.] 1. Military movement; journey of soldiers.—These troops came to the army harried with a long and wearisome *march*, and cast away their arms and garments, and fought in their shirts. *Bacon*.—

Their *marches* to begin, and thither tend, *Blackm.*

2. Grave and solemn walk.—

Water was smooth, but Dryden taught to  
joil

The varying verse, the full resounding line,  
The long majestic *march*, and energy divine.

*Pope.*

3. Deliberate or laborious walk.—We came to the

roots of the mountain, and had a very to  
some *march* to gain the top of it. *Addison*.  
4. Signals to move.—The drums presently  
ing up a *march*, they make no longer stay,  
forward they go directly. *Kestler*. 5. *March*  
without singular. [*marchus*, Gothic; *march*,  
on; *marche*, French.] Borders; limits; ends

They of those *marches*

Shall be a wall sufficient to defend

Our island from the pifering borders. *Sh.*  
—The English colonies were enforced to keep  
continual guards upon the borders and *marches*  
round them. *Davies*.—It is not fit that a king  
an island should have any *marches* or borders  
the four seas. *Davies on Ireland*.

(4.) MARCH, in the military art. In the *marches*  
of the Jewish armies, they made use of trumpets,  
to the different sounds of which they pre-  
pared them by packing up their baggage, putting  
themselves in readiness, and attending at the stan-  
dards to wait the signal for marching. The *Bib-  
bins* suppose that the Israelites marched in the  
same order they were placed in their camp. The  
Greeks never *marched* against their enemies in  
favourable omens encouraged their entrance.  
An eclipse of the moon, or any untoward accident,  
or the intervening of what they esteemed an un-  
lucky day, entirely prevented their march. Be-  
of all the Greeks the Lacedaemonians were the  
most nice and scrupulous. The heavenly bodies  
directed all their motions; and it was an un-  
bearable maxim with them never to *march* before the  
full moon. The Greeks are particularly remem-  
bered by Homer for marching in good order and un-  
found silence; whereas the Barbarian forces were  
all noise, clamour, and confusion. The *marches*  
of the Roman armies were performed with the greatest  
order and dispatch, inasmuch that their unexpec-  
ted presence often damped the spirits of their ene-  
mies. The Roman soldiers were inured to the  
military pace, that is, to walk 20 miles in three  
hours, though they carried burdens of double  
weight. Of all the mechanical parts of war, in  
modern times, none is more essential than that of  
marching. It may be justly called the *key* which  
leads to all sublime motions and manoeuvres of  
an army; for they depend entirely on this point.  
A man can be attacked in 4 different ways; on the  
front, on both flanks, and in the rear; but he can  
defend himself, and annoy the enemy, only when  
placed with his face towards him. Hence it fol-  
lows, that the general object of marching is  
reduced to three points only; to march forward,  
and on both sides, because it is impossible to do  
it for any time backwards, and by that means  
face the enemy wherever he presents himself.  
The different steps to be made use of are 1. *Slow*,  
fast, and oblique. The first is proper in *manoeuvring*,  
when at a considerable distance from the ene-  
my, and when the ground is unequal, that the  
line may not be broke, and a regular fire kept up  
without intermission. The 2d is chiefly necessary  
when you want to anticipate the enemy in occu-  
pying some post, in passing a defile, and, above  
all, in attacking an entrenchment, to avoid being  
long exposed to the fire of the artillery and small  
arms, &c. The 3d step is of infinite con-  
sequence, both in the infantry and cavalry; *column*

ed and formed into lines, and, *vice versa* into columns, by this kind of step, in and in less time, than by any other coming out of a defile, you may in the line without presenting the flank to the enemy, with safety, because you can with ease and safety protect the motion of the troops, while they are out of the defiles, and forming. They may be equally executed, when a column is formed in order to advance or retreat, as a point of infinite consequence, and established as an axiom. The order of the troops must be so disposed, that they may arrive at their rendezvous, if possible, in a day. The quarter-master general, or with an able engineer, should reconnoitre the country, to obtain a perfect knowledge of the enemy, before he forms his routes. The army generally receives several. The quarter-masters, camp and pioneers, parade according to order immediately after, commanded by the quarter-master general or his deputy. They clear the roads, level the ways, make the way for the march of the army, &c. For instance, beats a drum, the *assembly* of the army is to march in 20 minutes after. The *general*, the village, and the rear-guards, quarter and rear-guards, join the *ve corps*; and the army pack up their baggage, beating the *assembly*, the tents are taken, and sent with the baggage to the rear, &c. The companies draw up in files, and the rolls are called. At the signal, the drummers are to beat a march, and the companies march out from their files, form battalions as they advance the line, and then halt. The files are formed into columns by the adjutant, and the order of march, &c. is given by the general officers who lead the columns. The columns generally march by regiments or squadrons; heavy artillery always keeps the great centre of the columns, escorted by a company of infantry and cavalry. The field-piece follows the columns. Each soldier goes with 36 rounds of powder and 36 leaden balls; one of which is to be fixed in the barrel of his firelock. The routes must be so disposed, that no columns cross one another on

the way, in geography, a town of Cambray, in the province of Flanders, 26 miles N. of London.

MARCH. *v. n.* [*marcher*, Fr. for *varicarium* from *Mars*, Junius. 1. To move in

— Well *march* we on,  
In obedience where 'tis truly ow'd *Shak.*  
In battle array with his power ad-  
vanc'd. *Jud.* i. 13.—Maccabeus *marched*  
with five and twenty thousand persons.

— when, some days before his death,  
PART II.

He ordered me to *march* for Utica,  
Wept o'er me.

*Addison.*  
2. To walk in a grave, deliberate, or stately manner.—Plexirtus finding that if nothing else, famine would at last bring him to destruction, thought better by humbleness to creep where by pride he could not *march*. *Sidonius*.—

Doth York intend no harm to us,  
That thus he *marcheth* with thee arm in arm?  
*Shak.*

Our bodies, ev'ry footstep that they make,  
*March* towards death, until at last they die.  
*Davies.*

Like thee, great son of Jove, like thee,  
When clad in rising majesty,  
Thou *marchest* down o'er Delos' hills. *Prior.*  
The power of wisdom *march'd* before. *Popc.*

(2.) \* To MARCH. *v. a.* 1. To put in military movement.—Cyrus *marching* his army for divers days over mountains of snow, the dazzling splendor of its whiteness prejudiced the sight of very many of his soldiers: *Boyle.* 2. To bring in regular procession.—

*March* them again in fair array,  
And bid them form the happy day: *Prior.*

(1.) MARCHAND, John Lewis, a native of Lyons, who shares with the celebrated *D'Aquin* the glory of having carried the art of playing on the organ to the highest perfection. When very young he went to Paris; and happening to be in the chapel of the college of Lewis XIV. when they were waiting for the organist, he offered to supply his place. His playing gave so great satisfaction, that the Jesuits kept him in the college, and supplied him with every necessary to perfect his talents. He continued to play the organ of their chapel; and though many advantageous places were offered him, he refused to accept them. This disinterested conduct was not solely owing to gratitude, but to a whimsical and independent disposition. He died at Paris in 1732, aged 63. He composed two books of Pieces for the Harpsichord, much esteemed by the connoisseurs.

(2.) MARCHAND, Prosper, was brought up at Paris, in the profession of a bookseller, and in the knowledge of books. He corresponded with several learned men, among whom was Bernard the continuator of the *Nouvelles de la Republique des Lettres*, and furnished him with the literary anecdotes of France. Marchand, having embraced the Protestant religion, went to join Bernard in Holland, where he might be at liberty to profess his opinions. By his knowledge of books, he was so eminently distinguished, that he was consulted from all parts of Europe. He was also one of the principal authors of the *Journal Littéraire*, and furnished excellent extracts for the other journals. He died at an advanced age, June 14, 1756; and left his fortune to a society instituted at the Hague, for the education of poor people. His library and MSS. were left by his will to the university of Leyden. He wrote, 1. *The History of Printing*, a work, full of erudition and critical discussions; Hague, 1740, 4to. Abbe Meicier, of Saint-Leger de Soissons, gave, in 1775, 4to, a supplement to this history, which is equally curious and accurate. 2. *An Historical Dictionary, or Memoirs Critical and Li-*



is, and from a *marchioness* a queen, and tends to crown my innocence with the martyrdom. *Bacon*.—The lady *marchioness*, solicited very diligently the timely on of her husband. *Clarendon*.

MARIPANE. *n. s.* [*massipans*, French.] A sweet bread, or biscuit.—

g whose ridge such bones arc met, omfits round in *marchpane* ict. *Sidney*.  
MARINA, a town of Etruria, 30 miles E. ce.

MARANA SILVA, in ancient geography, a sed between the Rauraci and the Danube, is navigable; a part of the HERCYNIA: wartzwald, or the BLACK FOREST, in of Suabia, near the rise of the Danube tar.

MARANISI, a town of Naples, in Lavora, N. of Naples.

MARCIANUS I. emperor of Constantinople, a Thrace, born of an obscure family. Af- for some time served in the army as a soldier, he was made private secretary to e officers of Theodosius. His address ts raised him, and on the death of Theo- . A. D. 450, he was invested with the purple. He showed himself active and and when Attila, the barbarous king of s, demanded the annual tribute, which dly predecessors had regularly paid, he d, that "he kept his gold for his friends, iron was the metal which he had prepa- is enemies." In the midst of universal y Marcianus died, after a reign of 6 years, th year of his age, as he was making pre- against the barbarians that had invaded His death was long lamented; and in- merit was so great, that his reign has d the golden age. He married Pulcheria of Theodosius. In the years of his ob- : found a man who had been murdered; he humanity to give him a private bur- which circumstance he was accused of icide, imprisoned, and condemned to nd the sentence would have been execu- not the real murderer been discovered.

MARCINUS II. emperor of the east, reigned 9.

MARCID. *adj.* [*marcius*, Lat.] Lean; pin- iced.—A burning colliquative fever, the ts being melted away, the heat continu- upon the drier and fleshy parts, nto a *marcid* fever. *Harvey*.—

on his own fish pours the noblest oil; o your *marcid* dying herbs assign'd, rank sinell and taste betrays its kind. *Dryd*.

MARIGLIANO, a town of Naples, in Lavo- NE. of Naples.

MARIGNY, a town of France, in the dep. and Loire; 12 miles SW. of Charolles.

MILLAC, a town of France, in the dep. te; 13½ miles NNW. of Angoulême.

MILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of ; 6 miles E. of Mayenne.

MARCIANUS, the founder of the MARCIONITES, f Pontus, and son of a bishop. He at first ssession of the monastical life, but was ex- cated by his father, who would never

admit him again into the communion of the church, not even on his repentance. On this he abandoned his own country, and retired to Rome, where he began to broach his doctrines. He laid down two principles, the one good, the other evil; between these he imagined an intermediate kind of deity of a mixed nature, who was the cre- ator of this inferior world, and the god and legis- lator of the Jewish nation. The other nations, who worshipped a variety of gods, he supposed to be under the empire of the evil principle.

These two conflicting powers exercise oppressions upon rational and immortal souls; and therefore the supreme God, to deliver them from bondage, sent to the Jews a being more like unto himself, his son Jesus Christ, clothed with a certain shadowy resemblance of a body: this celestial mes- senger was attacked by the prince of darkness, and by the god of the Jews, but without effect. Those who follow the directions of this celestial conductor, mortify the body by fastings and au- sterities, and renounce the precepts of the god of the Jews, and of the prince of darkness, shall af- ter death ascend to the mansions of felicity and perfection. The rules which Marcion prescribed to his followers were excessively austere, expressly prohibiting wedlock, wine, flesh, and all the external comforts of life. Marcion denied the real birth, incarnation, and passion of Jesus Christ, and held them to be all apparent only. He denied the resur- rection of the body; and allowed none to be baptized but those who preserved their contin- ence; but these might be baptized 3 times. In many things he followed the sentiments of the he- retic Cerdon, and rejected the law and the pro- phets. He pretended the gospel had been corrup- ted by false prophets, and allowed none of the e- vangelists but St Luke, whom also he altered in many places as well as the epistles of St Paul, a great many things in which he threw out. In his own copy of St Luke he threw out the two first chapters entire.

MARCIANISTÆ, } a very ancient and po-  
MARCIONISTS, or } pular sect of heretics,  
MARCIONITES, } who, in the time of St  
Epiphanius, spread over Italy, Egypt, Palestine,  
Syria, Arabia, Persia, and other countries: so  
named from their author MARCIAN.

MARCITÆ, } a sect of heretics in the 3d cen-  
MARCITES, } tury, who also called themselves  
the *perfecti*, and made profession of doing every  
thing with a great deal of liberty and without any  
fear. This doctrine they borrowed from Simon  
Magus, who however was not their chief; for  
they were called *Marcites* from one Marcus, who  
conferred the priesthood, and the administration  
of the sacraments, on women.

MARCHIUS, Caius. See CORIOLANUS.

MARCK, a town of France, in the dep. of the  
Straits of Calais; 6 miles E. of Calais.

(1.) MARCO, a town of the Italian republic,  
in the dep. of Panaro, and district (late duchy) of  
Modena.

(2.) MARCO, a small town of Tyrol, 6 miles  
SW. of Roveredo; where there are strong defiles,  
which however were forced by the French, Sept.  
4th, 1796.

(3.) MARCO POLO, or PAULO. See PAULO.  
R I T T 2 (4-8.) MARCO.

(4-8.) MARCO, Sr, 5 towns of Naples; 1. in Calabria Citra: 2, and 3. in Capitanata: 4. in Otranto: and, 5. in Principato Ultra.

(9.) MARCO, Sr, a town of Maritime Austria, one mile S. of Capo d'Istria.

MARCOMANNI, an ancient people of Germany, who seem to have taken their name from their situation on the marches, E. of the Upper Rhine, and N. of the Danube. Cluverius allots to them the duchy of Wurtemberg, a part of the palatinate between the Rhine and the Neckar, the Brisgau, and a part of Suabia, lying between the springs of the Danube and the Bregentz: they afterwards removed to the country of the Boii, whom they drove more to the E. occupying what is now called *Bohemia*.—*Strabo, Velleius.*

MARCOSIANS, or COLOBARIANS, an ancient sect in the church, a branch of the VALENTINIANS. St Irenæus speaks at large of the leader of this sect, Marcus, who was reputed a great magician. The Marcosians had a great number of apocryphal books which they held for canonical. Out of these they picked several idle fables touching the infancy of Jesus Christ, which they put off for true histories. Many of these fables are still in use and credit among the Greek monks.

\* MARCOUR. *n. f.* [*marcor*, Lat.] Leanness; the state of withering; waste of flesh.—Considering the exolution and languor ensuing the action of venery in some, the extenuation and *marcour* in others, it much abridgeth our days. *Brown's F. E.*—A *marcour* is either imperfect, tending to a lesser withering, which is curable; or perfect, that is, an entire wasting of the body, excluding all means of cure. *Harvey.*

MARCULUS, among the Romans, a knocker or instrument of iron to knock at the doors with.

(1.) MARCUS, a phenomenon of the Romans.

(2.) MARCUS ANTONIUS. See ANTONIUS, N. 2.

MARDI, a people of ancient Persia, who inhabited a mountainous country on the confines of Media. They were conquered by Alexander. See *ARABIAN*, § 14.

MARDICK, or ) a town of France, in the dep.

MARDIKE, } of the North, 4 miles W. of Dunkirk; famous for its canal and forts, which were destroyed, after the treaty of 1717. Lon. 51. 20. E. Lat. 51. 0. N.

MAKDIKERS, or TOPASSES, a mixed breed of Dutch, Portuguese, Indians, and other nations, incorporated with the Dutch at Batavia, in the East Indies.

(1.) \* MARE. *n. f.* [*mare*, Sax.] 1. The female of a horse.—

A pair of courfers born of heav'nly breed,  
Whom Circe stole from her celestial fire,  
By substituting *mares*, produc'd on earth,  
Whose wombs conceiv'd a more than mortal birth.

*Dryden.*

2. [From *mara*, the name of a spirit imagined by the nations of the north to torment sleepers.] A kind of torpor or stagnation, which seems to press the stomach with a weight; the night hag.—

Mab, his merry queen by night,  
Besides young folks that lie upright,  
In colder times the *mare* that height,  
Which plagues them out of measure. *Drayton.*

—Mushrooms cause the incubus, or the stomach. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.*

(2.) MARE, (§ 1, *def. 1.*) See EQUUS and HORSE, § 1, 8. Before a mare is o should be in the house about 6 weeks, or time she should be well fed with good oats well sifted; and to render her cow more certain, near a quart of blood m from each side of her neck, about 3 or fore covering. Another method to h in season and make her retain, is to gi 8 days before you bring her to the h two quarts of hemp seed in the morn much at night; and if she refuses to mingle it with a little bran or oats, or her fast for a while: and if the stallion it, it will greatly contribute to generati covering, let her, for 3 or 4 weeks, hav diet as before, and be kept clean in with her feet well pared and thin she cannot readily bring forth, hold her ne to stop her taking wind; and if that w dissolve madder, to the quantity of a pint of ale, and give it her warm. I cannot void her secundine, or after-bu 2 or 3 handfuls of fennel in running w put half a pint of that liquor into a m or into a pint of ale, with  $\frac{1}{2}$  part of salad ed together, and pour it lukewarm into trils, holding them close for some time. wife, give her green wheat, or rye, th which is best. If the mare has but lit boil as much as you can get from her leaves of lavender and spike, and bathe th with it warm, till the knobs and knots ar ved. She should now drink only white which is bran put into water; give her all mathes: and a month after foaling, let her math with some brimstone or favin in it.

(3.) MARE'S MILK, fermented, affords of nourishing vinous liquor; much used Tartars and Russians. See KOMISS.

(1.) MARENGO, or MARINGO, a dept. French republic, one of the six new one which the ci-devant principality of PAV was divided, by decree of the Conservati on the 11th Sept. 1801. It comprehends t district of the ALEXANDRINE, and sends 3 d to the Legislative Body at Paris.

(2.) MARENGO, a small town or village French republic, now the capital of the abe partment, seated on the Bormida; render morable by a most bloody battle fought nea the 14th June, 1800, between the Austrians Gen. Melas, and the French under Gen. parte, Berthier, Desaix, Kellerman, Victor, mont, Menier, and Murat; wherein the Fr after having been thrice repulsed and two of their army routed, by the reasonable arm the critical moment, of the grenadiers of the sular guard, and of the corps de reserve Gen. Desaix, obtained a most complete and five victory over the Austrians; or whom 2 9000 were killed or wounded, and 6000 taken oners. Among the latter were Gen. Zieg St Julian, several other generals, and almost the officers of the staff. Night scarcely put to the carnage and pursuit. The loss on the



in killed and wounded could not  
ing the former fell the brave Gen.  
lose valour and conduct, the victory  
btained. This victory decided the  
an armistice was next day agreed  
Gen. Melas and Bonaparte, which  
y for the general peace, in 1801-2.

ES, a sea port town of France, in  
lower Charente; 9 miles SSW. of  
ontaining about 5000 citizens. Its  
in salt.

IS, a lake in Egypt near Alexandria.  
hood was famous for wine; though  
e *Marcoticum vinum* grow in Epirus,  
part of Libya, called also *Marcotis*,

RESCHAL. *n. f.* [*marechal*, French,

*maréchal* from *mare*, the female of an  
inf commander of an army.—  
m, may thy arms advance,  
y lose Dinart next year,  
e *marechal* of France.

CHAL. See MARCHAL, § 2—8.

IO, an island on the W. coast of Si-  
in circumference, famous for a vic-  
by the Roman fleet over the Car-  
lies 15 miles W. of Trapani.

TS, John DE, a Pausian, one of the  
of the 17th century; but who be-  
visionary and a fanatic. He was a  
e of cardinal Richelieu, and used to  
er the fatigue of business, by his feca-  
tion. He was a member of the French  
its first erection. He wrote several  
es, and attempted an epic poem;  
ding several years about it, dropped  
write books of devotion. He like-  
nances; but not very virtuous ones.  
ught women atheistical principles,  
d not triumph over their virtue o-  
was a declared enemy of the Jan-  
s last years he wrote something a-  
's Satires.

s, Samuel DE, one of the most ce-  
es of the reformed church, was born  
1599. In 1620, he was settled in  
Laon; but in 1624, accepted a call  
an; in 1642, he obtained a profes-  
ningen; and, from that time to his  
d himself so much in the service of  
y, that it was reckoned one of the  
g in the Netherlands. He publish-  
*Divinity*, and a prodigious number  
s. He died in 1673.

, 2 towns of France: 1. in the dep.  
21 miles NW. of Périgueux; 2. in  
ndec, 5 miles N. of Luçon,

GARET, countess of Henneberg  
their is o. Florant IV. count of Hol-  
us on account of a ridiculous story  
many authors and compilers; viz.  
fused charity to a woman whom the  
time accused of adultery, she was  
l of 365 children. See LOOSDUYNEN.  
d men have endeavoured to trace  
ch could have given rise to a rela-  
rdinary. M. Struik fixed upon the  
e mother and son, and, in confor-

mity to the dates which they bear, he concluded  
that the countess was brought to bed of twins on  
Good Friday 1276, which was the 26th of March.  
Now, as the year then began on the 25th of  
March, there were only two days of the year e-  
lapsed when the countess was brought to bed, on  
which it was said *that she had brought into the  
world as many children as there were days in the  
year*. In fact only two children are mentioned in  
history, John and Elizabeth. The enigma thus  
explained is only a common event, wherein there  
is nothing of the marvellous. *Journal des Savans*,  
Feb. 1758.

(2.) MARGARET, countess of Richmond and  
Derby, the learned and pious mother of Henry  
VII. was born at Bethoe in Bedfordshire, in 1441;  
and was the sole heiress of John Beaufort duke of  
Somerset, grandson to John of Gaunt. Her mother  
was the heiress of Lord Beauchamp of Pow-  
ick. While very young, she was solicited by the  
king for his half-brother Edmund earl of Rich-  
mond, to whom she gave her hand. Henry VII.  
was the sole fruit of this marriage, his father dying  
when he was but 15 weeks old. Her 2d husband  
was Sir Henry Stafford, Kt. 2d son to the D. of  
Buckingham; by whom she had no issue. Soon  
after his death, in 1482, she married a 2d husb-  
and, Thomas Lord Stanley, who, was created earl of  
Derby by her son. He died in 1504, without issue,  
being then high constable of England. She died  
at Westminster in June 1509, aged 69, and was  
buried in Henry VII.'s chapel; on the S. side of  
which was erected to her memory an altar tomb  
of black marble, with her statue of brass. Bp.  
Hisher, her confessor, says, "the poet cited almost  
all things that were commendable in a woman,  
either in mind or body." She understood the  
French language perfectly, and had some know-  
ledge of the Latin. She was devout even to  
austerity, in humility romantic, profuse in the en-  
couragement of learning, and singularly chaste. Her  
life, from the turbulence of the times, and vicis-  
situde of her son's fortune, must have been subject  
to infinite disquiet, which however she is said to  
have supported with singular fortitude.—She  
wrote, 1. The mirroure of golke for the sinful  
soule; translated from the French. Lond. 4to.  
with cuts on vellum. 2. Translation of the 4th  
book of Dr Gerson's Imitation of our Saviour, 1504.  
3. A letter to the king; in Howard's collection.  
4. She also made the Orders for great estates of  
ladies and noble women, for their precedence,  
and wearing of habes at funerals, over the chin  
and under the same.

(3.) MARGARET, duchess of Newcastle, a lady  
famous for her voluminous writings, was born a-  
bout the end of K. James I's reign. She was the  
youngest sister of Lord Lucas, and married the  
D. of Newcastle abroad, in 1645. On their re-  
turn after the restoration, she wrote the life of  
her husband; with a great number of plays, poems,  
&c. amounting to about 12 vols folio. She died  
in 1673.

(4.) MARGARET, queen of Denmark, Norway  
and Sweden, was one of the greatest monarchs of  
the North. (See DENMARK, § 5, 6.) She form-  
ed the grand political design of a perpetual union,

of these 3 kingdoms, but accomplished it only during her own life. She died in 1412, aged 59.

(5.) MARGARET OF ANJOU, daughter of Regnier of Anjou, king of Naples, and wife of Henry VI. king of England; an ambitious, enterprising, courageous woman. Intrepid in the field, she figured herself by heading her troops in several battles against the house of York; and if she had not been the authoress of her husband's misfortunes, by putting to death the duke of Gloucester his uncle, her name would have been immortalized for the fortitude, activity, and policy with which she supported the rights of her husband and son, till the fatal defeat at Tewksbury; which put an end to all her enterprises. She died at Anjou in 1482. See ENGLAND, § 33, 34.

(6.) MARGARET, ST, a celebrated virgin, who is said to have suffered martyrdom at Antioch A. D. 275. The ancient martyrologists make no mention of her name, and she did not become famous till the 11th century. There is no more foundation for what is said concerning her relics and girdles, than for the stories which are told of her life. A festival, however, is still held in honour of her memory on the 20th of July. The Orientals pay reverence to her by the name of *Saint Pelagia*, or *Saint Marina*, and the western church by that of *Saint Geruma*, or *Saint Margares*.

(7.) MARGARET'S AT CLIFF, ST, a town on the coast of Kent, near S. Foreland; 5 miles NNE. of Dover.

(8.) MARGARET'S BAY, ST, a bay in the English Channel on the E. coast of Kent.

(1.) MARGARITA, the PEARL, in natural history. See MYA, N° 2. and PEARL.

(2.) MARGARITA, in geography, or PEARL ISLAND, an island of S. America, the middle of which is seated in Lon. 64. 2. W. Lat. 11. 30. N. It was discovered by Columbus, and is about 35 leagues in compass. The soil is very fertile in maize and fruits, and abounds in pasture and verdant groves; yet is totally destitute of fresh water, which the inhabitants are obliged to bring from the continent. The Spaniards were induced to take possession of it, on account of the valuable pearls found in the oysters abounding on its coast. They built a castle, called *Monpadre*, and employed prodigious numbers of negroes in the pearl fishery; cruelly forcing them to tear up the oysters from the rocks to which they stuck, although the coast abounds with sharks, which devoured many of them. In 1620, this island was invaded by the Dutch, who demolished the castle; since which time it has been almost abandoned by the Spaniards. It is now principally inhabited by the natives, to whom particular indulgences were granted by the court of Spain, on account of their ready submission to Columbus.

MARGARITARIA, MARGARITES, a genus of the octandria order, belonging to the dioecia class of plants.

\* MARGARITE. *n. f.* [*margarita*, Lat. *marginerite*, Fr.] A pearl.—Silver is the second metal, and signifies purity; among the planets it holdeth with luna, among precious stones with the *margarite* or pearl. *Peac'um*.

\* MARGARITES. *n. f.* [*bellis*.] An herb. *Ainswortb.*

MARGARITIM, a town of Turkey, in Epir.

MARGARITINI, glass ornaments, made at Venice, of small glass tubes of different colours, which are blown at Murano, and which the women of the lower class wear about their arms and necks. The largest sort are used for making rosaries. This work is performed with great dispatch, the artisan taking a whole handful of these tubes at once, and breaking them off one after another with an iron tool. These short cylinders are mixed with a kind of ashes, and put over the fire in an iron pan; and when the two ends begin to melt, by stirring them about with an iron wire, they are brought to a round figure; but care is taken not to leave them too long over the fire, lest the hole through which they are to be strung should be entirely closed by the melting of the glass. There are several streets at *Franco de Vigna* entirely inhabited by people, whose sole occupation is to make and bring these *margaritini*.

MARGATE, a sea-port town of Kent, on the N. side of the isle of Thanet, near the N. Foreland. It is noted for shipping vast quantities of corn, mostly the product of that island for London; and has a salt-water bath at the post-house, famous for curing nervous and paralytic disorders, and numbness of the limbs. It lies 14 miles from Dover, 12 from Canterbury, and 72 from London. In summer it is frequented for sea-bathing, chiefly by the people of London, and abounds with extensive prospects. Lon. 1. 30. E. Lat. 51. 24. N.

MARGEILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Cote d'Or, 12 miles W. of Is sur Tille.

\* MARGE.

\* MARGENT. } *n. f.* [*margo*, Lat. *margin*, Fr.] 1. The border; the

\* MARGIN. } brink; the edge; the verge.

He drew his flaming sword, and struck  
At him so fiercely, that the upper *marge*  
Of his sevenfold shield away it took. *F. Quere*  
Never sincee

Met we on hill, in dale, forest, or mead,  
Or on the beathed *margin* of the sea. *Shel.*  
An airy crowd came rushing where he stood,  
Which fill'd the *margin* of the fatal flood.

2. The edge of a page left blank, or fill'd with a short note.—

As much love in rhyme,  
As would be cramm'd up in a sheet of paper  
Writ on both sides the leaf, *margin* and all. *Shel.*

—Reconcile those places, which both you and the *margins* of our Bibles acknowledge to be parallel. *Hammond.*—

He knows in law, nor text, nor *margin*. *Scop.*

3. The edge of a wound or sore.—All the advantage to be gathered from it is only from the crevices of its *margin*, the purpose will be as fully answered by keeping that under only. *Sharp.*

\* MARGINAL. *adj.* [*marginal*, French; *fron margin*.] Placed, or written on the margin.—We cannot better interpret the meaning of these words than pope Leo himself expoundeth them, whose speech concerning our Lord's ascension may be instead of a *marginal* gloss. *Hoeker.*—Went on

you find worthy of your riper observation, with a *marginal* star, as being worthy of cond year's review. *Watts.*

**MARGINATED.** *adj.* [*marginatus*, Latin, *margin.*] Having a margin.

**GOZZA**, a town and lake of the Italian c., in the dep. of Olona, and district (late of Milan; 40 miles NW. of Milan.

**GRABOWA**, a town of Prussian Lithuania by the *margrave* Albert, in memory interview with Sigismund Augustus K. of , in 1560; and the latter built Augustowa Polish frontiers, 30 miles distant. Near the Swedish and electoral troops defeated Tartars, and released prince Radzivil. It lies SE. of Königsberg.

\* **MARGRAVE.** *n. f.* [*marck* and *graff*, n.] A title of sovereignty in Germany; in its import, keeper of the marches or borders. **MARGRAVE**, is derived from *Marcke*, or *a frontier*; and *Graffe*, a *count*, or *governor*; *margraves* being originally governors of the frontiers of a state. This dignity is as to our Marquis. See **MARQUIS**.

**RGUENAT**, Anna Theresia DE, marchion-Courcelles, an elegant moral writer, was daughter of Stephen Marguenat lord of lles. In 1666 she married Henry de LAM-lieutenant-general of the army; and after-remained a widow with a son and a daughter she educated with great care. Her was a kind of academy, to which persons inguished abilities resorted. She died at 1733, aged 86. Her works, which are with much taste, judgment, and delicacy, ed in 2 vols. *The Advice of a mother to and daughter*, are particularly esteemed.

**RGUERITES**, a town of France, in the Gard; 4½ miles NE. of Nismes.

**RGUT**, a town of France, in the dep. of es; 13½ miles NW. of Sedan.

**RILAT** or **MERHAT**, an extensive country doostan, inhabited by the **MARHATTAS**, chending the greater part of the Paishwa's ons in the Deccan. (See **HINDOOSTAN**, The Mahratta dominions are governed by er of separate chiefs, all of whom acknowhe Ram Rajah as their sovereign; and all, one, own the Paishwa as his vicerent. untry immediately subject to the Paishwa, ng all the hereditary territories that were the rajah Sahou to the Ram Rajah, and hat have been acquired and added to them his name, extends along the coast near Goa to Cambay; on the S. it borders British possessions, late Tippoo's, E. on of the Nizam and of the Mahratta Ra-Berar, and towards the N. those of the ta chiefs Sindia and Holkar or their suc-

The whole of the dominion thus lately hed is of vast extent, stretching near 1200 long the ci-devant frontiers of the late Tipoo belonging to Britain) and the Nizam iE. direction, from Goa on the Malabar Balasore in Orissa, adjoining to Bengal; and hence NW. 1000 miles more, touching the s of the British and allied states, on the borthe Ganges and Jumna, to the territory

of the Siaks at Paniput, rendered famous in 1762 for the last memorable defeat sustained by the Marhattas, in their ambitious contest for empire with the united declining power of the Mahomedans. From this place, in a S. course, with great encroachment on the old eastern boundary of the Rajapoot country of Ajimere, it runs about 260 miles to the little Hindoo principality of Kotta, and thence SW. 540 miles further to the extreme point of the Soubah of Gujerat at Duarka, including the whole of that fertile province; whence along the sea-coasts of Cambay and Malabar to Goa, the distance may be reckoned 800 miles. Thus the overgrown empire of the Marhattas may be said to extend 19° Lon. E. near the parallel of 22° Lat. N. from the mouths of the Indus to those of the Ganges, and about 13° Lat. N. from the Kistnah to Paniput; comprehending at least an area of 400,000 square geographic miles, being considerably more than a 3d part of Hindostan, including the Deccan, and equal perhaps in dimensions to all the British and allied states in India, with those of Golconda and Myfore, taken together." (*Hist. and Polit. View of the Deccan.*) Such at least was the estimate of their extent before the late great addition to that of the British dominions in India, by the capture of Seringapatam, and the overthrow and death of Tippoc. See **INDIA**, § 29.

**MARHATTAS**, **MERHATTAS**, **MARATTAS**, or **MAHRATTAS**; a people of India, and by far the most considerable of the Hindoo powers. The Marhattas boast a very high antiquity; they profess the religion of Bramah; speak a dialect of the Sanscrit language, in which they have introduced all the technical terms of Moghul administration; use a character of their own writing, somewhat different from that of the surrounding tribes; and are divided into four casts or classes, with the various subdivisions of professional distinction in the rest of Hindostan, but with this remarkable difference, that among the Mahrattas every individual may, as in fact he occasionally does, follow the life of a soldier. They inhabited from time immemorial the country of **MARHAT**, but were completely subjugated, and afterwards for many centuries oppressed, first by the Patans, and then by the Moghul conquerors of Delhi. At length, towards the end of Aurengzeer's reign, they united, rebelled, and under the famous *Sevaje* or *Seva-je*, a leader of their own tribe, laid the foundations of their present vast empire, which has risen gradually on the ruins of the Mahometan power. This *Seva-je* claimed to be descended from the ancient Hindoo emperors. His father was lord of a small district, for which he paid tribute to the Mahometan king of Vizimpeur. This monarch having arrested and put him in jail, he died in confinement; whereupon *Sevva-je* took up arms to revenge his father's death, and being joined by great numbers, took several important places, with a large tract of territory; which, after the king's death, were ceded to him by his widow. After this *Sevva-je* became so formidable, that many of the Hindoo princes put themselves under his protection, and he at length ventured to make war upon the emperor Aurengzebe. Though at first unsuccessful, in so much that he was taken prisoner, yet having made his escape, he recommenced host-

ilities with such success, that at last Aurengzeb., now far advanced in life, made peace with him upon very advantageous terms. Seeva-jeer was succeeded by his son rajah Sahou, who considerably extended the Marhatta dominions. When rajah Sahou grew old and infirm, and the fatigues of government began to press heavy upon him, he appointed Bissonat Balajee, a Brahman born at Gokum, and leader of about 25,000 horse, to the office of Paishwa or vicegerent. Sahou died without issue, but left nephews by his brother. The courage and wisdom of Balajee had gained him, during the latter years of the old rajah, the affection and esteem of all the nation. But, under an appearance of modesty and self-denial, his prevailing passion was ambition; and the sentiments of gratitude and loyalty were absorbed in the desire to command. He made use of the influence he had acquired under his benefactor so firmly to establish his own power, that he not only retained the office of Paishwa during his life, but transmitted it to his posterity; and the descendants of rajah Sahou's nephews are still respected, though kept in a kind of captivity in the palace at Sattarah. The eldest is styled Ram Rajah, or sovereign; his name is on the seal and coin of the Marhatta state; but his person is unknown, except to those who immediately surround him. He resides in his splendid prison, encompassed with the appendages of eastern grandeur, but debarred of all power, and kept totally ignorant of business. The seat of government was transferred from the ancient royal residence of Sattarah to Poonah; and the usurper, as well as his successors, seem still to have acted under the supposed authority of the deposed prince, by their assuming no other title or character, than that of Paishwa or prime minister. From this change, the empire of the Ram Rajah has been distinguished only by the appellation of the *Rajshewaship*, or *Government of Poonah*, from the name of its present capital. Bissonat Balajee was succeeded as Paishwa by his eldest son Balajee Row (called also *Nana Sabeb* or *Nanah Row*), who left 3 sons, the eldest of whom Balajee Pundit, sometimes called Nanah Pundit, succeeded him. The two others were Rogobah or Rogonaut Row, and Shamsheer Row. Balajee Pundit left two sons; *Mahadava* or *Mada Row*, who was Paishwa 12 years; and Narrain Row, who succeeded him. During the latter part of the life of Mahadava Row, his uncle Rogobah, or Rogonaut, was confined to the palace at Poonah. Mahadava died without issue; and upon the accession of Narrain his brother, a youth of about 19 years of age, Rogobah applied to be released from his confinement; which some say was refused, while others affirm that he was liberated by his brother before his death. (See INDIA, § 22.) Be that as it may, it is certain, that he soon procured the assassination of his nephew Narrain Row, and his own election in his place. But the widow of Narrain being soon after discovered to be with child, the Marhatta chiefs fell off from their allegiance; and the murderers of Narrain being rewarded instead of being punished, Rogobah became so unpopular, that a council was held in Sattarah, the capital, by 9 of the chiefs who resolved to declare Narrain's child, yet unborn,

the legal successor; and the widow was sent for security to Poorendher, a strong fort, 25 miles from Poonah. Rogobah, upon hearing of this revelation, resolved to risk one battle with an army of the revolted commanded by Trimbec Row, in which the latter was slain; but though he obtained a victory, the strength of the confederates daily increased, and his own troops were diminished by continual desertions. He therefore found it necessary to apply for succour to the English, at Bombay, in which he was but too successful. His success in this application was the cause of two wars with the Marhattas, which, after much waste of blood and treasure, we were obliged to conclude by relinquishing his claim, and acknowledging as legal Paishwa the son of Narrain Row, who was born about 7 months after the death of his father. See INDIA, § 22, 26, 28.

MARLÆ ZELL, a town in Stiria, 12 miles N. of Pruc.

(1.) MARIA, or SANCTA MARIA, an island of the Indian Ocean, 5 miles E. of Madagascar. It is about 27 miles long and 5 broad; well watered, and surrounded by rocks. The air is very moist, for it rains almost every day. It is inhabited by 500 or 600 negroes.

(2.) MARIA, ST, a town of Hungary.

(3.) MARIA, ST, a town of Maritime Austria, in Istria; 4 miles N. of Montfalcone.

(4.) MARIA, ST, a town of S. America, in the audience of Panama, built by the Spaniards after they had discovered the gold mines near it, and soon after taken by the English. It is seated at the bottom of the Gulf of St Michael, at the mouth of a river of the same name; which is navigable, and the largest that falls into the gulf. The Spaniards come annually in the dry season, which continues 3 months, to gather the gull dust out of the sands of the neighbouring streams; and carry away great quantities. Lon. 148. 30. W. Lat. 0. N.

(5.) MARIA, ST, a town of Spain, in Andalusia with a small castle. It was taken by the English and Dutch in 1702, for the archduke of Austria. It is seated on the Guadaletta, at the mouth of which is a tower and a clove battery, 18 miles N. of Cadiz. Lon. 5. 33. W. Lat. 36. 35. N.

(6.) MARIA, ST, a town of Transylvania.

(7.) MARIA, ST DELLA GRATIA, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mincio and district (late duchy) of Mantua: 5 miles W. of Mantua.

(8.) MARIA, ST, a town of Naples in Lower 37 miles W. of Naples. There are other 8 towns of this name, in Naples, distinguished as follows:

(9.) MARIA, ST, APOLSANO, in Capitanata:

(10.) MARIA, ST, DEL ALTO, in Otranto:

(11.) MARIA, ST, DEL DOTOLI, in Otranto:

(12.) MARIA, ST, DELLA GRATICE, in Calabria.

(13.) MARIA, ST, DELLA ISOLA, in Bari:

(14.) MARIA, ST, DELLA SERRA, in Calabria.

(15.) MARIA, ST, DI LEUCA, in Otranto: and

(16.) MARIA, ST, PALUMBO, in Otranto.

MARIAKIRCHEN, a town of Austria.

MARIAMNE, the daughter of Alexander grand-daughter of Hyrcanus II, and the second wife of Herod the Great; who, however, was

cred her and most of her relations. See ALFREDRA, N<sup>o</sup> 2; HEROD, N<sup>o</sup> 1; and JWS, § 10. **MARIAN**, or **LADRONE ISLANDS**. See LARONE.

(1.) **MARIANA**, John, a learned Spanish historian, born at Talavera in the diocese of Toledo. He entered among the Jesuits in 1554, at 17 years of age; and became one of the most learned men of his time. He was a great divine, a good humanist, and profoundly versed in civil and ecclesiastical history. He taught at Rome, in Sicily, at Paris, and in Spain; and died at Toledo in 1624. His principal works are, 1. A history of Spain in 50 books; which he wrote first in Latin, and afterwards in Spanish. 2. *Scholia*, or short notes on the Bible. 3. A treatise on the changes the species has undergone in Spain; for which he was imprisoned by the Spanish minister. 4. A treatise *De rege et regis institutione*, which made much noise, and was condemned by the parliament of Paris to be burnt by the hangman, for his asserting in it, that it is lawful to murder tyrants. 5. A work on the faults of the government of the society of Jesuits, which has been translated into Spanish, Latin, Italian, French, &c.

(2.) **MARIANA**, a town of the French republic, in the dep. and island of Corsica, 16 miles S. of Bastia.

**MARIANUS SCOTUS**, an Irish monk, who was related to the venerable Bede. He wrote a chronicle which is esteemed; and died in the abbey of Fuld in 1036, aged 58.

**MARIBONE**, or **St MARY LE BON**, or rather *Burn*, from the neighbouring brook, a parish of Middlesex, on the NW. side of London. The manor appears to have belonged anciently to the bishop of London. The houses are very numerous, comprising several extensive streets and squares, which are every year increasing. The Paddington road from Illington passes through this parish, which gives it communication with the E. part of London without passing through the streets. Here were three conduits erected about A. D. 1238, for supplying London with water; but in 1703, when it was plentifully served by the New River, the citizens let them out at 700l. a-year for 43 years. There were two for receiving its water at the NE. corner of the bridge on the river Tyburn, and over them stood the lord mayor's banqueting house, to which (the use of coaches being not then known) his lordship and the aldermen used to ride on horseback, as their ladies did in waggons. This banqueting house, after being many years neglected, was taken down in 1737, and the pillars arched over. This village is joined by new buildings to London. The old church, which was a mean edifice, was pulled down, and a new one erected in 1741. Besides which it has a great number of chapels of every sect and persuasion, and an extensive work-house for the poor.

**MARICA**. See FAUNA.

**MARICELLO**, a town of Naples, in Bari.

**MARKIDUNUM**, in ancient geography, a town of the Britons in Britain; now called *Great Marston*, or *CARSMARTHEN*, the capital of Carmarthensh.

(1.) **MARIE**, or **St MARIE**, the name of five towns of France: viz. 1. in the dep. of the Lower Pyrenees; 13 miles W. of Oleron;

(2.) **MARIE**, **St, AUX MINES**, in the dep. of Upper Rhine, and late prov. of Lorrain, near mines of silver and lead; 12 miles NW. of Colmar, and 25 of New Brisac. The Leber runs through it. Dr Brookes places it in the dep. of Vosges. Lon. 7. 24. E. Lat. 48. 16. N.

(3.) **MARIE**, **St, D'ARUCI**, in the dep. of Mont Blanc, (ci-devant Savoy), 15 m. NW. Chambery.

(4.) **MARIE**, **St, DE LA MER**, in the dep. of the Eastern Pyrenees, 9 miles ENE. of Perpignan:

(5.) **MARIE**, **St, DE MONT**, in the dep. of the Channel, 4½ miles N. of Carentan.

(1.) **MARIENBURG**, a town of France, in the dep. of Ardennes, 7 miles SE. of Philipville, and 10 SW. of Charlemont. Dr Brookes places it in the dep. of the North. Lon. 4. 28. E. Lat. 50. 2. N.

(2.) **MARIENBURG**, a town and palat. of Prussia.

(3.) **MARIENBURG**, a town of Saxony in Misnia.

**MARIE-HERDICKE**, a town of Westphalia.

**MARIENSTADT**, a town of Sweden, in W.

Getland, on lake Weener, 35 m. SE. of Carlskrd.

**MARJENWERDER**, a town of E. Prussia, with a castle on the Vistula. Lon. 19. 15. E. Lat. 53. 45. N.

**MARIES, THREE**, 3 islands near Mexico.

\* **MARIEFS**. *n. f.* [*cirole mariara*.] A kind of violet. *Dit.*

**MARIETTA**, a post town of the United States, in the North Western Territory, on the Ohio, at the mouth of the Muskingum; 460 miles W. by S. of Philadelphia.

**MARIGALANTE**, an island of North America, and one of the least of the Caribbees, 12 miles S. of Guadaloupe. The soil, produce, and climate, are much the same as the other Caribbees. Columbus discovered it in his 2d American voyage in 1483, and called it by the name of his ship *María Galanta*, or *Gallant Mary*. It is about 6 leagues long, and between 3 and 4 broad. Viewed at a distance from on board a ship, it appears like a floating island, because, as it is for the most part flat, the trees seem to swim; but a nearer prospect shows it to be intersected by some running grounds, which give a fine variety to the landscape. The French settled here in 1648; and it was taken by the English in 1691, but the French soon got possession of it again. It was again taken by the British in 1759, but restored at the peace in 1763. It was thought, on its first discovery, to want water; but a charming running stream has since been discovered, on the banks of which are some wealthy planters, and excellent plantations of sugar. A little village in a small bay is the capital of the island, and here the commandant resides. The whole island is very capable of improvement; the soil being almost all equally good, and the land rising no where too high. The coast affords many little bays, and safe anchorage and shelter to ships. Lon. 61. 5. W. Lat. 16. 32. N.

**MARIGNANO**, or **MELIGNANO**, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of Olona, district and ci-devant duchy of Milan. Near it Francis I. defeated the Sw. G. in 1515. It is situate on the Lambro, 11 miles SE. of Milan.

**MARIGNY**, 4 towns of France; viz. 1. in the dept. of Aube, 15 miles NW. of Troyes; 2. in that of the Channel, 6 miles W. of St Loo; 3. in

that of Indre and Loire, 1; miles SW. of Cluison: and 4. in that of Mont Blanc, (late Savoy,) 20 miles SSE. of Geneva.

(1.) \* MARIGOLD. *n. f.* [*Mary and gold; caltha*, Lat.] A yellow flower, devoted, I suppose, to the virgin.—The *marigold* hath a radiated discous flower; the petals of them are, for the most part, crenated, the seeds crooked and rough; those which are uppermost long, and those within short: the leaves are long, intire, and for the most part, succulent. *Miller*.—Your circle will teach you to draw truly all spherical bodies. The most of flowers; as, the rose and *marigold*. *Peacham*.—

The *marigold*, whose courtier's face  
Echoes the sun. *Cleveland*.

Fair is the *marigold*, for pottage meet. *Gay*.

(2.) MARIGOLD. See CALENDULA, N° 1.

(3.) MARIGOLD, AFRICAN. See TAGETES, N° 1.

(4.) MARIGOLD, CORN. See CHRYSANTHEMUM, N° 1.

(5.) MARIGOLD, FIG. See MESEMBRYANTHEMUM.

(6.) MARIGOLD, FRENCH. See TAGETES, N° 3.

(7.) MARIGOLD, MARSH. See CALTHA.

\* To MARINATE. *v. a.* [*mariner*, Fr.] To salt fish, and then preserve them in oil or vinegar.—

Why am I sty'd a cook, if I'm so loath

To *marinate* my fish, or season broth. *King*.

MARINDUGERA, one of the PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, 60 miles in circumference, and 30 NE. of Mindoro.

(1.) \* MARINE. *adj.* [*marinus*, Lat.] Belonging to the sea.—The king was desirous that the ordinances of England and France, touching *marine* affairs, might be reduced into one form. *Haysward*.—Vast multitudes of shells, and other *marine* bodies, are found lodged in all sorts of stone. *Woodw.*

No longer Circe could her flame disguise,

But to the suppliant God *marine* replies. *Ovid*.

(2.) \* MARINE. *n. f.* [*la marine*, French.] 1. Sea-affairs.—Nearchus, who commanded Alexander's fleet, and Queferates his intendant general of *marine*, have both left relations of the state of the Indies at that time. *Arabic*. 2. A soldier taken on shipboard to be employed in descents upon the land.

(3.) MARINE [*q. v.* 2, *d. f. l.*] is a general name for the navy of a kingdom or state: the whole economy of naval affairs; and whatever respects the building, rigging, arming, equipping, navigating, and fighting ships. It comprehends also the government of naval armaments, and the state of all the persons employed therein, whether civil or military. The history of the marine affairs of any one state is a very comprehensive subject. Those who wish to be fully informed of the maritime affairs of Great Britain, and the figure it has made at sea in all ages, may find abundance of curious matter in Selden's *Maræ Clugion*; and from his time to our's, may trace a series of facts in Lodi-att's and Banchet's Naval History; but above all in the *Campbell's Lives of the Admirals*.

(4.) MARINE ACID, or MURIATIC ACID, one of the component parts of sea salt. See ACID, MARIATIC. But the phlogistic hypothesis stated under that article is now entirely exploded. See CHEMISTRY, *Index*. An account of various methods of procuring this acid from common salt, of most

of its chemical properties, and of several uses may be put to in the arts, is given under the articles BLEACHING, CHEMISTRY, OXYGEN MAKING, &c. M. Chaptal observes, that the marine acid cannot be obtained by distilling salt powdered flints. He made the experiment mixing 10 lb. of flints with 2 lb. of sea salt, he obtained only a mass of the colour of litharge, the fumes were not perceptibly acid. Chaptal decompose this salt for once, but not in the highest degree if used a 2d time; which shows, that all probability the decomposition is owing to a portion of vitriolic acid contained in the salt. Under the article BLEACHING, Part II, we take notice of the properties of the dephlogisticated marine acid in whitening cloth. But great and important improvements have since been made in that art, as well as in the methods of procuring the oxygenated muriatic acid for that purpose. See MURIATIC ACID, and OXYGENATED MURIATIC ACID.

(5.) MARINE CHAIR, a machine invented by Mr Irwin for viewing the satellites of Jupiter at sea, and of course determining the longitude by the eclipses. An account of it is given in the *Journal Esfranger* for March 1760. An account of its accuracy was published in 1761 by M. de L'Isle, astronomer in the imperial academy of Petersburg; but notwithstanding the encomiums bestowed upon it by this gentleman, it hath never come into general use; and therefore we may conclude, that it is much inferior to the inventions of Mr Haffson for the same purpose. See HARRISON, N° 1; and LONGITUDE.

(6.) MARINE DISCIPLINE is the training up soldiers for sea-service, in such exercises as the various positions of the firelock and body, and teaching them every manœuvre that can be performed on board ships of war at sea. See EXERCISE, 61 and NAVY.

(7.) MARINE FORCES, or MARINES, a body of soldiers raised for the sea service, and trained to fight either in a naval engagement or in an action ashore. The great service of this useful corps was manifested frequently in the course of the German war, particularly at the siege of Belgrade, where they acquired a great character, although rarely raised and hardly exercised in military discipline. At sea they are incorporated with the ship's crew, of which they make a part; and many of them learn in a short time to be excellent seamen, to which their officers are ordered with admiralty to encourage them, although their duty is to order them to go aloft against their inclination. In a sea-fight their main arms are of great advantage in securing the decks of the enemy; and when they have been long enough to stand firm when the ship rocks, they make infinitely preferable to seamen if the troops will carry attempt to board, by raising a battle with their fixed bayonets to oppose them. The sole direction of the corps of marines is with the lords commissioners of the admiralty; and the admiralty is a distinct apartment of the royal palace. The secretary to the admiralty is also secretary to the marines, for which he receives of each a year; and has under him several officers for the management of this department.

marine forces of Great Britain in the time of peace are stationed in three divisions; one at Chatham, another at Portsmouth, and a 3d at Plymouth. By a late regulation, they are ordered to do duty at the several dock-yards of those ports, to prevent embezzlement of the king's stores, for which a captain's guard mounts every day; which certainly requires great vigilance, as so many abuses of this kind have been committed, that many of the inhabitants, who have been long used to an infamous traffic of this kind, expect these conveyances at certain periods as their due. The marine corps are under the command of their own field-officers, who discipline them, and regulate their different duties.—K. George II. in 1760 formed a new establishment of marine officers, entitled, *the general, lieutenant general, and three colonels of marines* (one for each division), to be taken from officers in the royal navy. The two first are always enjoyed by flag-officers, the last by post-captains only. This establishment was formed to reward such officers as distinguished themselves in the service of their country.

(8.) MARINE SURVEYOR, a machine contrived by Mr H. de Saunrez for measuring the way of a ship in the sea. This machine is in the form of the letter Y, and is made of iron or any other metal. At each end of the lines which constitute the angle or upper part of that letter, are two pallets, resembling the figure of the log; one of which falls in the same proportion as the other rises. The falling or pendant pallet, meeting a resistance from the water, as the ship moves, has thereby a circular motion under water, which is faster or slower according as the vessel moves. This motion is communicated to a dial within the ship, by a rope fastened to the tail of the Y, and carried to the dial. The motion being thus communicated to the dial, which has a bell in it, it strikes exactly the number of geometrical paces, miles, or leagues, which the ship has run. Thus the ship's distance is attained; and the forces of tides and currents may also be discovered by this instrument: which, however, has been very little used.

MARINELLA. Lucretia, a Venetian lady of the 17th century, who published, 1. *The Life of the Virgin Mary*; 2. *The Life of St Francis*; and, 3. A curious tract in which she maintains *the Superiority of the Female Sex over the Male*: with several other works.

(1.) \* MARINER. *n. s.* [from *mare*, Lat. *marinus*, Fr.] A seaman; a sailor.—

The merry *mariner* unto his word  
Soon hearken'd, and her painted boat straight-way

Turn'd to the shore. *Fairy Queen.*  
—We oft deceive ourselves, as did that *mariner*  
who, mistaking them for precious stones, brought  
home his ship fraught with common pebbles from  
the Indies. *Glaxville.*—

His busy *mariners* he hates,  
His shatter'd sails with rigging to restore. *Dryd.*  
What *mariner* is not afraid,  
To venture in a ship decay'd. *Swift.*

(2.) MARINER. See SAILOR, and SEAMEN.  
(3.) MARINER'S COMPASS. See COMPASS, N<sup>o</sup> V.

(4.) MARINERS, METHOD OF PRESERVING THE HEALTH OF. See SEAMEN.

(1.) MARINES. See MARINE, § 7.

(2.) MARINES, in geography, a town of France, in the dep. of the Seine and Oise; 7½ miles NW. of Pontoise, and 12 W. of Beaumont.

MARINGO. See MARLIGO, N<sup>o</sup> 1 & 2.

MARINGUES, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome; 13½ miles NW. of Clermont.

MARINHA, ST, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 20 miles SE. of Oporto.

MARINI, a town of Spain, in New Castile.

(1.) MARINO, John Baptist, a celebrated Italian poet born at Naples in 1569. His father, who was an able civilian, obliged him to study the law; at which being disgusted, he left his parents, and retired to the house of Sieur Manzi, who was a friend to all men of genius. He at length became secretary to Matthew of Capua, great admiral of Naples, and contracted a friendship with Tasso. He went soon after to Rome, and entered into the service of Card. Aldobrandini, nephew to pope Clement VIII. who took him with him to Savoy. Marino was in great favour with the court of Turin; but afterwards created himself many enemies there, the most furious of whom was the poet Gaspard Murtola, who, attempting to shoot him with a pistol, wounded one of the duke of Savoy's favourites. Marino, being obliged to leave Turin, went to Paris at the desire of queen Mary de Medicis, and published there his poem on *Adonis*. He afterwards went to Rome, where he was made prince of the academy of the humoristi; and thence to Naples, where he died while he was preparing to return home. He had a very lively imagination, but little judgment. His works, which are numerous, have been often printed.

(2.) MARINO, a town and fort of Italy, in the Campagna; 15 miles SE. of Rome. Lon. 12. 40. E. Lat. 41. 54. N.

(3.) MARINO, ST, a native of Dalmatia, originally bred a mason, who flourished in the 5th century; and having turned hermit, retired to the mountain which still bears his name. His devotion and austerly soon procured him such a high reputation for sanctity, that the Italian princes, on whose property the mountain was situated, made him a present of it; whereupon great numbers of people out of veneration for the saint took up their residence upon it, and thus laid the foundation of the town and republic of Sr MARINO. (See N<sup>o</sup> 4 & 5.) He is venerated as the greatest of the saints, next to the virgin Mary, and to speak disrespectfully of him is punished as blasphemy.

(4.) MARINO, ST, a small republic of Italy, founded by the Saint, (N<sup>o</sup> 3.) consisting only of a mountain, a town and a few hills, about the bottom of it, about 6 miles in extent. The number of the inhabitants is about 6000. The mountain yields good wine, but they have only rain or snow water. In the whole territory there are only 3 castles, 3 convents, and 5 churches. The largest of the churches is dedicated to the saint, and contains his ashes and his statue. All that are capable of bearing arms are exercised, and ready at

a minute's call. In the ordinary course of government, the administration was in the hands of the council of 60, which, however consisted only of 40 members one half of whom are of noble families, and the other of plebeian. On extraordinary occasions, however, the *arengo*, or great council, in which every house has its representative, is called together. The two principal officers are the capitaneos, who are chosen every half year; next to them is the commillary, who judges in civil and criminal matters, and is joined in commission with the capitaneos. When an ambassador is sent to any foreign state, he is allowed about 1000 a-day. In the year 1700, the republic purchased the castle of *Pemarafla*, and in 1770, that of *Cajala*. About 1460, it assisted Pope Pius II, against Malatesta lord of Rimini; in return for which he made over to it the forts of Serravalle, Faetano, Mont Giardino, and Fiorentino. During all the late various revolutions of Italy, this republic preserved its liberty and independence; and upon the peace in 1802, the citizens new-modelled their constitution, by adding one fourth to the number of the little council, and increasing that of the great council to 300.

(5, 6.) **MARINO, ST.**, the capital of the above republic, seated on the top of the mountain above mentioned. It is well fortified and has only one road, by which it can be approached. It is 60 miles SE. of Bologna, and 125 N. of Rome. Lon. 12. 35. E. Lat. 43. 54. N.

(7.) **MARINO, ST.**, a town of Naples, in the province of Basilicata; 9 miles S. of Tuffi.

**MARINUS**, an engraver who flourished about 1670, and resided principally at Antwerp. His plates, Mr. Smith observes, are executed in a very fine style, with the most exact delineation of the most difficult parts, and exact over each plate, and engraved like a book, which is filled up with tiny little dots. His prints, though generally very good, want the force of the master in the delineation of the folds of the draperies and the outlines of the figures; and the extremities of which are heavy, and not marked with precision. Fine impressions from his cuts are not, however, much sought after by collectors; they especially after Rubens and Jordens are held in very high estimation.

**MARION**, a county of S. Carolina.

(1.) **MARIONIS**, in ancient geography, a town of Germany; now called *Helmstedt*, a famous trading city on the Elbe, in Lower Saxony, in the duchy of Helstern.

(2.) **MARIONIS**, another ancient town of Germany, now thought to be *Wilmars*, in the duchy of Mecklenburg.

(3.) \* **MARJORAM** *n. f.* [*marjorana*, Latin; *marjolain*, French.] A fragrant plant of many kind; the bastard kind only grows here.—The nymphs of the mountains would be drawn, upon their heads garlands of honey-suckles, woodbine, and sweet *marjoram*. *Psalm.*

(4.) **MARJORAM**, in botany. See **ORIGANUM**.

(5.) **MARJORAM**, Spanish, a species of **URTICA**.

**MARIOTTE**, Edmund, an eminent philosopher and mathematician, born in Burgundy. He was made a member of the academy of sciences. He

died in 1684. His works, which are much ed, were printed at Leyden in 1717, 1730.

**MARIQUITA**, or **ST SEBASTIAN DE** a town of S. America, in Popayan, with mines.

**MARISCH**, a town of Moravia, in Pr.

(1.) \* **MARISH**. *n. f.* [*marais*, Fr. *maerische*, Dutch.] A bog; a fen; a watery ground; a marsh; a morass; a bog. The flight was made towards Dalkeith way, by reason of the *marish*, the English were least able to pursue. *Hayward*.—We had avenged the blood of their brother turned again to the *marish* of Jordan. 142.—Lodronis, carried away with the in of the horsemen, was driven into a where, being fore wounded, and fast in it he had done the uttermost. *Koeller*.—

His limbs he coucheth in the cooler  
Oft, when heaven's burning eye the f  
vades,

To *marishes* resorts.

Gliding meteorous, as ev'ning mist  
Ris'n from a river, o'er the *marish* glide

(2.) \* **MARISH**. *adj.* Moorish; fenmy; swampy.—It hath been a great endang the health of some plantations, that th built along the sea and rivers, in *marish* whollose grounds. *Baron*.—

The fen and quagmire to *marish* by  
Are to be drained.

**MARITAGIUM**, in the feudal cust contradistinguished, from *matrimonium*, the power which the lord or guardian had of disposing of his infant ward in marriage while the infant was in ward, and had the power of tendering him or her a man without disparagement or dowry, which if the infants refused, they fell void at the marriage, *quod in maritagio* judgment; that is, so much as a jury would or any one would *bona fide* give to the father in an alliance; and if the infant themselves without the guardian's consent, it increased double the value, *duponiam maritagii*.

\* **MARITAL**. *adj.* [*maritalis*, Latin; French.] Pertaining to a husband; as a husband.—If any one retains a wife, been taken in the act of adultery, he is guilty of the crime of bawdry. But the punishment does consist in the name, and in the name charity, as well as *maritalis* induces a bond thereof, this is *maritalis* *dotis*.—It has been determined by some late professors of the law, that a husband create his *marital* authority so far, as to wife moderate correction. *Act of Tenor*.

\* **MARITATED**. *adj.* From *maritus*. Having a husband. *Dist.*

\* **MARITIMAL**. *adj.* [*maritimus*, Latin.] Pertaining to the sea; maritime.—I claim a *maritimal* charge and the power of distressment. *R. 1166*.—2. Referring to the coast; the maritime. *Ex. 1166*.—3. Referring to the sea; maritime. *Ex. 1166*.—4. Referring to the sea; maritime. *Ex. 1166*.



what been shrewdly touched. *Wotton*. 3. Bothering on the sea.—

The friend, the shores *maritimal*

Sought for his bed, and found a place upon  
which play'd

The murmuring billows.

*Chapman.*

Ereco, and the kifs *maritime* kings

Monbaza and Quilon.

*Milton.*

—Neptune upbraided them with their stupidity and ignorance, that a *maritime* town should neglect the patronage of him who was the god of the seas. *Addison*.

(2.) **MARITIME** signifies also bounded by the sea. A maritime province or country is one bounded by the sea; and a maritime kingdom is one that makes a considerable figure, or that is very powerful at sea. Hence, by **MARITIME POWERS** among the European states, are understood Great Britain and Holland.

(3.) **MARITIME ALPS**, that part of the Alps, which borders on the Gulf of Genoa. See **ALPS**.

(4.) **MARITIME ALPS**, a department of the French republic, formed out of the ci-devant county of Nice and principality of MONACO. Monaco and Nice are the chief towns.

(5.) **MARITIME AUSTRIA**, a new province of Italy, belonging to the house of Austria, comprehending the dominions ceded to the emperor, by the French republic, at the treaty of Campo Formio, on the 17th Oct. 1797, as a compensation for the loss of his hereditary dominions in the Netherlands; and since confirmed to him by the treaty of Lunéville, and the general treaty of peace in 1802. Its limits, as defined by the first of these treaties, commence on the W. side of lake Garda, on the confines of the Tirolse, with the rivulet which runs by Gardolo; and passing through the lake obliquely, extend on the E. to Lacize; hence across to Sr Giacomo; thence for 18,000 feet along the left bank of the Adige to Porto Legnano; thence to the left of the White Canal, the Tartaro, and the canal of Polifella, reaching to the Po, the left bank of which to the Adriatic completes the limits of the province. It is bounded on the N. by the Tirolse; NE. by Carinthia and Carniola; S. by the Adriatic, the Po, the Polifella, the White Canal, and the Tartaro; and on the W. by the ci-devant **CISALPINE**, now the **ITALIAN REPUBLIC**. Its superficial contents are 85 German square miles, 15 to a degree. It is situated between 28° 10' and 37° 8' Lon. E. and between 42° and 47° Lat. N. extending from NW. to SE. and "forming" (says Dr Oppenheim) "a golden seam of border to the Austrian monarchy." It comprehends the following provinces: 1. The city of Venice, with its Lagunes; 2. The Dogado; 3. The Paduano; 4. Rovigo; 5. Vicentino; 6. Trevisana; 7. Friuli; 8. Istria; 9. Dalmatia; 10. The four Isles of the Quarnero; 11. The 3 Dalmatian Islands; 12. Montachia; 13. Lower Dalmatia; and 14. Montenegro. The city of Verona, and the mountainous or northern part of the Veronese, also formed part of it by the treaty of Campo Formio; but they were taken by the French and annexed to the Cisalpine republic, in 1805, and now form a part of the Italian republic, and department of the Veneto. The total population of Maritime

Austria was estimated by Dr Oppenheim in 1798, at 3,110,000 souls; viz. 2,860,000, on the continent, and 250,000 in Albania, Dalmatia, and the islands; but from these must now be deducted 81,575 for the population of the Veronese. Of the above population 40,000 belong to religious orders, the Roman Catholic being the predominant religion. But "the system of toleration" (says the Dr) "is so firmly established, that no scope is given to accusations in religious matters, or to the abominable abuse of priestly power." The sciences, however, have made but little progress. The whole territory is fertile and the climate in general salubrious, and so mild that ice and snow are rarely seen. For other particulars, See **DALMATIA**, **FRIULI**, **QUARNARO**, **VENICE**, &c.

(6.) **MARITIME POWERS**. See 51.

(7.) **MARITIME STATE**, in British polity, one of the three general divisions of the laity: See **LAITY**. The state is nearly connected with the military; though much more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; an army from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated from earliest ages. To so much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the 12th century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the *laws of Oleron*, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and substruction of all their marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by K. Richard I. at the isle of Oleron on the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of England. And yet so vastly inferior were the English of that age to the present in this respect, that even in the maritime reign of Q. Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke boasts, that the royal navy of England then consisted of *three and thirty* ships. The present condition of marine is in great measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statutes called the *navigation acts*; whereby the constant increase of English shipping and seamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably necessary. By stat. 5 Rich. II. c. 3. in order to augment the navy of England, then greatly diminished, it was ordained, that none of the king's liege people should ship any merchandize out of or into the realm, but only in ships of the king's allegiance, on pain of forfeiture. In the next year, by statute 6 Rich. II. c. 8. this wise provision was enlarged, by only obliging the merchants to give English ships (if able and sufficient) the preference. But the most beneficial statute for the trade and commerce of these kingdoms is that navigation-act, the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650 with a narrow partial view; being intended to mortify our own sugar islands, which were dissected to the parliament, and still held out for Charles II. by stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch, and at the same time to cup the wings of these our opulent and aspiring neighbours. This prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations, without licence

from the council of state. In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother country; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms; or in the ships of that European nation of which the merchandize imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Restoration, the former provisions were continued, by stat. 22 Car. II. c. 12. with this very material improvement, that the master and three-fourths of the mariners shall also be English subjects.—Many laws have been made for the supply of the royal navy with seamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them during and after their service. 1. For their supply. The principal, but the most odious, though often necessary method for this purpose; is by impressing; see IMPRESSING. But there are other ways that tend to the increase of seamen, and manning the royal navy. Parishes may bind out poor boys apprentices to the masters of merchantmen, who shall be protected from impressing for the first three years; and if they are impressed afterwards, the masters shall be allowed their wages: great advantages in point of wages are given to volunteer seamen, in order to induce them to enter into his majesty's service: and every foreign seaman, who, during a war, shall serve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipso facto*. About the middle of king William's reign, a scheme was set on foot for a register of seamen to the number of 30,000, for a constant and regular supply of the king's fleet; with great privileges to the registered men; and, on the other hand, heavy penalties in case of their non-appearance when called for: but this registry, being judged to be rather a badge of slavery, was abolished by stat. 9 Ann. c. 21. 2. The Method of ordering seamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular discipline there, is directed by certain express rules, articles, and orders, first enacted by the authority of parliament soon after the Restoration; but since new-modelled and altered, after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, to remedy some defects which were of fatal consequence in conducting the preceding war. In these articles of the navy almost every possible offence is set down, and the punishment thereof annexed: in which respect the seamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land-service; whose articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleasure of the crown. Yet from whence this distinction arose, and why the executive power, which is limited so properly with regard to the navy, should be so extensive with regard to the army, it is hard to assign a reason; unless it proceeded from the perpetual establishment of the navy, which rendered a permanent law for their regulation expedient, and the temporary duration of the army, which subsisted only from year to year, and might therefore with less danger be subject to discretionary government. But, whatever was apprehended at the first formation of the mutiny act, the regular renewal of our standing force at the entrance of every year has made this distinction idle. For, if from experience past, we may judge of future events, the ar-

my is now lastingly ingrafted into the British constitution; with this singularly fortunate circumstance, that any branch of the legislature may annually put an end to its legal existence, by refusing to concur in its continuance. 3. The privileges conferred on sailors are much the same with those conferred on soldiers, with regard to relief, when maimed, wounded, or superannuated, either by countryrates, or the royal hospital at Greenwich; with regard also to the exercise of trades, and the power of making nuncupative testaments; and farther, no seaman aboard his majesty's ships can be arrested for any debt, unless the same be found to amount to at least £ 20; though by the annual mutiny acts, a soldier may be arrested for a debt which extends to half that value, but not to a less amount.

MARIVAUX, Peter Carlet DE, a French dramatic writer, born of a good family at Paris in 1688. A fine understanding, improved by education, distinguished him early. He met with the highest success in comic productions, which, with the merit of his other works, procured him a place in the French academy. "My only object (says he) is to make men more just and more humane; and he was as amiable in his life and conversation as in his writings. He died at Paris in 1763, aged 75. His works consist of, 1. *Précis de Théâtre*, 4 vols 12mo. 2. *Fiomere traæ. jii*, 1770. 3. *Le Spectateur François*, 2 vols 12mo. 4. *Le Pèlerin Indigent*, 12mo. 5. *Vie de Marianne*, 2 vols 12mo; one of the best romances in the French language. 6. *Le Poisson Parvenu*, 12mo. 7. *Précis de l'histoire*.

MARJUPOL, town of Russia, in the province of Ekaterinoflaw, on the coast of the sea of Asoph, W. of Kalmius; built for the Greeks who emigrated from the Crimea; 128 miles SE. of Ekaterinoflaw. Lon. 55. 30. E. of Ferro. Lat. 47. 0. N.

(1.) MARIUS, Caius, a famous Roman general, and 7 times consul, who saluted his great military reputation by savage barbarities. He was born at Arpinum, of obscure parents. He ingratiated himself under Scipio, at the siege of Numantia. The Roman general saw his courage and intrepidity, and foretold his future greatness. By his intrigues at Rome, while he exercised the inferior offices of the state, he rendered himself known; and his marriage with Julia, who was of the family of the Cæsars, contributed to raise him to consequence. He went to Africa as lieutenant to the consul Metellus against Jugurtha; and then ingratiated himself with the soldiers, and having raised enemies to his benefactor, he returned to Rome and canvassed for the consulship. By his extravagant promises to the people, and his insolent insinuations against Metellus, he proved successful. He was appointed to finish the war against Jugurtha, and showed his military talents by defeating Jugurtha. See JUGURTHA. The Roman provinces being suddenly invaded by an army of 300,000 barbarians, Marius was elected consul, and sent against the Teutones. The war being prolonged, Marius was a 3d and 4th time invested with the consulship. At last two engagements were fought, and not less than 200,000 of the forces of the Ambrones and Teutones were slain in the field of battle, and 90,000 more perished.

A. U. C. 650. In 651, the Cimbri, and a  
of barbarians were defeated; 140,000  
ere slaughtered by the Romans, and  
en prisoners. After these victories, Ma-  
nus colleague Catullus entered Rome in  
and Marius received the appellation of  
*leader of Rome*. He was elected consul  
; but his restless ambition began to  
ons, and to oppose the power of Sylla.  
he foundation of a civil war. Sylla re-  
liver up the command of his forces,  
he was empowered to prosecute the  
; war; and considered the demand as  
nd improper. He advanced to Rome,  
; was obliged to fly. Adverse winds  
him from seeking a retreat in Africa,  
left on the coast of Campania, where  
Sylla discovered him in a marsh, into  
had plunged himself, leaving only his  
ve the surface for respiration. He was  
the neighbouring town of Minturnæ;  
gistrates being in the interest of Sylla,  
ence of death on their illustrious pri-  
Saul was commanded to cut off his  
dungeon; but the stern countenance  
displayed the courage of the execu-  
l when he heard him say, *Tunc, homo,*  
*et Caium Marium?* the dagger dropped  
nd. Such an uncommon adventure  
compassion of the inhabitants of Min-  
ney liberated Marius, and favoured his  
frica, where he joined his son, who  
urming the princes of that country in  
Marius landed near the walls of Car-  
his retreat was soon known; and the  
f Africa, to conciliate the favour of  
elled Marius to fly to a neighbouring  
soon after learned that Cinna had em-  
cause at Rome, where the Roman se-  
ipped him of his consular dignity, and  
upon one of his enemies. Marius set  
his friend at the head of only 1000 men.  
however, was soon increased, and he  
me like a conqueror. His enemies  
nly sacrificed to his fury; Rome was  
lood, and he, who once had been cal-  
*her of his country*, marched through-  
tended by a number of assassins, who  
all those whose salutations were not  
their leader. When Marius and Cin-  
nately gratified their rage, they made  
consuls; but Marius, already worn out  
ze and infirmities, died 16 days after  
elected consul the 7th time, A. U. C.  
A. C. 86. Brought up in poverty,  
peasants, he always retained his native  
nd despised in others those polished  
nd education had denied him. Be-  
illiterate, he hated the conversation of  
; and his sobriety and temperance  
to the obscurity in which he had lived  
. His countenance was stern, his voice  
perious, and his disposition untract-  
as in his 70th year when he died;  
ejoiced at the fall of a man whose am-  
proved so fatal to many of her citi-  
only qualifications were those of a  
I; and these rendered him the most

powerful of the Romans, because he was the on-  
ly one whose ferocity seemed capable to oppose  
the barbarians.

(2.) MARIUS, Caius, the son of the preceding,  
was as cruel as his father, and shared his good and  
adverse fortune. He made himself consul in the  
25th year of his age, and murdered all the sena-  
tors who opposed his ambitious views. He was  
defeated by Sylla, and fled to Præneste, where he  
killed himself.

(3.) MARIUS, M. Aurelius, a native of Gaul;  
who, from being a blacksmith, became one of the  
generals of Gallienus, and at last caused himself  
to be saluted emperor. Three days after this ele-  
vation, a man who had shared his poverty with-  
out partaking of his prosperity, assassinated him,  
by a sword which Marius himself had made in his  
obscurity. Marius has been celebrated for his  
great strength; and it is reported that he could  
stop, with one finger only, the wheel of a chariot  
in its most rapid course.

(4.) MARIUS, Maximus, a Latin writer, who  
published an account of the Roman emperors  
from Trajan to Alexander, now lost. His com-  
positions were entertaining, and executed with  
great fidelity; but some say that they abounded  
with many fabulous stories.

(5.) MARIUS, an ancient British monarch, the  
son of king ARVIRAGUS, whom he succeeded  
A. D. 74. He conquered the Picts, and erected  
a stone upon Stanmere in memory of his victory.  
Dr Anderson says, he married a daughter of the  
celebrated queen BOADICEA. He died A. D. 125,  
after having reigned 51 years.

MARIZA, a river of Turkey, in Romana.

(I, i.) \* MARK. *n. f.* [*mare*, Welsh; *mare*, Sax.  
*mercke*, Dutch; *marque*, French.] 1. A token by  
which any thing is known.—Once was proclaimed  
throughout all Ireland, that all men should  
mark their cattle with an open ferveral *mark* upon  
their flanks or buttocks, so as if they happen to  
be stolen, they might appear whose they were.  
*Spenser*.—In the present form of the earth there  
are certain *marks* and indications of its first state;  
with which, if we compare those things that are  
recorded in sacred history, we may discover what  
the earth was in its first original. *Bacon*.—The  
urine is a lixivium of the salts in the human bod-  
dy, and the proper *mark* of the state and quan-  
tity of such salts; and therefore very certain in-  
dications for the choice of diet may be taken from  
the state of urine. *Arbutnot*. 2. A token; an im-  
pression.—

But cruel fate, and my more cruel wife,  
To Grecian swords betray'd by sleeping life:  
These are the monuments of Helen's love,  
The share I bear below, the *marks* I bore a-  
bove.

*Dryden*.  
'Twas then old soldiers cover'd o'er with  
tears,

The *marks* of Pyrrhus, or the Punic wars,  
Thought all past services rewarded well,  
If to their share at least two acres fell.

*Far.*  
—At present there are scarce any *marks* left of a  
subterraneous fire; for the earth is cold, and over-  
run with grass and shrubs. *Addis.* 3. A  
proof; an evidence.—As the confusion of tongues  
was a *mark* of separation, so the being of one

guage is a *mark* of union. *Bacon*.—The Argonauts sailed up the Danube, and from thence passed into the Adriatick, carrying their ship *Argo* upon their shoulders; a *mark* of great ignorance in geography among the writers of that time. *Arbuthnot*. 4. Notice taken.—

The laws  
Stand like the forfeits in a barber's shop,  
As much for mock as *mark*. *Shak.*  
5. Convenience of notice.—Upon the north sea bordereth Stow, so called, per eminentiam, as a place of great and good *mark* and scope. *Caresse's Storm of Cornwall*. 6. Any thing at which a missile weapon is directed.—France was a fairer *mark* to shoot at than Ireland, and could better reward the conqueror, *Davies on Ireland*.—

Be made the *mark*  
For all the people's hate, the prince's curses. *Denham*.  
7. The evidence of a horse's age.—At four years old cometh the *mark* of tooth in horses, which hath a hole as big as you may lay a pea within it; and weareth shorter and shorter every year, till at 8 years old the tooth is smooth. *Bacon's Nat. Hist.* 8. [*Marque*, Fr.] Licence of reprisals. 9. [*Marc*, Fr.] A sum of 10s. and 4d.—

We give thee for reward a thousand *marks*. *Shakefp.*  
—Thirty of these pence make a mancus, which some think to be all one with a *mark*, for that manca and mancus is translated, in ancient books, by marca. *Camden's Remains*.—Upon every writ for debt or damage, amounting to L.40 or more, a noble is paid to fine; and so for every 100 *marks* more a noble. *Bacon*. 10. A character made by those who cannot write their names.—

Here are maniere vows for signing;  
Set your *marks* that cannot write. *Dryden*.  
Lorenzo held the bargain with his *mark*. *Young*.  
(21.) **MARR** (M), *i. d. f.* is used among us for a money of account, and in some other countries for a coin. See **MONEY**. The Scottish mark is gold.  
(22.) **MARR**, or **MARCO**, denotes also a weight used in several states of Europe, and for several commodities, especially gold and silver. In France, before the revolution, the mark was divided into 8 ounces 24 drabms, 192 deniers or penny-weights, 160 sterlines, 300 mailles, 640 felines, or 2728 grains. In Holland, the mark weight was 240 called *Tropenlicht*, and is equal to that of France. When gold and silver are sold by the mark, it is divided into 27 carats.

(23.) **MARK**, ST. the Evangelist, was descended of the tribe of Levi. He is supposed to have been converted by St Peter, to whom he was a constant companion in all his travels, supplying the place of an amanuensis and interpreter. He was sent first into Egypt, fixing his chief residence at Alexandria, where he was so successful in his ministry, that he converted great multitudes. He afterwards removed southward toward Libya, preaching through Mauritania, Pentapontis, &c. where, notwithstanding the barbarity and idolatry of the inhabitants, he planted the gospel. Upon his return to Alexandria, he erected the church of that city, and there suffered martyrdom. About Easter, when the solemnities of *Exodus* were

celebrated, the idolatrous people beat St Mark, while he was performing duty, and, binding him with cords, dragged the streets, and thrust him into prison the night he had the comfort of a sleep. Next day they used him in the same worse, till he expired under their hands. It is added, that they burnt his body, and the Christians interred his bones and ashes near where he used to preach. This happened in the year 68. Some say, that his remains were translated from Alexandria to Venice, which has a rich and stately church erected in his memory, being the patron of the state.

(24.) **MARK**, ST. CANONS OF, a con-regular canons founded at Mantua by Spinola a priest, towards the end of the 17th century. Spinola made a rule for them, which was approved, corrected, and confirmed by succeeding popes. About the year 1743 reformed, and followed only the rule of the 1st. This congregation having flourished in the space of 400 years, declined by little and is now become extinct.

(25.) **MARK**, ST. GOSPEL OF, a canon of the New Testament, one of the 4 which St Mark wrote his gospel at Rome when he accompanied St Peter, A. D. 44. Tertullian asserts that St Mark was only amanuensis who dictated this gospel to him; others he wrote it after St Peter's death. Nor is it less divided as to the language it was composed in, some affirming that it was composed in Latin. Several of the ancient Fathers received only the gospel of St Mark; among the Catholics, rejected the rest of the New Testament. It is properly an abridgement of Matthew's.

(26.) **MARK**, ST. KNIGHTS OF, a military order in the late state of Venice, in honour of St Mark the evangelist. The members of the order wore gules, a lion passant guardant, on a shield. The word *mark* was never continued in the Italian language, some signal service to the Venetians.

(27.) **MARK**, ST. THE EVANGELIST, festival of the Christian church, celebrated the 25th of April.

(28.) **MARK**, ST. in geography, a province of Portugal, 24 miles S. of Port Fax. 21. M. Lat. 19. 18. N.

(29.) **MARK**, ST. a town and river in the north of the Christian church, situated at the head of Apalachy Bay in the province of St Augustine.

(30.) **TO MARK**, *gr. as. merken*, Dutch; Saxony; *marquer*, French; 1. To mark tokens or evidence.—

Will it not be said  
When we have *mark'd* with blood  
two

Of his own chamber, and used this word  
That they have denit?

—For our quiet possession of this world are naturally *marks* of where there is no *God*. 2. To notify as by a *mark*.—It was once the index to point out what *low mark* out that part of the water

of them resides. *Decay of Piety.* 3. To note; to take notice of.—

Alas, poor country!  
Where sighs, and groans, and shrieks, that rend the air,  
Are made, not mark'd. *Shak. Macbeth*  
—Mark them which cause divisions contrary to the doctrine which ye have learned, and avoid them. *Rom. xvi. 17.* 4. To heed; to regard as valid or important.—

Now swear, and call to witness  
Heav'n, hell, and earth, I mark it not from one  
That breathes beneath such complicated guilt. *Smith.*

(2.) \* To MARK. *v. n.* To note; to take notice.—Men mark when they hit, and never mark when they miss, as they do also of dreams. *Bacon's Essays.*—Mark a little why Virgil is so much concerned to make this marriage; it is to make way for the divorce which he intended afterwards. *Dryden.*

MARKAY, a town of Sweden, in Smaland.  
MARKED, *part. adj.* a kind of unmeaning expressive, or at best ambiguous superlative, very much used in modern metaphorical language, and even of late introduced into our parliamentary debates, by some celebrated popular orators. That eminent critic and philologist, however, the late Prof. J. H. BEATTIE, ranks this fashionable use of it among the many instances of "vulgarity, peevishness, and barbarism," with which our modern English is disgraced, and which he has humorously ridiculed in his *Dialogue in the Shades*, between Swift, a Bookfeller, and Mercury. After introducing the bookfeller as boasting that he was "of such marked regularity in his conduct, that no man could charge him with a single act of inobedience," &c. he makes Mercury give Swift the following among other instructions, "to make English of the *newest and best pattern*;"—"Instead of an authentic narrative, you must say a narrative marked with authenticity. Indeed the words *line, neat, marked, feel, go,* and some others, may be used on all occasions, whether they have meaning or not; as—He was received with marked applause, marked insult, marked contempt, marked admiration," &c. See LINE, § 5; To MEFET, &c.

\* MARKER. *n. f.* [*marqueur*, French, from *mark*.] 1. One that puts a mark on any thing. 2. One that notes, or takes notice.

MARKERSDORF, a town of Upper Saxony.  
(1.) \* MARKET. *n. f.* [anciently written *mercatus*, of *mercatus*, Latin.] 1. A publick time, and appointed place, of buying and selling.—It were good that the privilege of a market were given, to enable them to their defence; for there is nothing soth sooner cause civility than many market towns, by reason the people repairing often thither will learn civil manners. *Spenser.*

Mistress, know yourself, down on your knees,  
And thank Heav'n, fasting, for a good man's love:  
For I must tell you friendly in your ear,  
Sell when you can, you are not for all markets. *Shak.*

—They counted our life a passing, and our time were a market for gain. *Wisd. xv. 12.*—If one bushel of wheat and two of barley will, in the mar-

ket, be taken one for another, they are of equal worth. *Locke.* 2. Purchase and sale.—With another year's continuance of the war, there will hardly be money left in this kingdom to turn the common markets, or pay rents. *T. ple.*—

Pepper and Sabzan incense take,  
And with post-haste thy running market make;  
Be sure to turn the penny. *Dryden.*  
3. Rate; price. [*market*, French.]—

Was blood and life at a low market sold. *Dryden.*  
(2.) MARKET is also used for a privilege, either by grant or prescription, by which a town is enabled to hold a market.

(3.) The MARKET, COURT OF THE CLERK OF, an officer incident to every fair and market in England, to punish misdemeanors therein. A court of PLE-POUDRE is to determine all disputes relating to private or civil property. The object of this jurisdiction (see stat. 17. Car. II. cap. 19. 22 Car. II. cap. 8. 23 Car. II. cap. 12.) is principally the cognizance of weights and measures, to try, whether they be according to the true standard thereof or no: which standard was anciently committed to the custody of the bishop, who appointed some clerk under him to inspect the abuse of them more narrowly; and hence this officer, though now usually a layman, is called the clerk of the market.—If they be not according to the standard, then, beside the punishment of the party by fine, the weights and measures themselves ought to be burnt. This is the lowest court of criminal jurisdiction in England.

\* To MARKET. *v. n.* To deal at a market; to buy or sell; to make bargains.

\* MARKETABLE. *adj.* [from *market*.] 1. Such as may be sold; such for which a buyer may be found.—

A plain fish, and no doubt marketable. *Shak.*  
2. Current in the market.—The pretorian soldiers arrived to that impudence, that after the death of Pertinax they made open sale of the empire, as if it had been of common marketable wares. *Decay of Piety.*—The marketable value of any quantities of two commodities are equal, when they will exchange one for another. *Locke.*

\* MARKET-BELL. *n. f.* [*market and bell*.] The bell to give notice that trade may begin in the market.—

Enter, go in, the market-bell is rung. *Hen. VI.*  
MARKET-BOW-WORTH. See BOW-WORTH.

\* MARKET-CROSS. *n. f.* [*market and cross*.] A cross set up where the market is held.—

These things you have articulated,  
Proclaim'd at market-crosses, read in churches,  
To face the garment of rebellion  
With some fine colour. *Shak.*

\* MARKET-DAY. *n. f.* [*market and day*.] The day on which things are publickly bought and sold.—

Fool that I was, I thought imperial Rome,  
Like Mantua, where on market-days we come,  
And thither drive our lambs. *Dryden.*  
—He ordered all the Luquesse to be seized that were found on a market-day in one of his frontier towns. *Addison.*

MARKET-DEEPING. See DEEPING, N° 1.

MARKET-DRAYTON. See DRAYTON, N° 2.  
MARKET-END, a small town of Oxfordshire, near Ameriden.

\* MARKET-FOLKS. *n. f.* [*market* and *folks.*] People that come to the market.—

Poor *market-folks* that come to sell their corn. *Shak.*

MARKET-HARBOROUGH. See HARBOROUGH, N° 1.

MARKET-HILL, a post town of Ireland, in Armagh, Ulster; much celebrated in the poetical works of Dean Swift; being situated near Gosford Castle, the seat of his friend Sir Arthur Acheson.

MARKET-JEW. See MERAZION.

\* MARKET-MAN. *n. f.* [*market* and *man.*] One who goes to the market to sell or buy.—

Be wary how you place your words,

Talk like the vulgar sort of *market-men*,  
That come to gather money for their corn. *Shak.*  
—The *market-man* should act as if his master's whole estate ought to be applied to that servant's business. *Swift.*

\* MARKET-MAID. *n. f.* [*market* and *maid.*] A woman that goes to buy or sell.—

You are come

A *market-maid* to Rome, and have prevented  
The ostentation of our love. *Shak.*

MARKET-OVERTON. See OVERTON.

\* MARKET-PLACE. *n. f.* [*market* and *place.*] Place where the market is held.—The king, thinking he had put up his sword, because of the noise, never took leisure to hear his answer, but made him prisoner, meaning the next morning to put him to death in the *market-place.* *Sidney.*

The gates he ordered all to be unbarr'd,  
And from the *market-place* to draw the guard. *Dryden.*

Behold the *market-place* with poor o'erspread,  
The man of Rofs divides the weekly bread. *Pope.*

\* MARKET-PRICE. MARKET-RATE. *n. f.* [*market* and *price* or *rate.*] The price at which any thing is currently sold.—Money governs the world, and the *market-price* is the measure of the worth of men as well as of fishes. *L'Es/trange.*—He that wants a vessel rather than lose his market will not stick to have it at the *market-rate.* *Locke.*

MARKET-RAISIN, a town of Lincolnshire, with a market on Thursday; 16½ miles NNE. of Lincoln, and 151 N. of London.

\* MARKET-TOWN. *n. f.* A town that has the privilege of a stated market; not a village.—Nothing doth sooner cause civility in any country than *market-towns*, by reason that people repairing often thither will learn civil manners of the better sort. *Spenser.*—No, no, the pope's mitre my master Sir Roger seized, when they would have burnt him at our *market-town.* *Gay.*

MARKHAM, Gervase, an English author, the son of Robert Markham of Gotham, Esq. in Nottinghamshire. He bore a captain's commission under Charles I. in the civil wars, and was esteemed both a good soldier and a good scholar. He was master of the French, Italian, and Spanish. He wrote, 1. The tragedy of Herod and Antipater; printed in 1622. 2. Many volumes upon husbandry and horsemanship. 3. A tract on the

art of fowling. 4. The soldiers' accident and grammar.

MARKINCH, a parish of Fifeshire, 5½ miles long from N. to S. and about 5 broad, of an irregular form, comprehending 7,000 acres, almost all arable. It consists of 4 valleys, separated by gently swelling hills, and watered by the Orr and the LEVEN. The climate is mild and salubrious; the soil is partly strong clay, partly light loam, rich and fertile; but the greater part is wet and tilly. Oats, barley, bear, and *blanded bear* or *rammel*, are the chief crops; the barley having 2 rows of grain and the bear 6. The *blanded bear* is a kind of *Hybrid* plant, (See BOTANY, *Ind.*) produced by the two species being sown mixed, and the pollen of each falling on both. The population, in 1793, was 2790; increase 602, since 1755. Sheep were formerly numerous, but are now nearly banished, to make room for horses and black cattle which are reared in great numbers. The roads and bridges are good. Free-stone, shell marl, and coals abound. See BALBIRNIE, N° 1; and BALGONN, N° 1. The principal antiquity is Balgonie Castle. See BALGONIE, N° 4. There are 25 mills, of which 14 are for corn and barley; but millraces are still exacted. A considerable manufacture of lintseed oil is carried on; and great quantities of linen are whitened at the bleachfield. There are 7 villages and 7 schools in the parish; some of them patronised by Lady Balgonie, and all very flourishing. The well known taverns, called the *New Inn*, and the *Plasterers*, are in this parish.

(2.) MARKINCH, a village in the above parish, on the S. declivity of a small hill, surrounded by a marsh; from which *insular* situation, and *mark* or *merk*, the ancient value of the ground, the name is derived. It lies 4 miles S. of Falkland. Its chief manufactures are stockings, checks, and ticks.

MARKLAND, Jeremiah, one of the most learned scholars and penetrating critics of his age, was born in 1692, and educated in Christ's hospital. He became first publicly known by his *Epistole Criticae*, addressed to Bp. Hare. In this he gave many proofs of his extensive erudition. He afterwards published an edition of Statius, and some plays of Euripides; and assisted Dr Taylor in his editions of Lyfias and Demosthenes, by notes. He also elucidated some passages in the New Testament, which may be found in Mr Bowyer's edition of it; and was author of a very valuable volume of remarks on the epistles of Cicero to Brutus, and of an excellent treatise entitled *Magis Grammatica*. He died in 1775, at Milton, near Dorking in Surry; and was equally valued for his learning, goodness, and primitive simplicity of manners.

\* MARKMAN. } *n. f.* [*mark* and *man.*] A man

\* MARKSMAN. } skilful to hit a mark.—

In sadness, cousin, I do love a woman.

—I aim'd so near when I suppos'd you lov'd.

—A right good *marksman.* *Shak.*

This is the *mark/man*, safe and sure,

Who still is right, and prays to be so still. *Herber.*

—An ordinary *marksman* may know certainly when he shoots less wide at what he aims. *Dryden.*

(1.) \* MARK. *n. f.* [*mark*, Welsh; *merch*, Dutch.]

*marga*, Latin; *marle, marnes*, Fr. in Saxon, *merg*, is marrow, with an allusive signification, *marle* being the fatness of the earth.] *Marl* is a kind of clay, which is become fatter, and of a more enriching quality, by a better fermentation, and by its having lain so deep in the earth as not to have pent or weakened its fertilizing quality by any product. *Marl* is supposed to be much of the nature of chalk, and is believed to be fertile from its salt and oily quality. *Quincy*.—We understand by the term *marls* simple native earths, less heavy than the boles or clays, not soft and unctuous to the touch, nor ductile while moist, dry and crumbly between the fingers, and readily diffusible in water. *Hill*.—*Marl* is the best compost, as having most fatness, and not heating the ground too much. *Bacon's Nat. History*.—

Uneasy steps

Over the burning *mar'*, not like those steps

On heav'n's azure. *Milton*.

(2.) **MARL, or MARLE**, a kind of calcareous earth, very much used in agriculture as a manure. See RURAL OECONOMY. Marl is dug in many places of Great Britain and Ireland. In digging for it in Ireland, they meet with horns and other curious fossils. The marl always lies in the bottoms of low bog, and is found by boring with augers made for that purpose. It usually lies at 5, 7, or 9 feet deep. The obtaining it in many places is attended with very considerable expence in draining off the water. The manner of digging for it is this; six able labourers and a supernumerary, cut up a hole of 12 feet square, which is a pit that this number of men can manage in one day. Two men dig, two throw it up, and two throw it by, and the supernumerary man supplies defects on all occasions. For the first three feet they dig through a furzy earth, fit for making turf or fuel. Under this lies a stratum of gravel, of about half a foot; under this often, for 3 feet more, there is a more kindly moss, which would make better fuel. This lower stratum is always full of fossile wood, which is usually so soft that he spade cuts as easily through it as through the earth it lies in. Under this, for the thickness of about 3 inches, is found a series of leaves, principally of the oak. These appear very fair to the eye, but fall to pieces on being touched; and this stratum is sometimes interrupted by vast heaps of seed, of broom or furze. In some places there appear berries of different kinds, and in others several species of sea-plants; all lying in the same confused manner as the oak leaves. Under this vegetable stratum lies one of blue clay, half a foot thick, and usually full of sea shells. This blue clay is not so tough as common clay; but is thrown carefully up, and used as marl in some places. Under this always appears the true marl; the stratum of which is usually from 2 to 4 feet thick, and sometimes much more.—This marl looks like buried lime, and is full of shells, which are usually of a small size, and of the periwinkle kind; but there are several other sorts at times found among them. Among this marl, and often at the very bottom of it, are found great numbers of very large horns of the deer kind, vulgarly called *elk's horns*. These, where they join to the head, are thick and round; and at that joining

there grows out a branch, which is about a foot long, and seems to have but one joint just over the creature's eyes: it grows still round for about a foot above this; and then spreads out broad, and terminates in branches long and round, terminating with a small bend. The labourers are obliged to work in a hurry in all these pits, so that they seldom bring out the horns whole. There are also, at times, found the leg-bones and other parts of the skeletons of the same beasts; but this more rarely, only a few together, and but in few places. Dr Black is of opinion, that all kinds of marl derive their origin from the calcareous matter of shells and lithophyta. SHELL MARL, says he, is composed of the shells of aquatic animals, which are sometimes very entire, and often decayed or mixed down with other earthy substances. Examining this matter as occurring in different places, it may be distinguished into fresh water marl, and the marl of sea-shells. Of the first we have an example in the Meadow at Edinburgh. Wherever the soil is turned up to the depth of six inches, a quantity appears. It is composed of the shells of a small fresh-water snail or wick. This animal, when alive, is not easily discernible, the shell being much of the same obscure colour as the stones covered with the water. But we can observe a great number of them in all running brooks and other collections of fresh water; and as the animal dies, the shells are deposited where the water stagnates in very great quantity. That composed of sea shells, constitutes greater collections that are found in innumerable places now far removed from the sea. That most particularly described by Reaumur is a collection of this kind in a province of France, and at Turin. That part of the country where it is found is computed to contain 80 square miles of surface; and wherever they dig to a certain depth, they find this collection of shells: the country at present is 108 miles from the sea. They find the marl 8 or 9 feet below the surface, and they dig it to the depth of 20 feet. It is still deeper, but they find it too expensive to search for it. He supposes it to be only 18 feet deep; and even at this depth the quantity will appear enormous. It will amount to 140 millions of cubic fathoms of shells that are mostly decayed and broken into fragments, and mixed with other marine productions, as millipores, madripores, and other coralline bodies, which are all productions of the the sea.

(3.) **MARL, CALCINATION OF.** The qualities of marl have been proved by chemical analysis to be precisely the same with those of LIME. The similarity of the two has been still farther evinced by George Dempster, Esq. of Dunnichen, who constructed a kiln on a plan suggested by Dr Black for calcining marl; which, after calcination, makes a very strong cement. Dr Black, in a letter to Mr Dempster, dated 28th Nov. 1789, gave the following directions for constructing the kiln, and calcining the marl:—"In a country where the only fuel is peat, I have no hopes of success;—but in a kiln in which the masses of marl would be little disturbed, the operation will succeed. I would prepare the marl as the harder kinds of peat are prepared, by laying it, while soft, on a plot of grass, and forming it into a bed some inches

T t t t 2 thick;

thick; this, while drying, may be compacted, by beating it with the flat of the spade; and, before it be quite dry, it may be cut into pieces of the size of peats. The kiln for burning it should have nearly the shape of a draw kiln, or a much deeper cylindrical cavity than the vulgar lime-kilns: It may be from 20 to 30 feet deep, and from 8 to 9 feet in diameter; the top of it should be covered with a dome, or arch, having an opening at top, 3 feet diameter, to let out the smoke, &c. and a door in the side of this dome for introducing the materials: At the bottom, where the kiln is a little contracted, should be a grate 5 feet square, the bars of which, being loose, might be drawn out occasionally. In charging this kiln, lay first 18 inches depth of peats over the whole grate; then throw in prepared marl and peats intermixed, until the kiln is filled to the top; and at the top of all there should be some peats without any marl. Then shut up the door at the top with stones and mud, and throw in the kindling at the vent of the dome. The fire will be slowly communicated from the top to the bottom, so as to char the whole peats, and to expel the remains of humidity from the masses of marl; and this will be accompanied with very little consumption of the inflammable matter; but, when the whole is charred, it will begin to burn with abundance of heat, first at the bottom, and gradually upwards, until all the peats are completely consumed: Then by drawing the bars of the grate, the kiln may be drawn.—To know when the marl is thoroughly burnt, slake the lime with water, when fresh drawn from the kiln, and try if the slaked lime will dissolve in aqua-fortis, or spirit of salt, without effervescence." (Sir J. Sinclair's *Stat. Acc.* Vol. I. p. 426, 427.) This discovery must prove useful in situations where marl abounds, and where lime cannot be obtained but from a great distance.

(1.) \* To MARL. *v. a.* [from the noun.] To marlure with marl.—Improvements by *marling*, lining, and draining, have been since money was at five and six per cent. *Child.*—Sandy land *marled* will bear good pease. *Mortimer.*

(2.) \* To MARL. *v. a.* [from *marline*.] To fasten the sails with *marline*. *Ainsworth.*

(1.) MARLBOROUGH, an ancient town of Wiltshire, near the source of the Kennet, at the foot of a chalky hill; so named from its chalky soil, formerly called *marl*. It was a Roman station. In 1627, a parliament was held in the castle here, which made those laws called *Marlborough statutes*. There are still some remains of its walls and ditch. The town is an ancient borough by prescription, and sends 2 members to parliament. It is governed by a mayor, 2 justices, 12 aldermen, 24 burgesses, a town-clerk, &c. It consists chiefly of one broad street, with piazzas all along one side of it, two churches and several commodious inns, being the grand thoroughfare from London to Bath and Bristol. To the S. are some relics of a priory, and the site of a Roman Castrum, where Roman coins have been discovered. The ditch is still in some parts 20 feet wide; and towards the river, without the garden walls, one angle of the Castrum is very visible with the rampart and ditch entire. The mount at the W. end of the town, which was the main-guard of the

castle, is converted into a pretty spiral walk; at the top of which is an octagon summer-house. This town has often suffered by fire, particularly in 1690. It has markets on Wed. and Sat. and 5 fairs; with a charity school, erected in 1712, for 44 children. It lies 43 miles E. of Bristol, and 74 W. of London. Lon. 1. 26. W. Lat. 51. 28. N.

(2.) MARLBOROUGH, D. of. See CHURCHILL, N<sup>o</sup> 2.

(3.) MARLBOROUGH, a county of S. Carolina, in Cheraws district; bounded N. and NE. by N. Carolina, SE. by George-town district, and SW. by the Great Pedee. It is 25 m. long and 19 broad.

(4.) MARLBOROUGH, a town of Pennsylvania, 28 miles WSW. of Philadelphia.

(5.) MARLBOROUGH, a post town of New Hampshire, in Cheshire county, 428 miles N. by E. of Philadelphia.

(6.) MARLBOROUGH FORT, an English factory on the W. coast of Sumatra, in Asia; 3 miles W. of Bencoolen. Lon. 101. 12. W. Lat. 4. 21. S.

(7.) MARLBOROUGH, LOWER, a town of Maryland in Calvert County, on the E. bank of the Patuxent; 3 miles S. by W. of Annapolis.

(8.) MARLBOROUGH, UPPER, a town of Maryland, the capital of Prince George's county; 47 miles SSW. of Baltimore.

(1.) MARLE. See MARL.

(2.) MARLE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Aisne, 13½ miles S. of Laon.

MARLHEIM, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine; 9 miles W. of Strasburg.

MARLHES, a town of France, in the dep. of Rhone and Loire; 10 miles S. of St Etienne.

MARLI. See MARLY, N<sup>o</sup> 1—5.

MARLIEUX, a town of France, in the dep. of Ain, 10½ miles SSW. of Bourg en Bresse.

(1.) \* MARLINE. *n. f.* [*marra*, *Skinner*.] Long wreaths of untwisted hemp dipped in pitch, with which the ends of cables are guarded against friction. —

Some the gall'd ropes with dawby *marline* bind,  
Or searcloth masts with strong tarpawling cunts.  
*Dryd.*

(2.) MARLINE also serves in artillery upon ropes used for rigging gins, usually put up in small parcels called *rains*.

\* MARLINESPIKE. *n. f.* A small piece of iron for fastening ropes together, or to open the bolt rope when the sail is to be sewed in it. *Beij.*

MARLOE, Christopher, an English dramatic author, who studied at Cambridge; but afterwards turning player, he trode the same stage with Shakspeare. He was accounted an excellent poet by Ben Jonson. He wrote six tragedies, one of which called *Luff's Dominion*, or the *Leicester's Quest* has been altered by Mrs Behn, and acted under the title of *Abdelazar*, or the *Moor's Revenge*. Some time before his death, he had made a considerable progress in an excellent poem entitled *Hero and Leander*; afterwards finished by George Chapman, who is said to have fallen short of the spirit and invention of Marloe. Mr Anthony Wood represents him as a free-thinker, in the worst sense of the word; and gives the following account of his death. Falling deeply in love with a low girl, and having for his rival a fellow as low-very, Marloe, imagining that his mistress granted



him favours, was fired with jealousy, and rushed upon him in order to stab him with his dagger; but the footman avoided the stroke, and, seizing his wrist, stabbed him with his own weapon; of which wound he died, in 1593.

**MARLOW**, a town of Buckinghamshire, under the Chiltern Hills, in a marly soil. It is a pretty large borough, and has a bridge over the Thames, near its conflux with Wycomb; a handsome church and town-hall, and a charity-school for 20 boys. It first sent members to Parliament in the reign of Edward II. Bone lace is its chief manufacture. The Thames brings goods hither from the neighbouring towns; great quantities of meal and malt from High Wycomb, and beech from several parts of the country. In the neighbourhood are frequent horse-races; and here are several corn and paper mills, particularly on the river Loddon, between this town and High-Wycomb. There are, besides, the Templemills, for making thimbles, and another for pressing oil from rape and flax seeds. Its market is on Sat. and fair Oct. 29. It is 17 miles S. of Aylesbury and 31 W. of London. Lon.  $0. 45. W.$  Lat.  $51. 35. N.$

\* **MARLPIT**. *n. f.* [*marl* and *pit*.] Pit out of which marl is dug.—Several others, of different figures, were found; part of them in a rivulet, the rest in a *marlpit* in a field. *Westward.*

(1.) **MARLY**, a town of France, in the dep. of Aisne; 6 miles E. of Guise, and 6 NW. of Ver- vins.

(2-5.) **MARLY**, or **MARLI**, a palace of France between Versailles and St Germain; seated in a valley, near a town and forest of the same name, in the dep. of Seine and Oise. It is noted for its fine gardens and water-works, there being a curious machine on the Seine, which not only supplies them with water, but also those of Versailles. It is 10 miles NW. of Paris. Lon.  $2. 11. E.$  Lat.  $48. 52. N.$

(6.) \* **MARLY**. *adj.* [from *marl*.] Abounding with marl.—The oak thrives best on the richest clay, and will penetrate strangely to come at a *marly* bottom. *Mortimer.*

**MARMAGNAC**, a town of France in the dep. of Cantal, 3 miles E. of Aurillac.

**MARMACNE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Cher, 4 1/2 miles W. of Bourges.

(1.) \* **MARMALADE**. **MARMALET**. *n. f.* [*marmalade*, Fr. *marmelo*, Portuguese, a quince.] *Marmalade* is the pulp of quinces boiled into a consistence with sugar: it is subsistingent, and grateful to the stomach. *Quincy.*

(2.) **MARMALADE** is a confecti<sup>o</sup>n of plums, apricots, quinces, &c. boiled up to a consistence with sugar. In this country, it is made of Seville oranges and sugar only.

**MARMANDE**, a town of France, in the dep. of Lot and Garonne, and ci-devant prov. of Guienne, and territory of Agenois. It carries on a great trade in corn and wine, and is seated on the Garonne. Lon.  $0. 16. E.$  Lat.  $38. 35. N.$

**MARMARDANS**, a people of Lycaonia, estimated by Alexander the Great. See **MACERON**, § 11.

**MARMARICA**, a country of Africa, anciently inhabited by the Libyans. It was bounded on the E. by Egypt, on the W. by Cyrenica, on the S. by Sarcis, or the desert of Libya Interior, and on

the N. by the Mediterranean; and was reckoned a part of Egypt. There is no distinct history of the country.

**MARMARUGLO**, a town of the Italian republic, in the dep. of the Mucio, district and late duchy of Mantua; 8 miles N. of Mantua.

**MARMION**, Snakerley, a dramatic writer, born in Northamptonshire, in 1602, and educated at Oxford. He wrote 4 comedies: viz. 1. Holland's League, 1632: 2. A Fine Companion; acted before the king at Whitehall: 3. The Antiquary; 1641: and The Soldier'd Citizen: all in 400. He died in 1659.

(1.) **MARMOR**. See **MARBLE**.

(2.) **MARMORE LUNENSE**. See **LUNENSE**.

(1.) **MARMORA**, the name of 4 islands of Asia, in the sea of the same name. The largest is about 30 miles in circumference; and the soil of them all produces corn, wine, and fruits.

(2.) **MARMORA**, THE SEA OF, a large gulph, which communicates both with the Archipelago and the Black Sea by that of Constantinople, being 120 miles long, and 50 broad. All ships must pass through it that sail to Constantinople from the Mediterranean. It was anciently called **PRO- PONTIS**.

\* **MARMORATION**. *n. f.* [*marmor*, Lat.] Incrustation with marble. *Dict.*

\* **MARMOREAN**. *adj.* [*marmoreus*, Latin.] Made of marble. *Dict.*

**MARMORICA**. See **MARMARICA**.

\* **MARMOSET**. *n. f.* [*marmoset*, French.] A small monkey.—

I will instruct thee how

To snare the nimble *marmoset*. *Slak.*

(1.) \* **MARMOT**. } *n. f.* [Italian.] The

(1.) \* **MARMOTTO**. } *marmotto*, or mus alpinus, as big or bigger than a rabbit, which abounds all winter, doth live upon its own fat. *Ray on Creation.*

(2.) **MARMOTTO**, **MARMOTA**, or **MARMOT**, a genus of quadrupeds of the class **Mammalia**, and order of **Glinex**, ranked by Linnæus under the Genus of **MUS**, or *Marine Quadrupeds*, but very properly separated and described as a distinct genus, under the name of **ARCTOMYS**, by Mr Pennant, Dr Gmelin and Mr Kerr. But as we are past that article in the order of the alphabet, and under it have only described a particular species from Chambers's *Cyclopaedia*, we must adhere to Linnæus's arrangement, and refer the reader for a description of the different species of the *Arctomys* or *Marmot*, to the article **MUS**.

**MARMOUTIER**, a town of France in the dep. of the Lower Rhine, 15 m. WNW. of Straßburg.

**MARNAY**, a town of France, in the dep. of the Upper Saône; 10 1/2 miles W. of Besançon.

(1.) **MARNE**, a town of Persia, in the prov. of Chorasan, 70 leagues N. of Herat.

(2.) **MARNE**, a town of Germany in Holfstein.

(3.) **MARNE**, a river of France, which rises in the dep. of Upper Marne, 3 miles E. of Langres, passes by Chaumont, St Dizier, Vitry Châlons, Epervay, Chateau Thierry, Meaux, and Lagny, and joins the Seine at Charenton.

(4.) **MARNE**, a department of France, comprehending part of the ci-devant prov. of **CHAMPAGNE**; bounded on the E. by the dep. of the

*Meuse.*

Meuse; S. by that of Aube; SW. by that of Upper Maine; W. by those of the Seine and Marne, and of the Aisne; and N. by those of Aisne and Ardennes. It is 60 miles long from E. to W. and 45 broad from N. to S. Chalons is the capital.

(5.) MARNE, UPPER, a department of France comprehending part of the late prov. of Champagne; bounded on the NE. by those of the Meuse and the Vosges; SE. by that of Upper Saone; S. and SW. by that of Cote d'Or; and W. by that of Aube. It is 70 miles long from NE. to SW. and from 22 to 35 broad. The chief city is Chaumont.

MARNHULL, a village in Dorsetshire, on the Stour 5 miles S. of Shaftesbury; remarkable for its lofty church, full of ancient inscriptions.

(1.) MARNOCII, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, on the N. bank of the Doveron, about 10 miles long, and from 4 to 5 broad. The surface is level; the soil partly rich loam, partly wet and stoney; but producing good crops of oats, barley, pease, potatoes, and turnips. Great quantities of grain, butter and cheese, are exported, as well as considerable numbers of cattle. There are several extensive and flourishing plantations of oak, fir, larch, pine, beech, elm, &c. The air is salubrious. The population, in 1791, was 1960; increase 66, since 1755. Alexander Gordon, Esq; of Auchentoule, who served under the czar, Peter I. of Russia, and showed great valour in the war against Charles XII, for which he was raised to the rank of major general, was a native of this parish, and wrote the *History of Peter the Great*.

(2.) MARNOCII, ST. See KILMARNOCK, N° 1.

(1, 2.) MARO, a town and village of the Ligurian republic, on the coast, in the late principality of Oneglia; 8 miles NW. of Oneglia, and 48 WSW. of Genoa. Lon. 7. 41. E. Lat. 44. 55. N.

(3, 4.) MARO. See MARONITES & VIRGILIUS.

MAROBUDUM, in ancient geography, the royal residence of Marobudus, king of the Marcomanni; and hence the appellation. Now thought to be *Prague*, the capital of Bohemia.

MAROGNA, a town of Turkey, in Romania.

MAROILLES, a town of France, in the dep. of the North; 3 miles NE. of Landrecy.

(1.) MAROLLES, Michael DE, born in 1600, was the son of Claude de Marolles, a French military hero. Michael, entered early into the ecclesiastical state, and by the interest of his father obtained two abbeys. From 1619, when he published a translation of Lucan, to 1681, the year of his death, he was constantly employed in writing and printing; but his translations of ancient Latin writers, especially of the poets, are deficient in taste and spirit. He was certainly, however, a man of great learning, and was one of the first who paid any attention to prints. He collected about 100,000, which made part of the ornaments of the late French king's cabinet; and are now in the National Museum. He wrote memoirs of his own life, which were published by the Abbe Goujet, 1755, in 3 vols.

(2.) MAROLLES, a town of France, in the dep. of Aube, 6 miles N. of Bar sur Seine.

(3.) MAROLLES, a town of France, in the dep. of Loire and Cher; 6 miles N. of Blois.

(4.) MAROLLES, a town of France, in the dep. of Sarthe, 7 miles S. of Mamers.

MARONITES, in ecclesiastical history, a sect of eastern Christians, who follow the Syrian rite, and are subject to the pope; their principal habitation being on mount Libanus. Mosheim says, that the doctrine of the MONOTHELITES, condemned by the council of Constantinople, was adopted by the *Mardaites*, a people who inhabited mounts Libanus and Antiubanus, and who, about the conclusion of the 7th century, were called *Maronites*, after *John Maro* their first bishop, who was originally a monk in the famous convent of St Maro, upon the banks of the Orontes. Tyrius and others, as well as the most authentic records, inform us, that the Maronites retained the opinions of the Monothelites until the 12th century, when, renouncing the doctrine of one will in Christ, they were re-admitted, in 1182, into the Roman church. Faustus Nairo, a Maronite settled at Rome, has published an apology for Maron and the rest of his nation. He says that they took their name from Maron, who lived about A. D. 400, and is mentioned by Chrysostom, Theodoret, and in the Menologium of the Greeks. He adds, that the disciples of this Maron spread themselves throughout all Syria; that they built several monasteries, and, among others, one that bore the name of their leader; that all the Syrians who were not tainted with heresy took refuge among them; and that for this reason the heretics of those times called them Maronites. Mosheim says, that the subjection of the Maronites to the spiritual jurisdiction of the Roman pontiff was agreed to, with this express condition, that the pope should not pretend to change or abolish any thing that related to their ancient rites, moral precepts, or religious opinions; so that in reality there is nothing among the Maronites that favours of popery, if we except their attachment to the Roman pontiff, who was very dear for their friendship. For, as the Maronites live in the utmost poverty, under the tyrannical yoke of the Mahometans, the pope is under the necessity of furnishing them with such subsidies as may appease their oppressors, procure a subsistence for their bishop and clergy, provide for the support of their churches, and the exercise of public worship, and contribute in general to lessen their misery. It is certain that there are Maronites in Syria, who still regard the church of Rome with the greatest abhorrence. One body of these non-conforming Maronites retired into the valleys of Piedmont, where they joined the Waldenses; another, above 600 in number, with a bishop and several ecclesiastics at their head, fled into Corsica, and implored the protection of the republic of Genoa against the violence of the inquisitors. The Maronites have a patriarch, who resides in the monastery of Cannubin, on mount Libanus, and assumes the title of patriarch of Antioch, and the name of *Peter*, as if he were the successor of that apostle. He is elected by the clergy and the people, but confirmed by the pope. He observes a perpetual celibacy, as well as the bishops his suffragans; but the rest of the

ecclesiastics are allowed to marry before ordination, though the monastic life is in great esteem among them. Their monks are of the order of St Anthony, and live in the most obscure places in the mountains. As to their faith, they agree in the main with the eastern church. Their priests do not say mass singly, but all together, standing round the altar. They communicate in unleavened bread; and the laity have hitherto partaken in both kinds, though the practice of communicating in one has of late been getting footing, having been introduced gradually. In Lent they eat nothing, after sun-rising; their other fastings are very numerous.

To MAROON, *v. a.* to put one or more sailors ashore upon a desolate island, under pretence of their having committed some great crime. This detestable expedient has been repeatedly practised by some inhuman commanders of merchant ships, particularly in the West Indies.

MAROSTICA, a town of Maritime Austria, in the Vicentino; 11 miles N. of Vicenza.

(1, 2.) MAROT, Clement, the best French poet of his time, was born at Cahors in 1495; and was the son of John Marot, valet de chambre to Francis I. and poet to Q. Anne of Brittany. He enjoyed his father's place, and in 1521, followed Francis I. into Italy, and was wounded and taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. On his return to Paris he was accused of heresy, and imprisoned; but delivered by Francis I. He retired to Navarre and afterwards to Ferrara, and in 1536 returned to Paris; but declaring for the Calvinists, he was obliged to fly to Geneva; and retiring to Piedmont, died at Turin in 1544, aged 49. He translated part of the Psalms into verse, which were continued by Beza, and are still sung in the Protestant churches abroad.

(3.) MAROT, Michael, son of Clement, was also the author of some verses; but they are not comparable to those of his father and grandfather. The works of the three *Marots* were collected and printed together at the Hague in 1731, in 3 vols. 8vo, and in 6 vols. 12mo.

MAROTIER, a town of France, in the dep. of the Lower Rhine, and adjacent prov. of Alsace; 18 miles NW. of Straiburg. Lon. 7. 33. E. Lat. 48. 38. N.

MAROZZO, a town of Naples in Abruzzo.

(1.) MARPURG, or MARKBURG, a strong town of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, with an university, a castle, a palace, a handsome square, and a magnificent town-house. It is seated on the Lahn, in a pleasant country, 15 miles S. of Waideck, and 7 SW. of Cassel. Lon. 8. 53. E. Lat. 52. 42. N.

(2.) MARPURG, a handsome town of Germany, in Lower Stiria, seated on the Drave, 25 miles W. of Grez, and 6 NE. of Laubach. Lon. 6. 10 E. Lat. 46. 42. N.

MARQUARD, Froher, an eminent German citizen, born at Augsburg in 1665. He studied at Bourges, under the learned Cujas; and acquired great skill in literature, and the laws. At his return to Germany, he became counsellor to the elector Palatine, and professor of law at Heidelberg; and was afterwards sent by the elector Frederic IV. as his minister, into Poland, to Mentz, and several

other courts. He died at Heidelberg in 1614. He wrote many works which are esteemed; the principal of which are, 1. *De re monetaria veterum Romanorum, et hiberni apud Germanos imperii.* 2. *Rerum Bohemicarum scriptores.* 3. *Rerum Germanicarum scriptores.* 4. *Corpus historię Franciæ,* &c.

MARQUAYS, a town of France, in the dep. of Dordogne; 5 miles NW. of Sarlat.

MARQUE, or LETTERS OF MARQUE, in military affairs, are letters of reprisal, granting the subjects of one prince or state liberty to make reprisals on those of another. They are so called from the German *marcke*, *i. e.* *limit, frontier*; as being *jus concessum in alterius principis marchas seu limitis transeundi, subinde jus faciendi*; as being a right of passing the limits or frontiers of another prince, and doing one's self justice. Letters of marque among us are extraordinary commissions granted by authority for reparation to merchants taken and despoiled by strangers at sea; and reprisals are only the retaking, or taking of one thing for another. (See PREROGATIVE.) The form in these cases is, the sufferer must first apply to the lord privy seal, and he shall make out letters of request under the privy seal; and if, after such request of satisfaction made, the party required do not, within convenient time, make due satisfaction or restitution to the party grieved, the lord chancellor shall make him out letters of marque under the great seal; and by virtue of these he may attack and seize the property of the aggressor nation, without hazard of being condemned as a robber or pirate.

MARQUESAS ISLANDS, the general name of 5 islands in the South Sea, distinguished by those of Magdalena, St Pedro, Dominica, Santa Christina, and Hood Island. All the natives of these islands are supposed to be of the same tribe. Those spots that are fit for culture are very populous; but as every island is very mountainous, and has many inaccessible and high rocks, it is doubted whether the whole population of this group amounts to 200,000 souls. The Spaniards, who first visited them, found the inhabitants gentle and inoffensive; but these qualities did not prevent those who landed from butchering several of the natives of Magdalena. The inhabitants of these islands, collectively, says Capt. Cook, are, without exception, the most fine of people in the South Sea. For symmetry of shape, and regular features, they perhaps surpass all other nations. Not a single deformed or ill-proportioned person was seen on the islands; all were strong, tall, well-limbed, and remarkably active. The men are from 5 feet 6, to 5 feet 12 inches high; their teeth are not so good, nor are their eyes so full and lively, as those of many other nations; their hair is of many colours, but none are red; some have it long, but the most general custom is to wear it short, except a bunch on each side of the crown, which they tie in a knot; the rest of their countenances are pleasing, open, and full of vivacity; their complexion is tawny, which is rendered almost black by punctures over the whole body. They were entirely naked, except a small piece of cloth round the waist and loins. The punctures were made



... centre of that, is another round piece of mother-of-pearl, about the size of half a crown; and before this another piece of perforated tortoise shell, the size of a shilling. Besides this decoration in front, some have it also on each side, but in small pieces; and all have fixed to them the tail feathers of cocks, or tropic birds, which, when the fillet is tied on, stand upright, so that the whole together makes a very sprightly ornament. They wear round the neck a kind of ruff or necklace made of light wood; the outward and upper sides covered with small pebbles, which are fixed on with gum; they also wear some bunches of human hair fastened to a string, and tied round the legs and arms. But all the above ornaments are seldom seen on the same person. All their ornaments, except the last, they freely parted with for trifles; but the human hair they valued very highly, tho' these bunches were the residence of many vermin. Perhaps these were worn in remembrance of their deceased relations, and therefore were looked upon with some veneration; or they may be the spoils of their enemies, worn as the honourable testimonies of victory. However, a large nail, or any thing that pleased them commonly got the better of their scruples. Their chief visited Capt. Cook; he was the only one seen completely dressed in this manner. Their ordinary ornaments are necklaces, and amulets made of shells, &c. They all had their ears pierced, though none were seen with ear-rings. The king had not much respect paid him by his attendants: he presented Capt. Cook with some fruit and hogs; and acquainted him that his name was *Houa*, and that he was *te-ka-ai*, which title seems to correspond with the *ara* of Otahitee, and *arake* of the Friendly Isles. Their dwellings are in the valleys,

... they could not pronounce the quadrupeds seen here were there were fowls, and several woods, whose notes were very inhabitants of the Marquesas ten, nor with their hands and ter meals, as those of the Soci they are very slovenly in preparation. Their diet is chiefly vegetable hogs and fowls, and catch in pure water, cocoa nuts being of them having shown an inclination. Cook put a stop to this but to be fired over their heads low, who had carried off a fir from the gangway, and swam was shot by a barbarous officer. Notwithstanding this murder, tured to traffic with the sailors bananas, plantains, and some chased for nails, knives, and iron natives became at length so far the sides of the ship in great numbers danced upon deck; much resembled those of Otah too was much the same. They lie between Lon. 138° and 140 Lat. 8' and 10' S.

**MARQUESAVE**, a town (dep. of Upper Garonne, 6 mile  
(1.) \* **MARQUETRY**. *n. f.* [m] Chequered work; work inlaid  
(2.) **MARQUETRY**, or **IN-LA** posed of pieces of hard fine colours, fastened, in thin slices, sometimes enriched with other tortoise-shell, ivory, tin, and brass their kind of marquetry made,

ow call *Mar-jacks*; but he, having a grunting, stained his wood with dyes or which penetrated it. He went no farther, than representing buildings and is, which require no great variety of those who succeeded him not only invention of dyen g the wood, by a ch they found of turning them without which served exceedingly well for the out had also the advantage of a num- new wood of naturally bright colours, covey of America. With these assist- is now capable of imitating anything; re call it the *art of painting in wood*. d on which the pieces are to be rang- d, is ordinarily of oak or fir well dried; vent warping, is composed of several d together. The wood to be used, bel- into leaves, of the thickness of a line, med with some colour, or made black e; which some effect by putting it tremely heated over the fire, others g it in lime-water and sublimate, in oil of sulphur.—Thus coloured, the e the piece are formed according to the e design they are to represent. The nost difficult part of marquetry, and n most patience and attention are re- he two chief instruments used herein and the vice; the one, to hold the be formed; the other, to take off re- from the extremes. The vice is of wood, of its chaps fixed; the other moveable, ed and shut by the foot, by a cord fasten- able. Its structure is very ingenious, ough. The leaves to be formed (for ten 2 or 4 of the same kind formed to- put within the chaps of the vice, after on the outermost part of the design le they are to follow; then the workman treadle, and thus holding fast the piece, runs over all the outlines of the design, oining and forming 3 or 4 pieces to- y not only gain time, but the matter the better enabled to sustain the efforts which, how delicate soever it may be, ghly soever the workman may con- sult without such a precaution would be apt ters, to the ruin of the beauty of the an the work is to consist of one single or of tortoise-shell, on a copper or tin e *or gila*, they only form two leaves ar, *i. e.* a leaf of metal, and a leaf of ut this they call *sawing in counter parts*; e the vacancies of one of the leaves by ening out of the other, the metal may ound to the wood, and the wood to ill the pieces thus joined with the saw, to know the main body, and the shadow rimmer already mentioned; they ven- a catch in its piece on the common e for that purpose the best English whole is put in a press to dry, pin- l pointed with the skin of the te- d dry to use, as in simple veneering; sence, however, that in marquetry e several of the more delicate e figures, are touched up and fi- II. PART. II.

and ed with a graver. Cabinet-makers, joiners and toy-men work in marquetry; enamellers and stone-cutters deal in mosaic work: the instruments used in the former are mostly the same with those used by the ebenists.

(1.) \* MARQUIS. *n. f.* [*marquis*, French; *mar- chio*, Latin; *markgraves*, German.] 1. In England one of the second order of nobility, next in rank to a duke.—None may wear ermine but princes, and there is a certain number of ranks allowed to dukes, *marquesses*, and earls, which they must not exceed. *Puccian on Drawing*. 2. *Marquis* is used by *Siak-speure* for *markings*, [*marquise*, Fr.] You shall have

Two noble partners with you: the old duchess Of Norfolk, and the lady *marquiss* Dorset. *Shak.*

(2.) MARQUIS. The office of a marquis was to guard the frontiers and limits of the kingdom, which were called the *marches*, from the Teuto- tonick word *marcha*, a limit: as, in particular, were the marches of Wales and Scotland, before their union with England. The persons who had command there, were called *lords marches*, or *marquiss*; whose authority was abolished by stat. 27 Hen. VIII. c. 27. though the title had long before been made a mere design of honour, Robert Vere earl of Oxford being created marquis of Dublin by Richard II. in the 8th year of his reign. A marquis is created by patent; his mantle is double ermine, three doublings and a half; his title is *most honourable*; and his coronet has pearls and strawberry leaves intermixed round, of equal height.

\* MARQUISATE. *n. f.* [*marquifat*, Fr.] The seignery of a marquis.

MARR, that part of Aberdeenshire situated between the Dee and Don. See BRAE-MAR.

MARRACCI, Lewis, a very learned Italian, born at Lucera in 1612. He entered into the congregation of regular clerks of the mother of God, and distinguished himself early by his learning and merit. He taught rhetoric 7 years, and attained of himself the knowledge of the Greek, the Hebrew, the Syriac, the Chaldee, the Arabic; which last he taught at Rome. Pope innocent XI. chose him for his confessor, and would have promoted him, if Marracci had not opposed him. He died at Rome in 1700, aged 87. He was the author of several tracts in Italian; but the work which has made him deservedly famous, is his edition of the Koran, in the original, with a Latin version, notes, and confutation of his own. It was beautifully printed in 2 vols folio at Padua in 1698. His Latin version of it with notes, and a synopsis of the Mahometan religion, was published by Heinnecius at Leipzig, 1721, in 8vo. Marracci had also a hand in the *Bibliotheca Arabica*; Rome 1671, in 3 vols folio.

\* MARRER. *n. f.* [from *mar*. One who spoils or hunts any thing.—You be indeed makers, or *marrers*, of all men's manners within the realm. *Alcham's Schoolmaster*.

(1.) \* MARRIAGE. *n. f.* [*marriage*, Fr. *matrimonium*, low Latin, from *matrimonium*.] The act of uniting a married woman for life.—

The *marriage* with his brother's wife Has crept too near his conscience. *Hen. VIII.*  
If that thy bent of love be honourable,

To these whom death again did wed,  
 This grave's the second *marriage-bed*. *Craslow*.  
 There on his arms an once lov'd portrait lay,  
 Thither our fatal *marriage-bed* convey. *Denb.*  
 —Thou shalt come into the *marriage-chamber*.  
*Job*. vi. 16.—Neither her worthiness, which in  
 truth was great, nor his own suffering for her,  
 which is wont to endear affection, could fetter his  
 sickness; but, before the *marriage-day* appoint-  
 ed, he had taken to wife Baccha, of whom she  
 complained. *Sidney*.

Virgin awake! the *marriage-hour* is nigh. *Pope*.  
 Give me, to live and die,

A spotless maid, without the *marriage-tie*. *Dryd.*

(3.) MARRIAGE is a contract, both civil and religious, between a man and a woman, by which they engage to live together in mutual love and friendship or the ends of procreation, &c. See MORAL PHILOSOPHY. It is part of the law of nations, and is in use among all people. The Romanists account it a sacrament.—The woman, with all her moveable goods, immediately upon marriage, passes wholly “into the power and disposal of the husband.” See LAW, PART II, Chap. I. Sect. XV; and PART III. Chap. I. Sect. V.

(4.) MARRIAGE, [*Maritimus*] in law, signifies not only the lawful joining of man and wife, but also the right of bestowing a ward or a widow in marriage, as well as the land given in marriage.

(5.) MARRIAGE, ANCIENT LAWS AND CUSTOMS RESPECTING. The first inhabitants of Greece lived together without marriage. Cecrops, king of Athens, is said to have been the first author of this honourable institution among that people. After the commonwealths of Greece were settled, marriage was very much encouraged by their laws, and the abstaining from it was dis-

or nearest relations of the p  
 When the victim was opene  
 out and thrown behind the  
 of anger and malice, and th  
 all the deities who had the  
 as those who became their  
 cular customs relating to th  
 GROOM, see these articles.

as the Greeks, disallowed a  
 man might not marry a wo  
 Roman. They esteemed th  
 ices of every month unluck  
 of marriage, as well as the  
 and the whole month of Ma  
 season in every respect was  
 the ices of June. The Rom  
 cond marriages in very har  
*Matre jam secundis nuptiis sum*  
*nuptiis*. By these laws it w  
 effects of the husband or wife  
 over to the children, if the f  
 a 2d time. By the law *Hac*  
*nupti*), the survivor, upon ma  
 could not give the portion h  
 more than equal to that of t  
 primitive church the affecte  
 was carried so high, that a  
 counted a kind of legal wh  
 of bigamy; and there are s  
 which forbid the ecclesiastics  
 at 2d marriages. Marriage,  
 was subject to several restricti  
 xviii. 16, a man was forbidde  
 ther's widow unless he died  
 which case it became enjoine  
 was prohibited to marry his  
 she was living, ver. 18; whic

one of the parties bolts or gives out, that he or she is married to the other, whereby a common reputation of their matrimony may ensue. On his ground the party injured may libel the other in the spiritual court; and unless the defendant undertakes and makes out a proof of the actual marriage, he or she is enjoined perpetual silence in that head; which is the only remedy the ecclesiastical courts can give for this injury.

(10.) MARRIAGE, MODERN LAWS CONCERNING. Affinity, according to the modern canonists, renders marriage unlawful to the 4th generation, inclusive; but this is to be understood of direct affinity, and not of secondary or collateral. *Affinis est affinis, non est affinis meus.* This impediment of marriage not only follows an affinity contracted by lawful matrimony, but also that contracted by a criminal commerce; with this difference, that this last does not extend beyond the 2d generation; whereas the other reaches to the 4th. In Germany they have a kind of marriage called *moruanatic*, wherein a man of quality contracting with a woman of inferior rank, he gives her the left hand in lieu of the right; and stipulates in the contract that the wife shall continue in her former rank or condition; and that the children born of them shall be of the same, so that they become afterwards as to matters of inheritance, though they are legitimate in effect. They cannot bear the name or arms of the family. None but princes and great lords of Germany are allowed this kind of marriage. The universities of Leipsic and Jena have declared against the validity of such contracts; maintaining that they cannot prejudice the children, especially when the emperor's consent intervenes in the marriage. The Turks have 3 kinds of marriages, and 3 sorts of wives; *legitimate, concubine, and slaves.* They marry the first, hire the 2d, and buy the 3d. Among the savage nations, in Asia, Africa, or America, the wife is commonly bought by the husband from her father or those other relations who have an authority over her; and the conclusion of a bargain for this purpose, together with the payment of the price, has therefore become the usual form of solemnity in the celebration of their marriages. The Hebrews also purchased their wives by paying down a competent dowry for them; and Aristotle makes it one argument to prove that the ancient Grecians were an uncivilized people, because they used to buy their wives; and in proportion they laid aside their barbarous manners they got off this practice.

(11.) MARRIAGE, MODERN LAWS OF ENGLAND RESPECTING. The English law considers marriage in no other light than as a civil contract; the solemnity of the matrimonial state being left entirely to the ecclesiastical law, to which it pertains, to punish or annul incestuous or other unscriptural marriages. The law allows marriage to be valid, where the parties at the time of making it were willing and able to contract, and actually did contract, in the proper forms and solemnities required by law. The disabilities for contracting are of two sorts: first such as are canonical, and therefore sufficient by the ecclesiastical laws to void the marriage in the spiritual court; such as pre-contract, consanguinity, or relation by blood; and affinity,

or relation by marriage, and some particular corporal infirmities. But these disabilities do not make the marriage *ipso facto* void, but voidable only by sentence of separation; and marriages are esteemed valid to all civil purposes, unless such separation is actually made during the life of the parties. Thus when a man had married his first wife's sister, and after her death the bishop's court was proceeding to annul the marriage and bastardise the issue, the court of king's bench granted a prohibition *quoad hoc*; but permitted them to proceed to punish the husband for incest. By 32 Hen. VIII. c. 38. it is declared, that all persons may lawfully marry, but such as are prohibited by God's law, &c. See AFFINITY, § 3; and INCEST, § 2. By the civil law first cousins are allowed to marry; but by the canon law both first and second cousins are prohibited. Therefore when it is vulgarly said that first cousins may marry but second cousins cannot, this arose from confounding these two laws; for first cousins may marry by the civil law, and second cousins cannot by the canon law. On a promise of marriage, if mutual on both sides, damages may be recovered in case either party refuses to marry; and though no time for the marriage is agreed on, if the plaintiff avers that he offered to marry the defendant who refused it, an action is maintainable for the damages; but no action shall be brought upon any agreement except it is in writing, and signed by the party to be charged. The canonical hours for celebrating marriage are from 8 to 12 A. M. The other sort of disabilities are those which are created, or at least enforced, by the municipal laws. These civil disabilities make the contract void *ab initio*, by rendering the parties incapable of forming any contract at all. The first legal disability is a prior marriage, or having another husband or wife living; in which case, besides the penalties consequent upon it as a felony, the 2d marriage is to all intents and purposes void. See BIGAMY, and POLYGAMY. The next legal disability is want of age; therefore if a boy under 14, or a girl under 12 years of age, marries, when either of them comes to the age of consent, they may disagree and declare the marriage void without any divorce or sentence in the spiritual court. However, it is so far a marriage, that if at the age of consent they agree to continue together, they need not be married again. Another incapacity arises from want of consent of parents or guardians. And by the marriage act, viz. 26 Geo. II. c. 33. it is enacted, that all marriages celebrated by licence (for banns suppose notice), where either of the parties is under 21, not being a widow or widower, without the consent of the father, or if he be not living of the mother or guardians, shall be absolutely void. However, provision is made where the mother or guardian is *non compos*, beyond sea, or unreasonably froward, to dispense with such consent at the discretion of the lord chancellor; but no provision is made in case the father should labour under any mental or other incapacity. A 4th incapacity is want of reason. It is provided by 15 Geo. II. c. 30. that the marriage of lunatics and sons under phrensies, shall be totally void. Lastly, the parties must not only be willing and able to contract, but must actually

contract themselves in due form of law, to make it a good civil marriage. By 26 Geo. II. c. 33. Verbal contracts are now of no force to compel a marriage. Nor is any marriage valid that is not celebrated in some parish church, or public chapel, unless by dispensation from the Abp. of Canterbury. It must also be preceded by publication of banns or by licence from the spiritual judge. A marriage in pursuance of banns must be solemnized in one of the churches or chapels where the banns were published. No parson, vicar, &c. shall be obliged to publish banns, unless the persons to be married shall, seven days before the time required for the first publication, deliver to him a notice in writing of their true names, and of the house or houses of their respective abode within such parish, &c. The said banns shall be published upon 3 Sundays preceding the solemnization of marriage, during public service. If the parents or guardians, or either of the parties under the age of 21, shall declare, in the church or chapel where the banns shall be so published, at the time of such publication, their dissent, such publication of banns shall be void. And when the parties dwell in divers parishes, the curate of the one parish shall not solemnize matrimony betwixt them without a certificate of the banns being thrice asked from the curate of the other parish. A marriage in pursuance of a licence (except a special licence) must be solemnized in such church or chapel where the licence is granted; and no licence of marriage shall be granted by any archbishop, bishop, &c. to solemnize any marriage in any other church, &c. than in the parish church, &c. within which the usual place of abode of one of the parties shall have been for four weeks immediately before the granting such licence. All marriages shall be solemnized in the presence of two credible witnesses at the least, besides the minister, who shall sign their attestation thereof; and an entry shall be made in the parish register, expressing that the marriage was celebrated by banns or licence; and if both or either of the parties be under age, with consent of the parents or guardians, signed by the minister, and the parties married, and attested by the witnesses. It is also essential to a marriage, that it be performed by a person in orders; though the intervention of a priest to solemnize this contract is merely *juris positivum*, and not *juris naturalis aut divini*. No marriage by the temporal law is *ipso facto* void, that is celebrated by a person in orders; in a parish church, a public chapel, or elsewhere, by a special dispensation; in pursuing of banns or a licence; between single persons, consenting, of sound mind, and of the age of 21 years; or of the age of 14 in males and 12 in females, with consent of parents or guardians, or without it, in case of widowhood. And no marriage is voidable by the ecclesiastical law after the death of either of the parties; nor during their lives, unless for the canonical impediments of consanguinity, affinity, or corporal imbecillity subsisting previous to the marriage. By the same act, if any person shall solemnize matrimony in any other place than a church, &c. where banns have been usually published, unless by special licence, or without publication of banns, unless licence of marriage be

first obtained from some person having authority to grant the same, every such person knowingly so offending shall be guilty of felony, and transported for 14 years; the prosecution to be within 3 years. To make a false entry into a marriage register; to alter it when made; to forge or counterfeit such entry, or a marriage licence, or aid and abet such forgery; to utter the same as true, knowing it to be counterfeit; or to destroy or procure the destruction of any register in order to vacate any marriage, or subject any person to the penalties of this act; all these offences, knowingly and wilfully committed, subject the party to the guilt of felony without benefit of clergy. But this act doth not extend to the marriages of the royal family; nor to Scotland; nor to any marriages among the people called *Quakers*, or among persons professing the Jewish religion, where both the parties are *Quakers* or Jews respectively; nor to any marriages beyond the seas.

(12.) MARRIAGE, MODERN LAWS OF SCOTLAND RESPECTING. In Scotland, the parties living together as man and wife, or declaring themselves so before witnesses, makes a valid though informal marriage. See LAW, P. III, Ch. I. & V.

(13.) MARRIAGE, POLICY OF ENCOURAGING. Dr Halley observes, that the growth and increase of mankind is not so much stunted by anything in the nature of the species, as it is from the cautious diffidence most people make to adventure on the state of marriage, from the prospect of the trouble and charge of providing for a family; but are the poorer sort of people herein to be blamed, who, besides themselves and families, are obliged to work for the proprietors of the lands trusted them; and of such does the greater part of mankind consist. Were it not for this backwardness to marriage, there might be 4 times as many births as there are; for by computation, (see MORTALITY,) there are 15,000 persons above 16 and under 45, of whom at least 7000 are women capable of bearing children; yet there are only 1238, or little more than a 6th part of these, that breed yearly: whereas, were they all married, it is highly probable, that four of six would bear forth a child every year, the political consequences of which are evident. Therefore, as the strength and glory of a kingdom or state consist in the multitude of subjects, celibacy above all things ought to be discouraged, by extraordinary taxing or military service: and, on the contrary, those who have numerous families should be allowed certain privileges and immunities, like the *jus trium liberorum* among the Romans; and especially, by effectually providing for the subsistence of the poor.

(14.) MARRIAGE, SERVICE, OR DUTY OF, is a term used in some ancient customs, signifying an obligation on women to marry. Old laws had widows about 60 who held fees in body, or were charged with any personal or military duties, were anciently obliged to marry, to render the services to the lord by their husbands, or to indemnify the lord for what they could not do as a person. This was called *duty* or *service of marriage*.

(15.) MARRIAGE SETTLEMENT is a settlement made previous to marriage, whereby a jointure is reserved to the wife after the death of the husband.



These settlements seem to have been in use among the ancient Germans and Gauls. Of the former Tacitus gives us this account: *Dotem non uxori marito, sed uxori maritus offert: inter sunt parentis et propinqui, et manera probant* (De Mor. Germ. c. 18.) And Caes. de Bell. Gall. lib. vi. c. 18. has given us the terms of a marriage settlement among the Gauls, as nicely calculated as any modern jointure: *Viri, quantum pecunias ab uxoribus dotis nomine acceperunt, tantas ex suis bonis, æstimatione facta, cum dotibus communicant. Hujus omnis pecunie conjunctim ratio labetur, fructusque hæretur. Uter eorum vita superavit, ad eum pars utriusque cum fructibus supericorum temporum pertinet.* The dauphin's commentator supposes that this Gaulish custom was the ground of the new regulations made by Justinian, Nov. 97. with regard to the provision for widows among the Romans; but surely there is as much reason to suppose, says Judge Blackstone, that it gave the hint for our statutable jointures. Com. vol. ii. p. 138. See an excellent marriage settlement by Blackstone in the appendix to the 2d vol. of his Commentaries.

(16.) MARRIAGES, PRODUCE OF, ON AN AVERAGE. Marriages, one with another, do each produce about four births, both in England and other parts of Europe. Dr Price observes, that from comparing the births and weddings in countries and towns where registers of them have been kept, it appears, that in the former, marriages one with another seldom produce less than four children each; generally between 4 and 5, and sometimes above 5; but in towns seldom above 4, generally between 3 and 4, and sometimes under 3. Major Graunt, both from the London and country bills, computes, that there are in England 14 males born to 13 females; whence he justly infers, that the Christian religion, prohibiting polygamy, is more agreeable to the law of nature than Mahometanism and others that allow it. From this inequality between males and females born, it is evident that one man ought to have but one wife, and yet that every woman without polygamy may have a husband: this surplussage of males above females being spent in the supplies of war, the seas, &c. from which the women are exempt. According to Mr Kerneboom's observations, there are about 325 children born from 100 marriages.

(17.) MARRIAGES, PROPORTION OF, TO BIRTHS. For the proportions which marriages bear to births, and births to burials, in several parts of Europe, Mr Deham gives a table, which we think it hardly necessary to quote, as numberless tables of this kind may be found in Sir J. Sinclair's *Statistical Account of Scotland*. We shall therefore only mention, that Mr Deham states the proportion of births to marriages in London as 1 to 4; in England in general, as 1 to 4.63; in Ayrshire, Northamptonshire, as 1 to 6; in Bandedburg as 1 to 3.7; and in Paris as 1 to 4.7. Dr Price in a similar table makes the medium proportion of marriages to births, in Lincolnshire as 1 to 3.7; in Madaira, as 1 to 4.68; in Paris as 1 to 4.7; in A. Bardum as 1 to 1.9; in Copenhagen as 1 to 3.64; in Berlin as 1 to 3.9; and in the Vaud, as 1 to 3.9.

(18.) MARRIAGES, PROPORTION OF, TO DEATHS, &c. For an account of the numbers of married men and married women, and of widows and widowers, who died for a course of years at Vienna, Breslaw, Dresden, Leipzig, Ratibon, and some other towns in Germany, see *Phil. Trans. Aër.* Vol. VII. Part IV. p. 46, &c. The reader may find many curious calculations and remarks on this subject in Dr Price's excellent work entitled; *Observations on Reversionary Payments*. Mr Kerneboom informs us, that, during the course of 125 years in Holland, females have in all accidents of age lived about 3 or 4 years longer than the same number of males. In several towns of Germany, &c. it appears, that of 7270 married persons who had died, the proportion of married men who died to the married women was 3 to 2; and in Breslaw for 8 years, as 5 to 3. In Pomerania, during 9 years, from 1748 to 1756, this proportion was nearly 15 to 11. Among the ministers and professors in Scotland, 20 married men die to 12 married women, at a medium of 17 years, or in the proportion of 5 to 3; so that there is the chance of 3 to 2, and in some circumstances even a greater chance, that the woman shall be the survivor of a marriage, and not the man; and this difference cannot be accounted for merely by the difference of age between men and their wives, without admitting the greater mortality of males. In the district of Vaud in Switzerland, it appears, that half the females do not die till the age of 46 and upwards, though half the males die under 36. It is likewise an indisputable fact, that in the beginning of life, the rate of mortality among males is much greater than among females. From a table formed by Dr Price, from a register kept for 20 years at Grandborough, it appears, that of those who live to 50, the major part, in the proportion of 49 to 32, are females. Mr Deparcieux at Paris, and Mr Wargentin in Sweden, have farther observed, that not only women live longer than men, but that married women live longer than single women. From some registers examined by Mr Muret in Switzerland, it appears, that of equal numbers of single and married women between 15 and 25, more of the former died than of the latter, in the proportion of 2 to 1. With respect to the difference between the mortality of males and females, it is much less in country parishes and villages than in towns; and hence it is inferred, that the difference arises from adventitious causes, that take place in luxurious societies, especially in great towns. See farther on this subject under the articles, ANNUITIES, and SURVIVORSHIP.

\* MARRIAGEABLE. *adj.* [from *marriage*.] 1. Fit for wedlock; of age to be married.—Every wedding, one with another, produces four children, and that is the proportion of children which any marriageable man or woman may be presumed shall have. *Grant*.—I am the father of a young heiress, whom I begin to look upon as marriageable. *Sp. B.*—When the girls are 12 years old, which is the marriageable age, their parents take them home. *Swift*. 2. Capable of union.—

They led the vine  
To wed her elm; she spous'd about him twines  
Her marriageable vines.  
*Milton.*

\* MAK.

\* **MARRIED**, *adj.* [from *marry*.] Conjugal: consubial.—

Thus have you shun'd the *marry'd* state.

*Dryden.*

**MARRO**, a river of Naples in Calabria.

(1.) \* **MARROW**, *n. f.* [*mergh*, Saxon; *meirr*, Erse; *mergh*, Scottish.]—All the bones of the body which have any considerable thickness have either a large cavity, or they are spongy, and full of little cells; in both the one and the other there is an oleaginous substance called *marrow*, contained in proper vesicles or membranes, like the fat: in the larger bones this fine oil, by the gentle heat of the body is exhaled through the pores of its small bladders, and enters some narrow passages, which lead to some fine canals excavated in the substance of the bone, that the *marrow* may supply the fibres of the bones, and render them less apt to break. *Quincy*.—

Would he were wasted, *marrow*, bones, and all,

That from his loins no hopeful branch may spring.

*Shak.*

—The skull hath brains as a kind of *marrow* within it: the back bone hath one kind of *marrow*, and other bones of the body have another: the jaw bones have no *marrow* severed, but a little pulp of marrow diffused. *Bacon*.—

Famper'd and edify'd their zeal

With *marrow* puddings many a meal. *Hudibr.*

He bit the dart, and wrench'd the wood away,

The point still buried in the *marrow* lay. *Ovid.*

(2.) **MARROW**. See **ANATOMY**, *Index*.

(3.) \* **MARROW**, in the Scottish dialect, to this day, denotes a fellow, companion, or associate; as also equal match, *be met with his marrow*. [*marri*, husband, French].—

Though buying and selling doth wonderful well,

Yet chopping and changing I cannot commend  
With this for his *marrow* for fear of ill end.

*T. Asser.*

\* **MARROWBONE**, *n. f.* [*bone* and *marrow*.] 1. Bone boiled for the marrow. 2. In burlesque language the knees.—Upon this he fell down upon his *marrowbones*, and begged of Jupiter to give him a pair of horns. *L'Esfrange*.—Down on your *marrowbones*, upon your allegiance; and make an acknowledgment of your offences; for I will have ample satisfaction. *Dryden*.

\* **MARROWFAT**, *n. f.* A kind of pea.

\* **MARROWLESS**, *adj.* [from *marrow*.] Void of marrow.—

Thy bones are *marrowless*.

*Shak.*

**MARRUBIUM**, WHITE HOREHOUND; a genus of the gymnospermia order, belonging to the dicynania class of plants; and in the natural method ranking under the 42d order, *Ferticillate*. The calyx is salver-shaped, rigid, and ten-ribbed; the upper lip of the corolla bi-lobed, linear, and straight. There are 9 species, the most remarkable of which is the

**MARRUBIUM VULGARE**, a native of Britain, growing naturally in waste places, and by waysides near towns and villages, but not common. It has a strong and somewhat stinky smell, and bitter taste. It is reputed attenuant and resolvent; an infusion of the leaves in water, sweetened with

honey, is recommended in asthmatical and plethoric complaints, and most other diseases of the breast and lungs.

(1.) \* **To MARRY**, *v. n.* [*marier*, Fr. *marire*, Latin.] 1. To join a man and a woman; as performing the rite.—What! shall the curate controul me? Tell him, that he shall *marry* the couple himself. *Gay's* *Wit and* *Call it*. 2. To dispose of in marriage.—When Augustus consulted with Mecenas about the marriage of his daughter Julia, Mecenas took the liberty to tell him, that he must either *marry* his daughter to Agrippa, or take away his life: there was no third way he made him so great. *Bacon*. 3. To take for husband or wife.—

You'd think it strange if I should *marry* him.

*Shak.*

—As a mother shall she meet him, and receive him as a wife *married* of a virgin. *Beesley*, xv. 2.

(2.) \* **To MARRY**, *v. n.* To enter into the conjugal state.—

He hath my good will,

And none but he, to *marry* with Nan Page.

*Shak.*

—Let them *marry* to whom they think best. *Nam xxxvi. 6*.—Virgil concludes with the death of Turnus; for after that difficulty was removed, *Eneas* might *marry*, and establish the Trojans. *Dryden*.

(1.) **MARS**, in astronomy; one of the six planets, and of the four superior ones; its place being between the earth and Jupiter. See **ASTRONOMY**, *Index*.

(2.) **MARS**, in mythology, the god of war. He was, according to some; the son of Jupiter and Juno; while others say that he was the son of Jano alone, who, being displeas'd at Jupiter's having produced Minerva from his brain, without female aid, in revenge conceived without the assistance of the other sex, by touching a flower shown to her by Flora in the plains of Oenone, and became the mother of this formidable deity. The amours of Mars and Venus, and the manner in which Vulcan caught and expos'd them to the laughter of the other gods, have been described by several of the ancient poets. He is represented as having several wives and mistresses, and a considerable number of children. He was held in the highest veneration by the Romans, both from his being the reputed father of Romulus their founder, and from their inclination to conquest; and had magnificent temples erected to him at Rome. Mars is usually represented in a chariot, drawn by furious horses. He is completely armed, and extends his spear with the one hand, and grasps a sword, imbrued in blood, with the other. He has a fierce and savage aspect. Discord is represented preceding his car; and Clamour, Fear, and Terror, appear in his train. The victims sacrificed to him were the wolf, the horse, the wood-pecker, the vulture, and the cock.

(3.) **MARS**, among alchemists, denotes iron; that metal being supposed to be under the influence of the planet Mars.

(4.) **MARS**, in geography, or **MARS LA TOUR**, a town of France, in the dep. of Moselle, 11 miles W. of Metz.

**MARSA**, a town of Tunis, 10 m. NE. of Tunis. **MARSAC**.

MARSAC, a town of France, in the dep. of Puy de Dome; 6 miles S. of Ambert, and 30 N. of Puy.

MARSAL, a town of France, in the dep. of Lower Charente; 18 miles E. of Surgere.

MARSAIS, Cesar Cheneau DU, was born at Marseilles in 1576. He became a member of the congregation of the oratory, but soon left it; went to Paris, married, became advocate, and, in this new profession, met with great success. Disappointed, however, in his expectations of making a speedy fortune, he abandoned the law also. About this time the peevish humour of his wife, (perhaps of both,) occasioned a separation. He next became tutor in several genteel families; particularly in those of President de Maissions, the famous John Law, and the marquis of Beautremont. After this he kept a boarding academy, but fell into such adverse circumstances, that he was at last reduced to extreme indigence. In this situation he was found by the editors of the *Encyclopedie*, and made a partner in conducting that great work; for which he wrote the article *Grammar*, and several others. The Count of Lauraguais was so much affected with the discourse, and so much convinced of the merit of *Du Marsais*, that he procured him a pension of 1000 livres. Du Marsais died at Paris, June 11, 1756, in his 80th year, after he had received the sacrament. As he had professed to be a deist during his lifetime, the sincerity of his conversion on his death-bed has been doubted: But as Mr Bayle observes, "The faith of a great genius is not totally extinguished: It is like a spark under the ashes. Reflection and the prospect of danger call forth its exertions. There are certain situations in which *philosophers* are as full of anxiety and remorse as other men." Fontenelle expressed his character in few words, when he said, "that he was the most lively simpliciton, and as a man of wit the most simple he ever knew." He was a great enemy to every kind of affectation. His principal works are, 1. *Exposition de la doctrine de l'Eglise Gallicane par rapportaux principes de la Cour de Rome*, 12mo. This did not appear till after his death. 2. *Exposition d'une methode raisonnee pour apprendre la langue Latine*, 12mo, 1722, 3vo. 3. *Traite des troques*, 1750, 8vo; reprinted in 1771, 12mo. 4. *Les veritables Principes de la Grammaire raisonnee pour apprendre la langue Latine*, 1790, 4to. There was only the preface of this work published, in which he introduced the greatest part of his *Method raisonnee*. 5. *Judice de la fable du Pere Jacobini*, arranged after the manner of the original plan, 1731, 12mo. 6. *Logique, ou reflexions sur les operations de l'esprit*. It was reprinted at Paris, in two parts, together with the articles which he had written for the *Encyclopedie*, 1762. He also wrote some tracts of less merit, in favour of scepticism.

MARSAL, a town of France, in the dep. of the Meurthe, and late province of Lorraine, remarkable for its salt-works, seated in a marsh on the river Sille, of difficult access, which, together with the fortifications, render it an important place. Lon. 6. 41. E. Lat. 45. 46. N.

(1) MARSALA, an ancient and strong town of Sicily, in the valley of Mazara. It is well peopled,

and built on the ruins of the ancient LILYBEUM. Lon. 12. 37. E. Lat. 37. 52. N.

(2) MARSALA, a river of Sicily which runs into the sea about a mile S. of the town.

MARSAN, or MONT MARSAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Landes, and ci-devant province of Gascony. Late capital of a small territory so named, fertile in wine; seated on the Miduse. Lon. 6. 23. W. Lat. 43. 54. N.

MARSANDERAN, a province of Persia, on the Caspian Sea. Farabad is the capital.

MARSANNE, a town of France, in the dep. of the Drome; 9 miles SW. of Crest.

MARSAQUIVER, or MARSAQUIVER, a strong and ancient town of Africa, on the coast of Barbary, in the province of Beni-Arax, and kingdom of Tremeseu, with one of the best harbours in Africa. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1732. It is seated on a rock near a bay of the sea. Lon. 6. 10. W. Lat. 35. 40. N.

MARSCH, a river of Moravia and Austria, which runs into the Danube, 6 miles W. of Presburg.

MARSEILLAN, a town of France, in the dep. of Herault, 4 miles NE. of Agde, and 8 SE. of Pezenas.

MARSEILLE, a town of France, in the dep. of Oise; 104 miles NW. of Beauvais.

MARSEILLES, a strong and rich sea-port town of France, in the dep. of the Mouths of the Rhone, and late prov. of Provence. It has a good harbour, where the French galleys were formerly stationed; but it will not admit large men of war. The entrance of the harbour, which is extremely narrow and surrounded by lofty mountains, protects and shelters vessels during the most violent storms. The port itself forms a delightful walk even in the middle of winter, as it is open to the southern sun, and crowded with vast numbers of people, not only of all the European nations, but of Turks, Greeks, and natives of the coast of Barbary. The whole scene is one of the most agreeable that can be imagined. Martialis boys claim to the most remote antiquity; a colony of Phocian, in ages unknown, having founded it. It is divided into the Old and New Towns, which are separated by a street, bordered with trees on each side. The Old Town is one of the worst built of any in Europe. The New has sprung up since the commencement of the 12th century, and has all that regularity, elegance, and convenience, which distinguish the present times. It is said to contain 100,000 inhabitants, and is one of the most trading towns in France. Without the walls is the castle of Notre-Dame, which is very well fortified. It has an academy, and has been noted at all times for men of learning. In 1553, Lewis XIV. built the citadel and fort St. John to keep the inhabitants in awe, because they pretended to be free. The Jesuits had a very fine observatory, and in the arsenal there are arms for 20,000 men. In the House of Deputies they weave gold, silver, and silk brocades. Drugs are brought thither from all parts of the world. It is seated on the N. shore of the Mediterranean, in Lon. 4. 27. E. Lat. 43. 18. N.

(1) MARSH, Narcissus, a very learned and accomplished

completed prelate, born at Hannington in Wiltshire, in 1638. He was made principal of St Alban's hall, Oxford, in 1693; provost of Dublin college in 1678; bishop of Leighlin and Ferns in 1682; archbishop of Cashel in 1690; of Dublin in 1694, and of Armagh in 1703. He built a public library in Dublin, filled it with choice books and settled a provision for 2 librarians. He repaired, at his own expence, several decayed churches, besides buying in many impropriations, and presenting a great number of oriental MSS. to the Bodleian library. He was well versed in sacred and profane literature, in mathematics, natural philosophy, languages, especially the oriental, and music. He published, 1. *Institutiones logicae*. 2. *Manuductio ad logicam*, written by Philip de Trier; to which he added the Greek text of Aristotle, and some tables and schemes. 3. An introductory essay on the doctrine of sounds, &c. He died in 1713.

(1.) \* MARSH, MARK, MAS, are derived from the Saxon *marfe*, a fen, or fensty place. *Gibson*.

(2.) \* MARSH. *n. f.* *marfe*, Saxon. See MARISH. A fen; a bog; a swamp; a watry tract, of land.—

In their courses make that round,

In meadows and in *marshes* found. *Drayton*.  
—Worms for colour and shape, alter even as the ground out of which they are got; as the *marsh* worm and the flag worm. *Walton*.—We may see in more temperate climates greater variety in the people thereof; the up-lands in England yield strong, sinewy, hardy men; the *marsh*-lands, men, of large and high stature. *Hales*.—Your low meadows and *marsh*-lands you need not lay up till April, except the Spring be very wet, and your *marshes* very poachy. *Mortimer*.

(4.) MARSH signifies a piece of ground flooded with water, yet so that the grass and other vegetables rise above the surface of the water, and, by their decaying, give rise to putrid effluvia, which are very pernicious to health. See MOSS.

(1.) \* MARSHAL. *n. f.* *marſchal*, Fr. *marſchallus*, low Lat. from *marſchal*, old Fr. a word compounded of *mare*, which, old French, signified a horse, and *ſchal*, a sort of servant; one that has the charge of horses. 1. The chief officer of arms.—

The duke of Suffolk claims

To be high steward; next the duke of Norfolk  
To be earl *marshal*. *Shak.*

2. An officer who regulates combats in the lists.—

Unask'd the royal grant; no *marshal* by,

As kingly rites require, nor judge to try. *Dryd.*

3. Any one who regulates rank or order at a feast, or any other assembly.

Through the hall there walked to and fro

A jolly yeoman, *marshal* of the same,

Whose name was Appetite. *Fairy Queen*.

4. An harbiager; a pursuivant; one who goes before a prince to declare his coming, and provide entertainment.—Her face, when it was fair, fit, had been but as a *marshal* to lodge the love of her in his mind. *Sidney*.

(2.) MARSHAL, or MARESCAL, (*marſcallus*) primarily denotes an officer who has the care of the command of horses.—Nicoi derives the word

from *polemaribus* i. e. *maſter of the camp*; *Stethew Paris* from *Marſis ſeneſcallus*. In the old Gauliſh language, *marſch* ſignified *baſe*; whence *marſchal* might ſignify *ſub-ſecondo commando the cavalry*. Other derivations have been given by different authors; and the name itſelf has been applied to officers of very different employments.

(3.) MARSHAL OF ENGLAND, EARL, is the 2d great officer of ſtate. This office, until it was made hereditary, always paſſed by grant from the king, and never was held by tenure or ſerjeanty (by any ſubject) as the offices of lord high ſteward and lord high conſtable were ſometimes held. The title is perſonal, the office honorary and officary. They were formerly ſtyled *lord marshal* only, until king Richard II, June 20, 1397, granted letters patent to Thomas Mowbray, earl of Nottingham, and to the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name and ſtyle of *earl marshal*; and further, gave them power to bear in their hand a gold truncheon, enamelled with black at each end; having at the upper end of it the king's arms engraved thereon, and at the lower end his own arms. See CAVALRY.

(4.) MARSHAL OF FRANCE, was the highest & devout dignity of preference in the French armies, under the old monarchy. It was for this, though at its first institution it was otherwise.

(5.) MARSHAL OF SCOTLAND, EARL. His office was to command the cavalry, whereas the CONSTABLE commanded the whole army. They seem, however, to have had a sort of joint command, as of old all orders were addressed "to our constable and marſchal." The office of earl marſchal has never been out of the noble family of Keith. It was reserved at the union; and when the heritable jurisdictions were bought, it was in the crown, being forfeited by the rebellion of Geo. Keith, earl marſchal, in 1711.

(6.) MARSHAL OF THE EXCHEQUER, an officer mentioned by Fleta, to whom the court commits the custody of the king's debtors, &c.

(7.) MARSHAL OF THE KING'S BENCH, an officer who has custody of the prison called the *King's Bench* in Southwark.—He gives attendance upon the court, and takes into his custody all prisoners committed by the court; he is answerable for his absence, and non-attendance incurs a forfeiture of his office. The power of appointing the marshal of the king's bench is in the crown.

(8.) MARSHAL OF THE KING'S HOUSE, or KNIGHT MARSHAL, an English officer, whose business, according to Fleta, is to execute the commands and decrees of the lord steward, and to have the custody of prisoners committed by the court of verge. Under him are six marshal's men, who are properly the king's bailiffs, and attend in the verge of the court, when a warrant is backed by the board of green-cloth. The court when causes of this kind, between man and man, are tried, is called the *Marſhalſea*, and is under the knight marshal. See MARSHALSEA. This is so the name of the prison in Southwark; the reason of which may probably be, that the marshal of the king's house was wont to sit there in judgment, or keep his prison.

